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„The importance and use of extensive reading by means of language learner literature in *Unterstufe*
–
A field study in *Hauptschule* and *Gymnasium* in the districts of Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land“

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Christine Alt

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ABSTRACT

Extensive reading, which is also known as pleasure reading, is an important component in the development of second or foreign language learning. Reading a large amount does not only affect reading ability itself but also other areas of language competence, such as vocabulary and writing. In order to practise extensive reading at an elementary and intermediate language level, it is necessary to introduce learners to adapted or simplified texts, which are known as *language learner literature* and may serve as steps towards reading original works. A variety of publishing houses offers a wide range of high quality texts, which are graded regarding vocabulary, grammar and syntax. The problem, however, is that in Austrian School curricula extensive reading is not included as a compulsory activity. Thus, its actual use is – to a large part – dependent on the teacher and the school.

This thesis intends to demonstrate the importance of extensive reading by means of language learner literature. A field study which was carried out amongst EFL teachers by means of a questionnaire in two Upper Austrian districts examined whether and how language learner literature is actually used at lower secondary level.

In *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule*, extensive reading as well as intensive reading is practised. Teachers in *Gymnasium*, however, use language learner literature more frequently than teachers in *Hauptschule*. Generally, the use of language learner literature increases with increasing language level of the pupils, in terms of years at school as well as in terms of *Leistungsgruppen* in *Hauptschulen*. Interestingly, the most frequently stated reason for not using language learner literature is insufficient language competence. As language learner literature is designed to solve the problem of lack of language competence, it will be interesting to look at other reasons which may contribute to the decision of not using simple texts in *Unterstufe.* Furthermore, the differences in classroom practice between *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* will be discussed in the empirical part.

It is necessary to remind teachers about the importance of introducing extensive reading to the pupils, as they do not seem to be fully aware of its benefits. There are definitely materials available for beginning language learners and thus extensive reading could be introduced at a very elementary language level. As extensive reading should be fostered as an out-of-class learning strategy, as a follow-up of the study, a booklet with the results and suggestions for a better implementation of extensive reading will be compiled and sent to the teachers.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Das extensive Lesen, wobei das Lesen ein Vergnügen darstellen soll, gilt als wichtiges Hilfsmittel im Fremdsprachenerwerb. Das Lesen längerer Texte hat nicht nur positive Auswirkungen auf die Lesefähigkeit selbst, sondern auch auf andere Bereiche der Sprachkompetenz, wie zum Beispiel Wortschatz, schriftliche Produktion etc. Um das extensive Lesen auch im Anfängerunterricht nutzen zu können, ist es notwendig den LernerInnen adaptierte oder vereinfachte Texte vorzustellen, welche im Englischen als *language learner literature* bekannt sind. Diese Texte dienen dem schrittweisen Heranführen der LeserInnen an Originaltexte für MuttersprachlerInnen. Eine Reihe von Verlagen bietet eine breite Produktpalette an Texten von hoher Qualität, die bezüglich Wortschatz, Grammatik und Syntax vereinfacht wurden. Das Problem jedoch liegt darin, dass das extensive Lesen im österreichischen Lehrplan keinen Pflichtcharakter hat, was die tatsächliche Praxis weitgehend lehrerInnen- und schulabhängig macht.

Diese Diplomarbeit beabsichtigt, die Wichtigkeit des extensiven Lesens zu zeigen, ihre Wurzeln mit fachdidaktischen Theorien zu begründen und ihre positiven Auswirkungen auf den Spracherwerb zu betonen. Sie präsentiert die Ergebnisse einer Umfrage unter EnglischlehrerInnen über ihre Meinung und ihre Praxis im Umgang mit *language learner literature* in der Unterstufe.

In beiden Schultypen, also Gymnasium und Hauptschule, wird sowohl das intensive als auch das extensive Lesen praktiziert. Dennoch wird aus den Ergebnissen deutlich, dass im Gymnasium häufiger *language learner literature* verwendet wird als in der Hauptschule. Allgemein kann man feststellen, dass der Einsatz dieser vereinfachten Texte mit steigender Sprachkompetenz zunimmt. Und zwar nicht nur wenn man an die Jahrgangsstufen in der Schule denkt, sondern auch bezüglich der Leistungsgruppen in den Hauptschulen. Überraschenderweise ist eine ungenügende Sprachkompetenz der meistgenannte Grund, warum LehrerInnen keine vereinfachten Langtexte einsetzen können. Da diese Texte genau aus diesem Grund publiziert werden, ist es interessant weitere Gründe, warum es schwierig ist, extensives Lesen in den Unterricht in der Unterstufe einzubinden, zu erfahren. Weiters werden im empirischen Teil die Unterschiede in der Unterrichtspraxis zwischen Gymnasium und Hauptschule näher erläutert.

Es ist notwendig die LehrerInnen an die Wichtigkeit des extensiven Lesens zu erinnern, da seine positiven Auswirkungen von vielen Lehrkräften nach wie vor unterschätzt werden dürften. Es gibt durchaus Material auch für Anfänger im

Sprachlernen und dadurch könnte das extensive Lesen bereits in einem sehr frühen Sprachlernstadium eingeführt werden. Da es weiters als *out-of-class learning strategy* gilt, ist es nun als Feedback für die TeilnehmerInnen wichtig, die Resultate über die tatsächliche Praxis des extensiven Lesens zu informieren und Ihnen Tipps zu geben, wie sie das extensive Lesen besser im Unterricht verankern können.

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1 INTRODUCTION

“The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is read to extensively in it” (Nuttall 1982: 168). Reading is one of the leisure activities which has captivated generations of children during the last centuries. Apart from the pleasure, which may be derived from reading, also language learning environments may benefit from extensive reading. Bamford and Day, however, claim "that students do not actually read very much" (Bamford & Day 1997: n.p.), as "[i]n many EFL situations, English is, more often than not, learnt as an examination subject rather than a tool for life" (Yang 2007: 116). As for foreign language teaching,

> reading is usually divided into two types: Intensive Reading and Extensive Reading. Intensive Reading has traditionally been the more common choice for teaching reading in a classroom situation. In Intensive Reading, short texts are used '…to learn new vocabulary, to look at text organization, to help (learners) discover and develop reading skills, and so on' (Waring, 1997, p. 12) (Jarrell 2003: 200-201).

Although intensive reading may be a popular choice amongst foreign language teachers, the focus of this paper will be on extensive reading.

Regarding reading from a cognitive perspective, it can be defined as "the construction of meaning from a printed or written message" (Day & Bamford 1998: 12). What - at first glance - sounds so simple is in fact a very complex process happening within the human brain and body. Although this difficult process will not be examined in this paper, it is important at this point to refer to the close relationship between reading in L1 and L2. The construction of meaning in the course of this complex process does not only occur in reading one's mother tongue but also in reading texts in a foreign language. Alderson & Urquhart, for instance, state that "[they] do not, and indeed find it difficult to, draw a clear distinction between first and foreign language reading" (Alderson & Urquhart 1984: xv). Thus, the process within the human mind seems to be very similar if not identical for first and foreign language reading.

In at least one respect reading can be compared to many other things in our daily life: the easier they are, the more pleasant they are. Whether reading is regarded "a serious, difficult process, requiring hard work and disciplined effort" (Elley 1992: 77, quoted in Day & Bamford 1998: 7) or a task fulfilled with ease and pleasure largely depends on the individual student's reading ability. "In other terms, reading is no different from other learned human abilities such as driving, cooking, playing golf, or riding a bicycle: the more you do it, the more fluent and skilful you become" (Bamford & Day 1997: n.p.).

Following this statement one can distinguish between more skilful and less skilful readers, or to use Nuttall's terminology: between trained and untrained readers. To illustrate the difference between them Nuttall created two opposing figures[1]. She distinguishes between "[t]he vicious circle of the weak reader" (Nuttall 1982: 167) and "[t]he virtuous circle of the good reader" (Nuttall 1982: 168). The former is explained as follows (see Figure 1). If a person reads very slowly it is unlikely that he or she will enjoy reading. The result will be a small amount of reading. Reading little implies little reading practice, which makes it difficult to understand texts. Thus, he or she will continue to read slowly[2].

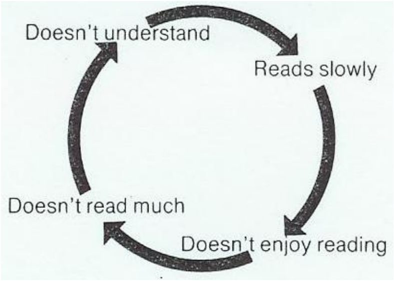

Figure 1: The vicious circle of the weak reader (Nuttall 1982: 167)

In contrast to "[t]he vicious circle of the weak reader" (Nuttall 1982: 167), there also exists "[t]he virtuous circle of the good reader" (Nuttall 1982: 168) (see Figure 2).

> [S]peed, enjoyment and comprehension are closely linked with one another and with the amount of practice a reader gets. Any of the factors could provide the key that will get us out of the vicious circle and into the virtuous one; but the most hopeful, I think, is enjoyment, closely followed by quantity (Nuttall 1982: 167).

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[1] cf. Nuttall 1982: 167-168.
[2] cf. Nuttall 1982: 167.

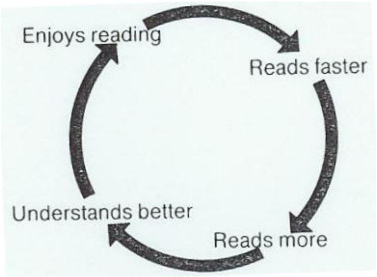

Figure 2: The virtuous circle of the good reader (Nuttall 1982: 168)

Nuttall claims that a weak reader is not forced to remain a weak reader for life. In other words, Nuttall is convinced that there is a possibility for escaping the destiny of being a weak reader and converting oneself into a good one. Teachers "want […] [their] students to be able to read better: fast and with full understanding. To do this they need to read more" (Nuttall 1982: 168). The two most auspicious factors for a change are first, a positive attitude towards reading and second, starting to read a lot, which entails improvement in all the other factors.

Bearing in mind the two figures above, it can be concluded that, in order to make reading fun for students, it is important for them to be able to read without much effort, which also entails a certain speed. This can only be achieved through abundant practice. Practising reading supports the development of the following three constituents which are necessary for reading fluently[3]:

- a large sight vocabulary;
- a wide general vocabulary; and
- knowledge of the target language, the world and text types (Day & Bamford 1998: 16).

First of all, developing "a large sight vocabulary" (Day & Bamford 1998: 16) can be achieved by repeatedly encountering words until they are "automatically recognized in their printed form" (Day & Bamford 1998: 16). To enable aforesaid automatic recognition, a large part of the written input must be at the level "'*i minus 1*' where '*i*' is the student's current level of acquisition" (Day & Bamford 1998: 16). Thus, one prerequisite for reading fluently is the practice of already known structures with the aim of considerably increasing the amount of sight vocabulary. The second condition is the development of general vocabulary knowledge.

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[3] cf. Day & Bamford 1998: 16-19.

> In first language reading, […] the larger children's vocabularies are, the better their comprehension. […] Given our position that, from a cognitive point of view, there is no essential difference between fluent first and second language reading, the need for a large vocabulary is equally true in fluent second language reading (Day & Bamford 1998: 17).

Obviously, if students possess a large vocabulary knowledge it is easier for them to grasp the general message of a text because of the higher understanding of individual words of a sentence. Additionally, there is the possibility for acquiring new words from the context incidentally[4]. The last important ingredient for fluent reading is the development of different knowledge types. Day & Bamford claim that "linguistic, world, and topical knowledge" (Day & Bamford 1998: 19) of foreign language learners may be increased by reading in the foreign language. Thus, knowledge is important in two ways: on the one hand, it is a prerequisite for fluent reading, and on the other hand, through the reading process further knowledge is acquired and connected to the already existing knowledge.

Of course, none of the three components presented above is to be seen as separated from all the others, as "their development is interrelated" (Day & Bamford 1998: 19). Together, they create a full image of what is needed for a high reading ability.

To introduce the topic of extensive reading at this point: extensive reading is related to fluent reading in two ways: on the one hand, fluent reading can be developed by extensive reading. On the other hand, a minimal existence of reading fluency is a prerequisite for extensive reading. To put it differently, a certain amount of all three components is necessary in order to enable students to read extensively and when they practise extensive reading all three abilities are steadily improved. The following quote nicely illustrates the fascination which may be exerted by extensive reading:

> Reading for pleasure is an extraordinary activity. The black squiggles on the white page are still as the grave, colorless as the moonlit desert; but they give the skilled reader a pleasure as acute as the touch of a loved body, as rousing, colorful and transfiguring as anything out there in the real world (Day & Bamford 1998: 31).

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[4] cf. Bamford & Day 1997: 17-18.

2 ALL ABOUT EXTENSIVE READING

In order to provide a full explanation of a concept like extensive reading, giving a concise definition is only a first step. Further – and perhaps more efficient – steps would be, firstly, the collection and examination of its synonyms, secondly, contrasting extensive reading to its opposite, namely intensive reading, and thirdly, considering the guidelines for a successful extensive reading programme. All those four possibilities will be explained in the following sub-chapter.

2.1 TERMINOLOGY , DEFINITIONS AND CONTRASTING CONCEPTS

Terminology

As extensive reading has been the scope of research for nearly one century, a multitude of contributions from various scholars exists. Extensive reading has been the interest of numerous linguists and first or foreign language teaching experts, therefore this concept has been referred to by various terms. Arguably the most important – besides *extensive reading* by Harold Palmer[5] – are *pleasure reading* by Beatrice Mikulecky and Stephen Krashen[6], *free voluntary reading* and *sustained silent reading (SSR)*[7] or *uninterrupted sustained silent reading (USSR)*[8] by Stephen Krashen, *abundant reading* by the Modern Language Association of America[9] and, finally, *reading for fluency* by Christopher Brumfit[10].

All of these synonyms give – more or less subtle – hints to the nature of extensive reading. None, however, provides a full understanding of the concept. Summarising the properties mentioned, one can say that the process of reading shall be for pleasure, voluntary, sustained, extensive, silent, fluent and uninterrupted. Obviously, a term designating a concept can never explain the whole nature of it, but only a small part because a term is defined as "a name, expression, or word used for some particular thing, esp[ecially] in a specialized field of knowledge" (Butterfield et al. 2003: 1664). It becomes obvious that important aspects of the concept are missing when only terminology is examined. There is a need for a more detailed description of extensive reading, such as information about quantity, reading materials, instruction and information gained. Provided that a researcher chooses only the one property to denominate a whole concept which he/she considers most important, the first discrepancies become obvious: for the different researchers different properties seem to be most important.

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[5] cf. Day & Bamford 1998: 5.
[6] cf. Bamford & Day 1997: n.p. and Krashen 1982.
[7] cf. Bamford & Day 1997: n.p.
[8] cf. Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.
[9] cf. Day & Bamford 1998: 5.
[10] cf. Brumfit 1977, quoted in Nuttall 1982: 23.

Harold Palmer, who is regarded an expert and innovator in modern language teaching, "first appl[ied] the term *extensive reading* in foreign language pedagogy" (Day & Bamford 1998: 5). "[H]e selected 'extensive' from the multitude of synonyms previously used to convey similar ideas'" (Day & Bamford 1998: 5). As Day & Bamford's book *Extensive reading in the second language classroom* serves as starting-point for this thesis and because *extensive reading* is the most frequently mentioned term in research literature, it has been chosen as the predominant term for denominating this concept in the course of the whole paper.

Definitions

"Just as it is hard to find a name for extensive reading that satisfies everyone, it is hard to reduce it to a dictionary-type definition" (Day & Bamford 1998: 7). Helgesen dares the seemingly impossible and defines extensive reading within one single sentence: "Extensive reading can be defined as: Students reading a lot of easy, enjoyable books" (Helgesen 2005a, quoted in Helgesen 2005b: 25). Hafiz & Tudor add some essential points and say that extensive reading is "the reading of large amounts of material in the second language (L2) for personal pleasure or interest, and without the addition of productive tasks or follow-up language work" (Hafiz & Tudor 1989: 4). Thus, in contrast to Helgesen, who does not seem to make a difference between first or foreign language, Hafiz & Tudor limit extensive reading to the second language and add the essential properties of it being for pleasure and for the sake of reading. When providing the following definition in the *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics,* Richards et al. also attempt to summarise the core properties of extensive reading*:*

> In language teaching, reading activities are sometimes classified as extensive and intensive. Extensive reading means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading. Intensive reading is generally at a slower speed, and requires a higher degree of understanding than extensive reading (Richards et al. 1995: 133).

This definition offers even more valuable information on extensive reading, namely some of its properties such as "reading in quantity", "gain[ing] a general understanding" and "encourag[ing] a liking for reading". However, in contrast to the other two definitions presented before, it appears not to manage without introducing the opposite of extensive reading, namely intensive reading. By stressing the differences between the two types of reading the authors are able to highlight the properties of extensive reading. The fact that contrasting two opposing concepts can be even more revealing than providing a definition will be demonstrated subsequently.

Contrasting Concepts

As suggested above, contrasting a concept with its opposite is sometimes easier than explaining the concept itself. With extensive reading this seems to be the case as in the major part of secondary literature it is popular to employ a comparison of the concept of extensive reading to the concept of intensive reading. Already "Palmer chose the term extensive reading to distinguish it from intensive reading" (Bamford & Day 1997: n.p.). Bamford & Day continue that

> [t]he dichotomy is still a useful one. Intensive reading often refers to the careful reading (or translation) of shorter, more difficult foreign language texts with the goal of complete and detailed understanding. […] Extensive reading, in contrast, is generally associated with reading large amounts with the aim of getting an overall understanding of the material. Readers are more concerned with the meaning of the text than the meaning of individual words or sentences (Bamford & Day 1997: n.p.).

Another dichotomy suggested by Brumfit is *reading for accuracy* and *reading for fluency*[11], which he considers more appropriate denominations for intensive and extensive reading. Susser & Robb attempt to add even more details to the description of intensive reading: it

> implies close study of short passages, including syntactic, semantic, and lexical analyses and translation into the L1 to study meaning […] [and it] may be justified as a language lesson, but it may very well be counterproductive as a *reading* lesson (Susser & Rob 1990: n.p.).

Waring (2003a: n.p.) presents a very concise and clear overview of the differences between intensive and extensive reading, when he classifies the properties of both under seven different headings enabling a direct comparison (see Table 1). He has based the following table on Welch's recommendations of how to introduce extensive reading to a class of students[12].

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[11] cf. Brumfit 1977, quoted in Nuttall 1982: 23.

Intensive Reading		Extensive Reading
analysis of language	**LINGUISTIC FOCUS**	fluency, skill forming
usually difficult	**DIFFICULTY**	very easy
little	**AMOUNT**	a book a week
teacher selects	**SELECTION**	learner selects
all learners study the same material	**WHAT MATERIAL**	all learners read different things (something interesting to them)
in class	**WHERE**	mostly at home
checked by specific questions	**COMPREHENSION**	checked by reports / summaries

Table 1: Intensive vs. Extensive Reading (Waring 2003a: n.p.)

Waring – on basis of Welch (1997) suggests that extensive reading should be aiming at fluency and skill forming via the use of easy texts. The learners themselves are allowed to select the materials and read at least a book a week. The reading happens mostly at home and is then checked by reports or summaries. Intensive reading, in contrast, deals with the analysis of language of usually difficult material. The texts are not long and are selected by the teacher. The reading happens in class, all learners have the same text and comprehension is checked by specific questions directly by the teacher.

The presentation of the two concepts in opposition should, of course, not express the value of one and the uselessness of the other - thereby implying that only one or the other should be employed in the classroom. Quite the contrary, in order to create an optimal classroom situation for pupils, it is important to find a good balance between intensive and extensive reading, as both are valuable sources for language knowledge. As Nuttall says, "we shall try to bear in mind the requirements of both intensive and extensive reading, because both are important and each complements the other" (Nuttall 1982: 24).

2.2 SUCCESSFUL EXTENSIVE READING – GIVING GUIDELINES

As it turned out to be almost impossible to include all the properties of extensive reading in one concise definition without immediately establishing a comparison to intensive reading, two attempts have been made to develop the "Top Ten Principles for Teaching Extensive Reading" (Day & Bamford 2002: 136 and Prowse 2002: 142): by Richard Day & Julian Bamford on the one hand, and by Philip Prowse on the other hand. Both principles will firstly be outlined and subsequently be discussed with regard to similarities and discrepancies.

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[12] cf. Welch 1997: n.p.

Day & Bamford have decided to develop ten "characteristics that are found in successful extensive reading programs" (Day & Bamford 1998: 7) based on "the ten principles for teaching foreign language reading offered by Williams"[13] (Day & Bamford 2002: 140). For this paper the original version of their principles, published in *Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom* (1998) has been chosen, as content-wise their principles are the same as the more recent version published in 2002.

> 1. *Students read as much as possible*, perhaps in and definitely out of the classroom.
> 2. *A variety of materials on a wide range of topic is available* […].
> 3. *Students select what they want to read* and have the freedom to stop reading material that fails to interest them.
> 4. *The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding*. […]
> 5. *Reading is its own reward*. There are few or no follow-up exercises after reading.
> 6. *Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students* in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Dictionaries are rarely used […].
> 7. *Reading is individual and silent*, at the student's own pace, and, outside class, done when and where the student chooses.
> 8. *Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower* […].
> 9. *Teachers orient students to the goals of the program*, *explain* […], *keep track* […], and *guide* […].
> 10. *The teacher is a role model of a reader for students* […] (Day & Bamford 1998: 7-8).

With those ten principles Day & Bamford have found a rather concise form to present a good overview, which is both compact and nonetheless includes a variety of detailed practical guidelines for classroom implementation.

In his 2002 article, Prowse presented the following "Top Ten" list of principles for extensive reading.

> 1 – *Choice* […]
> 2 – *Ease* […]
> 3 – *Texts to engage with and to react to* […]
> 4 – *No comprehension questions* […]
> 5 – *Individual silent reading* […]
> 6 – *No dictionaries* […]

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[13] cf. Williams 1986.

> 7 – *Range of genres* […]
> 8 – *Use recordings* […]
> 9 – *No tests* […]
> 10 – *Teacher participation* […] (Prowse 2002: 142-143).

Although the formulation is quite different, the content of the two enumerations of principles is mostly congruent – almost identical – but Prowse (2002) has not included the following two suggestions, which are present in Day & Bamford's principles (1998):

- amount of reading to be done and
- fast reading speed

On the other hand, Prowse (2002) stresses the

- use of recordings,

which Day & Bamford (1998) have neglected in their enumeration. Prowse states that is important

> to stimulate reading by giving 'tasters', to get them into books when reading is impossible (eg in the car, our out running), to listen while reading to improve speed and pronunciation, and indeed to listen instead of reading (Prowse 2002: 144).

Both attempts were published in the year 2002 in the same issue of *Reading in a Foreign Language* and bear a striking resemblance in the understanding of extensive reading. Although Prowse claims not having read Day & Bamford’s principles before[14], it is difficult to judge if he might have read the book *Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom* by Day & Bamford– published in the year 1998 – where their Top Ten Principles had already been included. Thus, it is impossible to say whether Prowse’s principles incidentally correspond to a large extent to Day & Bamford’s or whether he has read about their ideas before and reformulated them according to his perception.

2.3 THE BENEFITS OF EXTENSIVE READING

"Practice makes perfect" states a saying, which is well-known all over the world. Applying this proverb on reading it would mean that practising extensive reading makes students’ reading perfect. It is, of course, problematic to speak of *perfect* reading, but it can be claimed that practice significantly improves students' reading. Additionally, apart from the positive influence on reading itself, it also affects other skills of foreign language learning. Mason claims that although there have been various empirical studies which have shown some beneficial effects of extensive reading on language learning, "many teachers are still uncertain about how effective it is" (Mason & Krashen 1997: 91). Three approaches to presenting the benefits of extensive reading on foreign language learning have been chosen from research literature and will be presented and compared subsequently.

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[14] cf. Prowse 2002: 142.

Firstly, Davis proposes the following four categories in which the benefits of extensive reading may be recognizable:

- [r]eading skills […]
- [l]anguage skills […]
- [p]ersonal growth […]
- [e]xaminations […] (Davis 1995: 330).

Secondly, also Day & Bamford's attempt to categorise the benefits of extensive reading. In their book *Extensive reading in the second language classroom* they attempt to summarise the results of existing empirical studies on the benefits of extensive reading programmes (1998: 32-39) (according to frequency in decreasing order):

- second language reading ability;
- affect;
- vocabulary;
- linguistic competence;
- writing; and
- spelling[15] (Day & Bamford 1998: 35).

Bell (1998: n.p.) suggests ten possible achievements, which should stress "the role of extensive reading in language learning" (Bell 1998: n.p.):

1. It can provide 'comprehensible input' […]
2. It can enhance learners' general language competence […]
3. It increases the students' exposure to the language […]
4. It can increase knowledge of vocabulary […]
5. It can lead to improvement in writing […]
6. It can motivate learners to read […]
7. It can consolidate previously learned language […]

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[15] cf. Day & Bamford 1998: 32-39.

8. It helps to build confidence with extended texts […]
9. It encourages the exploitation of textual redundancy […]
10. It facilitates the development of prediction skills […] (Bell 1998: n.p.).

To make those suggestions comparable, the following table provides an overview of the individual categories and their interrelation according to the distinct researchers (see Table 2).

Davis (1995: 330)	**Day & Bamford (1998: 32-39)**	**Bell (1998: n.p.)**
reading skills	L2 reading ability	exploitation of textual redundancy
		development of prediction skills
language skills	vocabulary	vocabulary
	linguistic competence	general language competence
	writing	writing
	spelling	previously learned language
personal growth	affect	motivate learners to read
		confidence with extended texts
examinations	---	---

Table 2: Comparison of the Potential Benefits of Extensive Reading

As one can see, Davis has covered all the categories suggested by the other researchers by presenting generic terms for them. What is interesting is that each of the three claims increases in reading skills. Following these results, "second [or foreign] language students, like first language children, learn to read by reading" (Day & Bamford 1998: 35) and learn to appreciate reading as an out-of-class activity. Not only the reading process itself seems to be rather similar in first and second or foreign language contexts (see Chapter 1) but also the development of fluent reading appears to work in an analogous way: the large amount of input in extensive reading has two advantages: first, it practises already known vocabulary and facilitates the development of sight vocabulary (see Chapter 1) and second, it enables the incidental acquisition of new words, which increases the student's vocabulary.

They also agree on the positive effects of extensive reading on language skills. Whereas Davis provides the generic term *language skills*, Day & Bamford as well as Bell, specify the areas in which developments have been observed, such as vocabulary, writing and spelling.

Furthermore, Davis suggests the categories of *personal growth* and *examinations*. Both are consequences of an improvement of language and reading skills and seem to be longitudinal consequences of practising extensive reading. Whereas Day & Bamford and Bell also report on progress in personal growth, they do not explicitly state better results in examinations.

The beneficial effects of extensive reading as described in this chapter may best be summed up by the motto which Day & Bamford suggested: "Reading gain without reading pain" (Day & Bamford 1998: 121).

2.4 READING MATERIALS AND CLASSROOM PROCEDURE

The Top Ten Principles (see Chapter 2.2) make reference to two distinct areas: the reading materials on the one hand, and the appropriate classroom procedure on the other hand. This division will be used subsequently for a further discussion of these two areas of didactic implementation of extensive reading.

The Reading Materials for Extensive Reading

As presented in chapter 2.2, the principles suggest that the reading materials employed should be of a variety of genres, at an appropriate language level and thereby inhibiting excessive dictionary use and it should definitely be self-selected. In this chapter four properties of materials will be outlined which are important to promote extensive reading.

In order to keep students motivated Day & Bamford propose a class library of "[b]ooks, magazines, newspapers, fiction, non-fiction, texts that inform, texts that entertain, general, specialized, light, serious [texts]" (Day & Bamford 2002: 137). According to Day & Bamford, the decisive factor in the choice of books has to be pupils' interest[16] as materials which are of interest to the pupils may significantly increase their motivation for reading[17]. Thus, a library of a variety of genres and topics is of particular importance because only then can it meet the interest of all pupils. Bearing in mind the virtuous circle created by Nuttall (see Chapter 1), pupils can become keen on reading by having interesting reading materials at their disposal. Furthermore,

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[16] cf. Day & Bamford 2000: n.p.
[17] cf. Williams 1986: 42.

> [v]aried reading material not only encourages reading, it also encourages a flexible approach to reading. Learners are led to read for different reasons (e.g., entertainment; information; passing the time) and, consequently, in different ways (e.g., skimming; scanning; more careful reading) (Day & Bamford 2002: 137).

Following this statement, extensive reading not only creates motivation for reading but also trains different reading strategies, such as skimming and scanning.

The second criterion for a successful class library is the existence of "a great variety of high-quality language learner literature […] of all ability levels" (Day & Bamford 2002: 137). Thus, another important factor is a wide range of materials at an appropriate language level. Particularly for language learners at beginning or intermediate level it is important to choose texts which do not contain "more than one or two unknown words per page" (Day & Bamford 2002: 137) as this may impede understanding. For more advanced learners the amount of unknown words is extended to five words per page[18]. Some researchers have tried to express the number of unknown words per page by percentages. Hu & Nation, for instance, state that 98% of the words in a text should be familiar to the student[19]. Laufer proposes a slightly smaller amount when she argues that "research suggests that learners need to be familiar with at least 95% of the running words in a text if they want to comprehend and thus perhaps learn from the text" (Laufer 1989, quoted in Nation 1997: n.p.). Discarding this insignificant divergence in percentages, for teaching practice this implies that in class it will hardly ever be possible to use materials which have originally been published for native speakers.

> For beginning and intermediate students […] the most suitable reading materials are books, magazines, and newspapers, especially those written for EFL learners. This literature is published in growing quantity, variety and sophistication by both local and global publishers (Day & Bamford 2000: n.p.).

Day & Bamford suggest the use of language learner literature (see Chapter 4) because the invention of graded materials facilitates the selection of reading materials which is at the individual learner's language level. Day & Bamford emphasise the fact that, apart from pupils' interest, another crucial factor for success in extensive reading is the level of the text[20] as "[g]etting EFL students to read extensively depends critically on what they read" (Day & Bamford 2000: n.p.), referring to both, topic and language level.

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[18] cf. Day & Bamford 2002: 137.
[19] cf. Day & Bamford 2002: 137.
[20] cf. Day & Bamford 2000: n.p.

A further important point closely related to the language level is the use of dictionaries. Choosing books at the right level may prevent students from overusing dictionaries because students often "have a tendency to exaggerate the importance of vocabulary" (Gremmo 1985: 82). For pupils who are not used to extensive reading it is often difficult to accept the condition of restricted dictionary use:

> they say that when they do not have a dictionary available, they do not know the meanings of all the words and when they do not understand every single word they claim to understand nothing at all (Gremmo 1985: 82).

As it is not essential to understand every single word, dictionary use shall be limited to those cases where the understanding of a word is absolutely necessary for a global understanding of the contents. Most researchers agree on the fact that the over-use of dictionaries inhibits fluent reading. Carroll emphasises that it is important "to persuade them to read as quickly as possible […] without stopping to look up unfamiliar words in a dictionary" (Carroll 1972: 180).

The last important property of the materials is that, in contrast to a class reader, where the whole group reads the same book, extensive reading also allows the students' free choice of materials regarding their interests and preferences. Students should choose materials in the second or foreign language in the same way as in their mother tongue[21]. Also Nuttall agrees on the importance of variation, when she states that a variety of texts should be available “in terms of content, language and intellectual maturity" (Nuttall 1982: 172). Davis points out that in the choice of materials the literary quality of a text is less important than the range and diversity available[22]. Another crucial factor of success in extensive reading seems to be "the [students'] freedom to stop reading material that fails to interest them" (Day and Bamford 1998: 8), and thus guaranteeing that reading is in fact a pleasurable and not a forced process. This establishes a parallel between extensive reading in a foreign language and pleasure reading in the pupils' mother tongue. Furthermore, the guideline about stopping to read materials also refers to the level of language – if a book is too difficult for individual students they are certainly allowed to choose an easier one because "[the] students need […] to read for themselves, not for […] [the teacher or for school]" (Henry 1995: 6, quoted in Day & Bamford 2002: 137). Also Kunihide agrees with Day & Bamford and Henry, when he states that pupils are allowed to choose another text, not only if the other one is not interesting but also if its level of language is too advanced[23].

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[21] cf. Day & Bamford 2002: 137.
[22] cf. Davis 1995: 329.

> For students used to working with textbooks and teacher-selected texts, the freedom to choose reading material (and the freedom to stop reading) may be a crucial step in experiencing foreign language reading as something personal (Day & Bamford 2002: 137).

The most important notion related to the self-selection of materials is the autonomy of the students in their language learning process[24]. It is vital to support them in acquiring out-of-class learning strategies, which finally should lead them to independent learning. Extensive reading is a valuable medium to achieve this.

In summary, an enumeration by Nuttall expresses all the important properties of reading materials appropriate for extensive reading, namely appealing to the student, written in an easy language, short in length and varied[25].

Classroom Procedure

Apart from choosing the appropriate materials for extensive reading, it is important to establish some guidelines about classroom procedure answering the questions *where?*, *how?* and *how much?*.

Although "typically, much of the student reading in […] [extensive reading] happens largely outside the classroom" (Helgesen 2005b: 26), most researchers agree that extensive reading should not exclusively happen out of class but also in the classroom. By means of including reading in a lesson its importance can be demonstrated to the students. Only Tong thinks that "[e]xtensive reading […] [should be] seen as something students should be doing at home, after they have finished their homework" (Tong 2001, quoted in Jacobs & Gallo 2002: n.p.). The advantages of reading in class in combination with reading out of class, however, seem to prevail.

If the reading itself is done inside the classroom, "what the teacher does during and after the reading time is crucial" (Yang 2007: 118), as the teacher definitely serves as role model. Therefore it is vital that teachers themselves are enthusiastic about reading for pleasure. Thus, a good balance of extensive reading in class and extensive reading as a pleasure reading at home can convey the student the feeling of reading as pleasure and the relation of reading to second or foreign language learning. In order to create a classroom environment which allows extensive reading, it is essential that "[t]eachers […] learn to be quiet" (Williams 1986: 44). They should read the books proposed in the class library themselves, which also enables them to make suggestions to the students about which book to choose next. This means that teachers should not only read the books which their students are reading in class but also serve as a source of information and advice.

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[23] cf. Kunihide, quoted in Furukawa 2006: 3.
[24] cf. Barfield 2004: n.p.
[25] cf. Nuttall 1982: 171-172.

The habit of practising extensive reading in class provides the opportunity for students to ask their teachers for help in the choice of reading materials. When first introducing extensive reading after practising intensive reading students may experience an unfamiliar feeling when encountering materials which they can read with ease. Therefore, teacher guidance and explanations play a very important role in the students' first attempts to read extensively. Teachers "will need to explain to the learners why extensive reading is important […] and convey this to learners as often they cannot see the need and just see it as more homework" (Waring 2003a: n.p.).

The advantages of extensive reading have often been directly linked to the fact that this reading takes place silently. The idea of extensive reading as silent reading enables a simultaneous use of different texts inside and outside the classroom, where the individual students can read at a speed pleasant for them. Extensive reading performed outside of class provides an authentic situation of reading in a private atmosphere because it is “done when and where the student chooses" (Day & Bamford 1998: 8). Thus, extensive reading also provides a reasonable possibility for out-of-class learning, which is essential when considering the limited amount of time in class. Nation and Day & Bamford agree on the fact that extensive reading is a great opportunity for individual learning at the pupils' individual speed and language level. Another factor related to the idea of reading silently is reading speed. "The ability to read at higher speeds is crucial to the students' understanding of the text overall; they must be able to see a passage as a complete unit, not just a collection of sentences with individual meanings" (Hill 1991: 16). Following this thought, Hill suggests a reading speed of about 200 words per minute minimum. The problem she suggests is that the reading speed of the pupils is frequently significantly lower, at about 100 or 150 words per minute[26]. When reading at such a low speed – typical of intensive reading – students "often lose the thread of the story and completely miss the point of any figurative language" (Hill 1991: 16).

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[26] cf. Hill 1991: 16.

Another important aspect of classroom procedure is the question the similarity of extensive reading and pure pleasure reading in one's mother tongue. If the two should be comparable, extensive reading is definitely not compatible with complementary exercises which aim at testing students' comprehension in detail. The predominant aim should be the understanding of the main contents of the book, which means grasping its overall message. Thus, pupils’ reading is exerted for the same purpose – namely pleasure – as in reading in their mother tongue. The main goal is to guarantee that "[t]he learners' experience of reading the text is at the center of the extensive reading experience, just as it is in reading in everyday life" (Day & Bamford 2002: 138). All other types of activities are subordinate to the process of reading itself[27]. When Bamford & Day in 2002 seemed to be strictly against the idea of activities to check students’ comprehension, they “appear to have more recently softened their stance against follow-up activities, and have recently published a volume of […] [extensive reading]-related activities" (Rosszell 2007: 4). In their book *Extensive Reading Activities for Teaching Language* they suggest five different areas of activities, including pre-, while- and post-reading tasks. They generally aim at five different goals[28]:

- preparing students to read extensively,
- maintaining students' motivation during extensive reading,
- practising oral fluency on basis of the book,
- practising writing on basis of the book and
- increasing reading and vocabulary skills.

Although they have changed their opinion on the use of extensive reading in general, they abide by their principles and do not suggest activities that test students' comprehension of the text in detail.

Regarding the amount of reading to be done in extensive reading, many researchers give a certain amount of pages or a time limit per week or day without finally arriving at an "agreement on how much 'extensive' is" (Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.). Thus, it can be concluded that the amount of reading is dependent on the individual student's precondition and may not be expressed by a certain amount of time spent on reading or a certain amount of pages of a text[29]. Day & Bamford rather prefer respecting the individual learner's needs, language competence and spare time for reading, when they suggest to "read as much as possible" (Day & Bamford 1998: 7). This advice definitely leaves space for variation according to the individual students' preconditions. As a minimum Day & Bamford suggest one book per week, which they consider "a realistic target for learners of all proficiency levels, as books written for beginners and low-intermediate learners are very short" (Day & Bamford 2002: 138). Of course, they do not suggest a maximum amount, as this would contradict their principles. Light avoids prescribing any amount of pages or books, when he states that "the assignments should be of sufficient length 'so that neither teacher not pupils will fall for the temptation to talk them through in class'" (Light 1970: 123).

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[27] cf. Helgesen 2005b: 25.
[28] cf. Day & Bamford 2004: V-IX.

2.5 SUMMARISING EXTENSIVE READING

All of the previous chapters have provided some useful information on extensive reading. To summarise now what has been said about this concept, Susser & Robb conceived the following "working definition" (Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.):

> extensive reading as a language teaching/learning procedure […] is reading (a) of large quantities of material or long texts; (b) for global or general understanding; (c) with the intention of obtaining pleasure from the text. Further, because (d) reading is individualized, with students choosing the books they want to read, (e) the books are not discussed in class (Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.).

This definition gives information on the essential factors in extensive reading, such as the amount, the goal and the classroom procedure. What is missing, however, is the role of the teacher and details on the language level of the materials.

3 SLA PERSPECTIVES ON EXTENSIVE READING

In order to convince the audience of their suggestions for reading, researchers have to base their ideas on theoretical background. Wallace, for instance claims that reading fosters the "awareness of the way in which we use language" (Wallace 1992: 3). In general, Wallace distinguishes between three purposes for which people need to read: for survival, for learning and for pleasure[30]. Whereas the first purpose is not directly related to extensive reading, the latter two definitely are. All people possess an internal quest for knowledge, which leads them to read about things which interest them. In other words, they read to learn. This does not imply that reading for learning only occurs in education contexts – some people are also striving for knowledge in their private life. Reading for pleasure suggests that a large amount of people have reading as a hobby. The following two attempts to support the importance of extensive reading appear to be mainly linked to the purpose of learning. One might not forget, however, that this kind of learning happens in a pleasant context, namely reading for pleasure.

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[29] cf. Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.

3.1 LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORY

The Input Hypothesis by Stephen Krashen

One of Krashen's five hypotheses about second language acquisition in the Natural Approach is the Input Hypothesis, which basically suggests that input "may make a significant contribution to the development of overall proficiency" (Krashen & Terrell 1984: 131). Krashen claims that aural as well as written input is a valuable source for acquisition. In order to enable acquisition, however, the reading materials have to fulfil three criteria:

- it […] [has to be] comprehensible,
- [it has to be] read with a focus on the message, and
- it [has to contain] […] *i + 1*, the acquirer's next structure or set of structures (Krashen & Terrell 1984: 131).

At first glance the third quality seems to contradict Day & Bamford's principle about easy materials (see Chapter 2.2). Whereas they suggest materials "well within the linguistic competence of the students" (Day & Bamford 1998: 8), Krashen suggests the materials to be slightly beyond the competence. To argue his idea, Krashen claims "that [w]e acquire […] only when we understand language that contains structure that is 'a little beyond' where we are now" (Krashen 1982: 21). To account for this, Krashen argues that if a text mainly contains structures, which the language learners already know, they “will be able to tolerate the inclusion of some grammar and vocabulary that is beyond their current level *(i + 1)*” (Krashen & Terrell 1984: 136-137).

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[30] cf. Wallace 1992: 6-7.

If a large part of the text is comprehensible and easy for the students, they are also able to cope with some unknown words in a passage, as long as these are not vital for the construction of meaning. This reference to a certain amount of unknown words in a text also corresponds to Hu & Nation's proposal that pupils must be familiar with the majority of words in the text to understand its global message[31] (see also chapter 2.4). The topic of controlling language in language learner literature will be discussed later on in this paper (see Chapter 4).

Krashen adds more detailed information on "the [r]equirements for optimal input" (Krashen 1982: 165). According to his opinion, the reading materials have to fulfil the following six qualities in order to serve as an optimal medium for acquisition: it has to be comprehensible, of interest, not grammatically sequenced, in appropriate quantity, not causing frustration and possibly it should also contain dialogue[32].

All those qualities, however, do not guarantee success in extensive reading. Krashen's opinion on language problems or lack of interest is as follows: pleasure reading "is completely voluntary" (Krashen 1982: 164). This implies that students have the freedom to self-select the texts according to their interests. Furthermore, they are allowed to leave out parts of the text which are too difficult or too boring. For the students it is only important to choose a text in which they can understand the general message[33].

There are various similarities between the Top Ten principles by Day & Bamford and Krashen's ideas on extensive reading, such as voluntariness, self-selection and comprehensibility.

All in all, Krashen's Input Hypothesis has facilitated the reasoning for extensive reading by providing arguments for its implementation. Jarrell agrees with Krashen on his Input Hypothesis, when arguing that "[r]eading is the easiest and most practical way to expose learners to comprehensible input in the L2 due to the ready availability of printed materials" (Jarrell 2003: 199).

The Four Conditions for Language Learning by Jane Willis

Another attempt to emphasise the importance of extensive reading can be traced back to Jane Willis' research about the conditions in which language learning takes place. She attempts to explain how task-based learning operates best and "under what conditions […] effective language learning take[s] place" (Willis 1996: 11). Willis identifies four conditions for language learning. The three essential ones are: exposure, use and motivation; the desirable condition is instruction[34].

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[31] cf. Day & Bamford 2002: 137.
[32] cf. Krashen 1982: 165.
[33] cf. Krashen 1982: 164.

> [I]n order to learn a language with reasonable efficiency, three essential conditions must be met. These are basic enough to apply to all learners, regardless of their individual cognitive styles. There is also one additional condition that is desirable, though not essential (Willis 1996: 11).

For this paper, the condition of exposure, which she defines as "exposure to a rich but comprehensible input of real spoken and written language in use" (Willis 1996: 11) is of particular importance and will therefore be discussed in connection with the Input Hypothesis. The definition of exposure above shows that Krashen's claims about the role of comprehensible input are repeated in Willis' conditions for learning. Concerning the type of input, Willis states that "[t]his might involve listening, or reading, or both" (Willis 1996: 11). Thus, she agrees with Krashen that the input need not necessarily be oral but can also be written or a combination of both.

> Like extensive listening, extensive reading provides rich exposure to language in use. Both are valuable, but reading is more controllable than listening, and allows time for reflection. You can read fast or slowly; you can go back and read things again (Willis 1996: 8).

Willis is convinced of the value of extensive reading and listening for second or foreign language development. Particularly for low-level learners extensive reading seems to be more suitable, because learners can self-control the speed, can re-read passages and can take their time to work out meaning before they go on to the next passage. This may significantly support students in their language learning process. Extensive reading may not only be supported by language acquisition theory but also by the importance of attitude and motivation for language learning.

3.2 ATTITUDE AND MOTIVATION IN EXTENSIVE READING

"Motivation plays a key role in all education (Slavin […] 1991), and reading education is no exception" (Jacobs & Gallo 2002: n.p.). Pupils' attitude and motivation are essential for successful reading in the first, as well as in a second or foreign language. Obviously, the ideal of every language or reading teacher is to teach pupils, who "become hooked on books" (Day & Bamford 1998: 30) and who

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[34] cf. Willis 1996: 11.

> pick up books, curl up with them on easy chairs, worry or get excited about what is going to happen to the characters in a story, and later talk spontaneously about what they have been reading to their parents or their friends. As children, many of us became so keen on books that we read under the bedclothes by torchlight, risking the anger or concern of our parents and admonitions that we would ruin our sight (Harrison 1992: 13, quoted in Day & Bamford 1998: 30-31).

This, however, does not mirror reality, as not every student is, in fact, motivated to read books. Not only because reading books in their leisure time does not seem to be very popular amongst adolescents at the moment but also because reading is seen as related to school assignments and therefore unpleasant. In other words, students need to have a positive attitude towards reading and have to discover the value of a good text in order to become highly motivated. Greenwood claims that a love for reading “do[es] not develop overnight” (Greenwood 1988: 9). It is important to give the pupils time to learn to derive pleasure from reading and support them with materials which avoid frustration[35].

"Only by discovering the rewards of reading through actually engaging in it will students become people who both *can* and *do* read" (Bamford & Day 1997: n.p.). Following the ideas above, there are two factors which encourage pupils' reading: attitude and motivation.

Attitude

"[A]n attitude is a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event" (Ajzen 1988: 4, quoted in Day & Bamford 1998: 22). It is important to notice that attitudes "are subject to change" (Day & Bamford 1998: 22). However, a change in attitude is not easy because "there are many variables associated with attitude change" (Day & Bamford 1998: 22). Attitude and pleasure reading influence each other in two ways: on the one hand, positive attitude is regarded as a prerequisite for extensive reading; on the other hand, extensive reading can positively influence some sources of attitude. According to Michael McKenna "four sources of student attitude toward second language reading" (McKenna 1994, quoted in Day & Bamford 1998: 23) can be distinguished:

- attitudes towards first language reading;
- previous second language reading experiences;
- attitudes toward the second language, culture, and people; and

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[35] cf. Greenwood 1988: 9.

- the second language classroom environment (Day & Bamford 1998: 23).

If students have a positive notion of all those four sources, the development of a positive attitude towards extensive reading in the second language is most likely. Thus, pupils who are eager to read in their L1 and in other languages, pupils who are interested in foreign cultures and people and pupils who feel comfortable in class, are the ideal candidates for pleasure reading. Extensive reading also has the potential to influence those sources of attitude, particularly "attitudes toward the second language culture and people" (Day & Bamford 1998: 26).

> Extensive reading is thus a powerful tool for teachers concerned with building and maintaining positive attitudes toward second language reading among their students. But the development of positive attitude is not an end in itself, for attitude influences something equally important in reading: motivation (Day & Bamford 1998: 27).

Motivation

"[M]otivation is what makes people do (or *not* do) something" (Day & Bamford 1998: 27) and consists of "two equal components – *expectations* and *value*" (Feather 1982: 1-5, quoted in Day & Bamford 1998: 27). In other words, pupils who expect to have success in an action, which is of value for them, tend to have a higher motivation to do something than pupils who think they will fail in an action, which is not of personal value to them. The widespread believe that in foreign language learning oral communication is more useful and therefore superordinate to written communication, "leaves people who are thinking of learning to read a foreign language with the impression that educationally they are second-class citizens" (Gremmo 1985: 81). This may influence the motivation for reading negatively, although this may be undetected by the students themselves.

Day & Bamford have identified four variables, which influence the potential motivation of pupils in extensive reading and vice versa:

- materials,
- reading ability,
- attitudes, and
- sociocultural environment (Day & Bamford 1998: 28).

Whereas materials and reading ability are connected with the potential success in foreign language reading, attitudes and sociocultural environment are interrelated with the potential value which students assign to foreign language reading.

The reading materials have to be "interesting, at the appropriate linguistic levels […], and readily available" (Day & Bamford 1998: 29). The language level of the reading materials is particularly important as the adequate level of language prevents from frustration. Not only the teacher but also friends often are the key factor in students' motivation. "[P]eers can sometimes provide more powerful examples than teachers and other adults (Harris […] 1998), in part because peers present a more accessible model for students (Murphey […] 1998)" (Jacobs & Gallo 2002: n.p.).

Additionally, Takase claims that the motivation for reading is not the same in the students' mother tongue and in the foreign language. Some students who are eager to read in their mother tongue are not motivated to read in the foreign language and vice versa[36]. Also Day & Bamford confirm this view, when they say that "[e]ven if […] [pupils] are avid readers in their first language, […] all too often they do not become readers of English" (Day & Bamford 2000: n.p.). For this reason Takase attempted to figure out various factors which influence foreign language reading. All in all, he found six factors, the three most important are firstly, "*intrinsic motivation for L1 reading* and [secondly,] *intrinsic motivation for L2 reading* […], indicating a love of reading. The third component, *parents' involvement in and family attitudes toward reading*" (Takase 2007: 10) implicates the importance of role models for motivation in reading.

Day & Bamford attempt to include the relation of attitude and motivation to extensive reading into one concept, when they create "the extensive reading bookstrap hypothesis" (Day & Bamford 1998: 30). They applied the concept of *bootstrapping* to extensive reading, which denominates “a process in which the results of an action are fed back to achieve greater results more quickly with less effort” (Day & Bamford 1998: 30). The procedure is the following: if students are successful in their first attempts to read in a foreign language, they are motivated to read more. This crucial initiatory event is essential to enter the virtuous circle of the good reader (see Chapter 1).

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[36] cf. Takase 2007: 2.

So far, different aspects of extensive reading have been considered. The next chapter will offer information on simple materials, which are also called language learner literature.

4 LANGUAGE LEARNER LITERATURE

Language learner literature is closely related to the concept of extensive reading. To account for this, it is necessary to return to the very first sentence of this paper, which was: "[t]he best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it" (Nuttall 1982: 168). Bamford adds at this point that "for all but advanced learners, the best way to promote extensive reading is by means of graded readers" (Bamford 1984: 218). Considering the importance of extensive reading from a low proficiency level onwards, it will hardly be possible to use authentic texts in foreign language teaching from the very beginning onwards. Thus, it is mandatory to employ so called language learner literature. Bamford, for instance, suggests that: "[g]raded readers are ideally suited for extensive reading" (Bamford 1984: 219). Moreover, extensive reading is often labelled graded reading and thereby indicating the use of language learner literature. Following this denomination, it becomes obvious that "[m]any, perhaps most, of the TESOL specialists who recommend extensive reading do so on the assumption that the students will be reading graded readers" (Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.). This chapter will present the most essential information on language learner literature, such as an attempt of a definition, its different types and a discussion of one of the main issues of criticism, namely authenticity.

Definitions and Terminology

"Graded readers are extended texts, mostly fiction, written in language reduced in terms of structures and vocabulary" (Hill 1997b: 57). This definition includes two of the most important properties of language learner literature: firstly, the texts are of a certain length – suitable for extensive reading – and secondly, they contain linguistic structures which are easy for the intended audience.

The term *language learner literature* has been suggested by Day & Bamford (1998: 64) replacing the terms *graded readers*, *adapted books*, *abridged material* and *simplified readers*, which were frequently used before. These terms, however, do not describe the whole variety of language learner literature because the majority of them only denominates a particular type of language learner literature.

Another important issue is the distinction of the term language learner literature from the North American term "basal readers[, which] is often used to refer to reading materials which are simplified" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). Although the notion of simplification appears in both concepts, basal readers only label materials which are written for children who read in their mother tongue. The intended audience of language learner literature, on the contrary, are foreign language learners. Children in their "[f]irst language already have knowledge of several thousand words before they begin to read" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). When language learner literature is developed for foreign language learners it is essential to consider that "second language children do not have such a store of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge to call upon. Thus their reading is characterized more often by learning both form and meaning" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). This has implications on the process of creating language learner literature. For instance, in L1 readers, new vocabulary and, in general, linguistic structures can be introduced with a higher frequency than in L2 readers. Language learner literature has to focus on a particular number of words and structures, which are constantly repeated. For language learners those texts may offer various benefits, which will be discussed subsequently.

Reasons for Using Language Learner Literature

"[G]raded readers are not simply a source of pleasure but resources for language learning. It defines them as stories written in language that learners can understand" (Hill 2001: 301-302). Hill claims that language learner literature may serve students in four respects: to gain motivation, to increase reading fluency, to develop their language competence and it serves as input in the foreign language[37]. Apart from being of interest to the pupils, language learner literature also has to meet a pedagogical goal. In order to establish an extensive reading habit the generation of motivation within the individual learner is an important objective. For foreign language learners, language learner literature represents a valuable source of comprehensible input. When receiving comprehensible input, reading fluency and possible improvement in other skills of language competence will follow automatically. In general, the purpose of language learner literature "is to create a series of stepping stones for foreign language learners to eventually read unsimplified materials" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). Following this idea, language learner literature has been created for learners who do not yet possess the ability to read original texts in the foreign language. Through the grading of the language fluent reading is ensured, which is crucial to the concept of extensive reading. Instead of discouraging students from reading because of texts that are too difficult, language learner literature "provide[s] learners with a chance to read without encountering large quantities of unknown words, and thus learners are able to read successfully and get pleasure from their reading" (Wodinsky & Nation 1988: 155).

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[37] cf. Hill 2001: 301-302.

In summary, the most important reason for employing language learner literature is that it serves as transition between didactic texts, which are particularly written for foreign language learners, and authentic materials, which are written for native speakers. As discussed above, the advantages which arise from extensive reading are diverse. Apart from increasing reading fluency and, in general, reading ability, language learner literature may have the power to bring pleasure to the students. And pleasure is the keyword for an extensive reading habit. In order to make reading pleasurable the choice of adequate materials is essential. Subsequently, more detailed information on the nature of language learner literature will be provided.

Types of Language Learner Literature

According to Waring, there are four different types of language learner literature: adaptations, abridgements, originals and reports[38]. Firstly, there are adaptations of original materials, where both the story and the linguistic structures are changed in order to fulfil the needs of language learners. Secondly, there are abridgements, in which complex linguistic structures are simplified according to the level of the audience but the story remains unchanged. The third category contains originals, which are particularly written for foreign language learners at a certain level of competence. The last type of language learner is reports, such as "biographies, environmental reports, festivals, reports on countries or companies, [and] historical events" (Waring 2003b: n.p.).

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[38] cf. Waring 2003b: n.p.

Simensen suggests another classification, which only consists of three subcategories for language learner literature: authentic readers, pedagogic readers and adapted readers[39]. The first category includes children's literature and young adult literature written for native adolescents[40]. "Pedagogic readers are readers with texts specially written for learners of English as a foreign (or second) language" (Simensen 1987: 42), which would equal Waring's category of originals and reports. The third category, "adapted readers[,] is used as a superordinate term for various kinds of alterations of a text. Other terms are: abridged, reduced, retold, rewritten, simplified and told" (Simensen 1987: 43). The table below (see Table 3) depicts an overview and a comparison of Waring's and Simensen's categories.

Categories of Simensen	Categories of Waring
authentic readers	---
pedagogic readers	originals
	reports
adapted readers	adaptations
	abridgements

Table 3: Comparison of types of language learner literature

Whereas Waring does not regard books written for native adolescents, Simensen dedicates a category to them in her classification. In general, Simensen suggests a more basic distinction according to the origin of the story – newly invented or adapted. Waring, on the contrary, does not suggest superordinate categories but very detailed ones. His categories could be seen as subcategories or examples of the ones proposed by Simensen.

The Use of Language Learner Literature in Class

Waring argues that like with any other written text, there are three different types of use which language learner literature is put to: as material for extensive reading, intensive reading or a mixture of both[41]. Waring clearly distinguishes between these types with regard to their purposes. Whilst the goal of extensive reading by means of language learner literature aims at the development of reading fluency, the purpose of intensive reading is language work. As for extensive reading, it is particularly important that

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[39] cf. Simensen 1987: 42-43.
[40] cf. Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.
[41] cf. Waring 2003b: n.p.

> [u]sing graded readers […] may contribute to developing a self-directed and autonomous attitude among students, help them to become independent in learning, and thus eventually make them take responsibility for their own progress (Simensen 1987: 41).

This suggests that introducing language learner literature to students may support them in the development of an extensive reading habit, which eventually may provide a valuable an out-of-class learning strategy. When employing a mixture of both extensive and intensive reading each student in class reads the same book. In contrast to intensive reading, however, in this case the emphasis of reading is also on the contents of the book, not only on the language used. As a follow-up activity pupils would typically "complete many language-focused and comprehension check activities" (Waring 2003b: n.p.).

Following this division between the three possibilities of employing language learner literature, the choice of materials is essential, as one book can serve different purposes: either for practising extensive reading at the given level of the book or for practising intensive reading with students at a lower proficiency level than the one of the intended audience. The focus in this paper, however, will remain on extensive reading.

Examining the World of Language Learner Literature

> There seems to be much interest especially among British publishers today in producing graded readers for learners of English as a foreign language. This conclusion is based on the observation of a steadily growing number of such series on the market (Simensen 1987: 41).

This conclusion can easily be extended from British publishers to publishers all over Europe and possibly all over the world, as the number of materials published for foreign language learners has grown significantly in recent years. The term language learner literature may be fairly new, the invention of the concept itself, however, seems to "[trace] […] back to the late fifteenth century, when they were written for learners of Latin" (Kelly 1969: 141, quoted by Day & Bamford 198: 63). At the beginning, original materials were converted into simpler versions in order to make those texts accessible to language learners.

> The humble graded reader, traditionally associated with simplified versions of well-known classics rewritten for the purpose of language

> learning, has been undergoing a reinvention in recent years (Don't judge these books by their simplification, 26 October 2007).

Instead of only producing adapted versions of classics various publishers have decided to provide for a greater variety of genres and interests. For an analysis of language learner literature in this paper four series have been chosen on the basis of the amount of information given on their websites. Various aspects of their product range have been analysed, such as genres offered, different stages and level indicators and will be discussed subsequently[42].

Cambridge English Readers are a series published by *Cambridge University Press*. Currently they offer about 80 different titles, for each of them an audio book and an eBook-version is available. The paperback has a size of about 20x13cm and its front cover is designed in an appealing way, including photographs in colour. The price ranges from about eight euro for the book to fifteen euro for the book including the audio book. The titles are easily available in Austria, not only via de online shop of the *CUP* but also via *Amazon* or *ÖBV-Klett-Cotta Verlagsgesellschaft m.b.H*, who is the *CUP*'s sales representative in Austria (cf. www.cambridge.org/elt/readers/).

Macmillan Readers are a series published by *Macmillan Publishers* and currently offer a range of more than 170 different titles at six stages, for most of which an audio book is available. They are designed as paperbacks with a size of about 20x13cm and the front cover is designed in colour. Macmillan Readers may be bought via the online shop at the *Macmillan Publishers*' website, via *Amazon* or the publisher *Hueber*. The prize ranges between nine and fifteen euro including the audio book (cf. http://www.macmillanenglish.com/readers/portal/portal.html).

The Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition series offers 190 different titles and is published by *Oxford University Press*. The paperbacks are designed in an appealing way for adolescents and have a size of 20x13cm. For the majority of titles *OUP* offers an audio book. The prize of the book without the audio book ranges from six to ten euro and from eight to twelve euro including the audio book. The titles are easily available via the online shop of *OUP*, via *Amazon* or the publisher *Cornelsen* (cf. http://www.oup.com/elt/catalogue/teachersites/bookworms/?cc=global).

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[42] In the following chapters reference to those four series will reappear in order to illustrate the theoretical points made.

Penguin Readers are published by *Pearson Longman* and offer a product range of more than 280 titles of language learner literature. The books are designed in a colourful way and in a practical paperback format of 20x13cm. For the majority of titles they also offer audio books. The price ranges from seven to nine euro without audio book and from nine to twelve euro including the audio book. (cf. http://www.penguinreaders.com/index.html).

Tying in with the positive development of language learner literature observed above, it is necessary to present an overview of different genres available. When examining them, the *classic*, or in other words the adapted version of an already existing text, today is only one genre among 13 different ones. It is obvious that the idea of abridging and simplifying a classic is still present in today's publications but has been extended to a variety of genres of original texts which may be considered more appealing to adolescent readers (see Table 4). *Macmillan Publishers* offer the greatest variety of genres but all the other publishers also cover a wide range of different genres of books.

	Classics	**Comedy**	**Crime & Mystery**	**Drama & Plays**	**Fantasy & Horror**	**Human Interest**	**Romance**	**Short Stories**	**Thriller & Adventure**	**True Stories**	**Western**
Cambridge English Readers		x	x		x	x	x	x	x		
Macmillan Readers	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x
Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition	x		x	x	x	x			x	x	
Penguin Readers	x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x	

Table 4: Range of Genres Available

Compared to other languages, it has to be said that, in general,"[i]n English language teaching, there is an exceptionally large quantity of language learner literature" (Hitosugi & Day 2004: 23). Publishers now offer everything a young person may be interested in: from crime or horror stories to diverting or romantic texts, from love stories to thrillers and from short stories to plays. The content of those texts has been invented for young readers in particular, bearing in mind their language competence and their interests. The focus on their audience's needs has led to a new increase in language literature sales. Monica Merino, a spokesperson from Pearson Longman Publishing, for instance, claims that

> [i]n 2001 […] [they] estimated that there were around 2.3 million students using graded readers. In 2004 […] the estimated number has gone up to 4.8 million – an increase of 48% driven by the popularity of graded readers amongst teachers and students (Don't judge these books by their simplification, 26 October 2007).

After suffering from a severe crisis because of some badly written texts in the 1980s and 1990s, it seems that language learner literature has overcome its crisis and also managed to turn its negative reputation into a very positive one by completely changing its image. Language learner literature is not only concerned with reading itself but it often also contains additional materials, such as "glossaries, comprehension support activities, audio components […], computer-based tests, teacher and learner support, and guides for selecting the correct titles for students" (Don't judge these books by their simplification, 26 October 2007).

The most essential observation on language learner literature is that it should not be regarded "a lesser version of something else but a fully realized, complete-in-itself act of communication between author and audience" (Day & Bamford 1998: 64). Three possible ways of declaring the degree of simplification will be presented subsequently.

Level Indicators of Language Learner Literature

"Modern series of [graded] readers are usually controlled in *structure*, *sentence length and complexity*, *vocabulary* and (rarely) the flow of *information* and the explicitness of *background concepts and suppositions*" (Bamford 1987: 223). As already indicated at the beginning of this chapter, "the main purpose for this grading is to control the language and information so that they match the competence of the students" (Sheu 2004: 18). In order to allow for a comparison between the individual series, it is essential to work with meaningful level descriptors. Subsequently, this paper will look at three different methods of description: vocabulary, grammar and a mixture of the two, namely the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Additionally, the level descriptors of the four different series of language learner literature will be presented and compared according to the individual descriptors. Although only three different aspects of simplification are considered in detail in this paper, this does not imply that control of "the flow of *information* and the explicitness of *background concepts and suppositions*" (Bamford 1987: 223) are of minor importance. The reason for not regarding those aspects is the lack of comparable information by the publishers.

Firstly, there is the possibility of **grading vocabulary**. Language learner literature has been created because too large an amount of new vocabulary inhibits the learner from reading fluently. In consequence, publishers offer texts with a varying number of headwords, which denominate the "specific number of words within which they are written" (Bamford 1984: 223). Those can "either [be] – for example – the 1000 most frequently used words in English, or 1000 words chosen from among the most frequently used words in English" (Bamford 1984: 223). Simensen reports that publishers may employ two different methods of simplification in terms of vocabulary: either they use word lists, from which the authors may choose, or the authors themselves may rely on their "intuition, common sense and experience" (Simensen 1987: 48) on the other hand. For the latter approach no comparable data can be provided by the publishers, thus only the former will be considered in this chapter. Although there exist various different word lists, Bamford (1984: 224) claims that their content is very similar, which would theoretically allow for parallel usage of different series of language learner literature. It is important to add at this point that authors certainly are not narrowly restricted to the words suggested in the lists. They may also use words which are not on the list. These words, however, should "be illustrated, conceptualized or paraphrased so that learners can work out the meaning. Alternatively they can be put in a glossary" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). The following table (see Table 5), presents the stages of the different series and the number of headwords for each stage.

Series	**Stages and Headwords**						
	Starter	**Stage 1**	**Stage 2**	**Stage 3**	**Stage 4**	**Stage 5**	**Stage 6**
Cambridge English Readers	250	400	800	1300	1900	2800	3800
Macmillan Readers		600	1100	1400	1600	2200	
Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition	250	400	700	1000	1400	1800	2500
Penguin Readers	200	300	600	1200	1700	2300	3000

Table 5: Stages and their Headwords

The individual stages of all four series are defined by headwords, there are, however, some major differences between the individual series. Whereas they still show a great consensus at the Starter stage, the amount of words significantly diverges from Stage 1 onwards. For a learner with low language competence it is definitely important whether the book contains 300 or 600 headwords. Therefore the choice of a particular book should not only be made on the basis of the label of the stage but additionally on the basis of the descriptors, which in this case would be the number of headwords. Furthermore, Wanarom contradicts Bamford's claim that the word lists of the different publishers are similar, when he states that whereas at "the […] lower levels […] the number of word families […] does not differ much, and the series overlap considerably […], [a]t the higher levels [there] are considerable […] differences, and as a result, only a small amount of overlap between the series for the new word families introduced at those levels" (Wanarom 2008: 61). Thus it should indeed be possible to compare the different stages of one individual series to each other, a comparison to other series, however, could be problematic.

Following these results, the number of headwords has to be handled with care because it may be deceptive in three ways: firstly, it is not explicitly stated whether the words are chosen in terms of, for instance "the 1000 most frequently used words in English, or 1000 words chosen from among the most frequently used words in English" (Bamford 1984: 223). Secondly, the stages of the different series may have the same name but contain a different amount of headwords. And lastly, it is difficult to compare the headwords of high level books from different publishers as there is a large amount of different word families belonging, for instance, to the 6000 most frequently used words in English and the choice of words will definitely depend on the genre and the topic of the book.

Another way of grading a text is to reduce the amount of different **grammatical structures** used. By the use of connectors or complex structures, longer sentences are created which are more difficult to understand for a low proficiency learner. Only two of the investigated series provide a detailed scheme of the grammar they use on their websites, namely the Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition series and the Penguin Readers (see Appendix 10.1 and 10.2 for the extracts of their websites). Already at first glance it is obvious that there are significant differences between the two guidelines: the one of the Penguin Readers is very detailed, providing information on the use of nouns, pronouns, determiners, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, conjunctions and sentences of each individual stage[43]. The guideline of the Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition series, on the contrary, mainly contains information on the verbs and tenses used[44]. Whereas content-wise there is great concordance in the stages Starter and Level 1, Level 2 and Level 3 of the Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition series contain more difficult structures than the Penguin Readers. Nearly all of the structures contained in Level 3 of the Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition Series do not occur in Penguin Readers before Level 4. Level 4 to Level 6 of both series, however, are largely congruent in terms of grammatical structures employed. Thus, like with the previous level descriptor, it is important to closely examine the level in order to avoid acquiring a too difficult text because the label was misleading.

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[43] cf. http://www.penguinreaders.com/pr/teachers/grading-of-language.html

Another concept which can easily be used as a point of reference for level descriptors is the **Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)**. The CEFR has been introduced gradually in language learning environments during the last years. It aims at standardising language competence levels all over Europe to facilitate comparisons. It includes level descriptions for all four skills, which makes it easily applicable to the level of books as well. Furthermore, an increasing number of textbooks is already designed according to the CEFR, which makes it easier for teachers to choose the appropriate level for their students. In all four series of language learner literature analysed, the CEFR is used as descriptor of the language level (see Table 6).

Name	**Stages and CEFR Levels**						
	Starter	**Stage 1**	**Stage 2**	**Stage 3**	**Stage 4**	**Stage 5**	**Stage 6**
Oxford Bookworms Library New Edition	A1	A1/A2	A2/B1	B1	B1/B2	B2	B2/C1
Penguin Readers	< A1	A1	A1/A2	A2	B1	B2	C1
Macmillan Readers		A1	A2	A2/B1	B1	B2	
Cambridge English Readers	< A1	A1	A2	B1	B1/B2	B2	C1/C2

Table 6: Stages and their CEFR Levels

The table depicts that books are available at least from A1 onwards; two publishers even offer books below A1. Surprisingly, there is more agreement on the stages and the related levels than in the comparison of headwords. But, of course, it is easier to agree on a more or less vague concept, such as a level of the CEFR, than on a concrete number of headwords. This has to be considered with care, however, as Oxford suggests 3800 headwords for their level B2/C1, whereas Cambridge suggests 3000 headwords for a higher level, namely C1/C2. The same is true for

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[44] cf. http://www.oup-readers.jp/students/bookworms/bwsyllabus.html

Oxford, where 2500 headwords are used for level C1, which would also suggest fewer headwords than Cambridge uses at a lower level. It has to be mentioned that there are also intermediate stages, such as books between A1 and A2. The most difficult level available is C1/C2 of the Cambridge English Readers, which is the most advanced level. It is not absolutely vital in this case to use simplified texts as students at such a high level of competence would already be able to read some carefully chosen original texts. What has to be doubted, however, is whether these texts are really at the level C1/C2, as the number of headwords (2500-3800) suggests a very low level of vocabulary for this level. The Curriculum for Austrian *Unterstufe* applies the competence levels of the CEFR for each skill to the traditional Austrian grades (BM:UKK 2006: 5) (see Table 7):

level of education in Austrian Schools	CEFR level of competence in reading
end of year 5	A1
end of year 6	A2
end of year 8	A2/B1

Table 7: Equivalents: Level of Education in Austria and CEFR Level Reading

Bearing in mind that the level of the text should be slightly below the level of competence, Stage 3 readers would be certainly the highest level average pupils can reach. Also the publishing house Penguin recommends the CEFR level A2 for year 7 and 8 and level B1 already for year 8 and grade 9[45], which corresponds to the information given in the Austrian school curriculum.

In summary, even though all series work with language descriptors like vocabulary range or grammatical structures contained, a careful choice of the book is essential. Stages with the same denomination may differ considerably according to the different publishing houses and series. In consequence, it is not always advisable to employ books from the same stage but of different publishers side by side.

Simplified vs. Authentic

The most controversial issue in simplification is whether texts retain their authenticity when they are simplified or, generally, when they are written in simple English. Various researchers have contributed their opinion on the question whether language learner literature can provide authentic input. Waring (2003b: n.p.), for instance, provides a very detailed analysis of various comments regarding the authenticity of language learner literature. Some linguists claim that language learner literature is not authentic because it is simplified and inhibits pupils from "appreciat[ing] the beauty of the language and more directly access[ing] the ideas the writer is trying to convey" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). Furthermore they think that the language used in language learner literature is not natural language. Also Willis expresses her aversion to the use of language learner literature, when she states that

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[45] cf. Penguin Readers Gesamtkatalog 2008: 3.

> [s]ystematic simplification removes certain features of a text, for example by rewriting complex noun groups or breaking up grammatically complex sentences into a series of two or more simple ones (Willis 1996: 12).

Following this conception, researchers who are challenging the authenticity of language learner literature, do not consider simple or simplified English natural language and therefore not of the same value as a book written for native speakers. Waring, however, retorts, that

> the definition of ‘authentic’ means ‘written for an intended audience’ and by virtue of this definition graded readers, which are written especially for second language learners, are therefore ‘authentic’ in and of themselves (Waring 2003b: n.p.).

Waring supports his argument with Widdowson's opinion on this controversial subject, who once defined authenticity deriving from the relationship between the reader and the material and not by the text itself. Thus, Widdowson proposes "*appropriate* texts […] [instead of] authentic ones" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). This would speak for and allow for the use of language learner literature in the foreign language learning context. Also Susser & Robb agree with Widdowson when they argue that authenticity means that books are read "for the purpose for which they were written rather than for language study" (Susser & Robb 1990: n.p.). Moreover, not only language learner literature undergoes a process of simplification. Willis, an opponent of language learner literature, suggests, for instance, the use of children's books. Children's literature for native children, however, is also written in simple language. Thus, the question of authenticity would also arise with children’s literature. Although L1 children possess a much larger knowledge of vocabulary and structure when they start to read in their native language than a foreign language learner at this stage, they are also supplied with simple materials. This is done because they may understand parts of a difficult book but the reading cannot be considered pleasure reading as they would have to put much effort into reading –

like foreign language readers. Scanlon (1942: 422) stresses the need for simple texts, when he points out that it is essential to supply language learners with materials at their language competence level, as otherwise they will get frustrated, which may result in an aversion to reading in general. Furthermore, Scanlon (1942: 422) regards the production and the use of language learner literature as an opportunity, which naturally arises from students' needs, not as a danger for their language learning forced upon them. He (1942: 422) refers to the teaching of Latin classics to students and argues that the practice of simplifying texts is far from being a novelty and has led to success in foreign language reading for centuries.

Another argument by Waring in favour of simplification is that not only language learner literature is simplified but everything that is related to language learning, such as "coursebooks, exercise practice books and even teacher language" (Waring 2003b: n.p.). He enlarges the argument of overall simplification in the classroom to the opinion that language teaching should not

> be a mirror of the unsimplified language, in fact it can never be. […] It is important to keep in mind the notion that EFL means English *as* a foreign language or English *for* foreign language learners. This is not the same as teaching English *to* foreign learners (Waring 2003b: n.p.).

Thus, instead of criticising language learner literature for its lack of authenticity, Waring appeals to the disputants to rethink their conception of teaching English. There is a difference between English taught as a foreign language in a formal environment, such as schools, and English spoken and written by native people. Children consider children's literature in their L1 as authentic material, such as "the writing in well-written graded readers can be, for […] [foreign language learners], experienced as authentic and typical of 'normal' English" (Claridge 2005: 144). Although, the absolute opinion that simplification facilitates language learners' comprehension is correct, "it nevertheless cannot be said likewise that the more simplification involved in the text, the more comprehensible it becomes to L2 learners" (Tweissi 1998: 201). Thus, in order to ensure pupils' understanding and learning success, on the one hand, the English language has to be simplified to a certain extent, either in speech or in words, but on the other hand, it is important to avoid exaggerations in simplification. As pupils' language ability increases, the use of simplified English should be decreased step by step.

Another point made by Wodinsky & Nation (1988: 160) is that language learner literature is more suitable for incidental vocabulary acquisition than unsimplified materials. Learners only encounter a limited range of unknown vocabulary but do this repeatedly, which abets acquisition.

The problem of language learner literature written in poor language has been eliminated to a large extent as the process of simplification has been improved through the last years. Also Hafiz & Tudor agree on the increasing quality of language learner literature, when they claim that "there is an increasing number of good quality and attractively presented readers available on the market, often at quite reasonable prices" (Hafiz & Tudor 1989: 11).

Concluding, it has to be said that in order to give language learners the opportunity to use English and to motivate them to use English, language learner literature is a valuable medium. As demonstrated in this chapter, a variety of publishers offers a wide range of different genres and titles. It is important to consider the purpose of using language learner literature, when choosing a text, as different levels of language will be required for different purposes. Particularly important seems to be the close investigation of the title, as the level indicators may differ significantly between the individual publishers' series. Also the argument of the lack of authenticity appears to have lost its significance, as it is generally accepted that "[t]he strongest argument in favour of graded readers is that without them learners would not be able to experience reading in a second language at a level of comfort and fluency approaching first language reading" (Nation 1999: 356). Moreover, exactly because of simplified language, language learner literature may function as "a ladder up which learners can climb to unsimplified texts" (Hill 1997b: 58). It is important to keep in mind that the individual levels of language learner literature are only steps toward texts written for native speakers. A large number of teachers seem to take advantage of this opportunity for their students because

> [f]ortunately, most teachers of English are not native speakers, and their own experience of using readers to learn English encourages them to exploit the most versatile resource ever developed for teaching a language. The authenticity of graded readers is irrelevant (Hill 1997b: 57-58).

5 EXTENSIVE READING IN AUSTRIAN SCHOOL CURRICULA

In order to guarantee the use of extensive reading in Austrian *Unterstufen* classes, it would be necessary to include this concept in the school curricula, both for *Hauptschule* and *Gymnasium*. To which degree this is currently true will be shown in this chapter. As the two curricula are almost identical (except for the chapter on didactic advice on the distinction of pupils' performance and the chapter on methods for special instruction – which are not relevant in this regard), they will not be analysed separately, but regarded as one.

The Legal Situation in Austria

The documents, which are published by the *Ministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur*, present a very general view on foreign language learning and in their exposition the author(s) frequently refer to the levels of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)[46]

> Ziel des Fremdsprachunterrichts ist die Entwicklung der kommunikativen Kompetenz in den Fertigkeitsbereichen Hören, Lesen, An Gesprächen teilnehmen, Zusammenhängend Sprechen und Schreiben[47] (BM:UKK 2000a: 1).

Furthermore, the curricula regard "Kommunikative Kompetenz als übergeordnetes Lernziel"[48] (BM:UKK 2000a: 2). Although, on the one hand, "Ausgewogenheit der Fertigkeitsbereiche"[49] (BM:UKK 2000a: 2) is emphasised, on the other hand, it is noted that

> [i]m Anfangsunterricht […] sind die Teilfertigkeiten des Hörverstehens und der mündlichen Kommunikation durch regelmäßige Hörübungen sowie durch ein möglichst häufiges Angebot an Sprechanlässen verstärkt zu fördern[50] (BM:UKK 2000a: 2).

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[46] A discussion of the CEFR goes beyond the scope of this paper. Interested readers can find the CEFR in: Council for Cultural Co-operation / Modern Languages Division. 2001. *Common European framework of reference for languages – learning, teaching, assessment.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[47] "The aim of foreign language classes is the development of communicative competence in the skills of listening, reading, taking part in conversations, coherent speech and writing" (translation CA).

[48] "communicative competence as superordinate goal" (translation CA).

[49] "a fair balance of all skills" (translation CA).

[50] "at the beginning level, the skills of listening and oral communication shall be supported by regular listening comprehension exercises and a frequent offer of incentives to speak" (translation CA).

This means that as a consequence, teachers should dedicate more time to the skill of speaking and hearing than to written communication at the beginning level of language learning, affecting, of course, also reading and, subsequently, extensive reading. One of the desirable goals of education, however, is the development of learning strategies, amongst which "das selbstständige Erschließen und Erfassen schriftlicher fremdsprachlicher Texte verschiedener Art mit Hilfe angemessener Lesestrategien"[51] (BM:UKK 2000a: 1) is stated. This certainly leaves room for employing and practising extensive reading in order to enable pupils to practise this autonomously as an out-of-class learning strategy in a later stage of their learning process. Another task of the teacher is

> die Schülerinnen und Schüler […] möglichst früh in den eigenständigen Umgang mit Lehr- bzw. Lern- und Übungsmaterialien […] einzuführen[52] (BM:UKK 2000a: 3),

which can also be considered as a recommendation of out-of-class activities such as reading, although it must be noted that the quote above emphasises the use of materials for the purpose of learning rather than for the purpose of pleasure.

The quotes presented are the most important ones on reading in the curricula for *Unterstufe*. Due to their vague wording they leave a lot of space for free interpretation for teachers, headmasters and parents regarding their expectations towards classroom procedures. In addition to the curricula themselves, another document exists, which provides a more detailed exposition of reading practice in the foreign language classroom, namely the *Kommentar zum Lehrplan AHS*[53]. Although this commentary is merely meant to be a resource of ideas and recommendations and thus does not have legal character, it does, however, offer clear and research-based advice for teachers[54]. It explicitly states that

> die Schülerinnen und Schüler [sollen] dazu ermuntert werden, sich auch außerhalb der Unterrichtszeit mit fremdsprachlichen Texten auseinanderzusetzen. Insgesamt ist festzuhalten, dass Lesetraining

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[51] "the autonomous deciphering and understanding of various written texts types in the foreign language by means of adequate reading strategies" (translation CA).

[52] "to introduce the pupils to an autonomous use of teaching, learning and practice-material as early as possible" (translation CA).

[53] "commentary on the curriculum for *AHS*" (translation CA).

[54] cf. www.gemeinsamlernen.at

> zwar sehr zeitaufwändig ist, von seiner Wirkung her jedoch immer auch "gewonnene Zeit" bedeutet[55] (Matzer et al. n.d.: 18).

It also refers to the problem that reading books is constantly losing its attractiveness amongst young people[56] as they increasingly substitute reading conventional materials, such as books or newspapers, by consulting online reading materials. Nevertheless, or maybe exactly for reasons of decreasing attractiveness, reading should be encouraged in class.

> Für den Fremdsprachenerwerb allerdings stellt Lesen nach wie vor eine so grundlegende und wirkungsvolle Lernquelle dar, dass es als Lernstrategie und Übungsform für den Fremdsprachenunterricht unverzichtbar ist und mit ganz besonderem Nachdruck gefördert werden muss[57] (Matzer et al. n.d.: 19).

The commentary also includes the four main goals of reading in a foreign language, namely

> Erwerb von effizienten Lesestrategien […,] Erwerb und […] Festigung von Wortschatz und Grammatik […,] Erwerb von Informationen im weitesten Sinn und […] Unterhaltung[58] (Matzer et al. n.d.: 23).

The last goal stated above – pleasure – is particularly relevant for this research project, as extensive reading should be practiced as pleasure reading, as it was stated in chapter 2. Furthermore, the commentary specifies the type of reading to be practiced. Reading aloud in class should only be employed in exceptional cases, for instance at a beginning learner level for the training of pronunciation[59]. It also gives advice on how to deal with the activities which accompany the reading process. Comprehension questions and traditional book reports should be substituted by other exercises[60], as they can easily result in being "kontraproduktiv, da sie die Freude am Lesen wenig förder[n]"[61] (Matzer et al. n.d.: 23). A collection of alternative tasks is to be found in the appendix of the commentary. Exercises such as creating illustrations or a blurb, evoke the feeling of being innovative. When having a closer look, however, they are by far not always concurrent with the concept of Day & Bamford regarding activities for extensive reading, as they again are too closely related to the content of the text rather than to the feelings and the opinion of the reader (see Chapter 2.4).

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[55] "students shall be encouraged to deal with foreign language texts out of class. All in all, it has to be emphasised that although reading practice is a very time-consuming activity, in terms of its effects, however, does clearly represent a significant gain in the progress of learning" (translation CA).

[56] cf. Matzer et al. n.d.: 19.

[57] "For foreign language learning, however, reading is still a fundamental and effective source of learning that it is vital as a learning strategy and form of practice and has to be encouraged emphatically" (translation CA).

[58] "the acquistion of efficient reading strategies, vocabulary and grammar acquisition and consolidation, obtaining information in the broadest sense and pleasure" (translation CA).

[59] cf. Matzer et al. n.d.: 23.

[60] cf. Matzer et al. n.d.: 23.

[61] "counterproductive, as they do not promote the pleasure of reading" (translation CA).

A close investigation of the Austrian curricula showed that extensive reading is not mentioned in the curriculum at all. What definitely is included is the skill of reading as such and the autonomous use of materials in the foreign language in general, which also leaves space for the notion of extensive reading. In the accompanying commentary, however, there is some valuable advice on the importance of reading in general with a particular focus on extensive reading and possible accompanying exercises. Particularly, as this commentary only aims at teachers in *Gymnasium*, it cannot be assumed, however, that all teachers – including those in *Hauptschule* – actually read this commentary and are able to and want to adopt these recommendations for their classroom practice. In summary, it can be said that the use of extensive reading in Austrian *Unterstufen* classes largely depends on the willingness of the teacher to spend time on it and introduce the students to extensive reading including all its benefits.

Possible Implementation of Extensive Reading in the School Curriculum

As has become evident from my analysis of the curriculum, even though extensive reading is not an obligatory part of English classes in Austria, there would definitely be space for school or teacher autonomy to make pleasure reading a part of school life. Day and Bamford suggest four different ways of how to implement extensive reading in schools:

- as a separate, stand-alone course
- as a part of an existing reading course
- as a non-credit addition to an existing course [or]
- as an extracurricular activity (Day & Bamford 1998: 41).

A separate, stand-alone course would in practice mean the creation of a new subject at school, which, for instance, could be called "Extensive Reading in English". The problem with introducing a new subject at school is, that this decision is not school autonomous but does require an admission or a law passed by the ministry for education. The other three suggestions are definitely legally possible in Austrian schools. As part of an existing course, teachers may ask pupils to read "a certain number of books per week or per semester, both in class and for homework" (Day & Bamford 1998: 41) and include this into the marking system. Or teachers can just try to "[encourage] [students] to read according to their interests and for their own enjoyment" (Day & Bamford 1998: 41) without relating extensive reading to the grade students get in the course. This will certainly be the hardest one but Day & Bamford are convinced of its success "[i]f a teacher is firmly committed to extensive reading and promotes it actively" (Day & Bamford 1998: 42). The last suggestion is to introduce extensive reading as an extracurricular activity in the school curriculum, which could then be considered a *Freifach*. Students are free to join this "extracurricular reading club", which could be legally compared to already existing *Freifächer*, such as computer lessons, typing or choir.

In conclusion, extensive reading could definitely be included in the Austrian school curriculum immediately. If teachers are really convinced of the benefits of extensive reading, they can either include it as an obligatory or voluntary part of their English lessons or they can found an extracurricular course where interested pupils meet regularly to exchange their opinion on the texts they have read. The legal steps and related economic and administrative consequences are, however, difficult to determine and therefore introducing extensive reading in schools is definitely a challenging task. It can therefore be concluded that Waring's request that "extensive reading should not be seen as supplemental or optional, but as a core and indispensable part of all language programs" (Waring 2006: n.p.) is unfortunately not very likely to be implemented in Austrian schools in the near future.

6 FIELD STUDY: SUBJECTS, METHOD AND PROCEDURE

The theoretical part of this paper has presented the concept of extensive reading, its didactic implementation and the role of reading in the Austrian curriculum. Bearing in mind the importance of extensive reading for language learners at beginning or intermediate level, it is of interest now in how far extensive reading by means of language learner literature is employed in schools. Therefore a field study was conducted in two Upper Austrian districts. It intended to answer the following questions

- Which reading materials are employed by teachers in *Unterstufe*?
- Do these materials include extensive reading materials?
- In which years is language learner literature employed by teachers?

- How are extensive reading materials chosen?
- Which activities are done in connection with language learner literature?
- If the use of language learner literature is not possible, what are the reasons?
- Do libraries offer adequate reading materials?
- How do teachers inform themselves about novelties in the sector of language learner literature?

By means of a questionnaire directed at all teachers of English as a Foreign Language employed in the 24 *Gymnasien* and *Hauptschulen* of the two districts these questions should be answered.

In order to facilitate understanding of the questionnaire and the results of the field study the Austrian school system will briefly be described. In Austria, children attend *Unterstufe* at the age of 10 after four years in *Volksschule*. *Unterstufe* lasts for four years, from year 5 to year 8 and is covered by the Austrian compulsory education. Pupils can choose between two types of schools, namely *Hauptschule* and *Gymnasium*. In general, pupils who receive excellent marks in *Volksschule* attend *Gymnasium* afterwards. The others usually opt for *Hauptschule*. As presented in chapter 5, the curricula for both, *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule*, are identical in the main subjects, which also include English as a Foreign Language. At this point, most children have already experienced two years of English as a Foreign Language in *Volksschule*. There, however, the focus is on playful learning and introducing children to the English language without including reading and writing in the foreign language. Afterwards, in *Unterstufe*, English is introduced as a main compulsory subject with exams. Most schools offer four weekly English lessons in year 5 and 6 and three English lessons in year 7 and 8.

Subjects

The field study was carried out in Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land, two districts in Upper Austria. Wels-Stadt is the second largest city in Upper Austria with 58.623 inhabitants[62]. It is at the same time an administrative district. Regarding education, it provides eight *Hauptschulen* and four *Gymnasien* (one of each type is a private school[63]) (see Table 8). Wels-Land is the surrounding district of Wels-Stadt and is divided into smaller communities, namely one town, nine *Marktgemeinden* and 14 *Gemeinden*[64]. All in all, this rural area is home to 63.004 people[65] and it provides 11 *Hauptschulen* and one *Gymnasium* – the *Gymnasium* is private (see Table 8).

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[62] cf. http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wels_(Stadt)

	Hauptschule		***Gymnasium***	
	public	**private**	**public**	**private**
Wels-Stadt	7	1	3	1
Wels-Land	11	0	0	1
total	18	1	3	2
	19		**5**	

Table 8: Overview of Schools Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land

In all *Hauptschulen* and *Gymnasien* in Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land, all teachers of English as a Foreign Language were asked to fill in a questionnaire on their opinion on reading in general and their practice of using language learner literature with their pupils. Altogether 123 people participated in the survey, 64 of these teach in the district of Wels-Land and 59 in the district of Wels-Stadt. 91 of the participants work in *Hauptschulen*, 32 in *Gymnasien*. In Wels-Stadt four teachers are employed in a private *Hauptschule* and four teachers in a private *Gymnasium*. Due to a lack of significance, the division of schools into private and public will be discarded. As for *Gymnasien*, there will be no separation between the districts of Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land, as there is only one *Gymnasium* in Wels-Land. It is not only a private school but it is much smaller than the *Gymnasien* in Wels-Stadt. Thus a comparison of the results would not be reliable. The following table (see Table 9) summarises the numbers of participants according to districts and type of school.

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[63] Private school, in this context means that this school is not run by the Austrian government but by the Catholic Church. In Austrian private schools it is common that parents pay moderate school fees, the teachers are paid by the government.

[64] cf. http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bezirk_Wels-Land

[65] cf. http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bezirk_Wels-Land

	Hauptschule		*Gymnasium*		
	public	**private**	**public**	**private**	**total of districts**
Wels-Stadt	27	4	28	---	**59**
Wels-Land	60	---	---	4	**64**
total	87	4	28	4	
	91		**32**		
	123				

Table 9: Numbers of Participating Teachers

According to the examination of the sociodemographic information, 20% of the participants are male and 80% female. The majority of them (85%) are already very experienced in their job with ten or more years of teaching. English is a second or foreign language for all of the participants. Consult the following table (see Table 10) for detailed information.

category				
	male		**female**	
Sex	20%		80%	
	1-2	**3-4**	**5-9**	**10+**
teaching experience	3%	2%	10%	85%
	mother tongue		**second/foreign language**	
English was learnt as…	---		100%	

Table 10: Description of the Participants

Method

The questionnaire was designed as a "self-administered pencil-and-paper questionnaire" (Dörnyei 203: 6), containing four pages and was printed in colour in booklet format. It required a maximum of 15 minutes to complete. It consisted of the following five sections:

- I: Reading Materials in General and Reading Language Learner Literature
- II: School Library
- III: Obtaining Information on Language Learner Literature
- IV: Free Answer and
- V: Sociodemographic Information

The questionnaire contained a total of 18 questions. A combination of factual, behavioural and attitudinal questions (cf. Dönyei 2003: 8) was chosen in order to cover a wide range of important questions to be asked in the field of the use of language learner literature in *Unterstufe*. "Factual questions […] [we]re used to find out about who the respondents are" (Dörnyei 2003: 8), which corresponds to *Section V: Sociodemographic Information*. Additionally, *Section II: School Library* and *Section III: Obtaining Information on Language Learner Literature* were also partly factual. "Behavioral questions [we]re used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past" (Dörnyei 2003: 8), which are present primarily in *Section Ia: Reading Materials in General* and *Section Ib: Reading Language Learning Literature*, in which the field of interest was information on classroom practice related to reading and using language learner literature. *Section IV: Other things I would like to say about language learner literature* was designed as "attitudinal question [which] is [generally] used to find out what people think" (Dörnyei 203: 8). To a large part, the individual questions of one section were to be answered on a rating scale of frequency, ranging from “always” to “never”. This has led to more detailed results than only "yes-no"-questions. The questionnaire was piloted with five teachers of English as a Foreign Language who did not participate in the survey afterwards. With their help, potential answers were collected and unclear items were changed.

Relating to the guidelines for compiling a questionnaire by Dörnyei (2003: 16-69), the following aspects were also considered:

- a guarantee of anonymity,
- an appealing title different from simply putting "questionnaire",
- general and specific instructions,
- clearly separated questionnaire items and
- a note of thanks in the end.

The questionnaire can be seen in the appendix (see Appendix 10.3).

Procedure

Altogether, 170 questionnaires were distributed among all the teachers of English as a Foreign Language employed in the *Hauptschulen* and *Gymnasien* in Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land. The contact persons in the school were the

FachkoordinatorInnen of the subject English, who were responsible for distributing the questionnaires among their colleagues and collecting them afterwards. Considering the return of both districts and both types of schools, a total of 123 completed questionnaires were returned, which equals a percentage of 72%. As for *Hauptschulen*, Wels-Land shows a return rate of 87% and Wels-Stadt one of 66%. Concerning *Gymnasien*, in Wels-Land 100% of the questionnaires were returned, in Wels-Stadt 56%. The table below (see Table 11) depicts the return rates of each district and type of school:

	Hauptschule	***Gymnasium***
Wels-Stadt	66%	56%
Wels-Land	87%	100%
total	78%	59%
	72%	

Table 11: Return Rate According to Districts and Type of School

After collecting the questionnaires, they were numbered consecutively and the data was analysed in Microsoft Excel for each type of school and district. Subsequently the results were converted from numbers into percentages in order to allow a better comparison.

7 RESULTS

The results for each question of the survey will be presented in the following way: firstly, the overall results of all participants will be summarised. Afterwards, the results of *Hauptschule* and *Gymnasium* will be compared. Finally, *Hauptschulen* from Wels-Stadt will be compared to those of Wels-Land. These comparisons are relevant because according to the generally accepted opinion is that teachers in *Gymnasien* can do more additional practice – which certainly also includes reading – with their pupils, as they learn more easily than pupils in *Hauptschulen*. When comparing *Hauptschulen* according to the geographical distinction between Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt, it is widely believed that the schools in the rural district offer a higher level of education than those in the urban district. In how far this can be generalised in reality remains uncertain. The results will be depicted in percentages. Due to rounding to whole numbers, the sum of percentages in one question may sometimes slightly deviate from 100%.

7.1 READING MATERIALS USED IN CLASS

In the first section of the questionnaire teachers were asked to give information on the frequency of the use of various different reading materials in *Unterstufe*. The overall results are the following (see Table 12):

- The material predominantly used in class is the textbook. 82% of the participants always read the texts provided in the book with their pupils.
- 70% of the teachers sometimes complement a topic by using texts from textbooks different from the one used in class.
- Language learner literature is sometimes used by 75% of the participants.
- Adapted texts from magazines (e.g. *Spot On*) are also used sometimes to complement lessons by 68% of the teachers.
- The text from the current year's English Theatre performance is always employed in class by 27% of the participants. Whereas half of the participants read this text with their students at least sometimes, the other half does never deal with the text of the theatre performance in class.
- Authentic materials from newspapers are sometimes used by almost half of the teachers. The rest never makes use of authentic materials in class.
- Regarding books written for natives, the use of children's literature is not very popular in class with 40% only sometimes and almost 60% never using children's books. Original works written for (young) adults are even more unpopular with 70% of the participants never employing them.
- Apart from the options given in the questionnaire, teachers use texts from the internet, which can be regarded as authentic materials (e.g. newspaper articles). Moreover, original leaflets, brochures and folders, for instance, about cities are employed in class.

	always	often	sometimes	never
class textbook	82	17	1	0
other textbooks	0	2	70	28
language learner literature	3	9	75	13
magazines (with adapted texts)	0	7	68	24
text from English Theatre performance	27	7	16	50
authentic materials (e.g. newspaper articles)	2	3	47	48
children's literature	0	2	39	59
original literary works for (young) adults	1	4	25	70
other(s)	0	0	2	98

Table 12: Materials Used in Class (Overall Results in Percentages)

A comparison between *Gymnasien* and *Hauptschulen* shows four significant differences (see Table 13). In *Gymnasium*

- the number of teachers who always read the texts in the textbook with their pupils is higher than in *Hauptschule* (88% in *Gymnasium*, 80% in *Hauptschule*).
- teachers seem to complement their lessons more frequently with additional materials from other textbooks, magazines and authentic texts.
- the use of language learner literature is more frequent: 13% of the teachers always read language learner literature with their students, 13% often, 66% sometimes and only 9% never. In *Hauptschule* none of the teachers always uses language learner literature, 8% often, 78% sometimes and 14% never use it.
- original works for young adults are used more frequently than in *Hauptschule*.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
class textbook	88	13	0	0	80	19	1	0
other textbooks	0	3	78	19	0	1	67	32
language learner literature	13	13	66	9	0	8	78	14
magazines (with adapted texts)	0	22	56	22	0	2	73	25
text from English Theatre performance	28	19	16	38	26	3	16	54
authentic materials (e.g. newspaper articles)	6	6	50	38	0	2	46	52
children's literature	0	3	44	53	0	1	37	62
original literary works for (young) adults	3	16	47	34	0	0	18	82
other(s)	0	0	3	97	0	0	2	98

Table 13: Materials Used in Class (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

When comparing *Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land to those in Wels-Stadt (see Table 14), three significant differences can be observed. In the schools in the district of Wels-Land

- the texts from the class textbook are read more frequently than in Wels-Stadt (87% always read them, whereas only 68% in Wels-Stadt always read them).
- language learner literature is used more often than in Wels-Stadt.
- original works, such as children's books or books for (young) adults are employed in class more frequently than in Wels-Stadt.

Interestingly, there exist striking similarities between the results of *Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and the overall results of *Gymnasien*.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
class textbook	87	13	0	0	68	29	3	0
other textbooks	0	0	72	28	0	3	58	39
language learner literature	0	10	78	12	0	3	77	19
magazines (with adapted texts)	0	3	73	23	0	0	71	29
text from English Theatre performance	27	2	13	58	26	6	23	45
authentic materials (e.g. newspaper articles)	0	3	47	50	0	0	45	55
children's literature	0	0	42	58	0	3	29	68
original literary works for (young) adults	0	0	20	80	0	0	13	87
other(s)	0	0	0	100	0	0	6	94

Table 14: Material Used in Class (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in Percentages)

On the whole, it can be concluded that the predominant reading material is the textbook. Thus, students mainly experience intensive reading as textbooks basically contain rather short texts, which are not suitable for extensive reading. If the texts of a unit are of a certain length, they are frequently used to present new grammar or vocabulary and are usually followed by comprehension questions. Although most of those texts certainly could be used as extensive reading texts, it is to be assumed that teachers use them in their intended sense for a deductive approach on grammar. Unfortunately, textbooks for *Unterstufe* do not contain longer texts suitable for extensive reading at the end of the book, as it is frequently the case with books for *Oberstufe*. To justify the predominant use of the textbook, teachers state that the material is so comprehensive that it is hardly possible to do all exercises. Instead of leaving out exercises which they consider less effective, they appear to feel forced to do everything.

The abundance of material in the textbook also affects the use of additional materials. If the textbook itself already offers an abundance of material, it is not likely that teachers employ any additional materials. This consequence is also supported by the results of the present study, which shows that teachers, in general, only “sometimes” use additional materials.

Another interesting result is that teachers seem to take the opportunity to attend the annual performance of the touring English Theatre with their pupils. It seems that they want to offer their students diversion from the classroom routine and thereby allow for native speaker contact.

Following the results of the field study, intensive reading is the predominant reading skill practised in class by means of the textbook. Extensive reading is – on the whole – only sometimes part of classroom practice. The predominant frequency of the use of language learner literature, children's literature and original literary works for (young) adults ranges from sometimes to never.

Regarding the comparison of *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule*, the generally accepted opinion that pupils in *Gymnasien* are more capable than those attending *Hauptschulen* is supported by the study. In the *Gymnasien* of the study, teachers have more opportunities to deal with reading materials in two ways: firstly, they have the opportunity to practise intensive (e.g. textbook) as well as in extensive (e.g. language learner literature) reading. Secondly, they seem to use a large amount of additional reading materials apart from the textbook. All this may be ascribed to the fact that the majority of pupils in *Gymnasien* learn with more ease and achieve better results at school.

As for the comparison between *Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt, in the former district teachers seem to be able to read more with their pupils. This is not only true for the texts in the textbook itself but also for the use of additional materials. The reasons for this cannot be concluded thoroughly from the study, but can only be guessed. According to teachers in Wels-Stadt, one reason might be that the large share of pupils with migratory background and severe disciplinary problems hinder teaching. The possible consequences of depriving students of learning opportunities by limiting the amount of materials offered to them are, however, unclear (see "The vicious circle of the weak reader" in Chapter 1).

7.2 AT WHICH COMPETENCE LEVEL IS LANGUAGE LEARNER LITERATURE USED?

Another interesting issue in the use of language learner literature is the competence level at which it can be used with pupils. The concept of competence level can be defined by giving the year in which the students are. The overall results of this question are the following (see Figure 3): in year five, about 60% of the teachers never employ language learner literature and 32% sometimes make use of it. Thus, language learner literature is hardly ever used in year five of *Unterstufe*. In year six, the use of language learner literature increases to 13% of the teachers often using it, almost 40% sometimes employing it, only leaving 41% of the teachers never reading language learner literature with their pupils. In year seven, another rise in the use of simple texts can be observed: 12% always, 18% often, 44% sometimes and only 26% never use them. The increasing language competence, gives, of course, also rise to the use of language learner literature in year 8: 16% always, 20% often, 52% sometimes and only 12% of the teachers never read extensive simple texts with their pupils. The table below depicts the overall results in percentages (see Figure 3).

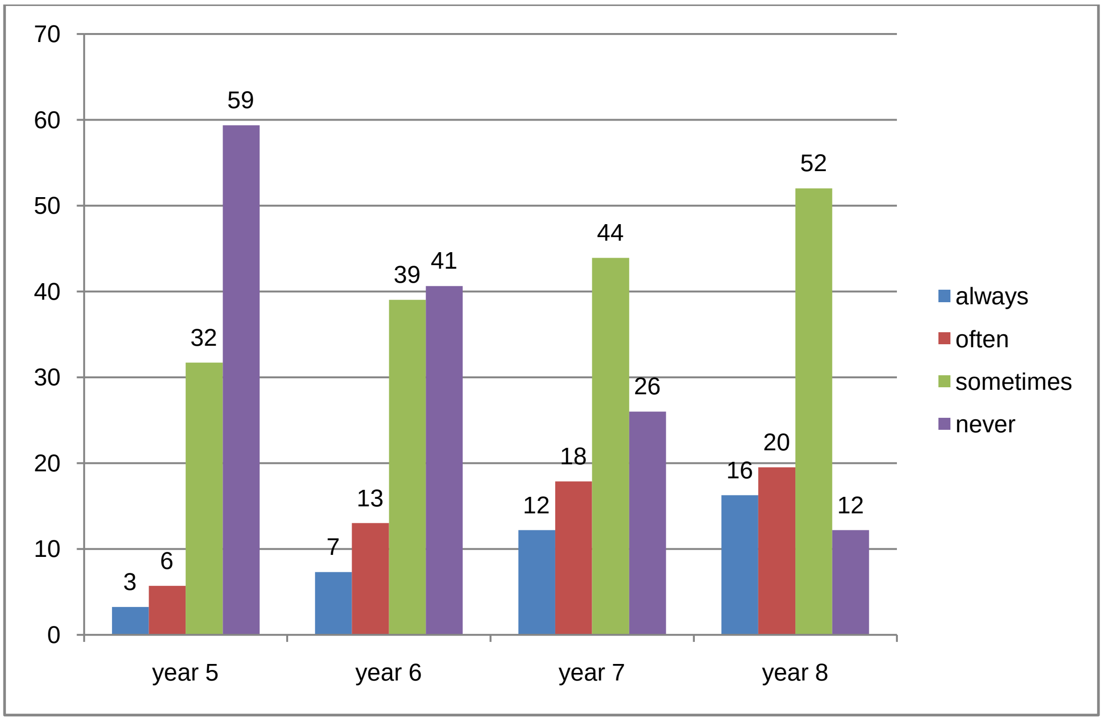

Figure 3: Use of Language Learner Literature According to Years (Overall Results in Percentages)

When comparing *Gymnasium* to *Hauptschule* (see Table 15), the general trend is that in *Gymnasium* language learner literature is used more frequently in all four years. Already in year five, language learner literature is used more often in *Gymnasium* than in *Hauptschule*. This trend becomes even more obvious in the years six to eight, where the use of language learner literature is significantly higher in *Gymnasium*. Whereas, for instance, in year eight, only 11% of teachers in *Hauptschulen* always employ language learner literature in class, almost a third in *Gymnasien* does. In general, in *Hauptschule* the majority of teachers sometimes use language learner literature. In *Gymnasium*, however, the majority of them always or often use additional extensive reading texts by means of language learner literature.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
year 5	9	13	31	47	1	3	32	64
year 6	25	25	31	19	1	9	42	48
year 7	34	28	22	16	4	14	52	30
year 8	31	31	25	13	11	15	62	12

Table 15: Use of Language Learner Literature According to Year (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

Regarding the geographical division of *Hauptschulen* according to the districts of Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land, the results do not differ significantly (see Table 16). Teachers in schools in Wels-Land use language learner literature slightly more frequently than teachers in Wels-Stadt. In both districts, the use of language learner literature increases with growing language competence, which is consistent with the overall results presented above.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
year 5	0	3	30	67	3	3	35	58
year 6	0	10	40	50	3	6	45	45
year 7	5	15	50	30	3	13	55	29
year 8	12	20	60	8	10	6	65	19

Table 16: Use of Language Learner Literature According to Years (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in Percentages)

What has to be added at this point is a closer look at *Hauptschulen* according to the three different *Leistungsgruppen* (see Figure 4). *Leistungsgruppen* in Austrian *Hauptschulen* are intended to stream pupils into three ability groups according to their performance in the main subjects. Whereas *Leistungsgruppe* 1 contains the best students of a subject, *Leistungsgruppe* 3 cares for the weakest ones. Thus, in the main subjects one class is divided into three smaller groups which are taught by different teachers in order to provide an adequate promotion of students of different ability levels. When examining the results, it seems that the use of language learner literature decreases according to the decreasing language competence according to the different *Leistungsgruppen*. Whereas teachers in *Leistungsgruppe* 1 frequently read additional simple texts with their pupils, this is not the case in *Leistungsgruppe* 3, where 66% of the teachers never use language learner literature. Thus, weaker students, who experience learning problems, are generally deprived of the opportunity to read extensively in the foreign language. This could lead to the vicious circle of the weak reader presented by Nuttall (see Chapter 1).

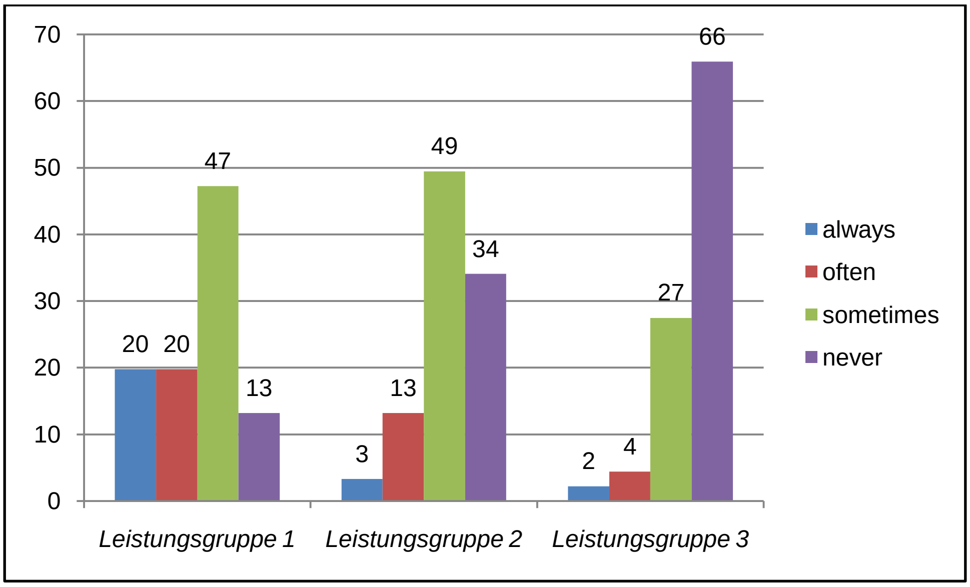

Figure 4: Use of Language Learner Literature According to *Leistungsgruppen* in *Hauptschulen* (Overall Results in Percentages)

Regarding the use of language learner literature in the different *Leistungsgruppen* according to the geographical distinction between Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt, the same trends as in the overall results are to be observed (see Table 17). The use of additional extensive reading materials increases with increasing language competence, or put differently, the better students are in English the more they are exposed to language learner literature. In Wels-Land, however, teachers employ simple texts slightly more frequently than in Wels-Stadt.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
Leistungsgruppe 1	18	25	47	10	23	10	48	19
Leistungsgruppe 2	3	15	47	35	3	10	55	32
Leistungsgruppe 3	2	3	32	63	3	6	19	71

Table 17: Use of Language Learner Literature According to *Leistungsgruppen* in *Hauptschulen* (Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in Percentages)

Concluding, the use of language learner literature increases with growing language competence, not only in terms of years at school, but also in terms of *Leistungsgruppen* which exist in *Hauptschulen*. Although *Gymnasien* and *Hauptschulen* have the same amount of English classes per week, in *Gymnasium* the use of language learner literature is generally more popular than in *Hauptschulen*. Reasons for this difference may be traced back to the fact that pupils in *Gymnasium* are generally considered more capable than those in *Hauptschule*.

7.3 THE PURPOSE OF USING LANGUAGE LEARNER LITERATURE – CLASS READERS VS. PLEASURE READING?

As proposed in chapter 4, language learner literature may generally be used for two different purposes, either as a class reader or for pleasure reading. The difference between the two is the choice of materials. Whereas with class readers all students have the same book, mostly chosen by the teacher, in pleasure reading every student reads a different book of their own choice. This division also frequently implicates the distinction between intensive and extensive reading: class readers are often used for language work, which is definitely intensive reading. Pleasure reading, on the contrary, is intended to resemble reading in L1, which does not include any language work or follow-up activities which test pupils' comprehension.

Before presenting the results it has to be stated that teachers who never use language learner literature in class did not have to answer the questionnaire from this question onwards. For more information on the number of teachers never using simple texts and the reasons for their decision consult chapter 7.5. Therefore the sums of the percentages in the following tables will not equal 100%.

Contemplating the table below (see Table 18), the frequency of language learner literature used as a class reader and for pleasure reading is very similar. As a balance between intensive and extensive reading should be the goal in every language programme, this result is satisfactory. For teachers, however, it is important to bear in mind that the opportunity for students' self-selection may result in an increase of motivation for reading and subsequently for language learning. Furthermore, pleasure reading should be fostered as a valuable out-of-class learning strategy.

	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
class reader	15	13	48	14
pleasure reading	11	23	40	16

Table 18: Purpose of Language Learner Literature (Overall Results in Percentages)

Regarding the division between *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule*, the following table depicts two main differences (see Table 19). Firstly, in *Gymnasium*, language learner literature is generally employed more frequently than in *Hauptschule*. Only 3% of all teachers in *Gymnasium* but 12% of all teachers in *Hauptschule* never employ language learner literature (see Chapter 7.5). Secondly, pleasure reading is preferred to class readers in *Gymnasium*. In *Hauptschule*, on the contrary, teachers focus less on reading language learner literature and if simple texts are employed in *Hauptschule*, the use as a class reader is more popular than pleasure reading.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
class reader	28	16	34	19	11	12	53	12
pleasure reading	28	38	25	6	5	18	45	20

Table 19: Purpose of Language Learner Literature (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

Before examining the results of the *Hauptschulen* according to the geographical division between Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in more detail, it has to be said that the number of teachers who never use language learner literature at all is much higher in Wels-Stadt than in Wels-Land (see Chapter 7.5). The percentages equal 8% in Wels-Land and 19% in Wels-Stadt. As this number is not represented in the results, the sum of percentages does not add up to 100% in the following table (see Table 20). The overall use of language learner literature as a class reader is very similar in both districts. A large difference, however, is visible in the amount of pleasure reading done by teachers. Whereas in Wels-Land 83% of teachers at least sometimes allow self-selection of materials, in Wels-Stadt only 38% take students' preferences into consideration. 42% of teachers who are employed in Wels-Stadt never allow self-selection of materials.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
class reader	10	13	52	17	13	10	55	3
pleasure reading	7	23	53	8	3	6	29	42

Table 20: Purpose of Language Learner Literature (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in Percentages)

In summary, in the overall results the use of intensive and extensive reading is balanced, which is a desirable result in terms of language learning theory. When having a closer look at the results according to the two different types of school, it becomes obvious that in *Gymnasium* pleasure reading is more popular than in *Hauptschule*. This may be explained by the fact that in *Gymnasium*, students generally are expected to study independently. According to statements of teachers, the difference of the results in *Hauptschule* regarding the two different districts may again be accounted for by the high percentage of pupils with migratory background, for whom English is already the third language. For them it is more important to improve their German skills than their English language competence.

7.4 WHY DO TEACHERS USE LANGUAGE LEARNER LITERATURE?

Several reasons for employing language learner literature have been discussed in chapter 2.3. On this question, the questionnaire offered a list of six potential answers and a free answer opportunity (see Table 21). The following four conclusions can be drawn from the results.

- 41% of the participating teachers state that they always use language learner literature in order to make the pupils experience the pleasure of reading. Additionally, another 43% of the participants employ simple texts because of this reason often or sometimes. Interestingly, this result does not concur with the results of the questions on the purpose of using language learner literature (see Chapter 7.3). Of course, also a book used as a class reader and chosen by the teacher may appeal to some of the pupils. The concept of pleasure reading, however, has to be understood differently.
- Three other important factors which prompt teachers to employ language learner literature are reading comprehension training, additional reading practice and the development of a 'sense' for English. Whereas reading comprehension training is closely linked to intensive reading, the other two are an important motive for extensive reading.
- The possibility of incidental vocabulary acquisition and the provision of comprehensible input by means of language learner literature seem to be underestimated by a quarter of the participants.
- In the free answer section of this question teachers stated that reading books with pupils builds a basis for writing book reports, for awakening pupils' interest in literature, for training and consolidating basic grammatical structures and for doing listening comprehensions with the accompanying audio book.

	always	often	sometimes	never
vocabulary acquisition	19	18	29	24
additional reading practice	33	23	28	6
reading comprehension training	36	23	28	3
development of a 'sense' for English	33	24	24	9
providing 'comprehensible input'	20	14	33	23
pleasure reading	41	15	27	6
others	2	1	2	95

Table 21: Reasons for Using Language Learner Literature (Overall Results in Percentages)

The comparison between *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* seems to suggest that teachers in *Gymnasium* have more theoretical background on the importance of reading in foreign language teaching. They seem to be more aware of the positive effects which reading might have on pupils' development of language competence. The suggested reasons for using language learner literature are consistently respected with higher frequency by teachers in *Gymnasium* than by those in *Hauptschule* (see Table 22). Deriving pleasure from reading is a very popular reason for employing language learner literature in *Gymnasium* – for 81% of the participants pleasure is always a reason for reading with the pupils. On the analogy of the overall results, the development of a 'sense' for English, reading comprehension training and additional reading practice are always decisive factors for about 60% of the teachers in *Gymnasium*. They also seem to be aware of Krashen's concept of comprehensible input and incidental vocabulary acquisition while reading. Compared to *Gymnasium*, teachers in *Hauptschule* do not seem to be very familiar with the last two concepts, which would lend theoretical support to the use of language learner literature. This might be traced back to the difference in the initial teacher training which the two groups of teachers have received.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
vocabulary acquisition	34	13	31	19	13	20	29	25
additional reading practice	56	19	16	6	25	24	32	5
reading comprehension training	59	9	25	3	27	27	29	3
development of a 'sense' for English	63	16	13	6	22	26	29	10
providing 'comprehensible input'	38	9	25	22	13	15	35	23
pleasure reading	81	3	13	0	27	20	32	8
others	3	0	3	94	2	1	1	96

Table 22: Reasons for Using Language Learner Literature (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

When taking a closer look at *Hauptschule* according to the division into Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt, the reasons for using language learner literature have been chosen with very similar frequency. Only in three reasons the opinions differ: in the development of a 'sense' for English, in providing 'comprehensible input' and facilitating pleasure reading. Teachers in Wels-Land seem to attach more importance to offering the students an opportunity to develop a 'sense' of English by reading language learner literature than teachers in Wels-Stadt. They also focus more on the pleasure derived from reading. Surprisingly, in Wels-Stadt teachers seem to be more aware of the importance of providing 'comprehensible input' but are not able to put this into practice due to other problems existing in class.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
vocabulary acquisition	15	15	33	27	10	29	19	23
additional reading practice	23	25	35	7	29	23	26	3
reading comprehension training	25	30	30	5	32	23	26	0
development of a 'sense' for English	27	25	30	8	13	29	26	13
providing 'comprehensible input'	18	8	38	25	3	29	29	19
pleasure reading	28	22	35	5	26	16	26	13
others	2	2	0	97	3	0	3	93

Table 23: Reasons for Using Language Learner Literature (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt)

In summary, the first interesting result is that the majority of teachers want their students to experience pleasure from reading. They, however, seem to lack techniques and guidelines of how to achieve this. Using a book as a class reader will never result in pleasure for everybody. Thus, the concept of extensive reading has to be spread further amongst teachers to help them reach their aims. Following the answers given by the participants, they unconsciously or consciously apply Day & Bamford’s guidelines for extensive reading: they want their students to read books because of additional reading practice and the development of a 'sense' for English. In general, teachers in *Gymnasium* seem to have deeper background knowledge of the importance of reading and the benefits reading can cause. Whether this is due to the differences in teacher education would be an interesting question for future research.

7.5 How Many Teachers Do Never Employ Language Learner Literature and Why?

As briefly stated in the previous chapter, a certain amount of teachers never employ language learner literature in class, neither as class reader nor for the purpose of pleasure reading. This chapter focuses on those teachers (see Table 24) and the reasons for their decisions (see Table 25). Whereas in *Gymnasium* only 3% of the teachers never employ simple texts, in *Hauptschulen* this percentage is 12%. Another significant difference appears when the division between *Hauptschulen* according to the geographical separation is considered. In Wels-Land the percentage of teachers who never use language learner literature is 8%. In Wels-Stadt, however, almost one out of five teachers never makes use of simple texts, which equals a quota of almost 20%.

	HAUPTSCHULE	***GYMNASIUM***
WELS-STADT	19	4
WELS-LAND	8	0
sum	12	3
TOTAL	**10**	

Table 24: Teachers Never Using Language Learner Literature (in Percentages)

Another section of the questionnaire considered the reasons for not employing language learner literature in English language learning. The following table (see

Table 25) illustrates possible reasons including their frequency of occurrence in the classroom. The following four conclusions can be drawn:

- The main problem with employing language learner literature in class seems to be the lack of language competence. Frequently, the language level of the pupils appears to be too low. This is supported by the result that in the majority of cases the language level is never too high for the use of language learner literature.
- The second problem experienced by 60% of the teachers is the pupils' lack of interest in reading books. Thus, it seems to be difficult for teachers to evoke motivation in their pupils.
- Other reasons for not using language learner literature which were given in the free answer of this question were discipline problems in class, which inhibits reading books, and, additionally the comprehensive textbooks which leave only little time for activities other than proposed by the authors of the book.
- Time-consuming preparation on the teacher's side, waste of class time by practising reading and lack of authenticity of language learner literature do not appear to be perceived as problems by the teachers.

	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
language level too low	21	28	28	22
language level too high	0	2	2	94
no interest in reading of the pupils	3	18	40	37
time-consuming preparation for the teacher	4	20	27	47
reading wastes valuable class time	4	16	32	46
language learner literature is not authentic	1	5	15	76
others	0	0	2	2

Table 25: Reasons for Not Using Language Learner Literature in Class (Overall Results in Percentages)

When comparing the results of *Gymnasium* to those of *Hauptschule*, the following five interesting features are observable (see Table 26):

- In *Gymnasium*, insufficient language competence of pupils is only a problem for a third (31%) of all participating teachers. On the contrary, in *Hauptschulen*, this problem is experienced by 92% of teachers. Pupils' language level is hardly ever too high for the use of language learner literature in both types of school.

- In *Gymnasien*, pupils' general interest in reading conventional books seems to be higher than in *Hauptschulen*. Whereas in *Hauptschulen* lack of interest in reading books is – at least sometimes – a problem for 70% of the teachers, this percentage is considerably lower in *Gymnasien* (32%).
- Teachers' preparation of a book is no problem for 70% of the teachers in *Gymnasien*. 57% of teachers in *Hauptschulen*, however, regard preparation as very time-consuming.
- More than half of the teachers in *Hauptschulen* prefer practising other skills in class as they think that reading wastes valuable class time. The opinion of the majority of the teachers in *Gymnasien* is the complete opposite, where 60% are not afraid of dedicating class time to reading.
- The discussion of authenticity generally appears not to be a problem for both types of schools.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
language level too low	6	6	19	66	26	35	31	7
language level too high	0	3	0	94	0	1	2	95
no interest in reading of the pupils	0	3	31	63	4	23	43	27
time-consuming preparation for the teacher	0	3	25	69	5	25	27	40
reading wastes valuable class time	0	9	28	59	5	19	33	41
language learner literature is not authentic	3	9	3	81	0	3	19	75
others	0	0	3	97	0	0	1	99

Table 26: Reasons for Not Using Language Learner Literature in Class (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

An analysis of the results of *Hauptschulen* according to their geographical division into the districts of Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt (see Table 27) shows that the frequency of problems occurring is, in general, very similar to the overall results presented above. Insufficient language competence seems to be a problem in both districts. In Wels-Land, however, the overall frequency of this problem is lower than in Wels-Stadt. Also the results concerning students' lack of interest in reading books are concordant with the overall results. In Wels-Land, as well as in Wels-Stadt, pupils do not show great interest in reading books. Compared to Wels-Stadt, in Wels-Land, however, the overall frequency of this problem is lower.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
language level too low	20	38	32	8	39	29	29	3
language level too high	0	0	2	95	0	3	3	94
no interest in reading of the pupils	2	22	48	25	10	26	32	32
time-consuming preparation for the teacher	7	28	25	37	3	19	32	45
reading wastes valuable class time	5	20	30	42	6	16	39	39
language learner literature is not authentic	0	5	15	77	0	0	26	71
others	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	100

Table 27: Reasons for Not Using Language Learner Literature in Class (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in Percentages)

In summary, the most decisive problem perceived by teachers is the pupils' insufficient language competence. For teachers it is difficult to find reading materials which match their students' level. However, there definitely exists a variety of low-level materials, which means that other problems seem to contribute to teachers' decisions of not employing language learner literature. The lack of interest in reading books could also be avoided by presenting motivating and interesting materials, which are offered by a variety of publishers. Furthermore, reading may not always happen by means of printed materials but also by means of websites, which are more appealing to students nowadays. Time-consuming preparation only applies to intensive reading and could be avoided by employing pleasure reading instead of class-readers. Generally, all teachers state the occurrence of a range of different problems, which results in a classroom situation in which reading – extensive as well as intensive – seems to be inhibited. From a very optimistic point of view, most of the problems stated may, however, be tackled by introducing extensive reading to the pupils.

7.6 WHICH FACTORS INFLUENCE THE CHOICE OF A PARTICULAR BOOK FROM THE RANGE OF LANGUAGE LEARNER LITERATURE?

Various factors may influence teachers' choice of reading materials. By means of a collection of given answers and a free answer section, the study aimed at eliciting how teachers select a particular text out of the multitude offered on the market. The following ranking of the importance of the individual factors can be concluded from the results. To get to this ranking, the percentages of the "always" and "often" choices were summed up and subsequently those results were listed in descending order.

1) topic and level of language
2) pupils' interest
3) availability in the school library
4) recommendations of colleagues
5) availability of additional materials
6) price
7) school's reading list
8) importance of a certain literary work
9) consolidation of a certain grammar point and
10) publisher

- The topic, the level of language and pupils' interest are the three factors which are regarded as most important by the participants. 73% of the teachers consider the topic and the level of language as always or often important when choosing a particular text. Teachers seem to be aware of the fact that the language level may either facilitate or complicate reading texts. On the other hand, 18% of the participants state that the language level is only sometimes or never a decisive factor. In order to increase students' motivation for reading, the level of language should always be the key factor of choice – for both, intensive and extensive reading, as in both types of reading, the language level has to match the purpose.
- 71% of teachers take into consideration pupils' interest when they choose language learner literature. So, ranks 1 to 3 concur with the suggestions by Day & Bamford for choosing appropriate reading materials for students.

- Another key factor in choosing a book appears to be the limited budget of schools and families. In order to save money, more than half of the teachers often use books which are available in the school library. All schools have a library at their disposal, where students can borrow books on their own from a variety of available titles. By means of school libraries pupils would have the opportunity to practise pleasure reading at home after the teacher has introduced the concept in class. This might be the reason why the price is not an influencing factor for more than the half of the participants.
- The availability of additional materials, the price, the schools' reading list, the importance of a certain literary work, consolidation of a certain grammar point and the publisher are of minor importance to the teachers.

	always	often	sometimes	never
topic	39	34	6	11
consolidation of a certain grammar point	0	3	14	72
pupils' interest	44	27	15	4
importance of a certain literary work	3	5	34	47
school's reading list	5	6	11	67
recommendations of colleagues	11	25	37	17
level of language	48	25	11	7
availability of additional materials	11	24	31	24
publisher	1	0	7	80
price	2	14	18	56
availability in school library	31	24	22	13
others	0	0	0	100

Table 28: Influencing Factors for Choosing One Particular Book (Overall Results in Percentages)

From a comparison of the results of *Gymnasium* to those of *Hauptschule*, the following five conclusions can be drawn:

- In *Gymnasium*, the three decisive factors of choice concur with those of the overall results, namely the topic, pupils' interest and the level of language. In *Hauptschule*, the three most important factors are the level of language, topic and pupils' interest. Thus, whereas in *Gymnasium*, the topic and pupils' interest are even slightly more important than the level of language, in *Hauptschule*, the level of language is more important than the topic and pupils' interest.

- Another difference between teachers in *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* becomes obvious in the way of acquiring the book. Whereas for 65% of teachers in *Hauptschule* the availability of the book in the school library is regarded as very important, this is only the case with 25% of the teachers in *Gymnasium*. This also explains the difference in the results regarding the price. As teachers in *Gymnasium* more frequently choose books which the students have to buy the price is a criterion of choice for 28% of the teachers. In *Hauptschule* this percentage is only 11%.
- 97% of teachers in *Gymnasium* only sometimes follow the recommendations of their school's reading list. This could either mean that a reading list does not exist, or that teachers do not regard the suggestions to be appropriate. Teachers in *Gymnasium* prefer following recommendations of their colleagues, which may possibly be more up to date. 15% of the teachers in *Hauptschule* always or often follow the school's reading list. It would be interesting whether those results imply that *Hauptschulen* offer a reading list with suggestions for the different years more frequently than *Gymnasien*.
- The last obvious difference regards the perceived importance of a certain literary work. Whereas in *Gymnasium* this still seems to be a decisive factor in 22% of the cases, in *Hauptschule* it only influences 3% of teachers in their choice.
- The opportunity to consolidate a certain grammar point and the publisher of the materials are not a decisive factor at all in both types of school.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
topic	41	41	9	6	38	32	4	12
consolidation of a certain grammar point	0	3	9	84	0	3	15	68
pupils' interest	50	31	13	3	42	25	15	4
importance of a certain literary work	9	13	31	44	1	2	35	48
school's reading list	0	0	9	88	7	8	12	60
recommendations of colleagues	16	44	38	0	9	19	36	23
level of language	56	19	9	22	45	27	12	2
availability of additional materials	6	31	47	13	12	22	25	27
publisher	0	0	3	94	1	0	9	76
price	3	25	22	47	1	10	16	59
availability in school library	3	22	38	34	41	24	16	5
others	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	100

Table 29: Influencing Factors for Choosing One Particular Book (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

When regarding the division of *Hauptschulen* according to the districts of Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land, the following two conclusions may be drawn:

- In Wels-Land, as well as in Wels-Stadt, the language level is the decisive factor in the choice of text, as for 78% of the participants the complexity of structures used is important. It is to question, however, whether teachers choose the books carefully enough as this result contradicts the results from chapter 7.5, where the reasons for not using language learner literature were analysed. In that question, 97% of teachers stated that a too low language level of the pupils would be – at least sometimes – a problem. This would lead to the conclusion that teachers might not choose the books carefully enough for their students' level.
- Regarding the factor of availability in the school library another difference becomes obvious: Whereas this is very important for 72% of teachers in Wels-Land, only half of the teachers in Wels-Stadt regularly take into account the availability of a book in their choice of language learner literature.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
topic	35	40	3	12	45	16	6	13
consolidation of a certain grammar point	0	5	12	73	0	0	23	58
pupils' interest	43	28	13	5	39	19	19	3
importance of a certain literary work	2	0	40	48	0	6	26	48
school's reading list	7	8	8	67	6	6	19	48
recommendations of colleagues	8	22	38	22	10	13	32	26
level of language	48	30	10	2	39	23	16	3
availability of additional materials	10	23	25	32	16	19	26	19
publisher	2	0	7	82	0	0	13	65
price	0	12	18	60	3	6	13	58
availability in school library	40	32	15	3	42	10	19	10
others	0	0	0	100	0	0	0	100

Table 30: Influencing Factors for Choosing One Particular Book (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in Percentages)

In summary, when choosing one particular book, the topic, the language level, pupils' interest and the availability in the school library are the top four factors which influence the teacher. The availability in the school library carries on to the presentation of the two different ways of getting hold of books: pupils may either have the possibility to use the books from the school library or they may have to buy them. It would be interesting how many of the books in the library are still up to date according to language teaching research and usable with students topic-wise. The last interesting result is that language learner literature seems to be on the right track to shed its reputation as simple versions of popular classics, as only a small number of teachers choose a book because of its literary importance. This is partly due to the interest of the pupils, which may more be with love or adventure stories etc. This section of the questionnaire leaves three questions for further research: do the results imply that in all or most cases it is the teacher who chooses the reading materials? How up to date are school libraries and to which extent do students make use of the opportunity to borrow books? And the last one would be: do reading lists with suggestions for the individual years exist in schools?

7.7 WHAT DOES CLASSROOM PROCEDURE FOR USING LANGUAGE LEARNER LITERATURE LOOK LIKE?

This section of the questionnaire intends to find out about classroom procedure. A variety of possible while- and after-reading activities was proposed, by which it was possible to find out whether or not teachers tend to practise intensive or extensive reading (see Table 31). The following conclusions may be drawn from the answers of the participants. While reading,

- 78% of the teachers – at least sometimes – allow the use of dictionaries. As presented in Day & Bamford's principles, dictionary use should be permitted but pupils should be trained not to look up words in an exaggerated way. Thus, on the one hand, dictionary use may aid extensive reading but, on the other hand, may also be used for vocabulary work during intensive reading.
- students very rarely get the chance to listen to audio book which accompanies the text and to visit the library and choose a book themselves, which would be two indicators of extensive reading.
- about the half of the teachers practise reading aloud in class. This would suggest the use of intensive reading. Only one third allows students to read silently in class, which would be a prerequisite for pleasure reading.

After reading,

- 66% of the teachers frequently require their students to answer comprehension questions on the text. As this is considered testing the understanding of the material read, it would not be counted as an extensive reading practice by Day & Bamford. The same is true for writing a detailed summary of the text after having read the book. The opportunity to produce a personal response is granted by 54% of the teachers. Tasks which ask the students for their opinion and their feelings are accepted in the context of extensive reading by Day & Bamford. Another possibility to ask for a personal response is to act out scenes from the text, which is not very popular amongst teachers.

	always	often	sometimes	never
ask comprehension questions	41	25	16	7
ask for personal response	30	24	25	11
allow use of dictionaries	52	15	11	11
play audio files accompanying the book	7	11	37	34
silent reading in class	16	16	38	19
practise reading aloud in class	18	31	31	10
write a summary of the text	13	22	43	11
act out scenes from the text	3	6	36	45
visit library and let students choose a book	8	15	48	17

Table 31: Classroom Procedure When Using Language Learner Literature (Overall Results in Percentages)

The results of *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* are very similar. They only differ in two respects (see Table 32). Teachers in *Gymnasium* compared to those in *Hauptschule*

- appear to do after-reading activities more frequently. Comprehension questions as well as personal response tasks are more popular with teachers in *Gymnasium*. The number of teachers asking for a personal response of their pupils is particularly high, namely 91%. Also writing summaries and acting out scenes from the text is practised more frequently by teachers in *Gymnasium* than by teachers in *Hauptschule*.
- practise reading silently in class less frequently, which may imply that pupils are required to read at home as the frequency of reading aloud does not significantly differ from *Hauptschule*.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
ask comprehension questions	59	19	13	6	34	27	18	8
ask for a personal response	66	25	6	0	18	23	32	14
allow the use of dictionaries	63	6	9	19	48	18	12	9
play audio files accompanying the book	13	6	44	34	4	13	35	34
silent reading in class	9	0	50	38	19	22	34	12
practise reading aloud in class	19	25	44	9	18	33	26	10
write a summary of the text	19	25	31	22	11	21	47	8
act out scenes from the text	6	9	47	34	2	4	32	48
visit library and let students choose a book	6	19	56	16	9	14	45	18

Table 32: Classroom Procedure When Using Language Learner Literature (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

There is no significant difference between the classroom procedure in *Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt (see Table 33). The only divergence is obvious in practising reading silently and aloud in class. Whereas in Wels-Land 43% of the participants frequently require their students to read silently in class, only 35% in Wels-Stadt often or always practise it. In consequence, in Wels-Land reading aloud in class happens less frequently.

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**
ask comprehension questions	32	32	15	12	39	19	23	0
ask for a personal response	17	22	33	18	19	26	29	6
allow the use of dictionaries	48	22	12	8	48	10	13	10
play audio files accompanying the book	5	12	33	40	3	16	39	23
silent reading in class	20	23	30	17	16	19	42	3
practise reading aloud in class	15	28	33	13	23	42	13	3
write a summary of the text	12	18	57	3	10	26	29	16
act out scenes from the text	3	2	32	53	0	10	32	39
visit library and let students choose a book	12	12	53	13	3	19	29	26

Table 33: Classroom Procedure When Using Language Learner Literature (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt)

In summary, in an examination of classroom procedures, the amount of intensive reading practise in class seems to outweigh the amount of extensive reading. Follow-up activities frequently focus on testing comprehension and reading aloud in class is very popular with half of the teachers. In general, in *Gymnasium* there seem to be more follow-up activities for pupils than in *Hauptschule* and reading itself appears to take place largely at home. Some results, however, might indicate the use of extensive reading in class, such as silent reading periods, the use of dictionaries and the requirement for a personal response to the text. What is missing, however, is more detailed information on the extent to which reading happens out of class. Furthermore, this question did not have a free-answer section, which might have led to additional answers.

7.8 HOW DO TEACHERS OBTAIN INFORMATION ON THE OFFER OF LANGUAGE LEARNER LITERATURE?

In order to remain informed on the novelties published in the product range of language learner literature teachers may consult various sources of information. The first opportunity for publishers to advertise their products would be sending advertising material to the individual schools. On the whole, 41% of all participating teachers are aware of the fact that there is advertising by publishers at their school. One quarter, however, states that there is no advertising in schools. About a third does not know whether or not there is information material on the novelties in language learner literature at their institution (see Figure 5). What has to be added at this point is that in all schools there is disagreement on whether there is advertising by publishers or not.

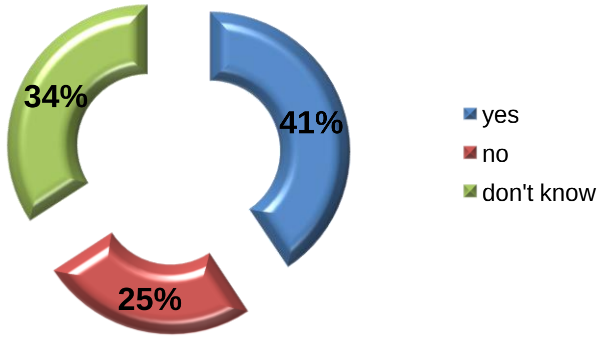

Figure 5: Advertising at Schools by Publishers (Overall Results in Percentages)

In a careful analysis of the results of *Gymnasium* compared to those of *Hauptschule*, it is interesting that in the former teachers seem to be more conscious of the fact that publishers provide information material on language learner literature in their schools (see Figure 6). Whereas in *Gymnasium* almost 60% of the participants claim that there is advertising, only 34% of teachers in *Hauptschulen* state that publishers advertise their products at school. Subsequently, the number of teachers who is uncertain whether advertising of language learner literature exists at their school is much higher in *Hauptschulen*. 41% of the participants teaching in *Hauptschulen* do not know whether publishers provide information material, whereas in *Gymnasium* this percentage is very low, namely 16%. The percentage of teachers saying that there is no advertising at their school is similar in both types of school, namely 25%.

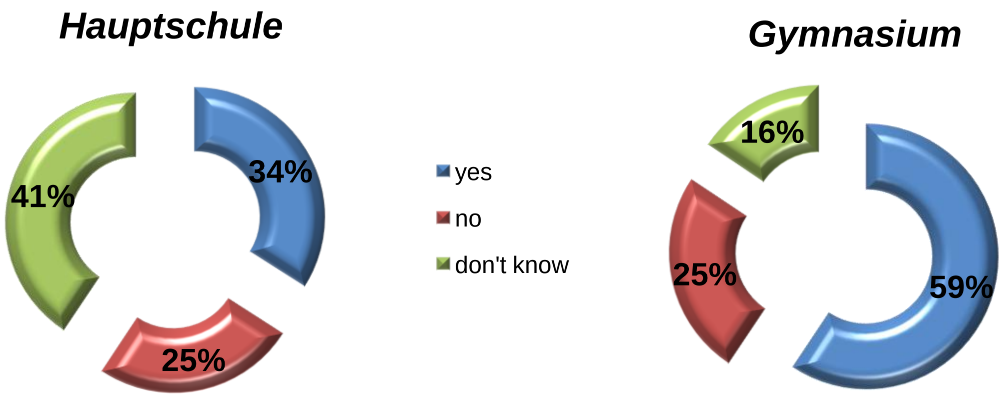

Figure 6: Advertising at Schools by Publishers (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

When comparing *Hauptschulen* according to their location in the districts of Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt, in the former district, more teachers are conscious of advertising at their school (see Figure 7). The number of teachers who are uncertain whether there is advertising or not is, however, also slightly higher than in Wels-Stadt. In Wels-Stadt more teachers think that there is no advertising by publishers, although there is.

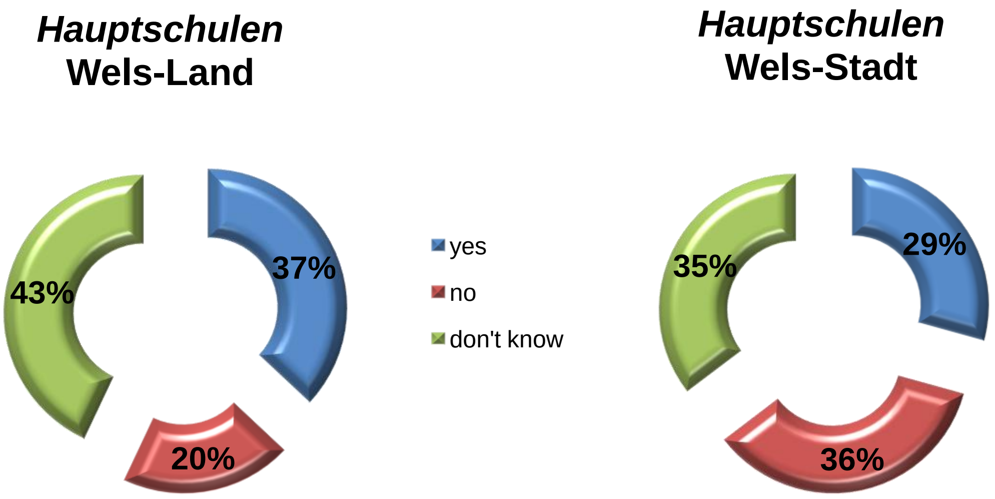

Figure 7: Advertising at Schools by Publishers (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt in Percentages)

As not every teacher is aware of the fact that there is advertising for language learner literature directly at school, there are several other ways to inform oneself about novelties and the range of language learner literature in general. The four most popular sources of information are

- book stores,
- recommendations of colleagues,
- directly addressed sales letters and
- fairs for teaching materials.

Generally, teachers prefer obtaining information directly at book stores, where 85% of the participants at least sometimes examine language learner literature whether it meets their requirements. Also the suggestions of colleagues are at least sometimes valuable for 84% of the teachers. Furthermore, 75% of the participants receive sales letters which are directly addressed to them. Another opportunity for personally examining language learner literature is a visit to fairs for teaching materials which are organised regularly. Sources such as publishers' or other teachers' websites and the association TEA (Teachers of English in Austria) are not very popular as a source of information on language learner literature.

	always	often	sometimes	never
book stores	18	26	41	14
publishers' websites	7	14	24	55
teachers' websites	2	7	16	73
recommendations of colleagues	16	33	35	15
directly addressed sales letters	16	27	32	24
fairs for teaching materials	2	17	47	33
TEA (Teachers of English in Austria)	2	4	20	73
others	0	0	1	99

Table 34: Sources of Information on Novelties in Language Learner Literature (Overall Results in Percentages)

A comparison between the answers of the teachers in *Gymnasium* and those in *Hauptschule* shows large overlaps except for the following three sources of information. Teachers in *Gymnasium*

- more frequently consult publishers' websites in order to obtain information on novelties,
- receive information from TEA (Teachers of English in Austria) more often than teachers in *Hauptschule*, and
- do not visit fairs for teaching materials with the same frequency as teachers in *Hauptschule* do.

	GYMNASIUM				***HAUPTSCHULE***			
	always	often	sometimes	never	always	often	sometimes	neves
book stores	13	25	44	19	20	26	41	13
publishers' websites	19	25	25	31	2	10	23	65
teachers' websites	3	3	13	81	2	9	18	71
recommendations of colleagues	22	44	22	12	14	30	40	16
directly addressed sales letters	16	38	22	25	16	23	35	25
fairs for teaching materials	0	2	41	37	3	15	49	32
TEA (Teachers of English in Austria)	3	9	28	59	2	2	16	79
others	0	0	3	97	0	0	0	0

Table 35: Sources of Information on Novelties in Language Learner Literature (*Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* in Percentages)

Comparing *Hauptschulen* according to their location in Wels-Land or in Wels-Stadt, the results are similar, except for three divergences (see Table 36). In Wels-Land

- teachers visit book stores more frequently in order to inform themselves on language learner literature,
- fewer teachers regularly receive personally addressed sales letters, and
- fewer teachers are interested in the suggestions of TEA (Teachers of English in Austria).

	***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-LAND**				***HAUPTSCHULEN* IN WELS-STADT**			
	always	**often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**always**	**often**	**sometimes**	**neves**
book stores	23	32	37	8	13	16	48	23
publishers' websites	3	12	22	63	0	6	26	68
teachers' websites	3	8	18	70	0	10	16	74
recommendations of colleagues	15	33	35	17	13	23	48	16
directly addressed sales letters	12	25	32	32	26	19	42	13
fairs for teaching materials	2	12	52	35	6	23	45	26
TEA (Teachers of English in Austria)	2	0	13	85	3	6	23	68
others	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6

Table 36: Sources of Information on Novelties in Language Learner Literature (*Hauptschulen* in Wels-Land and Wels-Stadt)

In summary, teachers like to visit book stores or fairs to have a look at and examine language learner literature themselves. Furthermore, they take into account their colleagues' recommendations, which would suggest a good cooperation among teachers within one or more schools. Most of the teachers receive personally addressed sales letters and catalogues, which justifies the lack of interest in advertising at school.

8 CONCLUSION

In this thesis I have argued the importance of extensive reading in the foreign language classroom. Although the research literature has claimed the beneficial effects of extensive reading for decades, according to researchers, the predominant style of reading employed in foreign language classrooms is intensive reading.

Whereas intensive reading focuses on language work of short texts in every detail, extensive reading aims at understanding the general message of a longer text. Thus, extensive reading texts are regarded as a valuable source of comprehensible input, which may significantly contribute to improve language competence. Not only reading ability itself but also other areas of language competence, such as vocabulary knowledge, writing etc. may be affected positively. For language learners at an elementary and intermediate level, who are not able to read original works yet, there is the possibility to use language learner literature, which are texts graded to a certain amount of vocabulary and grammatical structures. Publishers have constantly increased the quality and amount of language learner literature available since the late 1980s, which has converted the texts into a valuable source of input. In my opinion, also the question of authenticity should not hinder the use of extensive reading anymore, as everything in teaching English as a Foreign Language is simplified, not only extensive reading text.

As curricula for Austrian *Unterstufe*, however, do not include extensive reading as a core component, its actual implementation seems to be dependent on the teacher. Therefore, I was interested in the extent to which extensive reading is actually practised in schools. By means of questionnaires teachers in *Unterstufe* of *Gymnasium* and in *Hauptschule* in two Upper Austrian districts were asked to give their opinion on reading and information about their classroom practice related to reading language learner literature. Apart from intensive reading materials, such as the textbook and authentic materials (newspaper or magazine articles), also extensive reading materials are used in class. Language learner literature and the text of the current year’s English Theatre performance are the two most popular types of materials. As regards language learner literature, 75% of the participants claim that they – at least sometimes – employ language learner literature with their pupils. This positive result, however, has to be considered with caution as the use of language learner literature does not necessarily imply the practice of extensive reading. The two purposes of employing language learner literature, namely the use as a class reader and the use for pleasure reading, are practised with very similar frequency. Although neither intensive nor extensive reading should be considered as less valuable than the other, it is important to consider that – in contrast to intensive reading – the introduction of extensive reading in class is of importance with regard to out-of-class learning strategies, which are also suggested in the Austrian curriculum. When investigating classroom activities related to the use of language learner literature, it is interesting that the majority of teachers practise a mixture of intensive and extensive reading activities. Another interesting point for further research would be whether pleasure reading actually is carried out according to the suggestions of Day & Bamford and if yes, whether teachers do this intentionally.

Generally, the frequency of employing language learner literature rises with growing language competence, not only in terms of years in school but also in terms of *Leistungsgruppen* in *Hauptschule*. In other words, the better the students are in a language, the more they read. The actual amount of reading done, however, could not be figured out by means of this questionnaire, as the number of books read in one year may be dependent on a variety of factors and therefore fluctuates.

Although the majority of teachers claims that they use language learner literature with their pupils, there is a total percentage of 10% of teachers who never do. The most frequently stated reason is pupils' insufficient language competence. As this question did not distinguish between the individual years in school, it would be interesting, to which years this problem applies. A possible solution for higher years would be to choose the easiest texts available instead of depriving students of the opportunity to read extensively. Self-selection and lack of effort in reading may not only increase motivation but, in consequence, also pupils' language competence which may enable them to enter the virtuous circle of the good reader. Some teachers, however, do not seem to be fully aware of the potential benefits extensive reading may have on their pupils' foreign language learning.

An essential precondition for extensive reading is the availability of school libraries where the students may borrow books, which is true for all schools which participated in the study. Although a certain pre-selection by the teacher may be necessary to avoid frustration, pupils could autonomously borrow books of their interest and at the appropriate language level without having to spend a lot of money. A closer investigation of language learner literature available in school libraries would be very interesting in order to find out about the number of books offered and their up-to-dateness. In order to stay informed about the novelties in language learner literature teachers like to visit book stores or fairs for teaching materials, where they can closely investigate the texts, and they follow suggestions of colleagues and browse the catalogues sent to them by the publishers.

As a next step it is important to inform the participants about the results of the study and offer them suggestions on how to include extensive reading more effectively, particularly with regard to out-of-class learning strategies. Furthermore, solutions will be proposed which appear to inhibit the implementation of extensive reading in numerous classrooms.

Although this study was carried out on a rather small scale, 73% of the potential target group returned the questionnaires, which has led to interesting and convicing results, not only regarding the use of language learner literature in *Unterstufe* in general but also related to the differences between *Gymnasium* and *Hauptschule* and the differences related to an urban and a rural district. Furthermore, it would be interesting to compare the results of Wels-Stadt and Wels-Land to those of other Austrian districts.

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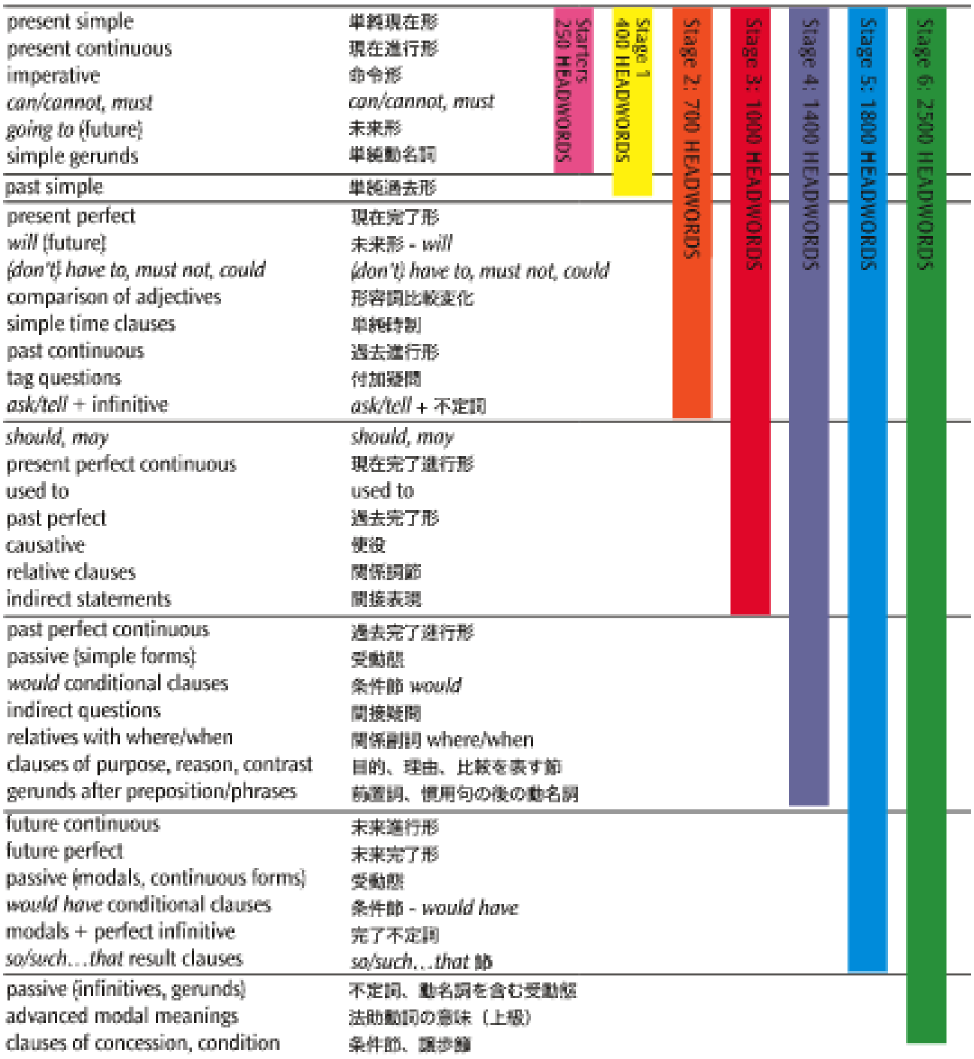
10 APPENDIX

10.1 GRAMMAR STRUCTURES OF OXFORD BOOKWORMS LIBRARY NEW EDITION



		Starters 250 HEADWORDS	Stage 1 400 HEADWORDS	Stage 2: 700 HEADWORDS	Stage 3: 1000 HEADWORDS	Stage 4: 1400 HEADWORDS	Stage 5: 1800 HEADWORDS	Stage 6: 2500 HEADWORDS
present simple	単純現在形	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
present continuous	現在進行形	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
imperative	命令形	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
can/cannot, must	*can/cannot, must*	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
going to (future)	未来形	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
simple gerunds	単純動名詞	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
past simple	単純過去形		■	■	■	■	■	■
present perfect	現在完了形			■	■	■	■	■
will (future)	未来形 - *will*			■	■	■	■	■
(don't) have to, must not, could	*(don't) have to, must not, could*			■	■	■	■	■
comparison of adjectives	形容詞比較変化			■	■	■	■	■
simple time clauses	単純時制			■	■	■	■	■
past continuous	過去進行形			■	■	■	■	■
tag questions	付加疑問			■	■	■	■	■
ask/tell + infinitive	*ask/tell* + 不定詞			■	■	■	■	■
should, may	*should, may*				■	■	■	■
present perfect continuous	現在完了進行形				■	■	■	■
used to	used to				■	■	■	■
past perfect	過去完了形				■	■	■	■
causative	使役				■	■	■	■
relative clauses	関係詞節				■	■	■	■
indirect statements	間接表現				■	■	■	■
past perfect continuous	過去完了進行形					■	■	■
passive (simple forms)	受動態					■	■	■
would conditional clauses	条件節 *would*					■	■	■
indirect questions	間接疑問					■	■	■
relatives with where/when	関係副詞 where/when					■	■	■
clauses of purpose, reason, contrast	目的、理由、比較を表す節					■	■	■
gerunds after preposition/phrases	前置詞、慣用句の後の動名詞					■	■	■
future continuous	未来進行形						■	■
future perfect	未来完了形						■	■
passive (modals, continuous forms)	受動態						■	■
would have conditional clauses	条件節 - *would have*						■	■
modals + perfect infinitive	完了不定詞						■	■
so/such…that result clauses	*so/such…that* 節						■	■
passive (infinitives, gerunds)	不定詞、動名詞を含む受動態							■
advanced modal meanings	法助動詞の意味（上級）							■
clauses of concession, condition	条件節、譲歩節							■

10.2 GRAMMAR STRUCTURES OF PENGUIN READERS

EASYSTART 200 HEADWORDS

Nouns
Singular forms and plural forms with s
Common irregular plural forms
Possessive form ('s)
Transparent compounds

Pronouns
Personal, subject and direct object
Demonstrative: *this*, *that* (also as determiners)
Interrogative: *Who? What?*
It (+ *be*) in impersonal expressions

Determiners
Articles: *a*, *an*, *the* or zero + noun (phrase)
Cardinal numbers (also as pronouns): *1-100*
Ordinal numbers (for dates): *1st-31st*
Possessives
Quantifiers: *some*, *any*
Distributives: *every*, *all* + noun

Adjectives
Simple adjectives (attributive and predicative)

Verbs
Parts of *be*, *have*, *have got*; There *is/are*
Positive imperative forms
Positive, negative and question forms
Short answers
Present simple (except negative questions)
Present continuous with present meaning (except negative questions)
can for ability and permission; *Let's*

Adverbs
Some adverbs of frequency, place and time
Adjective +*ly*
Interrogatives: *Where? When? Why?*; *How* (*much/many*)?
Intensifier: *very*
Additive: *too*

Conjunctions
and, *but*, *or* to join words, phrases, clauses

Sentences
Simple one-clause sentences
Two clauses joined with *and*, *but* or *or*
Direct speech + noun/pronoun + *say/as*

LEVEL 1 300 HEADWORDS *BEGINNER*

As previous level plus

Nouns
Possessive form (s')
Gerunds for activities and pastimes

Pronouns
As indirect objects
Possessive
Demonstrative: *these*, *those* (also determiners)
Interogative: *Which?* (also determiner)

Determiners
Cardinal numbers (also as pronouns): *101-1,000*
Demonstrative: *these, those* (also pronouns)
Quantifers: *a little, a lot of, much, many*
Interogative *Which...?* (also pronoun)

Verbs
There was/were
Negative imperative forms
Present continuous with future meaning
Past simple of listed regular verbs
Irregular past forms: *came/did/had/said/was/were/went*
going to for prediction and intention
can for possibility
would like + noun phrase
-ing forms after *like, stop*
Infinitive forms after *want, start, like*

Conjunctions
because

Sentences
Two clauses joined with *because*

LEVEL 2 600 HEADWORDS *ELEMENTARY*

As previous level plus

Pronouns
Indefinite: some-, no-, any-, every-(*body/thing*)

Determiners
Ordinal numbers: *first* - *hundredth*
Quantifiers with *more*
Distributives: *another*, *other*, *each*

Adjectives
Comparative: *-er/more* + adjective...*than, as ... as*
Superlative: *the -est (in/of), most* + adjective
better, best, worse, worst, more, most

Verbs
Negative questions
Past simple of listed irregular verbs
will for offers, requests, and with future meaning
could for past ability and possibility
have to for obligation
would like + infinitive
Common phrasal verbs with transparent meanings
-ing forms after *go*, verbs of (dis)like

Adverbs
Adjective + *(i)ly*
How + adjective
Irregular adverbs of manner
Comparative: *as...as too* + adjective
Indefinite: *somewhere, nowhere, anywhere, everywhere*

Conjunctions
so, before, after, when

Sentences
Two clauses joined with *so, before, after, when*
Direct speech + subject/verb inversion
Reported speech with present tense reporting verb
know, think, hope etc + *that* clause

LEVEL 3 1200 HEADWORDS *PRE-INTERMEDIATE*

As previous level plus

Pronouns
Indefinite: *someone, anyone, everyone*
Interrogative: *Whose?* (also as determiner)
one/ones
Reflexive (but not for emphasis)
Relative: *who, which, that*

Determiners
the + adjective
All cardinal and ordinal numbers
Predeterminers: *all*
Relative: *whose*
Distributives: *both, either, neither*
a meaning *per*

Adjectives
Intensifiers: *much, a bit, a lot*
Adjective + *to*

Verbs
Present perfect simple

Adverbs
Comparative: *-er/-est, more/most* + adverb

Sentences
Sentences with more than two main clauses
Sentences with one main and one subordinate clause
Zero and first conditional
Defining relative clauses (but not embedded)
Clauses with *wh* words
Clauses ending in *so, not*
Reported speech with *to* + infinitive
Participle clauses
Adjectives/nouns + *that* clause

Past continuous
Passive forms: present and past forms of be + past participle
is/was/has been able to
can't to deny possibility
could for requests and suggestions
must for obligation
shall for suggestions, plans, offers
need (to)/needn't for necessity
should (positive only) for advice
would for desires, preferences
to + infinitive after *what/where* etc
Infinitives after permitted verbs and adjectives, with *too/enough/very*, after indefinite pronouns/adverbs, infinitive of purpose
Question tags: positive tag following negative statement and vice versa
Common phrasal verbs with non-transparent meanings

LEVEL 4 1700 HEADWORDS *INTERMEDIATE*

As previous level plus

Pronouns
Indefinite: *no one*
Relative: *whose*
Reflexive, for emphasis
Reciprocal: *each other*
Pronoun + *of, to,* adjective, relative clause

Determiners
Predeterminer: *such*

Adjectives
Intensifiers: *nearly as, just as, not quite as*
Comparative/superlative with *less/least*
Adjective + *enough*

Verbs
Simple passive verb forms (except modal perfects)
Present and past continuous passive verb forms
Present simple for future reference
Present perfect continuous
Past perfect
have something done
make/let + infinitive
used to
was/were going to
had better for advice or desirability
may/might for possibility
must for deduced facts
should/ought to for advice, duty, desirability

Conjunctions
as well as

Sentences
Complex sentences where the relations between clauses are uncomplicated
Non-defining relative clauses
Second conditional
if clauses after verbs of asking, wondering etc
Reported speech with past tense reporting verbs

would for hypothetical situations Question tags: positive tag following positive statement	

LEVEL 5 2300 HEADWORDS *UPPER INTERMEDIATE*

As previous level plus

Verbs
Past perfect continuous
Future continuous
get something done
may for permission
would for willingness/refusal

Conjunctions
as soon as

Sentences
Relative clauses: embedded, defining
Responses with so/neither/nor
Third conditional

LEVEL 6 3000 HEADWORDS *ADVANCED*

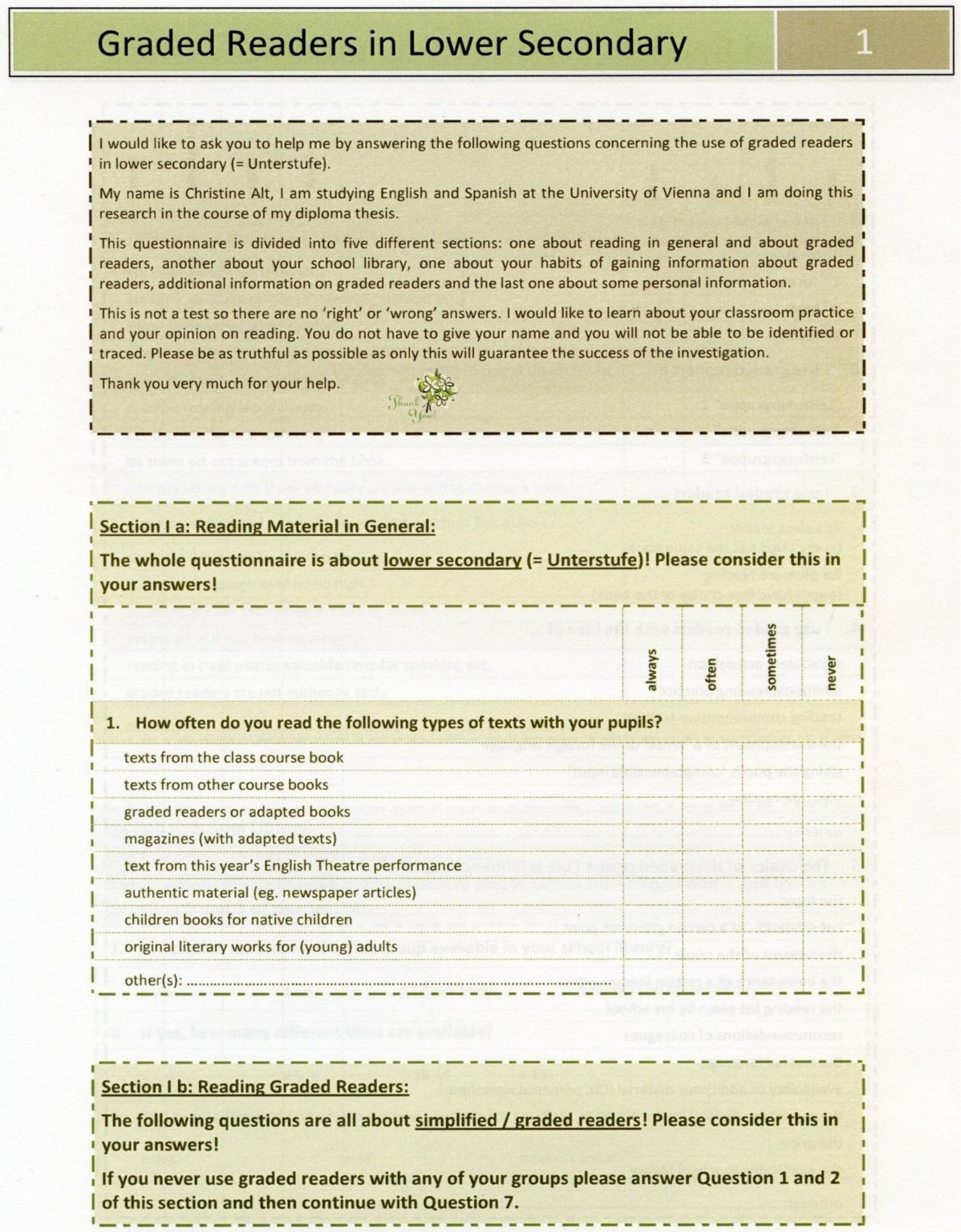
As previous level plus

Pronouns
Reciprocal: *one another*

Verbs
Future perfect
Modal perfects
might for a suggested course of action
must have/can't have for assumptions
should (have) for expectation
will (have) for assumptions
would for habitual past actions

Sentences
Mixed conditionals
Inversion after *hardly*, *no sooner* etc
-ing/wh- clause as subject
Sentences with *wish* + *were/would/had*

10.3 QUESTIONNAIRE



Graded Readers in Lower Secondary

1

I would like to ask you to help me by answering the following questions concerning the use of graded readers in lower secondary (= Unterstufe).

My name is Christine Alt, I am studying English and Spanish at the University of Vienna and I am doing this research in the course of my diploma thesis.

This questionnaire is divided into five different sections: one about reading in general and about graded readers, another about your school library, one about your habits of gaining information about graded readers, additional information on graded readers and the last one about some personal information.

This is not a test so there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. I would like to learn about your classroom practice and your opinion on reading. You do not have to give your name and you will not be able to be identified or traced. Please be as truthful as possible as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation.

Thank you very much for your help.

Section I a: Reading Material in General:

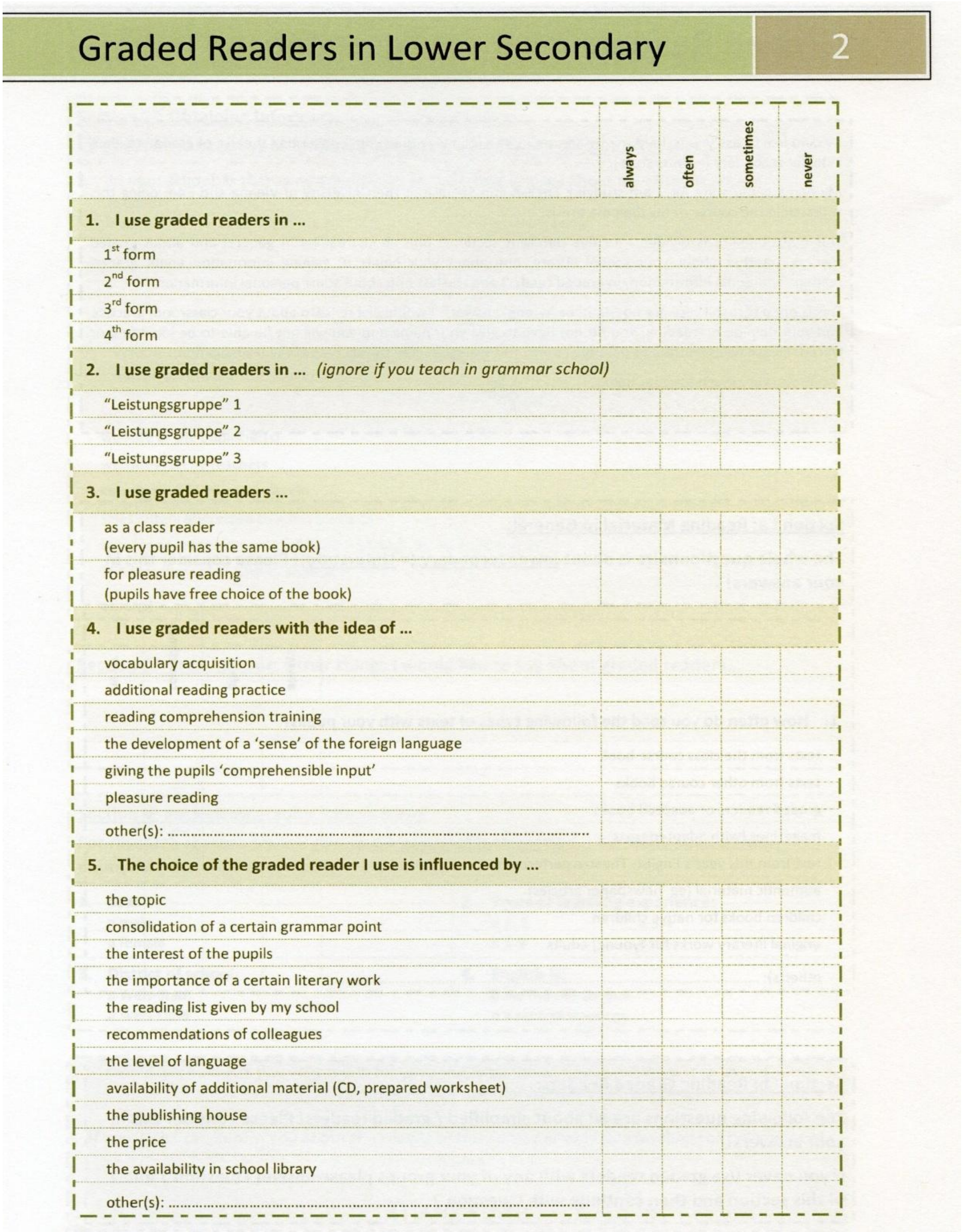
The whole questionnaire is about lower secondary (= Unterstufe)! Please consider this in your answers!

	always	often	sometimes	never
1. How often do you read the following types of texts with your pupils?				
texts from the class course book				
texts from other course books				
graded readers or adapted books				
magazines (with adapted texts)				
text from this year's English Theatre performance				
authentic material (eg. newspaper articles)				
children books for native children				
original literary works for (young) adults				
other(s):				

Section I b: Reading Graded Readers:

The following questions are all about simplified / graded readers! Please consider this in your answers!

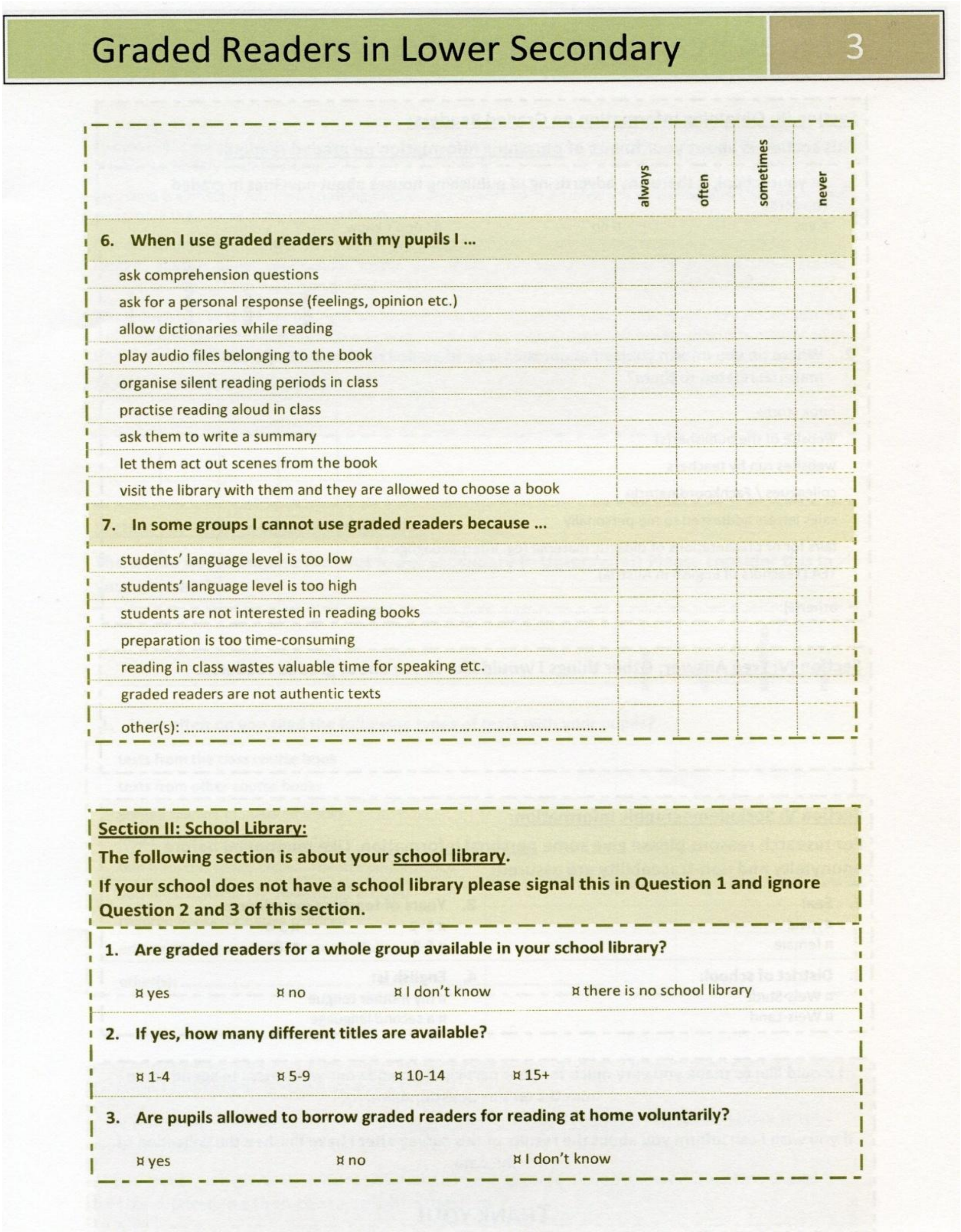
If you never use graded readers with any of your groups please answer Question 1 and 2 of this section and then continue with Question 7.



Graded Readers in Lower Secondary

2

	always	often	sometimes	never
1. I use graded readers in …				
1st form				
2nd form				
3rd form				
4th form				
2. I use graded readers in … *(ignore if you teach in grammar school)*				
"Leistungsgruppe" 1				
"Leistungsgruppe" 2				
"Leistungsgruppe" 3				
3. I use graded readers …				
as a class reader (every pupil has the same book)				
for pleasure reading (pupils have free choice of the book)				
4. I use graded readers with the idea of …				
vocabulary acquisition				
additional reading practice				
reading comprehension training				
the development of a 'sense' of the foreign language				
giving the pupils 'comprehensible input'				
pleasure reading				
other(s): …………………………………………………………………………………………				
5. The choice of the graded reader I use is influenced by …				
the topic				
consolidation of a certain grammar point				
the interest of the pupils				
the importance of a certain literary work				
the reading list given by my school				
recommendations of colleagues				
the level of language				
availability of additional material (CD, prepared worksheet)				
the publishing house				
the price				
the availability in school library				
other(s): …………………………………………………………………………………………				



	always	often	sometimes	never
6. When I use graded readers with my pupils I …				
ask comprehension questions				
ask for a personal response (feelings, opinion etc.)				
allow dictionaries while reading				
play audio files belonging to the book				
organise silent reading periods in class				
practise reading aloud in class				
ask them to write a summary				
let them act out scenes from the book				
visit the library with them and they are allowed to choose a book				
7. In some groups I cannot use graded readers because …				
students' language level is too low				
students' language level is too high				
students are not interested in reading books				
preparation is too time-consuming				
reading in class wastes valuable time for speaking etc.				
graded readers are not authentic texts				
other(s): …………………………………………………………………………				

Section II: School Library:

The following section is about your school library.

If your school does not have a school library please signal this in Question 1 and ignore Question 2 and 3 of this section.

1. Are graded readers for a whole group available in your school library?

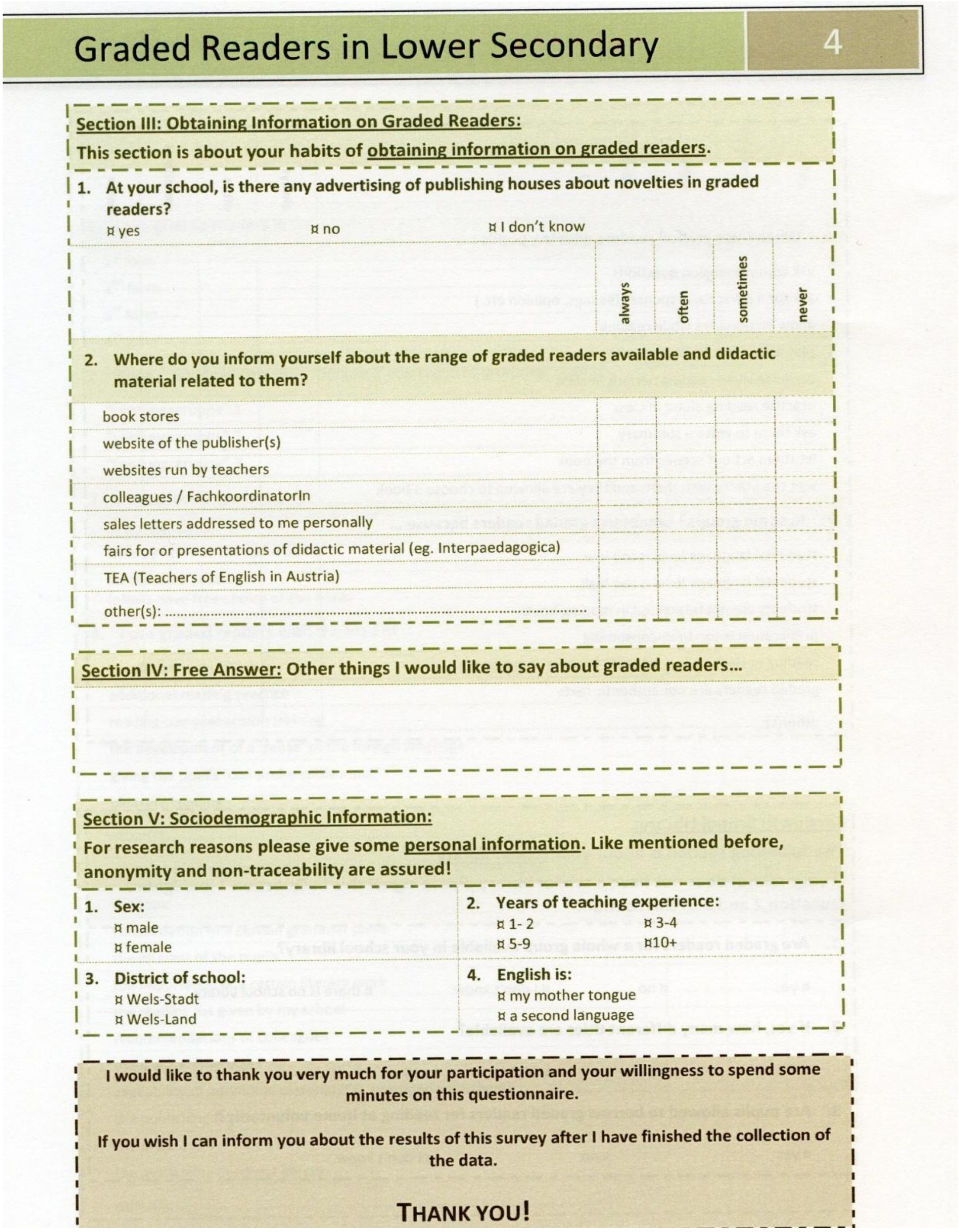
¤ yes ¤ no ¤ I don't know ¤ there is no school library

2. If yes, how many different titles are available?

¤ 1-4 ¤ 5-9 ¤ 10-14 ¤ 15+

3. Are pupils allowed to borrow graded readers for reading at home voluntarily?

¤ yes ¤ no ¤ I don't know



Graded Readers in Lower Secondary 4

Section III: Obtaining Information on Graded Readers:

This section is about your habits of obtaining information on graded readers.

1. At your school, is there any advertising of publishing houses about novelties in graded readers?

¤ yes ¤ no ¤ I don't know

2. Where do you inform yourself about the range of graded readers available and didactic material related to them?	always	often	sometimes	never
book stores				
website of the publisher(s)				
websites run by teachers				
colleagues / FachkoordinatorIn				
sales letters addressed to me personally				
fairs for or presentations of didactic material (eg. Interpaedagogica)				
TEA (Teachers of English in Austria)				
other(s): …………………………………………………………………………				

Section IV: Free Answer: Other things I would like to say about graded readers…

Section V: Sociodemographic Information:

For research reasons please give some personal information. Like mentioned before, anonymity and non-traceability are assured!

1. Sex:
¤ male
¤ female

2. Years of teaching experience:
¤ 1- 2 ¤ 3-4
¤ 5-9 ¤10+

3. District of school:
¤ Wels-Stadt
¤ Wels-Land

4. English is:
¤ my mother tongue
¤ a second language

I would like to thank you very much for your participation and your willingness to spend some minutes on this questionnaire.

If you wish I can inform you about the results of this survey after I have finished the collection of the data.

THANK YOU!

CURRICULUM VITAE

Christine Alt

16. März 1983

Ausbildung:

2003 – 2009: Lehramtsstudium UF English und Spanisch, Universität Wien

2001 – 2003: IT-Kolleg HAK Rudigierstraße 6, 4020 Linz
Abschluss mit gutem Erfolg (Juni 2001)

1993 – 2001: Bundesrealgymnasium Anton-Bruckner-Straße 16, 4600 Wels
Abschluss mit ausgezeichnetem Erfolg (Juni 2001)

1989 – 1993: Volksschule Buchkirchen

Auslandserfahrung:

September 2006: ERASMUS Trimester, Manchester (UK)
bis Dezember 2006

Februar 2006: Sprachkurs Spanisch, Salamanca (Spanien)

Berufliche Erfahrung (studienbezogen):

Lehrtätigkeit für das Nachhilfeinstitut Lernparadies, 4614 Marchtrenk

Private Nachhilfestunden in Englisch und Spanisch