EXTENSIVE READING AND
L2 READING MOTIVATION IN JAPANESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE:
A CASE STUDY OF NEW ZEALAND HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Ryoko de Burgh-Hirabe

A thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
at the University of Otago, Dunedin,
New Zealand

February 2011
DEDICATION

To my parents

who have always loved me, believed in me, and taught me to persevere until I achieve my goal.
ABSTRACT

Numerous studies on extensive reading have demonstrated its positive effects on language development. However, qualitative studies that reveal L2 learners' perceptions of extensive reading are limited. Learners’ motivation to read extensively, and motivational change in particular, is under-researched. Moreover, previous extensive reading research examines a narrow range of contexts, subjects, target languages and proficiency levels (e.g., predominantly studies with ESL/EFL learners) (Waring, 2001).

This study investigates how learners of Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) perceive extensive reading and explores change in their motivation to read extensively, as well as the influences behind any motivational change. It also looks at what separates participants who sustain motivation from those who do not.

Nine JFL learners in two New Zealand high schools participated in the extensive reading project in which they read as many graded readers or children's books as they could outside class over five to seven months. The data from interviews and journal entries were analysed inductively to build up a theory and discover important issues among the participants. Think-alouds, a motivational questionnaire, and classroom observations corroborated the data. Case studies were also presented to show the individual's perception and motivational change in depth.

Overall, the findings reveal that the participants perceived extensive reading positively. They reported a range of benefits (beliefs in a possible effect) and improvements (perception of an actual effect). They viewed graded readers as more suitable than children's books, and perceived that extensive reading was conducive to the end-of-year national examinations. However, individual differences were observed. Some participants perceived graded readers less positively than others did. Views on whether extensive reading should be voluntary or compulsory were divided.

The findings indicate that participants' motivation to read extensively was dynamic and complex. They experienced ups and downs in their motivation during the project. Numerous influences including contextual influences contributed to their motivational changes. The interplay of these influences led to change in motivation within an individual over time and individual differences. Also, negative influences were more powerful than positive influences.
Several implications are drawn from the findings. I maintain that voluntary extensive reading is desirable, but that reading should also be done in class in contexts and settings similar to this study. Graded readers with a wide range of topics and levels and glossaries need to be available to learners.

Importantly, the findings indicate that context, such as the New Zealand testing system, had a great influence on the participants' perceptions and their motivation to read extensively. Therefore, it is argued that extensive reading needs to be considered from the sociocognitive perspective.

Existing models of L2 motivation and L2 reading motivation, and a widely accepted motivation construct, were unable to fully capture the extensive reading motivation displayed in this study. Therefore, a dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in L2 was proposed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank the nine participants in my study. Without them, the study would not have been possible. My appreciation also goes to the teachers at the schools where the study was conducted. I am grateful for their willingness to assist and share valuable information.

I owe my deepest gratitude to Dr Anne Feryok, firstly, for her support, encouragement and confidence in my abilities, and secondly for her excellent scholarship that has guided and inspired me throughout the study. I particularly appreciate her constructive feedback and her promptness in responding to my questions and providing comments on all drafts. I am grateful for the many hours that she spent to discussing my thesis. I could not have asked for anyone better to guide me through my PhD journey.

I would also like to thank Dr Moyra Sweetnam Evans for her support and comments on drafts.

My gratitude goes to my office mates: Elizabeth Hogbin - for proofreading, helping me with my English, support, and friendship; Carol Wyvill - for her encouragement and friendship. I will never forget our weekly support meetings.

Lastly, my biggest thank you goes to my husband, Nigel de Burgh-Hirabe for his love, support, and encouragement. Without him, I would not have been able to achieve what I have achieved. I would like to thank him especially for taking care of our young children during my full-time study. I am also thankful to my children, Yo and Yuji for giving me beautiful smiles which made me forget about a hard day's work, enduring a busy student-mother, and helping me keep my motivation to finish this thesis.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION ii  
ABSTRACT iii  
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS v  
LIST OF TABLES x  
LIST OF FIGURES xi  
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS xii  

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION 1  
1.0 Introduction 1  
1.1 Background to the study 2  
1.2 Aims of the study 5  
1.3 Thesis outline 6  

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW 8  
2.0 Introduction 8  
2.1 Extensive reading 9  
2.1.1 What is extensive reading? 9  
2.1.1.1 Main characteristics of extensive reading 9  
2.1.1.2 Extensive reading as a learning strategy 11  
2.1.2 The role of extensive reading from a cognitive perspective 12  
2.1.2.1 The development of rapid and automatic word recognition 12  
2.1.2.2 Extensive reading and vocabulary growth 13  
2.1.2.3 The development of background knowledge 13  
2.1.3 Studies on extensive reading 14  
2.1.3.1 Reading comprehension 14  
2.1.3.2 Speed 17  
2.1.3.3 Extensive reading only versus extensive reading plus 18  
2.1.3.4 Vocabulary acquisition 19  
2.1.3.5 Reading strategies and extensive reading 24  
2.1.3.6 Problems with extensive reading research 25  
2.2 Motivation and extensive reading 27  
2.2.1 Overview of L2 motivation research 28  
2.2.1.1 Gardner's motivation theory 28  
2.2.1.2 The educational shift in L2 motivation research 29  
2.2.1.3 Self-determination theory 30  
2.2.1.4 Process oriented approach to L2 motivation research 31  
2.2.1.5 Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation 32  
2.2.2 L2 reading attitudes and motivation 34  
2.2.2.1 Second language reading attitudes 34  
2.2.2.2 Day and Bamford's (1998) model of L2 reading motivation 36  
2.2.2.3 Studies investigating components of L2 reading motivation 37  
2.2.2.4 Studies dealing with change in motivation to read extensively 38  
2.2.3 Learner beliefs Research 41  
2.3 Context and extensive reading 45  
2.3.1 Difference between L1 and L2 reading contexts and readers 45
2.3.1.1 Differing amount of knowledge about vocabulary, structure and discourse 45
2.3.1.2 Metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness 45
2.3.1.3 L2 proficiency 45
2.3.1.4 Text structures 47
2.3.1.5 Differing L1 socio-cultural backgrounds of L2 readers 49
2.3.1.6 Difference between L1 and L2 orthography and the Japanese writing system 49
2.3.1.7 L1 speakers of English and reading in Japanese 51
2.3.2 L2 learning and its social context 52
2.4 Summary 56

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY 58
3.0 Introduction 58
3.1 Approach 58
3.1.1 Rationale for qualitative approach 58
3.1.2 Constructivist paradigm 59
3.1.3 Characteristics of qualitative research 60
3.1.4 Case study research 61
3.2 Validation 63
3.2.1 Credibility 63
3.2.2 Transferability 64
3.2.3 Dependability 65
3.2.4 Confirmability 66
3.2.5 The researcher’s bias 66
3.3 Research design 67
3.3.1 Research questions 67
3.3.2 Research setting 68
3.3.2.1 The National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) 68
3.3.2.2 Girls’ High School 70
3.3.2.3 Boys’ High School 71
3.3.3 Participants 71
3.3.3.1 Girls’ High School 72
3.3.3.2 Boys’ High School 73
3.3.4 The extensive reading project 75
3.3.5 Reading materials 77
3.3.5.1 Graded readers 77
3.3.5.2 Children’s books 78
3.3.6 Ethic considerations 79
3.4 Data collection 80
3.4.1 Interviews 80
3.4.2 Journals 83
3.4.3 Verbal reports 86
3.4.4 Questionnaire 88
3.4.5 Observations 90
3.5 Data analysis 91
3.5.1 Data management 91
3.5.2 Transcriptions 92
3.5.3 Analysing verbal reports 93
3.5.4 Analysing interviews and journal entries 94
### 3.6 Summary

98

#### CHAPTER FOUR PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

99

4.0 Introduction

4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project

4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading

4.2.1 Reading-related benefits

4.2.2 Language learning benefits other than reading

4.2.3 Non-language knowledge benefits

4.2.4 Extensive reading helps with exams

4.3 Perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading

4.4 Perceived benefits of extensive reading

4.4.1 Reading-related benefits

4.4.2 Language learning benefits other than reading

4.4.3 Non-language knowledge benefits

4.5 Purposes of extensive reading

4.5.1 Before the extensive reading project

4.5.2 Once the project started

4.6 Affect

4.7 Change in motivational intensity and enjoyment of extensive reading

4.7.1 Change in motivational intensity

4.7.2 Change in enjoyment

4.8 Perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation

4.9 Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation

4.10 Summary

186

#### CHAPTER FIVE CASE STUDIES

189

5.0 Introduction

5.1 Josie

5.2 Nick

5.3 Alan

5.4 Tracey

5.5 Jack

5.6 Emma

5.7 Jane

5.8 Drew

5.9 Ben

5.10 Summary

211

#### CHAPTER SIX DISCUSSION

213

6.0 Introduction

6.1 Perceptions of extensive reading and the project

6.1.1 Benefits and improvements

6.1.2 Learning about culture through extensive reading

6.1.3 Exam-related benefits

6.1.4 Use of word list and development of guessing from context strategy

6.1.5 Graded readers

6.1.6 Perceived impact of extensive reading on affect

6.2 L2 reading motivation and its influences

6.2.1 Influences on L2 reading motivation

6.2.2 Comprehensibility, readability and low-level L2 young adult learners
LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Ten Principles of Extensive Reading (Day & Bamford, 2002, pp. 136-141) 10
Table 3.1: Study participants and background information 75
Table 3.2: Reading materials available by levels 79
Table 4.1: Perceived benefits of extensive reading 110-111
Table 4.2: The frequency of the subcategories of perceived benefits of extensive reading 112
Table 4.3: The distribution of the codes classified as perceived improvement 139
Table 4.4: The distribution of the codes classified as affective influence on learning Japanese 152
Table 4.5: Reading amount and time according to the book record sheet during Term 1, 2 and 3 160
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 6.1: Dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in the L2  248
## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>English for Academic Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM</td>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ER</td>
<td>Extensive Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FL</td>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FVR</td>
<td>Free Voluntary Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JFL</td>
<td>Japanese as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCEA</td>
<td>National Certificate of Educational Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRA</td>
<td>Science Research Associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSR</td>
<td>Sustained Silent Reading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT

Numerous studies on extensive reading have demonstrated its positive effects on language development. However, qualitative studies that reveal L2 learners' perceptions of extensive reading are limited. Learners’ motivation to read extensively, and motivational change in particular, is under-researched. Moreover, previous extensive reading research examines a narrow range of contexts, subjects, target languages and proficiency levels (e.g., predominantly studies with ESL/EFL learners) (Waring, 2001).

This study investigates how learners of Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) perceive extensive reading and explores change in their motivation to read extensively, as well as the influences behind any motivational change. It also looks at what separates participants who sustain motivation from those who do not.

Nine JFL learners in two New Zealand high schools participated in the extensive reading project in which they read as many graded readers or children's books as they could outside class over five to seven months. The data from interviews and journal entries were analysed inductively to build up a theory and discover important issues among the participants. Think-alouds, a motivational questionnaire, and classroom observations corroborated the data. Case studies were also presented to show the individual's perception and motivational change in depth.

Overall, the findings reveal that the participants perceived extensive reading positively. They reported a range of benefits (beliefs in a possible effect) and improvements (perception of an actual effect). They viewed graded readers as more suitable than children's books, and perceived that extensive reading was conducive to the end-of-year national examinations. However, individual differences were observed. Some participants perceived graded readers less positively than others did. Views on whether extensive reading should be voluntary or compulsory were divided.

The findings indicate that participants' motivation to read extensively was dynamic and complex. They experienced ups and downs in their motivation during the project. Numerous influences including contextual influences contributed to their motivational changes. The interplay of these influences led to change in motivation within an individual over time and individual differences. Also, negative influences were more powerful than positive influences.
Several implications are drawn from the findings. I maintain that voluntary extensive reading is desirable, but that reading should also be done in class in contexts and settings similar to this study. Graded readers with a wide range of topics and levels and glossaries need to be available to learners.

Importantly, the findings indicate that context, such as the New Zealand testing system, had a great influence on the participants' perceptions and their motivation to read extensively. Therefore, it is argued that extensive reading needs to be considered from the sociocognitive perspective.

Existing models of L2 motivation and L2 reading motivation, and a widely accepted motivation construct, were unable to fully capture the extensive reading motivation displayed in this study. Therefore, a dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in L2 was proposed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank the nine participants in my study. Without them, the study would not have been possible. My appreciation also goes to the teachers at the schools where the study was conducted. I am grateful for their willingness to assist and share valuable information.

I owe my deepest gratitude to Dr Anne Feryok, firstly, for her support, encouragement and confidence in my abilities, and secondly for her excellent scholarship that has guided and inspired me throughout the study. I particularly appreciate her constructive feedback and her promptness in responding to my questions and providing comments on all drafts. I am grateful for the many hours that she spent to discussing my thesis. I could not have asked for anyone better to guide me through my PhD journey.

I would also like to thank Dr Moyra Sweetnam Evans for her support and comments on drafts.

My gratitude goes to my office mates: Elizabeth Hogbin - for proofreading, helping me with my English, support, and friendship; Carol Wyvill - for her encouragement and friendship. I will never forget our weekly support meetings.

Lastly, my biggest thank you goes to my husband, Nigel de Burgh-Hirabe for his love, support, and encouragement. Without him, I would not have been able to achieve what I have achieved. I would like to thank him especially for taking care of our young children during my full-time study. I am also thankful to my children, Yo and Yuji for giving me beautiful smiles which made me forget about a hard day's work, enduring a busy student-mother, and helping me keep my motivation to finish this thesis.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION ii
ABSTRACT iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS v
LIST OF TABLES x
LIST OF FIGURES xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS xii

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION 1
1.0 Introduction 1
1.1 Background to the study 2
1.2 Aims of the study 5
1.3 Thesis outline 6

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW 8
2.0 Introduction 8
2.1 Extensive reading 9
   2.1.1 What is extensive reading? 9
      2.1.1.1 Main characteristics of extensive reading 9
      2.1.1.2 Extensive reading as a learning strategy 11
   2.1.2 The role of extensive reading from a cognitive perspective 12
      2.1.2.1 The development of rapid and automatic word recognition 12
      2.1.2.2 Extensive reading and vocabulary growth 13
      2.1.2.3 The development of background knowledge 13
   2.1.3 Studies on extensive reading 14
      2.1.3.1 Reading comprehension 14
      2.1.3.2 Speed 17
      2.1.3.3 Extensive reading only versus extensive reading plus 18
      2.1.3.4 Vocabulary acquisition 19
      2.1.3.5 Reading strategies and extensive reading 24
      2.1.3.6 Problems with extensive reading research 25
   2.2 Motivation and extensive reading 27
      2.2.1 Overview of L2 motivation research 28
         2.2.1.1 Gardner's motivation theory 28
         2.2.1.2 The educational shift in L2 motivation research 29
         2.2.1.3 Self-determination theory 30
         2.2.1.4 Process oriented approach to L2 motivation research 31
         2.2.1.5 Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation 32
   2.2.2 L2 reading attitudes and motivation 34
      2.2.2.1 Second language reading attitudes 34
      2.2.2.2 Day and Bamford's (1998) model of L2 reading motivation 36
      2.2.2.3 Studies investigating components of L2 reading motivation 37
      2.2.2.4 Studies dealing with change in motivation to read extensively 38
   2.2.3 Learner beliefs Research 41
2.3 Context and extensive reading 45
   2.3.1 Difference between L1 and L2 reading contexts and readers 45
2.3.1.1 Differing amount of knowledge about vocabulary, structure and discourse 45
2.3.1.2 Metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness 45
2.3.1.3 L2 proficiency 45
2.3.1.4 Text structures 47
2.3.1.5 Differing L1 socio-cultural backgrounds of L2 readers 49
2.3.1.6 Difference between L1 and L2 orthography and the Japanese writing system 49
2.3.1.7 L1 speakers of English and reading in Japanese 51
2.3.2 L2 learning and its social context 52
2.4 Summary 56

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY 58
3.0 Introduction 58
3.1 Approach 58
3.1.1 Rationale for qualitative approach 58
3.1.2 Constructivist paradigm 59
3.1.3 Characteristics of qualitative research 60
3.1.4 Case study research 61
3.2 Validation 63
3.2.1 Credibility 63
3.2.2 Transferability 64
3.2.3 Dependability 65
3.2.4 Confirmability 66
3.2.5 The researcher’s bias 66
3.3 Research design 67
3.3.1 Research questions 67
3.3.2 Research setting 68
3.3.2.1 The National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) 68
3.3.2.2 Girls’ High School 70
3.3.2.3 Boys’ High School 71
3.3.3 Participants 71
3.3.3.1 Girls’ High School 72
3.3.3.2 Boys’ High School 73
3.3.4 The extensive reading project 75
3.3.5 Reading materials 77
3.3.5.1 Graded readers 77
3.3.5.2 Children’s books 78
3.3.6 Ethic considerations 79
3.4 Data collection 80
3.4.1 Interviews 80
3.4.2 Journals 83
3.4.3 Verbal reports 86
3.4.4 Questionnaire 88
3.4.5 Observations 90
3.5 Data analysis 91
3.5.1 Data management 91
3.5.2 Transcriptions 92
3.5.3 Analysing verbal reports 93
3.5.4 Analysing interviews and journal entries 94
LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Ten Principles of Extensive Reading  
(Day & Bamford, 2002, pp. 136-141)  10

Table 3.1: Study participants and background information  75

Table 3.2: Reading materials available by levels  79

Table 4.1: Perceived benefits of extensive reading  110-111

Table 4.2: The frequency of the subcategories of perceived benefits of extensive reading  112

Table 4.3: The distribution of the codes classified as perceived improvement  139

Table 4.4: The distribution of the codes classified as affective influence on learning Japanese  152

Table 4.5: Reading amount and time according to the book record sheet during Term 1, 2 and 3  160
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 6.1: Dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in the L2  248
**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>English for Academic Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM</td>
<td>Extrinsic Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ER</td>
<td>Extensive Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FL</td>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FVR</td>
<td>Free Voluntary Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JFL</td>
<td>Japanese as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCEA</td>
<td>National Certificate of Educational Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRA</td>
<td>Science Research Associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSR</td>
<td>Sustained Silent Reading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

I first learned about extensive reading four years ago, while I was studying for my distance master's degree at Victoria University of Wellington. Extensive reading came across as something like just read a lot of interesting easy books for pleasure, no test or exercises to worry about, and your second language (L2) improves like you would not believe! I had learned English in Japan and in New Zealand for a very long time, but I had never heard about this approach to learning an L2. It sounded so great, and I wished my teachers had let me do it, especially when I was in Japan, as English was terribly boring with just learning grammar and translating English to Japanese. I would have enjoyed English much more. That was my first impression.

Then I thought about extensive reading from a teacher's viewpoint. As well as being an English as a Second Language (ESL) learner, I am a teacher of Japanese. After training as a secondary school teacher in New Zealand, I taught elementary and intermediate level Japanese for five years at a New Zealand tertiary institution. During that time, I was always frustrated with my teaching. I saw many students' motivation decline over time, which I attributed to the grammar-focused approach and very fast-paced lessons with lots of tests. However, I did not investigate the reasons for the decline further. I did not like the teaching approach, but had no choice but to follow the syllabus. At the same time, there was some leeway for the teacher, and I wanted to provide my students with a more enjoyable learning experience and increase their motivation. Also, I wanted to find effective ways to accommodate students with different proficiency levels. However, I left the institution without finding any answers to these questions.

I thought that extensive reading might address the issues I had while teaching. If what I had learned was true, that extensive reading is enjoyable and accommodates learners at all levels, I could introduce extensive reading to future learners of Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL). However, I wondered if students would be able to continue reading for an extended period of time. I knew from my experience as a teacher and as a learner that it is not easy to keep doing something long term. As an ESL learner, I once took up a programme called a "hearing marathon", in which I
tried to listen to English tapes for 1000 hours as quickly as possible. But it was too
difficult to understand and I was very busy working full-time. I lost my motivation
fairly quickly and discontinued the programme after a short time. Thus, curiosity
about how extensive reading could help JFL learners in the setting mentioned above
and how they would cope with extensive reading for an extended period led to my
application to PhD study. By investigating students' perceptions of how extensive
reading helps (or does not help) them learn Japanese, as well as changes in their
motivation, I hoped to learn how teachers of Japanese could utilise extensive reading
successfully in formal classroom settings.

In this study, I explore the extensive reading experiences of JFL learners in
New Zealand high schools. I examine their perceptions of extensive reading, changes
in their motivation to read extensively and influences on them while they participated
in the extensive reading project for five to seven months. Several interviews were
conducted with each participant, which became the main source of data. However,
multiple methods such as journals, verbal reports, questionnaires and classroom
observations were used to corroborate the interview data.

1.1 Background to the study

The history of extensive reading goes back to the early twentieth century. Day
and Bamford (1998) call Harold Palmer, who invented the term 'extensive reading',
and Michael West, who established the methodology of extensive reading, "the
parents of second language extensive reading in modern times" (p. v). However, it
was in the 1980s, following the Fijian 'book flood' study (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981),
that research into extensive reading gained popularity. Elley and Mangubhai (1981)
provided compelling evidence that extensive reading brought about various benefits.
Since then, numerous studies have shown the linguistic and affective benefits of
extensive reading by taking a quantitative approach. In other words, in these studies,
gains in language development (e.g., comprehension, speed, vocabulary) are
measured through testing, and attitudes toward reading in the L2 are typically
measured with questionnaires. There are also several case studies which have
provided insights into vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading (e.g., Grabe
& Stoller, 1997; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006).
While many studies show that extensive reading benefits L2 learners in terms of their attitudes to L2 reading (Waring, 2001), as Day and Bamford (1998) suggest, there has been a "... lack of systematic and principled attention to the affective dimensions of second language reading" (p. 21). There appears to be only Day and Bamford's (1998) model, which attempts to describe the acquisition and development of second language attitudes, and Yamashita’s (2004, 2007) studies investigating the transfer of L1 reading attitudes to L2 reading attitudes. Similarly, research into learners’ motivation to read in an L2 is limited. It has only been in recent years that researchers have investigated the components of motivation to read in an L2 (S. Mori, 2004; Takase, 2007). Day and Bamford (1998) have also proposed a model of the major variables motivating the decision to read in a second language. Some studies, to be reviewed in the next chapter, have investigated the specific claims it makes, but more empirical studies testing the model are required. Moreover, to my knowledge, only Nishino (2007) has investigated change in learners’ motivation to read extensively in an L2 and its influences over an extended period of time. It is important to have a greater understanding of attitude and motivation, so that extensive reading can be implemented effectively and enable L2 learners to gain optimum benefits from it (Day & Bamford, 1998).

Thus, research into the motivations for second language reading is growing, but limited to date. In contrast, L2 motivation has been researched more and the knowledge base has been advancing. As will be discussed in Chapter Two, until the 1990s, L2 motivation was dominated by Gardner's motivation theory, known for the concepts of integrative orientation and instrumental orientation dichotomy. In the 1990s, there was a movement to look at the immediate learning environment for situation-specific motives, which gave rise to a few educationally motivated theories (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). Also, advancing mainstream motivation psychology stimulated L2 motivation research, and attempts have been made to adapt mainstream theories to L2 motivation, such as self-determination theory (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985; Vallerand, 1997) and expectancy-value theories (e.g., Eccles et al., 1983; Feather, 1982, 1988, 1992; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992).

However, L2 motivation research has faced challenges. One of the major challenges is that L2 motivation research needs to address the 'time' aspect of motivation. This is because "motivation to do something evolves gradually, through a
complex mental process that involves initial planning and goal setting, intention formation, task generation, action implementation, action control and outcome evaluation" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 16), and these different stages may be influenced by different motives. Another reason is that L2 motivation is not static. Most L2 learners experience ups and downs in their motivation during their L2 learning, which could spread over an extended period of time. Therefore, there is a need to develop a construct to capture the dynamicity of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation has attempted to address this issue. With regard to approaches for investigating dynamic complex motivation, Ushioda (1996) argues for a more qualitative approach, instead of the traditional quantitative approach (typically survey studies), as such quantitative studies only measure motivation at one point in time.

Another challenge that L2 motivation research has been faced with is context. L2 motivation research has traditionally taken an individualistic approach, neglecting the social aspect. In the last decade, there have been increasing views that context plays an important role in L2 motivation and needs to be accounted for, because human motivation is shaped by the social environment to a large extent (Dörnyei, 2001). The importance of context has also been argued for second language acquisition (SLA) research. For instance, Atkinson (2002) has argued that SLA is not only cognitive (acquisition happens inside the learner's head) but also social, and these two perspectives are interdependent and integrated. Thus, the significant role of the context in which L2 learners live and learn the L2 has started gaining much greater attention in recent times.

With respect to extensive reading research, the individualistic perspective seems to have been predominant. Thus, extensive reading research appears to have fallen behind SLA and L2 motivation research. Specifically, it is important to take the temporal aspect and the social aspect into account in extensive reading research. While some researchers (Nishino, 2007; Takase, 2007) point out the influence of social environment on the learner’s motivation to read in the L2, the importance of context has not been greatly acknowledged. As mentioned above, another gap in extensive reading research seems to be the lack of studies on motivation to read in an L2 over time. In addition, Ushioda (1996) has called for more qualitative research into L2 motivation. But there are a limited number of qualitative studies that are more
sensitive to dynamic complex motivation in extensive reading research. A few recent qualitative studies have examined L2 learners' perceptions of extensive reading (e.g., Arnold, 2009; Leung, 2002; Sandom & Macalister, 2009), providing insights into extensive reading from the learner's perspective. Finally, and importantly, extensive reading studies have been conducted in a narrow range of contexts, subjects, target languages, and proficiency levels (Waring, 2001). Previous studies have mostly been conducted with ESL/EFL learners who are university/adult students. Thus, JFL learners in high schools are extremely under-researched.

1.2 Aims of the study

As stated above, there are gaps in extensive reading research such as the lack of studies investigating motivation to read in an L2 over time and studies using learners of an L2 other than English. This study aims to fill these gaps, as it investigates young-adult JFL learners' perceptions of extensive reading and their motivation to read extensively in Japanese.

More specifically, this study has three aims. First, this study attempts to discover how nine JFL learners in two New Zealand high schools perceive their experiences with extensive reading while they participate in the extensive reading project. Second, this study sets out to discover how the learners’ motivation to read extensively in Japanese changes during the five to seven months. Third, it is important to find out why and how such changes occur. Such understanding can then be used to consider how extensive reading can be effectively implemented in the context of this study and to contribute to the development of L2 reading motivation theory. It is also hoped that the knowledge gained about influences on learners’ motivation to read extensively helps teachers in similar settings to help their students maintain motivation long term. Above all, this study aims to understand what it is like for JFL high school learners to do voluntary extensive reading for five to seven months.

The following questions guide this study:

1. What are the perceptions of JFL learners about extensive reading while they participate in the project for five to seven months?
2. How does their motivation to do extensive reading change over time?
3. What influences the motivational change? What separates students who sustain L2 reading motivation from those who do not?
These questions are investigated using a qualitative approach. Semi-structured interviews in which the JFL learners express their feelings and thoughts freely in a non-threatening atmosphere are the main source of data. However, journals, verbal reports, questionnaires, and classroom observations are also used to form a detailed picture of the phenomena being investigated in this study.

1.3 Thesis outline

The thesis is organised into seven chapters. In this chapter, I have stated my motivations for embarking on this study, and provided an overview of extensive reading research and L2 motivation research to date, highlighting the gaps in the field of extensive reading research. I have also presented the aims of my study.

In Chapter Two, literature related to the study is reviewed. First, the definition and characteristics of extensive reading are outlined, followed by the role of extensive reading in the development of L2 reading skills. Next, previous studies on extensive reading are reviewed and the research problems of experimental studies are discussed. The second section deals with motivation and extensive reading. An overview of L2 motivation research is provided, and then the research on L2 reading attitudes and motivation, and previous studies on motivation to read in an L2 are reviewed. Lastly, the literature on learner beliefs is reviewed. The final section is concerned with context. The difference between first language (L1) and L2 reading contexts and readers is presented, followed by a review of literature that highlights the important role of context in other areas of applied linguistics.

In Chapter Three, I present the methodology of the study. The chapter begins with a description of qualitative research, including the rationale for taking qualitative and case study approaches in the study, and then discusses criteria for assessing the adequacy of the study and strategies taken to ensure this. Then I provide a detailed description of the research design (including research setting, participants and the extensive reading project), data collection methods and procedures, and data analysis procedures.

In Chapter Four, I focus on the findings resulting from the inductive coding of the data. The findings are organised thematically using codes and categories. Nine categories containing codes that represent a similar theme are presented. For each
category a definition is provided, followed by the codes that belong to that category. Extracts from interviews and journal entries are provided to support each code. Data from verbal reports, questionnaires and classroom observations that corroborate the findings are also presented.

In Chapter Five, nine case studies are presented. The purpose of the case studies is to summarise the thematically organised data in Chapter Four, and to highlight how each participant’s motivation to read extensively in Japanese changed during the extensive reading project and why such changes occurred.

In Chapter Six, I will first answer the research questions and then discuss the key research findings. The key findings related to perceptions of extensive reading and the project, and the key findings related to change in the participants’ motivation to read extensively in Japanese and its influences are discussed with reference to the relevant literature. After that, I consider the role of extensive reading based on the findings of the study. Finally, I present a dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in L2, which attempts to describe both changes in the JFL high school learners' motivation and the influences behind those changes.

Chapter Seven concludes the thesis. It begins with a summary of the key findings related to the aims of the study, and then the limitations of the study are acknowledged. After that, implications of the study from the pedagogical and theoretical perspectives are discussed, and I provide some suggestions for future research.
2.0 Introduction

The main topic of this study is extensive reading. The theoretical framework of extensive reading is the “comprehension-hypothesis” proposed by Krashen (1985). Krashen claims that when L2 readers focus on the meaning of a large number of messages, they incidentally learn the second language. Extensive reading, therefore, provides an opportunity for large amounts of comprehensible input (i.e., slightly above learners’ current level of competence). In this view, extensive reading is a means of second language acquisition. Extensive reading is also an approach to teaching and learning reading in an L2 (Day & Bamford, 1998). Many reading researchers argue that L2 learners “learn to read by reading” (Krashen, 1993; Grabe, 1991). Specifically, extensive reading aims to “develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading” (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 133). Thus there are two major reasons why extensive reading in an L2 has attracted considerable research attention in the last two decades. The present study is not situated in only one of these approaches, but is instead situated in the experience of extensive reading. It explores Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) learners' perceptions about, and motivations for, extensive reading.

Accordingly, in this chapter, the literature relevant to this study is organized into three areas. First, I describe what extensive reading is, discuss its role from a cognitive perspective, and review experimental studies in extensive reading. Second, I provide an overview of L2 learning motivation in general, discuss L2 reading attitudes and motivation, and review studies investigating components of L2 reading motivation and change in motivation to read extensively. Because attitudes and motivation involve perceptions and beliefs, I also consider the research on learner beliefs. Third, and finally, I discuss differences between L1 and L2 reading contexts and readers, focusing on JFL in particular, and then consider the importance of context in L2 learning.
2.1 Extensive reading

In this section, I provide a background for the main topic of this study, extensive reading (ER). First, I outline key characteristics of extensive reading based on a range of theoretical and research literature, and then present the view that extensive reading can be seen as a language learning strategy which promotes learner autonomy. Second, I describe the role of extensive reading in relation to fluent reading in three areas: word recognition, vocabulary growth, and the L2 learner's background knowledge. Third, previous (mostly quantitative) studies in ER research are reviewed with respect to the following areas: reading comprehension, speed, studies comparing ER alone and in conjunction with different supplementary activities, and reading strategies. Finally I discuss problems in ER research and how this study addresses some of those problems.

2.1.1 What is extensive reading?

As mentioned in Chapter One (see section 1.1), Harold Palmer was the first to use the term "extensive" reading. Michael West called it "supplementary" reading (Day & Bamford, 1998, pp. 5-6). Researchers have used other terms to refer to extensive reading. For example, Elley and Mangubhai (1981) called their book-based programme, in which children in Fijian primary schools were exposed to a wide range of reading materials, a "book-flood". Krashen (1993) uses "Free Voluntary Reading" (FVR) and calls FVR used in schools "Sustained Silent Reading" (SSR). He has also used the term "pleasure reading".

2.1.1.1 Main characteristics of extensive reading

Many researchers have implemented extensive reading in their research. In this subsection, I look at the characteristics of extensive reading suggested by some researchers, and then establish the key features for this study.

In fact, the characteristics of extensive reading programmes are often related to Day and Bamford's (2002, pp. 136-141) top ten principles (see Table 2.1). For example, Hitosugi and Day (2004) and Sandom and Macalister (2009) draw on these principles in their studies of JFL learners.
Table 2.1

Ten Principles of Extensive Reading (Day & Bamford, 2002, pp. 136-141)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The reading materials are easy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Learners choose what they want to read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Learners read as much as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Reading is its own reward.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Reading speed is usually faster than slower.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Reading is individual and silent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Teachers orient and guide their students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The teacher is a role model of a reader.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Others focus on specific features both similar to and different from those of Day and Bamford's principles. Hafiz and Tudor (1989) characterised their ER programme for ESL learners in the UK as "the reading of large amounts of material in the second language (L2) for personal pleasure and interest, and without the addition of productive tasks or follow-up language work" (p. 4). Similarly, Davies (1995, p. 329) states that in extensive reading, learners read for pleasure as much as they can at their L2 level without the pressures of testing or marks. However, in the book flood programmes, especially in shared reading, reading material is not only to be read, but also to be discussed and shared, which is different to Day and Bamford's principles. Elley (1991, pp. 378-379) presents five principles that are common among the nine book flood studies that he reviewed. They are (a) immersion in meaningful text, (b) incidental language learning, (c) integration of oral and written language, (d) focus on meaning rather than on form, and (e) high intrinsic motivation (because of interesting stories).

Based on these characteristics and principles, and given that the extensive reading in this study will be voluntary and done outside class, the main characteristics of extensive reading in the present study are:

- Students read as much as possible.
• Students choose books that are within their L2 competence.
• Students choose what they want to read.
• Students read for pleasure, information or general understanding (i.e., reading in the real world).
• Reading is its own reward, so no questions or tests are given after reading.
• Students focus on the content rather than the language.
• Reading is individual and silent.

2.1.1.2 Extensive reading as a language learning strategy

Extensive reading is not always considered primarily as a form of reading. From the L2 learner’s point of view, extensive reading can be seen as a language learning strategy. According to Chamot (2004), “Learning strategies are the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal” (p. 14).

Extensive reading is a strategy for practising naturalistically. That is, it is one of the cognitive strategies that encourage learners to manipulate language, in order to “… understand and produce new language by many different means” (Oxford, 1990, p. 37). Strategies for practising are essential strategies, and research has shown that practising naturalistically is important at all stages of language learning (Oxford, 1990, p. 43).

Extensive reading is also a strategy for promoting autonomy. The main characteristic of extensive reading, the freedom to choose what they read, encourages students to take control of their own learning. Learning strategies promote taking control of one’s own learning, which refers to learner autonomy. When students are given more responsibility for their own learning, they are encouraged “to become more autonomous, to diagnose some of their own learning strengths and weaknesses, and to self-direct the process of language development” (Cohen, 1998, p. 66). Learner autonomy is very important for L2 learners, because the teacher will not always be around to guide them, as they use the L2 outside the classroom (Oxford, 1990). According to Macaro (2001), autonomous learners are likely to have positive attitudes to, and intrinsic interest in, L2 learning. As a result, they become successful in their language learning and they become more motivated to learn.
2.1.2 The role of extensive reading from a cognitive perspective

In an extensive reading approach, L2 learners read large quantities of self-selected materials that are well within their linguistic competence, so that they develop into fluent readers in the L2 (Day & Bamford, 1998). What, then, constitutes fluency? Researchers have identified distinct reading processes, which are divided into low-level processes and high-level processes. Interactive models of reading assume that processes at both levels play an important role in reading comprehension and operate simultaneously to achieve comprehension. According to these interactive models, a fluent reader is skilful at rapid, automatised context-free word recognition and skilful at high-level processes such as using appropriate comprehension strategies (Eskey, 1988). Day and Bamford (1998) add "the reader's knowledge of the target language, the world, and text types" (p. 16) to essential factors for fluent reading, because comprehension depends on such knowledge. In this sub-section, I discuss how extensive reading helps L2 learners become fluent readers. Although it is questionable whether fluent L2 reading differs from fluent L1 reading, reading researchers appear to support the view that L2 reading processes are similar to L1 reading processes (see Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; Day & Bamford, 1998; Fitzgerald, 1995; Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Although there are significant differences between L1 and L2 reading, to be discussed below (see section 2.3.1), the reading processes of fluent L1 reading often mirror those of fluent L2 reading, especially at highly advanced levels (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

2.1.2.1 The development of rapid and automatic word recognition

Rapid automatic word recognition frees up working memory capacity for the high-level processes that facilitate comprehension. L1 reading research has shown that there is a strong correlation between word recognition speed and reading ability in both children and adults (Stanovich, 1982). Assuming the L2 reading process is fundamentally the same as the L1 reading process, we cannot underestimate the role of word recognition in L2 reading. Through extensive reading, L2 readers are given the opportunity to encounter words repeatedly and become familiar with them. In Day and Bamford’s (1998, p. 16) terms, “Familiarity breeds automaticity”. Research has demonstrated improvements in fluency and reading ability as a result of extensive
reading (e.g., Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004), as will be discussed in section 2.1.3.2.

2.1.2.2 Extensive reading and vocabulary growth

L1 reading research has demonstrated a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Stanovich, 2000). Vocabulary knowledge is equally important in L2 reading contexts, given that L1 and L2 reading processes are essentially the same. In fact, the relationship is bidirectional; vocabulary knowledge facilitates reading and reading facilitates vocabulary growth (Y. Mori, 2003; Nation, 2001). Reading researchers in both the L1 and L2 fields have attempted to find out how vocabulary knowledge is acquired. Empirical studies in L1 reading, best exemplified by the work of Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985), show that children learn a large proportion of vocabulary items (1,000 words a year) through incidental exposure to texts. In contrast, direct vocabulary instruction accounts for, at most, 200 to 300 words a year (Nagy, Anderson, & Herman, 1987). More importantly, L1 research indicates “vocabulary learning is not an all-or-nothing piece of learning for any particular word, but that it is a gradual process of one meeting with a word adding to or strengthening the small amounts of knowledge gained from previous meetings” (Nation, 2001, p.155). As will be discussed in section 2.1.3.4, several L2 empirical studies have dealt with incidental vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989; Waring & Takaki, 2003). These studies have shown that L2 learners do learn vocabulary from reading, and that it is very important that they read large amounts. Because L2 learners read a large amount in an extensive reading approach, they are provided with opportunities for multiple encounters with a word, which in turn facilitates incidental learning of vocabulary.

2.1.2.3 The development of background knowledge

Background knowledge plays an important role in reading comprehension. A reader constructs a situation model containing his or her inferences, which necessitates the extensive use of background knowledge.

It is argued that extensive reading enriches one’s background knowledge (Day & Bamford, 1998; Grabe, 1991, 2009). The relationship between background knowledge and reading comprehension seems reciprocal. That is, readers gain topical
and world knowledge from reading, and this increased background knowledge further facilitates comprehension (Grabe, 2009). Day and Bamford (1998) suggest that L2 readers can similarly acquire knowledge of the language, the topic and the world through reading, and contend that “an extensive reading approach, in which students read fluently and focus on the meaning of what they read, can therefore play a key role in ensuring that students have the best possible chance of developing this knowledge” (p. 19).

In summary, this sub-section has briefly outlined the role of extensive reading from a cognitive perspective. Extensive reading helps L2 readers to develop rapid automatic word recognition, a large vocabulary and background knowledge. These are all factors which make an essential contribution to fluent reading and to successful second language acquisition.

2.1.3 Studies on extensive reading

Since the 1980s, many studies have shown that extensive reading has positive effects on various aspects of L2 development and on attitudes towards L2 reading. In this sub-section, I first discuss studies that have demonstrated positive effects on comprehension and speed, and then studies that have compared the effectiveness of different supplementary activities (e.g., summary writing in L1 vs. L2). Then, I review studies that have investigated vocabulary acquisition through reading, followed by extensive reading studies that have considered ER’s effect on reading strategy use. Finally, I discuss problems with extensive reading research, focusing on quantitative studies.

2.1.3.1 Reading comprehension

A classic study of extensive reading is the Fijian “book flood” study (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981). Class 4 and 5 children (9- to 11-year-olds) in Fijian rural primary schools were exposed to large quantities of print (250 books per class were provided) during an eight month period, and their progress was compared with a control group. Two treatment groups – a shared book group and a silent reading group – also engaged in activities to encourage extensive reading. It was found that the children in the treatment groups progressed at twice the expected rate in reading comprehension, and that extensive reading had significant positive effects on listening comprehension.
(Class 5) and the acquisition of English structures (Class 4). The children in the reading groups showed greater, but not significant, gains in writing (Class 5), structures (Class 5) and word recognition (Class 4). Comparing the two treatment groups, the children in the shared reading programmes performed significantly better than those in the silent reading programme in reading and listening, but the results were very similar in other respects. In brief, the effect of the book flood programme was such that it spread to the enhancement of skills other than reading comprehension skills (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981, p. 24)

In his review of the “book flood” studies, Elley (1991) reports findings from nine studies which suggest that extensive reading facilitates second language acquisition. A large-scale project called the ‘Reading and English Acquisition Programme’ was implemented in Singapore with over 500 children (6- to 9-year-olds) (Elley, 1988; Ng, 1987 as cited in Elley, 1991). The children were tested for gains in various aspects of proficiency. The results showed significant differences in 53 out of 65 language test comparisons. Major gains were seen in the areas of reading comprehension, vocabulary, oral language, grammar, listening comprehension, and writing.

The major shortcoming of these studies (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; Ng, 1987; Elley, 1988, as cited in Elley, 1991) was contamination. Elley and Mangubhai (1981) reported, for example, that some teachers did not implement the treatment as instructed; thus the groups gradually lost the clear contrast between the treatments. Also, unreliable tests, and possibly Hawthorne Effects (i.e., changed behaviours of those being observed that may be caused by the presence of observers), may have undermined the validity of the results. However, the findings are highly consistent across these studies, and Elley (1991) concludes that, “when immersed in meaningful text, … children appear to learn the language incidentally, and to develop positive attitudes toward books” (p. 375).

Empirical evidence that extensive reading helps the development of reading ability is abundant in the literature. In addition to the two studies discussed above, all other studies which have tested the effect of extensive reading on comprehension have reported gains. The reading comprehension of sixteen Pakistani ESL secondary students in the U.K. showed statistically significant gains after three months of reading graded readers for 4.5 hours per week (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989).
Krashen (1997) reported that Japanese EFL students who failed traditional instruction obtained significantly greater gains in reading comprehension (measured by a 100-item cloze test) than did the comparison group after one semester of extensive reading.

Two studies have compared reading comprehension among students with different proficiency levels. In Hayashi’s (1999) study, 100 Japanese EFL university students, at beginning and intermediate levels, read extensively over nine months. The beginning-level students’ reading comprehension scores improved more than did the intermediate students’ in the reading section of the TOEFL test.

On the other hand, Pichette (2005) examined the relationship between reading time and reading comprehension among 81 French-speaking students of English in Canada. The results showed that the correlations were not significant for low-proficiency students, whereas they were significant for higher-proficiency students. Therefore, Pichette (2005) suggests that extensive reading may not be effective for lower-proficiency learners. But the results might be explained by the possibility that time spent on reading does not reflect the type of reading. Pichette (2005) used self-reported time spent on reading as a measure of reading amount. Reading included not only reading of novels but also of textbooks, newspapers, magazines, and class notes. So, this might mean that the low-level students engaged in different kinds of reading (e.g., intensive reading) rather than extensive reading. It seems that the effect of extensive reading on the reading comprehension of low-proficiency L2 learners is inconclusive, since the results of the two studies are contradictory. However, there are small-scale studies indicating that beginning-level L2 learners benefit from reading extensively. In Grabe and Stoller (1997), the beginning English learner of Portuguese showed gains in a reading comprehension test after five months of reading Portuguese newspapers extensively. In Hitosugi and Day (2004), fourteen JFL learners in a low-level course read extensively for ten weeks, and showed more gains in a post-reading comprehension test than JFL learners at the same level in a regular class. In the present study, participants include low-level JFL learners. Therefore, this study might provide further information on whether extensive reading benefits low-level L2 learners.
2.1.3.2 Speed

The argument that reading speed and comprehension are closely related is widely accepted (Bell, 2001). Reading speed is one component of fluency along with fluidity and accuracy (Segalowitz, 2000), and fluency is largely associated with word recognition. As interactive models of reading suggest, rapid automatised word recognition is essential to comprehension, as it frees up cognitive space for high-level processes that allow the construction of coherent mental representations of the text. Experimental studies in extensive reading that have investigated ER’s effect on reading speed have reported a positive relationship between speed and comprehension (Bell, 2001; Robb & Susser, 1989; Taguchi et al., 2004). Additionally, in a qualitative study involving German L2 learners, Arnold (2009) reported that the participants perceived improvements in reading speed and comprehension.

Robb and Susser (1989) compared gains in the reading speed and comprehension of 125 Japanese EFL learners who engaged in extensive reading and those who were taught reading skills in class. It was found that extensive reading resulted in greater gains in speed (measured in words per minute) and in some aspects of reading comprehension. Similarly, Bell (2001) investigated the effect of extensive reading on speed and comprehension in comparison with that of intensive reading (i.e., the study of short texts with a language learning focus). Twenty-six young adult (elementary level) EFL learners in Yemen were divided into extensive and intensive reading groups. The results showed that with respect to speed (measured in words per minute), the subjects in the extensive reading group significantly outperformed those in the intensive reading group. Their gains in speed also were much greater than those of the intensive group. The results showed the same pattern in reading comprehension: the subjects who engaged in extensive reading demonstrated much greater gains than those in the intensive reading group.

The major focus of Taguchi et al. (2004) was the effect of repeated reading on reading fluency and comprehension, but they also compared the effects of extensive reading. Twenty Japanese EFL learners at a university were divided into two groups (repeated reading and extensive reading groups). For 17 weeks, in each lesson, the subjects in the former group read a segmented portion from a graded reader, five times in total. In two of the five readings they listened to the audio version of the text at the same time. The subjects in the latter group engaged in extensive reading for the
same amount of time. The results indicated that both repeated and extensive reading was effective in developing reading fluency, as both showed similar gains in speed (measured in words per minute). As for reading comprehension, the results also showed that both groups improved in a similar manner. Thus, Taguchi et al. (2004) suggest that repeated reading is as promising a method as extensive reading in developing the reading fluency of L2 learners. Although Taguchi et al. (2004) did not have a control group, their study nonetheless suggests the efficacy of extensive (and repeated) reading. Although the present study does not include measures of speed and comprehension, it does use self-reports of perceived improvements, as did Arnold (2009).

2.1.3.3 Extensive reading only versus extensive reading plus

Extensive reading is not usually followed by comprehension questions or exercises, because the main activity is reading. However, activities that encourage extensive reading can enhance its benefits (e.g., Elley & Mangbuhai, 1981; Elley, 1991). Three studies have examined whether different supplementary activities affect the benefits of extensive reading differently. In one of three experiments conducted by Mason and Krashen (1997), Japanese EFL students were divided into three groups; (a) extensive reading with summary writing in English, (b) extensive reading with summary writing in Japanese, and (c) cloze exercises (three to four hours a week) and intensive reading. A 100-item cloze test (a passage of about 1600 words with every tenth word deleted) was used to measure gains before and after the experiment. The cloze test results showed that the English summary group significantly outperformed the comparison group, but there were no significant differences between the English summary group and the Japanese summary group, or between the Japanese summary group and the comparison group. The reading comprehension test results showed that both of the extensive reading groups performed significantly better than the comparison group, but did not perform significantly better than each other. In writing (a summary of a book they had read in English), the Japanese summary group clearly made greater gains than the other groups, and they had the largest increase in self-reported reading speed.

A similar study by Mason (2004) reported that all activities (summary in English, summary in Japanese, summary in English with writing corrected) led to
significant gains in all tests (cloze, reading comprehension, and summary), but no group differences were observed. However, the results suggested that the Japanese summary group was the most efficient in terms of gains made for each hour spent reading (i.e., the gains were divided by the number of reading hours).

Smith (2006) conducted a similar study in a Taiwanese EFL setting. One group did only extensive reading during each lesson, another group did extensive reading and wrote reaction reports, and the last group did intensive reading (the reading of short passages with a language focus) instead of extensive reading. It was found that the extensive reading-only group significantly outperformed the extensive reading-plus group and the intensive reading group in the cloze and proficiency tests. Smith (2006, p. 14) concluded, “The group that did the most reading made the greatest gains”. The results of the three studies are not conclusive enough to determine the effectiveness of the supplementary activities, but they appear to suggest that reading amount has a stronger influence on L2 development than supplementary activities. Smith (2006) calls for more studies of this kind to confirm which kind of supplementation is more effective. In the present study it was suggested to the participants that they write responses to a book they had read as a supplementary activity, and so the results of this study might add new knowledge to this issue (see section 4.1).

2.1.3.4 Vocabulary acquisition

There are two main strands of research in vocabulary acquisition and reading (Horst, 2005). One strand is reflected in incidental vocabulary acquisition studies. Earlier incidental vocabulary acquisition studies (see below) were not conducted under “extensive reading” conditions, in that the subjects read only one short text in a short reading time (i.e., no more than one hour). Three oft-cited studies (Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989; Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993) show that vocabulary can be incidentally learned from reading. However, these L2 studies also indicate that the pick-up rates are low: roughly one in every twelve words was correctly identified (see Horst, Cobb, & Meara, 1998).

These studies (Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989; Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993) have been criticized by other researchers. Nation (2001, p. 155) argues that they generally lacked careful design. For example, the
(multiple-choice) tests used were not sensitive enough to measure small amounts of learning, and text difficulty was not adequately controlled. Coady (1997a) also points out a methodological problem with these studies. The control groups should have been engaged in memorizing the target words in the same time frame, rather than having no exposure to the texts at all. Moreover, the studies did not look at the long-term effects of incidental learning over direct study using vocabulary strategies (e.g., memorizing and key word technique). Horst et al. (1998) argue that these studies are “methodologically flawed” (p. 210), because the experimental conditions were far removed from those in real extensive reading (i.e., short reading time and the reading of short texts) and only a small number of words were tested.

As Nation (2001) points out, “Essentially, vocabulary learning from extensive reading is very fragile” (p. 155). Given that only a small amount of knowledge is gained from one meaning-focused reading, the knowledge will be lost without reinforcement from multiple encounters. For example, Waring and Takaki (2003) examined the rate at which 15 EFL students in a Japanese college learned 25 new words from reading one graded reader. The students were tested three times immediately after reading, one week later and three months later. It was found that some new words were retained, but the vast majority of the words were forgotten. After three months, on average, the meaning of only one new word out of the 25 words tested was correctly remembered. The data suggested that words that appeared more frequently in the text were retained longer than words that appeared less frequently; none of the meanings of the words which appeared fewer than eight times were remembered. Therefore, Waring and Takaki (2003) suggest that extensive reading may not sufficiently facilitate building of new vocabulary, unless L2 learners read a massive amount. However, the researchers also contend that “graded reading helps to deepen and consolidate already known language” (pp. 153-154).

In summary, the results of incidental vocabulary acquisition studies do not seem to be conclusive as to how much vocabulary L2 learners learn from reading. However, it has been shown that the amount of vocabulary knowledge gained from reading is relatively small and that the knowledge is fragile. What the research has shown is that L2 learners do learn vocabulary from reading, and that it is very important that they read large amounts to derive benefits from extensive reading.
Krashen (1993) claims that “reading is the only way, the only way we become good readers, develop a good writing style, an adequate vocabulary, and advanced grammar, and the only way we become good spellers” (p. 23), but his claim may not apply to vocabulary acquisition. The counter argument is that extensive reading should be complemented with direct vocabulary instruction to increase exposure to the target words (Horst et al., 1998; Y. Mori, 2003; Nation, 2001). Nation (2001) contends that “a well-balanced language programme has appropriate amounts of message directed activity and language focused activity” (p. 156).

In the other strand of research, the subjects did extensive reading for an extended period of time. Of the four studies that I review below, only Hayashi (1999) involved a larger number of 100 subjects. Hayashi (1999) not only investigated the effect of extensive reading on comprehension for 100 Japanese EFL students (see section 2.1.3.1) but also looked at gain in vocabulary using a TOEFL (multiple choice) practice test. It was found that both beginning and intermediate level students' test scores increased after nine months.

The other three studies are case studies with one subject, and they shed light on how L2 learners learn vocabulary through extensive reading. In Grabe and Stoller (1997), the first author was the subject. Grabe, a novice learner of Portuguese, tried to learn Portuguese for five months from reading newspapers extensively, while he lived in Brazil. Grabe made journal entries recording daily language exposure, language learning difficulties, perceived progress in his own language learning, and his consideration of larger language issues. He also took a battery of tests (vocabulary, reading comprehension, listening comprehension and cloze tests) four times every month from the second month to the fifth month. It was found that the vocabulary that the subject learned well doubled from the second to fifth month.

Grabe’s journal entries revealed the usefulness of a bilingual dictionary for learning vocabulary (and for reading comprehension). This is interesting because the use of a dictionary is not usually recommended in an extensive reading approach, as it interrupts the flow of reading. In Grabe and Stoller (1997), the use of a dictionary gave the subject support when he would have had to make too many inferences. Accordingly, Grabe and Stoller (1997) suggest "Perhaps, for adults, there are times when it is important to know that a word is understood accurately. The dictionary provided this ‘accuracy support’” (p. 114). However, the researchers do not explain...
why they limited this observation to just adults. In her longitudinal case study, Nishino (2007) reports that one of her subjects, who was fourteen years old at the beginning of the study, preferred using a dictionary rather than guessing from context. Nishino (2007) claims that learning styles influence the choice of dictionary use. In the present study, most participants did not have a dictionary. A word list was attached to a graded reader instead, and it had the function of a dictionary in this study. Although participants were advised to avoid using it, they were also advised that if they felt they needed it they could consult it. Individual differences were observed in terms of how the students used the word list, as will be discussed in Chapter Five (see 5.2.2).

Another observation was that there were some sets of words (even simple words) that could not be retained easily. This situation was experienced by the subject in a similar study (Leung, 2002), which will be discussed below. Those sets of words were eventually retained when the subject encountered them repeatedly over the period of a few days. Grabe and Stoller (1997) conclude that extensive reading provides an opportunity for multiple encounters, and helps L2 learners develop vocabulary. This claim is consistent with the role of extensive reading from a cognitive perspective mentioned earlier (see section 2.1.2).

Leung (2002) is a diary study in which the author was the subject. It was the first such study conducted in the JFL context (Hawaii, U.S.A.). Like the first researcher in Grabe and Stoller (1997), Leung recorded her own twenty-week Japanese self-learning experiences, in which extensive reading was the primary component. Leung’s first language was Chinese, but she was also an advanced ESL speaker. The results of vocabulary tests showed gains in vocabulary knowledge, particularly her ability to use words in sentences. Moreover, her diary entries revealed that extensive reading gave her the opportunity to learn new and alternative meanings of the same word. This finding confirms the widely accepted view that vocabulary acquisition is incremental and each small amount of vocabulary knowledge is beneficial towards mastery of the L2.

Interestingly, Leung (2002) reported that her L1 orthography interfered with the learning of the Japanese syllabaries (kana). Because she was a Chinese L1 speaker, she was used to a logographic orthography that represents both meaning and sound, so Leung struggled to think of the meaning of kana words, as they were
phonetic symbols. The research in L1 and L2 orthography distance reports the advantages of L1 Chinese learners of Japanese over L1 English learners of Japanese in word recognition (see section 2.3.1.1). However, Leung’s (2002) observations shed light on problems that L1 Chinese learners may face when reading in L2 Japanese. One problem might be recognising *kana* words, as suggested above.

Pigada and Schmitt (2005) attempted to overcome the problems of previous studies on incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading. A 27-year-old English learner of French in the U.K. engaged in one month of extensive reading, in which he read four graded readers at an appropriate level. The subject was tested for three aspects of word knowledge (spelling, meaning and grammatical behaviour), rather than meaning alone, and 133 words were tested, a larger number than in previous studies. The spelling test took the form of dictation. In the meaning test, he was asked to report anything he knew about the meaning of the words. For a word with multiple meanings, he was given the highest points when he knew all the different meanings.

The results indicated that the pick-up rate was about one in every 1.5 words tested. In other words, “about two-thirds of the target words tested were enhanced in at least one of their word knowledge aspects” (Pigada & Schmitt, 2005, p. 18). Spelling was the area that showed greater improvements than meaning. The meaning of the words was not learned to the same extent. Although repeated exposure increased the acquisition of meaning, Pigada and Schmitt (2005) reported that the subject could not remember some words, like Grabe and Stoller (1997) and Leung (2002). Overall, only when the word occurred 20 times or more in the texts, was there a good chance of all aspects of word knowledge being enhanced. As other studies (Horst et al., 1998; Waring & Takaki, 2003) have emphasised, Pigada and Schmitt’s (2005) study highlights the importance of multiple encounters, which is enhanced by reading large quantities.

The case studies discussed above provide insights into the process of vocabulary acquisition, even though statistical generalizations cannot be made on their basis. In addition, the subjects of these studies were all capable, motivated adult learners, and in two cases they were the authors of the studies. Therefore we need to be cautious in interpreting the findings. In the present study, the participants are ordinary high school students. It should be noted that testing was not included in the
research design of the present study, which only reports the participants' perceived improvements in vocabulary.

2.1.3.5 Reading strategies and extensive reading

Studies in extensive reading that have investigated or reported reading strategies are reviewed here. However, there appears to be a limited number of such studies. This is probably because researchers have paid more attention to studies on strategy training, based on their assumption that readers do not become strategic readers naturally (Anderson, 1991; Block, 1986; Graesser, 2007). However, a handful of studies have offered some intriguing ideas about possible relationships between extensive reading and strategies.

Hayashi (1999) investigated the effect of extensive reading on language development and strategies used by 100 Japanese EFL students. The subjects had received strategy training before reading extensively (minimum of 100 pages a month). A TOEFL test was used to measure gains in proficiency, including reading comprehension and vocabulary, and the subjects’ reactions to extensive reading were surveyed. The subjects also responded to a strategy questionnaire at both the early and later stages of their learning.

The responses to the strategy questionnaire indicated that, overall, strategies that the subjects reported using shifted from bottom-up to top-down strategies. Specifically, the use of a dictionary and translation to the L1 (bottom-up strategies) had decreased, and the use of the guessing from context strategy had increased, for both beginning- and intermediate-level students. However, the subjects did not report using certain top-down strategies (e.g., prediction) even though they had received instruction in those strategies. Hayashi (1999) does not explicitly relate strategy use to extensive reading, but implies that extensive reading may indirectly contribute to the development of reading strategies, as reading ability improves through extensive reading (p. 115). Given that strategy instruction did not produce desirable outcomes for her students, Hayashi (1999) concluded that extensive reading was “fundamentally more important than simply teaching reading strategies in EFL classes” (p. 127).

There is some support for the idea that extensive reading decreases translation to the L1. Sandom and Macalister (2009) conducted a case study in which an advanced JFL learner at a university in New Zealand read extensively for three
months. The subject perceived that she engaged in mental translation less frequently after three months.

Nishino (2007) conducted a case study which explored how two secondary school students dealt with unknown words during two and a half years of extensive reading experience. The researcher identified five strategies; “referring to glossaries and marginal glosses”, “grouping words”, “use of background knowledge to help understand linguistically challenging books”, and “use of a dictionary”. Initially the subjects relied on glosses frequently, but they became less dependent on them over time. The subjects also developed the ability to group words into chunks, which helped them to read more quickly. It seems that the strategies that the subjects used shifted from local to more global strategies during, and as a result of, extensive reading. Therefore, it is suggested that extensive reading contributes to the development of appropriate strategy use.

As discussed earlier, Nishino (2007) points out individual variation in strategy preferences. For example, one of the subjects preferred to infer word meanings from context, while the other subject preferred to look up word meanings in a dictionary. Nishino (2007) suggests that the interplay of learning style (e.g., the extent to which the subjects tolerate ambiguity) and education experience (promoting dictionary use) appeared to influence the individual differences. This is similar to the role of dictionaries observed in Grabe and Stoller (1997), mentioned above.

2.1.3.6 Problems with extensive reading research

Extensive reading research is a relatively new area in L2 reading research. In his review article of research related to extensive reading, Waring (2001) states:

Almost all of this research has been done by researchers who wish to show ER in a good light and there is considerable cross-citation within this literature which is used as evidence to support the claims made in the research. However, rarely does one find in these citations any critique of this literature and most often it is accepted as fact and cited without comment. (p. 2)

One of the problems with previous studies seems to be the narrow range of contexts, subjects, target languages, and proficiency levels that have been investigated (Waring, 2001). As for contexts, most studies have been conducted in EFL or ESL contexts. Accordingly, English dominates the target languages. Only two of the 28 pieces of research that Waring reviewed focused on a language other than English. To
my knowledge, only three studies (Hitosugi & Day, 2003; Leung, 2002; Sandom & Macalister, 2009) were conducted in a JFL context. In terms of subjects, the existing studies tend to use EFL/ESL learners from Asia and Oceania and tend to use more adult subjects than children or young adults. The proficiency levels of subjects are often intermediate level or higher, and there are few studies that have used beginning L2 learners (e.g., Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Leung, 2002). This imbalance makes it difficult to construct a conclusive statement about extensive reading (Waring, 2001). Although the present study does not address all of the problems mentioned above, it does look at extensive reading in a JFL context in New Zealand and uses young adult participants, including low-level JFL students.

Another problem is that there does not seem to be a consensus among researchers on how to quantify extensive reading. Previous studies have not always explicitly reported how much the subjects read, or they have reported the amount of reading in numbers of pages, books or hours. Nation and Wang (1999) suggest one book a week within the reader’s competence as the benchmark. This view seems to be supported by other researchers (e.g., Day & Bamford, 2002; Waring, 2001). The present study adopted the benchmark of one book a week as well.

As discussed earlier (see section 2.1.3.4), problems with incidental vocabulary acquisition research are often related to the lack of careful design. The test used in Cho and Krashen (1994) is an example of poor quality control. Three of the four subjects in the study were tested for words that they had underlined as unknown words in the simplified books they had read. The fourth subject, however, did not underline unknown words. Consequently, she was tested using the other subjects’ unknown words (Waring, 2001). The result of such a test is not valid. Because the present study explores participants’ perceptions, it focuses on whether they perceive vocabulary acquisition as a result of extensive reading, instead of testing. Thus such problems in test design do not need to be addressed in the present study.

Waring (2001) points out two problems with the existing quantitative studies that compare extensive reading and other treatments. First, in some studies (e.g., Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Lee, 2007; Mason & Krashen, 1997), the extensive reading groups were exposed to print to a much greater extent than the control groups, and, consequently, the benefits gained from extensive reading may have been overestimated.
Second, because extensive reading research often uses convenience samples, the results are likely to have been affected by external influences. It is often the case that subjects attend class or receive tuition at the same time as reading extensively (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Hayashi, 1999; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Mason, 2004). Therefore, it is not always possible to separate the effects of extensive reading from other influences. For example, Hafiz and Tudor (1989) conducted their study in an ESL setting where the sixteen Pakistani subjects lived in the English speaking community. The external influences must have been great, but were not acknowledged by the researchers (Waring, 2001).

Because the quantitative studies aim to measure whether, or to what extent, extensive reading contributes to language development, it is important that these problems are addressed. As Waring (2001) suggests, researchers must “report as fully as possible how the external influence may have affected the results so that correct interpretation is possible” (p. 7). In contrast, the present study uses a qualitative approach, which looks at JFL learners’ extensive reading experience holistically. It aims to understand the participants’ perceptions about extensive reading and the role that it plays in their learning of Japanese. Also, as the present study involves qualitative case study research, the participants and the site have been purposefully selected, because I am interested in the particularity of the case. Therefore, the problems of not randomly selecting participants and of not being able to separate the effect of extensive reading from other factors do not affect this study, since no generalizations, correlations, or causal claims will be made.

2.2 Motivation and extensive reading

One of the aims of this study is to explore change in L2 reading motivation and the influences behind this change, while the participants are engaged in extensive reading over five to seven months. Many studies have reported that extensive reading has a positive influence on learners’ motivation to read in an L2 (e.g., Mason & Krashen, 1997; Robb & Susser, 1989; Taguchi et al., 2004), but do not show how or why motivation to read in the L2 changes. This may be because, in these studies, extensive reading was a requirement, and the subjects read a certain amount regardless of their motivation. Even fewer studies report motivational change while L2 learners engage in extensive reading over an extended period. In this section, I
provide an overview of research on the motivation to learn an L2, including self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and Dörnyei and Otto’s (1998) process model of L2 motivation. After that, constructs and models of motivation to read in an L2 and studies reporting change in learners’ motivation to do extensive reading are discussed. Finally, I review research on learner beliefs, as learner beliefs appear to be related to attitudes and motivation (Barkhuizen, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005).

2.2.1 Overview of L2 motivation research

2.2.1.1 Gardner's motivation theory

Before the 1990s, L2 learning motivation research was dominated by the social psychological approach developed by the Canadian social psychologist, Robert Gardner and his associates (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005). Although Gardner has continued to develop his approach to motivation, I will focus on contrasting his earlier work with later work by other researchers. This theory is strongly associated with the unique situation in Canada, where Anglophone and Francophone communities coexist. Second languages are viewed as mediating factors between communities that are ethnolinguistically different. Thus, the motivation to learn the L2 is regarded as a major factor responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The main principle of this social psychological approach is that learners' attitudes towards the specific language group have an influence on their L2 learning (Gardner, 1985).

The key construct of Gardner's motivation theory is *integrative motivation* which comprises three components: (a) *integrativeness*, including integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages and attitudes toward the L2 community, (b) *attitudes toward the learning situation*, consisting of attitudes to the teacher and the course, and (c) *motivation*, subsuming desire to learn the language, motivational intensity (i.e., effort) and attitudes toward learning the language (Gardner, 1985). The work of Gardner and his associates indicates a strong relationship between integrative motivation and achievement and between integrative motivation and motivational behaviour (S. Mori, 2004). Factor analytical studies conducted in various parts of the world have supported the integrative motivation construct; in other words, L2 motivation is generally linked with the L2 community and values that the L2 is associated with regardless of different learning environments (Dörnyei, 2001).
In Gardener’s conceptualization of motivation described above, integrative orientation is part of integrativeness. But this is only one of the two types of language learners' reasons for learning the L2 that Gardner (1985) discusses. There is also instrumental orientation. Dörnyei and Skehan provide clear definitions of these. Learners with integrative orientation possess “a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community” (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003, p. 613). Learners with instrumental orientation learn the L2 for “the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary” (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003, p. 613).

However, as Dörnyei (1994; 2003; 2005) points out, problems with this theory lie in the term 'integrative'. First, it is used in three different levels (integrative orientation, integrativeness, and integrative motivation). This has caused misunderstandings. In addition, there is a subcomponent of 'motivation' within the overall construct 'integrative motivation', so it is difficult to know what kind of motivation Gardner (1985) is referring to in his work. Second, the term "integrative" concerns the L2 community (i.e., identifying with the speakers of the target language) (Gardner, 2001). However, as Dörnyei (1990) points out, the identification can be generalised to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the L2, as well as the actual L2 itself. Then we can account for integrative motivation among learners in foreign language contexts, who may have never met a native speaker of the target language or never been to any country where the target language is spoken (e.g., Chinese EFL learners in mainland China). This broadens the range of contexts in which Gardner’s theory may be useful.

Although criticisms have been levelled against Gardner's earlier theory (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991), which has traditionally focused on the more general and stable aspects of motivation, it remains influential. More recently, Gardner and his associates (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004) have acknowledged that motivation is dynamic, as their critics have claimed, and which will be discussed below.

2.2.1.2 The educational shift in L2 motivation research

In the 1990s, L2 motivation researchers shifted the focus of research from social attitudes to identifying and analysing situation-specific motives in the
immediate learning context based on the hypothesis that the immediate learning context had a much greater impact on students’ motivation than had been previously assumed. This shift was in large part stimulated by mainstream motivation psychology. By the 1990s, many theories of motivation (e.g., self-determination theory, expectancy-value theories, and goal theories) had been developed which were highly successful in explaining student motivation in general educational contexts.

Because of the dominance of Gardner's motivation theory, which had remained relatively unmodified since it was first proposed, there was a growing conceptual gap between theories of L2 motivation and of mainstream motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). Crookes and Schmidt (1991) called for educationally focused research, proposing “a program of research that will develop from, and be congruent with the concept of motivation that teachers are convinced is critical for SL success” (p. 502). In fact, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) were not the only researchers to raise this issue, as researchers around the world such as Dörnyei (1994), Oxford and Shearin (1994), and Ushioda (1996) voiced similar ideas at almost the same time (see Dörnyei, 2001). Consequently, in the 1990s, a number of motivation theories and constructs in line with the new focus were proposed. However, Gardner's motivation theory was not discarded as a result of this shift, with subsequent models (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei & Ottó's 1998) drawing on Gardner's motivation theory (Dörnyei, 2005).

2.2.1.3 Self-determination theory

As mentioned above, many motivation theories had been developed in mainstream psychology by the 1990s. In particular, Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and self-determination became influential, with some researchers in the L2 field incorporating elements from the theory to explain L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005). According to self-determination theory, there are two types of motivation, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation generally refers to the motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to the motivation to engage in an activity in order to receive a reward outside the activity itself or to avoid punishment. These two types of
motivation are not dichotomous; rather, they lie along a continuum of self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

It has been proposed that there are three subtypes of intrinsic motivation (IM): IM-Knowledge (i.e., to learn), IM-Accomplishment (i.e., towards achievement) and IM-Stimulation (i.e., to experience stimulation) (Noel, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000; Vallerand, 1997). As for extrinsic motivation, three subtypes have been proposed, depending on the extent to which the motivation is self-determined (i.e., internalised into the self-concept) (Noel et al., 2000; Vallerand, 1997). External regulation is the least self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. It comes from external sources such as tangible benefits or costs. Without such incentives there is no reason for learning the L2. Introjected regulation is a more self-determined form of motivation than external regulation. Learners compel themselves to carry out an activity due to some sort of pressure that they have internalised into themselves. For example, they would practice an L2 because they do not want to feel ashamed for not being able to speak the L2. Learning would only occur as long as they felt the need to reduce guilt. Therefore, introjected regulation is not fully self-determined because they are not acting on the basis of personal choice. Identified regulation is the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation in that individuals invest energy in an activity because they have chosen to do so for personally relevant reasons. In other words, learners would carry out the activity because they perceive it as important for achieving a valued goal (Noel et al., 2000, p. 62).

In addition, Deci and Ryan (1985) proposed amotivation. In this case individuals have neither intrinsic nor extrinsic motivation to engage in an activity. Therefore, they can be expected to quit the activity, because they see no relation between their actions and the consequences of the activity (Noel et al., 2000). Noel et al. (2000) concluded that the subtypes of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation can be used to assess L2 motivation.

In this study, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for extensive reading will be considered.

2.2.1.4 Process oriented approach to L2 motivation research

The temporal aspect of L2 motivation began receiving attention in the late 1990s (e.g., Williams & Burden, 1997; Ushioda, 1996, 2001; Dörnyei and Ottó,
Mastery of an L2 can take years. During the lengthy process of L2 learning, as Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) claim, “motivation does not remain constant, but is associated with a dynamically changing and evolving mental process, characterized by constant (re)appraisal and balancing of various internal and external influences that the individual is exposed to” (p. 617). Recognition of changes in motivation over time have led to process-oriented approaches to L2 motivation research.

Williams and Burden (1997) propose three stages in the motivation process: "Reason for doing something" > "Deciding to do something" > "Sustaining the effort, or persisting" (p. 120). They argue that motivational influences in the first two stages differ from those in the third stage. In other words, the first two stages involve initiating motivation, whereas the third stage involves sustaining motivation. How they conceptualise L2 motivation is similar to Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model, to be discussed next.

2.2.1.5 Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation

Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) process model of L2 motivation draws upon Heckhausen and Kuhl's theory of motivational processes. Their theory is often referred to as 'Action Control Theory'. This theory introduces a "temporal perspective that begins with the awaking of a person's wishes prior to goal setting and continues through the evaluative thoughts entertained after goal striving has ended" (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 55). The major feature of Action Control Theory is two distinguishing phases within motivational process, namely, 'predecisional phase' (i.e., decision-making stage or 'choice motivation') and 'postdecisional phase' (i.e., implementational/volitional stage or 'executive motivation') (Heckhausen, 1991). The 'predecisional phase' "involves contemplating the reasons for doing something, i.e., considering various incentive-laden consequences of possible action or inaction. … The ['postdecisional phase'] is a matter of concrete implementation of actions appropriate to the attainment of a goal chosen in the motivation phase" (Heckhausen, 1991, p. 163).

A more detailed theory of action control was developed by Kuhl (1987) based on these principles. The essential component of Kuhl's action control model is 'intention' that is defined as an "activated plan to which the actor has committed to herself or himself" (Kuhl, 1987, p. 282). Two memory systems need be simultaneously activated so that action can take place. Motivation memory "serves as
a continuous source of activation supporting any structure that is currently dominant in other memory systems" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 46), and action memory "contains behavioural programmes for the performance of the particular act" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 46). With support from these memory systems, an activated plan becomes a "dynamic plan" (Kuhl, 1987, p. 284). This means that executional process has been instigated, and from here the motivation system keeps maintaining (i.e., energising) the pursuit of the intention and protecting it against the harmful effects of completing plans (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 46). Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) built upon these two phases in Heckhausen and Kuhl's theory described above, and added the third phase. They suggest that there are at least three phases in the L2 motivational process from a temporal perspective:

1. The **preactional stage** can be referred to as ‘choice motivation’, which leads to the launching of action.

2. The **actional stage** corresponds to ‘executive motivation’. The L2 learner must sustain effort or persist while he or she carries out the task. Executive motivation is particularly relevant to L2 learning in classroom settings because L2 learners are often exposed to distractions (e.g., off-task thoughts, classmates, and anxiety).

3. The **postactional stage** involves the learner’s retrospective analysis of how things went after the completion of the action.

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) also claim that the motivational influences that fuel these phases differ from one another, and thus motivational influences at one phase do not have an effect on the other phases in principle. This claim is consistent with Heckhausen and Kuhl's theory, which stresses that the motives making up 'choice motivation' and 'executive motivation' are largely different (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 92). For example, motivational influences related to the preactional stages range from the learner’s subjective norms and perceived values associated with the task, through expectancy of success, to distracting influences and obstacles. Executive motivation is fuelled by motives such as the quality of the learning experience, a sense of autonomy, and the influence of teachers and parents. At the postactional stage, the main motivational influences are attributional factors, self-concept beliefs and received feedback, praise and grades (Dörnyei, 2000, 2001; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998).
In an extensive reading approach L2 learners engage in L2 reading over a long period of time. In most of the studies reviewed here, L2 learners engaged in extensive reading from one semester to 2.5 years. It seems appropriate to apply Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model to L2 reading motivation. The present study, therefore, explores the ups and downs of JFL learners' L2 reading motivation and the influences for those ups and downs using the process model.

2.2.2 L2 reading attitudes/motivation

The previous sub-section focused on L2 motivation. In this sub-section, I turn the focus to L2 reading attitudes and motivation. Components of L2 reading attitudes/motivation and Day and Bamford's (1998) model of L2 reading motivation are discussed. After that, I discuss studies that have reported change in L2 reading motivation, while the L2 learners were engaged in extensive reading.

2.2.2.1 Second language reading attitudes

As discussed earlier, the research has shown that extensive reading has positive effects on language development. Moreover, nearly all of the studies that have recorded students’ feelings about extensive reading have reported positive attitudes towards it (e.g., Cho & Krashen, 1994; Elley, 1991; Hayashi, 1999; Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Mason & Krashen, 1997). Waring (2001) states that “the positive effect of ER … [is] probably the strongest finding” (p. 8) in extensive reading research. Positive attitudes to L2 reading are important, because they affect the motivation to read, which, in turn, influences language development.

Attitudes are defined as “a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event” (Ajzen, 2005, p. 3). Day and Bamford (1998) propose a model of the acquisition and development of second language reading attitudes, which draws on models of first language reading attitudes. The model has four sources of attitude that shape L2 reading attitudes:

1. L1 reading attitudes;
2. Previous L2 reading experiences (if any);
3. Attitudes toward the L2, culture, and people;
4. The L2 classroom environment.
The first component that shapes L2 reading attitudes is L1 reading attitudes. Day and Bamford (1998) maintain that L2 readers who enjoy and value reading in their native language are likely to transfer their positive attitudes to L2 reading, and L2 readers who do not enjoy and value reading in their native language are likely to transfer negative attitudes to L2 reading. However, the transfer of L1 reading attitudes is not as simple as it seems. Yamashita (2004) suggests that the value component of attitudes (i.e., personal evaluative beliefs) is more likely to be transferred than the affective component of attitudes (i.e., feelings and emotions). Put more simply, what learners think about L1 reading (e.g., reading is important/unimportant) is more likely to be transferred to L2 reading than how learners feel about it (e.g., reading is enjoyable/boring).

Takase (2007) reports findings that support Yamashita (2004). She investigated factors that motivated Japanese high school students (n=219) to read in English extensively for one academic year in an extensive reading programme. Follow-up interviews with one third of the subjects revealed that several keen L1 readers did not read as much in the L2 because L1 reading was much more enjoyable than L2 reading, as they could read in the L1 effortlessly. Thus Takase’s (2007) findings suggest that positive attitudes to L1 reading may not always transfer to attitudes to L2 reading.

Second, Day and Bamford (1998) claim that experiences in learning to read in other languages are also likely to influence reading in the new second language. If learners have successful experiences, they are likely to engage in reading in the new L2 because they expect success. On the other hand, unsuccessful experiences will deter L2 learners from reading in the new language.

Two other factors that influence L2 reading attitudes in Day and Bamford's model are positive attitudes to the language, culture, and people, and the L2 classroom environment. When L2 learners like the language, culture, and people, they may want to read in the L2 about its culture and people. When L2 learners like the teacher and their classmates, and enjoy the materials, activities, and so on, their favourable feelings may transfer to reading in the L2.

As Day and Bamford (1998) maintain, an important aspect of attitudes is that they are not stable – they can change. Extensive reading can influence two of the four sources of attitudes to reading in a second language, namely "attitudes toward the
second language, culture, and people" and "the L2 classroom environment". For example, Hitosugi and Day (2004) found that their JFL subjects learned valuable cultural information by reading Japanese children’s books. Some subjects started independent study in Japanese after their interest in Japanese culture was stimulated by extensive reading, and some became keen readers of Japanese *anime* (i.e., comics).

The present study also considers the participants’ attitudes towards extensive reading and, in particular, how those attitudes change.

### 2.2.2.2 Day and Bamford's (1998) model of L2 reading motivation

L2 reading motivation has begun to attract attention in recent years. Day and Bamford (1998) proposed a model of the major variables motivating the decision to read in a second language (p. 28). The model draws upon expectancy-value theories, one of the leading motivation theories in psychology.

According to expectancy-value theories, motivation to perform various tasks is determined by two key factors: the individual’s *expectancy of success* in a given task and the *value* the individual attaches to success in that task (Dörnyei, 2001). Learners are likely to have the motivation to engage in a task if they perceive that they can complete the task successfully, or they perceive the incentive value in completing the task (e.g., enjoyment and usefulness). Conversely, learners are unlikely to invest effort if they are convinced that they cannot succeed, or if they believe the task does not bring about valued outcomes (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 20).

According to Day and Bamford’s (1998) model, two variables, “materials” and “reading ability”, are associated with expectancy, and two variables, “attitudes toward L2 reading” and “sociocultural environment”, are associated with value. When L2 readers perceive that materials are interesting, readily available, and easy to understand, they are likely to engage in reading. Extensive reading promotes this situation. L2 readers with low reading ability are likely to have low expectations of success, and, as a result, they tend to have low motivation to read. However, with an extensive reading approach, they read books which are well within their level of linguistic competence. They are more likely to expect success and to be motivated to read.

The importance of attitudes to L2 reading was discussed earlier. Positive attitudes mean that the reader has favourable feelings about L2 reading, which, in
turn, increase the perceived value of reading. However, the learner’s sociocultural environment, including family and friends, also influences the motivation to read, which contributes to a more complex relationship between attitudes and perceived values.

### 2.2.2.3 Studies investigating components of L2 reading motivation

Some researchers in the L2 field have attempted to identify motivation components in L2 reading, and some of this research has been conducted in EFL settings, including two studies in Japan which will be discussed here. The results of both studies suggest that L2 reading motivation is a multidimensional construct that includes both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. S. Mori (2004) asked 100 Japanese EFL university students to respond to a questionnaire designed to measure L2 reading motivation, L2 learning motivation, and motivation specific to extensive reading. The subjects engaged in extensive reading of materials called the Science Research Associations Multilevel Laboratory (SRA) for 11 weeks. The results indicated that two components, “study habits” and “negative intrinsic value of stories”, had the strongest relationship with reading amount. Study habits were associated with the effort that students made in order to learn English. Given the finding that study habits and reading amount had a negative relationship, the researcher suggests that “the less the students perceive they are hard and active learners, the less they read” (p. 75). The negative intrinsic value of stories and reading amount also had a negative correlation, and therefore S. Mori (2004) suggests that “the less students think stories are boring or childish for instance, the more they read” (p. 75). Interestingly, S. Mori (2004) did not support the observation made in L1 reading motivation research (e.g., Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) that intrinsic motivation is the strongest predictor for reading amount.

Takase (2007) conducted a similar study to S. Mori (2004), but with some differences in design. The 219 Japanese EFL subjects were younger (high school students) and read mainly graded readers, from which they had a wider range to choose. Of six components identified, intrinsic motivation for the L2 and intrinsic motivation for the L1 showed the strongest positive relationships with reading amount in the L2. This result is consistent with the findings of L1 research. Takase (2007) suggests that intrinsic motivation and reading amount did not show a strong relationship in the S. Mori (2004) study because the materials may not have been well
received by the subjects. In other words, the subjects in S. Mori (2004) had limited freedom as to what they could read, which may have influenced the results. Therefore, Takase (2007) supports Day and Bamford’s (1998) claim that reading materials have a strong impact on the motivation to read in an L2.

2.2.2.4 Studies dealing with change in motivation to read extensively

As discussed previously, since the mid 1990s it has become accepted that L2 motivation is dynamic. However, few qualitative studies have explored the temporal aspect in L2 reading motivation. Two studies (Leung, 2002; Nishino, 2007) have explored motivational change while the subjects were engaged in the task of extensive reading, and have identified motivational influences that seem to account for the ebbs and flows of their reading experiences. Leung (2002), a diary study, (discussed earlier in terms of vocabulary learning through extensive reading in section 2.1.3.4), revealed the subject’s motivational change during 20 weeks of extensive reading. The major finding was that reading materials had a significant impact on the subject’s motivation to read in Japanese. When the subject read a book at the appropriate level of difficulty, she gained a feeling of success and excitement. As she continued to read books that she could understand, her confidence in reading in Japanese grew and it motivated her to read more. Conversely, difficult books had a negative influence on her confidence, and she felt discouraged. Leung (2002) concluded “the key element in the success of extensive reading is having access to a large quantity of reading materials geared to an individual’s level of proficiency and interest” (p. 78). Leung’s (2002) study supports Day and Bamford’s (1998) claim that materials are one of the major variables influencing the motivation to read in an L2.

From a process-oriented perspective, executive motivation seems to have been operating in Leung (2002). The choice to take a particular action (viz. extensive reading) had been already made before the study was conducted. Leung (2002, p. 75) identified motivational influences such as “feeling of success” and “confident” which appear to correspond to the motivational influence “the perceived contingent relationship between action and outcome” (p. 58) in Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) model. This means “students constantly evaluate how well they are doing in terms of approaching the desired outcome, and if they feel that their action is conducive to
reaching that outcome they experience a feeling of success, which then provides further motivation” (p. 58).

Nishino (2007) (discussed previously in terms of reading strategy, in section 2.1.3.5) also looked at motivational change over 2.5 years of extensive reading by two younger EFL students in Japan. The two participants (Fumi and Mako) were fourteen years old at the beginning of the study. They attended different private junior high schools, which offered more English classes than did public schools. In the second year of the study, they started high school, where they had reading classes each week. In the reading classes, they translated English texts into Japanese, with no extensive reading or fluency training. The researcher (who was Fumi’s mother and Mako’s aunt) acted as a tutor. The girls had four 15-minute reading sessions each week. The tutor responded to their questions about the story or word meanings, was consulted regarding book choices, and added glosses.

The participants read graded readers from the lowest level and progressed to the next stage after reading five to ten books at each level. The researcher chose the first two books for them in order to provide glosses. From the third book onwards, the participants self-selected books and no glosses were added. Authentic materials such as Harry Potter IV and Harry Potter V were available to them. Data related to motivation was collected from four semi-structured interviews and from field notes taken during the reading sessions.

The findings suggest that L2 reading motivation is not static but rather a dynamic process that changes over time, and that various factors influence the L2 learner’s motivational changes. The subjects’ motivation grew as they gained a feeling of achievement by reading interesting graded readers at their appropriate level of proficiency. They needed less help from the tutor and started to read more independently. In other words, as the researcher observed, they were becoming autonomous readers. Their motivation peaked while they were reading the Harry Potter books. They had read the books in Japanese and had loved the story. Nishino (2007) suggests that the subjects might have experienced a “flow” (a concept proposed by Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) when they read the Harry Potter books. A “flow” represents “the state of mind and body when people are completely involved in one activity while highly motivated or engaged” (Nishino, 2007, p. 91).
After the *Harry Potter* books, their motivation decreased. The participants lost interest in graded readers, because they did not find them as satisfying as the authentic books. They wanted to read authentic materials like *Harry Potter*, but the researcher was unable to provide such materials. Along with these factors, they were faced with the pressure of university entrance examinations, leading them to feel extensive reading had little relevance to the skills and knowledge required to pass their examinations (i.e., low perceived value), although they enjoyed reading in the L2 (English). Finally, they decided to discontinue extensive reading.

Nishino (2007, p. 96) identified the following seven factors that may have influenced L2 reading motivation.

1. The realisation of achievement;
2. The pleasure and flow of reading;
3. Confidence in L2 reading;
4. A tendency towards more independent reading;
5. Less interest in graded readers;
6. A preference for authentic texts;
7. Entrance exams.

Nishino (2007) suggests that intrinsic motivation is enhanced by the first three factors. She discusses the (de)motivating factors with reference to the four major variables in Day and Bamford’s (1998) model. The “pleasure and flow experience” and “less interest in graded readers” can be associated with materials. L2 reading confidence may be connected to ability, and “a tendency towards more independent reading” probably relates to attitudes. Entrance exams might be linked with the sociocultural environment. It is also suggested that other sociocultural factors may have contributed to motivational change (e.g., English classes at school, L1 reading experience, and support from the tutor). Thus Nishino (2007) suggests that the sociocultural environment might play a more important role than Day and Bamford (1998) indicate.

Both intrinsic motivation and Day and Bamford’s (1998) model appear to provide a plausible explanation for the seven factors listed above, but it appears that Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) model can also account for these factors. The realisation of achievement, confidence in L2 reading and the pleasure and flow of reading are related to “the perceived contingent relationship between action and outcome” (p. 58) in Dörnyei and Ottó's model (1998), which was also identified in Leung (2002).
tendency towards more independent reading is associated with a “sense of self-determination/autonomy” in the process model. Less interest in graded readers, a preference for authentic texts, and the anticipation of entrance exams seem to be related to “task conflict, competing action tendencies, other distracting influences, and availability of action alternatives” (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 59).

Altogether, the findings of Leung (2002) and Nishino (2007) underscore the importance of materials being at an individual’s appropriate level of linguistic competence for motivation to read extensively in an L2. They demonstrate that the time aspect is similarly relevant to learners’ motivation to read extensively in an L2, because extensive reading is generally a lengthy process, just as L2 learning is. The present study also explores changes in JFL learners’ motivation to do extensive reading and the influences behind those changes.

2.2.3 Learner beliefs research

In this sub-section, I provide an overview of learner beliefs research and discuss some studies that seem relevant to the present study. The reason for reviewing this area of research is that learner beliefs are associated with attitudes and motivation (Barkhuizen, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005).

In his discussion on whether learner beliefs can be included as individual differences, Dörnyei (2005) maintains the difference between the concept of beliefs and attitudes is that "beliefs have a stronger factual support whereas [attitudes] are more embedded in our minds and can be rooted back in our past or in the influence of the modelling example of some significant person around us" (p. 214). He draws on Wenden's (1999) argument that "metacognitive knowledge is the specialized portion of a learner's acquired knowledge base, consisting of what learners know about learning" (p. 435), and discusses a link Wenden makes between metacognitive knowledge and learner beliefs. Wenden (1999) claims "beliefs are distinct from metacognitive knowledge in that they are value-based and tend to be held more tenaciously" (p. 436), although the two terms seem to be interchangeable. Dörnyei (2005) then argues that learner beliefs are related to attitudes, as his concept of attitudes (described above) and Wenden's (1999) concept are similar.

Barkhuizen (1998), in his exploration of ESL learners' perceptions of their classroom activities, mentions that attitudes are based on perceptions, and that they
have implications for levels of motivation. Moreover, there is a claim that beliefs directly influence a learner's attitude, motivation and behaviour (Riley, 1996). Therefore in exploring the motivation to do extensive reading, this study also considers the stated perceptions and beliefs of the participants and their effect on the participants’ extensive reading behaviour.

In the mid 1980s, researchers became interested in describing and classifying beliefs that learners have about language learning. The motive behind this type of research is partly the idea that beliefs are likely to influence learners' behaviour. Specifically, researchers have investigated the relationship between beliefs and learning strategy use, and have suggested that beliefs influence students' learning strategies (e.g., Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1986, 1987). It has also been claimed that beliefs affect learners' approaches to learning, and this, in turn, "directly influence[s] the degree of success learners achieve" (Abraham & Vann, 1987, p. 96).

Riley (1996) points out that "if there is a misfit between what the learners believe and the beliefs embedded in the instructional structure in which they are enrolled, there is bound to be some degree of friction and dysfunction" (pp. 152-153). For example, he suggests that if learners believe they need the teacher in order to learn the L2, they are likely to have problems with any kind of self-directed work. Students are likely to have negative attitudes and a low level of motivation when what they are required to do is not consonant with their beliefs. In the present study, the participants were asked to read outside of class, and the ability to take responsibility for their own reading was required. If the participants had similar beliefs to Riley's example, they might not read a large amount in Japanese, as they would not be ready to assume such responsibility.

Cotterall (1995) developed a questionnaire to gather data on learner beliefs about language learning and administered it to 139 English for Academic Purposes (EAP) learners in New Zealand. Cotterall (1995) identified six factors underlying subjects' responses to the questionnaire items: role of the teacher, role of feedback, learner independence, learner confidence in study ability, experience of language learning, and approach to studying. She discusses what an autonomous learner would be like with reference to the items under each of the six factors, and argues that learners' beliefs reflect the extent of readiness for assuming greater responsibility for
learning. Cotterall's argument is relevant to the present study, in that participants' beliefs may reflect their readiness for reading extensively outside of class.

In her review of learner beliefs research, Barcelos (2003) criticises many studies that have used questionnaires, calling them a "normative" approach to researching beliefs. In a normative approach, beliefs are measured out of context, so that normative studies fail to consider the experience-based nature of beliefs. Beliefs are seen mainly as "cognitive entities to be found inside the minds of language learners", as Kalaja (1995, p. 192) points out. However, researchers taking what Barcelos (2003) calls a "contextual" approach to researching learner beliefs do not rely on questionnaires alone nor view beliefs as a mere mental state. Instead they employ a range of methodologies such as ethnographic classroom observations and case studies, and consider beliefs to be socially constructed in specific contexts. Thus, such research looks at beliefs and actions within specific contexts, and attempts to discover how they interact and change over time, rather than simply making generalisations about what learners believe.

In the same vein, White (1999, 2003) reports on a longitudinal study tracking the expectations, changes in expectations, and emergent beliefs of L2 learners who for the first time engaged in self-instructed L2 learning. Self-instruction refers to "situations in which learners are working without the general control of the teacher" (Dickinson, 1987, as cited in White, 1999, p. 444), much as is the case in extensive reading. The longitudinal study was conducted in New Zealand, and the participants were distance learners of Japanese or Spanish (aged from 22 to 47 years). A cycle of methods such as interviews, ranking exercises, questionnaires, scenarios, and yoked subject procedures (in which the participants explained what self-instructed learning was like to a prospective student) were used throughout five phases. Twenty-three students completed phase one, two and three, and nineteen students completed all five phases. Phase one took place over fifteen months prior to the self-instructed learning, and the participants were interviewed regarding their expectations of self-instructed learning. Phases two to five took place over a 12-week period of one semester, so as to discover emerging beliefs.

It was found that the participants’ conceptions of self-instructed learning changed. In the early stages, the participants conceptualised self-instructed learning mostly as a flexible means of language learning in terms of the physical
circumstances (e.g., flexibility of study time). They did not see that it was flexible in terms of learning itself - that is, the pace of learning, level of learning and how to learn. As the semester progressed, self-instructed learning came to be seen not just about physical flexibility, but about "the processes learners establish for themselves to engage with the target language, and to continue to develop target language skills" (White, 1999, p. 449). Also, it was suggested that the context and the learner influenced each other. The distance context influenced the learners in new ways, and they developed knowledge about themselves as language learners, as well as language skills. At the same time, the learners transformed the materials into actual texts and sources for learning for themselves.

One key finding was emerging beliefs related to the inherent uncertainty that self-instructed learning entailed. Students did not expect to experience this uncertainty at first, but they eventually became less certain about either themselves as learners or about their understanding of the material. However, students seemed to find a way to cope with such uncertainty, using a range of strategies (affective control, continuing to engage with the text, and external support).

Another key finding was that there was a shift in students' locus of control, that is, "the orientation of an individual towards what determines their success or failure" (White, 1999, p. 452). There are internal factors (e.g., motivation, confidence in self) and external factors (e.g., quality of interaction with tutor). In the later stage, the majority of students came to view internal factors as important conditions for success. Thus White’s (1999) study shows that expectations about self-instruction were revised and adapted as the participants gained experience in the new context. As White (1999) points out, the findings provide support for the claim that beliefs help learners to adjust to circumstances. It also suggests that whether students had an internal or external locus of control affected how they perceived their role in the solo context, and this supports the claim that beliefs play an important part in defining actions. It is noted, however, that some students retained a low tolerance for ambiguity and external locus of control throughout the study. Thus White (1999) suggests that how learners conceptualise and experience the new environment may be influenced not only by beliefs, but also by individual predispositions.

White (2003) reports on the extended study of White (1999) and discusses a third area of emerging beliefs about self-instructed learning, namely, internal and
external regulation. As learners experienced self-instructed learning, they became aware of a range of things that they regularly needed to do, such as motivating themselves, dealing with uncertainty, evaluating their learning and finding further examples or counter-examples, which White (2003) terms learning functions. Internal regulation refers to when the individual learner regulates learning functions, while external regulation refers to when the teacher or the learning context regulates them.

White (2003) suggests that learners' beliefs about internal vs. external regulations reflected their different interpretations about the course content in terms of who was responsible for regulating learning functions. There was evidence to show that most learners were forming a view that they were the ones who were responsible for carrying out learning functions. They learned the L2 in a context where they had to assume greater responsibility than in a classroom setting in which the teacher initiates and oversees many of the learning functions. Thus this particular context exerted an influence on learners' beliefs.

White’s (1999, 2003) study seems relevant to the present study, because the settings are similar. The participants in the present study are also JFL learners in New Zealand (but secondary school students). In addition, the extensive reading project was voluntary, in that the participants engaged in reading without the control of a teacher. The present study also considers the learners’ stated perceptions and beliefs about their extensive reading experiences. White’s (1999, 2003) study (and others reviewed above) also indicate how important the role of context may be, which will be explored from different perspectives in the next section.

2.3 Context and extensive reading

2.3.1 Differences between L1 and L2 reading contexts and readers

As mentioned earlier, it is accepted that the L2 reading process is fundamentally the same as the L1 reading process. However, differences between L1 and L2 reading do exist, and they have an influence on the L2 reading process. In this sub-section, I highlight the important differences between L1 and L2 reading contexts and readers. After that, the Japanese writing system is described, and reading in Japanese is discussed from the perspective of English-speaking learners of Japanese.
2.3.1.1 Differing amount of knowledge about vocabulary, structure and discourse

When children begin to read in their first language, they already know several thousands words, have a good control of grammar and a good knowledge of books and reading conventions (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Nation, 2005). They are prepared for reading through listening to stories and talking with adults and others about stories they hear. It should be noted, however, that this is a description of "a fortunate child in a fortunate country where reading is well prepared for and well taught" (Nation, 2005, p.1). Learning to read, for children, is primarily about matching acquired oral vocabulary to its visual forms (Koda, 2005; Y. Mori, 2003; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). In contrast, most L2 learners have to learn to read in the L2 and to develop oral proficiency simultaneously.

2.3.1.2 Metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness

L2 learners are usually older than L1 learners, and therefore, have developed a greater metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness refers to the conscious awareness of how language works; for example, knowing words and parts of speech, and knowing sentences and their parts (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). L2 readers can use their knowledge of language to aid in comprehension. Conversely, L1 readers typically have a more intuitive knowledge of their native language.

Because L2 readers have usually acquired literacy skills in their L1, they have developed a greater metacognitive awareness than young L1 readers. Metacognitive awareness refers to conscious awareness of what we know. That is, it allows us to “reflect on our planning, goal setting, processing of tasks, monitoring of progress, recognition of problems and repair of problems” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 46). Metacognitive awareness, for example, allows L2 learners to transfer useful reading strategies in L1 reading situations to assist comprehension in the L2.

2.3.1.3 L2 proficiency

Linguistic knowledge of the L2 (e.g., vocabulary and grammar) is an important influence on comprehension. Numerous studies have been conducted since Alderson (1984) first questioned whether poor reading was due to poor reading ability
in L1 or due to inadequate L2 language knowledge. In answer to that question, the ‘Language Threshold Hypothesis’, derived from Clarke's (1980) short-circuit hypothesis, has received considerable support in L2 reading research (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). The ‘Language Threshold Hypothesis’ argues that a sufficient amount of L2 knowledge must be attained before L1 reading skills and strategies can be transferred to help the reader comprehend the L2 text. This claim implies that L2 knowledge has greater importance than L1 reading ability in L2 reading (Alderson, 1984).

The Language Threshold Hypothesis does not propose a fixed set of L2 knowledge that the reader must possess. The threshold varies depending on the reader, the text and the topic, because individual L2 readers have different L2 proficiency and background knowledge (Alderson, 1984; Grabe & Stoller, 2002). For example, if the reader were familiar with the topic, the threshold would be lower than the threshold of a reader who did not have knowledge about the topic.

2.3.1.4 Text structures

Knowledge about text structures is one of the components of reading. This is an important factor to consider in L2 reading, because the manner in which ideas are organised in texts often varies from culture to culture. For example, English expository texts typically have an introduction, a body and a conclusion. A topic is presented at the beginning and discussed with supporting evidence and examples which expand on the topic. In contrast, Japanese texts often follow *ki-sho-ten-ketsu*, which consists of four organisational units: (a) *ki* ‘beginning’; (b) *sho* ‘development’; (c) *ten* ‘turn’; and (d) *ketsu* ‘ending’. According to Chikamatsu (2003), “Japanese texts often begin with ambiguous, indirect metaphoric statements, followed by a series of non-subjective, seemingly irrelevant examples or statements, with the topic finally mentioned at the end of the text” (p. 192). In addition, the conclusions are often vague, requiring the reader to draw his or her own conclusions (Chikamatsu, 2003).

Knowledge of L2 text structures aids in comprehension, making it easier to identify the topic, key sentences, and relationships between sentences/paragraphs. Conversely, lack of such knowledge may impede comprehension. L2 learners often
lack exposure to L2 texts and are not accustomed to L2 text structures (Chikamatsu, 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

ESL studies in the 1980s showed that varying L1 backgrounds led to differing recall depending on text structures. Fitzgerald (1995) reviewed seven studies on text structure, and one of the themes which emerged from her analysis was that “there may have been differences among language groups as to which text structures facilitated recall better” (p. 174). For example, Arab students recalled most from expository texts and least from texts with a causation structure, whereas Asian students (predominantly Korean with a few Chinese) recalled most from problem-solving or causation texts and least from comparison or descriptive texts. However, Fitzgerald (1995) suggests that the causal relationship remains to be established, because the research shows conflicting results.

Japanese L2 empirical studies support the argument that L1 and L2 text structure distance has an impact on L2 reading. In Sugita’s (1995) study, native Japanese speakers and English learners of Japanese reordered twelve sentences scrambled from an authentic Japanese text. English subjects tended to place topic sentences at the beginning, while Japanese native speakers tended to place them at the end, which reflected their conventional L1 text structures. English subjects also often omitted some sentences from their reordered texts, because they thought the sentences were irrelevant to the overall text. On the basis of these results, the researcher suggested that L1 text structure had an impact on L2 reading.

In Tateoka’s (1995, 1996) study, English, Korean and Chinese learners of Japanese read a Japanese text with the ki-sho-ten-ketsu structure and a Japanese text with typical English structure that the researcher had modified from the original text. Reading comprehension was assessed by counting the number of main ideas the subjects identified in their summaries. It was found that English subjects identified more main ideas in the modified text, while Chinese and Korean subjects performed as well or even better in the original text than the modified text. The researcher concluded that the results were due to text structure similarity among Japanese, Chinese, and Korean. What Tateoka (1995, 1996) and Sugita’s (1995) findings suggest is that the comprehension of participants in the present study, whose first language is English may also be affected by differences in English and Japanese text structure.
2.3.1.5 Differing L1 socio-cultural backgrounds of L2 readers

The value that is placed upon literacy also varies from culture to culture. In some cultures, literacy is relatively uncommon. In other cultures, literacy is extensive, but illiteracy is socially accepted. In countries such as the U.S., the U.K., and Australia, it is expected that everyone should be literate (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Victoria University of Wellington, 2005). Japan is the same as these countries in that reading is well prepared for and well taught.

Each culture also tends to have different assumptions about how texts are used. In some cultures, texts are sacred and unchanging, and therefore, cannot be questioned. Some cultures use texts for practical purposes, without placing a high value on them. Other cultures assume that the information in texts is not absolute and can be challenged. Consequently, “individuals are socialized in their L1 education to engage with texts in specified ways” (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 60).

L2 learners are likely to face some difficulties when reading L2 texts that reflect cultural assumptions unfamiliar to them. It is well documented in the literature that culturally familiar texts facilitate comprehension (Fitzgerald, 1995; Grabe, 2004). Furthermore, L2 readers’ L1 cultural background influences their preconceptions of, and attitudes towards reading, which play an important role in L2 reading. An L2 learner is likely to have positive attitudes towards L2 reading, if reading is a valued and enjoyed activity in his or her L1 culture (Victoria University of Wellington, 2005). Favourable attitudes to L2 reading have a positive effect on the learner’s motivation to read, as mentioned earlier.

2.3.1.6 Difference between L1 and L2 orthography and the Japanese writing system

According to interactive models of reading, rapid and automatic word recognition is necessary for reading comprehension. L1 reading research has demonstrated that word recognition is a powerful predictor of reading ability in both children and adults (Stanovich, 1982). In L2 reading research, word recognition has not received much attention until recently, but the research suggests that L2 readers transfer their L1 processing experience to process the L2 text, and that L1 and L2 orthographic distance has an impact on L2 word recognition (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Koda, 2005). I first describe the three major orthographic systems - namely,
alphabetic, syllabic and logographic - and then discuss research investigating the influence of orthographic differences on L2 word recognition. Finally, I provide a description of the Japanese writing system and discuss the difficulties English learners of Japanese may have in reading in Japanese.

In an alphabetic system, the phoneme is the unit of representation (Koda, 1997). English and Romance languages such as Spanish, French and Italian are alphabetic languages. As Koda (1997) states, “Since the symbol-to-sound correspondence in the alphabet is reduced to the smallest sound unit (phoneme), a smaller number of symbols is needed to transcribe spoken language [than the other orthographic systems]” (p. 40). Therefore, it has been claimed that the alphabetic system makes learning of such languages easier (Olson, 1975, 1977, as cited in Koda, 1997).

In a syllabic system, each graphemic symbol represents a syllable. Examples of the syllabic system are the two Japanese syllabaries (hiragana and katakana, which are collectively referred to as kana). Each syllabary has a total of 71 symbols: 46 basic letters plus 25 voiced syllables created by attaching two forms of diacritical marks to twenty of the basic letters (Koda, 1997, p. 39).

While one letter corresponds to one specific sound in the alphabetic and syllabic systems, “[in logography] one grapheme unit usually represents the meaning and the sound of an entire word or morpheme” (Koda, 1997, p. 39). It might appear that fewer characters need to be learned in a logographic system, because one graphemic symbol corresponds to one unit of meaning. However, there are as many characters as there are words and morphemes in the spoken language. To illustrate this, Japanese children must learn almost 2,000 Japanese logographic characters (kanji) during their nine years of compulsory education (Koda, 1997). Each kanji is also used with other kanji to make a different word, so they have to learn not only the 2,000 kanji individually, but also thousands of different combinations of these kanji. Moreover, what makes kanji learning more challenging is that kanji have multiple readings depending on the context in which the character is used (Everson, 2002). For example, 人 (meaning: person or people) has readings of hito (when used alone), jin (as in 日本人 nihonjin, meaning: a Japanese person), and nin (as in 三人, san-nin, meaning: three people).
Because this study involves reading in Japanese, I provide a description of the Japanese writing system by Saito (1992), as follows:

The Japanese writing system is a complex orthography involving two syllabaries (hiragana and katakana, collectively referred to as kana) and an extensive lexicon of thousands of ideographic symbols (kanji). In authentic Japanese text, kanji are used exclusively for content words, hiragana primarily for function words, and katakana exclusively for words borrowed from foreign languages. (p.2)

To illustrate, the sentence "many people spend their Christmas with their family at home" in Japanese could look like this:

クリスマスは家族と家で過ごす人が多い。
*Kurisumasu wa kazoku to ie de sugosu hito ga ooi.*

Thus the sentence is written in a mixture of hiragana (e.g., は and と, which are particles), katakana (クリスマス, Christmas, an English word) and kanji (e.g., 家族, family and 人, person/people).

Orthographic differences can be explained in terms of orthographic depth (i.e., the extent of regularity in letter-sound correspondence). Among alphabetic languages, shallow orthographies such as Italian and Spanish have transparent letter-sound relationships, whereas deep orthographies such as English are less transparent. Non-alphabetic languages (e.g., Japanese kanji and Chinese) are more opaque compared with alphabetic languages.

2.3.1.7 L1 speakers of English and reading in Japanese

Koda’s (1989) empirical study seems to support the influence of L1 orthography on L2 word recognition. She examined the impact of L1 and L2 distance on L2 word recognition development and its relation to reading comprehension among JFL learners with similar (Chinese and Korean) and different (English) L1 backgrounds. The two major findings were:

1. Chinese and Korean L1 students performed better than English students in all areas (from simple tasks, such as word identification and sentence completion, to more complex tasks requiring information integration).
2. Initial differences among the groups in the simpler tasks remained constant over time, while those in the complex tasks increased considerably.
Koda (1989) tentatively concluded that when the L1 and L2 orthographies shared commonality, the shared knowledge promoted lower-level processing skills in L2, and then facilitated higher-level processing, which led to superior overall L2 reading performance.

Thus reading in Japanese may require more time and exposure to print to develop automatic word recognition for learners with an alphabetic L1 background. Horiba (1990) examined the reading processes of English advanced learners of Japanese and native speakers of Japanese. The subjects reported what they were doing as they read a simple narrative passage. The think-aloud data indicated that the English subjects commented on the meaning of words and sentences, whereas the Japanese subjects made no such comments. This result implied even though the L2 readers were considered advanced-level learners, they consciously attended to the lower-level processes, while the L1 readers used automatic lower-level processing skills (p. 194).

As suggested above, kanji, Japanese logography, appears to be a great obstacle to fluent reading. De Courcy and Birch (1993) report that English learners of Japanese, who enrolled in an immersion programme in Australia, had difficulty applying meaning to kanji. Without knowing its pronunciation, they felt helpless. Consequently, their strategy was to ‘avoid’ unknown kanji by trying to infer the meaning from context. In their think-aloud study, Everson and Kuriya (1998) also observed the same kanji avoidance strategies used by English learners of Japanese, “where students learn just what they feel is sufficient to get by, and rely upon their ability to sound out kana syllabary to derive the meaning from the text” (p. 13).

In the present study, the participants' first language was English. The research suggests that they may face the challenges described above in reading in Japanese.

2.3.2 L2 learning and its social context

The present study explores the perceptions of JFL learners in New Zealand secondary schools about their extensive reading experiences. As will be discussed in the methodology chapter, a qualitative approach was taken, in which understanding of context is important, as it acknowledges that the setting can influence the behaviours and thoughts of those being studied.
As mentioned in section 2.2.1, in the 1990s, L2 motivation researchers shifted their focus to the actual learning environment (e.g., language classrooms). As researchers have realized the importance of the learning environment, an increasing number of studies have examined environmental influences on motivation, such as the teacher, the curriculum, and the learner group (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). In terms of L2 reading motivation, Day and Bamford's model (1998) includes the 'sociocultural environment' as a variable affecting motivation. However, it does not seem that the influence of context on extensive reading as a whole has been discussed to date. Therefore, in this subsection I draw on research in other areas to build an argument that context might have an influence on not only L2 reading motivation but also extensive reading as a whole.

In second language acquisition (SLA) research a cognitive perspective has dominated the field; as Long (1997, p. 319) states, "Most SLA researchers view the object of inquiry as in large an internal, mental process". In this view, social variables are thought to have only an 'indirect' influence on the acquisitional process (Ellis, 1994). Thus it can be seen that a social perspective on language learning has been marginalised. However, there is also a view that language learning is social and the context of language learning needs to be considered. Breen (1985) suggests that L2 classrooms are cultural scenes, and argues that "the social context of learning and the social forces within it will always shape what is made available to be learned and the interaction of individual mind with external linguistic or communicative knowledge" (p. 139).

In a similar vein, Atkinson (2002) proposes a sociocognitive approach to SLA. He uses metaphor to express SLA from a cognitive and social perspective. In the former, a single cactus in the middle of a lonely desert is the image of an L2 learner. Like the lonely cactus that waits for rain to come down so that it can live and grow, the L2 learner waits for 'input' to pour in, and then starts to grow and change miraculously. In the latter, a tropical rainforest is the image of how a learner learns the L2. There are so many things living together in the rainforest, and "every organism operates in complex relationship with every other organism" (Atkinson, 2002, p. 526). An L2 learner is a tree in the rainforest, which "grows in and as a result of this fundamentally integrated world, developing continuously and being sustained through its involvement in the whole ecology" (Atkinson, 2002, p. 526). Thus, a
sociocognitive perspective integrates everything involved in L2 learning such as learners, teachers, learning environments, social practices, products, tools, and worlds. Atkinson (2002) contends that this latter metaphor represents how an L2 learner acquires an L2. It should be noted, however, that he does not deny the cognitive view of SLA; rather he proposes that SLA is both cognitive and social because they are interdependent and integrated.

Two implications of a sociocognitive view of SLA that seem relevant to this study are: 1) SLA is associated with the view that language and language acquisition are connected to the rest of the world, and 2) L2 learners are seen as "real people, … not as mere research subjects, or not as mere students, or mere sites for language acquisition" (p. 539). As for the first implication, according to Atkinson (2002), a sociocognitive approach allows the learning of L2 to extend beyond the transfer of information from brain to brain. For example, L2 learning can be connected to other realms of inquiry and practices such as culture. In the present study, the participants may learn about Japanese culture through extensive reading, as they read books containing cultural information. With regard to the second implication, from the sociocognitive perspective, I recognise that the participants in this study are not just JFL learners, instead they are secondary school students who have a life outside the classroom. Therefore, I need to take the social context into account when interpreting data.

Previous studies have, of course, considered contextual factors. Lin (2001) conducted an ethnographic and classroom discourse study in Hong Kong, and investigated whether taking English lessons contributes to the reproduction or the transformation of the students' social worlds. Lin (2001) presents a story of four classrooms in four schools from a range of socioeconomic backgrounds. Students from the middle-class backgrounds had different perceptions of reading and English and different behaviours in their reading classes than those from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Lin explains that the middle-class students had a ‘habitus’ that was compatible to what was required of them in the English reading lessons. ‘Habitus’ refers to "language use, skills, and orientations/attitudes/dispositions/schemes of perception that a child is endowed with by virtue of socialization in her/his family and community" (Lin, 2001, p, 282).
However, lower socioeconomic students in one classroom had perceptions and behaviours similar to those of the middle-class students. As Lin explains, in that class the teacher’s creative discursive practices contributed to the transformation of habitus within the larger social context. The teacher seemed to have an influence on students' attitudes to their studies and their perceptions of their futures because of the time and effort she invested in her teaching and her students. In brief, Lin (2001) shows that the larger social context has an influence on the nature and quality of learning in the second language classroom, but the teacher can make it possible to change this.

To borrow the terminology of the educational psychologists, Williams and Burden, (1997, p. 188), the teacher Lin describes created a ‘micro-context’ in her classroom within the ‘macro-context’ of Hong Kong. As social constructivists, Williams and Burden maintain that learning always occurs in a particular context and that it is particularly important for language teachers and learners to understand how the context influences learning, so as to create appropriate environmental conditions for learning. They distinguish different levels of context from macro to micro. The broadest level is a country and its culture, and at another level, there is a country's education system that will have an impact on the learning environment. At the school level, the ethos of the school has an influence on the type of learning that goes on in that school. At the micro level, the classroom environment and interactions between the teacher and students and among students within the classroom affect the nature and quality of language learning, as described by Lin.

One extensive reading study previously discussed also shows the impact of the different levels of context. Nishino (2007) suggested that the use of a dictionary while reading by one of the participants was partly due to the learning environment that she was in. In Japanese secondary schools, English teachers generally advise students to consult a dictionary, so that they can translate word for word from English (L2) to Japanese (L1). In addition, the participant attended a high-level academic high school whose students aim to enter prestigious universities. In English classes in that school, students learned grammar and vocabulary in a decontextualised manner and practised translating complex sentences word by word, which is in line with what students are required to do in the university entrance examination. Thus this learning environment influenced the way the participant read in the L2 by using a dictionary.
The context of the present study is different to the two studies cited above. Learning Japanese as a second language in New Zealand does not have as great a social consequence as learning English as a second language appears to have in other countries. However, other contextual factors may be at work. As in Nishino’s (2007) study, there is a major examination in New Zealand, and although it is a high school exit examination rather than a university entrance examination, it is part of university entrance requirements. Therefore, in the present study the New Zealand educational system (as will be outlined in section 3.3.2.1) will be considered, as it has a significant influence on how the language is taught in the Japanese classroom. In addition, microcontextual factors, such as those described by both Lin (2001) and Nishino (2007), may have an influence. There may also be other contextual factors that have not been considered in other studies. In the present study, various contextual factors are considered in how learners perceive their experiences with extensive reading and how they approach extensive reading.

2.4 Summary

I began this chapter with a description of extensive reading and an outline of the role of extensive reading from a cognitive perspective. Extensive reading is seen as an approach in teaching L2 reading and as a means of L2 acquisition. Previous research suggests that L2 learners derive benefits from extensive reading, such as improved comprehension, speed, and vocabulary. It also appears that extensive reading contributes to the development of reading strategies. However, more research from non-EFL contexts is needed to test the validity of claims about extensive reading, as most studies have been conducted in EFL contexts with subjects from Asia or Oceania (Waring, 2001). In addition, there are few studies with younger learners (e.g., secondary school students).

The second section began with an overview of L2 motivation, focusing on the importance of temporal aspect of motivation and contextual influences. Following this, L2 reading attitudes and motivation were discussed. The positive effect of extensive reading on attitudes to L2 reading has been repeatedly reported. On the other hand, motivation has attracted scant attention until recently. However, the research suggests that reading materials have a major influence on motivation to read in an L2. After that, studies that have reported change in motivation to do extensive
reading were discussed. I suggested L2 reading motivation is a dynamic process and
is influenced by different factors at different points in time. Lastly, I provided an
overview of research on learner beliefs.

The focus of the final section was context. I first described differences
between L1 and L2 reading contexts and readers, including research related to
Japanese and a description of the Japanese writing system. I discussed how Japanese
logography called kanji may cause English learners of Japanese greater difficulty in
word recognition and reading than learners with similar L1 orthography backgrounds.
Finally, I reviewed research claiming that language learning is social and that context
needs to be taken into account. Because extensive reading is part of L2 learning, I
suggested that extensive reading might be social too.

As mentioned before, extensive reading research needs more studies with
younger learners in non-EFL/ESL settings. The present study fills this gap, as it looks
at extensive reading through the eyes of high school JFL learners. Existing studies,
which are primarily quantitative, have shown the benefits of extensive reading. These
studies are undoubtedly important to extensive reading research. However, I believe
that qualitative studies also make a contribution to the knowledge base, as we can
gain participant perspectives and insights. The present study takes a qualitative
approach to discover how young adult JFL learners perceive their experience with
extensive reading and how motivation to read extensively changes over time.
Motivational change in particular has not been reported much in extensive reading
research, perhaps because in most studies it was required regardless of the
motivational state of the readers. In the present study extensive reading is voluntary,
which means students' motivation plays a significant role, because they have to keep
reading without external forces. Therefore, understanding motivational change, and
the influences on it, is valuable, especially for teachers who are implementing
extensive reading in similar circumstances. The rationale for qualitative research is
discussed further in Chapter Three. Finally, previous research seems to look at
extensive reading mainly from a cognitive perspective, in that context has not been
taken into account. In the fields of L2 motivation, learner beliefs and SLA research
there seems to be a growing view that context plays a significant role (see section
2.3). The present study is conducted on the same assumption and, so, context is taken
into account.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This study aims to discover JFL learners' perceptions of extensive reading, changes in their motivation to read extensively, and the influences behind those changes. In order to achieve these aims, a qualitative approach was chosen. This chapter is organised in the following order. First, the rationale for using a qualitative approach is mentioned, followed by an overview of the qualitative research paradigm and its major characteristics. The definition and the rationale of qualitative case study research are then presented. After that, I discuss the validation processes for the study, followed by the researcher’s positions and biases that may have influenced this study. Next, the research design section begins by presenting the research questions, and following that a description of the research setting and participants is provided. The extensive reading project and the reading materials used in this study are also outlined. Then the ethics considerations of the study are presented. Following this, the data collection methods and analysis procedures are outlined. The chapter concludes with a summary.

3.1 Approach

3.1.1 Rationale for qualitative approach

As discussed in Chapter Two, most previous studies have focused on whether extensive reading has an effect on language development and/or attitudes to L2 reading using quantitative methods. That is, the research has focused on the outcomes of extensive reading. However, what is not yet known is second language learners’ experiences with extensive reading and how they make sense of those experiences. Moreover, how motivation to read in an L2 changes over time and what influences the changes is under-researched.

Qualitative research can help to fill such a gap in the literature. Maxwell (2005) observes that qualitative research is especially suited for achieving goals such as “understanding something – gaining insight into what is going on and why this is happening, or answering some question that previous research has not adequately addressed” (p. 21). Therefore, because the focus of this study is to discover learners’
perceptions, it seemed that a qualitative approach was suitable for the present study.

Another reason to use a qualitative approach in this study is that qualitative research has greater potential for informing second language teachers (Bolster, 1983). Despite the benefits of extensive reading demonstrated in many quantitative studies, many teachers seem to be still hesitant to incorporate an extensive reading programme into a second language curriculum (Day & Bamford, 1998; Renandya, 2007). It may be, as Bolster (1983) maintains, that quantitative research, which is primarily concerned with outcomes, is disconnected from teachers’ experience of everyday classroom realities. On the other hand, qualitative research, which emphasizes the participants’ perspective and the understanding of particular settings, is more likely to generate knowledge that is both understandable and experientially credible to teachers. As stated above, this study reveals perceptions about extensive reading from the L2 learners' perspective and how JFL learners in two New Zealand secondary schools managed extensive reading for five to seven months. Such information may have more practical benefits. Therefore, this study is important because it informs second language teachers, especially those in similar settings (Japanese as a foreign language) as to how extensive reading could be integrated into their practice, and, as a result, more teachers may implement extensive reading programmes.

3.1.2 Constructivist paradigm

Among the many different paradigms within qualitative research, this study is situated within the constructivist paradigm. A paradigm refers to “a set of basic beliefs that guides action” (Guba, 1990, p. 17), which is based on philosophical assumptions consisting of ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (the nature of knowledge), and methodology (the process of research). The constructivist paradigm assumes that realities are multiple, as individuals engage with their world and construct subjective meanings of it (Creswell, 2007; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The subjective meanings are constructed “through interaction with others and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals’ lives” (Creswell, 2007, p. 21). Therefore, in order to discover what the phenomenon in question means to the participant(s), the researcher tries to minimize the distance between himself or herself and the people he or she is studying by entering their world, spending time in the field with them, and seeking their perspectives and meanings through ongoing interaction.
Then the researcher interprets the meanings that participants have about their world. The process of qualitative research is largely inductive, in that the researcher develops a theory or pattern of meaning grounded in the data.

### 3.1.3 Characteristics of qualitative research

Bodgan and Biklen (2007) describe important characteristics of qualitative research. Although they put “natural setting” and “researcher as key instrument” together under the “naturalistic” nature of qualitative research, I separate the two as other researchers do (e.g. Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998). However, this study was conducted in a manner that was consistent with Bodgan and Biklen’s (2007) characteristics, even though it did not exhibit all the traits equally. They write, “the question is not whether a particular piece of research is or is not absolutely qualitative; rather it is an issue of degree” (p. 4).

The first characteristic is that “qualitative research has actual settings as the direct source of data” (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007, p. 4). Qualitative researchers often go into the field (i.e., the people, setting, site, institution) to observe behaviour in its natural setting. They are concerned with context, which is important for understanding human behaviour, based on the assumption that it is significantly influenced by the setting in which it occurs. In this study, most data was gathered in a classroom setting where the participants study Japanese. One exception was the data gathered from think-alouds, which were conducted under rather artificial conditions (cf. Duff, 2008). The participants were asked to verbalize everything they were thinking about as they read a Japanese text.

The second characteristic is that the qualitative researcher is the key instrument in data collection, because, as mentioned above, he or she enters the field and collects data through interviews, observations and examining documents. In line with this characteristic, I collected the data myself by talking directly to the participants, reading their written journals, and observing them in class.

Third, as a qualitative researcher is concerned with participants' perspectives and meanings in a particular context, qualitative research is inevitably descriptive. That is, both the data collected and the written results take the form of words rather than numbers. In this study the data include interview transcripts, written journals, and field notes in order to describe the participants’ experiences and perceptions. For
example, this study describes how the participants perceived extensive reading, their reactions to the extensive reading project, and their motivation to do extensive reading in Japanese. In reporting the results, extracts from the data are used to substantiate the findings of the study.

The fourth characteristic is that “qualitative researchers are concerned with process rather than simply with outcomes or products” (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007, p. 6). Outcomes can be shown in the form of numeric data by means of pre- and post-testing, thus quantitative research does not need to be descriptive. The qualitative researcher needs to spend time in the field trying to minimise the distance between herself/himself and the participants because he or she is more concerned with how the outcomes might be brought about. This study aims to gain an understanding of JFL learners’ experiences with extensive reading, in order to explore how it helps them to learn Japanese.

In qualitative research, data is usually analysed inductively. In other words, qualitative researchers do not set out to test existing theories. Instead of looking for data to match a theory, they develop a theory that explains their data (Merriam, 1998, p. 7). This is because qualitative researchers are interested in finding out 'how', 'what' and 'why' (i.e., process) something occurs. Likewise, in this study I have searched for salient themes, looked for patterns, made interpretations, and attempted to build a theory about what extensive reading means to the participants.

Finally, meaning is of essential concern in qualitative research. In other words, qualitative researchers are concerned with "participant perspectives" (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007, p. 7). Therefore, the data was analysed inductively to let the participants’ perspectives emerge. Through this study, I wanted to hear participants' voices as to how JFL learners perceive extensive reading, how it contributes to their L2 learning, and how and why their motivation to do extensive reading changes. Thus I gathered data on participants' perceptions of these features. Consequently, this study should reveal not only the participants’ experiences with extensive reading, but also how they make sense of those experiences.

3.1.4 Case study research

There are a number of approaches to qualitative inquiry (Creswell, 2007). Among them, case study research has been chosen for this study. Definitions of case
study research vary. Case study research has been referred to as a method, or a strategy of inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005: Yin, 2003). Others, however, have focused on what is to be studied, that is, the bounded system or case (Stakes, 2005). Case study research has also been referred to as an end product of research (Merriam, 1988, 1998). Creswell (2007) integrates these different views and defines case study research as follows:

Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded cases (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes. (p. 73)

My study fulfils Creswell’s definition because it explores a bounded system, This study is in line with Creswell's definition, as I explored a case (JFL learners in New Zealand secondary schools engaged in extensive reading in Japanese) over time (for seven months), while they engaged in extensive reading, by collecting data from multiple sources (e.g., interviews, journals, observations, and verbal reports) which I report as a case. In reporting the results, I have tried to give as rich and detailed a description of the case as possible, and to establish a theory that explains the data.

Above all, the most significant feature that underlies case study research is “boundedness” or singularity. A bounded system (a case) is something that has boundaries around it, and it could be an individual, a class, or a programme. In case study research, the researcher concentrates on a single entity (the case) to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and perspectives of those involved. Thus case study research seems to be the most suitable approach for exploring how JFL learners in New Zealand secondary schools perceive extensive reading.

Furthermore, Yin (2003) maintains that case study research is particularly suited to situations in which it is not always possible to separate phenomenon and context. Previous quantitative studies on extensive reading have had problems isolating the effects of extensive reading from the effects of external influences (Waring, 2001) as discussed in the previous chapter (see section 2.1.3.6). I argue that how extensive reading influences JFL learners' language-learning experiences should be looked at in a naturally occurring context.

Previous research has paid limited (but increasing) attention to JFL learners compared with ESL/EFL learners. Thus the case chosen for this study is New Zealand
high school JFL learners, as I have a strong interest in how extensive reading helps these particular learners with L2 learning and how extensive reading is perceived by them. Although I am interested in the particular case itself, I hope that this study provides an insight into how extensive reading can be used to help JFL learners in similar settings. In this sense, the study is an “instrumental case study” (Stake, 1995, p. 3) because I will use a particular case to learn about something else.

In this section, I have presented my rationale for using a qualitative, case study approach in this study. These approaches seemed suitable for the aim of this study. I have also discussed the characteristics of qualitative research and provided a definition of case study research.

3.2 Validation

The methodological framework of this study is qualitative research. However, it employs one quantitative data collection method, a motivational questionnaire. Edge and Richards (1998) urge qualitative researchers to provide justification for the statements they make, whatever their views on how qualitative research should be validated. Although this can be accomplished in different ways, Lincoln and Guba (1985) claim that the underlying criteria of truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality apply to both quantitative and qualitative research. While quantitative researchers draw on a set of concepts appropriate to their methods to show how their research meets these criteria, qualitative researchers draw on another set of concepts appropriate to their methods to show how their research meets these same criteria. Different terminology distinguishes the two sets of concepts. I have followed Lincoln and Guba’s approach by using the concepts that apply to naturalistic research, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

3.2.1 Credibility

Credibility can relate to the notion of internal validity in quantitative research. Its underlying concept is “true value”. Because qualitative researchers assume multiple, constructed realities, it is important that their findings and interpretations are credible to those being studied. Qualitative researchers use the following strategies or techniques to ensure the credibility of their results. First, long-term engagement and observation in the field allow the researcher to build trust with participants, learn the
culture, and check for misinformation that stems from distortions introduced by the researcher or participants (Creswell, 2007). Second, in triangulation, researchers use multiple sources, methods, investigators, and theories to confirm the emergent findings. Collecting data from different sources is typically used to shed light on a theme or perspective. Third, member checking involves taking data, analyses, interpretations, and conclusions back to the participants and asking them if the findings are plausible (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998).

In this study, data was obtained from different sources (students, teachers, and myself) using multiple methods (interviews, journals, observations, a questionnaire, and verbal reports) to enhance the credibility of the findings. Initially, I intended to do member checking by showing the participants my initial analysis, consisting of descriptions and themes, to find out their views of these analyses (Creswell, 2007), but I was unable to do this fully due to time constraints. However, I listened to the audio recordings carefully, and did an initial rough analysis before the next interview, so that I could check my analysis and understanding of what they had said. Another factor contributing to the trustworthiness of this study is that I spent seven months in the field, visiting each school weekly or fortnightly to meet the participants and check how they were doing with extensive reading, as well as to collect data. The regular and long-term experience in the setting allowed the participants to become accustomed to me and enabled me to build rapport with them.

3.2.2 Transferability

Transferability can relate to the notion of external validity, and its underlying concept is applicability, that is the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other contexts. What this means in qualitative research is that “it seeks to produce understandings of one situation which someone with knowledge of another situation may well be able to make use of” (Edge & Rodgers, 1998, p. 345). The strategy for establishing transferability is to provide rich, “thick” description (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998). A detailed description of the participants and setting enables the reader to determine how closely his or her situation resembles the research situation and thus whether the findings can be transferred.
Accordingly, in this study I attempted to provide a “thick” description of the research setting and the participants. The Japanese language is taught in secondary schools and universities in New Zealand and in other countries outside Japan. Therefore, with a complete and detailed description of the case, the readers may find their situation similar to the situation of this study, and may utilise the findings of this study in their own situation.

3.2.3 Dependability

Dependability can relate to the notion of reliability, and its underlying concept is consistency. Qualitative researchers are not concerned with whether other people not involved in the study would get the same results when they follow the same procedures. Rather, they are concerned with whether outsiders would agree that the findings and interpretations make sense from the data collected (Merriam, 1998, p. 206).

Several strategies can be used to ensure that findings are dependable. First, triangulation strengthens not only credibility but also dependability. Second, the researcher should clarify his or her bias from the outset of the study, so that the reader understands the researcher’s position and any biases or assumptions that influence the study (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998). Third, an auditor who has no connection to the study can assess the accuracy of the findings, interpretations, and conclusions by following the same procedures as the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998).

In order to ensure the dependability of this study, multiple data collection methods (e.g., interviews, journals, observations, questionnaire and verbal reports) were used and data were gathered from the students, the teachers and myself. Also, I comment on my position, biases, and assumptions that are likely to have affected the interpretation and approach to the study (see section 3.2.5). Lastly, an independent rater coded some of the interviews to check for interrater reliability of the codes (approximately 90%). All discrepancies were resolved upon discussion. Only interviews were chosen for this process because they presented the largest amount of data and were the most open to interpretation.
3.2.4 Confirmability

Confirmability can be related to the notion of objectivity. Its underlying concept is neutrality, which is concerned with “the degree to which the finding of an inquiry are determined by the subjects (respondents) and conditions of the inquiry and not by the biases, motivations, interests or perspectives of the inquirer (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 290). Establishing confirmability involves documenting the records of reflection and decision-making on which researchers base their claims and interpretations. Such evidence will enable the reader to "examine the data and confirm, modify, or reject the researcher’s interpretations" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 180). Following this strategy, I have included my reflections and decision-making processes as much as possible when presenting the analysis of the findings, so the reader can decide whether they agree or disagree with my interpretations and claims.

3.2.5 The researcher’s bias

The researcher’s bias needs to be clarified from the outset of the study so that “the reader understands the researcher’s position and any biases or assumptions that impact the inquiry” (Creswell, 2007, p. 208). This is one of the strategies for strengthening dependability as described above. In qualitative research, the researcher is the key instrument in data collection, and therefore subjectivity and interaction are assumed (Merriam, 1998). Hence, the researcher should comment on past experiences, interests, biases, and orientations that may influence the interpretation of the data and the approach to the study (Creswell, 2007).

As stated in Chapter One, extensive reading appeared to be a great way for JFL learners in New Zealand, who have little opportunity to be exposed to Japanese outside the classroom, to improve their Japanese and to have an enjoyable learning experience. I hoped that extensive reading might work as a motivating tool while they engaged in formal L2 learning. Therefore, I had favourable attitudes to extensive reading because of the positive effects of extensive reading on language development and student attitudes to reading demonstrated by the literature. I had high hopes that the JFL learners in this study would derive benefits from extensive reading. This bias may have influenced my interpretations. To illustrate, when I found that the majority of students struggled to read as much as suggested, I was disappointed. I might have subconsciously perceived those students negatively, and this might have affected my
interpretation of the findings. However, I tried not to let my feelings interfere with my analysis throughout this study.

In qualitative research, researchers interact with their participants in the field as they gather data. Therefore, what the participants say and do is influenced by the interaction and the relationship between the researcher and participants. In second language research, where the researcher is often the teacher of the participants, the power that the teacher has over the participants possibly influences the credibility of the findings (see section 3.4.1). In this study, I did not assume the role of teacher, and had no connection with the students outside this project. At the same time, I visited the schools weekly or fortnightly to see how the students were getting on with their reading. Through these numerous visits, I hope that I built good rapport with them. I considered myself to be an “observer as participant” (Gold, 1958, as cited in Merriam, 1998). By taking this stance, I could “observe and interact closely enough with members to establish an insider’s identity without participating in those activities constituting the core of group membership” (Merriam, 1998, p. 101).

To summarise, in this section I have outlined how the trustworthiness of this study was established with reference to Lincoln and Guba's (1985) terms. In addition, possible biases that I, as the researcher of this study, had were clarified, as these may have influenced my approach to the study and my interpretation of the data. Next, the actual research design is presented.

3.3 Research design

The primary aim of this study is to explore JFL learners' perceptions about extensive reading and what role extensive reading played in their L2 learning. Also, this study aims to explore learners’ motivation to do extensive reading over time. This section begins with my research questions, followed by a detailed description of the research setting and the participants. Next, the extensive reading project and reading materials selected for this study are outlined. Lastly, ethical considerations taken in this study are discussed.

3.3.1 Research questions

In order to achieve the aims of this study, the following research questions guided the inquiry.
1. What are the perceptions of JFL learners about extensive reading while they participate in the project for five to seven months?
2. How does their motivation to do extensive reading change over time?
3. What influences the motivational change? What separates students who sustain L2 reading motivation from those who do not?

3.3.2 Research setting

In selecting sites for the project, I initially considered a tertiary institution. However, I was unable to get agreement from potential participants at the tertiary institution. Therefore, despite my tertiary teaching background, I chose secondary schools, which I recognized might be advantageous because younger L2 learners have been under-researched in extensive reading research. In late November 2008, I approached a Japanese teacher at a boys’ high school (I will use the pseudonym Boy’s High School) in Dunedin, New Zealand, whom I knew, and asked her if she would be interested in the extensive reading project. She agreed to assist. Then I thought it would be desirable to have female participants as well for gender balance, so I contacted a Japanese teacher at a girls’ high school (I will use the pseudonym Girls’ High School) whom I also knew. She also accepted my invitation. (There was another Japanese teacher at the girls’ high school, but I did not ask her because her students would be absolute beginners who had not learned the Japanese writing system yet. See below.)

Thus, the data were collected from these two secondary schools from February to September 2009. In both schools, Japanese was offered as an optional subject. In this sub-section, I outline the broad and situational setting of this study.

3.3.2.1 The National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA)

As stated earlier, in qualitative research it is assumed that human behaviour is influenced by the setting in which it occurs; thus it is important to understand context. By context I include the physical setting and the people within that setting, such as students and teachers, as observed by me and described by the participants. This includes their high schools, their homes and their community, making the broader context of this study its location in New Zealand. One aspect of the New Zealand
context in particular is relevant to this study: the examination-based national qualifications which students take in high school. Accordingly, I provide an overview of the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA). Interviews, observations and informal interviews with the teachers indicated that NCEA influenced the daily teaching and learning of Japanese at school.

The NCEA is a national qualification (part of the National Qualifications Framework) for senior secondary school students in New Zealand, and was introduced between 2002 and 2004 (New Zealand Qualifications Authority, n.d.). It is thought that the NCEA system gives a more accurate picture of a student's achievement than the old examination system. This is how NCEA works. Each year students study a number of subjects. In each subject, students are assessed for skills and knowledge against a number of standards. For example, a standard in 2008 in Japanese was ' Produce crafted writing in Japanese on a less familiar topic'. How well a student meets these standards is assessed through a range of internal and external assessments. Internal assessments assess skills and knowledge that cannot be assessed in an exam, such as speech and research projects. External assessment is an exam which occurs at the end of the academic year. When students achieve a standard, they gain a number of credits. They need a certain number of credits in order to gain an NCEA certificate. There are three levels of NCEA certificate, level one being the lowest. Typically students go for level one in year 11, level two in year 12 and level three in year 13. To obtain credits, students need to receive NCEA with Achievement, but those with high achievement gain NCEA with Merit or NCEA with Excellence. Additionally, a scholarship examination was introduced at the same time, which was registered on the Framework at level four (i.e., one level above NCEA level three), but level three standards were used in its content.

In terms of Japanese, participants in both schools had three internal assessments in terms two and three, and sat the external assessment exams in term four. For the internal assessments, they had to give a speech, have a conversation in Japanese with the teacher, and produce crafted writing in Japanese. The exams tested the students' skills in listening, reading and writing. Year 11 participants were working at level one, year 12 students were at level two and year 13 students were at level three. For each assessment, students received either Achieved, Merit, Excellence, or Not Achieved according to their level of achievement.
The standards that the participants were required to meet were based on the New Zealand curriculum. Japanese in the New Zealand curriculum is divided into eight levels, and the NCEA levels one, two, and three correspond to levels six, seven, eight of the New Zealand curriculum respectively. Each level of the curriculum has its achievement objectives in three strands of language skills, communication functions and Japanese culture. It also suggests sentence structures and common expressions so that students learn each of the communication functions. With respect to vocabulary and kanji, they are divided into NCEA level one, level two and level three. Thus, students are expected to master grammatical structures, vocabulary and kanji at their respective level to achieve the standards.

3.3.2.2 Girls’ High School

At Girls’ High School, six languages (French, German, Latin, Maori, Japanese and Spanish) are offered to year 9 students, and three foreign languages (French, German, and Japanese) are available from year 9 through to year 13. Year 9 and 10 students who select Japanese have class three times each week, and year 11, 12 and 13 students meet four times each week. Classes are one hour long. Thus, junior students receive roughly 100 hours of instruction each year, and senior students receive roughly 120 hours. The number of students tends to decrease as they progress to senior grades. In 2009, when the data were collected, there were only six year 13 students taking Japanese, including two international students from Japan (i.e., Japanese native speakers).

The classroom was decorated with various items related to Japan and Japanese, including students’ work, photographs from field trips, posters on which enlarged Japanese characters were printed, and cultural objects such as sushi made of wax and boxes of Japanese pudding.

There were two Japanese teachers. One was teaching year 9 and the other teacher was teaching all other classes from years 10 to 13. As mentioned above, the teacher for year 9 students did not participate in the project, as her students were absolute beginners. The teacher who participated in the study was a New Zealander, a native speaker of English who had lived in Japan and was fluent in Japanese. She had taught Japanese at a secondary school in Auckland for two years and had been teaching at the school in Dunedin for the last three years at the time of data collection.
3.3.2.3 Boys’ High School

Boys’ High School offers three languages (French, Japanese and Maori) to its students. Year 9 students must take two one-hour lessons each week for six or seven weeks to learn each of the three languages. That is, they receive 12 to 14 hours of foreign language instruction in the first year. In this way, from the school’s perspective, students are able to make an informed decision when they choose subjects for year 10. However, the teacher expressed concerns that her students were disadvantaged by this system, because they fell behind other schools where students received approximately 100 hours of instruction during the first year at school. From year 10 through to year 13, JFL students have four one-hour classes each week. Thus, they receive approximately 120 hours of instruction a year. Student numbers tend to decrease as they progress to senior grades like Girls' High School, but more severely. According to the teacher, this is because students find Japanese too difficult (the major problem is with the learning of characters), and for some students Japanese clashes with the timetabling of other subjects. There were only six year 11 students including one international student from Japan, seven year 12 students including three international students from Japan, and one year 13 student taking Japanese in the year of data collection.

The classroom was decorated with students’ work, photographs from field trips, and some objects from Japan. There were Japanese magazines and books for the students to read. There was one teacher and one assistant teacher. The teacher was a native speaker of Japanese who had been living in New Zealand for over twenty years, and had taught Japanese in various educational institutions in New Zealand. She had been with the school for four years at the time of data collection. It was the second year that the teacher had had the assistant teacher. He was a native speaker of Japanese who had trained to be a Japanese teacher in Japan prior to arriving at the school.

3.3.3 Participants

In this sub-section, I outline the procedures for selecting participants and the participants' profiles.
3.3.3.1 Girls' High School

Once the Japanese teacher had accepted my invitation, the teacher and I negotiated institutional access through a process in which she presented the information sheet to the principal and asked for permission for the project to be conducted at the school. The principal and the teacher signed consent forms.

In Girls' High School, year 13 students were selected for the study for two reasons. First, the participants needed to be able to read hiragana and katakana and some kanji in order to read the reading materials. Junior students would not be able to read the materials comfortably, which would have been unsuitable for an extensive reading project. Second, the teacher suggested that with year 13 students, extensive reading could be done at school once a week before the Friday class, as they did silent reading for 20 minutes. She said that this time could be used to read the Japanese books selected for this study.

Thus, in the first week of term one in February 2009, the teacher asked four year 13 students if they would be interested in taking part in the project (as part of the negotiated process of obtaining institutional access, she made the initial approach to the possible participants). They took home the Information Sheet and the Consent Form that I left the teacher to give the students. All of them returned the Consent Form (signed by their parents/care givers) the following week, when I was available to answer any questions (see Appendix A and B).

The following is a description of the participants’ profiles. This information was obtained from the first interview conducted at the outset of the project. It should be noted that names of the participants are pseudonyms.

Emma was New Zealand born, and her mother was Dutch. She said she could understand some Dutch, but was not fluent in it. Her first language was English. She had been learning Japanese since year 9. She had been to Japan twice, a two-week trip in year 8 (intermediate school) and a one-month field trip in year 12. Emma said that she loved Japanese culture, and hoped to live in Japan and possibly teach English there in the future. Emma's interest in Japan was influenced by her older sister, who had been watching Japanese anime movies at home.

Jane was born in Korea and moved to New Zealand when she was three. She spoke fluent Korean, but considered her first language to be English. She started learning Japanese from her mother’s Korean friend who had lived in Japan, and then
from a Japanese woman, before she took up year 12 Japanese at school. Jane enjoyed watching Japanese anime/films and listening to Japanese music in her own time. She had never been to Japan, but hoped to do something with Japanese (possibly tourism) in the future.

Josie was New Zealand born, and her first language was English. She had learned French for three months when she was at intermediate school. Her father spoke French. But Josie liked Japan when she went on a short trip when she was in intermediate school, so she took up Japanese when she started high school. She had been to Japan twice after the first trip. During the summer holidays, before year 11, she stayed in Tokyo with a host family for a month. She said that she liked staying with the host family very much. Josie also expressed her love for Japanese culture, and wanted to work in Japan as a diplomat for the New Zealand government after university.

Tracey was New Zealand born, and her first language was English. Her family had hosted Japanese students in homestays since she was two years old. Tracey had fond memories of the Japanese students that her family had hosted. She studied German in years 9 and 10 as well. She had been to Japan twice, a short trip in year 8 when she was in intermediate school and a three-month stay in year 10, during which she stayed with a host family and attended a local high school. She was unsure about her future career plans at the time of the project.

3.3.3.2 Boys' High School

The week before term one commenced, I met the principal along with the Japanese teacher. I explained the project and asked for his permission. He approved the project and signed the consent form. The teacher at Boys' High School also wanted to invite students to participate in this study on my behalf. Initially, she was going to ask year 12 students and only one of the year 11 students who she thought would be able to cope with reading. However, it was decided that it would be fairer to allow all year 11 students the same opportunity to participate in the study. This was done in the second week of term one. Three year 12 students and five year 11 students volunteered. However, the following week, three year 11 students decided to withdraw. In the end, three year 12 and two year 11 students participated in this study.

The profiles of the five Boys’ High School students are outlined below:
Nick was a year 11 student, and was a New Zealand native speaker of English. He had learned some Maori and Spanish at intermediate school, and French in year 9 at school. As for Japanese, he learned about Japan through cultural activities at his intermediate school, and came to like Japanese. Thus, he chose Japanese in year 10 and had been studying Japanese since then. He had never been to Japan. Nick aspired to study geology after high school.

Jack was a year 11 student, and was a New Zealand native speaker of English. He had been learning Japanese since year 10. He became fascinated about Japan, as he learned about it by researching on the Internet. He had been doing extension work and writing diaries in Japanese since the end of term one in year 10. Jack enjoyed listening to Japanese pop music. He had never been to Japan, but aspired to live in Japan long-term after university.

Alan was a year 12 student, and his first language was English (New Zealander). His father was a second-generation Italian-New Zealander who spoke Italian fluently. Therefore, Alan could speak Italian, but he was gradually losing it as he grew older. He had been studying Japanese since year 10. Alan said that he enjoyed Japanese more than French. He went to Japan twice in the previous year; a short trip to Dunedin’s sister city, Otaru, and a one-month trip during which he stayed with two host families. Alan aspired to be a vet in the future.

Ben was a year 12 student, and his first language was English (New Zealander). He had learned some Spanish and Japanese at intermediate school, and discovered that he liked languages and could do well in them. Ben had been studying Japanese and French at school since year 10. He had gone on the same trip to Otaru as Alan. Ben did not know what he would like to do in the future at the time of the project.

Drew was also a year 12 student and was a native speaker of English (New Zealander). He had been studying Japanese since year 10. Drew said that he enjoyed the challenge Japanese offered, as learning Japanese was different from studying other subjects. Drew also spent one month in Japan during the summer holidays just before the project (the same trip as Alan’s). He stayed with a host family and attended a local high school. He said that he enjoyed the trip immensely and wanted to return to Japan one day. Drew was planning to study architecture after high school.
Table 3.1 below summarises background information relating to the participants.

Table 3.1

Study participants and background information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Born in</th>
<th>First Language</th>
<th>Age &amp; School Year</th>
<th>Number of visits to Japan</th>
<th>Other Foreign language(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>16 Year 13</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>Korean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>17 Year 13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Josie</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>17 Year 13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracey</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>17 Year 13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nick</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>14 Year 11</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>French, Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>15 Year 11</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alan</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>16 Year 12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Italian, French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>16 Year 12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>French, Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drew</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>16 Year 12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Emma, Jane, Josie and Tracey were working toward NCEA level three at the time of the project. Emma, Jane and Josie were also studying for the Scholarship examination. Nick and Jack were studying for NCEA level one, Alan, Ben and Drew were studying for NCEA level two.

3.3.4 Extensive reading project

I initially wanted to conduct the extensive reading project for the whole academic year (terms one to four). I thought that the longer the project was, the better the chance to increase its credibility. However, the teachers asked that the project be carried out during terms one and two only, because in term three they would be busy with the NCEA assessments and preparation for the NCEA exams. Also, I learned
that there were no classes during term four. Therefore, in this study, the participants were asked to read in Japanese as much as they could during term one (mid February to early April) and term two (mid April to early July) in 2009. However, later it was suggested that I find out if it would be acceptable to continue in term three (late July to late September), in order for a sufficient amount of data be collected for analysis. The teachers approved this, and four students (Jane, Josie, Jack and Nick) agreed to my request.

Once the participants had signed and returned their consent forms, the extensive reading project began. In the second week of term one, I visited the year 13 class at Girls' High School and met the four students for the first time. We introduced ourselves in Japanese first and then I gave them each a notebook that had reading record sheets, guidelines for extensive reading and information for writing journal entries attached to it. We looked at the handout explaining extensive reading in detail. They were asked to read as much as they could in their own time, but it was suggested that they read at least one book a week. The students were also informed how to choose a book and how to read it. It was stressed that they could stop reading if the book was too difficult and could get another book, and that they should avoid using a dictionary when they encountered an unknown word. Next, the participants were instructed as to how to fill in the reading record sheet when they finished a book, and what a journal was and what they could write in their journal (see Appendix D). Lastly, they chose their first book and were asked to start reading in their own time. The same procedure was followed at Boys' High School, but the first meeting was held one week later than Girls' High School (i.e., the third week in term one).

Once the extensive reading project had begun, I made a weekly visit to each school within scheduling constraints. During terms one and two, I made approximately nineteen visits to Girls’ High School and fifteen visits to Boys’ High School, as well as meeting with the participants individually for interviews and think-alouds. During term three, the visits were less frequent (four visits to each school) because of the reduced number of participants and scheduling constraints with assessments and exam preparation.

I went to Girls' High School on Fridays, when they had twenty minutes of silent reading before class. Silent reading was a school initiative that took place between the lunch recess and fourth period every day. As mentioned earlier, the
participants read a book in Japanese during silent reading, and took a new book at the end of the session. They continued to read in Japanese during the silent reading session for most of term one, but in term two it became inconsistent and they ended up reading an English book for their assessment or working on something else, rather than reading in Japanese. Because extensive reading was an additional activity, I could not force them to read in Japanese during the silent reading session.

My weekly visit to Boys' High School was on Wednesdays during a lunch recess. I asked Jack and Nick (year 11) to pick up a book then, so I could see how they were doing. Alan, Ben and Drew (year 12) had class after the recess, so I could see them when they came to class. Boys' High School also had ten minutes of silent reading every day between the lunch recess and class. I was hoping that the year 12 students would read in Japanese during the silent reading session. The situation was the same as Girls' High School and I could not force them to read in Japanese. I occasionally saw them read in Japanese, but they usually read an English book. In fact, the teacher later skipped silent reading altogether and took a lesson, as she said that she had a lot to cover. In short, extensive reading was mostly done outside of class, relying on the students' volition.

3.3.5 Reading materials

Graded readers and children's books were made available to the participants in this study. In this sub-section, I provide an outline of the materials including my rationale for using them, grading criteria, and the number of books.

3.3.5.1 Graded readers

In previous studies of extensive reading in JFL context (Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Leung, 2002; Sandom & Macalister, 2009), there were no graded readers available to the participants. The participants read mainly children's books written for young Japanese native speakers, and it was reported that they faced difficulty in finding books that they could read comfortably. Sometimes a selected book was too challenging and the participant felt discouraged.

There is a view that L2 learners should read authentic books. But in reality it is almost impossible for low-level L2 learners to read even a novel written for a young native speaker, so it is suggested that such L2 learners need to read graded
readers (Nation, 2004). According to Nation (2001), "graded readers are complete books but not exclusively novels, that have been prepared so that they stay within a strictly limited vocabulary" (p. 162). Therefore, I wanted to use graded readers in this study, as the participants were at relatively low levels. However, the problem was that a limited number of graded readers for JFL learners have been published.

By the time the project commenced in early 2009, *Nihongo Tadoku Kenkyukai* (the Extensive Reading in Japanese Research Group) had made approximately 60 graded readers in four levels. The levels roughly correspond to Japanese language proficiency test levels, as they used its test specifications as a guide. The creators of the graded readers made a list of vocabulary to use at each level, and they used their intuitions as experienced teachers as well. They also examined seven textbooks for elementary learners in order to choose grammar and sentence patterns to be used at each level (M. Awanо, personal communication, July 21, 2010).

I purchased all the graded readers available at that time and also purchased another set of lower level books (level one and level two), so that both schools could have them. Level three and level four books were available only at Girls' High School, as it was apparent that they were too difficult for the year 11 and 12 students at Boys' High School. It would have been ideal to have more graded readers, especially at lower levels. Nevertheless, with the small number of the participants, I hoped that the number would provide some variety. During the second half of the project, six level zero books for beginners were published, so I made them available for Nick who had found level one books too difficult at times.

### 3.3.5.2 Children's books

Despite the criticisms about children’s books mentioned above, I made them available to the participants for two reasons. First, I wanted to increase book numbers, because I was not convinced that the number of graded readers was sufficient. Second, I was interested in how participants’ perceptions of graded readers and children’s books might be different. In addition, the participants were younger than the subjects in other studies with JFL learners, so I wondered if they might react to children’s books differently.

Most of the books I collected were donated by the kindergarten that I attended in my childhood and some of them were from my friends and my own children. By
the beginning of the project, nearly seventy books were collected. I decided to establish levels to indicate the difficulty of the books, and used the same criteria as Hitosugi and Bamford (2004) (with the first author's permission). The criteria are drawn on the proficiency guidelines of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (see Hitosugi & Day, 2004). The criteria for children’s books consider the type of orthography used (kana and/or kanji), length of text, content, and the amount of pictures, rather than specifying vocabulary and structures to use at each level. Once the children's books were classified, they were colour-coded according to the different levels.

The grading criteria for graded readers and children's books differed, so that levels did not correspond to each other, as mentioned above. Due to time constraints, I did not obtain the criteria for graded readers. I used Hitosugi and Day’s (2004) criteria because they were immediately available and were suitable for grading children’s books. Although the levels of graded readers and children’s books did not exactly match, I graded them thinking that it would be easier for the participants to choose children’s books than it would be without any indication of levels.

Table 3.2 below displays the number of reading materials selected for this study. As can be seen, in total, 144 books were available to the nine participants.

Table 3.2
Reading materials available by levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Graded readers</th>
<th>Children's books</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: as mentioned above, level criteria differ from each other.

3.3.6 Ethical considerations

Traditionally, the major ethical considerations when investigating human beings in research have been to obtain "informed consent" from participants, to preserve their "right to privacy", and to protect them from harm (Fontana & Frey, 2005, p. 715). This study was carried out with care for these concerns to protect the
participants' welfare. First, potential participants were provided with the Information Sheet (see Appendix A), which stated the nature and purpose of the research, the procedures, and how much time they would spend on the project. Those who decided to take part in the project were then asked to sign the Consent Form (see Appendix B) to show that they understood what the project was about and that they were free to withdraw from the project at any time without any disadvantage. In addition, their parents/caregivers were asked to sign the Consent Form, because the participants were young people (14 to 17 years old). Second, in order to preserve participants' privacy, anonymity was ensured by using pseudonyms in keeping data and reporting the results. The data were treated with confidentiality. Only I knew the participants' names and other personal information, and only my supervisors and I had access to the data. Third, I tried to maintain a respectful, non-judgemental and sensitive attitude toward the participants during the data collection period in order to protect them from any emotional harm (see section 3.4.1). In addition, I assumed a non-threatening role in this study, as I was a student researcher and not their teacher, which I believe helped them not feel threatened by me.

3.4 Data collection

In this study, data were collected using multiple data collection methods. As discussed above, triangulation enhances adequacy of qualitative research. In this section, I summarise the data collection methods used in this study, namely interviews, journals, verbal reports, questionnaires, and observations.

3.4.1 Interviews

As suggested by Creswell’s (2007) definition above, case study research employs multiple methods such as observations, interviews, documents, and audiovisual materials. Interviews are commonly used to collect qualitative data. The main purpose of an interview is to gather information that cannot be directly observed. Patton (1990) writes:

We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe… We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions. We cannot observe behaviours that took place at some previous point in time… The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other person’s perspective. (p. 196)
Types of interviews are determined in terms of the amount of structure (Merriam, 1998; Nunan, 1992). On the one hand, interviews can be highly structured, and predetermined questions are asked of all respondents in the same manner. Structured interviews are similar to verbal questionnaires in this sense. On the other hand, unstructured interviews have no predetermined set of questions. Unstructured interviews are guided by the interviewees and the outcomes are relatively unpredictable. These are useful when the researcher does not have enough knowledge about a phenomenon to form relevant questions in advance. However, an unstructured interview requires the interviewer to be skilful enough to handle the great flexibility (Merriam, 1998).

The semi-structured interview is halfway between the structured and unstructured interview. Qualitative researchers have favoured semi-structured interviews for their flexibility (Nunan, 1992). The interviewer uses a list of questions or issues to be explored as a guide, but he or she can still “respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the interviewee, and to new ideas on the topic” (Merriam, 1998, p. 74). This means that the interviewee is given power and control over the course of the interview to a certain degree (Nunan, 1992, p. 150).

Semi-structured interviews were used in this study for three reasons. First, they allowed me (the researcher) to discover things that I could not directly observe, that is, JFL learners’ perceptions and motivation. Second, I had topics and issues that I was interested in (extensive reading, L2 reading motivation), but at the same time I wanted my participants to open up and express their views freely without being limited by my preconceived ideas. Third, data gathered by interviews would complement the journal data, in that learners who were not comfortable with writing about their feelings in journals might be able to express themselves more freely and vice versa (Mackay & Gass, 2005). However, once I started collecting data, I came to realise that the participants did not write about their experiences and/or feelings in detail in their journals. Therefore, the interviews became the primary data in this study.

According to Merriam (1998, p. 74), in a semi-structured interview, there is usually a highly structured section in order to gain specific information from all the interviewees. Similarly, in this study I asked all participants the same questions to collect background information (e.g., age, ethnicity, and first language) at the
beginning of the first interview, but otherwise, I asked mostly open-ended questions so that the interviewees were encouraged to talk about their experiences and thoughts freely. Most students responded well to the open-ended questions. However, some participants were often reticent, and in such cases I had to probe by asking yes-no questions to elicit responses. Thus, it is possible that I may have asked leading questions and that the participants’ responses may not have completely reflected their reality.

I interviewed the participants individually three times; early in term one (when the project began), at the beginning of term two (midpoint), and at the beginning of term three (after the project ended). The duration of each interview ranged from thirty minutes to almost one hour. The difference reflected how long the participants spoke and the number of questions/topics we discussed. Those who extended the project period in term three (Jack, Jane, Josie, Nick) had the fourth interview at the end of term three. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed for analysis.

One of the biases inherent in interviews is the imbalanced power relationship between interviewer and respondent (Duff, 2008; McKay, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Nunan, 1992). The content of the interview is potentially affected by this bias. The interviewer typically has more power than the respondent because of his or her controlling role, and, therefore, what the interviewee says may not reflect reality. Also, as mentioned above, when teachers conduct interviews with their students, teachers are in positions of power because of the role relationship that exists between students and teachers (McKay, 2006, p. 55). Students may respond in a way that they think is appropriate or desirable for the teacher-interviewer. Moreover, biological and social factors such as gender, ethnicity, age and social class influence the interaction between the interviewer and respondent, and thus the content of interview. For example, in some contexts, respondents might be more forthcoming with a same sex interviewer, while in other cases, they may be hesitant to be interviewed by someone from the same background, because they are afraid of being judged or gossiped about by someone from within their community. If an interviewer’s age and status is close to that of the participants, he or she is often more easily able to build rapport with them and to put them at ease (Duff, 2008, p. 137). In this study, the negative effect of the power relationship between myself (the interviewer) and the participants is mitigated because of my non-threatening role. I was a PhD student and not a teacher.
who assessed their work. Also, I tried to be respectful, non-judgemental, and sensitive, so that students felt comfortable to talk freely in a relaxed and friendly manner.

Furthermore, the interviews were conducted in English. English was the participants’ L1 and my L2. I was born in Japan where I learned Japanese as my first language and English as a foreign language. I have lived, worked and studied in New Zealand since 1994, and do not usually have difficulty in communicating in English. However, this factor may have influenced the interviewing. For example, at the second interview with Nick, I misunderstood what he meant (he said he was not self motivated, but I thought he said he was self-motivated). I clarified this with him later at the third interview. This misunderstanding might have arisen even if I was a native speaker, but it might have been because English is not my L1. Also, the different cultural background between the participants and myself may have affected the content of interview. I have tried to take these factors into account in interpreting the interview data.

3.4.2 Journals

Documents can be categorised into personal documents, official documents, and popular culture documents. Personal documents refer to “any first-person narrative that describes an individual’s actions, experiences, and beliefs” (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007, p. 133) and include diaries, personal letters, and autobiographies. They can provide data in relation to a person’s attitudes, beliefs, and perspectives (Merriam, 1998). In this sub-section, I outline how diaries have been used in second language research.

Diary studies emerged in the late 1970s. Bailey (1990) defines a diary study as “a first-person account of a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal and then analyzed for recurring patterns or salient events” (p. 215).

According to McDonough and McDonough (1997), there are two different uses of diaries, “pedagogic diaries” and “expert diaries” (p. 127). Pedagogic diaries are written by L2 learners who are asked to keep a journal about their language learning. Expert diaries refer to “language learning diaries kept by language specialists who may be teachers, applied linguists, or second language acquisition
researchers, and all of whom are used to dealing with language as a central part of their professional lives” (p. 129). Most diary studies in second language learning have been undertaken by language specialists documenting their own language learning experiences (Nunan, 1992). Such diary studies provide valuable insight into the affective factors of language learning, language learning processes, and strategies. For example, Bailey (1983) kept a journal of her French learning experiences, and discovered that competitiveness and anxiety had a significant influence on her learning process. Other frequently cited studies are Schumann and Schumann’s (1977) study on their learning of Farsi and Arabic, and Schimdt and Frota’s (1986) study on Schmidt’s learning of Portuguese that provided the theoretical insight behind the “notice the gap” principle.

Bailey (1991) discusses the strengths and weaknesses of diary studies as a method in language learning research. The strengths are that diary studies can reveal factors (e.g., anxiety [Bailey, 1983]) that influence language learning from the L2 learner’s perspective, rather than the researcher’s. In addition, keeping a diary is more flexible, in terms of the data collection process, than interviews and observations, which need to be scheduled to suit multiple individuals’ time constraints.

The weaknesses of diary studies are that the findings cannot be extrapolated to a wider population because the number of subjects is too small, and the diary data are self-evidently subjective. Another problem is the extent to which non-expert L2 learners can write about their own learning processes, as they may not have the means for describing linguistic processes or for interpreting them reliably. As noted above, most published diary studies have been undertaken by experts and may not be representative of typical language learners. Lastly, keeping a diary is time-consuming and requires a commitment on the part of the subject, despite its flexibility.

These issues concern the concepts of generalisability, reliability and validity, which are important concepts for the adequacy of quantitative research. However, some qualitative researchers argue that subjectivity is of central importance in social and human research (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and that generalisability is not the purpose or the point of diary studies (van Lier, 1988). The issue of establishing the trustworthiness of qualitative research has been discussed earlier in this chapter (see section 3.2).
In this study, I attempted to use journals as 'pedagogic diaries' so that I could get "under the skin" of the psychological, social, and affective factors in teaching or in language development in ways that cannot readily be reached by staff meetings or tests or population sampling or experiments" (McDonough & McDonough, 1997, p. 135). To address the concern that non-expert language learners may not have the means to describe their learning process, as mentioned above, learners are often given some guidelines as to what to write about prior to journal writing (McDonough & McDonough, 1997). Accordingly, the participants of this study were provided with information guidelines based on the work of Krishnan and Lee (2002) and Mlynarczyk (1998) at the beginning of the study. The following points were included in a handout, and I went over each point with the participants at the outset of the project:

- What is a journal?
- Why should I keep a journal?
- What should I write in my journal?
- A special note on how participants need not worry about grammatical accuracy.

I initially hoped to get the participants to write a journal entry every time they finished a book, keeping a record of their experiences in extensive reading and their thoughts/feelings about these experiences. At the very least, I wanted them to make entries every two to three weeks. For the first few weeks, some students made voluntary entries every time they finished a book, but they gradually discontinued doing so. The rest of the students made no voluntary entries. It appeared that one of the weaknesses Bailey (1991) describes, difficulty in committing time to a diary, applied to the participants in this study. Later, I discovered that they did not perceive journal writing as a worthwhile thing to do (see section 4.1). Even when I set a due date, some students kept forgetting to write, and it became almost impossible to collect journals frequently. Therefore, as mentioned earlier, I abandoned my plan to use the journals as the primary data source and used the interviews instead. However, I was able to gather two entries from the participants between interviews, and this provided additional data to understand the participants' thoughts and feelings about extensive reading experiences.
3.4.3 Verbal reports

This study considers how extensive reading contributes (or does not contribute) to the learning of Japanese by exploring the students' perceptions. In this study, think-alouds (a type of verbal report) were conducted in order to see if the participant's comments related to reading process/strategy use made in interviews could be observed in think-alouds as well.

Despite the criticisms of them, verbal reports are one of the few available means to examine thought processes (Mackey & Gass, 2005). There are two types of verbal report. In a concurrent report or think-aloud, individuals verbalise what is going through their mind while they are performing a task, for example, reading a text or writing an essay. The other type is a retrospective report in which individuals verbalise their thought processes immediately after they have performed a task. Think-aloud data are expected to reflect mental processes more accurately than retrospective reports because of the smaller gap between the mental event and the reporting of that event (Cohen, 1998). For this reason, the present study employed think-aloud techniques.

Think-alouds were conducted individually twice during the project. The first session was held at the beginning of the project. Reading passages were selected from a Japanese graded reader series and Japanese textbooks for beginners. For year 12 (Alan, Ben, Drew) and year 13 students (Emma, Jane, Josie, Tracey), the length of the passage was about two A4 pages (1.5 line spacing). For year 11 students (Jack, Nick), a passage of about two thirds of an A4 page was selected. The level of each passage was intended to be slightly above the participants’ proficiency level, because think-alouds are most informative about the reading process when readers have problems understanding what they are reading (Block, 1986, p. 464). Red dots were placed after every sentence to slow down reading, so that thoughts in the reader’s mind at that moment could be verbalized before proceeding to the next sentence (Ericsson & Simon, 1983, p. xxxvii). Despite my efforts to choose appropriate texts, it turned out that the passage was too easy for Jane and Josie and too challenging for Jack and Nick.

The participants read a short passage for practice until they felt comfortable with the procedure. They were instructed not to plan out what to say or explain what
they were doing, and that it was important that they act as if they were alone in the room speaking to themselves (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). Therefore, I sat out of the students’ sight. However, I asked them to talk if they were silent for approximately ten seconds. In my field notes I recorded signals (e.g., physical movements, and behaviours associating with the task) while watching them think aloud (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). Because a criticism of verbal reports is its unnatural and obtrusive nature, in order to make the situation as close as possible to the normal condition, the students were given the freedom to use their L1 and/or L2 when they reported. All participants used their L1 (English). Immediately after the think-aloud, the students were asked to read the same passage once again, and write down in their L1 everything they could remember about the story. The free recall method was used to ascertain the level of the students’ comprehension.

Some participants indicated that they found it difficult to do the think-aloud. Some participants said that they felt "weird" and that it was "hard" to think aloud as they read and that they could not think of things to say at the practice. They said that they did not usually think about what they were doing while reading. For those participants, I modelled a think-aloud as I read the practice passage. The rest of the participants did not seem to have a problem with the procedure. Once they felt comfortable with the procedure they did the actual think-aloud. However, those who had found it difficult to think aloud at practice still felt the same in the real session, and I had to remind them to keep talking from time to time.

The second think-aloud sessions were held at the end of term two. Again, the level of the passage was intended to be slightly challenging. I adapted passages from past NCEA exams and Japanese intermediate textbooks and adapted them for each participant. The length of the passages ranged from three quarters of an A4 page (Nick) to two A4 pages (Emma, Jane, Josie). I gave them the same instructions, but they did not practise, as they said they knew what to do when I asked if they needed to practise. After the think-aloud, they did a free recall of the passage.

Participants who extended the project in term three (Jack, Jane, Josie, Nick) did their third think-aloud at the end of the term. This time I had them read a graded reader. I realised that if I wanted to compare their comments in the interviews with the think-alouds, it would be better that the participants read a graded reader as they would usually do. Therefore, Nick read a level zero book, Jack read a level one book,
Josie read one section of a level three book, and Jane read one section of a level four book. (At the time of the third think-aloud session, the students were reading at those levels.) Jack and Josie used a word list as they read, because that was what they did when they read usually. Nick used a word list when he read a level one book, but he said he did not need it in level zero. Jane had always read without a word list.

The amount and quality of verbalisations showed a great deal of individual variation. Some students did not have much to say, and therefore their data did not yield rich verbalisations. Also, some students took time to verbalise their thoughts, so that it took longer to finish. On the other hand, some students were able to provide rich verbalisations. All the think-aloud sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

### 3.4.4 Questionnaire

Another method of data collection used in this study was a questionnaire. The purpose of using a questionnaire was to see change in the participants' attitudes to L2 reading/learning and L2 reading/learning motivation during the extensive reading project. When the analysis of the interview and journal data indicated change in the participants’ motivation to do extensive reading and/or motivation to learn Japanese, I examined the questionnaire data to see if it supported the change.

According to Brown (2001), questionnaires are “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers” (p. 6). Questionnaires are a type of survey method that L2 motivation research has relied heavily upon (Dörnyei, 2001). Because constructs such as learners’ attitudes and motivation or their reactions to classroom instruction and activities are not directly observable or not available from production data alone, researchers have no better way of measuring these unobservable constructs than gathering information that learners are able to report (Dörnyei, 2001; Mackey & Gass, 2005).

There are two questionnaire item types. Close-ended items are those where the researcher predetermines the possible answers, while open-ended items allow respondents to respond freely. Among closed question types in questionnaires, Likert scales and semantic differential scales have become popular in second language research. This study employed a five-point Likert-scale questionnaire that contained a
series of close-ended statements. The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements by marking one of the responses (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree). Each response option was given a number (e.g., ‘strongly agree’ = 5, ‘strongly disagree’ = 1) after the respondents filled out the questionnaire, so that responses could be quantified and analyzed. Questionnaires have the advantage of eliciting comparable information from a number of respondents. For this study though, as stated above, the major purpose of the questionnaire was to triangulate interview and journal data in order to build a fuller picture of the case.

Potential problems with self-report questionnaires are related to validity. People do not always answer truthfully. Because questionnaire statements are often “transparent” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 207) it is easy for the respondents to infer desirable/acceptable/expected answers, and therefore some people may choose this answer even if it is not true. Some people may be hesitant to choose any negative response about a person or topic that they like in general, or may want to look unrealistically good. There are many extraneous influences that can bring about “unnatural” responses, for example, instructions to the participants and prior information about the research (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 207).

I developed the five-point Likert-scale questionnaire for this study, based on questionnaires used in two studies on L2 reading motivation (S. Mori, 2004; Takase, 2007) and the Guilloteaux and Dörnyei study (2008) that investigated the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation (see Appendix C). Part I consisted of 19 statements related to motivation and attitudes to reading in Japanese, Part II consisted of 18 statements related to general motivation and attitudes to learning Japanese, and Part III consisted of 20 statements related to attitudes to the Japanese class, linguistic self-confidence and L2 classroom anxiety. The wording of some items was altered to better suit the context of the present study, and some items were removed as they seemed irrelevant to the context.

The questionnaire was pilot tested with a year 10 student who was taking a foreign language in secondary school. She was asked to indicate any confusing items, and I timed how long it took to complete the questionnaire. The wording of one item was altered based on her feedback. Each participant filled out the questionnaire just after the interview. The questionnaire was administered three times over two terms:
early in term one, at the end of term one or at the beginning of term two, and at the beginning of term three.

3.4.5 Observations

Observations are a major source of data in qualitative case studies, and are usually combined with other data collection methods such as interviews and documents (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003). In this study, I observed the participants’ class three times during the project. There were two reasons for the observations. First, the observations helped me understand the context in which the participants learned Japanese. Although extensive reading occurred outside class, the learning environment (the teacher, course, peers) needed to be taken into account when interpreting the participants’ experiences with extensive reading. Second, the observations allowed me to see the situation under study “firsthand”, and the observational data was used to assess the participants’ self-reports about the Japanese class, the teachers and their behaviours, thereby contributing to triangulation (see sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.3). As a result, observation, along with other methods, “allows for a holistic interpretation of the phenomenon being investigated” (Merriam, 1998, p. 111).

One factor influencing what to observe is the researcher’s impressions (Merriam, 1998). My early impressions after I had the first interview with some of the participants were that they perceived their classroom learning experiences positively, partly because of the way the teacher taught them. These impressions led me to speculate that the teachers used motivational strategies.

Thus, prior to the first classroom observation, I had planned to look at the teacher’s use of motivational strategies, and the students’ level of motivated behaviour (attention, participation, and volunteering for teacher-fronted activity), using the MOLT (Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching) classroom observation scheme developed by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008). It was anticipated that the use of the MOLT scheme would allow me to focus on the teacher’s motivational practice in a more reliable manner (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 199), and that the level of objectivity of the researcher would be maintained, although my assumption that the teachers used motivational strategies may have had an impact on my observations. In addition, I had planned to record relevant classroom events every
minute in an ongoing manner (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 62), and to write “observer comments” which include thoughts/reactions about what was going on in class (Merriam, 1998, p. 98).

However, after I observed each class for the first time, I realised that MOLT might not be as helpful as I had anticipated, mainly because the teachers seemed to barely use the strategies on the MOLT. Therefore, from the second observations, I focused on keeping a detailed record of tasks and activities the students did, their motivational behaviour (engagement and attention) and anything that seemed relevant. I wrote comments as I observed and immediately after each observation as well. In addition, I consulted with the teacher after the observation “to get a better sense of how typical or representative the observed behaviours and activities were” (Duff, 2008, p. 139).

The major concern of classroom observations is that my presence might have affected what was observed. Although I did not participate in class and was there only to observe, my mere presence may have altered the activities and behaviour of students in class in some way. This seemed to occur in the year 12 class at Boys' High School. It was not the participants though; it was the international students' behaviours that might have been influenced by my presence. One student in particular misbehaved badly and disrupted the class on that day. The teacher said that they were not usually as bad. Therefore, I did an extra observation for this class, and as the teacher said, the international students did not disrupt class then. Apart from this observation, my presence did not seem to have a great impact on the participants’ behaviour, which may be because the participants had become accustomed to me after six weeks of fieldwork. To summarise, in this study I observed each class three times (four times for the year 12 class), and the data provided useful information to understand the context and to assess comments that the participants made about the Japanese class, the teacher and what happened in class.

3.5 Data analysis

3.5.1 Data management

A large amount of data was collected in seven months. Data collected by qualitative methods takes the form of written words such as interview transcripts, verbal reports transcriptions, student journals, and observation field notes. It is
important that researchers have a system of physically sorting the material into piles, folders, and computer files so that they can easily locate data they want (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007, p. 184). The following outlines how I physically managed a large amount of data.

Computer files were created to store interview and verbal report transcriptions. Two folders (interviews and verbal reports) were prepared. Within the interviews folder, four sub-folders were created for interviews one, two, three, and four, and within the verbal reports folder, three folders were created for verbal reports one, two and three. All the transcriptions were saved in the appropriate folder. At the same time, they were printed out, each clearly noting type of data, student name (pseudonym), the site, date, and term week (e.g., Interview one, Alan at Boys' High, 6/2/09, term 1 week 2) in the header. The printouts of interview transcriptions were stored in a paper folder prepared for each participant for analysis. Reading record sheets were photocopied and put into each participant's paper folder. For the journals, I also photocopied the students’ entries and put them into the folder made for each student. Printouts of the verbal report transcriptions were kept together in a separate folder, as were all questionnaires filled in by the nine participants and the observation field notes. In short, in each participant's folder, there were his or her interview transcriptions, reading record sheets and journal entries. Verbal report transcriptions, questionnaires and observation field notes were kept in separate folders.

3.5.2 Transcriptions

As mentioned above, recordings of all interviews and verbal reports were transcribed verbatim in a Word document. Transcribing, in other words, transforming the recordings to a textual form is the first step in data analysis (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246). There are two practical questions that a qualitative researcher must deal with (Dörnyei, 2007). One of them is whether transcription should be done by the researcher or someone else. I had no choice but to do it myself. The other question is which transcription conventions to use. Dörnyei (2007) maintains that we should use or develop "a transcription system that can best represent the interactions" (p. 248). Therefore, I developed a list of conventions from Schiffrin (1994) and Wray, Trott, and Bloomer (1998) for my transcriptions (see Appendix G). For the verbal reports, I added the duration of pauses to the transcriptions.
Transcribing the recordings was time-consuming work. I transcribed thirty-one interviews and twenty-two verbal reports in total. Although I used software called ExpressScribe, which had speed controls to help me, it took at least five hours to transcribe each interview. Because English is my second language, I occasionally could not understand an utterance (a single word to a few words) no matter how many times I tried. When that happened, I had a native speaker assist me. Another drawback of having to do a vast amount of transcribing was that I could not show the transcriptions to the participants so that they could check for any discrepancies, as I could not finish transcribing in a timely manner. However, as mentioned earlier, I listened to the recording before the next interview and clarified anything that I was unsure about.

3.5.3 Analysing verbal reports

Verbal report data in this study were used to check if what the participants reported in interviews regarding their reading behaviour was supported by what they actually did in think-aloud. For example, a participant commented that he could recognise word boundaries better since starting extensive reading. I examined his think-aloud transcripts, counted the frequency of word boundary recognition errors in each transcript, and compared the frequency of the errors. It was found that the think-aloud data supported the participant's comment. However, the verbal report data did not always accord with the interview data. To illustrate, the think-aloud data of Josie, who reported translating to her L1 less in the interview, did not show an observable change that translation to her L1 occurred less frequently (see section 4.3).

Although the findings from the verbal reports were not presented fully in this study, but rather used to triangulate other data, the data were analysed using deductive coding. In qualitative research, there are two orientations to analysis, namely deductive and inductive orientations. In this study deductive coding was carried out to analyse the data collected from the verbal reports, since its purpose was triangulation. A deductive approach to coding differs from inductive coding in that a set of codes is predetermined before data analysis (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). McKay (2006) indicates the difficulty in creating a unique coding system for a verbal report, and suggests reviewing the existing coding systems, so that researchers can find a suitable
system for their data. She also suggests that researchers combine several coding systems to fit their own data (2006, p. 63).

For this study, I used the combined coding system of Block (1986) and Everson and Kuriya (1998) as a ‘start list’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994), and then modified it to suit my particular data. The reason for using the two coding systems was that Block (1986) is probably the most often cited study on L2 reading strategies and that Everson and Kuriya (1998) incorporate strategies that are unique to JFL learners (kanji-related strategies) into their coding system. Accordingly, each participant’s verbal report was coded. While coding some students’ transcripts, I found that they often engaged in translating into English. Thus a code 'translating' was added to the list. When I finished coding a transcript, I recorded the frequency of each code and made notes on patterns of how the participant appeared to have read the text based on the analysis. Each participant's verbal reports from the first and second think-alouds (and the third think-aloud for four of the students) were then compared and I made notes on differences between the two (or three). For example, through comparison of two verbal reports, I found that a participant sounded a word out less frequently in the second think-aloud, which could mean that his word recognition had improved. As stated earlier, however, an analysis of the findings from the verbal reports is not included in this study, since this was not my focus. I used the verbal reports only for triangulation - to show whether the think-aloud data supported the interview (self-reported) data (see above).

### 3.5.4 Analysing interview transcripts and journal entries

Inductive coding was used to analyse the interview and journal data. Coding is a technique used to reduce a vast amount of data into manageable units for further analysis (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 253). In inductive coding, the coding system is developed after close examination of data has begun. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) simplify the sequence of inductive coding into four stages: “coding for themes—looking for patterns—making interpretations—building theory” (p. 259). This procedure is fundamentally in line with ‘grounded theory’, which is commonly used in qualitative research. The analysis sequence for this study followed Ellis and Barkhuizen's (2005) procedures.
First, decisions about the basic units (e.g., single words, formulaic expressions, short phrases, or complete sentences) need to be made. The unit may represent a behaviour, an event, a thought, an opinion, a feeling or an attitude (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 265). Once what is going to be coded is determined, the actual coding begins. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), “codes are names or tags assigned to concepts that represent at a more abstract level the experiences, ideas, attitudes or feelings identified in the data” (p. 266). Therefore, we have to identify concepts or themes first.

As Huberman and Miles (1998) point out, analysis actually begins prior to collecting the data. Thus, when identifying concepts in inductive coding, the research questions can be used to guide the process of identifying concepts (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), as they did in the present study. Identifying concepts involves very careful reading and re-reading of the texts, “microanalysis” in Strauss and Corbin’s (1998) terms, or a detailed type of open coding. Open coding is the first level of conceptual analysis of the data in grounded theory. Textual data are broken into segments (e.g., a long phrase, a sentence), and each segment is given a code that is abstract and conceptual rather than descriptive (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 260). Microanalysis of open codes enables the researcher "to break into the data" and "to make some sense out of the materials" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 59).

After the concepts are identified, codes are assigned to each of them. The codes should be “short, simple and easy to remember” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 267), and be semantically close to the themes that they represent (Dörnyei, 2007; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Thus, a list of codes is developed during microanalysis. While new data is analysed and previously analysed data is revisited, new themes are discovered and old themes are redefined. The labels of the codes are then revised.

The next stage after coding is forming categories. This stage involves examination of the codes to identify the relationships between them and to group sets of codes. A category can be defined as “a higher-level abstract explanatory concept” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 267). Categorising reduces the data to a more manageable level, and enables the researcher to identify patterns within and between different categories (Miles & Hubermans, 1994). This stage is similar to 'axial coding' in grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), although axial coding focuses on re-merging concepts that may have been split. (See below for how features of the
participants’ discourse impacted coding procedures.) Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005, pp. 268-269) suggest five ways to discover patterns: (a) the frequency with which themes occur, (b) the patterns signalled by the participants, (c) similar themes, (d) using the experience of the researcher with the situation under investigation, and (e) consulting the literature and themes related to the study for relevant ideas and expectations for patterns.

I now describe how the interview transcriptions and journal entries were analysed in the present study. Before I engaged in the coding, I examined the transcriptions and journal entries carefully and tried to determine the basic units. The idea units analysed in this study ranged from single words to chunks of discourse. I was faced with the problem of the different lengths of the participants’ utterances. Some participants' responses included a lot of elaboration. Therefore, the idea units were longer, e.g., complete sentences and/or chunks of discourse. On the other hand, some participants did not seem eager to speak about their thoughts and experiences in detail. In such cases, as stated earlier, I had to probe with closed questions, which made their responses short because they said only “yes” or “no”. Consequently, the idea units were shorter (i.e., single words and short sentences) and were co-constructed through my probing. Also, it was difficult to distinguish unit boundaries, because the participants frequently used words such as like, kind of, sort of and you know between content words, and often started a new sentence before completing the previous sentence. These features of the participants’ spoken discourse meant it was inevitable that the idea units would have to be broad enough to include associations made by the participants. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) include this in their list of ways to discover patterns, described above.

Next, I read each transcription, carefully looking for concepts related to the research questions: JFL learners’ perceptions of extensive reading and their motivation to do extensive reading and its influences. To illustrate, as I read Josie's interview transcript, I identified utterances such as "...I can think in Japanese more..." and "...it was good to get progression..." as relevant to the research questions, and highlighted or underlined them. Once I had highlighted or underlined all concepts in a transcript, I assigned a code to each concept in the margin. For example, I assigned the code 'think more in L2' to the first concept above and 'satisfaction' to the other one. I repeated this procedure as I coded all interview
transcriptions and journal entries in chronological order. It should be noted that the initial coding was iterative. In other words, when I coded a new transcript, I returned to check codes in previous transcriptions to see if the concept in the new transcript looked similar. I then used the same code. I also returned to previous transcriptions to revise codes when the concept in the new transcription made me realise the previous code was not quite appropriate.

After I finished all the coding, another person coded one of the transcripts using a list of codes that I provided. Then we went through the transcript together and compared each other's coding. All discrepancies were discussed and resolved. Some of the codes that were not transparent enough were changed and some new codes were added. For instance, the code 'reading material' was changed to 'likes Japan topics in ER' when the participant said "...Japanese ones (stories) are quite cool...", which is more specific. After that, I revised the other transcripts according to the revised codes.

Following this, I created a list of codes for each participant across transcriptions, because the participants had three or four transcriptions each (6-16 pages for each transcription). The list enabled me to develop a clearer picture of the codes that applied to each participant, and helped me to see relationships between codes. Then, I came up with categories, for example, 'perceived linguistic benefits' and 'perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation'. These categories were written on a large piece of paper (A3x3), and under each category, I entered relevant codes with the student's name and the data source (e.g., interview 1). This enabled me to see who had codes under a particular category and consequently helped me determine which themes were significant and how those themes fit together.

It was at times difficult to think of categories. For example, I had to think really hard when deciding whether to create two categories, namely the participants' perceived linguistic benefits and improvements. This was because it was not clear if a participant actually perceived linguistic gains or if he or she merely perceived the potential benefit. In the end I created two categories, as will be shown in Chapter Four.

Eventually, I started writing the findings based on this analysis. As I wrote a few categories, it was suggested that some of my categorisations were not appropriate and that some codes would be better elsewhere. For example, I created a category
called 'likes about extensive reading', but it was discarded, as codes belonging to this category actually referred to concepts related to several different themes (e.g., perceived benefits, perceptions of reading materials, and perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation). Therefore, those codes were moved to the respective categories. As can be seen, the analysis of interview and journal data was a time-consuming and iterative process. However, it helped me develop a clear picture of the participants' perceptions and their motivation to do extensive reading.

Finally, I attempted to draw conclusions from the themes which emerged from the data, and to develop a model showing how motivation to read extensively in L2 changes (see Chapter Five). This is in line with the final stage, where researchers not only present a list of themes, but also describe and explain the data in order to answer the research questions and draw a set of conclusions (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

3.6 Summary

In this chapter, I discussed the rationale for qualitative research and case study research to be used in this study. The case that this study concentrated on was JFL learners in New Zealand secondary schools. The trustworthiness of this study was discussed in terms of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. In addition, I commented on my positions and biases that may have influenced my interpretation and conclusions of the findings.

Next, the research questions were presented, followed by the description of the research setting. With regard to the participants, descriptions of recruitment procedures and the profiles of the nine students were presented. After that, I outlined the extensive reading project and reading materials selected for this study. In addition, I have explained how the rights of the participants were protected in this study.

Following this, I discussed the data collection methods of interviews, journals, verbal reports, questionnaire, and observations, and outlined how each of the methods was used in the study. Then I outlined how data were managed to facilitate efficient data analysis. The transcription of recordings was discussed, including transcribing conventions and the difficulties that I faced. Finally, the procedures for analysing the verbal reports and interviews/journals data were presented. The verbal report transcriptions were analysed deductively and the interview transcriptions/journal entries were analysed inductively.
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the analysis of the data is presented, based on codes that emerged from my analysis of the data from interview and journal entries, and corroborated by data collected from the students' reading record sheets, think-alouds, motivational questionnaires, and classroom observations.

I chose to analyse the data inductively and to organise them thematically, because I wanted to discover perceptions, motivational change and its influences among the participants as well as each in each individual. Organising the data thematically enables me to carefully build up the theory that emerges from the data, and it contributes to identifying salient perceptions among the participants. In addition, thematic analysis makes the links between the data and my inferences transparent, thus contributing to the dependability and credibility of the study. I will therefore organise my presentation of the data through the coding process I used. This means that sections will use the names of categories as titles, and subsections will use the names of sub-categories (where used) or codes as titles. The analysis presented in this chapter is aimed mostly at research question one, the participants' perceptions of extensive reading. However, thematic analysis does not highlight the dynamicity of extensive reading motivation in each individual. Thus, in Chapter Five, case studies are presented to show the dynamic motivation to read extensively, aimed chiefly at research questions two and three. Although case studies enable us to understand the individual's perceptions, motivational change and its influences in depth, they do not contribute to the discovery of the theory and the important issues among all the participants, as mentioned above. By doing both types of analysis, I can present a more complete picture of the phenomena under study.

In order to develop the themes for this analysis, codes representing similar themes were grouped together as a category. Some themes were grouped under more than one category. For example, the majority of the participants perceived that they liked the reading materials (graded readers) because they were interesting, and some participants made links that such interesting books contributed to them continuing
extensive reading. Accordingly, the code *interesting books* was categorised under *perceptions of reading materials* and *perceived positive influences*.

The categories are presented in the following order:

1. Evaluation of the extensive reading project
2. Perceived benefits of extensive reading
3. Perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading
4. Perceptions of reading materials
5. Reading purposes
6. Affect
7. Change in motivational intensity and enjoyment of extensive reading
8. Perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation
9. Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation

Any research, whether it is quantitative or qualitative, involves the researcher's interpretation when data is analysed, and the degree of interpretation varies from low to high. In this chapter the categories (1) to (3) and (4) to (9) differ in terms of the amount and the extent of interpretation being made. In the categories (1) to (3), each code is presented with the relevant quotes showing the concept, and contains little or no interpretation. That is, it is based on participant language, with a low degree of inference. On the other hand, from categories (4) to (9), the categories link codes (for the most part) and therefore contain more interpretation, that is, a greater degree of inference.

At the beginning of each category, the definition is explained, and quotes from the interviews and journal entries are provided to make the coding process transparent. The source of the quote will be shown in the order of the participant's name, the interview number (one to four) and the line number, using abbreviations. Similarly, journal entries will be presented in the order of the participant's name, journal, and the date of the entry. For instance, Nick.int2.241 means that the quote is from line 241 of Nick's second interview transcript. Jane.jrnl.15/3/09 means the quote is from Jane's journal written on 15 March 2009.
4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project

This category subsumes codes that are related to the participants’ evaluation of the extensive reading project. The codes in this category are:

- Positive feelings about extensive reading
- Recommend extensive reading
- Reading not homework
- Like autonomy of choices about books and pace
- Competition
- Word list useful
- Writing responses not worthwhile
- Like levels of graded readers
- Children’s books harder due to the language and vocabulary
- Children’s books are repetitive
- Japanese comics are more interesting

*Positive feelings about extensive reading*. I asked how much the participants enjoyed extensive reading in the interviews and in the journals, and most responses were positive. For example, “I enjoy it a lot” (Emma.jrnl.16/3/09; Josie.int3.4), “I really enjoy it” (Tracey.int2.52), “I enjoy extensive reading” (Drew.jrnl.March/09; Jack.jrnl.17/3/09), “I like it a lot” (Jane.int2.34; Josie.int2.14; Tracey.int3.2), and “I really like it” (Jack.int2.12). These positive perceptions of extensive reading meant that no one reported regretting their participation in the project. However, when each student was individually examined, some students seemed to experience changes in their enjoyment over time within the positive range. The ups and downs of enjoyment will be discussed in 4.7 Change in motivational intensity / enjoyment of extensive reading.

*Recommend extensive reading*. Eight of the nine participants were asked whether they would recommend extensive reading to other JFL learners. All participants except Jane and Ben said they would. For example, Jack commented that "if they wanted to get better at it [Japanese], it [extensive reading] definitely helps" (Jack.int3.124). Josie thought that "they have to start reading earlier so that they can really get into a habit of doing it" (Josie.int3.195).
Jane was not asked the question, but she mentioned numerous language benefits (e.g., kanji, words, cool stories) when I asked what she would tell other JFL learners about extensive reading, making it reasonable to assume that she would recommend extensive reading.

Ben was the only participant who said he would not recommend extensive reading. When asked why he would not recommend extensive reading to others, he said:

I never give people advice. (Ben.int3.140)

Thus, it was not because he had negative attitudes to extensive reading, but was more to do with his personal traits. Nick's comment, although positive, implies he has similar traits:

… just sort of recommend it, but just some passing comment usually. I'm not gonna sit and give them a whole lecture on why they should do it and what the reasons are. (Nick.int3.251)

The two preceding codes have shown the homogeneous perceptions of the extensive reading project. Overall, the participants' experiences with extensive reading were positive.

The next two codes will show how differently the participants perceived the voluntary nature of the extensive reading project, but how similarly they viewed their autonomy during the project.

Reading not homework. Students were divided about extensive reading being voluntary. This code first emerged in my analysis of Josie's journal entry, which says "I like that we can just read when we have time so there's no pressure" (Josie.jrnl.14/2/09). She also commented in the second interview as follows:

… it doesn’t feel like it’s your homework…it’s not like something you have been told to do and you have to do it. It’s something you can do outside of it... (Josie.int2.14)

Josie liked the fact that extensive reading was not compulsory like homework enough to mention it three times, just after she began extensive reading (Josie.jrnl.14/2/09), ten weeks later (Josie.int2), and twenty-one weeks later (Josie.int3). None of the
comments were prompted, suggesting the strength of the feeling that led her to volunteer the information.

Tracey's comment suggests that she also viewed the voluntary nature of the extensive reading project positively. In the third interview, Tracey said:

I think homework is sort of … it's just sort of, kind of forced, if you know what I mean. And then, like, just to do, like, reading, that's good cause it just, yeah, kind of relaxes you too a little bit, like, at the end of homework. (Tracey.int3.207)

Two of the male students had similar views. Jack described the way the extensive reading project was carried out as "relaxing" (Jack.int3.148). Alan indicated that he preferred that extensive reading took place separately from schoolwork. When he was asked why, he said:

Then you don't associate it with schoolwork. That's different. So maybe, yeah, you don't bring the same attitude toward it. (Alan.int3.197)

His comment appears to imply the same notion as Josie and Tracey's comments, that schoolwork was serious and something that had to be done, so he wanted extensive reading to be kept separate, so that he could enjoy it. Jane also expressed her negative feelings about schoolwork, saying "I really hate being forced to do something" and "I wouldn't like it" (Jane.int3.163) if extensive reading was compulsory.

However, three students, Drew, Emma and Nick, reported preferring that extensive reading be assigned as homework. In the third interview, Drew said that he would have read more if he had had to do it (Drew.int3.98). Nick elaborated this view:

… if you've got distractions, something, like - if you've got to do something for you to get back on track… then I'd do it. (Nick.int3.177)

Because they struggled to find the time to read outside class, they perceived compulsory reading favourably because it guaranteed that they would read. In short, the non-obligatory nature of the extensive reading project was perceived differently by different participants.
Likes autonomy of choices about books and pace. Because the extensive reading in the project was not compulsory, the participants had to take responsibility for their own reading. This was perceived positively, as these examples from Jack and Josie’s data illustrate. Josie said:

I like choosing, sort of, your own [books] and how fast you read and stuff. (Josie.int3.152)

Jack's comment indicates a similar view:

I think the way it is now is pretty good cause you go at your own pace and everything … (Jack.int3.130)

Even the participants who preferred extensive reading to be homework indicated that they liked being allowed to choose what they read.

Word list helpful. I had made a word list and attached it to each of the graded readers for the participants to use if they wanted to. The participants' comments suggest that they used the word list to assist their comprehension when they were reading a challenging book that contained a fair amount of unknown words, but not when the book was easy. To illustrate, five students (Alan, Drew, Emma, Josie and Tracey) did not mention the use of a word list in the second interview, suggesting that they managed reading without the word list during term one, when Alan, Emma and Tracey had read level one graded readers (the lowest level) and Josie had read level one and two graded readers. Sometimes some participants appeared to cope with unknown words by inferring meanings from context or using the pictures. In the third interview, when asked what she did when she came across a word she did not know, Emma said:

I usually just, like, remember that and try to guess. Like, carrying on reading. But most of the time that was ok. (Emma.int3.80)

But when I asked if she used a word list when she had advanced to level two books, she said:

Um, with the list it was good… I had it out while I read. (Emma.int3.84-86)
Similarly, Alan, Josie and Tracey reported using the word list when they advanced to a higher level.

Reading was challenging for Nick, even though he started from the lowest level books available, so he relied on the word list. To illustrate, in the third interview he said:

Oh, the word list, I end up using that a bit more now… I always go to a word list, if I don't know the word. (Nick.int3.119-121)

However, when I eventually obtained newly published level zero graded readers and he read them between the third interview and the fourth interview, he said:

Oh, they are pretty good. They are more suited for year 11 vocabulary. (Nick.int.4.46)

Nick did not appear to need the word lists when he was familiar with most of the words in the book, because he could follow the story without it.

Jack's comment indicates that he consulted the word list immediately, without attempting to guess any meanings, whereas others (Alan, Ben, Josie) tried to guess first. In the third interview, Jack and I had the following exchange regarding the use of a word list:

R: every word you don't know, do you look it up?
J: pretty much look it up. Sometimes I try and guess it on the context, but usually I look it up first. (Jack.int3.84)

In the fourth interview, Jack clarified that he did try to think of the meaning of a word that he knew he had learned before, and that he tried to work out the meaning from the picture if the word was not in the list (Jack.int4.81). Data from Jack's think-aloud accords with his comment, in that guessing occurred less frequently when he had a word list (in the third session) than when he had no list (in the first and second think-alouds).

Writing responses not worthwhile. At the outset of the extensive reading project, it was suggested that the participants wrote personal responses to the books. Five participants wrote responses in the early stages of the project, but discontinued
writing after a while. Four participants did not write personal responses at all. Therefore, I wanted to find out why that might be.

When asked, Alan admitted that he had forgotten about the suggestion (Alan.int3.227). Nick thought it was "pointless" because "[he had] already read the book and [knew] what it [was] about in [his] head" (Nick.int3.193). Jack and Jane reported that there was not much to say about the books (Jack.int3.150; Jane.int3.193). Josie's comment in response to the question about why she thought none of the participants, including herself, wrote many personal responses suggests that the participants thought reading was more fun than writing, and therefore with limited time they probably preferred reading to writing about what they had read. Also, Josie pointed out that writing in the L1 would not be as helpful for improving her Japanese (Josie.int3.164). Thus, the participants perceived that writing personal responses was not worthwhile.

*Competition would work for some students.* In the extensive reading project, the number of books that the participants read was kept unpublished. They could have talked about how much they had read, but no one seemed to care too much about how the others were doing with extensive reading. I became curious about whether creating competition among them would affect their motivation to do more extensive reading.

Jane and Josie thought that publicising the amount of reading would have motivated them to read more. Jane said that it would be "embarrassing" (Jane.int4.138) not to read many books and Josie said that she was "a competitive person" (Josie.int4.178). Nick commented that it would work if "there [was] a real reward" (Nick.int4.186). Jack did not seem to think it would have much impact, saying "it doesn't really matter too much. It's just a way of telling whether I should be reading more or reading too much" (Jack.int4.157). He would try to read more, if he fell behind the others. Jack and Josie pointed out that competition would not work for people who were not confident in their reading ability. It may be that competition encourages individuals to various degrees for different reasons.

*Like levels of graded readers.* This code and the next two codes denote idea units related to the participants' evaluation of the reading materials. Jane said that she liked the graded readers, saying "you can choose your level easily" (Jane.int3.117). Jack also commented that "the levels [were] very well organised" (Jack.int4.94). Most
participants reported that they were satisfied with their reading level at the time of the interviews. Emma thought the level one books were "not challenging, just good" (Emma.int2.60). Drew said that the level one books were a "good level with some words [he] needed to learn" (Drew.jrn1.march/09) and "not too hard, but not really simple to read" (Drew.int3.72). Jack's comment below demonstrates this satisfaction best:

   Most of them are actually the perfect level, where I understand most of it, just need to look up some things … (Jack.int3.94)

Five participants (Alan, Emma, Jane, Josie, Tracey) advanced to a higher level during the project period. Most of them seemed to cope with the higher level books, as in Tracey’s comment about the level two books:

   They are a step up, but they're good. (Tracey.int2.144)

The students might have found a new level harder than a previous level, when they had just started a new level. Perhaps Josie summarises this best:

   I think it was hard when I tried it [a level two book] the first time… but then I've been studying… vocab and stuff in class and then I started reading some more level two books, and they are not, like, really easy, like the end of level ones were easy to read … but I can read them and understand them, so yeah. But when I first read them, it was kind of too hard. (Josie.int3.70)

Josie came able to understand the higher level books, as she read more books at that level, along with learning suitable vocabulary in class.

   Nick, who was the least proficient in Japanese among the participants, had to start extensive reading with books that he found difficult (level one books) , because easier materials (level zero books) were not available until the last month of the project. In the second interview, he said that these difficult books took "quite a bit of time to get through" and were "quite boring" (Nick.int2.62). But just as Josie got used to the new level with time, Nick had improved by the third interview (two months later) when he said that although what he was reading at that time was "getting on the difficult side", the books were at a "pretty good level" (Nick.int3.139).
One exception occurred when Emma moved on to the level two books. She was not as satisfied with the new level as the previous level, saying, "I think level two books are a little bit - some of them are a little bit hard" (Emma.int2.6). She did not seem to get accustomed to the new level, even after reading eight of the level two books, making a similar comment, "I started on the next level, and I found that a little bit harder" (Emma.int3.8), in the third interview. However, Emma implied that she could have managed her time better, saying, "if I hadn't been so busy, I would study more and it wouldn't be this hard" (Emma.int3.72). It may be that this external factor (lack of time) influenced how Emma perceived the higher level books.

*Children’s books harder due to the language and vocabulary.* As mentioned earlier, the participants had access to the graded readers and authentic children's books. Jack and Josie commented about the speech style in the children’s books. Jack said that "there's a lot of things in children's books which are casual" (Jack.int3.176) and that the casual language had not been taught at school. Similarly, Josie commented about the language used, saying "we are not used to the informal language" (Josie.int3.94). It seems that they were unfamiliar with the informal language used in the children's books.

Additionally, Jane and Josie indicated that vocabulary in the children's books was unfamiliar to them. Jane read a book called *sakura* (a cherry tree), and told me about her thoughts on the book as follows:

… It didn't have any kanji, so that was ok, but the vocab was more harder, because I think it was more scientific, maybe. (Jane.int.3.113)

The book, even though it was written for children, contained some botanical terms to describe the parts of a cherry tree, how it blossoms, and so on. Because Jane did not know those words in Japanese, she felt that it was more difficult. Josie's comment illustrates this difficulty best:

I think it was hard cause we are not used to, like, the informal language … there are words that maybe Japanese children know, but we don't know. So it's kind of … hard… (Josie.int3.94)

The three students all made the connection themselves that the children’s books were more difficult to read because of the difficulty of the language and vocabulary.
Children's books are repetitive. Another code related to children’s books emerged from Ben's comments. In the third interview, he said:

… like, the children's books are quite repetitive. Like, the one I read was all about animals yawning and, like, it had the same sentence every time with one word different. (Ben.int3.56)

After this comment, I asked him if he had found the books boring and Ben responded affirmatively.

Thus, the two codes discussed here (children's books harder due to the language and vocabulary, children's books are repetitive) represented the participants' perceptions of children's books. They perceived them less positively than the graded readers. As a result, the participants read more graded readers, which were more appropriate to their language knowledge (formal language and vocabulary).

Manga are more interesting. Jane reported that she had read a few manga (Japanese comics) at home before the extensive reading project had begun. In her journal and the third interview, Jane commented that the graded readers were interesting and fun, although she did not explain why. In the fourth interview, her comments revealed a rather different perception:

… I find manga more interesting, I think, than level one or two books. Also because, um, in manga, it's like they talk more casually, I think, and so I think it's good to read those, if you want to learn, you know, casual speaking in Japanese. But level one and two, it's just not casual. Yeah. And the stories are more fun in manga. (Jane.int4.84)

Thus, Jane preferred manga to the graded readers, because manga use casual (informal) language, which Jane was keen to learn. Also she perceived the stories as being more fun. Jane seemed to contradict herself, because before the fourth interview she said only good things about the graded readers. It is possible she thought that the graded readers were interesting for school reading books, but as books to read for pleasure, they were not as interesting as manga. This explanation is corroborated by comments in the fourth interview, which indicate that she associated the extensive reading project with schoolwork and not those things she did for fun outside class (Jane.int4.406). This view influenced Jane's reading purposes, to be discussed below (see section 4.4).
To sum up, in this category, the participants’ evaluation of the extensive reading project was discussed. By and large, the participants perceived their experiences with the project positively and would recommend extensive reading to other JFL learners. The participants were divided in terms of whether extensive reading should be voluntary or compulsory, but they liked choosing books for themselves. Word lists were perceived to be useful when reading a challenging book. The participants thought that competition would influence motivation differently depending on the student, and that writing responses in their L1 was not very useful. Graded readers were generally perceived more positively than children's books. In the next category, the participants' perceived benefits of extensive reading will be discussed.

4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading

In this category, the focus is codes that were assigned to idea units denoting the participants' perceived benefits of extensive reading. Table 4.1, below, shows the distribution of the codes.

Table 4.1
Perceived benefits of extensive reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview 2</th>
<th>Interview 3</th>
<th>Interview 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emma</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn words (b)</td>
<td>Learn kanji (b)</td>
<td>Improve reading (a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help reading exam (d)</td>
<td>Learn normal conversation (b)</td>
<td>Learn words (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learn about culture (c)</td>
<td>Learn kanji (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Help scholarship exams (d)</td>
<td>Learn structures (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jane</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading speed (a)</td>
<td>Learn words (b)</td>
<td>Get to read good stories (c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn words (b)</td>
<td>Learn kanji (b)</td>
<td>Help reading exams (d)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn kanji (b)</td>
<td>Learn how say things (b)</td>
<td>Learn natural Japanese (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn how to say things (b)</td>
<td>Get to read good stories (c)</td>
<td>Gain useful information (c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Useful phrases help exam (d)</td>
<td>Useful phrases help exam (d)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Perceived Benefits of Extensive Reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Benefits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Josie | Reading fluency (a)  
reading speed (a)  
Learn words (b)  
Learn structures (b)  
Reinforce knowledge (b)  
Help reading/writing/scholarship exams (d) | Reading speed (a)  
Read for general understanding (a)  
Learn words (b)  
Learn kanji (b)  
Learning about culture (c)  
Help reading/listening/scholarship exams (d)  
Increase confidence in exam (d) |
| Tracey| Read for general understanding (a)  
Break down sentence (a)  
Opportunity to read unfamiliar texts helps exam (d) | Read for general understanding (a)  
Learn words (b)  
Learn kanji (b)  
Learn about culture (c)  
Help reading exam (d) |
| Alan  | Learn words (b)  
Learn about culture (c)  
Help writing exam (d) | Improve reading (a)  
Learn kanji (b)  
Reinforce knowledge (b)  
Learn structures (b)  
Help reading exam (d) |
| Ben   | Do not know                                                                 | Read for general understanding (a)  
Helps reading in class (a)  
Improve reading (a)  
Help exam (d) |
| Drew  | Help reading in class (a)  
Guess from context (a) | Reading fluency (a)  
Help reading in class (a)  
Help reading exam (d) |
| Jack  | Learn words (b)  
Learn structures (b)  
Learn how to say things (b) | Reading speed (a)  
Help distinguish words (a)  
Help reading in class (a)  
Learn kanji (b)  
Reinforce knowledge (b)  
Learn about culture (c) | Reading speed (a)  
Learn words (b)  
Reinforce knowledge (b)  
Gain useful information (c)  
Learn about culture (c)  
Help reading exam (d) |
| Nick  | Not sure                                                                 | Learn words (b)  
Reinforce knowledge (b) | Learn words (b) |

*Note. Table 4.1 Perceived benefits of extensive reading: (a) Reading-related benefits, (b) Language learning benefits other than reading, (c) Non-language knowledge benefits, (c) and (d) Exam-related benefits.*

When each individual student is examined, variation is observed. Ben and Drew reported no language learning benefits, and perceived benefits that were mostly related to reading. As will be discussed below, what Josie perceived as the most valuable benefit changed during the study. Learning about Japanese culture (a non-language benefit) became more valuable to her than the language learning benefits as she advanced to higher level graded readers. Emma, Alan, Jack and Tracey reported benefits in almost all of the sub-categories, while Jane and Nick were inclined to mention only the language learning benefits.
Table 4.2 shows the frequency of each of the subcategories (a) to (d) in interviews 2-4. Quantitatively speaking, the language learning benefits were most frequently reported, closely followed by the reading-related benefits. The exam-related benefits and the non-language benefits were identified much less frequently.

Table 4.2

*The frequency of the subcategories of perceived benefits of extensive reading*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subcategory</th>
<th>Interview 2</th>
<th>Interview 3</th>
<th>Interview 4</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Reading-related benefits</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Language learning benefits</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Non-language benefits</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Exam related benefits</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1 Reading-related benefits

This sub-category subsumes codes that are concerned with reading in Japanese. The codes in this category are:

- Improve reading
- Reading speed
- Help distinguish words
- Reading fluency
- Help reading in class
- Read for general understanding
- Break down sentence
- Guess from context

*Improve reading.* When asked in the third interview if he perceived any benefits of extensive reading, Ben said:

Oh yeah. They’re just, like, they help you understand how to read in Japanese better. (Ben.int3.138)
Although Ben commented generally that he believed extensive reading was beneficial to reading, he reported few specific benefits in his reading, possibly because he did not read as much as others. Alan, on the other hand, made a similar general comment about the benefits of extensive reading in the second interview, but perceived more specific benefits as well. This is probably because Alan did more than double the amount of reading as Ben. The subsequent codes cover the specific benefits that the participants reported on.

**Reading speed.** Three participants (Jane, Josie and Jack) reported that extensive reading enabled them to read faster. For example, in the fourth interview Jack explained:

… I can read a lot faster, because I do it more often… (Jack.int4.75)

Thus, he perceived that extensive reading provided opportunities for reading practice, which resulted in his increased reading speed.

**Help distinguishing words.** In the third interview, Jack commented that one of the benefits was that extensive reading helped him “distinguish words with no spaces” (Jack.int3.122). In Japanese, no spaces are provided between words in authentic written texts, and this makes it difficult to identify word-unit boundaries (Saito, 1992), especially when texts are written only in kana, because it is hard to distinguish content words (which can be written in kanji only, kana only, or combine both kanji and kana) from function words (always written in kana). Therefore, textbooks written for elementary JFL learners often insert spaces so that word-unit boundaries can be easily identified. Accordingly, the participants' textbooks had spaces, but the reading material used in the extensive reading programme had no spaces. In short, the practice opportunities that extensive reading provided led Jack to improve at distinguishing Japanese words.

**Reading fluency.** Reading fluency was reported by three participants, Drew, Emma and Josie. They seemed to think that reading fluency entailed two components: faster reading speed and greater comprehension. In the third interview, Josie said:

… I think it’s made more, more fluent reading? It's faster, but it's also more understanding, I think. (Josie.int2.82)

When Drew was asked how extensive reading had helped his Japanese, he reported:
I can read things that are given in our class, um, smoother, like pick them out quicker. (Drew.int3.90)

Drew and Josie thought that doing extensive reading enabled them to read Japanese without stopping the flow of Japanese.

Other participants also appeared to perceive that extensive reading helped them read more fluently, although they did not express it as clearly as Drew and Josie did. For example, in the third interview, when Emma was asked in what ways extensive reading had helped her Japanese, she mentioned "being able to read more, like how I read in English" (Emma.int3.168).

Help reading in class. Three participants (Ben, Drew, Jack) reported that extensive reading helped their reading in class. This is demonstrated in Drew's comment above, which indicates that he perceived that improved fluency extended to both extensive reading materials and classroom readings.

In the third interview Jack said:

… in year 11 Japanese, we are doing, like, books where we have, like, passages - maybe people talking - and I can just read through that really fast and everyone else is still, you know, slowly going along. So I think it’s making Japanese a lot easier. (Jack.int3.118)

Jack perceived that he could read faster than his classmates who had not done extensive reading, and thought that his ability to read faster made reading in class easier.

Read for general understanding. Three participants' comments (Ben, Josie and Tracey) indicate that through extensive reading they learned to read to gain the general idea or gist of the text. In the third interview, Ben mentioned a benefit of extensive reading, as below:

… just understanding the general idea of sentences, when I don’t understand particular words. (Ben.int3.76)

Josie contrasted extensive reading with reading she did in class. Extensive reading appeared to help Josie discover another way to read in Japanese. During the fourth interview, Josie said:
… although we do reading in class, because we have to have questions after and stuff, you are more reading for just specific bits. But I think extensive reading is actually a different skill, because, you sort of, it’s more of the general understanding of each of the bits… (Josie.int4.204)

Thus Josie had learned to read for general understanding, much as Day and Bamford (1998, 2002) suggest. Josie viewed extensive reading as a new skill:

… I think extensive reading is a better skill to have if you are learning a language than just NCEA ones because, if you go to Japan, they are not going to be asking you questions about specific bits. (Josie.int4.206)

She perceived that reading for general understanding would be more useful for her future when she planned to live in Japan.

According to Day and Bamford (2002), the goal of extensive reading is not complete comprehension. The reader only needs to understand enough to fulfil his or her specific reading aims, for example, “obtaining of information, enjoyment of a story or the passing of time” (Day & Bamford, 2002, p. 138). These participants discovered that extensive reading differed from the reading they did in class or exams and they adapted how they read. Consequently, extensive reading facilitated the development of the skill of skimming, as the comments below in section 4.3 show.

*Break down a chunk.* In the second interview, Tracey said:

… if I don’t understand something, I sort of just think and break it down…

(Tracey.int2.162)

This suggests that Tracey might have learned the strategy of breaking down sentences and within-sentence chunks of language (such as phrases) into parts through extensive reading. However, the use of this strategy was not identified in her think-aloud data. The next code also suggests that extensive reading benefited the students in terms of strategy development.

*Guess from context.* In the second interview, Drew said:

Um, how to figure out, like, a word I don’t know, just from reading the other sentences around it and things. (Drew.int2.56)
He also reported that he got better at guessing from context in the third interview (see 4.2.3 Perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading).

As mentioned in the code word list helpful, some of the others (Alan, Ben, Emma, Josie, Tracey) reported using this guessing strategy when they read an easy book (rather than using the word list). Even when they reported using the word list when reading a more challenging book, they tried to guess first. Drew was different: he employed the guessing strategy throughout the five months, perhaps because he did not advance to a higher level and read only the level one graded readers, which were within his reading competence, enabling him to guess meanings.

Jack mentioned that he used the guessing strategy only when he thought he had learned the word, and that he liked to look up the word list when he thought he had never seen the word (Jack.int3.86). Data from the third think-aloud session supports this. Jack read a passage without a word list in the two previous think-aloud sessions, whereas in the third think-aloud session Jack read a story from a level one graded reader and was allowed to use a word list. Of the eleven times Jack questioned the meaning of an unfamiliar word, he went straight to the word list seven times. To illustrate, when Jack encountered the word ゆくくり (yukkuri, in a relaxed manner), he said "I don't know what ゆくくり is. Says here on … the vocabulary list, um, in a relaxing manner" (Jack.t-a3.p1). For the other four words, he used the picture to guess 切りました (kirimashita, cut [past tense]) and tried to figure out the meaning of the word 自分 (jibun, oneself) from each individual kanji before checking the list, because he had some idea about the word.

Jane and Nick did not mention the use of the guessing strategy. In Jane's case, this might be because she found the level one and two books quite easy, therefore, she did not need to guess from context or use the word list. Data from the first and second think-aloud sessions show she made no mention of an unknown word in the first session and in the second session only questioned the meaning, e.g., "what's 引っ越し (hikkoshi, moving house)?" and then just carried on. The passage appeared to be relatively easy, as she did not mention that it was difficult and her recall shows that she understood the story. On the other hand, data from the third think-aloud session, in which she read a level four book about the history of sumo wrestling, provides evidence that Jane guessed the meaning of an unknown word, although she was usually wrong. For example, she tried to guess the meaning of まげ (mage, a
topknot). Although she understood what was written around the word, she thought that まげ (mage) might mean law. After the session, she said that she found the book very difficult.

Nick had to read challenging books from the beginning, so he heavily relied on the word lists as mentioned above. He also commented that he used the pictures to figure out the story. Thus it seems that there are individual differences in the use of guessing.

In this subcategory, the benefits related to reading were presented. The extensive reading programme offered opportunities to practise reading in Japanese, which most participants had not had before. Consequently, the participants perceived reading benefits such as speed, fluency and the development of several reading strategies. These were reported to have had an impact on their classroom reading. However, the use of word lists might have inhibited the development of guessing from context. This issue will be dealt with in Chapter Six (see section 6.2.2).

4.2.2 Language learning benefits other than reading

In this subsection, the focus is codes that represent the participants' perceived benefits related to language learning other than reading. The codes in this sub-category are:

- Help Japanese learning
- Learn words
- Learn kanji
- Learn structures
- Learn how to say things
- Learn real Japanese
- Reinforce knowledge

*Help Japanese learning.* Four participants (Ben, Emma, Jack, Josie) reported that extensive reading helped improve their Japanese in general. In his journal Jack said:

… it helps my Japanese learning immensely. (Jack.jrnl.17/3/09)
In comments like this, the participants expressed the benefits of ER in a general sense, but they also reported more specific benefits (see the following codes).

*Learn words.* All participants except Ben commented that the benefit of extensive reading was being able to learn words. The perception that extensive reading contributes to vocabulary learning was mentioned frequently in the data. Idea units coded *learn words* occurred in more than one interview for four different participants. Jane reported *learn words* in three interviews, and Josie, Drew, Jack and Nick reported it in two interviews.

In fact, learning words was the only benefit for Nick, while the others reported at least three different benefits. To illustrate, in the third interview Nick said:

> It’s just like learning new vocabulary and stuff… um, I don’t really think of anything. Cause that’s, like, at this level for the children's books, all I can think of is studying, learning new things. (Nick.int3.255)

The end of this comment implies that he did not find the books interesting as reading material, and therefore he viewed them as a vocabulary learning opportunity. The issue of interest will be discussed in section 4.4 *Perceptions of reading materials.*

Moreover, four participants (Emma, Jane, Alan, Nick) not only cited learning words as a benefit, but also specifically mentioned words that they would not learn in Japanese class. The following comment from Emma during the third interview illustrates this:

> I liked learning words that weren’t in the vocab list because it’s sort of quite limited, like just being NCEA, no more. So it was good sort of getting more to add to it. (Emma.int3.206)

The comment was in response to the question about the impact that extensive reading had on how she felt about studying Japanese. Emma expressed a strong desire to live in Japan after university at the time the comment was made, and wanted to be fluent in Japanese. It may be that adding extra vocabulary knowledge was perceived as useful for her in the future.

Alan also tied learning new words to a future activity, that is, exams. After Alan said that he had learned a fair amount of new words from the reading that were not part of the NCEA vocabulary list, he continued:
… I guess that helps, cause you can always put some of those words in exams, and it’s like you obviously, you know the language… (Alan.int2.132)

**Learn kanji.** Six participants (Alan, Emma, Jack, Jane, Josie, Tracey) reported that extensive reading helped them with learning kanji. Jane seemed to feel the benefit most strongly among the participants, as she commented on kanji in all three interviews. Jane's comment that she had purchased a kanji book so that she could learn more kanji other than those that she had to learn at school supports this. The kanji book was also her motivation for learning Japanese at that time (Jane.int4.323-342).

**Learn structures.** While learning words and kanji were perceived as benefits by the majority of the participants, fewer students (Alan, Jack, Jane and Josie) seemed to perceive learning structures as a benefit. For Jack, learning “quite a few structures or sentence structure” (Jack.int2.12) from the books was one of the benefits of extensive reading. When Alan was asked in the third interview if there was anything that extensive reading had helped him with, he said:

… writing sentences, cause you’ve been reading, you know, how they form sentences, or you might start bringing some of that into your own writing.

(Alan.int3.173)

Thus, Alan perceived that the knowledge of sentence structures gained from extensive reading might be used in his writing, although he was not entirely sure if he had done this.

Josie also commented that the structures that she had learned in class also appeared in the reading materials, which she thought helped her familiarise herself with these structures (Josie.int3.128). This might have contributed to her success in the practice exams. The perceived benefits related to exams will be discussed in the subcategory, Extensive reading helps with exams (see section 4.2.4).

**Learn how things are said.** This theme emerged from Drew, Jack and Jane’s interview data. In the second interview Jane provided an example of what she meant by “how things are said”. She said:

Um, maybe how things are said. For example, like how words are fitted into the context… (Jane.int2.118)
It may be that extensive reading enabled her to learn a word in the context of its use, rather than to learn it in isolation, as in the NCEA word lists for exam study. Also, in the second interview, Jack cited the following as one of the benefits:

… I found how things are used in different ways… (Jack.int2.12)

He did not clarify, but later in the same interview, Jack talked about extensive reading reinforcing what he had learned in class, which will be presented later in this subsection. Thus, he might have meant that the extensive reading books showed different examples of how the word or structure that he had learned in class was used.

Learn real Japanese. Four participants (Emma, Jack, Jane, Josie) reported another benefit of extensive reading, that is, being able to learn real Japanese. In the fourth interview, Jane expressed the usefulness of natural Japanese saying:

… you learn how to say things more naturally and you might come across that later in life and you might be like ‘ah, I learned that during extensive reading’. (Jane.int4.136)

The other three (Emma, Josie, Jack) commented on learning real Japanese in comparison with classroom Japanese. For example, Jack’s comment during the third interview illustrates the concept:

… it’s neat to see that it’s actually used in a Japanese book or something like that, whereas before it was just schoolwork. I’ve only seen what I can do with schoolwork. I haven’t seen the actual [Japanese], uh, in a proper sense… (Jack.int3.170)

Emma had spent a few weeks in Japan in the previous year and was surprised at the informal language that Japanese people were using. In Japanese there are two styles of speech: formal (polite) and informal (casual). Students in New Zealand secondary schools learn formal Japanese, while Japanese native speakers use informal language among family and friends. Emma thought "hearing the language not from the textbook, will make it easy to understand, like normal conversation" (Emma.int1.236). Thus, it was “normal conversation” containing a lot of informal language that she was very keen to learn. Similarly, in the third interview Josie said,
“it’s good to learn how a Japanese person was actually saying it, not just how we were taught” (Josie.int3.110).

Since all three participants expressed aspirations to live in Japan in the future during the interviews, it may be that they perceived learning real Japanese through extensive reading to be relevant to their future plans.

Reinforce knowledge. Four participants (Alan, Jack, Josie, Nick) perceived that extensive reading had the benefit of reinforcing what they had learned previously. The following comment that Jack made during the fourth interview illustrates the concept best:

… this [extensive reading] is definitely backing things up a lot more, cause we learn things in class, but we may not really use them so much. But this is helpful because I can actually look at an example of it, and that’s definitely helping a lot. (Jack.int2.72)

Nick's comment that "it sort of boosted up and like vocabulary you’ve already learned, you go over that by reading the books" (Nick.int3.255) accords with Jack's comment above. Josie also implied this benefit when she spoke about her perception that she became more familiar with the grammatical structures she had learned in class through extensive reading. To conclude, extensive reading played a role in consolidating the students' recently learned knowledge, as well as adding new knowledge (e.g., words, kanji and structures).

4.2.3 Non-language knowledge benefits

In this subsection the perceived benefits other than reading or language learning benefits are presented. The data indicate that the majority of the participants derived non-language benefits from extensive reading.

This sub-category includes the following codes.

- Read for pleasure
- Opportunity to read great stories
- Learn about culture
- Gain useful information
- Better approach to learning Japanese
Read for pleasure. In the second interview Josie talked about a new way of reading Japanese texts to which extensive reading had introduced her:

… before it was kind of specific with NCEA, just the sort of way they do it in the vocab list, and it’s very specific. But then this has kind of broadened it a bit more and made it more like reading for pleasure, rather than just having to read it cause it’s there and you have to read it. (Josie.int2.88)

Thus extensive reading gave Josie opportunities to enjoy reading in Japanese; it was not just about reading to prepare for the NCEA exams. Reading for pleasure is probably related to her perception that extensive reading was not like homework (see the code reading not homework in 4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project).

Opportunity to read great stories. When asked what the benefits of extensive reading were in the third interview, Jane said:

Um, you get to read a lot of cool Japanese stories… (Jane.int3.157)

Jane was the only participant who perceived the opportunity to read great stories as a benefit. However, other participants commented that they found the extensive reading books interesting. The perceptions of the reading materials will be discussed in section 4.4 Perceptions of reading materials.

Learn about culture. Five participants’ (Alan, Emma, Jack, Josie, Tracey) comments indicate that they perceived learning about Japanese culture as a benefit. Learning to understand words and improving reading speed were the main benefits for Jack, but he added that learning about the culture was “really neat” (Jack.int4.77). Emma also appeared to perceive learning about culture as an additional benefit, which is demonstrated in this exchange with me in the third interview:

R: …what do you set out to learn [when you read], the language, or the culture?
E: Language, but then you just sort of find out about the culture when you read. Just sort of like a plus. (Emma.int3.111-112)

For Josie, learning about the culture became more important than the language, as she advanced to the higher level graded readers. In the fourth interview, she said:
… I think one of the biggest benefits was that you are able to find out with the level three books about the culture, so you see how proper – like, a wider range of, like, knowledge about Japan… (Josie.int4.166)

She also commented:

… if you just learn about language, it’s not really, you couldn’t really go to that country, if you only knew the language. I think you need to know something about the people as well… (Josie.int4.48)

This comment shows Josie’s belief that L2 cultural knowledge is important especially in light of her future plans to live in Japan.

In addition, Alan and Emma commented, respectively, that they had learned children’s stories and traditional stories. Children's stories and traditional stories are very similar, often one and the same. Such stories usually contain cultural aspects or they are part of the culture.

Another benefit related to learning about culture was to gain insight into Japan. When asked what Tracey would tell others about extensive reading, one of the benefits she mentioned was that extensive reading gave “more insight on Japanese and culture” (Tracey.int3.189)

Josie commented that extensive reading broadened her “actual knowledge about Japanese culture” (Josie.int4.204), and she related this to the fact that the extensive reading books were by Japanese L1 writers. She also contrasted that with what she could learn from her own teacher:

… I think it broadens what you are able to learn about, cause obviously with Miss W [the teacher], she’s not Japanese, so it’s harder for her to give that perspective. So, it’s quite good to be able to get that from the books.

(Josie.int4.170)

Taking into account the fact that the majority of the students indicated this benefit, it can be said that learning about a different culture from the reading materials is a significant benefit of extensive reading.

Gain useful information. Two participants (Jack and Jane) reported that some of the books provided useful information. For example, in the fourth interview, Jane
told me about a book called *Tokyo e ikou* (Let’s go to Tokyo). She said that the book would be useful to people who were going, or planning to go, to Tokyo. Jack commented on a book called *Sushi*, and got “some information about making sushi” and he saw “the sushi bars and everything” (Jack.int4.77).

When Nick was asked what he thought about extensive reading being included in Japanese class, Nick indicated that he welcomed this, saying, "That would be good" (Nick.int3.183). He linked his positive appraisal to the usefulness of extensive reading compared to instruction in "everyday things":

yeah, it’s not all about just try and learn how to do everyday things. Sit and read books and stuff, which will be useful (Nick.int3.183).

Although Nick did not specify what kind of “stuff” was useful, other students who noted how much they enjoyed learning about informal language and traditions indicated the range of ‘stuff’ they perceived to be useful.

*Better approach to learning Japanese.* Nick commented that he needed to study Japanese more outside the classroom, when asked in the second interview why he participated in the project. Nick seemed to perceive extensive reading as a study tool, rather than something he would do for pleasure (see section 4.5 Reading purposes for further discussion). The following comment from the third interview demonstrates this perception well:

… it's a better way to study. Reading books, I’d rather do that than just looking over the book and writing notes down, which is really boring (Nick.int3.241).

This comment implies a strong negative attitude towards studying, which is confirmed by Nick’s comment, "I hate study. ((whisper)) I really do dislike it." (Nick.int3.245). In the fourth interview, he again commented about how much he disliked studying and how extensive reading is a better way to study. Because of these negative attitudes, extensive reading appeared more attractive and enabled him to spend more time on Japanese. I point out that only Nick expressed such strongly negative attitudes towards studying and that it draws attention to the positive attitudes that he shared with the other participants toward extensive reading.
The codes in this sub-category have shown that the majority of the participants thought that extensive reading had non-language benefits. Some students had learned different ways of reading in Japanese (reading for general understanding and reading for pleasure), which were similar to how native speakers would read in their first language. Nick liked extensive reading more than the traditional way of studying.

4.2.4 Extensive reading helps with exams

In this sub-category, I focus on codes that represent the participants' perceived benefits of extensive reading for exams. During the second interview, three students mentioned exams without being prompted. Their comments led me to wonder whether the participants perceived extensive reading as useful for exams. In the third interview, all participants except Jack were specifically asked whether extensive reading would help with exams. Those who had the fourth interview (Jack, Jane, Josie, Nick) were asked the same question. The codes classified in this sub-category are:

• Help reading exam
• Help writing exam
• Useful phrases would help exam
• Help listening exam
• Help scholarship exam
• Opportunity to read unfamiliar text would help exam
• Raise confidence in exam

Help reading exam. It was not surprising that most participants (Emma, Jane, Josie, Tracey, Alan, Drew, Jack) reported that extensive reading would help them with the reading section of the NCEA exam. Among the reasons they cited, reading speed was mentioned most often (Emma, Josie, Jack). In the fourth interview Jack said:

… the reading definitely helps [the reading exam] cause I can do it a lot faster, and I can understand a lot more. (Jack.int4.143)
Because there is a time limit in the exam, the ability to read faster with greater understanding would be advantageous. Furthermore, it would allow “more time to… answer the questions and stuff” (Josie.int4.136).

Between the second and third interview, the participants at Girls’ High School had practice NCEA exams. Josie received an excellent for the reading section. In the third interview when asked how extensive reading had contributed to her success, she explained:

… I think, a lot of structures that… we were learning just before the exams were also in the books … So, it wasn’t as hard to get your head around what they are saying, cause you are familiar with some of the structures and the vocab that were used. (Josie.int3.128)

The fact that extensive reading reinforced what she had learned in class seemed to help Josie with the practice exam. In the fourth interview, Josie commented that the extra vocabulary that she learned from extensive reading would reduce the number of words she did not know in the exam passage, which in turn would make it easier to understand (Josie.int4.142).

In Jane’s case, the extra kanji that she learned from the extensive reading materials would be helpful for the reading exam. In the third interview Jane said:

…the books have more difficult kanji than the ones in the exams, I think it will help because the level is higher than exam kanji… (Jane.int3.147)

After this comment Jane added that the knowledge of more difficult kanji would make the text in the exam look easier.

Help writing exam. Two participants (Alan and Josie) reported that extensive reading would be useful for them on the writing section of the NCEA exam. When asked what he had learned from extensive reading, Alan said that he had learned new Japanese vocabulary and continued as follows:

I guess that helps, cause you can always put some of those words in the exams… (Alan.int2.132)

Similarly, in the third interview, Josie reported that “structures” (presumably grammatical, but she did not specify which type) that she had learned from the
reading would contribute to the variety of structures she could use in her writing on the NCEA exam (Josie.int3.136). However, in the fourth interview, her comment indicated her realisation that reproducing a Japanese word she had only seen in the book once or twice was more difficult than recalling the English meaning from it. She expected that extensive reading would help with the reading exam more than the writing exam (Josie.int4.270-273).

*Useful phrases would help exam.* When asked how extensive reading would help with exams, Jane mentioned “useful phrases” (Jane.int4.132) that she had found in the books. Yet, she did not elaborate on how the useful phrases would help with the exams. It may be that they would help with the writing in the same way that Alan and Josie reported that words and structures could be used in writing.

*Help listening exam.* The graded readers that the participants had access to were accompanied by CDs. In the fourth interview, Josie said:

…obviously the wide reading helps with the reading and the listening. I’ve been listening to the tapes, CDs of the books and stuff and I think that helps as well. (Josie.int4.336)

Apparently, Josie made use of the CDs and perceived that listening to them as she read benefited her listening.

*Scholarship exams.* Some participants from Girls’ High School had planned to sit the scholarship exams as well as the NCEA exams. The scholarship exams differ from the NCEA exams in that all questions regarding the reading passage/listening passage are written in Japanese and the questions must be answered in Japanese. In the NCEA exams, the questions and answers for all sections (Reading, Listening and Writing) were in English. Thus scholarship exams are more difficult than the standard NCEA exams, and only students whom the teacher considers high achievers sit them. At the time of the third interview, Emma, Jane and Josie had been working for the scholarship exams.

Two participants (Emma and Josie) reported that extensive reading would help with the scholarship exams more than with the NCEA exams. In the third interview, when asked if she thought extensive reading would help with the exams, Emma commented:
Yeah, because, especially scholarship, it’s more - if you know more about other topics, then that would help. (Emma.int3.171)

This comment shows that extensive reading exposed her to topics that her Japanese class did not cover, and so Emma perceived extensive reading positively.

In the third interview Josie pointed out the similarity between the exams and extensive reading as below:

… the questions are all in Japanese and your answer has to be in Japanese and so the text is also in Japanese. So that’s a lot more like extensive reading.

(Josie.int3.120)

Therefore, this similarity helped Josie prepare for the exams. She made the same comment during the fourth interview (Josie.int4.154).

Opportunity to read unfamiliar text would help exam. In the second interview, Tracey commented:

… I guess it’s good to hear things, like read things that you don’t understand, cause that sort of helps. It’ll help me in my exams and stuff. (Tracey.int2.162)

This indicates that extensive reading exposed her to reading unfamiliar texts, which would prepare her for exam conditions where she would also read unfamiliar texts.

Raise confidence in exam. Josie perceived that extensive reading would help with exams in terms of confidence. In the fourth interview, Josie explained how extensive reading would increase her confidence in the exam as follows:

… I think obviously…when you practise something, that makes you more confident. You’ll be able to do it when you are under more pressure…

(Josie.int4.138)

Although only Josie stated this explicitly, it might be inferred that other participants who discussed the positive benefits of extensive reading with respect to exams may also have felt that their confidence would be increased.

To summarise, numerous benefits were identified from the participants' comments ranging from reading, language learning, culture and exams. The
distribution of the codes varied when each student was looked at across the interviews (see Table 4.2). Ben and Nick did not report any benefits in the second interview (which was conducted after term one), whereas other students reported at least one benefit. However, Nick read only two books, and Ben read only three books during term one.

It is interesting that of the six participants who reported the non-language benefits, five participants did so in the third or fourth interview, but not in the second interview (see Table 4.2). This suggests that it took more time for them to perceive the non-language benefits than the language learning benefits. Or it may be that improving their Japanese was their primary focus at the beginning, but they grew to perceive the non-language benefits with exposure (see 4.5 Reading purposes regarding changes in reading purposes). This is reinforced by the fact that the three students (Ben, Drew and Nick) who reported no non-language benefits read much less than the others. It may be that L2 learners need to read a sufficient amount in order to derive benefits from extensive reading.

4.3 Perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading

At the beginning of the previous category (see 4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading), I stated that some codes (e.g., fluency, speed, words and kanji) were classified as both benefits and improvements, and discussed the rationale for creating separate categories. In addition, things that participants could not tangibly measure were not perceived as improvements. Therefore, the non-language benefits (e.g., learn about culture and gain useful information) and codes such as opportunities to practise reading and reinforce knowledge were categorised as perceived benefits rather than perceived improvements. In this category, perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading, the codes represent areas in which the students noticed improvement due to extensive reading. All of the codes are related to language areas and skills in using language. The codes in this category are listed below.

- Comprehension
- Speed
- Less mental translation into L1
- Fluency
Comprehension. This code is related to the understanding of texts. The participants did not seem to perceive comprehension as a benefit of extensive reading, but reported improved comprehension in three subtly different ways. First, four participants (Jack, Jane, Josie and Tracey) noticed that they could understand more. In the third interview when asked what progress she thought she had made, Jane commented:

… I think I’m understanding a bit more. (Jane.int3.139)

Second, Nick reported that he had read one book more easily. He sounded pleased about this and told me during the second interview:

With the recent book, I found that I went through it quite easily… it’s probably going through the - especially through speech. I learn the sentence structures, then I can understand quite a lot easier. (Nick.int2.72-74)

Strictly speaking, this may not have been improvement, because he was talking about just one particular book that he had read shortly before the interview, and, in the subsequent interview, he was not certain whether he had made any progress.

Third, improvement was concerned with the speed of comprehension. This emerged from Drew’s interview data. To illustrate, in the second interview, when asked if he had noticed any progress since he started extensive reading, Drew said:
Most of the participants felt that faster comprehension went hand in hand with the faster reading speed (to be discussed next).

**Reading speed.** Improved reading speed was perceived by the majority of the participants. Six participants (Emma, Jane, Josie, Tracey, Drew, Jack) reported a faster rate of reading in at least one of the interviews. For example, Drew said, “I can read it faster” (Drew.int2.50) and Emma said “I did notice the time got shorter” (Emma.int2.68). In the fourth interview, Jack also compared his faster speed of reading with that of other students who were not doing extensive reading, as follows:

Definitely, quite a lot I can read much faster than I could before, and I can read a lot faster than people who haven’t done the reading. (Jack.int4, 123)

The records that the participants kept after they read a book showed no apparent change in reading time. It is difficult to draw conclusions from this data, however, because the number of words in the books varied, and the higher reading level books made heavier demands, at least until the students got used to them. However, Jack’s record, based entirely on books of roughly the same length and level, seems to suggest a more rapid rate of reading. He spent one hour reading a level one book during the first three months, but later he read some of the same level books within half an hour.

**Less mental translation to L1.** After five months of extensive reading, Josie noticed a change in her reading process. In the third interview, Josie commented on the change in her reading behaviour as follows:

… Like, before if there was a sentence I didn’t quite understand, then I would go through it and translate back into English. But more - this time, I can think about it in Japanese more, I think. (Josie.int3.104)

Thus, she perceived that she had improved in her ability to think in Japanese. The decrease in mental translation appeared to contribute to Josie’s reading fluency (to be discussed below). Data from the think-aloud sessions, however, do not demonstrate an observable change in the occurrence of translation to L1. No utterance indicating
that she engaged in mental translation was identified in the first or second session. In
the third session, she mentioned it once, saying "I would translate that back again into
English in my head" (Josie.t-a3.p.4) when she encountered an unknown chunk
"自分で自分の人生を選択する" (jibun de jibun no jinsei o erabu, meaning: to make
one's own choice in life). A possible explanation is the difficulty level of the text used
in the think-alouds. The text used in the first and second sessions was much easier
than the text used in the third session, as I used a story from a level one graded reader
in the first session and one from a level three book in the third session. Because she
could read the story easily in the first session, she might not have had to rely on
mental translation to L1.

Fluency. In the third interview Josie said:

… what I said about, um, not having to translate to English. So I think it’s
made more, more fluent, like, reading? It’s faster, but it’s also more
understanding, I think. (Josie.int3.146)

Like Josie, three other participants (Emma, Drew and Jack) also noticed that they had
been able to read more fluently since they began extensive reading, although they did
not elaborate on why their fluency had improved.

No need to check/able to guess from context. Josie continued speaking about
how extensive reading had changed the way she read in Japanese, after the above
comment.

Yeah, I think it’s kind of improved the way I read, so I don’t have to keep
checking the exact meaning for everything. I can sort of look at the context
and see what the sort of overall meaning is and then work backwards.

(Josie.int3.146)

Here, Josie perceived that fluency reduced the frequency of checking, which followed
from the decreased mental translation into L1 described above. Drew's comment also
focuses on the link between fluency and no need to check as below:

… I can read smoothly. I don't have to pick out each part and figure it out as I
go. (Drew.int3.86)
Drew's think-aloud data suggests that he improved in guessing from context. In the first session, he acknowledged an unknown word five times, but successfully figured it out just once. In contrast, in the later session Drew acknowledged six unknown word or chunks, and inferred five of them correctly.

To sum up, the data discussed above under the three codes (*less mental translation to L1, fluency, no need to check/able to guess from context*) seem to indicate an improvement in the participants’ Japanese reading. That is, the participants perceived that, when they could read in the L2 without resorting to the L1, they could read more fluently. Because they could understand more words, they could understand the overall meaning and guess an unknown word from context more easily.

*Skim reading.* This code was identified in Alan and Tracey’s interview data. They reported getting the gist of the sentence and the passage better than before. In the first interview that aimed to gain the participants’ background information, Alan and I had an exchange about reading in his L1 (English). After saying that he was an "average" reader in English, Alan explained what separated him from good readers, as below:

… they [good L1 readers] can kind of read that over and pick up words that they need, but kind of ignore smaller words that are insignificant, but I can’t quite do that... I’d probably read it and might miss out an important word.  

(Alan.int1.226)

Alan appeared to have the notion that reading every word gives him “a better meaning and understanding of what’s down” (Alan.int1.234). It may be that this transferred to L2 reading. Think-aloud data from the pre-extensive reading session show that he frequently engaged in word-for-word translation, sounded out an unfamiliar word, and questioned the meaning of a word. However, it appears that extensive reading improved the way he read Japanese texts as he did more reading. In the second interview Alan said:

I guess, more, kind of like skim reading. Like, not always reading every single little thing. More, just trying to find the point of the sentence, not making sure I know every single little thing (Alan.int2.126).
The post-extensive reading think-aloud data for Alan supports this comment. The unit of translation was larger (phrases, clauses, sentences) and questioning the meaning of a sentence/clause was identified, while word for word translation and questioning of a word decreased.

Tracey’s comment also indicates that she changed the way she read. In the second interview, Tracey said at that point she was trying to “… like, more, not worry about it as much and, sort of, just try and work out the general gist of the story before I tried it” (Tracey.int2.162). Tracey’s think-aloud data supports her comment. Compared with the pre-extensive reading session, she made more comments such as “I’m going to read on to see if I can get the general idea of the story” and “there is about two kanji that I wasn’t sure about in that one. But I understood the general gist of the paragraph” (Tracey.t-a.2.p.1). These utterances suggest that Tracey consciously tried to get the general idea of the sentence and the story in the post-extensive reading session. Extensive reading might have contributed to the development of this skill because it taught them that they could understand the general message of a text even when they did not understand every word. This contrasts with expectations for reading in their classrooms and for exams, where the participants felt that they were required to read for specific information and display comprehension of details (see section 4.2.1).

*Distinguish words with no spaces.* As mentioned in the previous section, extensive reading helped Jack distinguish words with no spaces between them (see section 4.2.1). In the third interview Jack said:

I’ve actually gotten a lot better at distinguishing, uh, cause in here [the extensive reading materials] there’s no spaces. When I first saw it, I had trouble with that. I couldn’t tell which words were together… but now I’m really good at that… (Jack.int3.80-82)

Jack’s think-aloud data appears to support this comment. During the pre-extensive reading session, he made errors in judging word boundaries five times. In the second and third think-aloud sessions, he made no such errors. It cannot be determined that extensive reading alone accounts for the improvement; however, Jack seemed to believe that extensive reading had contributed to it. As he said "it's helped me a lot in again distinguishing words with no spaces and boundaries" (Jack.int3.122).
Vocabulary. Of the seven who mentioned learning words as a benefit, four students (Jack, Jane, Josie and Tracey) perceived that their understanding of vocabulary had improved because of extensive reading. For example, in the third interview Josie said:

I think, in terms of vocab, it’s got a lot better. (Josie.int3.110)

Kanji. Three participants (Jane, Josie and Tracey) reported that their understanding of kanji improved, as well as their understanding of vocabulary. They also cited learning kanji as a benefit of extensive reading (see section 4.2.2).

In the fourth interview, Josie commented:

… even if it has the hirigana, I tend to try and read the kanji more, because I think I got that from the wide reading, because it has a lot more kanji than what we usually have. So I can understand the meaning, like, guess it from the kanji. (Josie.int4.132)

This comment indicates that Josie was exposed to more kanji through extensive reading, and it helped her get better at guessing the meaning of kanji with or without hirigana (i.e., phonological assistance device). Josie's utterance in the third think-aloud session appears to accord with her comment above. She said:

… I could read all the kanji as well, so I didn't have to use the hirigana…

(Josie.t-a3.p.1)

Informal Japanese. The next five codes emerged from Josie’s interview data. She reported numerous improvements, while the other participants reported none to five (see Table 4.3 below). This is possibly because Josie read more books for a longer period than anyone else. Josie appreciated the opportunity to learn real Japanese that was different to how she was taught in class, as discussed above (see section 4.2.2). In the third interview she said:

… I think I got more of an idea of …the more informal way of speaking cause some of the level three books are in, like, informal Japanese…

(Josie.int3.110)
Pronunciation. In the third interview Josie commented:

… I think one of the things I do when I’m reading is, if I don’t understand it,
then I say that out loud to see if it makes a difference, whether I’m sort of
pronouncing the word right and stuff. So I think the pronunciation, as well as
working on it with the tutor, it’s, like, improved a bit… (Josie.int3.263)

Josie perceived that sounding out an unknown part to help her recognise the meaning
improved her pronunciation at the same time. As this comment shows, the perceived
improvement was a combined result of extensive reading and assistance from the
Japanese L1 speaker that Josie had as her tutor. From this it can be seen that the
improvement that Josie perceived spread to other areas, and another example of this is
discussed next.

Think in L2 when writing. In the fourth interview (seven months after she
began extensive reading), Josie spoke about how differently she could write in
Japanese:

… it helps me with, sort of, thinking in a Japanese way, rather than just
English and then translating into Japanese when I’m writing… I’m starting to
be able to write straight into Japanese. (Josie.int4.160)

Josie eventually did not have to think what to write in her L1 and then translate it to
the L2 as she wrote, because extensive reading helped her to think what to say in the
L2 directly. Being able to think in the L2 also helped Josie read more fluently because
she used less mental translation to the L1, as stated above.

Interestingly, in the second interview, which was conducted two months after
Josie had begun extensive reading, Josie reported that her writing had improved for a
different reason. She said:

…cause we’ve been doing a lot of writing, it has improved a bit with doing
reading cause I can use sort of the structures and vocab that I learned while
I’m reading. (Josie.int2.78)

Thus Josie perceived that her writing had not improved due to extensive reading
alone, but was the combined result of writing practice and utilising items in the
extensive reading books. From this, it can be seen that at the earlier stage Josie
perceived that the improvement was made because of more grammatical structures and words from the reading that she could use in her writing. But later on, she perceived that it was more because of a change in her reading process.

**System developed.** Nick was not as certain as some of the other participants (e.g., Jack and Josie) about the progress that he might have made. He answered “not really” in the third and fourth interview. Nick's comments show that he thought he did not read enough to derive benefits from extensive reading. However, when asked if reading had got any easier for him in the third interview, Nick described the system he had developed:

… when I do read, I’ve got a system where I just put - I’ve got the vocab list out, right beside me, so I can quickly check that, if I don’t know a word. So I go through books a bit quicker now. (Nick.int3.157)

The word list was essential when he read because even the lowest level graded readers contained a fair amount of unknown words, as discussed before (see **4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project**). This comment shows that Nick established a system that helped him use the list more efficiently, which resulted in shorter reading times.

**Japanese regressed.** Emma reported in the second interview that she could read faster and more fluently. However, in the third interview her response was different:

Hmmm, I think my Japanese’s gotten worse this year because I have been so busy and haven’t been studying. (Emma.int3.118)

Between the second interview and the third interview (term two), Emma was “super busy” because she had “something on every day of the week” (Emma.jrnl.28/5/09), and did not do extensive reading or Japanese study as much as in term one (see **4.9 Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation** for further discussion). Therefore, she perceived that her Japanese deteriorated during term two. However, Emma’s Japanese may not have been as bad as she perceived. As Emma said in the third interview, despite the fact that she felt she was struggling in class, the teacher’s comment in her school report was "still quite good" (Emma.int3.252). In addition, the
teacher's comments during an informal discussion with me suggest a positive evaluation of Emma's ability in Japanese.

No improvement. Ben reported no improvement in all interviews, although he perceived the benefits of extensive reading and had a positive attitude about it. He read the least number of books among the participants, and discontinued extensive reading before the five months were over.

In this section, the participants' perceived improvements that were attributed to extensive reading were discussed. Nearly half of the codes were also classified as perceived benefits in the previous section, but the rest of the codes were unique to this section. The perceived improvements ranged from reading related (e.g., comprehension, no need check/able to guess from context, distinguishing words with no spaces), and language learning related (e.g., vocabulary, kanji) to other areas (e.g., pronunciation, think in L2 when writing). The data suggested that some participants perceived that they had acquired better reading processes (e.g., speed, fluency, distinguish words, less mental translation to L1) and useful reading strategies (no need to check/able to guess from context, skim reading) through extensive reading. The effect of extensive reading extended to pronunciation and writing, although such improvements were probably the combined result of extensive reading and other work the participant did.

When the distribution of codes across the participants is considered, as shown in Table 4.3 below, Josie, who read the most, reported the most in number and in types of improvements, whereas Ben, who read the least, reported no improvements. Therefore, as I claimed in the previous section about the perceived benefits, this suggests that the more a student reads, the more improvements he or she is able to perceive. Emma perceived that her Japanese got worse after she had stopped reading as much as before. This also supports this claim that one must read a sufficient amount to perceive improvements. But I note that there were other negative influences operating that made Emma perceive that her Japanese had deteriorated. This issue will be discussed in section 4.9 Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation.
Table 4.3

The distribution of the codes classified as perceived improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interview 2</th>
<th>Interview 3</th>
<th>Interview 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td>Japanese regressed</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Kanji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No need to check/able to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>guess from context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Less mental translation to L1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Think in L2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informal language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Josie</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Kanji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No need to check/able to</td>
<td>Think in L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>guess from context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Less mental translation to L1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Think in L2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Informal language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracey</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td>Kanji</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skim reading</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skim reading</td>
<td>Skim reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alan</td>
<td>Skim reading</td>
<td>Skim reading</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>No improvement</td>
<td>No improvement</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drew</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td>Reading fluency</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>No need to check/able to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>guess from context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
<td>Reading fluency</td>
<td>Reading speed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Distinguish words</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nick</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>System developed</td>
<td>No improvement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As noted at the beginning of this chapter, in the categories up to this one, the analysis emerged through the identification of codes in the data, which were illustrated with the relevant quotes. These were low inference codes that were clearly grounded in the data and required little interpretation. In contrast, from the next category through to the last category, higher inference codes are used that require more interpretation of the data.

4.4 Perceptions of reading materials

The focus of this section is the participants' perceptions of the reading materials. The participants sometimes suggested connections between the reading materials and something else. For example, Josie's comment "I'm enjoying extensive reading because [italics added for emphasis] the books aren't too hard to read" (Josie.jrnl.14/2/09) contains two idea units: enjoying extensive reading and easy
books, but it also indicates the relationship she perceived between the idea units. In this section, they are treated as one instead of being coded separately, so that the relationship can be observed. As a result, the category is divided into sub-categories according to the relationships the participants implied. First, perceptions of the materials associated with affective factors are presented. Secondly, perceptions related to comprehension are presented. The sub-categories and codes in this category are:

(a) Affective
  - Interesting books
  - Like easy books
  - Comprehensibility vs. interest

(b) Comprehension
  - Graded readers with picture
  - Kanji with hirigana

4.4.1 Affective

This sub-category deals with the participants' perceptions of the reading materials that influenced their feelings about extensive reading.

Interesting books. Six participants (Ben, Drew, Emma, Jack, Jane, Josie) commented that the books (graded readers) were interesting. Some of these students specifically commented that they liked books from which they could learn about Japanese culture. For example, Josie said she liked "the books about Japanese society or things about old stories and stuff like that" because it was "quite cool to learn about, um, stuff, not just purely language but culture as well" (Josie.int4.48). The books that other students found interesting were “tales and legends” (Jack.int3.54), “traditional Japanese stories” (Emma.jrl.16/3/09), and "children's stories" (Alan.int2.132).

Jack made a link between such books and his feelings about extensive reading:

… I really want to read the Japanese books cause … some of them are really good … it's kind of neat, it has some, like, Japanese, you know, tales and legends and things. (Jack.int3.54)
Thus Jack could learn about Japanese tales and legends from the reading materials, and such materials increased his desire to read in Japanese. Josie also commented that reading was more fun when she was reading the level three books, which contained more cultural material. The influence of interesting books on motivation to do extensive reading will be discussed in the subsequent section, 4.8 perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation.

Like easy books. In the second interview Emma said:

I like the level one books more. I think level two books are a little bit - some of them are a little bit hard, so they are not much fun. (Emma.int2.6)

In response to this comment, I asked if she enjoyed extensive reading more when she was reading the level one books, and she confirmed that she did, adding "because it was easy" (Emma.int2.10). Similarly, Josie commented in her journal: “so far I’m enjoying extensive reading because the books aren’t too hard to read” (Josie.jrnl.14/2/09). Thus Emma and Josie linked their ease in reading the books with their enjoyment.

Comprehensibility vs. interest. In contrast, Nick did not make the link between easy books and enjoying reading. Nick began reading level zero books when they became available towards the end of the project. He said "the level zero books were a lot easier" (Nick.int4.28). Until then he had to read the level one books, which he found challenging. In the fourth interview, Nick and I had the following exchange:

R: was it [reading level zero books] more fun, enjoyable?
N: hmm, about the same, cause they are little kids’ books more or less.

(Nick.int4.30)

Thus ease in understanding did not appear to affect how much he enjoyed reading. Nick implied that it was because the books were for children. The gap between his level of Japanese and his interest was implied four times in total in the third and fourth interviews. When asked what topics Nick wished he could read in Japanese he said:

… if I needed, like - the topics that I'd like to read would not be at the level of reading that I am at in Japanese… (Nick.int3.143)
In other words, because of the level of his Japanese, he could not read a book with a topic that he was interested in such as "war and action" and "fantasy" (Nick.int1.267-273). Therefore, he compromised, as he said, "you have to deal with that. Just suck it up" (Nick.int3.143).

For this reason it may be that the only benefit Nick perceived for extensive reading was learning words. It might even have led Nick to focus on learning vocabulary instead of reading for pleasure, to be discussed in the next category, **4.5 Reading purposes**. In addition, this finding has implications for extensive reading for low level young adults like Nick, which will be discussed in Chapter Six.

**4.4.2 Comprehension**

This sub-category is concerned with the participants' comments on the connections between the reading materials and the comprehension of text.

*Graded readers with pictures.* Although extensive reading did not get any more enjoyable with easy books, such books contained a lot of pictures, which assisted Nick in comprehending the story. He said the "pictures pretty much gave away most of what they were saying" (Nick.int4.28).

Alan liked the graded readers, as they have a picture on each page. In the second interview he said:

… they are, like, little kids’ books, so it’s, like, if you don’t get it, there is a picture. So you can kind of figure that out from the picture and then kind of figure that out. (Alan.int2.22)

Thus, pictures in the books facilitated his reading comprehension as well. Alan and Nick thought that the graded readers that they read were written for children, although I had explained that they were for JFL learners. Interestingly, their comments suggest that they had different perceptions about children's books. Alan seems to perceive them more positively, while Nick saw them more negatively, as discussed above.

*Kanji with hurigana.* Research has shown that reading texts written solely in *kanji* is a challenge for Japanese learners (Everson & Kuriya, 1998; Kondo-Brown, 2006; Sandom & Macalister, 2009). This phenomenon was observed in Tracey's think-aloud (Tracey.t-a1.p.1) where some *kanji* in the text did not have *hurigana* (a phonological assistance device). She could not read *kanji* 切 in 切りました
"kirimasita" which meant 'cut' (past tense). The word was used in the first part of the passage several times, and she could not fully understand what was going on. Knowing that the protagonist cut several places in his jeans to make them look fashionable was crucial for deeper understanding of the story, because later when he got on the bus wearing the jeans, an old lady wanted to give him money so that he could get a new pair of jeans. But, because Tracey could not figure out the kanji 異, she did not understand why the lady gave him the money. Consequently, she missed information important to understanding the story.

On the other hand, the graded readers that the participants had access to in this study provided hurigana (a phonological assistance device) with all kanji. When asked if he had a problem with kanji while reading the graded readers, Alan indicated that it was not a problem saying "all the kanji that I didn't know had hurigana so…” (Alan.int2.46). None of the participants reported that kanji caused them difficulty in this study. Indeed, as mentioned earlier (see 4.3 Perceived improvement attributed to extensive reading), Josie reported that she came to understand kanji without looking at hurigana more frequently.

In this section, it was revealed that the majority of the participants found the content of the graded readers interesting because of the cultural aspects. Such interesting books had an influence on their desire to read extensively. Easy books also made reading more fun. However, in Nick's case, the content of the graded readers did not interest him, and the easy level had no impact on his enjoyment. It was suggested that his perception that the reading materials were uninteresting was due to his low level of Japanese proficiency, which might have affected his purpose for doing extensive reading. The issue of reading purposes is discussed next. Pictures in the graded readers assisted comprehension and kanji with hurigana seemed to reduce the lack of comprehension that occurred in previous studies that used authentic Japanese books.

4.5 Purposes of extensive reading

This category includes codes concerning the purposes for doing extensive reading. The students' motives for participating in the project suggest that their purposes for doing extensive reading before they had started reading were chiefly
concerned with improving their Japanese. Some students maintained the same purpose over time. But some students read for a different purpose or added another purpose while they actually experienced extensive reading. Thus, the category is divided into two sub-categories: before and during the extensive reading project.

(a) Before the ER project
- Improve Japanese as motive
- Improve reading in Japanese as motive
- Do more Japanese outside school as motive
- ER would help with exams
- Do it for fun

(b) Once the project started
- Read to learn
- Books suited for learning
- ER adds a new purpose
- Read graded readers for learning and manga for fun

4.5.1 Before the extensive reading project

In this sub-category, the participants' purposes for doing extensive reading before they had actually experienced it are discussed.

*Improve Japanese as motive.* Of the nine participants, seven (Alan, Ben, Emma, Jack, Josie, Nick, Tracey) said that they decided to participate in the project in order to improve their Japanese. Tracey's comment represents the idea best:

I hope my Japanese improves from reading. (Tracey.int1.299)

The participants were provided with an information sheet, which included information about the benefits of extensive reading from research before they signed up for the project. Therefore, it is likely that the participants expected that extensive reading would help them improve their Japanese.

*Improve reading in Japanese as motive.* Ben and Jane mentioned improvement in their reading as one of their motivations. Jane said that she wanted to "get better at reading" (Jane.int1.237), and one of Ben's reasons was "to help my reading skill" (Ben.int1.246). The previous code and this code suggest that at the
beginning of the project, the participants probably read the books with the goal of improving their Japanese.

_Do more Japanese outside school as motive._ Drew gave "to do more Japanese outside of class" (Drew.int1.186) as the reason for participating in the extensive reading project. Only two months before the first interview, he had spent six weeks in Japan, staying with a Japanese family and attending a local high school. He said that communication with Japanese people was "quite hard":

… I went to high school for about a week and, like, I couldn't really, like, just talk with the students much. (Drew.int1.54)

Despite the difficulty, he said that "[he] enjoyed the whole time" in Japan. The trip seemed to have an impact on his L2 motivation; for example, he said:

… I'd like to keep doing it [Japanese]. I'd like to go back to Japan at some point… I'd like my Japanese to be better by next time. (Drew.int1.68-70)

Thus, in order to improve his Japanese for the next visit, he might have thought that he needed to use more Japanese outside of class as well, and decided to take up the opportunity.

Nick commented that he had always wanted to use more Japanese, but there was a "lack of determination" (Nick.int1.241). He further commented:

Like, learning at school is easy, but the thing I'm missing is work after school. To just do work outside school. (Nick.int1.245)

From this, it may be that he wanted to use extensive reading as an opportunity to study more Japanese. This makes sense because he commented about how much he hated study and said that extensive reading was a better way to study as mentioned earlier (see **4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading**). Nick also thought that studying more Japanese by reading extensively would help him with Japanese, saying that he decided to participate in the project "to help [his] Japanese" (Nick.in1.377). Therefore, it seems that both Drew and Nick had the ultimate goal of improving their Japanese beyond school.
ER would help with exams. In the first interview Josie said:

… extensive reading does sound like a good way to get better at Japanese and so I thought it would help me with my exam and stuff like that. (Josie.int1.239)

Josie seemed to hope that improving her Japanese would improve her exam performance. Nick also mentioned exams, saying "so I can also pass NCEA level 1" (Nick.int1.377). Even though other students made no comments about exams at the outset of the project, they probably had that in mind, considering how important the NCEA exams are for secondary school students. It is apparent that most participants perceived that extensive reading would help them in their exams (see 4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading).

Do it for fun. The preceding codes in this sub-category show that the major purpose the participants had for extensive reading was to improve their Japanese. This differs from researcher descriptions of extensive reading, such as Day and Bamford’s (2002) principles, that focus on how L2 learners are supposed to read in the L2 for pleasure, information, or general understanding and for its own intrinsic reward. Only Emma and Jane mentioned the fun aspect of extensive reading at the outset of the project. Emma said:

… it's always fun to read picture books… (Emma.int1.272)

Emma made this comment after she had talked about her hope that extensive reading would help with her Japanese. Jane's comment also clearly illustrates that improving her Japanese was more important:

… I thought it would be fun. It would be interesting. Um, just mostly to improve though, I think. (Jane.int1.237)

For the participants in this study, reading for pleasure might have been tangential to improving their Japanese before they actually experienced extensive reading.

Thus, the data show clearly that the participants started extensive reading with the idea that they wanted it to help improve their Japanese rather than to just enjoy
As they did more reading, their reading purposes became more diverse, to be discussed in the next subcategory.

4.5.2 Once the project started
The focus of this sub-category is the participants' reading purposes after they had actually started reading.

Read to learn. Seven students, Alan, Ben, Drew, Emma, Jack, Jane and Nick continued to read extensively to learn more Japanese. Alan commented that "it was just kind of to learn more" (Alan.int3.125). Also, Ben said that his purpose would have been to improve his Japanese, not for pleasure: "it's [reading Japanese books] not something I normally do in my spare time" (Ben.int3.70). Drew responded affirmatively when I asked if he wanted to learn something when he did extensive reading. Drew's reading-to-learn attitude was indicated by his preference for challenging books, "I learn new words and things reading those" (Drew.int3.44), whereas easy books are "not boring. It's just - I don't really learn anything reading them" (Drew.int3.46).

Reading materials suited for learning. Some of the participants above (Emma, Jack, Nick) provided reasons why they read extensively to learn Japanese. In the third interview when I asked Nick whether he did extensive reading for pleasure or for learning he said:

Uh, learning with these books would be better, cause they are not really ones that you can read for pleasure unless you are five or six years old. (Nick.int3.149)

As discussed earlier (see 4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading), this comment highlights that Nick perceived extensive reading as a study tool because the content of the reading materials did not interest him enough to engage his attention. Nick frequently made similar comments in the interviews about how the materials he could read at his level of Japanese were children's books. (See 4.4 Perceptions of reading materials).

In contrast, Emma and Jack were satisfied with the content of the reading materials. As mentioned earlier, they commented that the materials were interesting and that they enjoyed "traditional stories" and "legends and tales". However, they
reported that they used extensive reading to learn Japanese. When asked if Emma did extensive reading for pleasure or for learning she said:

Yeah, for learning, because it's sort of, like - with a short book, it's a bit different to reading a novel. Like, you really get into a novel cause there's a lot in the story. But with a short book, it was more just for Japanese. (Emma.int3.110)

Emma also thought that the reading materials had a simple storyline because of the shorter length. Such books were not as engaging as novels in English, and so she used extensive reading to learn more Japanese.

Jack made a comment about the difference between English books and the reading materials that he had read. He said:

… there's massive books in English that are not really to learn English. That's to, you know, study the story and things, but these [Japanese graded readers] are actually to learn the language… (Jack.int3.128)

He knew that the graded readers were written for JFL learners, and were not authentic books (from the third interview). In addition, Jack was very eager to improve his Japanese so that his dream of living in Japan and achieving native-like fluency would come true. He enjoyed some stories but he "put more focus on learning so [he could] understand more Japanese" (Jack.int3.106). His desire to improve his Japanese quickly might have influenced his purpose for reading.

To conclude, Emma, Jack and Nick's comments suggest that the reading materials were suited more for learning than for pleasure.

Extensive reading adds a new purpose. So far, the data have shown that the participants tended to consider extensive reading as a learning tool to improve their Japanese more than a pleasurable activity. Tracey and Josie seem to have been the only students whose reading purpose became chiefly for pleasure.

In the third interview, Tracey mentioned "fun and enjoyable" (Tracey.int3.97) as one of her likes about extensive reading. Her original motive for participating in the project was to improve her Japanese, but as she experienced extensive reading she discovered that reading was actually fun. Her comments in other parts of the interview also highlight that Tracey was reading for pleasure. For example, she
thought that it had been the right decision to start extensive reading because "[she] just found it fun" (Tracey.int3.181). When asked what she would tell other JFL learners about why they should do extensive reading she said:

... cause it's, like, enjoyable. It gives you more insight on Japanese culture a little bit too ... and it also helps with Japanese. (Tracey.int3.189)

Another example that Tracey read for pleasure is demonstrated in the comment about the voluntary nature of the extensive reading project (see 4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project). She contrasted homework with extensive reading, saying "I think homework is sort of forced ... just do reading, that's good because it relaxes you" (Tracey.int3.207). This comment seems to imply not only that she liked the fact that extensive reading was not part of schoolwork, but also that she read the Japanese books just to relax. In fact, the voluntary nature of the project might have created the conditions for her reading purposes to include pleasure as well as learning. Reading was more fun, since the extensive reading project enabled her to take responsibility for her own reading such as choices and reading speed (see 4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project). Thus the preponderance of her comments on her purposes suggest that Tracey read extensively mainly for pleasure.

The major reason why Josie started to read for pleasure is probably the reading materials. In the third interview, when asked if she did extensive reading for pleasure or to learn Japanese, she said:

I think it's a kind of mixture cause, um, I think at the start it was more because I wanted to improve, but then especially when I went up a level, there was, like, more interesting stories. Then I started reading more for pleasure as well ... (Josie.int3.94)

Thus, Josie's reading purpose was initially to improve her Japanese, but as she advanced to a higher level, she was able to read for pleasure as well because of the more interesting materials. They were more relevant to her interests (history and culture) and the language used was not as basic as in the lower level books (Josie.int4.84) (see 4.4 Perceptions of reading materials). These comments suggest
that the more interesting books facilitated a change in reading purpose by including reading for pleasure.

The data indicate that in the cases of Tracey and Josie, reading for pleasure was added to reading to improve as they experienced extensive reading. Interestingly, Jane seemed to have different purposes depending on whether she was reading the graded readers provided for the project or manga (Japanese comics) that she acquired herself, to be discussed next.

Read graded readers for learning and manga for fun. In the third interview Jane said:

… easy books are just easy to understand and you don't have to think about much. But harder books, I like to read when I want to learn more vocab or kanji or something. (Jane.int3.74)

This comment led me to think that Jane possibly had different reading purposes depending on whether a book was easy or harder. She said that she liked to read more challenging readers, saying "if it's too easy, then it just - you don't learn vocab or kanji or whatever" (Jane.int3.80). Therefore, it seems that her reading purpose when she read graded readers was mainly to learn Japanese.

However, the following comment implies that when she read manga she had a different reading purpose:

I think I mostly, like, for the extensive reading bits, I read it so I can learn. But other books [manga], just maybe for fun, because they're easy. (Jane.int3.131)

In terms of manga that she had read outside of class, ease in understanding was perceived positively and she read them for pleasure. I asked Jane to clarify the different purposes. Jane and I had the following exchange:

R: … the purpose of extensive reading is to read for pleasure.
J: Yeah, but I separate it by school and fun, because school is just school and fun's fun.
R: So the graded readers fit into school.
J: yeah, it's just school. ((laugh))
R: that's interesting.
J: like, otherwise, I don't think I would read … the level books for fun. Like I just read it to learn, whereas manga, I just read for fun. (Jane.int4.405-410)

It is clear from the above comment that Jane read the graded readers with the purpose of learning new words and kanji, since the extensive reading project was associated with schoolwork (possibly because the recruitment and project itself took place at school to facilitate participation for the students).

In this category, I discussed codes that denote the participants' reading purposes when they did extensive reading. Although all the participants seemed to have primarily read in order to improve their Japanese, their purposes became more diverse with more reading experience. Extensive reading added the new purpose of reading for pleasure for Josie and Tracey. For Jane, the project was considered to be part of schoolwork and was not pleasurable reading like reading manga. For the rest of the students, reading to learn Japanese remained the main purpose of reading. The reading purpose might have been influenced by the voluntary nature of the project. Some students liked that it was not mandatory like homework. Consequently it may have promoted reading for pleasure more than for learning.

Josie and Janet's comments suggest that the reading purpose might be related to how relevant reading materials are to their interests. Josie started to read for pleasure more when she began the level three books which were about Japanese history and culture. Jane read manga for pleasure because they had more of the casual language that she wanted to learn.

In this chapter so far, themes from extensive reading and the project have been discussed. I will focus on how the participants' experiences with extensive reading might have influenced their affect about learning Japanese in the next section.

4.6 Affect

In this category, codes that are concerned with how the participants' experiences with the extensive reading project had an affective influence on learning Japanese, not just L2 reading, are discussed. Some participants commented that extensive reading made the learning more enjoyable and that it made them want to learn more Japanese without being prompted in the second interview. Therefore,
questions about whether extensive reading made the learning more enjoyable and whether it made them want to learn more Japanese were asked in some of the subsequent interviews. The codes classified as this category are:

- No impact
- No change in attitudes towards Japanese
- Right frame of mind
- L2 learning more enjoyable
- Want to learn more Japanese
- Want to do more class work
- Want to know more about context
- More positive feeling towards studying Japanese
- More positive feeling towards kanji

Table 4.4

*The distribution of the codes classified as affective influence on learning Japanese*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Interview 2</th>
<th>Interview 3</th>
<th>Interview 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>No change in attitudes</td>
<td>Want to learn more Japanese</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Want to do more class work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>Want to learn more Japanese</td>
<td>Want to learn more Japanese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Josie</td>
<td>L2 learning more enjoyable</td>
<td>L2 learning more enjoyable</td>
<td>More positive feeling towards studying Japanese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Want to learn about context</td>
<td>More positive feeling towards kanji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracey</td>
<td>No impact</td>
<td>Want to learn more Japanese</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alan</td>
<td>Right frame of mind</td>
<td>No change in attitudes</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>No impact</td>
<td>No impact</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drew</td>
<td>No impact</td>
<td>No impact</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>Want to do more class work</td>
<td>L2 learning more enjoyable</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nick</td>
<td>No change in attitudes</td>
<td>Want to learn more Japanese</td>
<td>L2 learning more enjoyable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 above shows the distribution of the codes classified within this category. Data indicate that all but two participants (Ben and Drew) were aware of the impact of extensive reading. All the codes except *No impact* and *No change in attitudes* indicate that extensive reading positively influenced how they felt about L2 learning. No negative impact was identified.

*No impact.* As is evident, Ben and Drew reported that their feelings about studying Japanese did not change because of extensive reading. They both agreed that
extensive reading was a positive experience and perceived the benefits (see 4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading). However, the positive perceptions of extensive reading did not seem to spread to wider L2 learning. Ben and Drew read the least amount of books among the nine participants. It may be that, if they had experienced extensive reading more, it might have influenced the way they felt about studying Japanese. This appeared to happen to Tracey, who reported no impact in the second interview, but became aware of the impact of extensive reading in the third interview, reporting that extensive reading made her want to learn more Japanese.

No change in attitudes towards Japanese. This code was identified in three students' (Alan, Emma and Nick) comments in the interviews. For example, in the second interview Emma said:

I’ve been positive about it, so it just kept it like that. (Emma.int2.93)

Thus, this code differs from the previous code, in that the three students indicated that they had already had positive attitudes towards learning Japanese before the extensive reading project, whereas Ben and Drew provided no indication of what their attitudes were at the beginning of the project.

Additionally, Nick indicated that it was his attitudes that influenced his desire to do extensive reading. In the second interview Nick said:

I think, more or less, me learning Japanese is more likely to affect that I want to do the extensive reading… it’s the opposite way around. (Nick.int2.92)

Possibly, Nick said this because he had not done much reading at the time of making this comment. As claimed before, a sufficient amount of reading may be necessary in order for L2 learners to perceive the benefits and improvements. Similarly, the affective impact of extensive reading on L2 learning might not be perceived without a sufficient amount of reading. Experience with extensive reading seemed to be necessary for it to have an influence on L2 learning, as the subsequent codes will show.

Right frame of mind. This code emerged from Alan’s interview data. In the second interview he said:

… I read the books in the library and just do some Japanese as well. Like, get my Japanese homework out of the way, because it’s, like, I’m in the right
frame of mind. So that, I guess, goes hand in hand with studying Japanese.

(Alan.int2.144)

This comment indicates that extensive reading worked as a warm-up and that extensive reading prepared him mentally for doing other work related to Japanese. In other words, the positive effect that extensive reading had on Alan's attitudes towards Japanese was concerned with being prepared to learn. In contrast, for others the positive effect was on enjoying learning Japanese more, to be discussed next.

_L2 learning more enjoyable._ Three participants (Josie, Jack, Nick) reported that extensive reading made the learning of Japanese more enjoyable. In the category **4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading**, it was shown that extensive reading provided an opportunity to read in Japanese for pleasure and to learn real Japanese. Jack and Josie indicated that these are some of the reasons why extensive reading made learning more enjoyable.

Nick reported that extensive reading made no impact on his attitudes toward learning Japanese at the early stage of the project. However, in the fourth interview, when asked if extensive reading had made the learning more enjoyable, Nick said:

Yeah. Learning from reading is a lot better than studying, yeah.

(Nick.int4.204)

Thus, it seemed that extensive reading had an impact on how he felt about Japanese, because he perceived extensive reading as more positive than studying, which involved “looking over the book and writing notes down” (Nick.int3.241) and “trying to memorise words and stuff” (Nick.int4.84) as discussed earlier (see **4.2 Perceived benefits of extensive reading**).

_Want to learn more Japanese._ The concept that extensive reading increased the desire to learn more Japanese was apparent in four participants’ interview data (Emma, Jane, Tracey, Jack). Jane’s comment illustrates the concept:

… I want to know a lot more words, and I want to know how to say a lot more stuff. So, yeah, I think it has a good impact. (Jane.int4.197)

In the third interview Jack explained that, depending on whether the book was easy, good or difficult, it motivated him differently. When the books were easy he felt
satisfied that he wanted to keep learning. When the books were at a good level with some unknown words, it made him “want to read them really fast, so I kind of want to learn a bit more”. And with a difficult book, it made him “want to learn more so that [he could] understand that” (Jack.int3.164). He read a book about sushi in the early stages of the project, and it was too difficult. He later went back and was able to understand slightly more. He pointed out in the end that noticing that he could read better was “good motivation” which made him “want to learn more so understand more” (Jack.int3.164).

Want to do more class work. Two participants (Emma, Jack) reported that extensive reading increased their desire to do more class work. Jack’s comment in the second interview demonstrates this:

… I find a lot of stuff which I use in reading, I learn from class. So, it kind of makes me want to do more class work, so then I can understand reading a bit more. (Jack.int2.56)

In Emma’s case, whether the desire was caused by extensive reading or not is not as clear as with Jack. In the second interview, Emma and I had the following exchange:

R: Does your experience with reading make you want to work harder in class?
A: Yeah. And also I think this year I’ve been kind of slack with studying Japanese so…
R: Have you?
A: um, I have been and I think also that might be why I want to study the vocab more and stuff… (Emma.int2.95-98)

As can be seen, the feeling that she must work harder might be a factor that contributed to Emma feeling like doing more class work than extensive reading. Emma mentioned that she had overcommitted herself to numerous after-school activities and had not had time to study. Therefore, Emma did not think that she had worked hard on Japanese that year, although she mentioned that she should have done so, in order to do well at university in the following year.

Want to know more about context. The next three codes emerged from Josie’s interview data. In the third interview Josie commented that she found the higher level
books more interesting, as she was able to learn about the Japanese history (see 4.4 Perceptions of reading materials). When I asked Josie if extensive reading made her want to learn more, she made the following comment:

… that makes you want to learn more about, like, the context at the time and stuff like that. So I think, when you get a little bit of knowledge, then you want to learn more. (Josie.int4.185)

The books that were relevant to her interests in culture and history contributed to increase her desire to learn more about the context (e.g., the Edo period). Thus, this experience with reading such interesting books extended her desire to the target culture learning.

More positive feeling towards studying Japanese. Analysis of the data based on most of the codes in this category so far (except no impact and no change in attitudes towards Japanese) indicate that extensive reading increased some of the participants’ desire to learn Japanese (both language and non-language) and their enjoyment of the learning because of the benefits (e.g., interesting books, opportunity to read for pleasure, better way of studying). The next two codes slightly differ from the previous codes in that these two codes indicate a less direct relationship between extensive reading and affect, as is described below.

Josie commented about the positive impact of extensive reading as below:

… because I feel, like, I’m improving, it makes you want to learn more and improve more, sort of, yeah. (Josie.int4.200)

Seven months after Josie started extensive reading, she noticed the improvement that she could understand Japanese texts and write in Japanese without relying on her L1 too much (see 4.3 Perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading). That contributed to her positive feeling and motivation for L2 learning, because what she did in class was easier and she could extend herself to work on the scholarship exams as well (Josie.int4.200). Thus, extensive reading contributed to her perception that she had improved, which motivated her to learn more.

More positive feeling towards kanji. Josie seemed to have an uncertain and possibly even negative attitude toward kanji until the last stage of the project. In the first interview she said, “I find it hard”, although she also thought, “they look really
interesting to draw” (Josie.int1.91). This less positive attitude toward kanji was consistent in the second and the third interview. To illustrate, when asked what Josie disliked about Japanese class she said:

I don’t like having to learn kanji cause I was really bad at it. (Josie.int2.92)

In the third interview Josie and I had the following exchange:

R: …anything that you didn’t enjoy, didn’t like about Japanese?
J: Not really anything I didn’t like. I’m not very good at kanji though.
R: Oh yeah? Are you still struggling?
J: No, I can do it. It’s just, I don’t know, it’s not as fun as the other Japanese stuff. (Josie.int3.200-203)

Because of this relatively negative attitude, she had “less motivation for kanji” (Josie.int3.275).

In Josie's case, extensive reading might have contributed to change her attitudes towards kanji. In the fourth interview, which was conducted seven months after she started extensive reading, Josie commented that she had encountered more kanji through the reading, and the exposure enabled her to read kanji that she had not been able to read before. Consequently, she gained confidence and “that makes you more positive about kanji” (Josie.int4.358). This was demonstrated in the fourth interview, when Josie said:

I think it’s getting better for kanji… I think, because of the books and things, I’ve started to find that obviously I can read, like, parts that I hadn’t been able to read before… cause you’ve started being able to do it, that makes you more positive towards kanji. (Josie.int4.358)

Thus, it seems that the perceived improvement in kanji changed her attitudes, and the improved attitudes increased her motivation for kanji.

In this section, the affective influences that extensive reading had on the participants' learning of Japanese were discussed. This section focused on the impact on wider L2 learning rather than only L2 reading. Most students perceived that extensive reading influenced them affectively, such as increasing their enjoyment in
learning Japanese and their desire to learn L2, and fostering more positive attitudes towards L2 learning and kanji. Alan exhibited a somewhat different influence in that his attitude was focused on being prepared to learn. Two students seemed to perceive no impact on how they felt about learning Japanese. It may be that the two students did not read enough for extensive reading to have an affective impact on them, because Ben (who read less) in particular perceived fewer benefits and no improvements compared with the other participants.

4.7 Change in motivational intensity and enjoyment of extensive reading

The extensive reading project was initially to be carried out during term one and term two (about five months including two week school holidays). However, four students (Jack, Jane, Josie and Nick) extended the project to term three (see section 3.3.4). Therefore, the data collection period lasted almost eight months for these students. The long data collection period enabled me to observe the ups and downs of effort that they expended in doing extensive reading and the enjoyment that they derived from reading, instead of simply a snapshot of these two things.

In this section, first, I discuss change and individual differences in how much effort the participant expended on extensive reading. All participants perceived extensive reading positively and seemed to have a desire to do the reading (presumably otherwise they would not have volunteered), but the actual amount of reading they did varied among the participants. Also, each of the students seemed to expend a different amount of effort at different times during the project. The amount of effort expended by the participants, in other words “motivational intensity” (Gardner, 1985. p. 53), is assessed here by determining the number of the books they reported reading and the amount of time they reported spending on reading in this study. According to Gardner (1985), motivational intensity refers to one of the four aspects in motivation, "effortful behaviour". The other three are "a goal", "a desire to attain the goal" and "favourable attitudes toward the activity" (Gardner, 1985, p, 50). A goal is a reason for doing something (such as learning L2), which does not indicate the strength of motivation. The strength of motivation is determined by three aspects (a desire to learn the L2, motivational intensity, attitudes toward learning the L2 attitudes). Gardner (1985) discusses motivation in terms of learning an L2 as the goal. For this study, I adapted the concept that doing extensive reading is the goal.
Thus, the other three aspects are desire to do extensive reading, motivational intensity (effort to do extensive reading) and attitudes toward doing extensive reading.

This part differs from other sections of this chapter in that the findings are based on examining the students' reading records, instead of the interview and journal data. However, the findings are corroborated by the participants’ comments from the interviews and journal entries. The results indicate three patterns in change in motivational intensity over time with the following codes.

- Motivational intensity increased
- Motivational intensity decreased
- Motivational intensity remained the same

Second, change in the enjoyment the participants gained from reading will be discussed. Enjoyment would be equivalent to attitudes toward extensive reading in Gardner's concept. Roughly four patterns of change in enjoyment were identified by the following codes.

- More enjoyable when novel
- More enjoyable as you get into it
- More enjoyable in first half and less enjoyable in second half
- No change

4.7.1 Change in motivational intensity

As mentioned in Chapter Three, each participant kept a record of the name of the book, the reading time and the perceived difficulty level every time they had finished a book. The amount and time spent reading the materials are shown in Table 4.5 below.

Of the nine participants, five took part in the project in terms one and two, and four participated in terms one, two, and three. Therefore, the students who did not extend the project period have -------- in the term 3 cell. I note that Tracey lost the reading record towards the end of term one. I had the copy of her record only up to 15 books, so after that the amount is based on her memory and all of the reading time could not be recovered. Drew and Emma did not fill in the record sheet completely and the reading time could not be accurately calculated. For example, the record showed that Emma took 1.21 hours to read six books, but she did not write down the...
time taken for the other two books. Therefore, $1.21 \text{ hr +}$ is used in the term two cell and $3.74 \text{ hr +}$ is used in the total cell. The participants are sequenced according to the total number of books they reported reading.

Table 4.5

*Reading amount and time according to the book record sheet during Term 1, 2 and 3*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Term 1 (8 weeks)</th>
<th>Term 2 (10 weeks)</th>
<th>Term 3 (9 weeks)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Josie</td>
<td>17 (3.60 hr)</td>
<td>11 (6.40 hr)</td>
<td>6 (6.20 hr)</td>
<td>34 (16.40 hr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracey</td>
<td>16 (4.03 hr +)</td>
<td>10 (-)</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>26 (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emma</td>
<td>15 (2.53 hr)</td>
<td>8 (1.21 hr +)</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>23 (3.74 hr +)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alan</td>
<td>6 (3.23 hr)</td>
<td>10 (6.84 hr)</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>16 (10.07 hr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jane</td>
<td>13 (2.84 hr)</td>
<td>2 (0.4 hr)</td>
<td>0 (0 hr)</td>
<td>15 (3.24 hr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nick</td>
<td>2 (1.25 hr)</td>
<td>4 (3.75 hr)</td>
<td>8 (2.68 hr)</td>
<td>14 (7.43 hr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack</td>
<td>6 (7.25 hr)</td>
<td>4 (3.6 hr)</td>
<td>2 (1.5 hr)</td>
<td>12 (12.35 hr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drew</td>
<td>5 (1.15 hr)</td>
<td>3 (0.5 hr +)</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>8 (1.65 hr +)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>3 (0.75 hr)</td>
<td>4 (1.08 hr)</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>7 (1.83 hr)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may appear that none of the participants read as extensively as L2 learners in the previous studies in which extensive reading was part of the course and/or they were rewarded for doing the reading. Although they were advised to read at least one book a week, only two students (Josie and Tracey) read more than the recommended amount on average in both terms one and two. Three students (Alan, Emma, Jane) met /exceeded the recommended amount in one of the terms. However, the nine participants read in Japanese more than they would have done if they had not participated in the project, because the first interview revealed that they had not read any books in Japanese before the project. They had read mostly short passages in class except Jane who had read some *manga* (Japanese comics) at home. If they did not take the opportunity, it is likely that they would have continued reading only short texts at school.

Table 4.5 shows that Josie read the most number of books. Even if we deduct the six books that she read during term three (when only four of the participants continued with the project), she still read the most. Ben read the least amount, but if Nick did not continue reading in term three, he would have been at the bottom of the list.
All participants were asked to start from the lowest level books. In term one the girls read thirteen to seventeen books while the boys read only three to six books. One possible explanation for the difference is their proficiency level in Japanese. The girls were year 13 students and the boys were year 11 and 12 students, so the girls' Japanese was more advanced than the boys. Therefore, the girls were able to read the lowest level books faster, and consequently read more books.

In term two all the girls read fewer books. There are several possible explanations. Josie and Tracey continued reading regularly, but because they moved up a level it took longer for each of them to finish a book. Emma also took more time reading the level two books, but her comment below indicates that a lack of time hindered her from doing the reading:

Last term [term one] I was reading more of it. Maybe two books a week. But this term [term two] it’s been really busy, so not quite so often.
(Emma.int2.28)

Jane similarly discontinued reading by the middle of term two because of the time problem. The negative influences on extensive reading motivation will be discussed below (see 4.9 Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation).

Alan, Ben and Nick read more books in term two than in term one. But Ben’s increase is marginal, since four books is nowhere near the recommended reading amount. He also discontinued reading half way through term two. On the other hand, Alan’s reading amount increased from six books to ten books, which indicates that on average he read the recommended amount of one book a week. His comment in his journal during term two demonstrates his effort to read as below:

The reading is good, I have tried to pick up my workload for it.
(Alan.jrnl.27/5/09)

The reason why he tried harder in term two will be discussed in the next section (see 4.8 Positive influences on L2 reading).

Nick managed only two books in term one. As mentioned before, the reading materials were not appropriate both in terms of the level and interest, because they contained a lot of unknown words and he perceived them as children's books. Also he had a time problem affecting the amount he could read, to be discussed in depth in
section 4.9. However, in term two, despite the difficulty, he managed to read twice as much, as shown in Table 4.5. His comment in the journal also supports this:

Extensive reading is going ok, I've started to read more books.

(Nick.jrnl.5/6/09)

He also said that he “put a little bit more of effort in” (Nick.int3.4) in the third interview, while reflecting on term two, and once the easier graded readers (level zero) were made available to him, he was able to read them faster. As a result he managed to read eight books.

Before the project, I anticipated that the number of books the participants read would reflect motivational intensity. However, it was not as straightforward as anticipated, since in terms of the number of books the participants read, it appears that Alan and Nick were the only students whose motivational intensity increased. It led me to wonder why someone like Josie, who read most consistently for three terms, was not as motivated as students like Alan and Nick.

Table 4.5 also shows the amount of time that the participants spent on extensive reading. Although the number of books Josie read decreased from seventeen to eleven, the amount of time she spent reading increased from 3.6 hours to 6.4 hours in term 2. In term three she read only six books, but spent 6.2 hours reading them.

As mentioned above, the advanced levels of the graded readers contained more words and more complex language. In the second interview, which took place shortly after she started the level two books, Josie said:

I wanted to read more level two books to make sure that I could, yeah, do, like - make it like it was for level one, so I could just read it. (Josie.int2.76)

It was clear from the context in which she made this comment that Josie spent more time on reading the higher level books with the aim of being able to “just read it” as easily as she could read level one books. Later on, in term three, she even read a level four book, which took longer than a level three book. It is necessary to take into account how much time the participants spent on reading in order to see the extent of motivational intensity.
Jack is another example of why reading time needs to be considered. He read twelve books in total, which is sixth out of nine students, but his reading time of 12.35 hours is the second longest after Josie. In term one in particular he spent 7.25 hours to read six books, which is twice as long as Josie’s reading time in term one. He may not have read many books, but spent considerably more time on extensive reading than the other participants. This may be partly because he persevered even though there was a lot he did not understand in the books (Jack.int3.38; Jack.int4.97). It can be said that his motivational intensity was quite high in term one. Both the number of books Jack read and amount of time he spent reading them decreased in terms two and three. He admitted in the third and forth interviews that he had not read as much as in term one, although he maintained very positive attitudes and a desire to read extensively. His comments indicated several reasons for the decrease, which will be discussed below (see 4.9 Perceived negative influences on L2 reading).

Lastly, when the number of books, amount of time spent on reading, and comments from the interviews and journal entries are considered, the participants can be divided into three groups according to change in motivational intensity of extensive reading. Alan, Josie and Nick’s motivation increased with time, Emma, Jack and Jane’s motivation decreased, and Ben and Drew’s motivation was stable at the lower level.

As for Tracey, it appears that her motivation decreased in terms of the number of books she read. However, in both the second and third interviews she reported that she had been reading regularly, and read most level one and two books and started reading the level three books like Josie. I would assign her to the first group because it seemed that she at least maintained her motivation to do extensive reading at a higher level, even if it did not increase.

Those whose motivational intensity decreased or remained at a lower level nonetheless had positive perceptions of extensive reading (see 4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project). Positive perceptions and the actual effort that the participants expended do not necessarily correspond. As described above, Jack in particular had very positive attitudes and a strong desire to read extensively even when he was not reading much. The mismatch is likely to be caused by the interplay of numerous influences (positive and negative). The positive and negative influences will be discussed in the following sections.
4.7.2 Change in enjoyment

In section **4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project**, it was shown that the extensive reading project was perceived as a positive experience on the whole. However, the analysis of the longitudinal data reveals that some students experienced change in their enjoyment levels over time. In this subsection, the codes that represent such change are presented.

*More enjoyable when novel.* In the second interview, which was conducted ten weeks after he had started extensive reading, Alan said:

… it was not just as enjoyable as at the start because I guess it was something I did more often, so that wasn’t as new. (Alan.int2.34)

He enjoyed reading more at the beginning because of the novelty, but then it weakened towards the end of term one. However, after the school holidays, extensive reading became more enjoyable again because, as Alan said, “it’s kind of like started again” (Alan.int2.36). He regained this sense of novelty after a short break and managed to maintain his motivation to do extensive reading. As a result, he read more books and spent more time reading in term two than in term one.

*More enjoyable as you get into it.* On the other hand, some participants’ comments indicate the opposite. Josie and Tracey said that they enjoyed extensive reading more once they got accustomed to reading the Japanese books (Josie.int2.18; Tracey.int2.58). Jack also came to like extensive reading more, as he could understand the books more easily (Jack.int2.14).

Overall Josie’s enjoyment increased over time; however, she talked about what happened after the school holidays:

I think it starts a little bit low cause … it’s a bit hard to keep reading if you can’t come back and get some new books and stuff. But, um, yeah, and then as you can get back into it, it gets higher again. (Josie.int4.12)

Thus a break from reading lessened her enjoyment slightly and Josie had to try getting back into the routine. Interestingly, holidays appeared to have the opposite impact on Alan. As described above, he felt more enjoyment and motivated to do the reading after the holidays.
Nick seemed to take a lot longer to derive enjoyment from extensive reading. Extensive reading was “okay” (Nick.int2.3) in term one. However, in the third interview, Nick reported that the reading became “better than it was before when [he] started” (Nick.int3.4). The enjoyment he derived from reading in term three when he read easier books was “about the same” (Nick.int4.30) as term two. Thus, his enjoyment appeared to grow from term one to term two and stabilised in term three.

The participants completed the motivational questionnaire three times during the project, as stated in the methodology chapter. Nick's responses to four statements that are related to enjoyment/interest in reading illustrate the positive change in his attitudes to reading in Japanese. At the beginning of term one, he ticked all statements 'agree', and after term two he responded more positively, so that two items were ticked 'strongly agree'.

**More enjoyable in first half and less enjoyable in second half.** In the second interview when asked if she enjoyed reading in term two, Emma said “it wasn’t as good” (Emma.int3.8). Jane also indicated a decrease in enjoyment in term two saying “I couldn’t enjoy the books that much” (Jane.int3.14).

Emma's responses to four motivational questionnaire items related to enjoyment/interest in reading support the decline in enjoyment that the interview data indicate. Emma responded 'strongly agree' to four items just after term one, suggesting that she enjoyed extensive reading to high degree. On the other hand, after term two, Emma ticked 'agree' on three items and 'neutral' on one item ("it is fun to read in Japanese").

As mentioned above, Emma and Jane’s motivational intensity for extensive reading decreased in term two compared to term one. This means that the enjoyment they derived from reading was consistent with motivational intensity. Their comments in the interviews and journals suggested explanations for the decrease, and they will be discussed in the next category, **4.9 Negative influences on L2 reading motivation**.

**No change.** Ben and Drew, who exhibited a steadily low degree of motivational intensity to read extensively, reported no change in the enjoyment they derived from extensive reading. When asked if their enjoyment had changed since the project had begun, Ben responded negatively (Ben.int2.26). Both of them responded affirmatively twice when I asked if the enjoyment was stable (Ben.int2.28;
In this section it was shown that motivational intensity and enjoyment were dynamic. The data indicate that four students’ motivational intensity increased while five students’ motivation decreased or remained low. In terms of enjoyment, four students derived enjoyment as they experienced extensive reading more, one student enjoyed reading more when it was new to him, four students enjoyed reading less with time or remained the same.

Moreover, it seems that motivational intensity and enjoyment go hand in hand with most participants in this study. However, the data did not reveal which is cause and which is effect. It might be that they read more books and/or spent more time reading because they enjoyed reading, or they enjoyed reading more as a result of expending more effort. Nor was it clear whether they expended less effort because they did not enjoy reading, or they did not enjoy reading because they did not read many books or spend much time on it.

One thing in common among all the participants is that they maintained positive attitudes to extensive reading. This does not accord with Gardner's (1985) argument that the three aspects of motivation (desire to do an activity, motivational intensity, and attitudes towards the activity) are connected, because all the participants had positive attitudes towards extensive reading, but many of them did not maintain motivational intensity and the desire to do extensive reading. For example, Jack's motivational intensity decreased in term two and term three, but he maintained the desire to do the reading and a positive attitude.

This section suggested that there are links between change in motivational intensity and its influences; many of these links were made by the participants in their interviews and corroborated by the analysis of the questionnaire data. In the next two categories, both positive and negative influences on motivational intensity will be the focus.
4.8 Perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation

In this section, codes that denote participants’ perceptions about what contributed to sustain and/or increase their motivation to do extensive reading are discussed. The following codes are in this category.

- Satisfaction
- Making progress
- Set a goal and stick to it
- Extensive reading not compulsory
- Self motivating
- Pressure to read
- Notion that extensive reading is helpful
- Extensive reading was part of routine
- Fun to read
- Books available
- Easy books
- Interesting books

Satisfaction. Four participants’ (Jack, Jane, Josie, Tracey) comments suggest that they felt satisfied when they could read a book in Japanese. Words that they used to describe the feeling include: “rewarding” (Jack.jrnl.16/3/09) and “good” (Tracey.int3.82). Jane put it succinctly:

It feels good to be able to read in another language and understand it. It’s very motivating. (Jane.jrnl.15/3/09)

As mentioned earlier, the participants had little prior experience with reading books in Japanese. It may be that through extensive reading they discovered that they could read a book in Japanese (L2), and that gave them feelings of satisfaction.

Making progress. Satisfaction also seems to be linked with the students’ notion that they are making/want to make progress in their reading (Jack, Jane, Josie, Tracey). For example, Tracey said:

At the beginning I found the level one ones kind of challenging then later on I could read level two ones, so that’s good. (Tracey.int2.56)
The students also gained satisfaction when they were able to more easily read books which were challenging at first and so advance to a higher level. Jane said:

I like how they’re levelled because then the readers can feel like they’re improving. (Jane.jrn1.15/3/09)

Thus, the graded readers probably helped the participants notice their progress. Josie’s comment below indicates the relationship between making progress and motivation to read:

I want to read more level two books to make sure that I could do, like, make it like level one, so I could just read it. (Josie.int2.76)

Her desire to read the new level’s books as easily as the previous level’s books motivated her to continue reading. Jack's comment below is another example. In the second interview he said:

When I read the books I can read them faster and better. So I want to keep doing this and read more and more. (Jack.int2.118)

Jack noticed that his reading improved, and the perceived improvement contributed to his increased desire to do extensive reading.

Reading not compulsory. A similar code, reading not homework, was classified as 4.1 Evaluation of the extensive reading project. Some participants liked the project because it was not something they had to do. Josie's comment below implies that the autonomy she was given was also a positive influence on her motivation to do extensive reading. She said:

It's not like a compulsory thing, so … if you told us we had to do it, it'd be probably more like better not do it. (Josie.int3.59)

In other words, the fact that the reading was up to her was probably one of the positive influences that enabled her to continue extensive reading.

Self motivating. This code is closely related to the code above. Because the participants had to take responsibility for their own reading (e.g., what, when, how much, how fast to read) ability to motivate oneself played a role in maintaining the motivation to read extensively. Josie said:
... it's sort of your own choice to do things and I think... well it's probably for me cause I can sort of motivate myself to do it, maybe for someone...who wasn't as motivated, it would be better if it was compulsory, so they knew they had to do it ... (Josie.int3.148)

It might have been difficult to sustain motivation without her ability to motivate herself when nothing was making her do the reading. In Alan's case, he set explicit goals to motivate himself to do extensive reading. As will be discussed next, he decided to read one book a week and adhered to it in term two, as he considered meeting his goal as important. On the other hand, as will be discussed in the next section, some participants perceived that they needed external pressure in order to read extensively. This is probably because they were not able to motivate themselves as well as Josie or Alan.

*Set an explicit realistic goal and stick to it.* Making progress in their reading appeared to help some students maintain their motivation to read extensively as discussed above. While they might have had making progress as their implicit goal, Alan seemed to consciously employ a goal-setting strategy to maintain his motivation to do extensive reading.

Indeed, all participants were asked to set goals for the number of books they wanted to read by the end of the project. Some students did set goals, while some did not. Alan did not say exactly how many books he wanted to read in total, but he said:

... I make sure I read one, at least, a week. (Alan.jrnl.11/3/09)

One book a week was the suggested reading amount as a starting point at the outset of the project. As Table 4.5 shows, Alan did not achieve his goal in term one. It was not easy for anyone to read even one book a week on average in term two. But he adhered to his goal and read ten books in term two. When asked why he had made more effort in term two, he said that he had to stick to the goal that he had set in his journal (Alan.int3.21-25). This was a surprising response because none of the other participants seemed to bother with their goals. I challenged him saying “you could have ignored the goal” and he said:

Yeah, but do you get the point in that? (Alan.int3.80)
So I said, "do you feel it’s important to achieve it?" (Alan.int3.81). Then he responded affirmatively. In the second interview, Alan said that he had been attending tutorials (not related to Japanese) after school since the beginning of that year, and that he had learned some useful strategies including goal setting to enhance his academic performance. Therefore, he had used the strategy more that year than in previous years. He indicated the tutorials had a positive impact on his motivation saying "they are quite motivation boosting" (Alan.int2.218). If he had not gone to the tutorials, he might have been unable to sustain engagement with extensive reading.

*Having pressure to read.* In the third interview, Alan said:

Well you know, it was there, so I felt pressure to read it, like I couldn’t just put it somewhere and forget about it type of thing. (Alan.int3.71)

Thus, Alan felt pressure to read extensively, which was another surprising response from him, because the reading was voluntary, and the participants were only asked to read as many books as they could (although at least one book a week was suggested), as mentioned before. It appears that just knowing that the books were in the classroom or his school bag pressured him to read. Alternatively, it may be that Alan consciously put pressure on himself because he wanted to achieve his goal. In contrast, analysis of the data indicates that some participants (e.g., Ben, Drew, Emma, Nick) perceived a lack of pressure to read, which resulted in them not reading as much as they might have (see 4.9 Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation).

*Notion that extensive reading is helpful.* For some participants, the notion that extensive reading was helpful contributed to sustaining their motivation to read extensively. When asked why Jack continued extensive reading he said:

… because it's taught me so much… (Jack.int3.78)

He also indicated his strong desire to read in Japanese more than read in English, saying "that's what I really want to read, the Japanese books, cause they help so much" (Jack.int3.54).

In the fourth interview I tried to get Josie to talk to me about why she read almost every day on weekdays (except school holidays and the first month of the project) for three terms. She said:
… I view it [extensive reading] as it does help me for my, like, future Japanese, so I should do it anyway… I just feel like I should do it, so I do. (Josie.int4.325)

Although Josie did not explicitly state this, she may have come to believe that because of the numerous benefits that she perceived (see Table 4.1) extensive reading would be helpful to achieve her dream, which was to become a diplomat and work in Japan.

**Extensive reading was part of routine.** The participants led busy lives where they had to juggle various things such as schoolwork, extracurricular activities, socialising and so on. One of the factors that separated those who continued to read regularly from those who did not was whether they could fit extensive reading into their routine. Alan and Josie (and presumably Tracey as well) read more books and/or spent more time reading and read more than the recommended amount in term two. A common theme emerging from their comments is that it was easy to fit the reading in (Alan.int2.116; Josie.int3.25; Tracey.int2.72). In the fourth interview Josie elaborated:

… It's already started putting Japanese into my routine. It was a lot easier for me to just keep going because it was already there. (Josie.int4.327)

Therefore, despite being as busy with her schoolwork as everyone else, she could keep reading because she had already established a routine. As she explained,

I read in English for pleasure anyway, and then that's all it is, just switching to different languages, not like having to put something extra in. (Josie.int4.329)

She also commented on the ease of switching to different languages in the second and third interview. It was easy for Josie to make extensive reading part of her routine because she did not have to add extra time to do it; instead she used some of her L1 reading time for L2 reading. In contrast, Nick did not switch from L1 to L2 reading because to him English books were far more interesting than Japanese books, which he perceived as children's books (see 4.4 Perceptions of reading materials). If Nick had been able to enjoy the Japanese books as much as Josie did, he might have read more in Japanese.

**Fun to read.** In the category 4.5 Reading purposes, it was shown that Tracey perceived extensive reading as fun and read the books for pleasure more than for the
language learning benefits. Furthermore, she linked fun and motivation to read extensively. For instance, in the third interview, after saying it was the right decision to participate in the project, Tracey explained why she liked extensive reading:

… cause I just found it fun and it was good… otherwise I don't think I'd like to read as much. (Tracey.int3.181)

Thus this comment implies that the fun factor had a positive influence on how much she read in Japanese. In addition, when she was asked why she continued reading even when it was not required, she said "maybe because it was fun" (Tracey.int3.28). This comment supports the claim that the fun she experienced in the extensive reading project had a positive influence on maintaining her motivational intensity.

*Books were available.* When Tracey was asked why she continued extensive reading, she said because it was fun (as above), adding “and, like, the books were available” (Tracey.int3.30). The materials that she enjoyed reading were readily available in the classroom and she did not have to make an effort to search for them. Consequently, the ease in getting a book helped her continue extensive reading.

Although Alan did not as explicitly link motivation to read and the availability of the books as Tracey did, his comment appears to suggest that he might have been helped by the fact that the books were readily available in the classroom. As mentioned in the code *having pressure to read*, he felt pressure to do the reading because of the books sitting in the classroom.

*Easy books.* As mentioned before, Nick gradually got accustomed to the level one books, and was able to read more books in term two. Towards the end of term three, I provided Nick with six level zero books (a lower level than the level one) that had just been published. In the fourth interview, he reported that he could read them easily and that it took a lot less time (Nick.int4.124). Nick also said that the level zero books were more suited to "the curriculum that New Zealanders learn" (Nick.int4.52). These comments imply that the level zero books were more appropriate to his reading ability and his vocabulary knowledge. In the end Nick indicated that he would like to read more of the level zero books, saying "somewhere between about twelve and twenty level zero would be pretty good" (Nick.int4.126). From this it can be seen that easy books contributed to increase Nick's desire to expend more effort to read extensively.
Emma is another example of how easy books were a positive influence on her motivation to do extensive reading. She perceived the level one books very positively, as they were easy to read (see 4.4 Perceptions of reading materials), and read almost all of the level one books (fifteen books) in term one. On the other hand, level two books were slightly more challenging and she did not read as many in term two. However, the decrease in her motivational intensity in term two cannot be accounted for by only the perceived difficulty of the books; there were other influences that negatively affected her motivation to do extensive reading, as will be discussed in the next section.

Interesting books. Jack cited three reasons why he continued extensive reading. Satisfaction and his notion that extensive reading is helpful have been discussed above in this section. The last thing he mentioned was interesting books (Jack.int3.78). He reported that he enjoyed learning about tales and legends through some of the books. Books from which he could learn about Japanese culture also contributed to sustaining his desire to read in Japanese. In spite of the fact that he maintained his desire to read extensively, his motivational intensity declined in term two and term three for various reasons, showing how easily motivation could be compromised by negative influences. This will be discussed in the next section.

In Josie's case, interesting books increased her enjoyment as discussed earlier (see section 4.7.2). She liked the level three books more than the level one and two books because the higher level books had topics that were more relevant to her own interests. She did not explicitly link interesting books with her motivation to read extensively. However, as her reading record shows, she spent significantly more time reading in term two and term three (3.6 hours to 6.4 and 6.2 hours), which suggests that the interesting books helped her continue reading along with other positive influences (satisfaction, reading not compulsory, self-motivating, notion that ER is helpful, reading part of routine).

In this section, codes that represent positive influences on motivation to do extensive reading were discussed. The most significant positive influence among the students was satisfaction. Nearly half of them seemed to gain satisfaction from being able to read a book in Japanese and from making progress in their reading. The data indicated that some students motivated themselves and read more books or spent
more time reading in terms two and three when their time was compromised with more schoolwork and assessments. It appears that some students had goals in mind and used them to continue reading. The desire to get better at reading is an implicit goal that the participants set themselves, but in Alan’s case, an explicit goal helped him commit to his implicit goal.

The participants had to take responsibility for their own reading, as extensive reading was not compulsory and did not take place in class. The voluntary nature of the project made some students perceive the reading as relaxing and fun, and might have helped them continue reading in term two. Additionally, Jack and Josie's comments indicated that they believed that extensive reading was helpful for their Japanese, which they linked to their future goals. This notion might also have had a positive influence on their motivation to read extensively.

The participants who read regularly were those who were able to fit the reading into their routine more easily, which safeguarded the time for reading from negative influences. The fact that the reading materials were readily available to the participants might have made it easier to continue extensive reading as well. Some students' motivational intensity increased because of books that were comfortable to read. Some students motivational intensity increased because of books that were interesting to read.

It is important to note that the majority of the participants did not maintain or increase motivational intensity over two terms, despite the numerous positive influences reported in term one that continued to exist in terms two and three. It seems that there were negative influences that might have acted to reduce the impact of the positive influences, because the participants were also teenage secondary school students who had a lot going on other than learning Japanese. Such negative influences will be discussed next.

4.9 Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation

In this section, codes concerning perceived negative influences on the participants' motivational intensity to read extensively are discussed. The following codes are in this category.

- No time to read
- Busy with schoolwork
No time to read. The majority of students seemed to experience the feeling that they had no time to read extensively at least once during the project. Their comments indicate that this feeling had an adverse influence on motivational intensity. For instance, Emma said:

I've been super busy so far and haven't had time to read. (Emma.jrn1.28/5/09)

Emma's reading record accords with her comment above. She read fifteen books and spent 2.53 hours in term one, but the number of books she read decreased to eight books in term two (see Table 4.5). There are similar comments made by others, such as Jack saying "I didn't have enough time to read" (Jack.int4.79) and Nick saying "it's hard to find the time to read" (Nick.int2.40).

The data suggest that there were roughly three types of things that made the participants feel that they had no time for extensive reading, to be discussed next.

Busy with schoolwork. Schoolwork was a problem for Jack and Jane. Jack spent significantly more time reading extensively than did the other participants in term one, but he was unable to sustain the effort in term two and term three (see Table 4.5). He was aware that he had read less, saying "not as much as I usually do" (Jack.int4.26). He reported that he was busy with three speeches (one in English and two in Japanese) in term two (Jack.int3.6) and exam preparation in term three (Jack.int4.26).
Jane commented:
I was really enthusiastic at first, but then, now it's because I'm getting … more schoolwork to do that I can't really read that much. I think that is the problem, my schoolwork. (Jane.int2.54)

Jane was stressing about her English project, which took a great deal of time and effort to complete, as well as other subjects that she felt she was struggling with. Consequently she had little time for Japanese, her strongest subject (Jane.int2&3). Schoolwork became so stressful that it appeared to affect not only her motivation to read extensively, but also her motivation to do other things that she used to enjoy. For example, when I asked her if she still watched movies in Japanese, she responded negatively saying "no, no, no, no. No time" (Jane.int4.242). She discontinued playing her clarinet because she had no time to practise (Jane.int4.284). She made comments like "just can't be bothered anymore ((laugh)) just with everything" (Jane.int2.296) and "just wanna quit everything now" (Jane.int2.302). Jane’s repeated comments suggest that she was so stressed at that time that her motivation was low for everything around her, not only reading extensively Japanese.

Busy with extracurricular activities. Emma was involved in a range of activities after school and on weekends. Emma said:
I have work twice a week, basketball, handball, a flute lesson, um, and I'm in two orchestras. I was in three, but quit one… and a theory class … music theory… and … I think that's all at the moment, but also all my lunchtimes are filled up with scholarship tutorials and another orchestra… (Emma.int3.28-35)

Emma not only had these extracurricular activities, but also had more schoolwork in term two than in term one. Consequently, extensive reading, which was not compulsory, could not be fitted into her schedule any longer. As Emma said "last term [term two] was when I started getting too busy, so I didn't really have time" (Emma.int3.6). Emma's comment below indicates the negative impact of her busy lifestyle on extensive reading and schoolwork:
I do like doing it [reading] and I would. There would be nothing I disliked if I hadn't been so busy, it's just a little bit too much. And it's like that for all my subjects now at the moment. (Emma.int3.56)
As is evident, Emma liked reading and would have continued to read if she had had the time. In Emma's case, it was extracurricular activities that affected the amount of time she had for extensive reading and schoolwork, while for Jack and Jane, it was the demands of schoolwork.

Other students (Drew, Josie, Tracey) also mentioned that sports (cricket, volleyball, aerobics, respectively) made it difficult to find time for reading, but it affected only a short period of time and did not seriously impact their reading time.

*Busy with social life.* Both Jack and Nick claimed at some stage during the extensive reading project that they were so busy in their social life that they had little time to do extensive reading. As mentioned above, Jack reported that he had three speeches and so his motivational intensity was weaker because of them in term two. In the third interview, Jack indicated another reason:

I was… socialising a lot more last term [term two] … meeting all the people, like, during the week… so I wasn't really at home as much any more … and didn't do much reading … (Jack.int3.50)

Socialising similarly affected Nick's motivational intensity for reading extensively in term one. His comment below from the second interview clearly shows the cause and effect relationship:

It's harder to find the time to read because I've got a girlfriend. (Nick.int2.40)

Nick reported that he had not been reading much in either English or Japanese (Nick.int2.34), saying his girlfriend "takes too much time and effort" (Nick.int2.38).

About two and a half months later, in the third interview, I discovered that he had broken up with his girlfriend (Nick.int3.63). So I asked him if the break-up gave him more time to do the reading. He responded:

Yeah. I think that's when I started to read a bit more. (Nick.int3.79)

This comment accords with Nick's reading record (see Table 4.5) that he read more books and spent more time reading in term two. Therefore, when the negative influence was absent, he was able to expend more effort on reading. Yet, it should be noted that having and breaking up with a girlfriend were not the sole factors that
accounted for the change in Nick's motivational intensity. Various influences were operating at the same time and his motivational intensity was affected by the interplay of these influences, as will be discussed below.

**Difficult books are time consuming.** Jack and Nick were the youngest participants in this study, and had studied Japanese for only one year at the beginning of the project. Even the lowest graded readers were sometimes too difficult for Nick, as mentioned before. In the second interview, he linked difficult books and time problems as below:

… the harder ones just take quite a while to get through. That's why the time is so hard to get. (Nick.int2.66)

This comment shows another reason why Nick perceived that he had no time to read. Some books consumed too much of his time. Nick mentioned this again when asked what problems he had had in the fourth interview, saying "the time. Because the bigger level one books took a lot more time to read than the zero books" (Nick.int4.116).

Jack had been doing a lot of extra work in Japanese outside of his Japanese class since the previous year, and his Japanese was more advanced than Nick's. He reported that most of the level one books were at a good level, but he found one particular book difficult. Jack said:

The last book I had was a bit hard … so that took, you know, I had that for a couple of weeks before I finished it. (Jack.int3.12-14)

His reading record shows that Jack spent two hours on that book. In fact it was his second attempt to read the same book and still took two hours, while he had read other books within an hour. Later in the same interview Jack said:

… it was hard and everything, so that was a little bit of a demotivational thing… (Jack.int3.32)

This comment suggests that a difficult book had a negative impact on his motivation. This contradicts Jack's earlier comment that a difficult book also motivated him to read more so that he could understand more. It may be if the book is too difficult, it is discouraging, but if the book is just difficult enough to be challenging, then it is
motivating. To conclude, reading books that were beyond their reading competence was time consuming and negatively affected the participants’ perceived time for reading and motivation for reading.

*Not enough pressure to read.* In the aforementioned section, Alan perceived that there was pressure to do the reading and it contributed to his continuation of extensive reading (see 4.8 Perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation). In contrast, some participants (Ben, Drew, Emma, Nick) seemed to perceive that there was not enough pressure and that its lack was one of the reasons that they did not do as much extensive reading as they could have. In the second interview, when I asked Nick about his views on extra Japanese work (including extensive reading) outside of class, Nick said:

… I do what is set for me … because there's no consequence for not doing any extra, except for learning more. I get along fine as it is … so yeah, there's no desperation. (Nick.int2.204)

He subsequently added that he "slack[ed] off" in terms of extra work because "there's no pressure on" (Nick.int2.208), although he knew he should do it.

I attempted to discover why Ben and Drew did not expend much effort reading extensively a few times during the third interview, but they did not elaborate. Then Nick's comment about 'no pressure', above, gave me a clue, and I asked them if a lack of pressure contributed to the fact that they did not read much in the third interview. Ben and Drew responded affirmatively saying "yeah I'd say so" (Ben.int3.24) and "probably, nothing making me do too much" (Drew.int3.124), respectively.

Therefore, it seems that some students were unable to optimise the extensive reading opportunity by taking responsibility for their own reading, partly because they probably did not know how to motivate themselves (unlike the students who did, Alan and Josie) when they experienced no external pressure. Additionally, an inability to take responsibility for their reading may account for the fact that these students liked the idea of extensive reading being assigned as homework and/or being done in class.

*Did not get into a routine.* When I asked Drew for an explanation for his low motivational intensity, he said:

I just didn't get into a routine of doing it every week. (Drew.int3.118)
He made similar comments three times in the same interview. His comment saying "I didn't read as much as I wanted to" (Drew.int3.2) indicates that he had a desire to do the reading. However, it is possible that the lack of pressure prevented Drew from doing extensive reading regularly as discussed above.

No punishment. In Nick's case, not having pressure coincided with not receiving “punishment” for not doing the reading. In the second interview, following his comment above, Nick (Nick.int2.204) said:

… if there was some consequence that was really bad and I didn't want to do it then I’d probably start doing a quite a bit of extensive reading, but otherwise I’d just slack off and relax instead. (Nick.int2.210)

Thus, Nick needed some negative reinforcement to do the reading, rather than positive reinforcement such as satisfaction and fun. In the third interview, he made another comment about his need for negative consequences:

… it doesn't seem, like, important cause there's no, like, immediate impact, like, punishment for not doing so. It's not like set study or anything. If they need me to do it, it will be like set study… (Nick.int3.207)

This comment implies that he preferred to have work assigned to him. In fact, during an informal chat Nick said that I would have to "taser" him so that he would read more. Hence, Nick’s motivational intensity for extensive reading was negatively influenced by the lack of punishment.

No reward. Nick reported that he needed punishment in order to sustain his motivation to do extensive reading, whereas Ben's comment indicates that he needed positive external reinforcement. As mentioned above, Ben agreed that there was no pressure to do the reading. The lack of pressure and the fact that he received no reward are probably related. In the third interview, when asked how he would feel if extensive reading was compulsory, Ben said:

I'd be fine if I got credit from it. (Ben.int3.86)

The students in this study received credit only for formal assessments (e.g., NCEA) but received no credit for homework or unit tests given by the teacher. Thus, Ben
replied "no" when asked if he would do extensive reading if it was homework. Ben and I had the following exchange in the same interview:

R: you have got unit tests haven't you? Do you revise before the test?
B: no, I always forget.
R: forget to do revision?
B: uh, forget when the test is as well. Forget I even have it.
R: Oh, ok. Do you do homework?
B: No. I tend to forget that too. (Ben.int3.171-178)

This exchange shows that Ben did not take unit tests and homework seriously, and suggests why he expended little effort in doing extensive reading, for which he gained no credit, just like other homework or unit tests.

Did not get around to it. Like other participants, Ben had more schoolwork in term two. I wondered if that was why he discontinued reading in the latter half of term two. But he said:

… it's more probably cause I just haven't got around to getting the books and reading them. (Ben.int3.20)

This comment implies a low level of motivation to do extensive reading, since Ben did not expend the effort to read, despite the fact that he had no significant time problem like others. I asked Ben why he never got around to do reading a few times during the interview, but he did not elaborate. He repeated similar comments to those above and finally said in an irritated manner, "I couldn't be bothered" (Ben.int3.106). Possibly the combined lack of perceived pressure and credit is likely to be one of the explanations for his low motivation to read extensively. The other possible explanation is discussed next.

Want to do other things. Some students (Ben, Jane, Nick) expressed that they wanted to do other things rather than extensive reading even when they had time to do it. In the third interview when I asked Ben what he liked and disliked about extensive reading he said:

… if there's a bad thing … there's always other things I rather do at the time. (Ben.int3.42)
Ben made a similar comment in the second interview. He had alternatives such as "drawing or doing homework or playing games or seeing friends" (Ben.int2.52) instead of extensive reading. These activities probably weakened Ben's motivation to read extensively along with other influences (not enough pressure to read, no reward). Jane similarly said that she wanted to do other things if she had time (Jane.int4.30), but did not elaborate further.

In Nick's case it was reading English books that had weakened his motivation to read extensively. In his journal he wrote:

… when I do get time to read, I find I'd rather read my English books because they're more interesting… (Nick.jrn1.17/3/09)

English books were more satisfying in terms of interest, compared to Japanese books, as Nick could read only lower level books which he perceived as children's books (see 4.4 Perceptions of reading materials). Therefore, he chose to read in English rather than in Japanese. This is an interesting contrast with Josie, who readily used some of her time for reading in English to read in Japanese as mentioned in the previous section (see code extensive reading was part of routine, 4.8 Perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation).

What happened when Nick had no English book to read is indicated in the following comment:

… I'd already finished my other English book. So I didn't have anything to read. And I had nothing to do so I read all those books and it didn't take a very long time. (Nick.int4.80)

When the distracting influence of English books was absent, he read in Japanese. The same thing happened when he had broken up with his girlfriend as mentioned earlier (code busy with social life). In addition, he had the level zero books that he could read more comfortably. Reading in Japanese at that time was not as hard compared with reading in term one, when he was reading a difficult level one book. Nick's motivational intensity increased as a result of both influences (absence of English books and easy Japanese books) operating at the same time.
As stated before, Jane did not elaborate on what she wanted to do other than reading, if she did have time. It might have been listening in Japanese, which emerged from another part of the interview data, to be discussed next.

**Prefer listening in Japanese to reading in Japanese.** Jane reported that she liked listening to Japanese music and watching Japanese movies for pleasure in the first interview. It seemed that she had been doing 'extensive listening' outside of class before the extensive reading project had begun. When asked which activity (extensive reading or something else) she would do if she had half an hour of free time, Jane said:

Probably the Internet, like, go on You-tube. Watch movies as well. But I think I prefer listening more than reading, so, yeah, maybe movies. (Jane.int2.102)

Jane would rather listen in Japanese than read. Moreover, in the fourth interview Jane said:

… listening is easier… reading takes up so much time. (Jane.int4.396-400)

This comment indicates that Jane preferred listening in Japanese because reading was more time-consuming than listening. Another possible reason why Jane perceived that listening was easier than reading is suggested in her comment below:

… English ones [books], you just read it and it just comes into your head if it's fun. But Japanese, even if it's fun, because it's another language … I have to think about what they are saying to understand, so I just get tired of it…

(Jane.int3.125)

It may be that reading in Japanese was cognitively more demanding compared not only to reading in English, but also to listening in Japanese.

**Want to have a break.** The two preceding codes denoted the idea that some students preferred other activities to extensive reading and it negatively affected their motivational intensity. In Emma's case, she had no other activities that she would rather have done, but she just wanted to relax, as the following comment indicates:

… when I do have a bit of time, I just want to have a break. (Emma.int3.160)
Emma overcommitted herself with numerous extracurricular activities, which made her exhausted and stressed. The stress influenced her motivation not only for extensive reading, but also for her future plans and Japanese class. Emma said that she was going to have "a gap year" (Emma.int3.126) after finishing high school. When I asked her why, she said:

… when I started to get really stressed about being so busy, I sort of thought I don't want to go to university… (Emma.int3.138)

Emma, who reported enjoying Japanese class in the first and second interview, felt less positive toward Japanese at the time of the third interview. In the third interview, Emma said:

… it's not, like, I'm really excited to go to it [Japanese class]. (Emma.int3.236)

What happened to Emma is similar to what happened to Jane, who was stressed with the demand of schoolwork. Both students' motivation to read extensively declined when things became difficult. Before the project, I was interested in whether extensive reading would be perceived as a tool to revive motivation. However, it may not be the case for the participants in this study and it seems that motivation to read extensively is related to motivation for other things.

**Run out of books.** In the previous section, it was shown that readily available reading materials helped some students continue reading (see 4.8 Positive influences on L2 reading). However, Jack, who wanted to continue reading the level one books, indicated that there were not enough books by the time the project was into term three. In the fourth interview, when asked why he read much less in term three Jack said:

Yeah [I read] three or four cause I'm running out of level one books. I think I’ve pretty much read everything, unless I reread the whole books. (Jack.int4.32)

In fact, Jack's reading record shows that he read only two books in term three. However, there were still level one books that he had not read. I speculate that the major explanation for the decrease in his motivational intensity may be lack of time due to exam preparation, as mentioned above. However, Jack's perception that he had
finished all the level one books might have led him to think that he could not read much more.

In this section, the focus was on negative influences on motivational intensity (effort) to read extensively. I summarise this section into five main points.

First, many students found excessively challenging books were time consuming.

Second, some students perceived no pressure to read, which had a weakening influence on how much effort they expended. They tended to perceive fewer benefits and improvements compared to those who read more. For some students, the lack of pressure may be explained by the absence of positive or negative external reinforcement (i.e., punishment and credit).

Third, some students had competing activities that they did rather than read extensively when they had time. Such activities as hobbies and reading in English took time away for extensive reading. Consequently, they read less than they could have. Other activities took priority over extensive reading, probably because there was no pressure or positive influences to do the reading operating at that time. One student cited no other activity that she preferred doing, but she was so exhausted from extracurricular activities that she lost the motivation to read and wanted to have a break instead.

Fourth, one student preferred listening in Japanese to reading, because it was easier. Reading in Japanese was perceived as more cognitively demanding, as she had to think consciously about what was written compared to English. The student also might be an auditory learner, and felt that listening was easier.

Lastly, it was shown that the availability of reading materials affected how much the students read in Japanese. One student thought that books at the level that he wanted to continue reading were no longer available. This perception, along with being busy with schoolwork, contributed to a lower degree of motivational intensity. On the other hand, the readily available materials contributed to sustaining the other students' motivational intensity, as discussed in the previous category.

In the previous section, both positive and negative influences on motivational intensity were discussed. When the distribution of the influences across the participants is considered, it is clear from the data that for those who continued
reading over two terms, more positive influences were at work, while for those who
did not maintain their effort, more negative influences were at work.

When each individual is considered over time, it seems that when the student's
motivational intensity increased, the positive influences were operating and/or the
negative influences were absent. When the students' motivational intensity declined,
the negative influences were operating strongly and cancelled out the positive
influences. Therefore, it is suggested that the positive influences are fragile and easily
overshadowed by the negative influences.

In this study, motivation to read extensively is associated more with one
aspect of Gardner’s (1985) conceptualization of motivation, individual differences in
motivational intensity, than the others (the desire to read extensively and attitudes
toward extensive reading). The desire to read extensively and attitudes toward
extensive reading were both largely positive for the participants, while motivational
intensity differed among the participants. In other words, it can be said that the
students who expended more effort to read for a longer time had stronger motivation
to read extensively and vice versa.

At the outset of the project, I had high hopes that extensive reading would be
a pleasurable activity for the students so that they would use their spare time reading
in Japanese, like watching TV or reading in L1. I also hoped that it would help the
students maintain or increase their motivation for learning Japanese when Japanese
became difficult. However, the data appear to suggest that this was not the case, and
that motivation to do extensive reading accords with their wider motivational state,
which is greatly affected by contextual factors.

4.10 Summary

In this chapter, I presented codes identified in the data, which were classified
into nine categories. In the first category evaluation of the extensive reading
project, it was shown that the participants on the whole perceived the project
positively. In addition, evaluation of the reading materials was discussed, and it was
revealed that the students preferred the graded readers to the authentic children's
books.

The second category perceived benefits of extensive reading showed
numerous benefits that the students perceived, ranging from reading and language
related to non-language ones. The students also perceived that extensive reading was helpful in exams. There were individual differences in terms of the number of the perceived benefits, in that the students who read more tended to perceive more benefits. Therefore, it was suggested that L2 learners have to read a sufficient amount in order to perceive the benefits. Interestingly, the non-language benefits seemed to be reported later into the project than other benefits, suggesting that the students might have focused on learning more Japanese at first.

Similarly, various improvements were shown in the third category perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading. The data demonstrated that the students noticed improvements in their reading (e.g., comprehension and reading speed) and in the use of several reading strategies (e.g., able to guess from context and skim reading). The students who reported no improvements were the ones who read much less; the students who reported improvements were the ones who read much more. Thus it was suggested that amount of reading and ability to perceive improvements are related.

In the fourth category perception of reading materials, it was shown that the reading materials had an impact on the students' affect (motivation/desire to read in Japanese and enjoyment). The gap between what students could read in Japanese and what they wanted to read appeared to weaken their positive feelings about reading in Japanese because the only materials that they were able to read were perceived as uninteresting. The features of the graded readers such as the pictures and kanji with a phonological device were perceived as helpful for comprehension.

Purposes for doing extensive reading were presented in the fifth category. It was shown that the students began extensive reading in order to learn, which is consistent with the above claim that they perceived the non-language benefits later. But their purposes became more diverse with more extensive reading. In some of the cases, a new purpose (reading for pleasure) was added to reading to improve their Japanese, and some continued to read to learn. It was interesting that one student read for different reasons depending on what she read (graded readers or manga). From this it can be seen that the students adapted their reading purposes. The majority did not do extensive reading for pleasure, information, or general understanding, even though that is one of the principles that is used to characterize extensive reading (see section 2.1.1.1).
The sixth category **affect** demonstrated that extensive reading influenced some students' affect (attitudes and desire) about wider L2 learning. These were mostly the students who read more than the ones who perceived little or no impact on affective factors.

In the seventh category **change in motivational intensity/enjoyment**, patterns in change in these two elements of motivation were presented. It was revealed that both motivational intensity (effort) and enjoyment (attitudes) were dynamic in that they changed over time for most of the participants.

In the eighth and ninth categories **perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation** and **perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation**, influences that might have contributed to the changes were discussed. It was shown that the interplay of the positive and negative influences led to these changes, and that there was a change within each individual over time and individual variation across the participants. It was also suggested that the positive influences were fragile in that these influences are easily cancelled out by the negative influences associated with the contextual factors, especially the time problems caused by a busy life style, a lack of pressure (lack of reward and punishment also) and other competing activities (e.g., hobbies and reading in English).

In the next chapter, case studies will be presented. As mentioned above, case studies can provide an in-depth understanding of each student's perception, motivational change and its influences. Case studies are important because they highlight the dynamic nature of extensive reading motivation displayed by the participants in this study, which thematic analysis does not do.
CHAPTER FIVE
CASE STUDIES

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, I present case studies of the nine participants' extensive reading experiences. As described in Chapter Three, case study analysis concentrates on a bounded system and aims to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and the participants' perspectives by looking at their experiences holistically in a naturally occurring context. In this study, the bounded system of this natural context is JFL learners in two New Zealand high schools reading extensively in Japanese.

The case studies in this chapter summarise the data that was presented thematically in Chapter Four, in order to describe how each participant's motivation to do extensive reading changed and what influenced the motivational change over five to seven months. In other words, the case studies chiefly address the second and third research questions, although this draws on the participants' perceptions about extensive reading (the first research question) discussed in the previous chapter.

The case studies are presented in the order of patterns in motivational change, namely, participants whose motivation increased (Josie, Nick, Alan, and Tracey), decreased (Jack, Emma, and Jane), and remained at the same level (Drew and Ben). I will only informally refer to the data sources, as detailed references were provided in the previous chapter.

5.1 Josie

Josie's motives for participating in the project suggest that extensive reading had instrumental benefits and was relevant to her goals. Josie said in the first interview that she wanted to improve her Japanese and pass the NCEA exams with better results. It was important that she did well in NCEA, as it was her final year at high school and she would enter university in the following year. Josie perceived that extensive reading was a good way to achieve these goals. In addition, Josie appeared to have a high 'need for achievement', as indicated by her comment "I like succeeding in things I do, so I make sure that whatever I do, I can do it quite well" (Josie.int2.136). According to Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 54), "individuals with a
high need for achievement are interested in excellence for its own sake, tend to initiate achievement activities and persist in the face of failure”. This personality feature perhaps contributed to Josie’s decision to try extensive reading and sustained her motivation during the project. Another factor that might have helped Josie continue reading is her beliefs about learning another language. She commented in the interview that, in order to learn an L2, it is important to practise each day, as much as possible, and to challenge oneself to do more than the previous day. Such beliefs accord with the nature of extensive reading (e.g., read as much as possible, move on to higher levels), and contributed to her decision to participate in the project and to maintain her motivation over time.

It is likely that Josie used self-regulatory strategies (to be discussed below) to cope with difficult situations. For about two weeks in the early stages of the project (term one), Josie was not able to read much. She said that although she enjoyed reading, as the books were interesting and were at the appropriate level, she had internal assessments and volleyball games and practice during that time. However, as she mentioned in her journal, she was getting into a good routine and fitting reading in around other commitments. Around the same time as Josie began to manage extensive reading better, an injury forced her to pull out of sports for the rest of the year. This might also have reduced the number of distracting influences and obstacles, and helped her fit extensive reading into her routine. In short, the injury was a contextual factor that might have positively influenced Josie’s motivation to read extensively. If she had not had the injury, the outcomes might have been different. By the end of term one, Josie had finished the level one books and moved on to the level two books. As has been shown in Chapter Four (see Table 4.5), during term one she read 17 books and spent 3.6 hours reading (the top reading amount).

In terms two and three, Josie's motivation to read extensively in Japanese went from strength to strength. Extensive reading had become part of her routine. It was easy for Josie to read extensively in Japanese, because she used some of the time she usually devoted to reading in English, which meant that reading in Japanese required no extra time. Also, reading had become intrinsically interesting for Josie. As she said in the interview, reading had become more enjoyable, so she also started reading for pleasure, despite her initial motivations (described above). One explanation for this change relates to reading materials. More specifically, the topics of the graded readers
(Japanese culture and history) matched her interests, and she enjoyed learning about Japanese culture and gaining insights. Another factor may be that Josie only read a book that she expected to be able to cope with. Moreover, Josie perceived the voluntary aspect of extensive reading very positively. She liked the fact that she could take responsibility for her own reading, such as what she read and how fast she read. In this respect, extensive reading was different from homework, and worked positively on her motivation to read extensively in Japanese.

Josie increasingly perceived more progress in her reading and language development with more reading. Although there is no evidence of her actual progress, analysis of the data suggests that her perception of her progress was one of the most significant influences on her motivation. The notion that extensive reading helped with her Japanese grew over time. The more she read, the more she perceived progress, and the more she perceived progress, the more she was motivated to read. After eight weeks of extensive reading, in the second interview, Josie reported progress in her reading speed and writing, and after eighteen weeks, in the third interview, she reported progress in nine aspects of her Japanese (e.g., comprehension, vocabulary, less mental translation to L1) (see Table 4.3), all of which she attributed to extensive reading. The perceived progress provided Josie with a feeling of success, which in turn increased her motivation to read more and study more Japanese. Thus, her motivation and perceived progress went hand in hand, mutually reinforcing each other. In term two and term three, respectively, Josie spent 6.40 hours and 6.20 hours reading, which was almost double compared to term one (see Table 4.5). Josie started term two with level two books, but moved on to level three and had just started level four towards the end of term three.

As stated above, Josie appeared to use self-regulatory strategies to cope with obstacles (perceived lack of time due to other commitments) in the early stages of the project. While some students' motivation for extensive reading was negatively affected by their NCEA related schoolwork, Josie was able to continue reading - despite having as much schoolwork as the others. Analysis of the data suggested that Josie had good time management skills. For example, in the fourth interview (conducted at the end of term three), Josie and I had an exchange about an English research project with which Jane had great difficulty (see section 5.7). Josie said she had always given herself plenty of time to finish her assignments, and that she would
start early and finish one week before the due date, so as to spend the last week revising. Josie also said that she took time to relax each day and reading in both English and Japanese was a part of this. Moreover, Josie appeared to use strategies consciously while reading, which helped her comprehend the text. To illustrate, Josie reported sounding out an unknown word, as hearing the word being pronounced helped her figure out the meaning. The think-alouds provide evidence to corroborate her report of this strategy. Josie also mentioned in the fourth interview that she stopped reading every page or two, and thought about what she had read, before moving on to the next page. This strategy was transferred from her L1 reading, which she reported helped her remember what was written. Thus, her knowledge and skills in using these strategies helped reduce obstacles and helped Josie understand the text while reading.

Thus, it seems that everything worked positively for Josie overall. She had beliefs and attitudes that were compatible with extensive reading, the reading materials were interesting and at the appropriate level, and she had knowledge and skills in using strategies to handle obstacles and to facilitate reading. Josie also perceived a large number of improvements in her reading ability and other language skills in Japanese. Josie’s positive experiences contributed to her extremely positive evaluation of extensive reading.

5.2 Nick

Nick said in the interview that he signed up for the extensive reading project because he had hoped it would help him with Japanese at school. He added that he wanted to pass NCEA level one, as he needed more credits for that level. Thus, Nick perceived the instrumental benefits of extensive reading to achieving his goal, which was influenced by external demands (to gain NCEA credits). Nick said in the interview that he had been wanting to do more Japanese outside class to improve his Japanese, but he found it really difficult to actually do it. As his comment "the determination to do it is not there" (Nick.int1.241) indicates, he had not been able to actualise his intention to action. Nick's unsuccessful attempt to learn more Japanese outside class was also perhaps related to the fact that he did not know what to do without the teacher's guidance, as he said in the interview. Therefore, Nick thought
that extensive reading would be something he could do outside school, which might have influenced his decision to participate in the project.

Although the extensive reading project was well under way in term one, Nick struggled to read regularly. A range of factors account for this. First, distracting influences such as homework, the temptation to read English books, and spending time with his new girlfriend left him very little time to read extensively in Japanese. These obstacles are contextual factors, which had a powerful influence on his motivation. Nick said in the interview and his journal that the lack of time due to these distracting influences was the major reason for not being able to read extensively.

In addition, his experience with extensive reading was not very positive in term one. Nick said in his journal and interview that the reading materials were not interesting, as he perceived them as too childish. Nick had the lowest linguistic level among the participants, as he had the shortest Japanese learning history. Because most books (even the lowest-level books) were often too challenging, reading in Japanese was effortful and time consuming. Therefore, he could not read higher-level books, which might have been more interesting. However, Nick might not even have enjoyed reading higher-level books, because he loved war, action and fantasy stories in his L1, and there were no such books in Japanese available for the project.

Another factor that prevented him from reading extensively may be Nick's inability to self-regulate. While Josie was able to handle distracting influences and obstacles using self-regulatory strategies, Nick did not display the use of such skills. The lack of self-regulation meant that he had to rely on external demands in order to read extensively. Here, external demands refer to 'punishment', not the need to gain NCEA credits. Nick pointed out in the interview that he would have done more reading, if there were negative consequences for not doing so. Nick commented that voluntary reading had no consequences except for learning more Japanese, which was not sufficient for increasing his motivation. Once, Nick jokingly said during an informal chat that I would have to taser him to make him read more. Another time, he said that he was not self-motivated. These comments imply that Nick had not yet developed skills in using self-regulatory strategies. Therefore, he needed external demands (punishment) to force him to read in Japanese.
To summarise, Nick was not able to read extensively in term one because of various negative influences working against him. Accordingly, he only read two books and spent 1.25 hours reading in term one.

However, in term two and term three the situation improved for Nick, as some of the distracting influences on Nick became absent. First, he had broken up with his girlfriend. Second, he had no English books that he really wanted to read. Third, Nick had either become accustomed to the amount of homework he was assigned, or did not have as much homework in terms two and three. Thus, Nick perceived that there was more time to read in Japanese.

Even though Nick had not changed in terms of his need for punishment to read, he appeared to be more motivated to read in Japanese. For example, in his journal he reported that he had put in more effort. This change is perhaps associated with increased ease in reading. Nick said that reading materials were still uninteresting, but that he could read them more easily. He said in the interview that the structures he had learned at school helped him understand the text. In addition, he developed a system of having a word list out as he read, which also helped him read more efficiently. In term three, I provided Nick with level zero graded readers that had just been published. Nick reported reading them with greater ease without glossaries.

Another factor that appeared to enhance his motivation in terms two and three was his emerging perception that extensive reading was a more enjoyable way of learning Japanese than simply studying it (e.g., memorising words). Nick said in the interview that he needed to study Japanese more, and extensive reading was perceived positively as a study tool, especially for learning vocabulary.

Thus, in terms two and three, negative influences did not operate as powerfully as in term one. Reading became easier, and Nick began to consider extensive reading as a better way of learning Japanese. The interplay of these factors increased his motivation to read in Japanese. Consequently, Nick read four books and spent 3.75 hours reading in term two, and read eight books and spent 2.68 hours reading in term three, which is a much greater amount of reading than in term one (see Table 4.5). However, the amount Nick read throughout the project was perhaps not enough to be called extensive reading. The limited amount of reading Nick did is largely related to the voluntary nature of the extensive reading project. Because
extensive reading was not a requirement, the absence of external demands (punishment) and the presence of distracting influences, along with his inability to self-regulate, affected the amount Nick read. His reading experience itself was not greatly positive, as the reading material was rather boring and difficult for him for most of the project. Nick perceived almost no progress in his Japanese, except that reading became slightly easier. Despite these drawbacks, his post-evaluation of extensive reading was positive, as he discovered that extensive reading was a more pleasant way of learning Japanese. Also, Nick attributed his limited engagement with extensive reading to external factors such as the lack of time and reading materials, instead of his own ability. This appeared to contribute to his positive evaluation of the overall extensive reading experience.

5.3 Alan

Alan also perceived the incentive value of extensive reading in terms of instrumental benefits, as his motive to participate in the project was associated with his desire to improve his Japanese through extensive reading. However, Alan appeared to make his decision more casually than Josie or Nick, who expressed their motives in a more purposeful manner.

In term one, Alan read one book a week, which was the recommended minimum amount, for six out of eight weeks. He spent 3.23 hours reading (see Table 4.5), which ranked him in the top four among all participants and second among the Boys' High School participants. Thus, it can be said that Alan coped with reading relatively well, especially compared with his peers, Ben and Drew. His journal entry in the fourth week of the project indicated that extensive reading was becoming part of his routine, but he pointed out that it was somewhat difficult to get used to this unfamiliar habit. Some days picking up a book was easy and some days it was difficult, depending on his mood. During this unsettled period, Alan displayed knowledge and skills in using self-regulatory strategies. In his journal, Alan reported writing a reminder and leaving a book out to ensure he read.

Alan perceived graded readers positively in terms of both comprehensibility and readability. He said in the interview that he liked the graded readers, as they contained a lot of pictures. He perceived that the pictures helped him understand the text, and that kanji was not a problem, because of the furigana (a phonological
assistance device). He also found the word list useful, as it covered most of the unknown words. In terms of readability, Alan reported enjoying Japanese children's stories. Both types of materials appeared to have a positive influence on his motivation to read extensively in Japanese (or at least they did not have a negative influence as they did with Nick).

Alan's motivation for extensive reading increased in term two. He read ten books and spent 6.84 hours reading during the ten weeks (the longest reading time among all participants) (see Table 4.5). Alan wrote in his journal in the mid-term that he had tried reading more. Analysis of the data indicated that the most significant positive influence on his motivation was goal setting. Alan adhered to his goal of reading one book each week, which he had set in his journal in term one. This is interesting because no other students appeared to set an explicit goal as Alan did or to keep their goal in mind throughout the project. Thus, Alan was able to self-regulate his reading using his goal. It seems that Alan's knowledge and skills in using goal-setting strategies had been newly acquired. Alan mentioned in the second interview that he had been going to tutorials that taught him how to study effectively and prepare for exams. The tutorials were not just for Japanese, but provided strategy training across all subjects. Alan applied these strategies to extensive reading, and they worked positively on his motivation to do extensive reading in Japanese.

Another factor that might have influenced his motivation to persist with reading was external demands from his own needs and the expectations of others. While Alan did not explicitly express that he wanted to do well in the NCEA exams at the outset of the project, he said in the second interview that academic success was important to him. He commented, "How I'm brought up in my culture, … it's definitely one of the most important things" (Alan.int2.226). Therefore, it may be that the expectations of Alan’s parents pressured him to read extensively.

Distracting influences and obstacles such as schoolwork and other commitments appeared to have no negative influence on Alan's motivation. This is surprising given that he had as much schoolwork as the other participants and was much busier in term two. In the interview, he said that reading did not take too much of his time and he could fit it in around other commitments. Thus, Alan managed to make reading part of his routine in term two. He no longer had to remind himself to read as he did in term one. His ability to self-regulate extensive reading might again
be related to the aforementioned tutorials. Alan mentioned in the second interview that he had learned more efficient techniques for memorising information. This may, in turn, have given him more time for extensive reading in Japanese.

To summarise, Alan’s motivation to do extensive reading increased over time. One of the motivational influences was his knowledge and skills in using self-regulatory strategies, and goal-setting strategies in particular. His specific short-term goal provided him incentives to persist with reading during the project. Another influence was external demands. In other words, the expectations of others affected Alan's desire to do well academically. Tutorials where he learned useful strategies and tips for studying efficiently played an important role. Unlike many of the other participants, distracting influences and obstacles did not seem to prevent him from reading. He was able to fit extensive reading into a routine successfully, although it took a while for him to get accustomed to it. Alan's reading experience was positive. However, it appeared to have less impact on his motivation, compared with some participants (e.g., Josie, Tracey) who stressed how enjoyable reading was. Alan's evaluation of extensive reading experience was positive, but it appears not as positive as Josie's, as indicated in his comment "there was no harm in it" (Alan.int3.260). This might be related to the fact that Alan did not perceive many improvements, which in turn affected his perception about how helpful extensive reading was to his Japanese. Thus, I suggest that knowledge and skills in using self-regulatory strategies was the most significant influence on Alan's motivation to read extensively in Japanese.

5.4 Tracey

Tracey perceived the instrumental benefits of extensive reading, which led to her decision to participate in the project. To illustrate, in the first interview, which was conducted at the beginning of the project, Tracey said that she hoped that her Japanese would improve through extensive reading. Also, external demands to do well in the NCEA exams may be connected to her motivation. In the second interview, she mentioned that she was motivated to do better in the upcoming NCEA exams that year, as the previous year's results were not satisfactory for her.

Once the project commenced, it was a few weeks before Tracey picked up her reading pace. According to her reading record, in the first month she read four level one graded readers, which was the recommended minimum amount. However,
because the books were short, she spent only about one hour reading during that month. It is not clear what contributed to this slow start, but Tracey said in the interview that it took a while to get into reading, which is similar to what Alan said. Therefore, it may be that they needed time to get accustomed to regularly doing extensive reading, because it was up to them to decide when to read, unlike homework. Tracey wrote in her journal around the mid-term that she had just started reading extensively. This corresponds to her reading record. It shows that she read much more frequently from then until the end of the term. By the end of term one, Tracey finished level one books and moved on to level two books. In total, she read sixteen books and spent over four hours reading (ranking her in the top two among all participants) (see Table 4.5).

Tracey reported continuing reading regularly in term two, although she did not keep an accurate record of her reading and lost her record sheet later on, as mentioned above. However, in her journal and the interview, Tracey said that she had been reading approximately three books a week. She had finished reading level two books and was reading level three books by the end of the project. The estimated amount of her reading in term two was ten books, which ranked her second and equal with Alan (see Table 4.5). The fact that Tracey maintained her motivation to read extensively was a pleasant surprise, because the teacher appeared to see her as not as motivated and successful as the other participants. What influences contributed to her motivation to read extensively in Japanese?

In term one, the most significant influence on Tracey's motivation appeared to be the satisfaction that she gained from reading. Prior to the extensive reading project, Tracey enjoyed looking through Japanese fashion magazines, but she had rarely read storybooks in Japanese. Thus, her L2 reading experience was limited. Tracey felt satisfied as she discovered that she could understand a book in another language. The feeling of satisfaction provided further motivation to keep reading. Another significant influence was perceived progress. Being able to read level one books more easily as she read more motivated her to continue reading.

In term two, Tracey's motivation appeared to change qualitatively. In other words, the major motivational influence changed from perceived progress and satisfaction to intrinsic pleasure. Tracey mentioned in the third interview that she continued reading mainly because it was fun. In addition, the voluntary nature of the
project might have had a positive influence on sustaining Tracey's motivation. In the interview she commented that extensive reading was different to homework in that it was not forced, and therefore it relaxed her. Thus, Tracey came to read chiefly for pleasure. It is noted, however, that progress and satisfaction still had positive influences on her motivation. For example, Tracey said in the interview that she liked reading a slightly challenging book, as it gave her a feeling of success when she could understand it.

Throughout the project, other distracting influences and obstacles did not seem to influence Tracey's motivation. In the interview, Tracey said that she was not very busy in term one. She was much busier in term two with a lot of assessments, but she continued reading regularly. This is perhaps because reading was fun and relaxing, as mentioned above. This might be also related to her use of self-regulatory strategies. In her journal and interview, Tracey reported making a timetable for herself, so that she could fit everything in, which in turn gave her more time to do Japanese, including extensive reading. However, other distracting influences could have had a negative impact. Tracey said in the interview that she read less in the last couple of weeks in term two when aerobics practice started. This contextual factor coincidentally affected Tracey's motivation to do extensive reading.

Tracey made a very positive evaluation of her extensive reading experiences. The positive evaluation was chiefly attributed to the fun of reading. Tracey perceived gaining insights into Japan as a positive factor too. Moreover, her perceived progress in her reading ability, *kanji* and vocabulary contributed to a positive evaluation, in that she thought extensive reading helped with her Japanese. Also, the distracting influences did not overwhelm the positive influences. Tracey had accumulated positive reading experiences at the day-to-day level, and evaluated extensive reading positively at the end of the study.

### 5.5 Jack

Jack decided to participate in the extensive reading project because he thought that it would help with his learning of Japanese. Like the above participants, he perceived the incentive values of doing extensive reading, which facilitated his decision to take up extensive reading. The instrumental benefits that Jack perceived appear to be related to his very strong desire to live in Japan in the future. He said in
the interview and his journal that Japan interested him immensely and he wanted to study, work and live there long-term. In order to achieve his dream and to master Japanese as quickly as possible, Jack had been doing extension work provided by the teacher (e.g., diary, extra vocabulary, and listening) for almost a year at the outset of the project. In addition, his decision appeared to be influenced by his beliefs about L2 learning, that is, doing a lot of work in four skill areas (writing, reading, listening, and speaking) is important for learning the L2. At this point, it is not clear whether his desire to improve his Japanese and to do well in NCEA are connected. In a different part of the interview and in subsequent interviews, Jack expressed that he wanted to do well in the exams, but at the same time he said that he was not doing Japanese for grades or exams. Success in the exams was secondary and the outcome of his learning. Therefore, I speculate, based on the data collected, that the relationship was perhaps not as strong and direct as some of other participants (e.g., Josie and Nick).

While Alan and Tracey needed time to get accustomed to the new activity, Jack was able to get into reading immediately once the project had commenced. As Jack commented in the interview, because he had been doing extension work prior to the project, it was easy for him to do the reading along with other extra work. Jack said that he did Japanese after completing his homework from other subjects, so that he could spend as much time as he wanted on Japanese. During term one, Jack was not busy. In other words, there were no distracting influences or obstacles. The absence of these negative influences contributed to maintain his motivation to read extensively in term one.

Another significant influence on Jack's motivation in the early phase of the project appears to be satisfaction, which also influenced Tracey's motivation as mentioned above. In his journal and interview, Jack said that it was rewarding to be able to read a book in the L2. Perceived progress also had a strong positive influence on Jack's motivation. He perceived that reading speed and comprehension had improved due to extensive reading. These perceived improvements made the reading more enjoyable and increased his motivation to read in Japanese. In addition, Jack formed the notion that extensive reading helped with his Japanese, because of his progress through the reading. Extensive reading was instrumental in fulfilling his desire to learn Japanese as much and as quickly as possible. Thus Jack came to have a very positive perception about extensive reading, and this contributed to his
motivation for extensive reading. In term one, Jack spent 7.25 hours reading, which is the longest reading time among the participants. He spent twice as much time reading as the next participant, Josie who spent 3.60 hours reading (see Table 4.5).

It seems that not only satisfaction and perceived progress, but also graded readers, came to influence Jack's motivation over time. After five months of extensive reading (at the beginning of term three), Jack said in the interview that the books were interesting and it was great to learn about the culture, which made him want to read more. In terms of the linguistic level, Jack perceived that most of the level one books were "perfect". That is, he could read them with relative ease, but they contained a few unknown words. Reading such books gave him a feeling of success and the feeling that he had learned something at the same time. It is noted, however, that Jack mentioned that not only books at the perfect level, but also at other levels, influenced his motivation in different ways. To illustrate, easy books made him want to read even faster, while more challenging books made him want to learn more Japanese, so as to read them more easily. However, Jack said that a book that was too challenging had an adverse impact on his motivation.

Another positive influence on Jack's motivation to read extensively seemed to be related to the voluntary nature of the extensive reading project. Just as Tracey mentioned, Jack found the reading relaxing, because he could do it at his own pace. The reading was not stressful like schoolwork, so he perceived that he had derived more benefits from voluntary reading than he might have from compulsory reading.

As described above, Jack had various influences working positively for him throughout the project. However, he could not sustain his motivation in term two and term three. The time spent on reading plummeted (3.6 hours in term two and 1.5 hours in term three from 7.25 hours in term one) (see Table 4.5) despite his intention to read two books a week at the beginning of term two. The decline was due to powerful negative influences, namely distracting influences and obstacles, which overrode the influence of the positive factors.

In term two, the distracting influences were schoolwork and social life. Jack said in the interview that he had to prepare for two Japanese speeches in early term two, and felt a little burned out afterwards. Also, Jack often spent time with his new friends after school, which meant that he had less time at home doing extra work. In term three, Jack was busy preparing for the upcoming exams. He said in the final
interview that he had not only read much less, but had also stopped writing a diary, which he had done for a year. Instead, Jack spent his time practising letter writing and revising vocabulary - tasks specifically targeted to the NCEA exams. Thus, time problems had occurred, and he just did not have time to read, even though he still wanted to read.

As mentioned above, Jack did his extension work in Japanese after everything else he had to do. This was fine when he had a lot of time, but when there were other things to be done, extra voluntary work did not fit in any more. This makes me wonder if Jack had appropriate skills in using self-regulatory strategies. If Jack had managed his time differently, he might have been able to read more. Moreover, it may be that the lack of external pressure (as extensive reading was voluntary) contributed to decrease the amount of reading, although he preferred voluntary reading to compulsory reading. Finally, Jack thought that he had finished all the level one books, and this appeared to affect his motivation negatively. Because Jack knew that level two books were too difficult and he wanted to stay at level one, his mistaken impression that he had run out of the level one books prevented him from reading to some extent.

Thus, Jack started off wonderfully, as everything worked positively for him in term one. He felt satisfied that he could read a book in Japanese, and perceived progress in his reading. Graded readers were interesting and at a good linguistic level. All of these factors contributed to Jack's high level of motivation to read extensively in term one. However, other distracting influences interfered in term two and term three, and prevented Jack from reading despite his desire to read. Jack attributed the decline in his motivational intensity to the obstacles, rather than to his own inability to handle difficult situations. This probably helped Jack maintain an extremely positive evaluation of extensive reading throughout the project.

5.6 Emma

Emma explained in the interview that she had decided to participate in the extensive reading project in order for the reading to help with her Japanese. Also, she was one of two participants who mentioned that extensive reading would be fun as a reason for volunteering. Thus, Emma perceived the incentive values of extensive reading in terms of both instrumental benefits and intrinsic pleasure, while most
participants appeared to perceive only instrumental benefits prior to the project. Similar to Jack, Emma did not make a direct connection between her desire to improve her Japanese through extensive reading and her desire to perform well in the NCEA exams. It is possible however, that they were related, as Emma said in the interview that she would try and get excellence in the NCEA assessments and exams. At the same time, the data suggest that the trip to Japan in the previous year influenced her decision to live in Japan as soon as the opportunity arose in the future, and she became very motivated to learn real Japanese (e.g., casual language). Therefore, Emma’s hopes about extensive reading helping with her Japanese appears to have been a stronger influence on her motivation than doing well on exams.

In term one, Emma read regularly right from the beginning at a pace of about two books each week. She had read most of the level one graded readers and moved on to the level two books by the end of term one. Emma read 15 books and spent 2.53 hours reading, which ranked her third in terms of the number of books read (see Table 4.5). Reading materials appeared to have the most significant influence on her motivation. Emma enjoyed the level one graded readers immensely. She wrote in her journal that they were often "funny" and "very interesting" and that there was a wide range of topics. In terms of the linguistic level, level one books were "not challenging, just good" (Emma.int6.60), which implies that they were at the appropriate level and she could read them effortlessly. For Emma, level one books had both readability and comprehensibility, which made extensive reading fun, and the fun provided further motivation to read extensively. The positive relationship between fun and Emma's motivation to read extensively appears to be associated with her beliefs about L2 learning. She said in the interview that the best way of learning a second language was to live in the country where the language was spoken, but, otherwise, learning needed to be fun, which would keep you motivated. Thus, fun plays an important role in motivation from Emma's perspective.

When Emma moved on to level two in late term one, extensive reading became less enjoyable. While the level one graded readers were easy and interesting to read, and therefore had a positive impact on Emma's motivation, the level two graded readers were perceived as more difficult, and reading became more effortful. As a result, reading was not as much fun as before. In addition, the stories were sad rather than funny. Although Emma denied that these factors affected her motivation,
and claimed that it was the lack of time that prevented her from reading, I suspect they were responsible to some extent.

In term two, the number of books Emma read and the time spent on reading decreased by nearly 50 percent (see Table 4.5). As mentioned above, Emma attributed the dramatic decline to her extremely busy schedule with extracurricular activities. In other words, similar to Jack, distracting influences led to a perceived lack of time, which in turn influenced the actual effort Emma expended on reading. Emma said in the interview that because she was extremely busy, she did not want to do anything, even if she had spare time that could be used to read in Japanese. In addition, as mentioned above, reading a level two book was effortful, and I assume that this did not help the situation.

In term two, distracting influences and obstacles seemed to negatively influence her motivation for Japanese at school as well. Emma said in the interview that she needed to do well at school, so as to do well the next year at university (external demands). However, she had struggled to find the time to study Japanese and had become stressed. Emma also became anxious that there was a lot of vocabulary that she had not learned from the NCEA level three list. She perceived that she had not done as well as she had in the previous year. In addition, Emma's perceptions about Japanese class might have influenced her motivation for Japanese at school, which indirectly affected her motivation for extensive reading. Emma wrote in her journal that Japanese class was not much fun any more, because the teacher had changed the way she taught, which made the learning harder. For example, Emma wrote that the teacher used to let her students write grammar notes so that they remembered them, but she stopped doing that and just read out of a textbook. Consequently, Emma felt that she was beginning to struggle in the class. Thus, her motivation for Japanese had weakened because of these contextual factors (viz. distracting influences and Japanese class), which in turn negatively influenced Emma's motivation to read extensively.

Finally, the lack of skills in using self-regulatory strategies and a need for external demands (compulsory reading) are likely to have negatively influenced Emma's motivation to read extensively in Japanese. Because Emma struggled to make the time for extensive reading outside class, she liked the idea of making extensive reading compulsory. Emma said in the interview that she needed some pressure to
make her read. Thus, she was aware of her lack of skills in using self-regulatory strategies and a need for external demands.

To summarise, Emma was able to sustain her motivation to read extensively in term one, because of easy graded readers, which she found also interesting. Such reading materials made extensive reading fun, and the fun contributed to sustain her motivation. In addition, there were no other distracting influences and obstacles that prevented her from reading. However, in term two, everything appeared to work negatively for her, and her motivation to do extensive reading declined sharply. The most significant influence that Emma perceived was distracting influences (extracurricular activities). Emma became stressed about not having enough time, which led to anxiety and less self-confidence. These distracting influences not only affected her motivation for extensive reading, but also her motivation for studying Japanese at school. Despite the rather negative outcome of extensive reading in term two, Emma perceived that extensive reading was worth doing, because she was able to learn real Japanese and words that were not in the NCEA list. In term one, she perceived progress in fluency, which she was satisfied with, and this contributed to her positive evaluation of extensive reading.

5.7 Jane

Jane was the other participant who perceived the incentive values of extensive reading in terms of both intrinsic pleasure and instrumental benefits prior to the project. Jane said in the interview that she had decided to volunteer because of her desire to improve her reading in Japanese, but added that it would be fun and interesting to do extensive reading as well. Jane made no explicit link between her desire to improve her reading and to do well in the NCEA exams. However, Jane said later that she did Japanese to do well and she evaluated her success with reference to exam results. This indicates that the NCEA exams might have had an indirect influence on her decision to take up extensive reading.

In term one, Jane read at a pace of 1.6 books each week on average, which was more than the recommended minimum amount (see Table 4.5). In terms of the number of books read, she was ranked fourth. In terms of time spent reading, she was fifth among the participants. It can be said that Jane did reasonably well in term one. Jane's Japanese was the most advanced among participants, and she found level one
graded readers too easy. Therefore she moved on to level two quickly, read three level three books and even tried a level four book.

Satisfaction appeared to influence Jane's motivation to read extensively during term one. Her comments in her journal and interview implied that she gained satisfaction from being able to read in another language, which was similar to Tracey and Jack's comments. Satisfaction also came from her perception that she was learning vocabulary, kanji and grammatical structures from the books. Jane said in the interview that she read the graded readers in order to learn more Japanese. Therefore, when Jane actually perceived that the learning had occurred, it satisfied her. In addition, Jane perceived the graded readers positively because of the fact that they were levelled. As she wrote in her journal, levels made it easier to see progress. Therefore, it may be that graded readers also motivated her to continue reading in term one.

Despite these positive influences, Jane barely read in Japanese in term two. She read only two books and spent 0.4 hours reading in early term two, which was the least amount among the participants. After that, she discontinued reading altogether. Jane attributed this sharp drop in her motivation to schoolwork from other subjects, especially an English research project for NCEA. Jane said in the interview that the English project was challenging and time consuming. She also had to study for other subjects, statistics in particular, so as not to fall behind. Thus, Jane did not have time for Japanese, including extensive reading, because Japanese was her strongest subject. It was on Japanese that Jane wanted to expend her effort, but in reality, she had to practise other subjects. Jane said that things got too stressful and she felt like giving up everything at that time. Other distracting influences were extremely powerful in term two and, thus, the influences of the positive factors were overridden.

Another factor that appeared to have a weakening influence on Jane's motivation to do extensive reading was her preference for listening in Japanese instead of reading. Jane said in the interview that listening in Japanese (e.g., music and watching movies) had helped improve her Japanese considerably. She believed that a large quantity of listening was the key to the mastery of Japanese. Therefore, she chose to listen to music or watch movies if she had time, instead of doing extensive reading. In addition, Jane said in the interview that she preferred listening to reading, because reading in Japanese was more effortful and time consuming. In the
interview Jane compared reading in Japanese with reading in English, and said that even though reading in Japanese was fun, it was much more effortful than reading in English, so that she could not concentrate for a long time. Thus, it seems that listening was an alternative activity that competed with extensive reading. Given that Jane was experiencing a stressful time with schoolwork, it was perhaps not easy to choose effortful reading instead of listening.

Although Jane extended the project until the end of term three, she read no books prepared for the project or manga that she used to read occasionally for pleasure. Jane said that she also read no English books during term three. Jane seemed much happier in term three, as most of her internal assessments (including the English project) had finished. I thought that she would have more time for reading. However, it seemed that all of Jane's time was then devoted to preparation for the NCEA and scholarship exams. Jane said in the interview that she did not even have time for Japanese movies (which she loved watching) in term three. However, Jane continued listening to Japanese music, which she perceived as helpful for the listening exam. Listening was effortless for her, as mentioned above, and easy to do, as she could carry her iPod wherever she went.

Jane's motivation to read extensively in term one was chiefly influenced by satisfaction and perceived progress, which resulted in a reasonable amount of reading. However, for the rest of the project, distracting influences overpowered the positive influences. In term two, schoolwork for other subjects was a major obstacle that took away time from Japanese, including extensive reading. In term three, it was exam preparation that prevented Jane from reading extensively. In addition to these distracting influences, Jane preferred to do listening in Japanese rather than reading. While Jane perceived that reading in Japanese was effortful and time consuming, listening was perceived as easy and instrumental to her Japanese. In spite of the outcome, Jane gave a positive evaluation of extensive reading throughout and after the project, which was due to the perceived benefits. Jane greatly valued having learned a lot of kanji and vocabulary through reading.

5.8 Drew

Drew decided to participate in the extensive reading project for a reason that appeared slightly different from the rest of the participants. While most students
explicitly expressed that they wanted to improve their Japanese through reading. Drew said in the interview that he wanted to do more Japanese outside class. However, Drew might have perceived instrumental benefits of extensive reading as others did. Drew had recently come back from a month’s stay in Japan. At that time, he was highly motivated to improve his speaking and reading for his next visit to Japan. Drew reported doing no Japanese related activities outside school in the past, but he might have wanted to change that because of his new goal. In addition, Drew’s motive might have been influenced by his beliefs about L2 learning. He said in the interview that the best way of learning an L2 would be a lot of practice speaking, reading and writing. Thus, Drew might have perceived that extensive reading was a good practice opportunity.

For the first three weeks in term one, Drew managed to read at a pace of one book a week, but then had a two-week gap before reading another book. Drew read only four books in total, which was the third lowest amount of books read, and spent less than one hour reading, which was the second least amount of time spent reading (see Table 4.5). Thus, it can be seen that his motivational intensity was fairly low. The data suggest, however, that Drew had an intention to read. For example, Drew wrote in his journal that he had been trying to make reading a routine, but he had not been able to do so because he had been busy. Drew said in the interview that he had a lot of cricket practice and games at that time (viz. other distracting influences and obstacles), which affected the actual effort he expended on reading.

Drew's intention to do reading (although it was not actualised often) appeared to be influenced by positive extensive reading experience. Despite the small amount of reading, Drew said in the journal and the interview that he enjoyed extensive reading, because he liked learning more Japanese (e.g., new words) from the books. Also, he perceived that level one graded readers were a good level, in that they contained some unknown words that he needed to learn, but at the same time he could understand most of the story. Therefore, graded readers had goal/need significance. That is, reading was instrumental in satisfying his need to learn more Japanese, and he perceived coping potential (he expected to be able to cope with the book).

Another factor that influenced Drew's motivational intensity might have been his lack of knowledge and skills in using self-regulatory strategies. Because participants had to take responsibility for their own reading in this project, the ability
to self-regulate played an important role in sustaining motivation to continue reading. Drew said in the interview that he used no particular strategies and that he just tried to remember to read every week. This is different from his peer Alan, who wrote himself a reminder and left the books out until reading became a routine.

In term two, Drew's motivation to read extensively in Japanese remained at the same level. He read four books and spent around the same amount of time on reading (see Table 4.5). Drew continued reading level one graded readers, but did not finish all books at that level (while Alan moved on to level two). It seemed that the same motivational influences operated during term two in Drew's case. Drew said in the interview that he was busy with other commitments, which was part of the explanation for his low motivational intensity. Similar to term one, Drew maintained his intention to read extensively in term two. He wrote in his journal around mid term that he planned to read more from then on.

Drew maintained a positive perception about graded readers, which may have contributed to the fact that he kept his intention to read, as mentioned above. What newly emerged in term two was that Drew found the graded readers interesting, because they taught him about Japanese culture. Thus, it may be that extensive reading became intrinsically interesting as well.

In the third interview, I tried to find out why Drew was not able to read as much despite his positive reading experience. He repeatedly said that he could not fit extensive reading into a routine. This was interesting, because other participants (e.g., Emma, Jack, Jane, Nick) explicitly blamed the lack of time, which was caused by other distracting influences. Drew agreed that this was part of the problem, but he seemed to perceive that the major reason for not reading enough was his inability to fit reading into a routine. Therefore, Drew welcomed the idea for extensive reading to be compulsory, because it would help him get into a routine of reading. Drew probably became aware that he lacked skills in using self-regulatory strategies and that he needed a push to actually read extensively.

To summarise, Drew's motivation to read extensively in Japanese remained at a rather low level throughout the project. Although distracting influences played a role in his motivation, it appeared these were not as significant as others perceived them to be. Drew appeared to attribute the disappointing outcome to his inability to fit extensive reading into a routine, and this might be associated with his lack of skills in
using self-regulatory strategies. It should be noted, however, that Drew maintained an intention to read throughout the project. This is related to his positive experience with extensive reading. Drew enjoyed learning more Japanese and reading interesting stories. It seems that Drew needed external demands to act upon his intentions.

5.9 Ben

Ben perceived that there were incentive values to extensive reading in terms of instrumental benefits prior to the project, which facilitated his decision to participate in the project. To illustrate, Ben said in the interview that he hoped that extensive reading would help with his Japanese. I suggest that, in Ben's case, the expectations of the teacher played a greater role in his decision to volunteer. This is because the data indicated that Ben had passive attitudes toward learning. For example, he said in the interview a few times that he just did what the teacher told him to do in class. Also, Ben said that the best way to learn an L2 was to have a good teacher teach him. Because the teacher was perceived to be recommending that students participate in the project during the recruitment process (see Chapter Three), this might have influenced his decision to take up extensive reading (see Chapter Seven).

Throughout the project (term one and term two), Ben's motivation to read extensively in Japanese remained rather low. He read three books (0.75 hour) in term one and four books (1.08 hour) in term two (see Table 4.5). The amount of reading was least, along with Drew. While Drew had an intention to read (although it was not turned into an actual action often) and seemed regretful about the negative outcome, Ben did not seem to be greatly concerned with his small amount of reading. In the interview, Ben said that he had no concerns or problems with how his reading was going. Ben perceived his reading experience positively, as he said in the interview that he enjoyed reading and found the books interesting.

Ben's motivation for extensive reading appears to have been largely influenced by the nature of his motivation. Based on the data collected, I suggest that Ben was largely extrinsically motivated. Although Ben said in the interview that he enjoyed learning languages, other comments indicate that he did work for credits and exams. To illustrate, when I asked if Ben liked speeches in Japanese, he said that he did not like them very much, but it was a good thing to do as he wanted to get credits. In another interview, when I asked if Ben studied Japanese outside class, he said that he
did not study, because he had no exams coming up. Ben said that he always forgot about unit tests and tended to forget homework too, as such work gave him no credits towards NCEA. Also, when I asked Ben his views on voluntary Japanese related activities (e.g., watching movies, language exchange with a native speaker), he said they were not important to him and he would rather do other things (e.g., drawing). Thus, because he was inclined to do something only for NCEA credits, extensive reading, which he gained no credit for doing, was not perceived as important. The voluntary nature of the project provided no external demands, and Ben chose to do other things like drawing, playing games and seeing friends, which he enjoyed. In Ben's case, it was not that he wanted to read regularly but could not because of other distracting influences like some participants. Instead, he did not feel like reading most of the time, as extensive reading was not directly linked with NCEA credits, and he saw no serious consequences for not doing it.

As mentioned above, Ben appeared to believe that it was the teacher who was in charge of his learning. This indicates that Ben was unlikely to be ready to assume responsibility for his own reading, which the extensive reading project required him to do. Ben did not display knowledge or skills in using self-regulatory strategies during the project. Ben said in the interview that he only read when he felt like it, and that he did not set goals. Besides, the use of such strategies did not become necessary, as he did not perceive any problem with how his reading was going.

In summary, Ben failed to read extensively in Japanese throughout the project. The major explanation for the low level of motivation was that Ben was predominantly extrinsically motivated. Because extensive reading gave Ben no credits towards NCEA, there were no external demands for him to do it, and it lost its priority to other things that were more fun or urgent. Although extensive reading was enjoyable to some extent, it was not sufficient to enhance his motivation for it.

5.10 Summary

In this chapter, the motivation of each participant to read extensively in Japanese and the influences on that motivation over time have been presented. This has been accomplished through nine case studies based on an analysis of all the data, and has been aimed at the second and third research questions. The previous chapter, which was organized thematically, was aimed at the first research question.
In the next chapter, I will answer the research questions. I will discuss the major research findings with reference to the literature, general L2 motivation and L2 reading motivation models. I will also present a model that attempts to describe the participants' extensive reading motivation in this study.
6.0 Introduction

The major findings of this study are discussed in relation to the relevant literature (e.g., research in the areas of extensive reading and L2 motivation) in sections 6.1 and 6.2. These sections are organised according to the research questions. In section 6.1, I discuss the research findings related to participants' perceptions about extensive reading and the project (research question one). In section 6.2, I discuss change in L2 reading motivation and its influences (research questions two and three). In section 6.3, I discuss key findings that are beyond the scope of the research questions and argue that context plays an important role in extensive reading. Finally, in section 6.4, I propose a ‘dynamic model of reading extensively in L2’, which attempts to capture the participants’ motivational change and its influences discovered in the study, and provide a detailed description of the model.

6.1 Perceptions of extensive reading and the project

The focus in this section is research findings related to the participants' perceptions about extensive reading. It answers the first research question: what are the perceptions of JFL learners about extensive reading while they participate in the project for five to seven months? Key findings are discussed in the following areas:

- Benefits/improvements
- Learning about culture through extensive reading
- Exam-related benefits
- Use of a word list and development of guessing from context strategy
- Graded readers vs. authentic children's books
- Perceived impact of extensive reading on L2 motivation

6.1.1 Benefits/improvements

There is no question whether the participants in the present study perceived that they derived benefits from extensive reading. The analysis of the data showed that a range of benefits were perceived, and although only limited data (through think-alouds) were collected to corroborate these perceptions, there is evidence that
perceptions play an important role in reading and learning Japanese. Extensive reading was perceived to contribute to improvements in their reading abilities by increasing reading speed and fluency and developing word recognition skills and reading strategies (e.g., guessing from context and reading for general understanding). Moreover, the participants perceived that extensive reading had contributed to their vocabulary, kanji and structural knowledge.

This finding is not surprising, as previous studies investigating the effect of extensive reading have shown various gains such as comprehension (e.g., Elley, 1991; Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Robb & Susser, 1989), reading strategies (Nishino, 2007), and a combination of speed and comprehension (e.g., Arnold, 2009; Bell, 2001; Robb & Susser, 1989; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004), and a combination of comprehension and reading strategies (Hayashi, 1999).

Among the perceived linguistic benefits/improvements other than reading, vocabulary was most commonly reported. This finding supports previous studies that show gains in vocabulary (e.g., Cho & Krashen, 1994; Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Hayashi, 1999; Horst, 2005; Leung, 2002; Pigada & Schmitt, 2005). The students perceived that they learned new words and that their existing vocabulary knowledge was consolidated through multiple encounters with what they had learned before. This finding is consistent with the German L2 advanced learners' perceptions in Arnold’s (2009) qualitative study and supports an experimental study with EFL students in Japan (Waring & Takaki, 2003). In addition, as found in Arnold (2009), extensive reading was perceived to consolidate grammatical structures in the present study.

Another benefit/improvement reported by one student (Jack) was being able to recognise words more easily when there was no spacing between them. Think-aloud data supported his comment in that errors in recognising word boundaries decreased to none in the two think-aloud sessions that were conducted four months and seven months after the extensive reading project started. Recognising word boundaries was a critical skill for JFL learners for text comprehension in two studies (McCran, 1998; Saito, 1992). In other words, JFL learners who struggled to identify word boundaries did not comprehend the text well. Therefore, it can be seen that extensive reading might facilitate the development of vocabulary knowledge and word recognition in Japanese. This supports the claim that extensive reading contributes to the
development of general vocabulary and sight vocabulary (Day & Bamford, 1998; Grabe, 2009). It should be noted, however, that this finding is limited, as the benefit was perceived by only one participant.

There were stronger findings for benefits/improvements related to kanji. In this study six participants (two thirds) perceived that extensive reading helped them with kanji acquisition, and three of the six participants actually thought that their kanji improved. The data analysis suggested that this was because extensive reading exposed them to more kanji. Previous studies in extensive reading conducted in JFL settings (e.g., Hitosugi & Day, 2004) have not reported gains in kanji. Indeed research has suggested that kanji can be a major challenge for JFL learners whose first language employs a phonetic alphabet (Everson & Kuriya, 1998; Saito, 1992; Sandom & Macalister, 2009). Japanese texts differ significantly to those written in English due to the differences in the writing system and the graphic arrangement of text as discussed above (see section 2.3.1.6). Japanese children first learn kana syllabaries and learn to read phonetic Japanese by the junior years at primary school. However, they grow up in an environment where they are exposed to kanji from a young age. They also start learning kanji as soon as they have learned kana syllabaries, so they are able to gradually build up their kanji knowledge over a long period of time.

JFL learners whose native language employs a phonetic alphabet also learn the kana first, but they have not had the same exposure to kanji as Japanese children, and do not have “the predisposition to acquire information through graphic symbols” (Saito, 1992, p.3). Thus, the study participants, whose first language is English, faced the challenge of learning a vast amount of kanji and a new reading process at the same time. It may be that the present study offers good news for JFL learners and their teachers, because extensive reading might facilitate kanji acquisition.

In addition, one participant reported that extensive reading had improved her understanding of kanji, which facilitated more positive feelings toward kanji. This is similar to Hitosugi and Day (2004), where questionnaire data suggested that extensive reading helped participants feel less uneasy about kanji. Kondo-Brown (2006) suggests that inadequate kanji knowledge may have an adverse impact not only on the efficiency of text comprehension, but also on motivation to read in kanji. I also suggest that extensive reading may promote positive attitudes toward kanji, although this implication is extremely limited because it is based on data from one participant.
Another benefit that emerged from this study was that four participants perceived that they learned ‘real’ Japanese (including informal Japanese) through extensive reading, as opposed to the formal Japanese taught in class. It was suggested that they appreciated the exposure to the more authentic use of the L2, which appeared to be related to their desire to live in Japan in the future. This finding accords with that of Cho and Krashen's (1994) study. The Korean and Spanish L1 female immigrant participants in the U.S. reported being able to better speak and understand everyday English as a result of several months of extensive reading. It is not clear if the participants in the present study felt they could use ‘real’ Japanese in speaking, but they might have increased their receptive knowledge of ‘real’ Japanese. Cho and Krashen (1994) attributed this finding to the books their participants read (the Sweet Valley series written for native English-speaking junior high and high school girls), which contained colloquial language not taught in the classroom. The graded readers used in the present study were not authentic books like the Sweet Valley series, but the students seemed to notice the difference between the graded readers and classroom Japanese and perceived that the graded readers exposed them to ‘real’ language use.

One participant (Josie) perceived that she relied less on mental translation into English (L1) because she could think in Japanese (L2) more. This finding, although limited, was consistent with a JFL advanced learner in a case study conducted in New Zealand (Sandom & Macalister, 2009). The participant, who read extensively in Japanese for three months, reported relying on mental translation into English less over time. Similarly, Hayashi (1999) and Kern (1994) showed that mental translation into the L1 decreased as a result of extensive reading.

The present study also suggests that the impact of extensive reading extends to areas beyond reading. One student (Josie) perceived that her pronunciation and writing improved due to extensive reading. Improvement in pronunciation has not been reported in previous studies, but improvement in writing has been reported (Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Tsang, 1996). However, this finding was based on only one participant's data, and it might be due to the fact that she read the most over the longest period. As can be seen, the linguistic benefits that the participants in the present study perceived to have derived from extensive reading support previous research on extensive reading.
Above all, the present study suggested that there might be a relationship between the amount of reading (determined by the number of books read and time spent reading) and the ability to perceive benefits/improvements, as mentioned in Chapter Four. In other words, a student who read more tended to perceive more benefits/improvements. Additionally, this study revealed change in the amount of benefits/improvements an individual perceived over time. The participants tended to perceive more benefits in the later stages of the project, except for one student (Emma) who reported that her Japanese deteriorated in the second half. Therefore, this study appears to support the claim that L2 learners have to read a large quantity to gain benefits from extensive reading (e.g., Day & Bamford, 1998, 2002; Nation, 2001; Waring & Takaki, 2003).

However, two things should be noted with regard to comparing the present study with previous studies. First, the aim of the present study was to explore the participants' perceptions and to understand the role of extensive reading from their perspectives. Therefore, no testing was conducted to measure actual gains (e.g., in reading comprehension, speed, vocabulary, kanji and the use of reading strategies). However, as has been suggested and as will be discussed further below, the present study offers compelling evidence that positive perceptions are as important to motivation as actual gains. In other words, if students perceive improvements in their reading ability and/or their Japanese, they experience a feeling of success, which in turn increases their motivation to do extensive reading. Second, by using case studies, this study has been able to show the variation among individuals, which is lost when generalizations are made in quantitative studies that rely on mean scores (e.g., Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Hayashi, 1999). This study found that differences in the amount of extensive reading students did corresponded to differences in their perceptions of benefits and improvements: the more students did extensive reading, the more they perceived benefits/improvements.

6.1.2 Learning about culture through extensive reading

The finding that L2 learners valued extensive reading because it enabled them to learn about the target culture has not been discussed a great deal in previous research. Hitosugi and Day (2004) reported briefly that the JFL learners "gained
valuable cultural information” (p. 10), but it is not clear whether this is the researchers' impression or the participants' perception.

As shown in Chapter Four, the majority of the participants perceived learning about the Japanese culture as a benefit of extensive reading in the present study. These participants consisted of the two students (Josie, Tracey) who came to read for pleasure with more exposure and other students (Alan, Emma, Jack) who had the primary purpose of learning the language. Therefore, regardless of whether reading was for pleasure or learning - in other words, regardless of the different types of motivation the participants had - they desired to learn about the Japanese culture, and extensive reading provided opportunities for that. Data from the first interview conducted at the beginning of the project supports their interest in the Japanese culture. Many of the participants expressed how much they loved the culture, and mentioned it as one of the major reasons for learning Japanese.

Moreover, as one student (Josie) stated explicitly, knowing about the target culture is necessary for L2 learning. This view accords with Kramsch (1993) who contends that learning culture is part of learning language, stating that "culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing" (p, 1). She further argues that literature in the L2 should be taught, because "literature and culture are inseparable" (Kramsch, 1993, p.175). According to her, the role of teaching literature in L2 teaching is that "a foreign text invites the learner to discover both the personal voice of a foreign author, and the cultural voice of a speech community" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 124). This may be what extensive reading in the present study did for some of the participants. Participants perceived that extensive reading enabled them to discover a Japanese perspective and gain insights into Japan (see section 4.2.3). Therefore, it can be argued that extensive reading contributed to the participants’ L2 learning in the sense that it benefitted them beyond reading ability and language development: it enabled the learners to learn language and culture at the same time.

6.1.3 Exam-related benefits

Two thirds of the participants perceived that extensive reading would be helpful for the upcoming NCEA exams (see section 4.2.4). Some students also thought that it would be helpful for the scholarship exams. Previous studies have not
reported the perception that extensive reading is helpful for exams. However, it is not surprising that the students thought the benefits would assist them in exams. The NCEA exams consist of reading, listening and writing sections, and extensive reading was thought to help the reading sections most, mainly because it improved their reading speed. The reason some participants saw potential benefits for the scholarship exam was that everything (questions and answers, as well as the passages) was written in Japanese and that it dealt with a wider range of topics. Extensive reading was perceived to benefit them in terms of both language and increased confidence.

Previous studies may not have reported the usefulness of extensive reading for exams because the participants were mostly university students who had already passed an entrance exam. There are two studies (Nishino, 2007; Takase, 2007) that considered the role of exams. Examinations were considered to be one of the influences on L2 reading motivation (Nishino, 2007) and one of the motivational components of L2 reading (Takase, 2007), rather than one of the benefits of extensive reading. These studies were conducted in Japan where an entrance exam is a high stakes milestone in high school students' lives, because it determines the university they will attend. This, in turn, has a strong influence on their job prospects and how people perceive them in society. As Takase (2007) states, Japanese high school students chiefly study English to pass the university entrance exams, "which is an expectation placed upon them by the society as a whole, including their parents and teachers" (p. 10). In New Zealand, university entry is not as fiercely competitive as in Japan. However, the NCEA exams are considered very important and dictate teaching and learning in class. Japanese is not an exception. JFL students are required to learn NCEA vocabulary and sentence structures, and they spend a lot of time in class preparing for assessments and exams. Therefore, exams may have an indirect influence on students’ motivation to do extensive reading. This perception about the usefulness of extensive reading appears to have been influenced by the context in which they learn Japanese, where formal L2 learning is geared towards success in exams.

6.1.4 Use of word list and development of guessing from context strategy

The analysis of the data revealed that most participants used word lists (i.e., glosses) as they engaged in reading. It was also found that only a small number of
participants perceived improvement in their ability to guess from context. The use of word lists seems to be related to the lack of contextual guessing. This is an interesting finding, because guessing from context is regarded as a very important strategy. Nation (2001, 2004) argues that L2 learners should spend time practising and mastering guessing from context, because it is "the most important way that language users can increase their vocabulary" (Nation, 2001, p. 262). He lists the justifications for his argument as below:

... it can be used to cope with thousands of words, it can result in some vocabulary learning (Nagy, Herman and Anderson, 1985), it can eventually be used with little disruption to the reading process, and it is a prerequisite for effective dictionary use. (Nation, 2004, p. 25)

The JFL learners in the present study tended to use a word list more frequently as they progressed to a higher level of graded readers. This in turn might have resulted in less use of the guessing from context strategy. This finding differs from two studies that investigated strategy use when L2 learners engaged in extensive reading. Hayashi (1999) examined change in the use of strategies by 100 EFL university students in Japan over nine months. It was found that the number of the students (more proficient ones in particular) who reported using the guessing from context strategy significantly increased in the post survey. Nishino's (2007) longitudinal case study revealed how two EFL Japanese secondary school students gradually weaned themselves off a glossary and engaged in contextual guessing more. However, Nishino (2007) observed individual differences in their perceptions about guessing from context. That is, one participant disliked doing it. Accordingly, she used the glossary, asked the tutor questions more frequently and guessed from context less frequently than the other participant. Similarly, in the present study, individual differences were observed. One student (Jack) did not like guessing the meaning of an unknown word because he wanted to learn the correct meaning; if he guessed, he could learn the wrong meaning. Therefore, he consulted the glossary. Another example of individual differences observed in this study was how these two strategies were used. Some students attempted to guess the meaning of an unknown word before confirming it in the glossary, while some looked it up without attempting to guess. Only two students (Drew, Josie) perceived that they became better at contextual guessing. Thus, the use of a glossary might have prevented the participants from developing the guessing from context strategy.
According to Nation (2001, 2004), a glossary has its advantages because "[it] makes the text a bit more self-contained by reducing the need for teacher explanation or dictionary use" (Nation, 2004, p. 24). It seems that this was exactly how the glossary worked for the students in the present study. Since extensive reading was done outside of class, there was no teacher to help them. The glossary probably did not disrupt the flow of the reading, as they could refer to it quickly. The participants seemed to establish a system to use the glossary efficiently. I saw them have it out on their desks, ready to consult at the think-aloud sessions. Despite the finding that the participants did not develop skills in contextual guessing to a great extent, the participants did perceive other benefits/improvements. If they had not used glossaries, they would have struggled with reading and might have lost the motivation to continue extensive reading. Therefore, I believe that the positives outweighed the negatives of the glossaries, and that they were conducive to the participant's reading in this study.

6.1.5 Graded readers

The analysis of the data showed that the participants had different perceptions about graded readers and authentic children's books. Graded readers were perceived much more positively than children's books. Previous studies involving JFL learners have used authentic texts (predominantly written for children) and not graded readers. Therefore, students' perceptions about graded readers and about the differences between different types of reading materials are new contributions from this study.

As mentioned in Chapter Four, participants generally appeared to think that the language in the graded readers was more real than the Japanese they were learning in class. Because they were interested in learning real Japanese, graded readers appealed to those participants. One exception was Jane, who reported preferring manga. Jane had been exposed to much more 'real' Japanese (i.e., casual language), as she watched a lot of Japanese movies and anime and read a few manga in her own time. Therefore, the language in graded readers seemed more formal to her. On the other hand, several participants viewed children's books as more difficult because of their unfamiliarity with the vocabulary and language used, although those books used more real Japanese than did the graded readers. This perception corresponds to the
fact that the participants read mostly graded readers and some students read them exclusively.

This is interesting because it is generally assumed that authentic materials should be used in language teaching. As Nation reports, graded readers are criticized because they are regarded as "unauthentic and watered-down versions of richer original texts" (Nation, 2005, p.17). However, Nation (2005) argues that elementary and intermediate level ESL learners should read graded readers that have been specifically written for ESL learners. In addition, Day and Bamford (1998) mention that there are many good quality language learner texts for ESL learners (p. 61), and suggest that they are the most appropriate materials for all L2 learners except those at an advanced level. This study supports this view, as the findings have shown.

Nation (2005) bases his argument on research evidence that an ESL learner would need to know well over 2,000 words just to read the easiest fiction novels for teenagers (Hirsh & Nation, 1992). This means an ESL learner at the low proficiency levels would not be able to comprehend most unsimplified fiction texts for adults. Although not much is known about the exact vocabulary size that JFL learners would need, I speculate that their situation is similar to low level ESL learners. Or it could be worse, as authentic Japanese texts for adults have kanji words without a phonological device. Surveys have reported that 40,000 different types of words including 15,000 kanji words are contained in published newspapers and magazines (Y. Mori, 2003). Thus, there is no doubt that low level JFL learners could not read such materials. This leaves only children's books as suitable authentic materials for low-level learners in a JFL context, as has been the case in previous studies. However, in the present study, participants did not like children's books, because they were perceived as more difficult. The difficulty was not due to kanji, as the children's books contained no kanji. Instead, it was the vocabulary that made the books difficult, as it did not match vocabulary that the participants had learned at school. Leung (2002) and Sandom and Macalister (2009) have reported that difficult books were detrimental to their participants’ motivation to read. Therefore, I argue that using graded readers is the most appropriate way to introduce extensive reading to beginning and elementary JFL learners in New Zealand secondary schools or in similar settings. Without graded readers the participants would not have been able read as extensively as they did.
6.1.6 Perceived impact of extensive reading on affect

Not only did this study reveal that the participants had positive feelings about extensive reading, but it also showed that extensive reading had an impact on how they felt about the wider learning of Japanese. As shown in Chapter Four, it was found that on the whole extensive reading was perceived to have a positive impact on affect (although two students perceived no impact) (see section 4.6).

However, two students (Emma, Jane) experienced a decline in their motivation to learn Japanese, which the data suggested was due to the pressure of schoolwork/extracurricular activities and dissatisfaction with the Japanese class. I had hoped that extensive reading might be used as a tool to motivate them to persist in learning Japanese (Arnold, 2009). However, it did not help them get through a difficult time. Instead, their motivation to do extensive reading decreased at the same time. In Josie's case, her motivation for extensive reading and wider Japanese learning increased simultaneously, so we do not know whether she used extensive reading to boost her L2 learning motivation. It may be that extensive reading was unlikely to be used as a self-motivational tool, despite the positive impact on how the participants felt about wider L2 learning. Instead, it is more likely that motivation for extensive reading was affected by wider L2 learning motivation. Given the finding that most students engaged in extensive reading for the purpose of learning more Japanese, it is understandable that extensive reading was not perceived as something they would do to regain their motivation.

6.2 L2 reading motivation and its influences

In this section, key research findings relating to motivation to read extensively are discussed. This section addresses research question two, how does participants' motivation to do extensive reading change over time? and question three, what influences the motivational change and what separates students who sustain L2 reading motivation from those who do not? The perceived influences on L2 reading motivation are discussed with reference to other research, Day and Bamford's (1998) model of L2 reading motivation, Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) process model, and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. Furthermore, the differences between students who sustained L2 reading motivation and those who did not are discussed.
6.2.1 Influences on L2 reading motivation

In Chapter Four, it was shown that there were three patterns of change in L2 reading motivation. L2 reading motivation increased, decreased or remained the same while the nine JFL secondary school learners participated in the extensive reading project for five to seven months. It was suggested that these patterns were formed from the interplay of various influences, which dynamically changed over time. Few qualitative studies have explored change in L2 reading motivation over time. In this subsection, motivational influences identified in this study are discussed in comparison with a longitudinal case study by Nishino (2007). Also, some of the negative influences identified in the present study are discussed with reference to Takase (2009), a quantitative study that has investigated motivating factors for continuing Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) and demotivating factors for not reading enough.

As suggested in section 4.8, satisfaction was one of the significant positive influences on L2 reading motivation in the present study. Nishino (2007) also identified this influence. Her participants started extensive reading from graded readers and were pleased to discover that they could read in English (L2). The graded readers were interesting and they could read them comfortably. Consequently, they felt a sense of achievement and satisfaction, which in turn increased their motivation to continue reading in the L2. However, about twelve months on, they lost interest in graded readers and instead their desire to read authentic texts became strong.

In contrast, the participants in the present study adhered to graded readers throughout the project and did not display a great interest in authentic children's books. However, one student (Jane) expressed that she preferred manga (Japanese comics), as they were more fun to read. For Jane, authentic manga that were relevant to her age and her interest might have been more appealing to read than graded readers and children's books. In addition, one student (Jack) implied that he wanted to be able to read authentic texts when he became proficient enough. Therefore, the JFL learners in the present study might have become interested in authentic texts, if they had continued reading in Japanese for a much longer period until their Japanese improved and they built up the confidence to read them. The length of the extensive reading project was not long enough to trace such a change.
Examination is another influence common to the present study and Nishino’s (2007) study. The entrance exam was one of the major influences on the decision of Nishino’s two participants to discontinue extensive reading. Similarly, some students (Jack, Jane) in the present study were also affected by the NCEA assessments and exam preparation, so that their amount of reading dramatically decreased. However, the students’ perceptions about the usefulness of extensive reading to the exams in the present study differed from the perceptions of the participants in Nishino’s (2007) study, in that extensive reading was perceived to be instrumental to the NCEA exams, while the EFL learners in Japan saw it as the opposite. Thus, some of the influences identified in the present study coincided with Nishino (2007), but many of the other influences, especially factors such as the ability to motivate themselves, the lack of time and the lack of pressure to do extensive reading, which all had significant influence on the participants’ motivation for extensive reading, were not found in Nishino (2007). This may be because Nishino (2007) focused primarily on the influence of the reading materials, although she pointed out the importance of contextual factors (e.g., the entrance exam) with reference to Day and Bamford’s (1998) model. The present study has provided evidence to suggest the significant role of contextual factors. The role of context will be discussed in the next section.

The present study showed that the participants' perceived lack of time for extensive reading because of schoolwork, extracurricular activities and social life was one of the major negative influences on their motivation to reading extensively. A recent quantitative study by Takase (2009) has shown that the major demotivating factor for not reading enough in the L2 for 48 EFL university students in Japan, who read in their own time (not in class) for nine months, was due to their busy schedules of specialist subjects. The majority (58.3 percent) of the 48 students reported this in the five-point Likert questionnaire, and 20.8 percent of the 48 students also reported that a busy schedule due to part time work was a demotivating factor. This indicates that nearly 80 percent of the students reported being busy with other commitments as the reason they did not read enough. Takase’s (2009) results are consistent with the finding of the present study. Thus, the present study and Takase’s (2009) study have shown the difficulty of maintaining motivation to read extensively when reading is not done in class. This is an important implication for teachers, to be discussed in Chapter Seven.
6.2.2 Comprehensibility, readability and low-level L2 young adult learners

The participants' perceptions of reading materials with regard to comprehensibility and readability both support and do not support previous studies. In an extensive reading approach, it is assumed that comprehensibility and readability go hand in hand, regardless of the linguistic level of L2 learners (Day & Bamford, 1998). However, the analysis of the data showed that it may not be the case when it comes to low-level learners. While it appears that most participants found the reading materials in the present study interesting and relatively easy to read at the same time, this was not true for all of them. For Nick, who had the lowest level of Japanese among the participants, comprehensibility and readability could not be achieved simultaneously. Nick found books that he could read at his level boring, because none had topics of interest to him. Extensive reading was not intrinsically interesting, and the lack of interesting materials influenced his motivation to read extensively. Ease in reading contributed to more reading later in the project, but if he found more materials interesting, his motivation to read extensively might have been higher.

Nick's positive attitudes to reading in his L1 did not transfer to his L2 reading. This finding contradicts Yamashita (2004), who examined attitudes towards reading in an L1 and L2 and their influences on extensive reading in an L2. Yamashita (2004) suggests that positive attitudes towards reading in an L1 (as well as in an L2) increase motivation to read more in an L2. An explanation may be related to the discrepancy between Nick's L1 and L2 reading ability. In English (L1) he could read interesting books that engaged his attention, whereas in Japanese (L2) he could manage only what he considered as children's stories, which were not as interesting or engaging.

However, Nick's attitudes to L1 reading not transferring to L2 reading is consistent with the qualitative part of Takase's (2007) study. Takase (2007) investigated Japanese high school students' motivation for extensive reading in L2 (English). She found that intrinsic motivation for L1 reading was one of the best predictors of reading in the L2 in the quantitative part of her study. However, interviews with some of the participants who loved reading in their L1 revealed that "they could not abandon the enjoyment that they experienced when reading in Japanese and shift to the effortful and less enjoyable experience of reading in English" (p. 12). Consequently, these bookworm students read only the required
amount or even less in the L2 and continued reading in the L1. Nick seems to resemble the students in Takase’s (2007) study. He enjoyed reading challenging books with interesting topics (e.g., war and action), which engaged his attention greatly. So, it was hard for him to switch from L1 reading to L2 reading, which he found uninteresting and effortful. One wonders if the EFL students in Takase's (2007) study might not have expended much effort to read in the L2, if extensive reading was voluntary as in the present study.

Data from one participant in this study supports Yamashita (2004) and the findings drawn from the statistical analysis of Takase (2007). Josie, who called herself a bookworm (in her L1), read the most and spent the longest time reading in Japanese. Josie's positive attitudes to L1 reading transferred to L2 reading and her intrinsic motivation for L1 reading helped sustain her L2 reading motivation. Josie was able to read higher level books, so it may be that the gap between her L1 and L2 reading abilities was not as great as Nick’s. Also, the graded readers offered topics matching her interests (culture and history), and this possibly facilitated more reading.

### 6.2.3 Motivation to read extensively and Day and Bamford's (1998) model

The present study supports Day and Bamford's model (1998) in that the linguistic level of reading materials has an impact on L2 reading motivation. It was found that reading easy books had a positive influence on some students' L2 reading motivation, and that some students felt discouraged from reading when a book was beyond their linguistic competence.

However, there is evidence to suggest that challenging books can motivate L2 learners as well as easy books. What counted as an appropriate challenge for each participant was not determined by this study. However, it may be that perceptions of challenges are just as important as the actual extent of challenges. One student (Jack) mentioned that a book with a slight challenge ("some unknown words", in his words) made him want to learn more in order to read faster, whereas with an easy book, the feeling of satisfaction made him want to keep learning. Arnold (2009) suggests that the willingness to challenge oneself and the ability to regulate one's own learning ties in with self-efficacy. He found that some of the participants (German L2 advanced learners in a university in the U.S.) intentionally read difficult texts in German to challenge themselves. He interpreted this as an indication of "their growing
motivation and self-efficacy” (Arnold, 2009, p. 360). As mentioned in Chapter Four, most of my participants wanted to learn more Japanese through extensive reading, and it may be that slightly challenging books enabled them to perceive progress in their L2 learning and satisfied their desire to learn. This provided a feeling of success, which in turn increased their motivation to read. Therefore, the findings of the present study and Arnold (2009) do not support Day and Bamford (1998) with regard to the claim that only easy materials have a positive influence on motivation to read in an L2. Slightly challenging books were also motivating in the present study.

Day and Bamford's (1998) model includes “interesting materials” as a sub-component under “materials”. The finding that interesting books contributed to sustain or increase some students' motivation to read in Japanese supports this aspect of the model. However, although materials at the appropriate level may be available, they may not interest an L2 learner like Nick, as discussed above. Learners like Nick present an issue for teachers and researchers, who must determine how to make extensive reading more interesting and enjoyable for low-level young adult L2 learners.

Day and Bamford's (1998) model also suggests that the availability of reading materials has an influence on L2 reading motivation. Availability might be more problematic in the JFL context because there are a limited number of published graded readers (fewer than 100), which have been made by a small group of volunteer Japanese language teachers in Japan. On the other hand, in ESL, thousands of graded readers have been published by major publishers such as Cambridge University Press and Oxford University Press. Day and Bamford (1998, pp. 174-198) provide an EPER bibliography of high quality language learner literature which contains approximately 550 titles. Thus, it is difficult to obtain a large number of graded readers with a range of topics and levels in a JFL context.

Previous studies involving JFL learners (Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Leung 2002; Sandom & Macalister, 2009) did not use graded readers. Leung (2002) and Sandom and Macalister (2009) reported that their participants had difficulty finding appropriate materials, and that this difficulty had a negative influence on their motivation to read in Japanese. In contrast, a reasonable number of Japanese graded readers were available to the participants in the present study, and they were able to get a book and take it home to read as they pleased (except during school holidays).
However, this was only possible because of the small number of participants, and for some students (e.g., Nick), it was limited in terms of topics and levels. The ready availability helped some students (Alan, Tracey) continue with extensive reading, whereas Jack thought he had no other books to read at his level, and did not read as much in the latter half of the project. In short, the present study supports Day and Bamford’s (1998) model in that availability of materials affected L2 reading motivation.

The present study overall supports the model with respect to the first variable of Day and Bamford's (1998) model, that is, materials. Interesting, easy materials and availability had an influence on L2 reading motivation. However, it can be argued that the model might be simplistic, because it does not explain the dilemma that achieving both readability and comprehensibility is difficult for low-level L2 learners. This is especially a problem with extensive reading in a JFL context because of the limited number of graded readers, which in turn restricts the range of topics and levels. Also, the present study has shown evidence that not only easy materials, but also slightly challenging ones, could be motivating for L2 learners.

Furthermore, many of the influences on L2 reading motivation identified in the present study are not included in Day and Bamford's (1998) model. This may be because Day and Bamford (1998) look at variables affecting the decision to read in the second language, so that the model captures motivation at only one point of time. L2 learners do not derive benefits unless they read extensively for a long period of time. (In most previous studies the participants read for ten weeks or longer.) The extensive reading project in the present study lasted for five to seven months, and the participants faced the decision of whether they wanted to read another book on a daily basis. The students' perceptions about materials changed according to the book they were reading at that time. In addition, there were other things happening in their lives such as schoolwork, extracurricular activities and socialising during the project. Day and Bamford's model (1998) seems to consider these contextual influences as a less important variable than materials and L2 reading attitudes. Thus, it appears that Day and Bamford's (1998) model does not capture motivation to read extensively over time.
Altogether, the findings in the present study showed that L2 reading motivation might be more complex and dynamic than Day and Bamford (1998) propose in their model.

6.2.4 Influences on L2 reading motivation and Dörnyei and Ottó's process model

Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model was developed in an attempt to describe motivational process over time (see section 2.2.1.5). Although this model is concerned with wider L2 learning motivation, it might also capture the temporal aspect of motivation to do extensive reading. When data collection began, the participants had already formed their goals and intentions. In other words, they were over the 'preactional phase' and into the 'actional phase'. Therefore, many of the influences on L2 reading motivation in the present study (see sections 4.8 and 4.9) were expected to correspond to motivational influences on executive motivation (i.e., sustaining effort) in the actional phase of the process model. This expectation was confirmed with respect to the following influences on executive motivation: 'perceived contingent relationship between action', 'perceived progress', 'the perceived quality of the learning experience', 'task conflict', 'competing action tendencies', 'other distracting influences', 'availability of action alternatives', 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies', and 'sense of self-determination/autonomy'. (It was not expected that all motivational influences on executive motivation would be found, however, since this model was adapted to a specific activity (extensive reading which took place outside of the classroom): for example, 'classroom goal structure', 'influences of the dynamics of the learner group' were not found in the data.) The motivational influences on executive motivation in the actional phase are discussed below.

In Chapter Four, it was shown that satisfaction from being able to understand a book in Japanese and making progress contributed to sustain the participants' motivation to continue extensive reading. This accords with the 'perceived contingent relationship between action' and the 'perceived progress' in the process model. This means that students continually evaluate their performance in terms of accomplishing the desired outcome, and they gain a feeling of success when their action is conducive to achieving the outcome (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001). In this study, when participants perceived that they were achieving their desired outcome of improving
their Japanese through extensive reading, they experienced a feeling of satisfaction, which then provided further motivation to read in Japanese.

For some students, the perceptions that reading was fun and that extensive reading was helpful to their language development had positive influences on their motivation to read extensively in Japanese. These two influences appear to correspond to 'the perceived quality of the learning experience', which in this study is that of extensive reading. There are five dimensions in the perceived quality, which draw on Schumann's (1998) neurobiological model of stimulus appraisal: novelty (degree of unexpectedness/familiarity), pleasantness (attractiveness), goal/need significance (whether the stimulus is instrumental on satisfying or achieving goals), coping potential (whether the individual expects to be able to cope with the event), self and social image (whether the event is compatible with the social norms and the individual's self concept) (as cited in Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 58). Reading being fun, which is attributed partly to interesting materials and the freedom to choose what they read, is associated with 'pleasantness'. Notions about helpfulness accord with 'goal/need significance', in that participants perceived that extensive reading contributed to achieving their goal of improving their Japanese.

As shown in Chapter Four, sustaining the effort to read extensively for five to seven months was not easy, and half of the students displayed either declining motivational intensity in the latter half of the project or a relatively low level of motivational intensity throughout the project. Some of the negative influences are consistent with motivational influences at the actional phase in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model. Schoolwork, extracurricular activities, socialising, hobbies, and so on appear to be related to 'task conflict', 'competing action tendencies', 'other distracting influences' and the 'availability of action alternatives' in the process model, which are thought to have a weakening effect on executive motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001).

One of the things that separated students who sustained L2 reading motivation from those who did not in the present study was whether they were able to self-regulate. Because extensive reading was voluntary, the individual's capacity for self-regulation seemed all the more important. This appears to be associated with 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies', which "constitute an important source of scaffolding and enhancing motivation" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 99).
There are three types of self-regulatory strategies, namely learning, goal setting and action maintenance strategies. In particular, goal setting, which refers to setting up quantitative and qualitative standards of performance, can help guide and regulate learners' action better than distal, vague or 'do-your-best' kind of goals (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, pp. 59-60). The significance of goal-setting strategies is also supported by Ushioda (2003), who claims that goal setting is instrumental in promoting the internal growth of motivation. Alan provided a clear example of the self-regulatory strategies of goal setting. He mentioned setting a goal of reading one book each week as a means to sustain his motivation to read in Japanese. Alan's goal was clear and short-term rather than a vague goal such as 'read as much as I can', and it helped him continue reading, as the goal provided immediate incentive and feedback.

In addition, participants who perceived the voluntary nature of the extensive reading project in a positive light were motivated to read in Japanese by the fact that they could take responsibility for their own reading (e.g., whether they read or not, what to read, when to read), unlike homework that they were forced to do. This influence seems to be related to 'sense of self-determination/autonomy' in the process model. This motivational influence draws on Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory in that "the desire to be self-initiating and self-regulating of one's actions, is an innate human need, and is a prerequisite for any behaviour to be intrinsically rewarding" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 58).

In short, Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model appears to have a fairly good fit with the influences on L2 reading motivation identified in this study.

More importantly, however, the data analysis suggests that motivational influences in the preactional and the actional phases can overlap. This differs from the process model, even though Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) acknowledge overlap may occur. However, they also claim "the motivational influences associated with the actional phase are not directly related to the motives affecting the earlier stages of the process" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998 p. 52). This argument draws on Heckhausen and Kuhl's Action Control Theory, which suggests, "very few motivational forces have a global effect on every stage of the actor's behaviour" (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 52).

In the process model, the preactional phase is concerned with the process of deciding to do something, which consists of three subprocesses; goal-setting, intention formation and the initiation of intention enactment, as mentioned above. The
process model proposes that even if the learner decides that he or she wants to do something (goal-setting), it does not always lead to undertaking the effort that is required. Intention formation concerns "a process of weighing the feasibility and desirability of the available options, and visualising the possible consequences of one's potential actions" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 94). One of the influences on the intention formation process in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model is 'external demands', which refer to a final 'push' needed to make the learner commit to the decision. Two types of influences in the actional phase in this study seem to be related to 'external demands', one negative and one positive. The negative influence of external demands is that the lack of reward, punishment and pressure to read extensively meant there was little to push some students to read extensively. The positive influence of 'external demands' in the preactional phase in this study is associated with the participants' need to do well in the NCEA exams. In fact, this one contextual factor, NCEA, had a global influence, in that it affected the participants' decision to volunteer, the extent of effort expended, and post-evaluation of extensive reading. Therefore, it seems that the process model does not fully capture the participants' motivation to read extensively in the present study.

6.2.5 Motivation to read extensively and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation

As shown above, neither Day and Bamford's (1998) model nor Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) process model may be sufficient for describing L2 reading motivation in this study. The words reward and punishment in the negative influences and satisfaction and fun in the positive influences are reminiscent of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, which is "arguably the most powerful dimension of the whole motivation construct in general" (Brown, 2000, p. 164). As stated in Chapter Two (see section 2.2.1.3), when learners are intrinsically motivated, they engage in an activity for its own sake to experience pleasure and satisfaction. On the other hand, when learners are extrinsically motivated they engage in an activity to receive a reward from outside or to avoid punishment. In this section, I discuss the perceived influences on L2 reading motivation identified in this study with reference to intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. Also, I consider whether each of the participants had intrinsic or extrinsic motivation for extensive reading, and discuss whether that accounts for their motivation to do extensive reading.
Intrinsic motivation (IM) can be categorised into three types: IM-knowledge (i.e., to learn), IM-Accomplishment (i.e., towards achievement) and IM-Stimulation (i.e., to experience stimulation) (Noel, et al., 2000; Vallerand, 1997). The satisfaction that was experienced by the participants in this study belongs to IM-knowledge, because they felt satisfied when they could understand a book in Japanese. Making progress motivated the participants to read more and this is associated with IM-Accomplishment, because they gained satisfaction in doing well in reading and in achieving their goal to improve their Japanese. Setting a goal and sticking to it is also IM-Accomplishment. One student (Alan) expended more effort on extensive reading to achieve his goal, which in turn gave him a feeling of accomplishment. Another student (Tracey) perceived that the fun that she experienced in extensive reading helped her continue reading. This is associated with IM-Stimulation because she experienced a sensation (fun) from engaging in extensive reading.

Three levels of extrinsic motivation (EM) have been distinguished depending on the extent to which the motivation is self-determined (i.e., internalised into the self-concept). They are external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation, ranging from the lowest to highest level of self-determination (Noel, et al., 2000; Vallerand, 1997). Some of the negative influences on motivation to read extensively in the present study, such as the absence of reward and punishment, appear to belong to external regulation, because extensive reading did not provide enough incentives to engage in extensive reading.

Lack of pressure seems to be related to introjected regulation. The participants (Ben, Drew, Emma, Nick) perceived this, perhaps because doing extensive reading in Japanese had not been entirely due to their personal choice. Ben in particular might have participated in the extensive reading project not to disappoint the teacher (I will discuss Ben further below). However, Emma and Drew enjoyed extensive reading (at least during part of the project), which indicates intrinsic motivation. This suggests the complexity of accounting for motivation to read extensively using IM and EM construct.

Identified regulation is a more self-determined form of motivation. In fact, Noel et al. (2000) suggest that we can group identified regulation and intrinsic motivation together as highly self-determined forms of motivation. Some of the positive influences on motivation to read extensively in the present study, such as the
perception that ER is helpful and the strategy of setting a goal and sticking to it appear to be related to identified regulation. Participants read extensively because they perceived extensive reading as useful for achieving the goal to improve their Japanese. As mentioned above, setting a goal and sticking to it is also related to IM-Accomplishment. However, it may be also possible that achieving a goal was personally important. For example, it helped Alan sustain his motivation to read extensively (I will discuss Alan further below).

When change in motivation to read extensively is considered, its complexity is apparent. Although on the whole the participants (Alan, Emma, Jack, Jane, Josie, Tracey) whose data indicated influences related to intrinsic motivation (e.g., satisfaction, making progress, goal setting, fun) seemed to read more, only two participants (Josie, Tracey) read more than the recommended amount throughout the project. In fact, some participants (Emma, Jack, Jane) who presumably had intrinsic motivation were unable to sustain L2 reading motivation in the second half of the project. Their motivational decline might be related to how their intrinsic motivation became controlled, suppressed or distorted by external forces through regulating forces in the educational system (e.g., exams) (Ushioda, 2003, p. 93). For example, Jane, who displayed IM-Knowledge and IM-Accomplishment, almost stopped reading in term two. She was stressed about schoolwork (mainly related to NCEA assessments for other subjects), and consequently, this had a negative impact on her motivation for extensive reading. Jack also became too busy with exam preparation and did not have time for reading. These students' lack of ability to self-regulate their reading might mean they did not internalise the habit of extensive reading to a great extent. However, the analysis of data indicates that Jack might have had identified regulation, as he seemed to strongly believe extensive reading was important for his L2 learning. It seems difficult for IM and EM to account for these contextual influences.

It appears that each participant's motivation to read extensively is also complex. The findings indicate that Josie had intrinsic motivation for extensive reading, but she appears to have identified regulation as well. Josie chose to read extensively and maintained her motivation because she came to believe that extensive reading was conducive to achieving her goals such as succeeding in the NCEA and improving her Japanese for her future. It may be that identified regulation was
associated with Josie's intrinsic motivation. In other words, because she believed extensive reading was personally important for her to achieve her goals, she gained IM-Knowledge (satisfaction) and IM-Accomplishment (making progress).

Alan's motivation dramatically increased in term two, as he set a goal and thrived on achieving it. Setting a goal had a positive influence on his motivation to read extensively, as he gained satisfaction from achieving the goal. As mentioned above, this could mean, from IM and EM perspectives, Alan had identified regulation. In other words, he chose to read one book a week because he believed that goal setting was effective for increasing his academic performance (apparently thanks to the tutorials that he attended after school). This provided a sense of accomplishment, which in turn provided further motivation to continue extensive reading. Josie and Alan's cases indicate that their intrinsic motivation might be associated with identified regulation.

The data suggested that two students (Ben, Nick) had influences only related to external regulation and introjected regulation (no credit, no reward, and lack of pressure). Ben and Nick needed a reward and punishment respectively in order to motivate themselves to read extensively. Because introjected regulation means students only respond to pressure, a lack of pressure negatively influenced the amount of effort they made to read extensively.

However, in Nick's case, his motivation to read extensively increased after the first term. There are three possible explanations. First, breaking-up with his girlfriend and having no English books to read made time available for extensive reading. In other words, negative motivational influences in the process model such as 'other distracting influences' and 'availability of action alternatives' were removed. It seems difficult to account for these external influences with the IM and EM concepts.

Second, Nick was able to read in Japanese more easily in term two. More materials at an appropriate linguistic level became available (as was noted in the discussion of Day and Bamford's (1998) model), so Nick felt he was able to cope with reading (i.e., 'coping potential' in the process model). In self-determination theory, one of the antecedents to variation in motivation is learners' perceptions of competence (Noel et al., 2000). Therefore, it can be seen that Nick's improved perception of competence in his reading ability in Japanese might have had a positive influence on his motivation.
Third, while Nick displayed external regulation during the project, he also came to value extensive reading and see its usefulness as a study tool, which may have facilitated reading when the negative influences became absent. Nick's positive attitude (the value component of attitude) toward L2 reading (Yamashita, 2004) had come to have an effect due to the disappearance of powerful negative influences. It may be that Nick came to have some sort of identified regulation, in that he engaged in extensive reading more in terms two and three.

In contrast, Ben did not appear to have positive attitudes toward extensive reading as much as Nick, as illustrated in his comment "I couldn't be bothered", and his motivation to read extensively remained at a low level. This could be considered amotivation (i.e., he saw no relation between his actions and the consequences of his actions) (Deci & Ryan, 1985). However, Ben perceived benefits in extensive reading, which indicates Ben was not amotivated. Ben explicitly commented on the need for credit in the interview, so he had external regulation. Interestingly, Ben volunteered to participate in the project, although he knew that he was not going to get credit for extensive reading. Ben's data indicated that he did what the teacher told him to do in class, and I observed during the fieldwork that the teacher and Ben (and other students at Boys' High School) had a close relationship, so Ben might have decided to participate in order not to disappoint the teacher (who, as described in the methodology, had negotiated her role in introducing the project to the students). In other words, introjected regulation might have propelled his decision (the preactional phase in the process model), but it was not enough to maintain his motivation to read extensively once the project began (the actional phase). It seems that the only way Ben would have done extensive reading would have been to give him credit, as he said, and/or do it in class.

As for Drew, it is not clear what self-determined forms of motivation he had. Drew's data indicate IM-Knowledge, in that he enjoyed learning Japanese through extensive reading, but motivational influences (e.g., satisfaction, making progress and fun) that are associated with intrinsic motivation did not emerge from his data. At the same time, he mentioned the lack of pressure as the main reason for being unable to get into a routine of reading, which suggests that extensive reading was not internalised to a high extent. That is, it was introjected regulation. It could be that Drew also felt obliged to participate in the project not to disappoint the teacher like
Ben, but I doubt that Drew had external regulation like Ben and Nick. He ranked his enjoyment of reading four on a five-point scale in all interviews, which is higher than Ben and Nick, who ranked their enjoyment only three to three and a half in all interviews. In addition, although Drew was asked multiple times why he could not get into a routine, he only expressed the difficulty of fitting the reading into his routine and never mentioned the need for reward or punishment. To sum up, it may be that Drew had a combination of two types of motivation: IM-knowledge and introjected regulation. However, this is inconclusive because Drew may not have been able to fully articulate what influenced his motivation to read extensively.

Overall, motivational influences related to intrinsic motivation had a positive impact and those related to extrinsic motivation had a negative impact on L2 reading motivation in the present study. Furthermore, the participants who displayed intrinsic motivation for extensive reading tended to sustain L2 reading motivation better than those who displayed extrinsic motivation. This supports Wang and Guthrie (2004), a study in L1 reading investigating relationships between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the amount of reading, past reading achievement and text comprehension. The study found that children with intrinsic motivation involved in pleasure reading more frequently than did those with extrinsic motivation.

However, accounting for motivation to read extensively with reference to IM and EM is not straightforward. It is not that a student has one type of motivation or the other. This study suggests that participants can have more than one self-determined form of motivation, and that their self-determined forms of motivation changed over time. Intrinsic motivation may be suppressed by external factors related to educational system (Ushioda, 2003), and the extent to which participants internalised extensive reading into their self-concept might influence how they coped with difficult situations. Also, there appears to be a relationship between identified regulation and intrinsic motivation. For example, achieving a goal, which Alan considered as important, led to a sense of accomplishment when he achieved it.

In conclusion, the present study shows that L2 reading motivation cannot be described simplistically using a single motivation theory or model. It seems that Day and Bamford's (1998) model is too narrow in its scope, as it overlooks the importance of the influence of context and the temporal aspect of L2 reading motivation. Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model does not account for contextual influences which had
a global effect in the present study. Intrinsic/extrinsic motivation does not account for the findings that intrinsic motivation can be suppressed by external force and that motivation to read extensively is complex and dynamic. Therefore, a new model that describes dynamic motivation to read extensively in the L2 is necessary. This will be presented and discussed below (see section 6.4).

6.3 Purposes, context and extensive reading

So far in this chapter, research findings related to perceptions about extensive reading and motivation to read extensively have been discussed. These findings provided answers to the research questions. In this section, I discuss research findings related to purposes of extensive reading and the role of context in extensive reading. This section does not directly address any one research question, although it might be said to concern all of the research questions.

6.3.1 Purposes of extensive reading

In the present study, the data suggested that the participants began extensive reading with the primary aim of improving their general skills in Japanese or reading skills in Japanese. For most students, their purpose for doing extensive reading remained the same over time, except for two students (Josie, Tracey) who instead came to read for pleasure with more reading experience. In other words, they still wanted to learn Japanese from the reading, but reading for pleasure became more dominant. To my knowledge, no previous extensive reading studies have reported L2 learners' purposes of extensive reading. It may be that extensive reading was a requirement in most studies, and L2 learners had to read to satisfy the requirement (Robb, 2002), or they may have read for pleasure as Day and Bamford's (2002) top ten principles suggest.

There are two possible reasons why the participants' reading purposes were chiefly to learn more Japanese in this study. First, they wanted to do well in the NCEA and/or scholarship exams. Two students (Josie, Nick) mentioned at the beginning of the project that extensive reading would assist them in passing or doing well in their exam as an additional motive for taking up extensive reading. Because the findings show that more than the majority perceived exam-related benefits, the other students might have also had this purpose in mind. Second, along with this
extrinsic purpose, they might also have wanted to improve their Japanese so that they could fulfil their dreams. The majority of the participants wanted to live in or visit Japan in the future and to be fluent enough to communicate with native speakers. Nearly half of the participants aspired to achieve near native fluency in Japanese. It may be that these intrinsic and extrinsic reasons coexisted behind the purpose to learn more Japanese, although they are theoretically distinct from each other (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Having both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons to read is consistent with the view in L1 reading research that both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons influence children's reading (Wang and Guthrie, 2004, p. 180).

Day and Bamford (2002) suggest that L2 learners read for the same sorts of reasons and in the same way as native speakers read in their first language in extensive reading. This means that L2 learners read for pleasure, for information, for general understanding, and they focus on the meaning and read fluently. However, most participants in this study read extensively to learn more Japanese. In the context of this study, formal learning fed into NCEA, which promotes perfect comprehension rather than general understanding and so might have prevented students from reading in a pleasurable way. Reading as native speakers read might have been a goal that the participants could ultimately achieve, if they had learned more Japanese through extensive reading. But in this context, this may have been too ambitious. However, doing extensive reading to learn is an indication that the participants set a purpose relevant to their needs, which are influenced by the context. Combined with the exam-related benefits, which were also influenced by NCEA, it may be that the social environment needs to be considered as more significant in extensive reading than has so far been considered in the literature.

6.3.2 Extensive reading and context

From the previous discussions on exam-related benefits, L2 reading motivation, and reading purposes, it can be seen that extensive reading was strongly influenced by contextual factors, especially NCEA testing. Extensive reading was perceived as useful for exams and the participants’ purpose for extensive reading was associated with their desire to perform well in the exam. Moreover, many of the participants experienced a lack of time because of schoolwork (mainly associated with the NCEA assessments and exam preparation), extracurricular activities and
social life. This, in turn, influenced how much effort they expended on extensive reading. In addition, I cautiously suggest that formal L2 learning that focuses on the NCEA assessments and exams, for which students’ success was recognized, might have contributed to the students developing extrinsic reasons for engaging in tasks.

The influence that society (where context is situated) has on L2 teaching and learning can be profound, as Kramsch (1993) describes:

Foreign language learners in educational settings have been socialized and schooled to view the acquisition of knowledge in various ways, according to the values prevalent in their society…. In all cases, foreign language teaching and learning is subservient to the goals of institutions that impose their values and their definition of the educational challenge on all subjects in the curriculum. (p. 256)

The situation in New Zealand is that learning another language is positioned as one of the essential learning areas. The New Zealand Curriculum Framework states that the benefits of learning another language are developing language abilities in both the first and second language, and contributing to personal growth and intercultural competence (Ministry of Education, n.d.). More specifically, the New Zealand Curriculum states that Japanese is an important language for New Zealanders because of their economic and cultural ties with Japan, especially the rapidly growing tourism industry in both countries. It also mentions that students find Japanese language and culture interesting, as it is different from New Zealand's main cultures (Ministry of Education, n.d.).

The participants' motivations for learning Japanese appeared to be in line with this statement. The data suggested that they found the Japanese language and culture interesting and most of them had a desire to go to Japan. Some students strongly hoped to work and live in Japan long term. However, the philosophy of the New Zealand Curriculum regarding personal growth and intercultural competence and the actual practice in class seems to be inconsistent. In reality, based on my observations, the learning of Japanese in class is organised according to what needs to be learned for the NCEA assessments and exams, with the teacher ensuring that the students learn vocabulary and structures in the NCEA curriculum and practise the four skills in preparation for them. Thus, it seems logical that the students in this study were influenced by this situation, and the exams became a significant part of doing Japanese at school as well as fulfilling their intrinsic interest. Accordingly, this influenced their perceptions about extensive reading.
Few previous studies on extensive reading appear to have considered context, except Nishino (2007) and Takase (2007), both studies involving EFL high school students in Japan. As has been discussed, Takase (2007) showed that one of the components of L2 reading motivation was entrance exam-related extrinsic motivation, and suggests that this was influenced by the social context where university entrance exams have high stakes for high school students. Nishino (2007) suggested that her participants discontinued extensive reading, partly because they did not perceive it as instrumental to passing the upcoming entrance exams. In other words, the social context (university entrance exams) had an influence on the participants’ decision to read extensively. Nishino (2007) also suggested that their learning environment influenced the use of reading strategies. The participants were expected to understand every word in the text and were advised to consult a dictionary for an unknown word, which affected the use of a dictionary and guessing from context. These two studies imply that context plays a role in extensive reading, but as discussed above, Day and Bamford’s (1998) model regards the social environment as a much less significant influence on L2 reading motivation than reading materials and L2 reading attitudes.

One author who indirectly focuses on the role of context by discussing extensive reading programmes in Asian countries is Robb (2002). Robb (2002) discusses an alternative view to Day and Bamford's (2002) top ten principles for extensive reading based on his long experience with implementing extensive reading programmes in an Asian context. The problems with some of the principles that Robb (2002) raises appear to be relevant to the context of the present study as well, and his arguments strongly imply the importance of the role of context in extensive reading.

First, Robb (2002) criticises Day and Bamford (2002) for basing some of their principles on the assumption that students are capable of taking responsibility for their own learning and that students read for themselves. In Asian settings, according to Robb (2002), students are generally not self-motivated to learn, and the students' priorities are extracurricular activities. This makes it difficult for the teacher to ensure students read extensively in a voluntary manner. Robb (2002) maintains that in order for students to read a large quantity in the L2, enjoyment alone is not sufficient to motivate them, and extensive reading needs to be compulsory. Consequently, it is inevitable that enjoyment or interest becomes less important, even though that would be desirable.
Although the present study took place in a Western (New Zealand) context, it was found that it was not easy for the participants to manage reading for themselves. Only two students (Josie, Tracey) read the recommended amount throughout the project. Moreover, it was found that one third of the participants (Emma, Drew, Nick) preferred extensive reading to be compulsory, in that they thought that if they were required to read a certain amount each week, they would have read more. However, they still liked being able to choose what they read. This not only indicates that they were able to self-regulate in some respects, but also that they were aware of their lack of self-regulation in other respects. These students are young adults who are likely to still be developing 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies' (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998), which play an important role in sustaining motivation. It may be that extensive reading raised their awareness of this important factor, and it may be that it helped the students learn to be more autonomous.

The students might have been at the stage of developing the reactive autonomy that East Asian students are likely to have (Littlewood, 1999). Reactive autonomy is one of the two forms of autonomy he proposes; it "does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resources autonomously in order to reach their goal" (p. 75). Thus most of the participants in the present study might have needed the teacher to give them the direction, guidance and support to read extensively in Japanese. In contrast, proactive autonomy, which is equivalent to the autonomy researchers usually refer to in the West, regulates both the direction of activity and the activity itself. Almost half of the participants (Alan, Jack, Jane, Josie) liked extensive reading to be voluntary in all aspects (i.e., how much, when, how fast and what to read), and indicated that their motivation for extensive reading would decrease if they did extensive reading to fulfil a requirement. These students might have been more aware of self-regulatory strategies than the students above and might have had proactive autonomy to a certain degree. However, as in the cases of Jack and Jane, negative contextual influences (e.g., NCEA related schoolwork and preparation for the NCEA exams) overpowered their autonomy. These students might not yet have developed a high level of proactive autonomy. This is also reminiscent of studies on learner beliefs by White (1999, 2003), in that self-instructed L2 learners came to believe that they were responsible for their own learning, and that their internal qualities and qualities within their
control (e.g., motivation and persistence) determined success in their language learning in a distance learning context.

The range of self-regulatory ability means there is a dilemma as to whether extensive reading should be voluntary or compulsory. The benefit of students taking responsibility for their own reading was that extensive reading was more enjoyable and interesting, which in turn increased L2 reading motivation. Should we sacrifice these students for the sake of others to guarantee the amount of reading? This is a tricky question. It may be that our priority should be to make them read a certain amount if we want all students to derive the benefits, as Robb (2002) maintains. However, voluntary extensive reading can provide students with the opportunity to learn Japanese in a different way to formal learning, and has the potential to foster self-regulation in students.

Second, Robb (2002) states that another problem is associated with Day and Bamford's (2002) assumption that extensive reading takes place in class, where the teacher is there to supervise the students. This is not the case in this context, as there is simply not enough time for extensive reading in class. Therefore, students are required to do the reading outside the classroom. He believes that students will not read when reading is done outside class "unless there is a clear follow-up or tracking mechanism to hold them responsible for their work" (Robb, 2002, p. 147). Simple reading records and book reports have not been effective in his experience. Similarly, in this study, the participants engaged in the reading outside class, and, as is evident from the findings, the majority of the students did not read as much as subjects in other studies. The participants were asked only to fill in a simple reading record sheet, so there was no "clear follow-up", as Robb (2002) suggests. Given the circumstances of the schools, it might have been difficult to incorporate extensive reading in class due to time constraints, even if I were the teacher. As mentioned earlier, students are busy learning new sentence structures, kanji and vocabulary and practising for the assessments and exams. For example, in an informal interview, the teacher at Boys' High School revealed that she had to teach many structures before the exams, because her students started Japanese one year later than those in other schools.

Above all, what Robb (2002) is implying is that the role of extensive reading changes depending on the context where it takes place. In other words, the context influences how extensive reading is best implemented, its purpose and the students'
perceptions about extensive reading. In his paper promoting extensive reading in the English for academic purposes context, Macalister (2009) acknowledges the importance of context and states that the context determines the nature of the extensive reading programme (p. 215). Likewise, the extensive reading in this study is influenced by its context, which is a New Zealand secondary school context. Robb (2002) argues that Day and Bamford's (2002) principles are influenced by a Western context, so they are not necessarily appropriate in an Asian context. New Zealand is usually categorised as Western, but the context of the present study shares commonality with the Asian context as well. For example, the participants in the present study, who were secondary school students in New Zealand, perceived the NCEA exams as very important, and their motivation was influenced by their need to do well on them like the EFL learners in Takase (2007) and Nishino (2007). Similar to the EFL learners in Asian settings described by Robb (2002), the participants in this study found it hard to read large quantities regularly when extensive reading was voluntary.

This suggests that "Asian" and "Western" are essentialising views of culture. Kubota (2004) states, "the concept of cultural difference often presupposes the existence of essential, stable and objective traits that can be found in one's own and the target culture, creating the polarized difference between them" (p. 21) in second language education. However, Kubota (2004) argues that cultural difference is not fixed and it changes depending on what culture is compared with. Moreover, a culture is not homogeneous and there is diversity within a culture (Kubota, 2004). Even between the two participating schools in the present study, which were located in the same small city in New Zealand, the classroom cultures were different. Classroom observations revealed that in Girls' High School, the students often worked in pairs, and the teacher provided a range of different activities (e.g., mind maps, games, watching videos on Youtube) and more interaction, whereas in Boys' High School the students mostly worked individually with less interaction, and they learned in the more traditional way (read a passage and translate to L1). Therefore, we should not stereotype any culture, but instead consider the role of extensive reading context by context.

As is evident from what has been discussed in this chapter, the context influenced the JFL learners' perceptions about extensive reading, L2 reading
motivation and reading purposes. The differences between New Zealand and Japan aroused the participants' interest in the Japanese culture, and extensive reading was perceived to provide opportunities for learning about it. Therefore, I argue that extensive reading is not simply about reading in an L2 and that it is a more complex phenomenon than previously assumed.

Extensive reading thus needs to be considered beyond the cognitive perspective of L2 reading. As there is an argument that L2 motivation is "a socially mediated process" (Ushioda, 2003, p. 90), it appears that extensive reading is also socially mediated. The view that extensive reading is not only cognitive but also social supports a sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition (Atkinson, 2002). Atkinson (2002) makes a general argument that L2 learning is social and opposes the cognitive view that learning occurs only inside the learner's head. The findings in this study provide evidence that supports a sociocognitive view of extensive reading. In this view, it is assumed that context influences all aspects of extensive reading. In the final section below, I present a model that attempts to more fully and accurately display the role of context, including social influences, on motivation to read extensively in the L2.

6.4 Dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in L2

Although existing models of motivation in extensive reading include issues specific to extensive reading, they fail to include issues relevant to motivation in general. Similarly, existing models of motivation in general fail to include issues specific to extensive reading. Analysis of the data collected for this study suggests that both general and extensive reading motivation include a temporal aspect and contextual influences that are not addressed as fully as they should be. I will therefore present a model based on the findings of this study that draws largely on Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model, which explicitly addresses the temporal aspect but not extensive reading, but also integrates Day and Bamford's (1998) model, which explicitly addresses extensive reading but not the temporal aspect. Each of the motivational influences in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model was carefully considered in terms of whether it was compatible with themes in the present study, and whether it was placed in the appropriate phase. For example, as mentioned above, some motivational influences in the actional phase of the process model appear in the
preactional subphase of this model, and those that are not applicable in the present study (e.g., classroom goal structure) do not appear in the model.

The flow chart below (Figure 6.1) illustrates the model. As can be seen, it represents a two-tiered motivation process, with a smaller cycle embedded within a larger cycle. The larger cycle represents the entire extensive reading project, which lasted five to seven months. The preactional phase is the period from the participants being invited to participate in the project to deciding to volunteer. The actional phase is the five to seven months during the project, and the postactional phase is when they evaluated their experiences of the project at its end.

The smaller cycle is embedded in the actional phase of the overall process. This represents the day-to-day motivation process: participants had to decide whether they would read multiple times during the project, which meant they had to evaluate how it had gone previously, which in turn affected the next decision. Therefore, a whole preactional-actional-postactional cycle was embedded within the actional phase. What occurred within the smaller cycle was critical to what occurred in the larger cycle, as small and incremental changes in the smaller cycle led to large and significant changes in the larger cycle. Some of the significant changes in the larger motivational cycle were tied to the context, more generally to larger contextual factors (e.g., personal relationships), which influenced daily decision-making in the smaller cycle (e.g., spend time with friends instead of read). Therefore, in the model, context surrounds the overall process of motivation to read extensively.
Figure 6.1. Dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in the L2

This marks a difference between my model and previous models of both general and extensive reading motivation. In Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) process model, one of the influences on goal setting in the preactional phase is environmental effects, such as the expectations of others. However, external demands, such as the need to pass exams, appear in intention formation in the preactional phase. In Day and Bamford’s (1998) model of motivation in extensive reading, environmental effects, such as the influence of others, are characterised as a variable affecting motivation.
prior to decision-making. However, in my model, I represent the role of context on motivation as a global influence. In particular, in the present study the data showed that the expectations of others concerned external demands since parents and teachers wanted the participants to do well on the NCEA exams, which shows a more complex relationship between factors than what Dörnyei and Ottó show in their 1998 model. In addition, in the postactional phase, most of the participants’ evaluations of the extensive reading they had done were expressed in terms of its effect on their anticipated exam results. Thus, in my model, I try to capture the fact that context influences motivation in all phases.

In the following sections, I will describe each phase of the model in more detail.

6.4.1 Motivational influences on preactional phase

As Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) claim, during the preactional phase individuals go through three sub-processes before they act upon their intentions. At the goal setting stage, their wishes, hopes and desires with perceived opportunities become an actual goal (e.g., 'I want to try extensive reading'). Motivational influences on goal setting in this model are 'incentive values' associated with extensive reading. Incentive values can be 'intrinsic pleasure' and 'instrumental benefits'. For example, some participants thought extensive reading would be fun, which is related to intrinsic pleasure, while some expected that it would help them with learning more Japanese and with the NCEA exams, which are related to instrumental benefits. Others appeared to be influenced by the expectations of others—their teachers and their parents—and the perception that doing well on the NCEA exams is important for high school students in New Zealand.

At the intention formation stage, the goal is turned into an intention, which refers to the actual decision to participate in the project. Motivational influences on intention formation in this model are 'expectancy of success', 'perceived relevance of the goal', 'need for achievement', and 'learner beliefs / L2 reading attitudes'. Participants were asked to read one 'easy' book that they wanted to read each week, which they envisioned that they could do at that time. In other words, they perceived the likelihood of goal-attainment (viz. expectancy of success). Since the project followed Day and Bamford's (2002) principles, this meant that prior to the project,
participants expected that reading materials would be easy and interesting, and they would therefore be able to cope with reading at their linguistic level. Thus, the two components (materials and reading ability) of Day and Bamford's (1998) model are integrated in 'expectancy of success'.

Also, participants thought that extensive reading would help with their Japanese, in which they wanted to do well. In other words, they perceived that doing extensive reading served their desire to be successful in Japanese (viz. perceived relevance of the goal). Individuals who have a high need for achievement are interested in excellence for its own sake. Some participants in the present study seemed to have this disposition (e.g., Josie), which facilitated their decision to try extensive reading, because they wanted to excel in Japanese, and extensive reading was perceived as instrumental to that goal. Beliefs that individuals have about L2 learning have an influence on their decision to try extensive reading. Some participants seemed to believe that Japanese could not be learned quickly or effortlessly and so they needed to do more outside class. It was perceived that extensive reading would provide such opportunities. Similar to beliefs is attitudes towards reading in the L2. Motivational questionnaires showed that participants considered reading in Japanese as important and had positive feelings about it. Their positive attitudes toward reading in Japanese seemed to influence their decision to participate in the project. Thus, another component of Day and Bamford's model (1998), attitudes toward reading in the L2, is placed in preactional phase.

Lastly, 'external demands', which give individuals a final push to make commitment, are contextual factors influencing intention formation, because external demands are related to their need to do well in the NCEA exams. Doing well in the NCEA exams is not only their own desire, but also the expectation of their parents, teachers and school, as mentioned above. Although the NCEA exam may not be as high stakes as some of the exams discussed in this context (for example, see Dörnyei, 2001, p. 95), it did pressure the participants to want to do something extra about Japanese, and extensive reading was perceived as a good opportunity.

The final sub-process in the preactional phase is the initiation of intention enactment, which concerns "finding the right point in time for actualising the intention to act" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 96). The influence on this final sub-process is 'perceived behavioural control', which refers to perceptions about how easy or
difficult it is to perform the behaviour. In other words, participants in the present study perceived that they could read at least one book each week for five or seven months. 'Distracting influences and obstacles' are placed in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model, but they do not appear in the preactional phase of the overall model. It does not seem that the participants anticipated these factors prior to the project, but as will be seen in the next section, the influences became powerful once they started extensive reading. Thus, the participants' decision to participate in the project was made, and they were ready to embark on extensive reading.

6.4.2 Motivational influences on actional phase

The actional phase (i.e., the extensive reading project) lasted five to seven months, and was characterized by the ups and downs that the participants experienced in their motivation to read extensively during this phase. These ups and downs and the influences on them have been captured in this model through the second tier cycle. As described above, the whole cycle is embedded within the actional phase, as the participants went through the decision as to whether they wanted to read on a regular basis. In Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model, the actional phase consists of a large number of influences. In my model, as Figure 6.1 shows, some of these features, namely 'quality of extensive reading experience', 'perceived contingent relationship between action and outcome', 'sense of self-determination/autonomy', 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies' have been placed in the preactional subphase in the smaller cycle. This is because they do not actually occur during the reading process itself, but in the decision to read as it is being made (viz. preactional subphase in the actional phase), as it occurs regularly throughout the project rather than prior to the project. In other words, in this stage, the participants found out what extensive reading was like, including what the materials were like, how easy or difficult they were, how interesting /uninteresting the topics were, and how difficult it was to find the time to read (due to numerous distracting influences and obstacles). 'Quality of extensive reading experience' and 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies' in the actional phase in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model, which I have placed in the preactional subphase, also appear in the actional subphase, as will be discussed below. In order to create a postactional subphase in the smaller cycle, I
have borrowed motivational influences in the postational phase from Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model.

After forming a goal (e.g., 'I want to read today'), the goal needs to become an intention (i.e., decision to actually read). (The influences that 'need for achievement' and 'learner beliefs / L2 reading attitudes' have on intention formation were already mentioned above.) 'Quality of extensive reading experience', 'perceived contingent relationship between action and outcome', 'sense of self-determination/autonomy', 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies', which I have borrowed from the actional phase in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model, as mentioned above, influence the intention formation stage in the preactional subphase. If the participants' experience with extensive reading has been positive in terms of novelty, pleasantness, goal/need significance, and coping potential (see section 6.2.4), it is easy to decide to read. For example, Josie found extensive reading was not like homework (novelty), liked the materials (pleasantness), and perceived that extensive reading was helpful for her Japanese (goal/need significance). She therefore read regularly throughout the project. On the other hand, a negative experience leads to a decision not to read or makes it more difficult to make the decision. To illustrate, Nick, who found materials boring (pleasantness) and difficult (coping potential), did not read very much until he became able to read with more ease.

'The perceived contingent relationship between action and outcome' and 'perceived progress' have a powerful influence on the decision to pick up a book again. As described earlier, participants perceived that extensive reading contributed to their progress in Japanese, and thus felt a sense of success, which in turn provided further motivation. For these students, the decision to read can be easily made, because they believe that the more they read, the more they could improve.

As has been discussed, there was individual variation in terms of whether participants were instrinsically or extrinsically motivated. How much they internalised the ability to self-regulate extensive reading seemed to affect the decision to read to some extent. To illustrate, Ben, who appeared to have the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation (external regulation), displayed the lowest motivational intensity among participants, whereas Tracey, who perceived that reading was fun (IM-Stimulation), was able to keep reading throughout the project. Also, the sense that they were in charge of their own reading (e.g., choice of books, time, speed) had
a positive influence. It should be noted, however, that some students with a high level of self-determination (e.g., Jack) did not sustain motivation because of negative influences.

Another important factor affecting the decision to read is 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies' such as learning strategies, goal setting strategies and action maintenance strategies. Self-regulating by setting a goal to read one book a week, as Alan did, had a powerful influence on how much he read as mentioned above. Drew, who did not display this skill, failed to make extensive reading into a routine, although he had intrinsic motivation for extensive reading.

I suggested above that the external demands of needing to do well in NCEA contributed to the participants’ decision to participate in the project. Here, at this phase, external demands also refer to reward and punishment, and the lack of these external demands prevented some students (Ben and Nick) from doing the reading. Also, for some students (Emma and Drew), the lack of external pressure due to the voluntary nature of the project affected their amount of reading.

Finally, 'perceived behavioural control' (which appeared in the preactional phase in the overall process), 'perceived consequences of not acting', and 'distracting influences and obstacles' (a contextual factor) also play a role in whether an intention becomes an action. Even if individuals believe they can read a book successfully, and are prepared to exert effort to achieve the goal, distracting influences and obstacles can prevent it from happening. For example, Nick enjoyed reading in English so much that he could not resist it when he had an English book that he wanted to read. Therefore, he tended to read in Japanese more when there was no English book to read. In addition, because extensive reading was not a requirement, the consequences for not reading were not too great, and he perceived no negative consequences for not reading (i.e., punishment). Nick's intention was often not actualised.

Once the individual starts reading (actional subphase), as Day and Bamford (1998) claim, the reading material has a significant influence on whether he or she can keep reading. The book needs to be interesting and comprehensible, otherwise it becomes very hard to keep reading. This is related to 'quality of extensive reading experience', especially in terms of pleasantness and coping potential. To illustrate, Emma enjoyed reading when the materials were interesting and easy, but her amount of reading decreased by nearly half when she moved on to level two books, which she
found sad and difficult. The other motivational influences, namely 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies' which appeared in the preactional subphase of the embedded process are also in operation while reading. For example, as the data from the think-alouds and interviews suggest, strategies such as guessing from context and using glossaries help the reader comprehend the text.

According to Dörnyei and Ottó (1998), the postactional phase involves the learner's evaluation of the accomplished outcome and contemplation of possible inferences to be drawn for future actions. Influences on the learner's postactional evaluation in the postactional subphase in this model are 'attributional style and biases', 'self-concept beliefs' and 'evaluational/attributional clues'. Attributional style and biases affect evaluation of the outcome because there is great variation in how people explain the event (Dörnyei, 2001). For example, Nick attributed the difficulty he experienced to books, rather than to his low linguistic competence. In fact there were not enough graded readers appropriate for his level. Because he thought that it was not his own fault that he could not read well, he did not discontinue reading altogether, and when easy books became available he read them all. If Nick had attributed the difficulty to his low linguistic competence, he might have become amotivated (i.e., learned helplessness).

'Self-concept beliefs' such as self-confidence, self-efficacy, self-competence and self-worth influenced the postactional evaluation in the smaller cycle. According to Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 61), learners with strong self-concept beliefs cope with occasional failures better than those with weak self-worth beliefs, and are likely to maintain a task-focus rather than debilitative self-analysis. The influence of self-concept beliefs was perhaps most evident in Josie and Emma. Josie, who appeared to have strong self-concept beliefs, was able to persevere even when the book was challenging and thrived on advancing to a higher level. She worked hard throughout the year by doing all that she could (including extensive reading) to do well in the NCEA exams, which in turn provided more self-confidence. On the other hand, Emma was more easily discouraged by difficult books, which might indicate her lower self-concept beliefs. She perceived that her Japanese deteriorated and appeared to lose self-confidence when she became too busy with extracurricular activities in the second half of the project (although informal discussion with her teacher shows that the teacher perceived no decline in her Japanese). Self-concept beliefs were not
sufficient, however. Jack always appeared to be self-confident and to work hard towards the very clear future goals he had, but other factors, especially a perceived lack of time, meant he was unable to maintain his motivation.

The evaluation process is also influenced by external 'evaluational/attributional cues'. In this model, such cues were the students’ own perceived progress and results of formal assessments. When the learner notices progress while reading, this has a positive influence on her/his evaluation of extensive reading. Some participants attributed their success in assessments and practice exams to extensive reading, and this led to positive evaluation. On the other hand, Ben perceived no progress due to extensive reading. He did not form a negative evaluation of extensive reading; however, it was not as positive as that of others, such as Josie and Jack. The postactional evaluation that individuals make plays a significant role in "determining their sense of success, achievement and satisfaction, which will then influence how they approach subsequent learning tasks" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 99). Thus, each postactional evaluation in the smaller cycle affects the next cycle of the preactional subphase.

During the actional phase in the larger cycle (i.e., the extensive reading project), the smaller cycle was repeated multiple times. When the project came to its end, participants moved into the final phase of the larger cycle, namely the postactional phase.

6.4.3 Motivational influences on postactional phase

I have explained factors that influence postactional evaluation at the day-to-day level above. The postactional phase of the larger cycle concerns the evaluation that the learner makes about extensive reading after the extensive reading project ended. As Figure 6.1 shows, motivational influences on postactional evaluation in the larger cycle are the same as those in the smaller cycle. 'Attributional style and biases' in this phase concerns that to which the participants attributed the outcome of extensive reading. The participants all reported that extensive reading was a worthwhile experience and had benefits. Those who did not sustain motivation tended to blame the lack of time due to other distracting influences and obstacles, such as schoolwork and socialising. If they had attributed the difficulty with sustaining their motivation to their own incompetence, they might not have perceived extensive
reading as positively as they did. 'Self-concept beliefs' was also in operation in the postactional phase. 'Self-concept beliefs' that they came to have at the end of the project in terms of their reading ability was a result of day-to-day experience with extensive reading. For example, Josie became more confident with her reading ability through extensive reading, and this contributed to her extremely positive evaluation of extensive reading. More importantly, 'evaluational/attributional cues' that they perceived during the actional phase affected their postactional evaluations of extensive reading. Jack and Josie seemed to most strongly perceive the positive effects of extensive reading on formal assessments (the actual NCEA exams and practice exams for the NCEA exams at school respectively). They (Josie in particular) also reported more benefits and improvements.

6.4.4 Interaction among motivational influences

Finally, I want to highlight that motivational influences at each phase in the model interact, and the interplay of these influences and contextual influences contribute to the dynamic and complex motivation to read extensively in the L2. This is perhaps most evident in the preactional subphase in the smaller cycle. To illustrate, at the goal setting stage, Tracey, who thought that reading being fun had a positive influence on her motivation, probably perceived more incentive values. Thus she was able to successfully set a goal (‘I want to read today’) on a daily basis. But, Ben was unlikely to successfully set such a goal because of fewer perceived incentive values in terms of both intrinsic pleasure and instrumental benefits.

As Figure 6.1 shows, during the intention formation and enactment of intention stages in the preactional subphase, a large number of influences are in operation. Josie, who appeared to have all influences working positively for her, increased her motivation over time. ‘Quality of ER experience’ and ‘perceived progress’ seemed to be enhanced as she accumulated positive experiences and evaluations of extensive reading. In addition, external demands to do well in the NCEA also contributed to her motivation significantly. Distracting influences and obstacles did not influence her motivation, as she had good time management skills, and was able to fit reading into a routine. Similarly, Jack had influences working positively in the first term, but distracting influences and obstacles interfered in the second and third term, so that he was unable to sustain motivation. Drew had 'quality
of extensive reading experience' (in terms of pleasantness), 'learner beliefs/L2 reading attitudes', 'need for achievement' working positively for him, but he struggled to read regularly because of the lack of 'knowledge of and skills in using self-regulatory strategies', which he needed to deal with the lack of external pressure (as reading was voluntary). Thus, the interplay of motivational influences leads to individual variation and change over time in the motivation to read. Extensive reading motivation is therefore complex and dynamic.
CHAPTER SEVEN
CONCLUSION

7.0 Introduction

This study set out to discover JFL learners' perceptions of extensive reading, how their motivation to read extensively in Japanese changed over time, and what influenced the change. Various methods were used to collect data, but the primary data source was interviews. Inductive coding was carried out to analyse the data. Codes were assigned to concepts, and were then grouped into categories containing sets of codes that represented the same themes. The findings showed that context played a significant role in extensive reading in this study, as it influenced the participants' perceptions and motivation to read extensively. Thus, it was suggested that extensive reading needs to be considered from a sociocognitive perspective.

In this chapter, I begin by providing answers to the research questions, and then acknowledge the limitations of this study. Next, I discuss the pedagogical and theoretical implications, and finally, provide suggestions for further research.

7.1 Answers to the research questions

Question One: What are the perceptions of JFL learners about extensive reading while they participate in the project for five to seven months?

Overall, the participants expressed positive feelings towards extensive reading, and were generally satisfied with the way the project was implemented. They perceived numerous benefits ranging from reading-related and language learning benefits (e.g., speed, vocabulary) to other benefits (mainly learning about culture). Interestingly, most students perceived that the benefits of extensive reading would be helpful to the NCEA and scholarship exams. Most participants also noticed improvements in their reading (e.g., fluency, comprehension, reading strategies) and increases in language knowledge (e.g., vocabulary, kanji). In one participant's case (Josie), extensive reading was seen to contribute to improvements in pronunciation and writing. With regard to the reading materials, the participants mostly preferred the graded readers to the children's books because of their suitability to their language knowledge and interests.
However, individual differences were observed at the same time. For example, some students thought that it would have been better if extensive reading were compulsory, so that they did more reading. One student perceived no improvement attributed to extensive reading throughout five months. This student read the least amount among the nine students. It was suggested that the ability to perceive benefits and improvements corresponds to the amount of reading, as students who read more tended to report more benefits and improvements. As for perceptions of the reading materials, one student found them not as interesting as books written in English because he perceived them as childish. Another student preferred Japanese comics to the graded readers because they were more fun to read and used casual language. Also, most participants perceived that extensive reading had an impact on how they felt about learning Japanese in general. For example, they reported feeling motivated to learn more Japanese, enjoying the learning of Japanese more, and feeling more prepared to do work in Japanese.

**Question Two: How does their motivation to do extensive reading change over time?**

In this study, the participants’ motivation to read extensively was determined by the number of books they reported reading and the amount of time they spent on reading (i.e., motivational intensity). The participants’ L2 reading motivation was dynamic, and individual variation was observed. However, three approximate patterns were identified as a result of the analysis. Four participants' motivation increased over time, three students' motivation decreased and two students' motivation remained the same. In addition, it was found that the enjoyment they gained from extensive reading (i.e., attitudes to extensive reading) followed the same patterns as the motivational change.

There also appeared to be a qualitative change in the participants' motivation. All participants began the project with the aim of improving their Japanese by learning more Japanese through extensive reading. With more extensive reading, some students started reading for pleasure as well, although the majority continued to read to learn more Japanese. Interestingly, one student displayed different motivation to read according to the reading materials towards the end of the project: graded readers in order to learn and Japanese comics for fun.
Question Three: What influences the motivational change among the participants? What separates students who sustain L2 reading motivation from those who do not?

Analysis of the data revealed numerous positive and negative influences on the participants’ motivation to read extensively. One of the most significant positive influences was "satisfaction". The participants felt satisfied when they could read a book in Japanese and recognize their progress. The ability to motivate oneself (e.g., setting a goal) was another important influence on L2 reading motivation, as extensive reading was voluntary and done outside of class. A belief about the utility of extensive reading also appears to have assisted in sustaining some students' motivation. The pleasure of reading influenced the L2 reading motivation of only a small number of students.

Reading materials affected L2 reading motivation in four ways. First, an easy book facilitated more reading. Second, an exceedingly difficult book was discouraging, but slightly difficult books were perceived positively by the majority of participants. Third, a book relevant to the participants' interests had a positive influence on their motivation. Finally, the perception that reading materials were readily available promoted extensive reading, as the participants did not have a problem finding a book they wished to read. Conversely, one student thought that there were no books he could read at his level, and this affected the amount of effort he expended on extensive reading.

A major influence that appears to have weakened the participants’ motivation to read extensively was that they found it difficult to make the time to read. Three obstacles that the participants perceived were schoolwork (mainly the NCEA internal assessments), extracurricular activities and social life. Also, some students preferred to do other things, for example, hobbies, reading English books and listening in Japanese, rather than extensive reading.

Another major negative influence that emerged from data was the lack of pressure to do extensive reading, which was associated with the voluntary nature of the project. Almost half of the participants expressed that they would have done more reading if the reading were compulsory, because they could not fit extensive reading into a routine without external pressure. Two students in particular mentioned that they needed punishment or reward if they were to do extensive reading. On the other
hand, some students seemed to be able to motivate themselves when there was no external pressure, and managed to continue reading. They fit extensive reading into a routine more easily. These findings suggested that one of the factors that separated students who sustained their motivation to read extensively from those who did not was the ability to self-motivate and self-regulate their own reading.

In order to account for the motivational change of each participant over time and individual variation across the nine participants, it is essential to examine the interplay of all influences. When the participants' motivation to read extensively was sustained or increased, only the positive influences were operating or the negative influences were absent. When their motivation to read declined, the negative influences were overriding the positive influences or only the negative influences were in operation. Therefore, it was suggested that negative influences are powerful and positive influences are fragile. How these influences interrelated appeared to change during the project, depending on what was happening in the participants’ lives (in and out of school), and consequently influenced their motivation to read extensively. Evidently, in this study, the participants' extensive reading motivation was complex as well as dynamic.

7.2 Limitations of the study

The findings of this study indicated that extensive reading was not only cognitive, but also social, in that the context influenced the participants' perceptions and motivation. Moreover, the findings clearly showed that the participants’ motivation to read extensively in the L2 was dynamic and complex. However, the findings are not able to be generalised to the wider population. This study is qualitative case study research that aimed to gain an in-depth understanding of the perspectives of those involved in a particular setting (viz. JFL learners in New Zealand high schools). Thus, generalisations were not intended as an outcome of this study. In this study, extensive reading was voluntary, and some of the findings might not be applicable to settings where extensive reading is a requirement. But, putting it the other way round, the findings of this study may be relevant to settings similar to that of this study. To increase transferability, I tried to provide as detailed a description as possible, so as to help the reader determine whether the findings can be transferred.
The extensive reading project in this study lasted five to seven months, making it longer than many previous studies. However, it still may not have been sufficiently long to capture the dynamic nature of the motivation to read extensively in all of the participants. For example, the findings showed that the majority of the participants lacked skills in using self-regulatory strategies and had to rely on external pressure to make them read. Through the extensive reading project they became aware of themselves as L2 learners. If the project had continued longer, they might have developed deeper knowledge and possibly more self-regulatory strategies and might have become able to take greater responsibility for their reading.

Next, this study focused on the participants' perceptions of progress. No data were collected to corroborate the perceived improvements. Thus, whether the participants actually improved their comprehension, speed, vocabulary, kanji, and so on cannot be determined. However, this study suggests that perceptions were as important as actual gains. Positive perceptions increased the participants’ motivation to read extensively and/or to learn more Japanese, which in turn was likely to result in actual improvements.

I used the reading logs that the participants had kept to calculate the amount of reading. Then, patterns of change in their motivation for extensive reading were determined. As mentioned above, some students did not record their reading fully and, therefore, the accuracy of the amount of reading was compromised to some extent. One student lost her record, so I had to rely on her memory. Even for participants who kept a record diligently, there was no way of knowing if the record was accurate.

There was individual variation in the extent to which the participants were forthcoming and articulated their thoughts and feelings. When asked open-ended questions in interviews, some students did not have much to say, so I had to ask them more yes-no questions. It is possible that the closed questions manipulated their responses, so that they may not have reflected their truthful responses. This is related to the fact that I was inexperienced with interviews. My interview skills might have influenced the way the participants responded to questions. Also, the differences in the amount of information they provided affected the amount of inferences that I made when interpreting the data. In other words, for the quiet students, I perhaps
made more inferences than for those who provided more in-depth, detailed information.

Finally, participation in the extensive reading project was totally voluntary. No one was pressured to volunteer. However, this voluntary participation might have been compromised to some degree. As stated above (see section 3.3.6), although I was going to invite students to participate in the project myself, the teachers said that they would do it. I tried following ethical procedures as much as possible, but I also had to follow the institutional rules of the research sites. Because the teachers approached the students, it might have given them the impression that the teachers wanted them to volunteer. This may have influenced their decision to participate in the project.

7.3 Pedagogical implications

I suggested that extensive reading might not be intrinsically interesting for low-level young adult L2 learners. Thus, I raised the question of how extensive reading can be more enjoyable for these students. In addition, the data showed that not only easy books, but also slightly challenging books, were motivating. Reading more challenging books made the participants realise what they could not yet do, which motivated them to overcome their shortcomings. The implication of these findings for teachers is that they need to prepare a wide range of topics: not only traditional stories, narratives, and informative books about Japanese culture and history, but also topics that appeal to young adults, such as fantasy, should be included in the collection. A range of levels including range within a level should also be provided, so that students can select the exact level they want more easily. In addition, self-help tools such as glossaries should be available, because this will help students self-regulate the degree of challenge. However, the number of graded readers for JFL learners is quite limited at present. What teachers might do in the meantime is to help students like Nick understand that they have to start from books they can read and work their way up, and help them maintain positive feelings about reading. Nick appeared to become more intrinsically interested in extensive reading in the year following the project. So, it is important that the books are readily available to students at any time they become interested in reading.
This study revealed two types of participants in terms of ability to use self-regulatory strategies appropriately. Most students did not appear to have skills in using self-regulatory strategies, which contributed to their failure to sustain motivation for extensive reading over time. Also, the participants were divided into two groups, those who preferred voluntary reading and those who preferred compulsory reading. Among the participants who did not display skills in using self-regulatory strategies, almost half of them preferred compulsory reading. It can be seen that there are various types of participants, and this makes it difficult to determine the best way to implement extensive reading in the context of this study.

Thus, there is a dilemma about whether extensive reading should be voluntary, or homework, or done in class. My personal preference is voluntary reading, as it provides opportunities to learn Japanese in a different way to formal learning and has the potential to develop students' self-regulation ability. At the same time, reading should also be done in class to teach students the importance of reading, help them develop reading habits, and give them support. Takase (2009) compared groups of EFL university students that engaged in Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) (in-class free reading for a short period each day) and groups that read in their own time, and concluded that SSR had greater effects on the motivation of both reluctant students and higher level students. Therefore, if we use fifteen minutes of class time in each lesson, for example, the students would read one hour a week. If they want to keep reading, they can take the book home. To help students feel that extensive reading is not schoolwork, they can choose what they read and how they read. In this way, students like Ben, who said he would not read unless it was for credits (even if it was homework), and the others who had difficulty managing their time outside of class, would at least have time to read in class. Considering the benefits of extensive reading reported in previous studies and those perceived by the participants in the present study, it might be more useful to do extensive reading than other kinds of activities typically done in class, if the teacher believes in the power of extensive reading and can convince the students.

7.4 Theoretical implications

In this section, I discuss five theoretical implications drawn from the present study. The first three implications concern the limitations of Day and Bamford's
(1998) model (L2 reading motivation model), Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model (L2 motivation model), and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. The limitations of these existing models and theories led me to propose a new model that extends these models and theories (to be discussed as the fourth implication). As the final implication, I argue that extensive reading needs to be considered from a sociocognitive perspective.

7.4.1 Day and Bamford's (1998) model

The findings of the present study supported Day and Bamford's (1998) model in that materials influenced the participants' motivation to read extensively in Japanese. Interesting books were one of the positive factors influencing motivation. The linguistic level of materials played a role in motivation, as 'easy books' were identified as one of the positive influences. Whether materials were perceived as readily available or not also influenced the participants’ motivation for extensive reading.

However, in this study, there was evidence to suggest that motivation to read extensively in an L2 might be more complex and dynamic than Day and Bamford (1998) propose. First, the findings suggested that it might be difficult to achieve comprehensibility and readability at the same time. Day and Bamford (1998) claim that in an extensive reading approach, L2 learners at any linguistic level should read an interesting easy book, which increases motivation to read in the L2. This study also showed that most of the participants liked reading a slightly challenging book. They found this motivating because they felt that they were learning Japanese and making progress. Thus, it was not only easy books that had a positive influence on motivation, as Day and Bamford (1998) claim.

Next, in Day & Bamford's (1998) model, the sociocultural environment is not considered as strong an influence on motivation to read in the L2 as materials and L2 reading attitudes. In the present study, there was compelling evidence that contextual influences were strong throughout the project. For example, the NCEA testing had an influence on the participants' decision to participate in the project, the amount of effort they made during the project, and their evaluation of extensive reading at the end of the project. What was happening outside school (e.g., personal relationships and sports) also affected their motivation to read regularly. Thus, I argued that context
had a more significant influence on motivation to read extensively in an L2 than has been generally recognised.

Another limitation of Day and Bamford's (1998) model is that it captures motivation at only one point in time, as it is concerned with the L2 learner's decision to read in an L2. L2 learners usually do extensive reading for an extended period and make a decision whether to read or not on a daily basis. Each decision could be different depending on the interplay of influences operating at that time. Therefore Day and Bamford’s model does not sufficiently describe the motivation to keep reading extensively for a long period of time. This is why I turned to Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model in order to describe the participants' motivation to read extensively in this study.

7.4.2 Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model

While Day and Bamford's (1998) model concerns only the decision to read in the L2, Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model provides a more complete picture of the motivational process, in other words, from the period before taking an action, through the period of doing it, to the period after doing it. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) also propose different sets of motivational influences that operate at each phase. The findings showed that most of the influences identified in this study matched motivational influences in the actional phase in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model (e.g., quality of extensive reading experience, perceived progress, sense of self-determination/autonomy, knowledge of and skills in self-regulatory strategies), suggesting that the model has a reasonably good fit with the data.

However, some of the influences identified in this study, which were supposed to belong to the actional phase (because I focused on motivational change during the project), were motivational influences in the preactional phase in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model. For example, 'external demands' in the preactional phase in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model had a strong negative influence on some students' motivation to read extensively during the project. In other words, the lack of external demands (e.g., credit and punishment) prevented almost half of the participants from sustaining their motivation for extensive reading. Another form of external demands, to do well in NCEA, had a positive influence on some students' motivation. As mentioned above, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) claim that motivational influences in the actional
phase are not directly related to those in the preactional phase. However, the findings of this study seemed to suggest that motivational influences could overlap. This is particularly true in terms of contextual influences. Environmental effects (the expectations of others), external demands, distracting influences and evaluational cues are all associated with the context of this study, especially NCEA testing. Therefore, it may be that contextual influences have a global effect on all phases of the individual's motivational behaviour. This challenges Heckhausen and Kuhl's Action Control Theory, on which Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) base their argument (see section 6.2.4). Additionally, because the extensive reading occurred outside class and was voluntary, some of the motivational influences in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model are not applicable. In short, Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model accounts for the motivation to read extensively in Japanese in this study relatively well, but not fully and accurately. Therefore, I proposed a "dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in L2".

7.4.3 Intrinsic motivation (IM) and extrinsic motivation (EM)

In this study, influences on the participants' motivation to read extensively and motivational change were considered with reference to the concepts of IM and EM. Each participant was examined as to what self-determined form(s) of motivation he or she was inclined to have. It was suggested that the positive influences on the participants' motivation to read extensively (e.g., satisfaction, making progress, goal setting, fun) were associated with intrinsic motivation (IM-Knowledge, IM-Accomplishment, and IM-Stimulation) while the negative influences (e.g., no reward, no punishment) were associated with extrinsic motivation (external regulation, introjected motivation, and identified motivation). This was in line with the general view that intrinsic motivation is superior to extrinsic motivation. At an individual level, the participants who displayed intrinsic motivation tended to sustain motivation better than those who displayed only extrinsic motivation.

However, the findings suggested that motivation to read extensively is more complex and dynamic than the concepts of IM and EM can account for. First, it appears to be difficult for the concepts of IM and EM to account for contextual factors that negatively influenced the participants' intrinsic motivation for extensive reading. Some of the participants who had intrinsic motivation could not maintain their
motivation because their intrinsic motivation was suppressed by contextual influences (e.g., the NCEA-related school work). Second, the findings indicated that there might be a relationship between identified regulation and intrinsic motivation. Some participants appeared to read extensively because it was personally important for their goals, which resulted in a sense of accomplishment or satisfaction (IM-Accomplishment and IM-Knowledge) upon achieving them. Third, it may be possible for participants to have more than one self-determined form of motivation. Some students seemed to have identified regulation and intrinsic motivation, and one student might have had introjected motivation and intrinsic motivation. Also, those who had IM but did not sustain their motivation might have had a less self-determined form of motivation. They could not cope with the difficult situations because they lacked the ability to self-regulate, which could mean that they did not internalise extensive reading as much as those who sustained motivation. Lastly, the findings suggested that the types of motivation the participants had could change over time. One participant, who had displayed only external regulation, appeared to develop some sort of identified regulation, as he came to perceive extensive reading as a better way to study Japanese.

7.4.4 Model of motivation to read extensively in L2

As can be seen, Day and Bamford's (1998) model of L2 reading motivation, Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation, and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation do not sufficiently describe the JFL learners' motivation to read extensively while they participated in the project for five to seven months. Therefore, it became necessary to construct a model which addressed the shortcomings of the existing models and which accounted for extensive reading motivation in this study more fully and accurately. The new model draws largely on Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model: it captured an entire extensive reading project, from the decision-making stage (whether to participate in the project) to the participants' evaluation of extensive reading at the end of the project. However, there are two major differences in my model. First, the whole preactional-actional-postactional cycle is embedded in the actional phase of the larger cycle (viz. during the extensive reading project), to represent the day-to-day motivation process.
Second, the larger cycle is surrounded by context, showing that context has a global influence over all phases of motivational process. In Day and Bamford's (1998) model, contextual influences were considered as a variable affecting choice motivation. Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model has contextual factors in both the preactional and actional phases using different terms (environmental effects including expectations of others, external demands and distracting influences), but my model reflects my understanding that they are all contextual influences. For example, the expectations of parents and teachers concerned success in the NCEA exams, gave rise to external demands, and such demands led to the students' perceived lack of time for extensive reading, which in turn had a negative influence on the effort they made. In addition, the participants’ post-evaluations of extensive reading were often based on how instrumental it was for the NCEA related assessments, practice exams, and the upcoming NCEA exams.

Another important feature of my model is that it contains influences on motivation for extensive reading identified in this study. These influences in my model also draw on Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model, but the motivational influences in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model were carefully checked for compatibility with the influences identified in this study. I also considered carefully in which sub/phases to place them. The significant difference between this model and Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model is that I have included motivational influences from the preactional and actional phases of Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model in the preactional subphase in the smaller cycle (decision-making at a day-to-day level) of my model. For example, 'quality of previous extensive reading experience' (one of the motivational influences in the actional phase in Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model) plays an important role in deciding to read at a day-to-day level. Moreover, variables in Day and Bamford's (1998) model that are specific to extensive reading (materials, reading ability, L2 reading attitudes) are integrated in my model.

Finally, I concluded that motivation to read extensively in an L2 was dynamic and complex, because motivational influences and contextual influences interact at each phase and the interplay of the influences leads to change in motivation within an individual over time and leads to individual differences.
7.4.5 Important role of context in extensive reading

This study showed that context played an important role in the participants' motivation to read extensively, and that context influenced the participants' perceptions and purposes of extensive reading as well. For example, most of the participants perceived that extensive reading would help with the NCEA exams. The purpose of extensive reading was chiefly to learn more Japanese for two possible reasons; one was to help with the NCEA exams and the other one was to achieve their future goals of living in Japan and becoming fluent in Japanese. Thus, the first reason is influenced by the context. Also, they might have done extensive reading to learn Japanese, possibly because Japanese at school revolved around NCEA, which meant that the participants were unfamiliar with reading just for pleasure in Japanese. Thus, context (classroom environment) also influenced the purpose of extensive reading. So, it was suggested that extensive reading might not be merely cognitive, but might be social as well.

Furthermore, I discussed the importance of context with reference to Robb (2002), who presents an alternative view of Day and Bamford's (2002) top ten principles of extensive reading from the perspective of Asian settings. In Asian settings, students are not autonomous in their L2 learning and extensive reading needs to be a requirement. At the same time, reading has to be done outside class because there is not enough time to do the reading in class, and a good tracking system is necessary to ensure that students read. The way extensive reading is implemented in Asian settings does not necessarily accord with some of the principles of extensive reading, including those of this project. This study showed that most of the participants were similar to EFL students in Asian context. They did not seem to be autonomous L2 readers and could not manage their busy schedules. They had failed to read extensively largely because extensive reading was voluntary. Thus, my findings supported Robb's (2002) view that context influences how extensive reading is best implemented and students' purposes for, and perceptions of, extensive reading.

To date, it appears that research in extensive reading has mostly focused on the cognitive aspect (language development), and has rather neglected the important role of context in extensive reading. This study has provided evidence that extensive reading is a socially influenced phenomenon.
7.5 Suggestions for future research

This study showed that motivation to read extensively in the L2 was dynamic and complex, which previous models of both L2 reading motivation and L2 motivation fail to describe fully and accurately. I therefore proposed a “dynamic model of motivation to read extensively in L2”. In future research, this model should be tried in other settings to see whether it accounts for motivation to read extensively in an L2. Other settings include JFL learners in other New Zealand high schools, in New Zealand universities, and in other countries. In this study, extensive reading was voluntary, and this highlighted the ups and downs of motivation. Future research could see if the motivational influences are different in situations where extensive reading is a requirement.

In addition, in future research, it is desirable to have both male and female students in each grade. In this study, all of the female students were older and had a higher level of Japanese than the male students. This may have influenced the finding that, overall, the female participants displayed stronger motivation than the male participants. Having both male and female participants at the same level would allow us to see if the proficiency level and age have an influence on motivation to read extensively.

Finally, small-scale action research projects by Japanese high school teachers exploring different ways of implementing extensive reading might be fruitful. As discussed above, it was difficult to decide whether extensive reading should be voluntary or compulsory for the participants in this study, because the students had different preferences and skills in using self-regulatory strategies, which they needed in order to fit extensive reading into their routines. Such a project could try the methods I suggested above (see section 7.3) and assign extensive reading as homework in which students have to reach a target with a clear follow-up to make sure they read, as Robb (2002) suggested.

In the field of extensive reading research, studies on change in learners’ motivation to read extensively over time and studies with JFL learners are limited. Moreover, the significant role of context has not gained much attention. This study sought to broaden the scope of extensive reading research and contribute to the knowledge base. It is hoped that this study provides insights into what it is like to do
extensive reading for JFL young adult learners, and helps teachers and researchers to find ways to implement or research extensive reading successfully in their context.
REFERENCES


Macalister, J. (2009). "But my programme is too full already": How to make A Good Thing happen in the academic purposes classroom. In A. Cirocki (Ed.),
Extensive reading in English language teaching (pp. 203-218). Munich, Germany: LINCOM.


APPENDIX A
INFORMATION SHEET

EXTENSIVE READING AND LEARNING JAPANESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part there will be no disadvantage to you of any kind and we thank you for considering our request.

What is the aim of this study?
Hi, my name is Ryoko de Burgh-Hirabe. I am a PhD student from the Linguistics Programme at the University of Otago. I am interested in finding out about your experiences with extensive reading (This involves reading lots of easy books.) and Japanese class. By doing this study, I will learn about how extensive reading helps you to learn Japanese.

What type of participants are we looking for?
Year 12 and 13 students who take Japanese at school are being sought. The teacher(s) of Japanese will be also included in the study.

What will you be asked to do?
Should you agree to take part in this project, you will be asked to:

• choose one Japanese graded reader or children’s book each week that you can read comfortably. When you finish the book, you will record the name of the book, reading time and the difficulty level, and write brief personal reactions to the book.
• write reflections on the reading and learning (e.g., feelings, opinions, and progress of your Japanese) in a journal every two to three weeks during Term One and Two.
• fill in a questionnaire about your motivation for reading/learning Japanese three times, namely early in the first term, after the first term, and late in the second term. This will take about ten minutes.
• have one-to-one interviews with me three times, namely early in the first term, after the first term, and late in the second term. Each interview will be an hour at most. The interviews will be audio taped.
• read a short passage in Japanese and verbalize your thoughts as you read. This technique is called a think-aloud. In a think-aloud session, you will have a practice session, do a think-aloud, read the passage again silently, and then write down everything you can remember about the passage. Think-alouds will be scheduled early in the first term and late in the second term. Each session will take about one hour. Think-alouds will also be audio taped.
• show me your grades or test results so that I can evaluate your progress in Japanese. But it won’t be a problem if you don’t want to.
• allow me to observe you in class three times during Term One and Term two in order to see what you do and what goes on in class. I will be as unobtrusive as I can.

In total, you will spend about five and a half hours on the research project over two terms. This, however, does not include time you will spend reading books and writing a journal as it will vary between individuals. I will ensure that all the interviews and
think-alouds are arranged at time to suit you to avoid busy periods, tests, and exams.

**How will this study help?**
The potential benefits to you are: (a) an opportunity for more meaning-focused input in Japanese; (b) knowledge about Japanese culture, people and language use that you may not acquire in class; (c) a better understanding of yourself as a language learner; and (d) an opportunity to practise your Japanese as you speak with me.

In return for your time and work, you will receive a small gift voucher, assistance with your extensive reading during a data collection period, and up to five hours of assistance with your Japanese (e.g., conversation practice and pronunciation, composition writing, and grammar exercises) after all data is collected. This will take the form of one-to-one tutorials.

Some people may feel uncomfortable being taped, but a small digital recorder will be used which many people soon forget about. Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to you of any kind.

**Can I change my mind?**
You may withdraw from participation in the project at any time and without any disadvantage to you of any kind.

**What data or information will be collected and how will we use it?**
Questionnaires, written journals and audio-tapes of the interviews and think-aloud sessions, and fieldnotes from observations.

This project involves an open-questioning technique for which the precise nature of the questions which will be asked have not been determined in advance, but will depend on the way in which the interview develops. Consequently, although the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee is aware of the general areas to be explored in the interview, the Committee has not been able to review the precise questions to be used. In the event that the line of questioning does develop in such a way that makes you feel uncomfortable, you are reminded of your right to decline to answer any particular question(s) and also reminded that you may withdraw from the project at any stage without any disadvantage to you of any kind.

The purpose for collecting the data is to understand learners’ experience and perceptions while they engage in extensive reading and to discover how extensive reading contributes to motivation and reading strategy use. The data will be analyzed in order to discover difficulties that learners of Japanese face, how they handle the difficulties, and factors that contribute to motivation. Only the researcher and the research supervisors will have access to the data. The results of the project may be published and will be available in the University of Otago Library, Dunedin, New Zealand, but every attempt will be made to preserve your anonymity.

You are most welcome to request a copy of the final results of the project should you wish.

The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned below will be able to gain access to it. At the end of the project any personal information will be destroyed immediately except that, as required by the University's research policy, any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed.

Reasonable precautions will be taken to protect and destroy data gathered by email. However, the security of electronically transmitted information cannot be guaranteed. Caution is advised in the electronic transmission of sensitive material.
What if I have any Questions?
If you have any questions about our project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

Ryoko de burgh-Hirabe or Dr Anne Feryok or Dr Moyra Sweetnam Evans

Linguistics Programme or Linguistics Programme or Linguistics Programme

Phone Number: 479-5142 or Phone Number: 479-8637 or Phone Number: 479-8614

Email: nigel.ryoko@xtra.co.nz

This study has been approved by the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research you may contact the Committee through the Human Ethics Committee Administrator (ph 03 479 8256). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.
APPENDIX B
CONSENT FORM FOR STUDENTS

EXTENSIVE READING AND LEARNING JAPANESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

I have read the Information Sheet concerning this project and understand what it is about. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I am free to request further information at any stage.

I know and accept that:-

1. my participation in the project is entirely voluntary;

2. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without any disadvantage;

3. the data [audio-tapes] will be destroyed at the conclusion of the project but any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which they will be destroyed;

4. this project involves an open-questioning technique for which the precise nature of the questions which will be asked have not been determined in advance, but will depend on the way in which the interview develops and that in the event that the line of questioning develops in such a way that I feel uncomfortable, I may decline to answer any particular question(s) and/or may withdraw from the project without any disadvantage of any kind;

5. sometimes people are uncomfortable being recorded but a small recorder will be used which many people soon forget about;

6. I will receive a small gift voucher, assistance with my reading during the data collection period, and up to five hours of assistance with my Japanese after data collection is completed;

7. the results of the project may be published and will be available in the University of Otago Library (Dunedin, New Zealand) but every attempt will be made to preserve my anonymity;

8. reasonable precautions have been taken to protect data transmitted by email but the security of the information cannot be guaranteed.

I agree to take part in this project.

................................. ........................................
(Signature of participant) (Date)

This study has been approved by the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research you may contact the Committee through the Human Ethics Committee Administrator (ph 03 479 8256). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.
APPENDIX C
MOTIVATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I: Motivation/Attitudes toward Reading in Japanese

1. I like reading in Japanese.
2. It is fun to read in Japanese.
5. I like reading Japanese newspapers and magazines.
6. Reading in Japanese is important because it will broaden my view.
7. Reading in Japanese is important because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.
8. The speaking skill is more important than the reading skill.
9. I prefer listening to Japanese than reading it.
10. I am learning to read in Japanese merely because I want to get good grades.
11. I am learning to read in Japanese because I think it will help my future career.
12. I am learning to read in Japanese because I want to read Japanese books.
13. I am learning to read in Japanese because I want to read Japanese newspapers and magazines.
15. I am learning to read in Japanese because I want to exchange e-mail in Japanese.
16. I am learning to read in Japanese because I want to study/live in Japan in the future.
17. I want to be a better reader.
18. I don’t like to read Japanese books that have difficult words.
19. I want to look up new words in the dictionary while I am reading.

Part II: Motivation/Attitudes toward Learning Japanese

1. I enjoy learning Japanese.
2. Learning Japanese is like a hobby to me.
3. Japanese is one of the important subjects.
4. I want to continue learning Japanese in the future.
5. Learning Japanese is important because it will broaden my view.
6. Learning Japanese is important because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.
7. Learning Japanese is important because it will be conducive to my general education.
8. I learn Japanese because I want to get good grades.
9. I learn Japanese because my parent(s) want me to.
10. I learn Japanese because I want to go to Japan in the future.
11. I learn Japanese because I want to understand Japanese movies and books.
12. I learn Japanese because it will help my future career.
14. Even if homework is boring, I work hard on it.
15. Even if there were no homework, I would try to study outside the class.
17. I spend more time studying for Japanese than for other subjects.
18. I take a chance in preparing for a test by studying only what I think is most likely to be asked.

Part III: Motivation/Attitudes toward the Course, Linguistic self-confidence, L2 Classroom Anxiety

1. I wish we had more lessons at school this term.
2. I like Japanese this term.
3. Japanese is one of my favourite subjects at school this term.
4. When the Japanese lesson ends, I often wish it could continue.
5. I want to work hard in Japanese lessons to make my teacher happy.
6. I enjoy my Japanese lessons this term because what we do is neither too hard nor too easy.
7. I would rather spend time on subjects other than Japanese.
8. Learning Japanese is a burden for me this term.
9. In Japanese lessons this term, we are learning things that will be useful in the future.
10. I feel I am making progress in Japanese this term.
11. I believe I will receive good grades in Japanese this term.
12. I often experience a feeling of success in my Japanese lessons this term.
13. I am sure that one day, I will be able to speak Japanese.
15. This term, I think I am good at learning Japanese.
16. I am worried about my ability to do well in Japanese this term.
17. I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in Japanese lessons.
18. I get very worried if I make mistakes during Japanese lessons this term.
19. I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I have to speak in Japanese this term.
20. I feel more nervous in Japanese class this term than in my other classes.
APPENDIX D
INSTRUCTIONS FOR JOURNAL WRITING

What is a Reading Notebook?
A reading notebook will help you keep track of your reading and progress. It will also allow me to monitor your progress.

What should I write in my Reading Notebook?
Every time you finish a book, record the name of the book, the date that you started and finished the book, reading time (hours, e.g., 1.5 hrs), level (Too easy; Good level; Too difficult), and the number of pages in the record form.

Freewrite your personal reactions to the book. For example, what were your thoughts and feelings about what you read? What did you like in the reading? Was there anything you didn’t like? In what way did your reading connect with your own experiences or with your background knowledge? You can write in either English or Japanese or both. Do not spend too much time on writing responses (10-15 minutes will be enough) because you need to read as much as you can. I’d really like you to do this activity, but if you don’t want to, that’s ok too.

You can also write about things you didn't understand, new vocabulary, and idioms if you want to.

What is a journal?
A journal is a record of your language learning experience. It will provide you with an opportunity to gain a better understanding of yourself as a language learner.

What should I write in my journal?
Approximately six times over two terms, I will ask you to write candidly about your experience with extensive reading and Japanese class. This includes not only what you did/what happened but also your feelings and thoughts. If you cannot think of anything to write, you may want to ask yourself the following questions, but not limited to:

• How are things going with extensive reading, and how do you feel about that?
• What book(s) have you enjoyed reading so far? Why?
• What difficulties have you had with reading? How have you dealt with them?
• How have you been dealing with words that you don't know?
• How are your Japanese studies at school going? How do you feel about that?
• Do you have any problems or worries?
• How enthusiastic do you feel about learning Japanese at the moment? Why?
• What progress are you making (or not making)? How is your speaking/listening/writing/reading/vocabulary/kanji?

It is fine to write about private things in your journal, but if you don’t want me to see them, be sure to mark them in some way so that you can remove them before you hand in your journal.

Do not worry about making grammar and spelling mistakes in your journal. You do not have to edit your grammar. Write continuously in your journal, without stopping to correct mistakes.
## APPENDIX E

### SAMPLE OF A STUDENT'S READING RECORD SHEET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book Title</th>
<th>Reading Level</th>
<th>Start Data (day/mo)</th>
<th>Finish Date (day/mo)</th>
<th>Reading Time (hours)</th>
<th>Pages</th>
<th>Level:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[Example] パス</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12/6</td>
<td>18/6</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Good level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11/2</td>
<td>19/2</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20/2</td>
<td>29/2</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ネコと日記</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9/3</td>
<td>9/3</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. ヤンガの夏休み</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15/3</td>
<td>15/5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. パチのぼり</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22/5</td>
<td>22/5</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. タクソー</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24/5</td>
<td>24/5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. サルとカニ</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27/4</td>
<td>28/4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Good but CHALLENGING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. トキ</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6/5</td>
<td>6/5</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. 日本のふるさ</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7/5</td>
<td>7/5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. ももね</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14/5</td>
<td>14/5</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. 一寸法師</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23/5</td>
<td>23/5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. 一寸法師</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29/5</td>
<td>30/5</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ごんざえ , 18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11/6</td>
<td>12/6</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. サイ山</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22/6</td>
<td>22/6</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. トムストウヒルヒ</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23/6</td>
<td>23/6</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. メンハイク</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28/6</td>
<td>29/6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F
SAMPLE OF A STUDENT’S JOURNAL ENTRY

Term 1
Week 7

March 16th

What time of the day and where have you been reading Japanese books?

I usually read one book during my study period at school. Otherwise in class during reading (after lunch everyday) but I’ve had a novel to read for English class and I had to finish that first.

Do you think extensive reading has become part of your routine?

Not really routine but I try and read regularly. School has been really busy and I have something on everyday after school. It’s good that you come to check our journals often because that keeps a bit of pressure on to read more often.

How much do you enjoy extensive reading? Why?

I enjoy it a lot. This is a chance to improve my Japanese while learning more about Japan. The books are often funny and very interesting.

What's your opinion about the reading materials?

It’s good that there’s such a wide range of books. I like to read about the traditional Japanese stories as well as stories that tell a bit about the culture.
APPENDIX G
INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

. sentence final falling intonation
, clause-final intonation
?! exclamatory intonation
… noticeable pause or break in rhythm (without falling intonation)
____ emphatic stress
(( )) Double parentheses are used to enclose a description of some
phenomenon with which the transcriptionist does not want to wrestle.
These can be vocalisations that are not, for example, spelled gracefully
or recognisably: ((cough)), or other details of the conversational scene:
((telephone rings)), or various characterisations of the talk: ((whisper)).
/ rising intonation (but no the end of the sentence)
/words/ uncertain transcription
/?/ inaudible utterance
[ overlapping utterances
[[ simultaneous utterances
= When there is no interval between adjacent utterances, the second
being latched immediate to the first (without overlapping it).
APPENDIX H
LIST OF CODES

Evaluation of the extensive reading project
• Positive feelings about extensive reading
• Recommend extensive reading
• Reading not homework
• Like autonomy of choices about books and pace
• Competition
• Word list useful
• Writing responses not worthwhile
• Like levels of graded readers
• Children books harder due to the language and vocabulary
• Children books are repetitive
• Japanese comics are more interesting

Reading-related benefits
• Improve reading
• Reading speed
• Help distinguish words
• Reading fluency
• Help reading in class
• Read for general understanding
• Break down sentence
• Guess from context

Language learning benefits other than reading
• Help Japanese learning
• Learn words
• Learn kanji
• Learn structures
• Learn how to say things
• Learn real Japanese
• Reinforce knowledge
Non-language knowledge benefits

• Read for pleasure
• Opportunity to read great stories
• Learn about culture
• Gain useful information
• Better approach to learning Japanese

Extensive reading helps with exams

• Help reading exam
• Help writing exam
• Useful phrases would help exam
• Help listening exam
• Help scholarship exam
• Opportunity to read unfamiliar text would help exam
• Raise confidence in exam

Perceived improvements attributed to extensive reading

• Comprehension
• Speed
• Less mental translation into L1
• Fluency
• No need to check/able to guess from context
• Skim reading
• Distinguish words with no spaces
• Vocabulary
• Kanji
• Informal Japanese
• Pronunciation
• Think in L2 when writing
• System developed
• Japanese regressed
• No improvement
Perceptions of reading materials
(a) Affective
   • Interesting books
   • Like easy books
   • Comprehensibility vs. interest
(b) Comprehension
   • Graded readers with picture
   • Kanji with *hurigana*

Purposes of extensive reading
(a) Before the ER project
   • Improve Japanese as motive
   • Improve reading in Japanese as motive
   • Do more Japanese outside school as motive
   • ER would help with exams
   • Do it for fun
(b) Once the project started
   • Read to learn
   • Books suited for learning
   • ER adds a new purpose
   • Read graded readers for learning and *manga* for fun

Affect
   • No impact
   • No change in attitudes towards Japanese
   • Right frame of mind
   • L2 learning more enjoyable
   • Want to learn more Japanese
   • Want to do more class work
   • Want to know more about context
   • More positive feeling towards studying Japanese
   • More positive feeling towards kanji
Change in enjoyment

- More enjoyable when novel
- More enjoyable as you get into it
- More enjoyable in first half and less enjoyable in second half
- No change

Perceived positive influences on L2 reading motivation

- Satisfaction
- Making progress
- Set a goal and stick to it
- Extensive reading not compulsory
- Self motivating
- Pressure to read
- Notion that extensive reading is helpful
- Extensive reading was part of routine
- Fun to read
- Books available
- Easy books
- Interesting books

Perceived negative influences on L2 reading motivation

- No time to read
- Busy with schoolwork
- Busy with extracurricular activities
- Busy with social life
- Difficult books are time consuming
- Not enough pressure to read
- Did not get into a routine
- No punishment
- No credit
- Did not get around to it
- Want to do other things
- Prefer listening to reading
- Want to have a break
• Ran out of books to read
APPENDIX I
SAMPLE OF AN ANNOTATED INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Interview 3
JACK
21 July 2009 Term 3 week 1

R= Researcher
J= JACK

1) R: I want us to talk about extensive reading and Japanese learning in
general last term. I want you to think about what you did and what
happened last term. Ok?

2) J: Yeah.

3) R: how much did you enjoy extensive reading last term?
4) J: um...last term, I’m not sure how much I read, I think maybe a wee bit
less than usual but when I do read things I was reading things very
fast and I read one or two books you know in just ten minutes. I’m not
too sure why I didn’t read as much.

5) R: is it because in your journal you mentioned that you hadn’t read as
much. and also you hadn’t done much extra work because you had
speaches.

6) J: yeah, I had at one point I had at the start of last term I had an English
speech and a Japanese speech and then later I had to practise my
Japanese speech again for the Japanese speech competition.

7) R: oh, the Otaru one.

8) J: and then I think after that I was just a wee bit burned out, just doing so
much you know having to do speeches and everything. so I took a wee
bit of a break over the holidays, which is the first in two years, but now
I’m back into it now.

9) R: yeah.

10) J: so I suppose I just had a little bit of break.

11) R: mm. you were just a bit burned out.

12) J: and the last book I had was a bit hard as well.

13) R: oh.

14) J: so that took you know I had that for a couple of weeks before I
finished it just reading a wee bit every now and then.

15) R: so the last term was kind of a break term, I guess.

16) J: yeah.

17) R: taking a break from it.

18) J: just a little bit of break ‘cause yeah I was doing so much work for the
last year and a half. and so I just thought maybe and I’m still doing
work over you know the training for the speech competition and
everything, but I don’t really have much else, much other time but
yeah. I start doing lots of Japanese stuff again so...

19) R: it worked out good I guess.

20) J: yeah, definitely.

21) R: now you feel,

22) J: now I feel good again yeah, just needed a bit of break and just had
holidays and just realised I haven’t really done as much work lately,
and you know I don’t really like that so now really wanting to get into
it again. so I’m trying doing lots of things writing all the journal and
emailing the teacher my journal my next assessment topic that we are
doing which is a conversational speech. I sent in my draft and had it
checked and stuff so yeah I’m definitely getting back into it.
Interview 3
JACK
21 July 2009 Term 3 week 1

23) R: all right. when you did read it was enjoyable.
24) J: yeah, I still love the reading.
25) R: what was it on a five point-scale, five being really enjoyable?
26) J: probably four because it was still really good but the last book I had
which I just finished yesterday um,
27) R: what was that?
28) J: Sushi.
29) R: Ah, sushi book.
31) R: you went back.
32) J: yeah I went back, I thought it would be easier. some parts were easier
but at the end it told you about all the recipes and things that was
cooking and food, I didn’t understand much of that, but yeah I suppose
it’s just it was hard and everything so that was a little bit of

demotivational thing, but all the other books were still really fun and
like I said I was reading some of them really fast, which makes you
feel, speed/improvement.
33) R: Hachi no hanashi? The dog story? if it’s too hard you can just
discontinue. you can just stop.
((JAM gets his journal out of his bag))
34) J: I read this one here
35) R: Urashima Taro?
36) J: yeah I read that in half an hour.
37) R: it took one hour per book before.
38) J: usually, it took about a week but now that’s a lot less, but the sushi one
still took about two hours ‘cause it was hard, ‘cause I was going to
look through it and ?/
39) R: look. you don’t have to finish it. just move on.
40) J: actually it might be best just going through it all anyway...
41) R: but it’s really fine to move on.
42) J: ok.
43) R: so it’s important that reading material is [good level].
44) J: [is relevant], yeah, sushi is
definitely something I really like and I’m really interested in, but the
book was pretty hard.
45) R: too hard.
46) J: yeah for level one.
47) R: ok, how much did you read English books for pleasure?
48) J: last term I didn’t read any books but...
49) R: you said you do a lot of internet reading.
50) J: oh yeah, I do a lot of reading on the internet of things but, um, how
much did I read last term ...I didn’t really read a heck of a lot last term.
I was pretty, I was doing a lot of things with, socialising a lot more last
term, doing a lot of things, meeting all the people like during the week
I’ve met some people in St Clair who lived just a couple of minutes
from me so after school everyday pretty much going to see them. so I
wasn’t really at home as much any more so I wasn’t really on
computer as much and didn’t do much reading um, but I’m starting to
read in English right now...((He tries to get the English book out of his bag.))

51) R: that's ok James. I just thought maybe you read Japanese less than English.

52) J: oh no, not at all. we have to start reading Romeo and Juliet now in English so that'll be pretty big I suppose but um...

53) R: is that for English?

54) J: yeah, so that's pretty big but I'll still be able to read the books as well 'cause we are studying this in class a lot while I'm not doing the Japanese books in class so I can do them at home. but I want, that's what I really want to read the Japanese books 'cause they just help so much and some of them are really good as well. it's kind of neat it has some like the Japanese you know tales and legends and things, it's cool learning about them as well. it's interesting.

55) R: that's great, so the amount of reading in English was not much last term.

56) J: no, not really. I don't think I read any...no.

57) R: so both kind of went down.

58) J: yeah, I suppose I was just =

59) R: = burned out, and meeting new people,

60) J: and meeting friends, busy after school hours and yeah that sort of things.

61) R: yeah that sort of things.

62) J: I had to do a lot of speeches, three speeches, Japanese one twice and English one, yeah.

63) R: ok. so do you prefer reading easy books or harder books?

64) J: um, I like it better between those other books that I read in ten minutes. they were really easy but they were still good. but then this book here is too hard, I can't understand anything. but it's a good book which is I can understand most of the structures and there's maybe a word or two which I have to look up in the glossary.

65) R: oh yeah.

66) J: that sort of level.

67) R: that's the level you like.

68) J: then I actually learn a couple of words but not, this one is so many words I didn't know. I can't remember any of them really. but if I know all the structures and everything and you know you feel really good as well 'cause I know all this and you just have to look up a word or two during the ??

69) R: so that's the level you like.

70) J: yeah.

71) R: so what do you like and dislike about extensive reading?

72) J: um, I love reading like I said the medium books you feel really good and stuff and um, I learn a lot of things as well. I've learnt words and even some structures before we learn them in class and stuff like that, which is really good. and yeah I said legends and just, you learn, I actually learnt something from these books as well just about things
and only thing I don’t really like is like this really really hard books. but I mean, yeah that’s,
73) R: but you can stop,
74) J: yeah, you don’t have to necessarily so other /stuff from that/ that’s about it.
75) R: ok. anything you dislike about extensive reading?
76) J: not particularly, no.
77) R: ok. that’s great. so what would be the very reason that you are continuing to read even though you read probably less last term?
78) J: because it’s taught me so much and um, uh, good for moral and everything. you read something and you can understand it all, you feel pretty good, and yeah some of the books are interesting and it’s just you know that’s something actually I like doing. I haven’t read much other, I haven’t really read anything in English any books quite a while. but I’ve read a lot of these Japanese books, which is really cool.
79) R: so when you come to a word you don’t know what do you do?
80) J: if… I’ve actually gotten a lot better at distinguishing uh ‘cause in here words all there’s no spaces. when I first saw I had trouble with that, I couldn’t tell which words were together.
81) R: oh, word boundaries.
82) J: yeah, but now I’m really good at that so I don’t usually, that was my problem at the start. I was thinking you know this all of this would be a word but it wasn’t. um so pretty good with figure that. so I don’t have that any more. but if I see what I don’t understand, I look it up in the glossary. but then if it’s not in the glossary or,
83) R: every word you don’t know do you look it up?
84) J: pretty much look it up. sometimes I try and guess it on the context, but usually I look it up first.
85) R: hm, ok. you prefer to do that.
86) J: ‘cause then I can make sure what’s that word. ‘cause if I think oh this word means such and such and it really isn’t and then I just guessed it. yeah so if I look it up in the glossary then I know I learnt it properly.
87) R: do you do things like taking notes or making a list of words while you read?
88) J: uh, not particularly no, just read them. I still read, remember most of the things pretty easily.
89) R: that’s good. you don’t need to really. In class did the teacher give you some training or practice on how to read in Japanese? like strategies you can use? for example, how to guess the meaning of a word.
90) J: no, I suppose I just kind of pick it up with, yeah I feel like I read pretty fast because of this, or just because of the work I do, but now I find I can read pretty fast and I don’t have any tricks that I’ve been taught.
91) R: no such training in class.
92) J: No.
93) R: ok. what do you think of the reading materials in terms of the levels? as long as you can choose the right level it’s good.
Interview 3
JACK
21 July 2009 "Term 3, Week 1"

94) J: yeah, it’s pretty good. but the sushi one is level one and I didn’t understand, maybe it could’ve been another level higher I’m not sure. but most of the level, all the level ones are pretty perfect that they’re either really, most of them are actually perfect level where I understand most of it, just need to look up something so maybe just one or two that really easy or maybe one or two that are really hard.
95) R: so that’s a good amount.
96) J: yeah, definitely. so the levels and everything are very well organised and yeah definitely…
97) R: topics?
98) J: topics are very interesting… lots of stuff. um, …yeah the stories and the folklore and all that sort of things…
99) R: you don't get bored?
100) J: no, not at all.
101) R: selection, I mean enough books you can choose from?
102) J: yeah, definitely. there’s a lot of, all sorts of books even if I read all of the level one which I haven’t yet, and you know /after/ a half year even if I go back to old ones which when I first started I could try, I tried with that one but it didn’t really work. (laugh)
103) R: never mind.
104) J: some of the other ones that I could go back and try and I would understand even more, get more out of it, so yeah it’s definitely good.
105) R: good. you are quite happy with the materials. when you read, do you read for pleasure, or do you read like ‘I’m going to read this to improve my Japanese’?
106) J: a bit of both really. probably put more for learning, so I can understand more Japanese, but then some of the stories are good as well. so mostly for learning, but yeah.
107) R: have you noticed any progress in your reading?
108) J: definitely. I find I can read very fluently, obviously not as fast as a native speaker, but I feel like (chuk chuk chuk) you know read pretty good and uh, just for the reading and other things as well?
109) R: hnh?
110) J: have I found progress in my reading or with the other things?
111) R: in reading for now.
112) J: I can read a lot faster and yeah I can see, I can pick out words with no spaces which I couldn’t, which I had a bit of trouble, yeah so definitely I can do that.
113) R: when did you notice that?
114) J: I don’t know, just kind of…
115) R: last time you didn’t say that.
116) J: yeah, it must’ve been a while ago, probably started last… so it’s been quite a while now. again even better at it now I can pick out words yeah.
117) R: ok. so do you think extensive reading has changed the way you read in Japanese?
118) J: definitely. it’s helped me a lot in again distinguishing words with no spaces and boundaries, definitely help me. and um in year 11 Japanese
we are doing like books where have like passages maybe people
talking, and I can just read through that really fast and everyone else is
still you know slowly going along so I think it’s making Japanese a lot
easier. **Help reading in class**

119) **R:** oh, ok. so extensive reading helps reading in class and reading other
things too.

120) **J:** definitely yeah.

121) **R:** um... what do you think the benefits of extensive reading are?

122) **J:** you can read a lot faster, you can distinguish words. you can
learn some interesting things about Japanese culture and things like
that. um, and some of the books are just actually good even they are
like kindergarten level, still really interesting.

123) **R:** would you recommend extensive reading to other learners?

124) **J:** yeah definitely. there’s you know if they wanted to update or serious
about their learning, if they wanted to get better at it, it definitely
helps. because I mean if you are in Japan I can tell I wouldn’t be the
best speaker of it but you know if you can read well, you can read a
newspaper you can learn words and you can learn phrases and that
definitely, and that will help speaking better. and I mean but stuff like
kanji and this one is a harder thing about reading ‘cause reading’s
obviously easy ‘cause you’re not having to think on your feet and talk
back and all that, but problem with reading is it’s got all the kanji
which sounds the same if you are speaking it but if you are writing it or
reading it then it’s pretty hard. but yes, reading helps definitely with
kanji ‘cause I learned some kanji from that.

125) **R:** uh huh, from the reading.

126) **J:** from books yeah.

127) **R:** how would you feel if extensive reading was compulsory, like part of
the course and you were told to read a certain amount of books each
week?

128) **J:** um, that would be fine with me. we have that in English, but there’s
massive books in English that not really to learn English. that’s you
know, study the story and things but these are actually to learn the
language um and definitely help a lot and if we were told to, it may
take a wee bit of fun out of it, but at the same time we definitely learn.

129) **R:** yeah, you get the right reading amount.

130) **J:** at the same time if you like something you’re gonna learn like if the
teacher said you can read two books this week, and we just kind of you
know uh-uh-uh-uh, you won’t really pay attention ‘cause you are
just doing it ‘cause you had to. but if we, just, I think the way it is now
is pretty good ‘cause you go in your own pace and everything and it’s
not too stress and yeah if we were forced to, if we were forced to read,
a certain amount of books, and say read a book a week then might just
read it so we do that not actually paying attention to words and
everything.

131) **R:** oh. I just wanted to find out that if there was any other way that
extensive reading could’ve been done.
132) J: could do that way but, um,... I'm not sure, I don't think, it could work, it depends on the person but I found that I work better if I'm not stress too much if just they say get some work, do it, they don't say you've only got an /hour/, I suppose we have that so much in school, but I found that I learn pretty well if I just do things in my pace and just how I want to.

133) R: so the way we did worked ok for you.
134) J: definitely. I /can't say//?!
135) R: would you have liked more support from the teacher or myself?
136) J: no. I get a lot of support as it is.
137) R: you can ask for it.
138) J: I ask the teacher to check my diary and things. it's, um, well, support's great but I don't think I need any more. I think I've got quite a lot as it is. you know I can't really I mean I even got the teacher's email address ?!//. it's pretty good. I can't see myself needing more support.
139) R: more support to read Japanese books?
140) J: no, not at all. I think I can do it myself. yeah like I said before if I, I can do it on my own do it myself, if I wanted to, I could come and ask for it instead of...yeah.
141) R: waiting for the teacher to give you support.
142) J: yeah teachers give you support if you ask for it so yeah I can just ask her. that's no problem.
143) R: so you are quite happy with the way we did the reading.
144) J: yeah very. it's relaxing I suppose yeah.
145) R: you like the fact that there's no pressure.
146) J: yeah like we wanted, um obviously you wanted us to read some books but as many books as we can, but yeah I think it worked pretty well just, definitely.
147) R: may not work for some people. they may need some push and things.
148) J: yeah some people may just think god, some people may um, some people might not have as much as motivation, they might just kind of be doing it for the sake of doing acceleration learning so they might try a lot of it and still /would/ not be interested after a month or so. but I think for me at least I find the stuff very good.
149) R: ok. you know, I suggested that you could write a brief response to what you read. but only you but none of you really wrote anything. what would be the reason for that?
150) J: um, I noticed when I was reading things there wasn't really much to comment, I mean they're pretty basic books, only thing I can when I was, I haven't really written much myself, um, but just 'cause I noticed when I, I've got to write, there is not much to say like I read a book. it was about sushi you know it was hard you know it's primary school sort of stuff so you can really only write things /backwards/ primary school sort of education. but I suppose if there was something really amazing like I read this book, and it only took me ten minutes, I understood all the words and everything, you know maybe you write that. but otherwise it's really much the same what the book was about, um, and how hard that was, that's written in the...it's written in there
Interview 3  
JACK  
21 July 2009  Term 3 Week 1

(the book record sheet) anyway so there isn’t very much to write other than what’s in the records, so…

151) R: ([laugh]) ok. fair enough. that’s fine. so you will continue reading.
152) J: definitely, yeah.
153) R: this term at least?
154) J: yeah, sure.
155) R: do you think you will continue next year?
156) J: yeah definitely, next year will be really good as well. next term goes for four and a half weeks or something so we don’t really have until we’ve got exams and things but I definitely like to do if I could for the other four weeks in Term four if I would like to do it then as well.
157) R: year 12?
158) J: definitely yeah ‘cause I could probably start doing level 2 books as well, which I really looking forward to.
159) R: there’s up to level four.
160) J: hm, I just keep reading. that will be really good.
161) R: so if I leave the books here you would read them.
162) J: yeah.
163) R: ok. you said in the last interview, extensive reading made you want to learn more. is it still the same?
164) J: oh, definitely. yeah. I was like I said if you, the book I read in ten minutes, that made me think hey I read the book really fast and it would’ve been because of reading and because I learnt and I thought it’s the books that are ok at, you know the ones that are good with certain amount of words makes me want to be able to read them really fast so it’s kind of want to learn a bit more, and like this book here that makes me want to learn more so that I can understand that, which I could do a bit more from last time and I did notice that which you know good motivation makes me want to learn more so understand more.
165) R: any other like impact…
166) J: on my learning?
167) R: hmm, the way you feel about Japanese study other than wanting to learn more?
168) J: um…
169) R: has it made learning more enjoyable?
170) J: oh yeah, because I couldn’t see, because we’ve been doing work and obviously I can write things and in the work books but just doing actual Japanese, this is for people learning Japanese obviously this isn’t real Japanese books you know there are some, but it’s kind of neat to see that it’s actually used in a Japanese book or something like that whereas before it was just schoolwork I’ve only seen what I can do with schoolwork, I haven’t seen the actual uh, proper you know sense like it’s hard to explain but um…”
171) R: it’s more authentic.
172) J: yeah it’s more authentic yeah definitely.
173) R: what do you think of children’s books?
174) J: children’s books. um…
Interview 3
JACK
21 July 2009 Term 3 Week 1

175) R: you obviously prefer the graded readers.
176) J: I prefer graded readers because they are more for us, but from what
I’ve seen with the children’s books, just because there’s words that I’m
not too sure about because it’s in, because we learn in masu form, and
it’s really formal. I think some schools might do casual and then do
masu, but because we learn masu it’s a lot easier ‘cause there’s a lot of
things in children’s books, which are casual, which we don’t learn until
a bit later.

177) R: maybe in the future.
178) J: definitely yeah, so that’s another reason I want to learn more so yeah.
179) R: ok. how do you now see your decision to try extensive reading?
180) J: really happy about that yeah. it’s definitely good. it’s you know given
me, but I haven’t read many books, English or anything at all in a
while so that’s definitely something to do. that’s interesting, it helps
my learning a lot you know starting to become more fluent with
writing, reading rather, and it’s helping everything else at the same
time so it’s definitely very ??.

181) R: so has extensive reading met your expectations at the start?
182) J: I really didn’t know what, I mean I knew it’s gonna to be reading
books, but I didn’t know whether this actually gonna help me learn this
much.
183) R: so it was more than you expected.
184) J: yeah more than expected, I’ve learnt a lot. I’ve learnt a lot. I wasn’t
sure whether this would do or not. so it’s really good.
185) R: ok. that’s good. let’s talk about Japanese classes. how much did you
enjoy Japanese classes last term?
186) J: um, classes were good. there was nothing really, nothing that ‘s
amazing it was just, still my favourite subject at school and I’m still
taking all the way through it. last term, it was just class, we didn’t do
anything super amazing but it was still fun. yeah, but last term, nothing
super. but I still like it.

187) R: ok. so pretty much the same as...
188) J: just the same as usual, yeah.
189) R: as usual.

190) J: but oh speech, ‘cause we had to do, actually we had to do four
speeches, three for Japanese and ‘cause we had to do test one, which,
and we had to do the actual one for NCEA and then I had to do my
third one for Otaru, yeah, but that was pretty much just the first two, I
had to relearn that ‘cause I forgot some of it. and then English one.
yes, we had two speeches, which were a bit hard but I actually found I
was speaking about for just as long in my Japanese speech as I was in
my English one, I found Japanese one easier to remember.

191) R: oh.
192) J: I’m not sure.
193) R: I wonder why.
194) J: maybe ‘cause I was just sitting, it was just me and the teacher, I didn’t
have to sit up in front of like in English we have / sat in front of / 20
people. I got nervous and stuff. but in here I just sat beside the teacher
and talked into the microphone, but um, no I though it was definitely, I found it was easy to remember, I don’t know why.

195) R: hmm, ok.
196) J: because it was so interesting, you know the language never learnt to speech before in Japanese so doing it was so interesting so definitely I kind of remembered everything.
197) R: hmm.
198) J: I’m not sure, anyway language might have just been more fresh in my mind, but it’s definitely interesting.
199) R: so last term did you spend more time studying for Japanese than for the other subjects?
200) J: yeah like I said I was still doing Japanese work even if I wasn’t doing as much. I still wrote diary every day. so and I haven’t done that with any other subject and we didn’t have much homework for other subjects, maybe some artwork. I did some artwork after school and I still over all I would have done more Japanese work than any other subject.

201) R: still number one subject.
202) J: definitely, yeah.
203) R: so you wrote a diary last term. what else did you do?
204) J: Japanese work?
205) R: yes, extra work.
206) J: um, the reading, uh the speech competition, that was obviously a pretty big one for me. um, …mostly actually last year I did a lot of this extra work, like they gave me sheets and things. but, I’ve done, just from reading and writing my diary I’ve learned so much and the teachers they teach me words that I don’t know from my diary I say I wanted to do write this in my diary and they say here is the word and I’ve learned quite a lot and I’ve learned kanji from, they’ve taught me kanji and things which I can use my books so I can learn words for weather um you know I’ve learned so much things just from doing my diary, it’s been pretty much the same as, it’s probably actually better in the sense than they giving me sheets like I did last year ‘cause it’s more personal and I’m learning, um, you definitely learn a lot more from uh a lot more new things from sheets, but the thing is by doing this diary I can reinforce things with the class, and words and structures and everything, then I remember them a lot better than other people. you know I was remembering things last year and the year before and started the term and term one and everything from this year because I’m learning and putting it into this book by redoing it and I remember it.

207) R: hmm.
208) J: so it helps so much.
209) R: so it’s not like how many different things you did. it’s just...
210) J: just how well, and the diary is just I was quite surprised that how good it was, just it helps so much just learning and everything reinforcing things I have learned so hmm.
211) R: that’s good. did you like watching, listening to music?
Interview 3
JACK
21 July 2009 Term 3 Week 1

212) J: yeah I still listen a lot of music, um lately I’ve been watching, oh no, no, I have actually been looking around google earth. go around Japan and walk around the streets and things and look in the pictures and things from all the towns and the shrines and the temples and you know the country side is so amazing in Japan, you know so amazing, yeah I’ve been looking at the geography of Japan lately, different islands and islands around it and yeah that’s sort of things. that’s really interesting.

213) R: you have been doing kind of research, learning about places..
214) J: yeah just looking around. it's very good.
215) R: then how important is it to do such extra things?
216) J: um. ‘cause no one else in the class I don’t think does that sort of stuff and you know they still learn well. but I can do, I’ve found I can speak a lot of things and learned a lot of things before you know some of them have/ so it definitely helps a lot and helps my motivation and everything. um..yeah it’s important to me, you know I want to do it because it helps ‘cause I really want to learn as much as I can ‘cause it’s kind of annoying when I go to do things I want to write in Japanese but I can’t do it and so I want to learn more Japanese so I can start writing these things so yeah that’s pretty much. I think it’s very important for me.

217) R: so what do you want to achieve? what level of competency in Japanese do you want to achieve? is it like near native fluency?
218) J: yeah definitely I want to be able to speak just as well as or if not as good as a native speaker of Japanese like I’d love to be fluent, probably I’d have to stay there for a couple of years but I want to live there when I’m older so that’ll be fine.

219) R: near native in spoken fluency only or like reading and writing,
221) R: all-round.
222) J: yeah like I like to be able to just speak it like you know like I speak English well! I like to be able to speak Japanese really well, as well, and yeah it would be really cool for me. and it’d definitely help a lot of other things as well if I wanted to do a job I could do it into work even in Japan or in other country/ I mean, that’s a lot of job, I mean Japan’s just so big and place like so much that I can definitely work there and I’ve got all the English countries I can work as well, that’s a half the world so I mean I just yeah I really want to be able to speak it and speak it very well.

223) R: ok, that’s what you want to achieve. so what is your present state of motivation for learning Japanese? now, now.
224) J: yeah it was a wee bit low but now I’m really really getting back into it now. my diary last night I was really tired and it was 11 o’clock and I wanted to go to bed but then I you know I haven’t done, I don’t think I did this really at all last term, I um instead I just go to bed thinking oh you know too tired to do it, I just stayed up and did it and I wrote really really fast and I wrote a lot and I thought well that was cool so I’m definitely getting really really into do things again after looking up
all the stuff about Japan like I have, and looking around and looking at
the photos of it and everything it’s you know, I really really wanna go
there. so it’s definitely very motivated again yeah.

225) R: so last term was as you said a little bit low.

226) J: yeah it kind of went lower it started out good, and then it kind of went
away a wee bit down, a lot of work, four speeches and just too busy...always other things doing after school, but now not really doing that as
much as any more now so focusing more on my Japanese.

227) R: you had a good break.

228) J: just had a wee bit of break, two-week break ?? and everything so I
really wanna get back into it.

229) R: ok. it will be interesting when I talk to you at the end of the term if
your motivation...

230) J: I hope it doesn’t actually, it’s so yeah.

231) R: it’s not because exams are nearing or anything?

232) J: no, not at all.

233) R: it’s not like external factors.

234) J: oh, ’cause I may not do as much in the last term, I mean there’s only
four weeks anyway so can’t see myself doing much, but for any other
subjects either, but just for the all the studying and things I probably
won’t do as much work ’cause I’ll be so busy studying, but will be
studying for Japanese as well so I don’t know. hmm definitely still
want to stay motivated, I’d make myself be motivated if I had to.

235) R: ok. so we talked about what progress you have made in your reading.
what about in other areas? what progress do you think you have made
so far?

236) J: um, I can speak a lot better after doing my speech and everything. I’ve
been asked questions, I missed one of the questions which yeah... I
can actually understand a lot more, I can pick out a lot more words.
when you and Kurosawa sensei and Tajima sensei were talking before
I could pick out some words and everything so I can definitely hear,
understand and even say words, say things better as well. um, I can
write very fluently as well, you know finish things very fast. last
period I didn’t really do anything because I had everything done in the
first ten minutes so...

237) R: ((laugh)) so you have progressed in any area.

238) J: everything, really well yeah.

239) R: to what do you in particular do you attribute your progress?

240) J: still my motivation and just um even last term I was still doing really
well because um I still wanted to do it, still really wanted to do it, I
may not have had as much motivation but still really wanted to do it.
so still going well because of that. um, and just because I’ve done so
much before, losing a bit of motivation I could still, you know I still
had that backing me so I still knew how to do things. so I still say
motivation that helped me so much and that’s helping me now as well
just wanting to do so much more.

241) R: so are there any Japanese related tasks, conditions, situations where
you feel your motivation is low?
Term 2
Busy with Schoolwork
Busy with Social Life
No Time to Read
No Time for Extra Japanese

Interview 3
JACK
21 July 2009  Term 3 Week 1

242) J: no, not particularly. that was just yeah just so much work last term, and just you know external things like just being busy and yeah, nah, otherwise not much.

243) R: when you are too busy you just don’t have time for things, too tired.

244) J: yeah ‘cause you know stuff I wanted to do it was extra stuff, you know, I obviously put things which had to be done first, I put them above, and then by the time I finish that you know, go to bed and all that sort of things so yeah, but now that I don’t really have that going on as much definitely be able to do a lot more.

245) R: good. so it will be good this term.

246) J: definitely.

247) R: ok. thank you. that’s all.

248) J: is it?

249) R: yes.
APEENDIX J
THINK-ALOUD INSTRUCTIONS

Instructions: This is a think-aloud exercise. I am asking you to read the following story and to say what you are thinking about as you read. Every line or two there is a red dot in the lines of the story. Please read out loud. When you come to a dot, stop reading and say aloud whatever you are thinking right then. The dot is a sign for you to speak your thoughts. You can use English, Japanese, or both languages as you wish. I want you to use whichever language you normally use when you read. I don’t want you to try to plan out what you say or try to explain to me what you are saying. Just act as if you are alone in the room speaking to yourself. It is very important that you keep talking. If you are silent for any long period of time I will ask you to talk.
APPENDIX K
SAMPLE OF AN ANNOTATED THINK-ALOUD TRANSCRIPT

TA One
Josie 18/2/2009
14'20"

今日は何月何日何曜日。I guess I’m just wondering what about they’re asking about the date today. So I’ll be wondering what day it is.

今日は十月 um 十一日木曜日です。I’m wondering why they’re wondering what date it is. It has no significance, like special significance.

讀取解字

ジョンさんは、ゆきさんと、歌舞伎を見ます。にんげんは、三ヶ月前、ひこうきの中で会いました。I know that they are going to kabuki and I’ve been, I’ve seen kabuki before so that’s what I’m thinking about when I went.

use general knowledge (experience)

ジョンさんは きん、さんざえき、ぎんざえきでゆきさんと会いました。Uh, ひとり、ふたりは、歌舞伎座に着きました... (3 sec) I’m thinking about the fact that I said [in the last sentence it was supposed to be ふたり I think] And also thinking about the fact that I’ve also been to ぎんざえき, so I know where they are talking about. I’m imagining that place.

Correct kanji reading

ジョンさんは、入り口で、チケットを手にいりました。uh, でしました。

[I don’t know でした means] But if he’s talking about tickets I guess it means he bought them or got two tickets um or something like that.

Guess word meaning (solve vocab problem)

ゆきさんが聞きました。わたしたちの席はどこですか。I’m not sure what 購 means but maybe it’s like where they are going to sit or something.

Guess word meaning

ジョンさんが、uh 言いました。九の、uh 十五、十六、あ、ここですよ。I think he’s talking again about where they are going to sit. So maybe せき was seating or something.

Guess word meaning

ふたりは席にすわりました。........ (8 sec) I’m pretty sure that せき is seating now ‘cause it says すわりました. So that was a right guess, I think.

Rewire guess

歌舞伎は、四時からです。ジョンさんは言いました。今まだ三時半でしたから、コーヒーをののみ、のみましょうか。Um, um...... (5 sec) I’m thinking about I didn’t have to use the hiragana for歌舞伎 when I was reading it because there was in the passage before and I’m starting to get used to reading 歌舞伎 as kanji.

Recognise kanji without hirigana
ふたりはロビでコーヒーをのみました。Talking about going back to the seats. (I think.)

九の十五、十六、あら？ふたりのI'm not sure about the kanji there. with
おじいさんとおばあさんがいます。I understand the meaning enough that I just keep going.

ジョンさんはおじいさんに言いました。あのう、ここは九の十五、十六ですね。わたしたちのUm, not sure of that so... I'm still not sure about the kanji just used here. cause it's the same one as before. Uh, I think the meaning is supposed to be that where they were meant to be sitting so... (2 sec) I'm still not sure how to read it.

おじいさんは言いました。九の十五、十六はわたしたちのthe same kanji again, so I guess it could be the kanji for seats. But I can't remember the word, hurigana. I'm not sure how to pronounce it.

ジョンさんはチケットを見ていいました。え？わたしたちも九の十五、十六ですね。ゆき、え？おじいさんおばあさん、え？Um, um (5 sec) I guess I'm thinking it's funny that Japanese people when they are surprised they say え？It sounds different to what we use in English when we are surprised.

歌舞伎座の、uh 人が来ました。四人のチケットを見ました。九の十五、十六、同じですね。It might be a mix-up with the tickets in the seats may be? cause it says that they're the same. (I think.)

歌舞伎座の人は、またチケットを見ました。歌舞伎座の人「あっ！」歌舞伎座の人は、少し、uh わかりました。um, すりませんでした。um... (3 sec) わけいました、少しわきました。I got a little confused reading the 少し kanji. So I didn't pronounce the last bit right.. (3 sec) I think they might, I'm not sure what's happening 'cause I couldn't pronounce it, so I'm going to read the sentence again.
TA One
Josie 18/2/2009
14'20"

Reread
歌舞伎座の人は少しわらいました。 Um, I'm not sure what わらいました means so um, I'm going to read on and see if I can figure out what it might mean.

Comment on behavior
そしてジョンさんに聞きました。歌舞伎座の人は、Uh 今日は何月何日ですか。ジョン、uh 十月十一日木曜日です。 I think they might be confused about what day they bought the tickets for. So someone might have come on a wrong day, and so it kind of brings it back to the title of the reading. I understand why they did call it.

Integrate info.

歌舞伎座の人、そうですね。このチケットは？ジョン、十月、じゅういちにち？じゅうななにち？I'm not sure. I don't remember which one I'm supposed to use. Um, I think it's じゅういちにち or じゅうななにち. I think they might be confused about what day they bought the tickets for. So someone might have come on a wrong day, and didn't check the tickets before he left. And also I'm going to check afterwards what I'm supposed to use じゅうにち or ななにち. I think I should use じゅうにち though.

React to text

 역 to text

Song sentence meaning
ゆきさんは小さな声でわらいました。I'm not sure what that 小さな声です means but I think maybe, um she said in a quiet voice or used a little voice because she was embarrassed about that or something. I'm not sure if I think it's voice but I can't remember.

Guess word meaning

プー？歌舞伎座が、uh 始まります。Um, um (4 sec) I'm kind of wondering what they're going to do ‘cause it's started now. Whether they are going to leave or they'll be able to just stay or not.

Anticipate content

ジョンさんとゆきさんは、歌舞伎座を出ました。ふたりは歌舞伎座の前で、大きな声でわらいました。

Uh, I think わらいました might be laugh? cause that would make sense cause it's kind of funny that they came on a wrong day.

Guess word meaning

Revise guess
