Western Norway
University of
Applied Sciences

MASTER'S THESIS

The Availability of English-Language Books in Norwegian Primary School Libraries

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Submission Date: The 29th of May 2020

Acknowledgements

Writing this thesis has been both challenging and interesting. The events of the last three months of the writing process have made the writing process especially challenging as libraries and study rooms have been closed, routines have been changed and social interactions have been close to non-existing. However, the motivation for writing this thesis has been high, as I feel the thesis contributes to research on a field where not much research has been done in the past. This has made the process both interesting and rewarding.

I wish to thank my supervisor, Sarah Hoem Iversen, for academic guidance and personal support, and for motivating me throughout the process. Secondly, I wish to thank the school librarians who participated in this research. Lastly, I wish to thank my fellow students and the other supervisors for valuable feedback and suggestions at the writing seminars.

Hege Solheim
Askøy, May 2020

Abstract

This master thesis deals with the English-language book collections at ten different school libraries in Norway. All the school libraries participating in the study belong to primary schools and are located in the same municipality, but in different districts. The master's thesis deals with access to English-language literature at these school libraries in combination with a study on how school librarians provide literature for school libraries and how the literature is made available to students. This research was done using different methods: mapping and categorising the selection of English-language texts, questionnaires for school librarians, and observation of school libraries.

The findings suggest that there is wide variation in the selection of English-language literature at the various school libraries and that illustrated books and graded and easy readers dominate several of the book collections at these school libraries. There is also a higher number of fiction books at the selected school libraries compared to non-fiction books. Books for the school library are obtained in various ways, both through the municipal purchasing scheme, local bookstores, online bookstores, donations, et cetera. There are also wide variations in the visibility and organisation of English-language literature in these school libraries.

Sammendrag

Denne masteroppgaven tar for seg de engelskspråklige boksamlingene ved ti ulike skolebibliotek i Norge. Alle skolebibliotekene som er delaktig i studien tilhører barneskoler og ligger i samme bykommune, men i ulike bydeler. Masteroppgaven tar for seg tilgangen til engelskspråklig litteratur ved disse skolebibliotekene i kombinasjon med en undersøkelse av hvordan skolebibliotekarene skaffer litteratur til skolebibliotekene og hvordan litteraturen blir gjort tilgjengelig for elevene. Disse undersøkelsene er gjort ved å bruke ulike metoder: kartlegging og kategorisering av utvalget av engelskspråklige tekster, spørreskjema til skolebibliotekarene og observasjon av skolebibliotekene.

Funnene viser at det er stor variasjon i utvalget av engelskspråklig litteratur ved de ulike skolebibliotekene og at illustrerte bøker og nivådelte bøker dominerer flere av boksamlingene ved disse skolebibliotekene. Det er også stor overvekt av skjønnlitterære bøker ved de utvalgte skolebibliotekene. Bøker til skolebiblioteket blir anskaffet på ulike måter, både gjennom kommunens innkjøpsordning, lokale bokbutikker, bokbutikker på internett, donasjoner og annet. Det er også store variasjoner når det gjelder synlighet og organisering av den engelskspråklige litteraturen på skolebibliotekene.

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background

In this thesis, I focus on the collections of English-language books at school libraries and how school librarians acquire books for this collection. One of the reasons I chose to write about this is because little research has been done on this field earlier in a Norwegian context. In a research project on extensive reading, Birketveit, Rimmereide, Bader and Fisher state that "[s]chool libraries often do not have sufficient selections of books in English to support extensive reading programmes" (2018, p. 5) and that "there is a need to upgrade school libraries especially in primary schools with new, exciting material in English" (2018, p. 19). In their research, they did not use the school library resources while executing their project. They brought crates with books to the respective schools to make sure all the pupils in the different schools had the same prerequisites for completing the project. Similarly, Rebecca Charbonneau claims that mixed ability levels among pupils make the availability of diverse reading materials in school libraries particularly crucial: "there […] appears to be a need for schools to invest in a wider variety of reading materials that cater for different levels and interest" (2012, p. 63).

Worldwide, research on student achievement and the use of school libraries have been widely conducted. In a review of research on the impact of school libraries in Australia, Michele Lonsdale claim that a substantial body of research shows a positive relationship between school libraries and student achievement (Lonsdale, 2003, p. 6). Similarly, a study from a Canadian context shows that an easily accessed, well-staffed, well-stocked, integrated, and heavily used school library correlates to higher student achievement (Haycock, 2011, p. 40).

In the Norwegian context, official government initiatives on school libraries have been made (e.g. Make room for reading!, 2003-2007, The Lift for School Libraries, 2007- 2008, and The School Library Program, 2009-2013). Several articles, reports, and evaluations are written on these initiatives, and how well they functioned (e.g. Buland, Dahl, Finbak & Havn 2008;

Carlsten & Sjaastad, 2014; Ingvaldsen, 2014). In 2007, a comprehensive mapping of school

libraries in Norway was conducted by Barstad, Audunson, Hjortsæter, and Østlie. This project

attended to several aspects of the school libraries in Norway, like a mapping of competences

in using school libraries, availability, and how pupils and teachers use the school libraries

(Barstad et. al., 2007, p. 3). Availability, in this context, refers to opening hours, whether

there is qualified personnel present or not. Barstad et. al. (2007) also examines what types of

books and other teaching aids that are included in the school library collections, using

numbers based on the schools' feedback on what types of text the schools have in their book

collections. Barstad et. al. (2007) do not refer to the numbers of books in their 12 categories

but examines which text types are present in the school libraries regardless of numbers. Even

though Barstad et. al. did a comprehensive mapping of the school libraries, they did not

examine the book collections in detail to see what books were available for the pupils at the

time of their research.

The school library book collections are built up over decades. During this time, Norway has

seen several different national curriculums. The *Knowledge Promotion* (LK06) is the current

curriculum and the school library book selections are supposed to mirror the learning

objectives included in this curriculum. The LK06 curriculum does not include any general

information on school libraries or what function it should have, but there are some learning

objectives in the English subject that could or should implement the school libraries. Two

examples are the competence aims that states that the pupils by the end of Year 7 should

"understand the main content of texts on has chosen" and "read and understand different types

of texts of varying length from different sources" (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013a). These

competence aims can be connected to the use of school libraries as they promote reading and

choosing texts, and they emphasise the use of different text types and lengths. What they do

not acknowledge is where these texts should be obtained from or what text types should be

read. In the Norwegian subject, it is stated in the curriculum that pupils by Year 2 should be

able to "find fiction and non-fiction at the library for own reading" (Utdanningsdirektoratet,

2013a). The competence aim does not state that the library needs to be or should be the school

library, but it could be any type of library.

The new curriculum *Fagfornyelsen* (LK20), (direct translation: subject renewal) that will

gradually be introduced in the autumn of 2020, the library is mentioned in some of the

competence aims. As this curriculum is not yet translated into English all the upcoming

references to this curriculum will be my own translations. The following competence aims are

listed under the Norwegian subject but could be useful in any subject at school. After year 2

pupils need to know how to borrow and read library books (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019a). It

is not stated whether the pupils should borrow books from the school library or from a public

library. As the competence aim states that they need to know how to "borrow and read" the

books, it is indicated that the pupils will need to borrow books that they are able to read. As

this is competence aim is listed under the Norwegian subject, it is likely that most pupils are

able to read a book in Norwegian by the end of Year 2, but it should also be possible to lend

books in English that will fit these pupils' reading levels. After year 4, pupils need to know

how to choose books from the library that fit their interests and reading skills

(Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019a). This competence aim focuses on interests and reading skills.

Pupils need to be able to find books that interest them at the library, and the books need to be

available at their reading level. This means that there needs to be a wide selection of books

where pupils can find books on topics that interests them, at the same time as they are not too

difficult or too easy to read. After year 7 pupils need to be able to orientate themselves in

informational texts (non-fiction texts) at the library and in digital sources. They also need to

assess the sources' reliability and be able to refer to sources in their own texts

(Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019a). The Year 7 competence aim shifts the focus from interests

and reading skills to digital and printed informational texts. This competence aim presumes

that the library – public or school library – have informational texts, or non-fiction texts, that

pupils can orientate themselves in and use as references in their own texts.

As a part of the core curriculum, five basic skills were introduced with the LK06 curriculum

and are included in the LK20 curriculum as well (Kunnskapsdepartementet 2017;

Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2019). The basic skills are reading, writing, numeracy, oral skills,

and digital skills, and the skills are described as basic to learning in school, work, and social

life (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013b, p. 5). The basic skills are supposed to be fundamental in

every subject at school, and as I am writing about books and reading in English as a foreign

language (EFL) I find it advisable to look at what the curriculum says about reading as a basic

skill in the English subject. The Framework for basic skills describes reading as creating

meaning of texts in the widest sense as "it involves engaging in texts, comprehending,

applying what is read and reflecting on this" (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013b, p. 8). It further explains that "reading gives insight into other people's experience, opinion and knowledge, independent of time and place" (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013b, p. 8). And it is emphasised that "reading of texts is a prerequisite for lifelong learning and for active participation in civil life" (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013b, p. 8).

In the LK20 curriculum it is stated that being able to read in English is to understand and reflect on the content of different kinds of texts, both on paper and digitally, and it is supposed to contribute to the enjoyment of reading and language acquisition (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019b). It involves reading and finding information in multimodal texts with competing messages and using reading strategies to understand explicit and implicit information. The development of reading skills in English goes from experimenting with language sounds, spelling patterns and syllables to reading varied and complex texts with fluency and understanding, and to increasingly reflect on and critically evaluate different types of texts.

The amount of space dedicated to reading as a basic skill in the curriculums proves the importance of reading in the English subject. As both enjoyment and language acquisition is connected to reading, it is important that reading both for pleasure and learning is supported by teachers and other adults at school and at home.

By highlighting the development in reading skills, the Ministry of Education focuses on the process, rather than the goal of reading as a basic skill. Pupils who have just started learning English will need to experiment with language sounds, spelling patterns, and syllables, while more competent readers will need to read varied and more complex texts in order to develop their reading skills.

1.2 Topic and research questions

As there is little research done in a Norwegian context on school library book collection and what books are available for pupils, I find it interesting to examine what English language books are available for pupils. In this thesis, I investigate primary school libraries, their English-language book collections, and how school librarians acquire English language texts

for their libraries. I look at the books that are available for pupils in these school libraries, and how and where the books are placed. The main research question for this thesis is:

What English-language literature is available in a selection of Norwegian primary school libraries, and how do school librarians acquire these books?

As this research question is complex and consists of different elements, I have decided to divide the main research question into three sub-questions.

1. What English-language books are available in a selection of Norwegian primary school libraries?
2. How might the organisation of the school library affect pupils' access to English-language literature?
3. In what ways are school library books acquired by school librarians?

The first sub-question addresses the school library book collections in terms of the number of books, and the categorisation of books into different text types, while the second question attends to the organisation of the school libraries and how this can affect the pupils access to the English-language book collections at these school libraries. The third sub-question

1.3 Thesis structure

This thesis is divided into seven main chapters, where the first chapter, Introduction, addresses the aim and the background for the thesis. It includes previous research on the field and an introduction to some of the aspects of reading in EFL in the LK06 and LK20 curriculums in Norway. The second chapter presents the theoretical background of my thesis. In this part, information on reading in EFL, extensive reading, and reading different text types, are included.

The method chapter presents the 10 schools that participated in this research, and the three different methods used to be able to answer the research questions. The first method is a

mapping of the books that are available in the school libraries, using the schools' own online catalogues and by physically visiting the school libraries to look at their collections. The second method is using a questionnaire in order to figure out how school librarians acquire books, and to get information on other aspects of their library work, e.g. working hours and if pupils and teachers ask for or recommend literature for the school library. The third method is observation, where I filled out an observation form while visiting the school libraries.

The results and analysis of the results will be presented in chapter four. This chapter is structured by using topics in order to present and analyse the results. Further, I present some of the strengths and limitations of this thesis as well as a discussion on some of the main results in connection with the research questions and the theoretical framework before adding concluding remarks.

2.0 Theory

2.1 EFL Reading

In Norway, English as a subject was introduced into Year 1 with the 1997 national curriculum (Det kongelige kirke-, utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet). That means that from the start of primary education, pupils learn English as a part of their compulsory education. Many researchers use the term 'English as a foreign language' (EFL) in the Norwegian context (Drew, Oostdam & van Toorenburg, 2007; Charboneau, 2012; Munden, 2018), while others use the term 'English as a second language' (ESL) (Eksam & Knutsen, 2018; Busby, 2018). In Norway, English is becoming widely regarded as a second language (Graddol & Meinhof, 1999 in Busby, 2018, p. 3), but since EFL often is used when teaching English in a non-native speaking country, since it is most prevalent in the Norwegian context, and since English does not have official second language status in Norway, English as a foreign language (ELF) it is the term that will be used in this text.

To be able to read in another language than your mother tongue is a complex process. Ion Drew explains that skills needed for language learning include "being able to recognise words automatically, being able to represent words phonologically, being able to understand the meaning of words, […] being able to understand how words link together syntactically, and comprehending basic meaning structures (units) (Drew, 2018, p. 4). All these processes can be seen in connection to reading in a first language (L1). Maybe the largest distinction between learning to read in your L1 compared to a second language (L2) is the prerequisite knowledge. The pupils know their L1 because they have learned to speak it from a young age, and they often do not have this advantage when learning to read in the L2. As English and Norwegian are both Germanic languages, there are some similarities in terms of e.g. grammar (Busby, 2018, p. 3), but since many words in English are not written the way it is pronounced, there are some difficulties in learning English that are more prominent than, for example, when learning the Norwegian language. Examples of words in the English language that is not written the same way as they are pronounced, are the words thought, though, and tough. These words look similar in writing but have different meaning and different pronunciation, which might make it difficult for learners to distinguish between meanings, and to be able to

pronounce these words by reading them.

Stephen Krashen argues that reading, and free voluntary reading, in particular, might be the best way to develop levels of reading comprehension, spelling, vocabulary, and writing style (2004, p. 57). He further explains that the best way to facilitate reading is to provide access to books. If books are not available for pupils, they will not be able to read them, and in order to promote free voluntary reading, there needs to be a large selection of books in different genres and reading levels for pupils to be able to comprehend these texts. Free voluntary reading is often referred to as extensive reading, and it is a term that will be more thoroughly reviewed in the following chapter.

2.2 Extensive reading

A wide variety of books needs to be accessible from school libraries or classroom libraries for pupils to be able to choose books for extensive reading purposes. Birketveit, Rimmereide, Bader, and Fisher (2018, p. 19) claim that successful extensive reading requires "a wide and varied selection of reading material to offer learners choice as to both content and linguistic complexity". They also express a need to upgrade school libraries with new and exciting material in English. EFL teaching in Norwegian classrooms tends to rely heavily on the use of coursebooks (Drew, Oostdam & van Toorenburg, 2007, p. 327; Drew & Sørheim, 2016, p. 122; Charboneau, 2012). Drew and Sørheim (2016, p. 79) argue that because pupils usually do not choose the coursebooks that are used in class, they should be given the opportunity to choose extensive reading texts that appeal to them. Jacobs and Farrell state that "pupils may be reluctant to read if they do not have available reading materials on topics that interest them" (2012, p. 20). To be able to choose texts to read, it is important that the reading materials are available for the pupils.

According to Birketveit and Williams, coursebooks are no longer sufficient as the only reading material in EFL classrooms (2013, p. 10). The texts in the coursebooks are often short and usually consist of dialogues, facts, poems, letters, or extracts from stories. Birketveit and Williams worry that these shorter texts will not help pupils develop extensive reading skills (2013, p. 10). In the LK20 curriculum, it is written that pupils by Year 7 should be able to

read and talk about the content of different texts, including texts they have chosen themselves [lese of videreformidle innhold fra ulike typer tekste, inludert selvvalgte tekster] (author's translation). (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019b). To work towards this competence aim, the pupils will need to read other texts than those found in the coursebooks, and to read books of their own choice, is one of the criteria that is commonly connected to extensive reading (Day & Bamford, 2002; Jacobs & Farrell, 2012). In order to define what extensive reading is, I have chosen to use the definition by Richards and Schmidt (2010):

> Extensive reading means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking to reading. (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 212)

This definition is supported by Day and Bamford (2013, p. 6) who explain extensive reading as a term used when people read for pleasure, information, and general understanding (2002, p. 138). Day and Bamford add that Richards and Schmidt's definition implies that extensive reading contributes to increased general second language competence (2013, p. 6). Drew and Sørheim (2016, p. 79) point out that the aim with extensive reading is the overall meaning of the text, and the texts are often longer; like whole books.

Extensive reading is often seen as a contrast to the close reading one often does with the texts in the coursebook. This type of close reading is often referred to as intensive reading where the texts are usually short and the pupils read for detailed information (Drew & Sørheim, 2016, p. 79). Hellekjær (2005) claims that EFL pupils should get more extensive reading training and do less reading for detailed understanding to "develop vocabulary through incidental acquisition as well as reading fluency" (p. 255). Drew and Sørheim (2016, p. 79) state that both intensive and extensive reading should be a part of EFL teaching.

Day and Bamford (2002) put together ten principles associated with teaching extensive reading. These principles can be seen as guidelines for how teachers should thing about extensive reading and how teachers can implement this way of reading in their teaching. As this text is about the school library and their book collections, I have chosen to highlight the four principles that are most relevant to school libraries and the accessibility of books. Day

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and Bamford's first principle of extensive reading is that the reading material is easy. It is important that the language in the books is at different levels which fits the reading levels of all the different pupils at the school so that everyone will be able to find literature in English that they will be able to comprehend. Their second principle is to have a variety of reading material on a wide range of topics available for the pupils. This principle is important as all pupils are different and like to read different types of text. Some pupils like to read informational texts on boats, while others will prefer stories in the graphic novel format. It is not only important to have different types of text, e.g. picturebooks or novels, but also a variety of texts within these text types with different topics and themes to help pupils choose what they want to read, which is Day and Bamford's third principle. Every pupil is different, and the variety of English-language books should be large enough for everyone to find something interesting to read – if there are no books the pupils would like to read, they can not choose what they want to read. The fourth and last principle I would like to highlight is that learners read as much as possible. For pupils to read as much as possible, the number of books the pupils like to read needs to be high. If one pupil reads the first book in a series and loves it, the rest of the series should be available for the pupil to read. If the pupil reads a book from a particular author and wants to read more from the same author or is especially interested in the themes in the book, more books from the author or about the same themes should be available.

Birketveit, Rimmereide, Bader, and Fisher (2018) claim in their research that more extensive reading should be introduced into the curriculum if we accept that reading longer texts for meaning might be a useful skill. In the new curriculum that is being gradually introduced by autumn 2020, there are more competence aims that can be connected to extensive reading.

By year 7, pupils are supposed to read and redistribute the content from different types of texts, including texts they have chosen themselves (author's translation) [lese og viedereformidle innhold fra ulike typer tekster, inkludert selvvalgte tekster] (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019b). This competence state that pupils should be able to choose some of the texts they read. This corresponds well with the third principle of extensive reading by Day and Bamford (2002) about reading self-chosen texts.

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Another competence aim by Year 7 is to read and listen to English-language non-fiction and children's and young adult literature, and to write and talk about the content (author's translation) [lese og lytte til engelskspråklige sakprosatekster og engelskspråklig barne- og ungdomslitteratur og skrive og samtale om innholdet] (Utdannigsdirektoratet, 2019b). This competence aim clearly states that pupils should read different types of texts, both fiction and non-fiction texts, and of varying degrees of difficulty. The last part of the aim "to write and talk about the content" can partly be seen in connection to extensive reading. As the focus of the aim is the content of the text, and not the structure or vocabulary, it corresponds to extensive reading, but there is less of an emphasis on simply reading for pleasure in the curriculum, as reading has to have a purpose beyond pleasure.

2.3 Reading fiction and non-fiction

Children have different reading preferences. Some pupils like to read fantastic stories with knights and dragons, some like romance stories in a realistic setting, while others like to read informative books on topics like the rainforest, bears, or bats. Even though some pupils like to read about a particular topic, it does not exclude any interest in other topics or themes. One day a pupil might prefer reading about thunderstorms, another day the same pupil might want to read a book about mermaids or someone going on an adventure. It is not only the topic or the theme in the books that are important to consider when building a school library collection. Types of books are also important, as some pupils prefer to read fiction books while others would rather read non-fiction.

There are some considerable differences between fiction and non-fiction. Fiction texts are according to Margaret Mallett "texts which draw on the invention and the inner world of the imagination, using figurative language to get meaning across" (2010, p. 3), while a non-fiction text "informs or instructs about a subject, an event or a set of ideas" (Mallett, 2010, p. 219). Livingston, Kurkjian, Young, and Pringle claim that children's literature often is considered synonymous with story, and that non-fiction has struggled to find its place as literature (2004, p. 582). Mallett explains that it is the stories that children first get acquainted

with, as the chronological structure of stores is familiar to young children (2010, p. 3).

Several studies conclude that children like to read non-fiction texts (Doiron, 2003; Reese & Harris, 1997). It is important to take into consideration that not all pupils prefer to read fictional literature or narrative texts and that there also needs to be a large selection of non-fiction books available for those who prefer to read those types of texts. One should also consider that there is an immense variety within the non-fiction category as well, where some texts include elements from both narrative fiction and non-fiction.

Even though pupils prefer reading different types of texts, Reese and Harris explain that the books of choice for reading aloud, have been titles under the fiction genre (1997, p. 219) and that non-fiction books seldom have been used for pleasure reading. This view is comparable with Yopp and Yopp's claim that children have limited exposure to non-fiction books (2012, p. 481). In their research about books being read aloud in the classroom, they found that narrative texts were read more than any other text type. 77% of the books read in the classroom were narrative, while 8 % were informational (non-fiction) (Yopp & Yopp, 2012, p. 482).

Both fiction and non-fiction texts are important to have available at the school libraries. One of the main topics of this thesis is the availability of books at school libraries, and what different types of books are available for pupils. A selection of genres and formats are important, as pupils like to read different types of text. In the data collected from the school libraries, I have divided the books into fiction and non-fiction categories to highlight what types of books are available for pupils. The books are divided into fiction and non-fiction categories, and these categories will be presented in the following paragraphs.

2.3.1 Reading fiction

Picturebooks

Defining what a picturebook is might seem simple at first, but it can be quite controversial. If we consider the term 'picturebook', it implies a book with pictures. But not all books with

pictures are considered picturebooks. As there is a dispute about how to define a picturebook, I have chosen to use the terminology by Nikolajeva and Scott, who states that "the unique character of picturebooks as an art form is based on the combination of two levels of communication, the visual and the verbal" (2006, p. 1). They refer to the research of Torben Gregersen and state that in a picturebook the text and pictures are equally important (p. 6). According to Kümmerling-Meibauer (2018, p. 3), there is a common agreement that picturebooks have both pictures and text, but at the same time, it is common to make a distinction between illustrated books and picturebooks. In an illustrated book, Kümmerling-Meibauer says (2018, p. 3), the text is more dominant than the illustrations, and in picturebooks, there is a balance between the text and the pictures. It is also a common notion that picturebooks have pictures on each double spread (Birketveit, 2013, p. 19; Ommundsen, Å. M. 2018, p. 220), and some picturebooks are wordless (Bosch, 2018; Mallett, 2010, p. 23). It is also important to consider the fact that not all picturebooks are fictional, but that non-fiction picturebooks also exist (von Merveldt, 2018).

There are many advantages of using picture books in EFL teaching. As picturebooks are widely illustrated, the visual reading of the texts can guide pupils in reading the verbal text. Picturebooks might be motivating for reluctant readers and other readers that are put off by long texts, as they often do not contain a lot of written text compared to the other categories. As the visual text is just as important as the verbal text in these books, picturebooks also provide an opportunity to stop and reflect on the written text and the illustrations. More intermediate pupils might be able to understand hidden messages between the verbal text and the illustrations, as many picturebooks open up for different interpretations of the text. There are many advantages of using picture books in EFL teaching. As picturebooks are widely illustrated, the visual reading of the texts can guide pupils in reading the verbal text. Picturebooks might be motivating for reluctant readers and other readers that are put off by long texts, as they often do not contain a lot of written text compared to the other categories. As the visual text is just as important as the verbal text in these books, picturebooks also provide an opportunity to stop and reflect on the written text and the illustrations. More intermediate pupils might be able to understand hidden messages between the verbal text and the illustrations, as many picturebooks open up for different interpretations of the text.

Illustrated books

Illustrated books are, as mentioned above, books where the verbal text is more dominant than the visual text, and the verbal text can exist independently (Nikolajeva & Scott, 2006, p. 6). The illustrations in these books can be small or big, few or many. Some books have one illustration at the start or at the end of each chapter, while others have several illustrations in each chapter. The illustrated books can be both novels and shorter books. The illustrations in richly illustrated texts might serve as a guide for pupils reading the verbal text. It can also help to form images of the story while reading. In texts with fewer illustrations, the visual text will not provide visual support in the same way as books with more illustrations. The readers will have fewer pictures to look at, and these books facilitate the use of other skills to comprehend the text. However, books with few illustrations might as well guide some of the readers to understand some of the key points of the story or provide some visual aid in creating images from the text.

Graphic novels and comics

Graphic novels and comics, as well as picturebooks and illustrated novels, employ both visual and verbal modalities. Graphic novels and comics can vary considerably in terms of length and style, and according to O'English, Matthews and Lindsay graphic novels should be considered a format rather than a specific genre (2006, p. 174). As there are disagreements among scholars on how to define comics and graphic novels (Meskin, 2007), I have chosen to use McCloud's definition that comics are "juxtaposed pictorial and other images in deliberate sequence, intended to convey information and/or produce an aesthetic response in the viewer (McCloud, 1993 in Meskin 2007). The terms 'graphic novels' and 'comics' are often used interchangeably (Rimmeriede, 2013, p. 133), while some distinguish the text types by the length of the stories, calling graphic novels "comics" in book format (Schwarz, 2002, p. 262).

According to Rimmereide, the use of graphic novels enables both reluctant readers and competent readers to engage in the reading process, as the texts are often fun and motivating (2013, p. 131). Graphic novels are also an important part of the library collection as the comprehension of texts, for some people, is enhanced by visual expressions, and there is a

variety of genres and stories in the graphic novel format (Rimmereide, 2013, p. 131). Graphic novels also offer a medium for literacy that acknowledges the impact of visuals, and these texts often appeal to young people (Schwarz, 2002, p. 262).

Children's poetry

Children's poetry is according to Turid Husabø "about sensing the extraordinary in the ordinary", and she claims that it is about communicating with oneself and one's feelings (2013, p. 55). Some of the benefits of letting pupils get acquainted with children's poetry, also through songs and rhymes, are that they may discover that their interpretation of the texts count and that meaning might come alive through imagery (Husabø, 2013, p. 55). Husabø also explains that using children's poetry is two-folded as pupils both get to experience the poetic language as well as an exploration of oneself as an individual and part of humanity (2013, p. 55). Children are used to hearing poetic language from a young age, and they often generate poetry themselves (Flynn, 2013, p. 76). Richard Flynn explains that nursery rhymes, playground rhymes, and other performance-based poetry "forms the basis of early and largely positive experiences with poetry, emphasising pleasurable and often interactive experiences with poetic language (2013, p. 76). Flynn also emphasise that while poetry is often considered easy for pupils to learn to write, pupils are rarely encouraged to enjoy reading poetry, to memorise it, or to perform it (2013, p. 77).

Fairy tales

Many pupils are familiar with fairy tales even before starting school. Fairy tales are for many children read to at the bedside and many well-known fairy tales have been adapted into movies. Another aspect to consider is that many pupils know fairy tales in Norwegian, which might help their reading of fairy tales in English as well. Many fairy tales include characters that present themselves in several other fairy tales. One example of this is the Ash Lad who is well-known to many Norwegian children. When reading about known characters, pupils might be able to foresee some of the actions the characters will take, and it might, therefore, provide as a guide for reading in a foreign language. Fairy tales often follow a fixed pattern.

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Actions are often repeated, which might re-enforce language learning (Birketveit, 2013, p. 93), and fairy tales for children are often illustrated, which provides visual support. According to Birketveit (2013, p. 93), fairy tales also enable learners to "deal with longer and more complex texts than they are usually offered", which can contribute to a sense of achievement among the pupils.

2.3.2 Reading non-fiction

The term non-fiction is disputed. It is the standard label in English, but critics, authors, and illustrators are reluctant to use this term for different reasons (von Merveldt, 2018, p. 231). Defining a genre by something it is not, is according to von Merveldt unproductive (2018, p. 232). The word 'non-fiction' is not a description of what the genre involves, but a statement of what it is not – fiction. Other terms like 'informational texts' and 'factual texts', has been discussed, but neither of these terms are indisputable. To call something factual emphasises a basic understanding that everything written in the text is true, that it is fact. This is might be problematic as some non-fiction texts might include incorrect or discussable parts, and historical events or events in people's lives (which often is a part of non-fiction literature) might not be correctly reported in these texts. By using the term informational text, one needs to be careful not to say that other texts do not provide information. As information can be conveyed on different levels, informational text is a huge umbrella term, especially if one agrees that fictional texts also can be read only for their factual information (von Merveldt, 2018, p. 232). Mallett defines informational books as books "whose main intention is to impart knowledge and ideas" (2004, p. 622). The term used in this text will be non-fiction, as this is still the standard label of this term, and as it is the most used and known term regarding these types of text.

Patricia Ladd writes that non-fiction is an important part of the library collection because the books serve as information resources for research, they are important for learning and personal enrichment, and they are a source of reading pleasure (2012, p. 5). Palmer and Stewart also emphasise that the non-fiction texts can be a source of reading enjoyment as well as a tool for skill development (2005, p. 426). If it is the case that pupils learn from reading these types of books, and also can enjoy these books while reading them, non-fiction books

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should probably to have a greater place in the library collections than they have today, and they should be incorporated in the classroom to a greater degree. Even though non-fiction texts have not been given the same critical attention as fiction texts, they have the potential to inspire learning and support critical reading and reading for pleasure (Mallett, 2010, p. 219). In the following paragraphs, I will write about the different non-fiction categories that are being used in this text.

Recount texts

According to Mallet, "the main characteristic of a recount is its narrative organization" (2010, p. 254). They are chronologically ordered and often feature retellings of events, and they are written in either first or third person. Texts that are considered recounts are for example information stories, logbooks, diaries, letters, biographies, autobiographies, and journalistic writing. Information stories follow a time sequence and at the same time impart facts and ideas (Mallett, 2010, p. 254). At the same time, they can also include non-narrative components like fact pages, information boxes, diagrams, and glossary. They can also include opinion, comment, and analysis (Mallet, 2010, p. 251). Logbooks, diaries, letters, and (auto)biographies usually follow a chronological narrative, and they often contain dates or other time-markers. Mallet further states that journalistic writing often is recounts even though they sometimes are called 'reports' (2010, p. 256).

Procedure texts

Procedural texts provide instructions on how to do something (Mallett, 2010, p. 279). They are often organised chronologically and provide a step-by-step guide on how something can be done. Some examples of procedure texts are recipes and how-to texts.

Report and explanation texts

Report texts are non-chronological, and they describe, inform, compare, and contrast (Mallett, 2010, p. 298). Report texts are supposed to inform children of different topics. The report

texts tend to be on generic subjects like mammals, rivers, or the Vikings (Mallett, 2010, p. 297). As these texts are not chronologically narrated, they are often ordered into sections on different sub-topics. A book about bears could be ordered into sections like 'bears of the world', 'habitat', and 'hibernation'. Explanation texts are often included together with report texts in information books (Mallett, 2010, p. 313). The report and explanation texts are sometimes hard to distinguish between, especially since Mallett claims that "explanation can be regarded as a type of report" (2010, p. 313). Explanation texts provide an explanation of a structure or process. For example, how-does-it-work books. They are often multimodal and use both diagrams and illustrations to complement and support the written text (2010, p. 320).

Reference texts

The reference text category includes dictionaries, thesauruses, atlases, and encyclopedias. Some reference texts are organised alphabetically, for example, dictionaries and thesauruses, where words and terms are explained, while other reference texts like for example atlases often are topic-based (Mallett, 2010, p. 345). Reference texts might include other text types, like report and explanation (Mallett, 2010, p. 246). These texts types might be visualised through description and information on a topic, and explanation of structures and processes. Mallett explains that different reference texts serve different functions in learning (2010, p. 366). Dictionaries and thesauri can be used for understanding the meaning of words, and how to use them in a context. Encyclopedias might be handy to find information on a topic that the learner finds interesting, and atlases can be used to figure out where different places are (Mallett, 2010, p. 366).

2.4 Authentic Reading Materials

As researchers define authentic texts differently, I have chosen to use Day and Bamford's definition that authentic texts are texts written by and for native speakers and not specifically for language teaching (2013, p. 54). There is a widely held assumption that authentic materials should be used in language teaching because they are considered interesting, engaging, culturally enlightening, relevant, and motivating (Day & Bamford, 2013, p. 53-54).

The texts might be considered interesting and engaging because there is a wide selection of these types of texts within all genres. That texts are culturally enlightening might refer to how to include cultural markers like language (e.g. grammar, choice of words and slang), clothing, foods, etc. One can also get acquainted with how people communicate with each other in the place the book is published and where the author is from, as this might vary between countries and areas within a country. Day and Bamford also claim that the most compelling argument for using authentic reading material is that they are genuine discourse (2013, p. 54), which means that the texts communicate with the reader using genuine vocabulary and language structures, used by native speakers of English.

However, Day and Bamford explain authentic texts can also set back reading development as the texts are sometimes considered too difficult for language learners to understand (2013, p. 55). This is because the learners have limited linguistic and background knowledge (Day & Bamford, 2013, p. 53). As these texts are written for native speakers, learners of English might find them hard to comprehend, both lexically and structurally, and they might not have the background knowledge they need which is assumed by the author of the text. Some authentic texts, like for example picturebooks provide visual support that might support learners to comprehend authentic texts.

2.5 Graded and easy readers

Schools, where English is taught as a foreign- or second language, need to have English-language books in different degrees of difficulty to be able to reach and teach learners of English at all levels. Graded/easy readers might be an easily accessible resource for school libraries to increase their number of English-language books and at the same time provide reading materials in different levels and in a variety of genres. Graded and easy readers are frequently used in language learning, and researchers argue whether or not graded and easy readers are better suited for language learning than authentic reading materials. In the following paragraphs, I will define what graded readers and highlight some of the arguments for and against the use of graded and easy readers versus using authentic reading materials in language learning.

Graded readers are defined as "books, about almost any subject, which are specially written

for the needs of foreign learners" (Vicary, 2013, p. 80). The graded readers are ranged in different levels, from simple and short texts intended for beginners, to longer and more complex texts for more advanced readers. The intended reader of graded and easy readers is the learners of English, and Day and Bamford underline that "one of the hallmarks of good writing is that it speaks to an intended audience" (2013, p. 63). These types of books are written with the learner in mind and with a vocabulary and length they should comprehend.

Graded readers can be divided into two different types: adapted and original. According to Victoria Rodrigo, the adapted titles are literature, often classical, that has been simplified or modified for use by a target language population (2016, p. 67). An example of this is Robert Louis Stevenson's *Treasure Island* (1883) which has been adapted into graded and easy readers by several publishers. Rodrigo further claims that the adapted titles have simplified grammar and vocabulary, compared to the texts they are adapted from. The original texts are "written from scratch, in a simple way, exclusively for use by second/foreign language readers" (Rodrigo, 2016, p. 67).

Rodrigo lists three linguistical benefits from graded readers: (1) they provide a model for the target language; (2) they serve as a source of incidental acquisition of vocabulary; and (3) they provide an adequate and pleasant way to fix and acquire structures and writing styles (Rodrigo, 2016, p. 67). In language learning model texts are important as they provide lexical and grammatical structures that learners might pick up and unintentionally, and hence acquire knowledge about the target language.

There has been criticism directed towards the use of graded readers/language learner literature. In the 1970s there was a movement that argued that "authentic materials […] were superior to materials especially written or simplified for language learners (Day & Bamford, 2013, p. 54). Some researchers still use this argument today. One of the arguments is that "it is the very difficulty of texts that makes them worthwhile as learning tools" (2013, p. 54).

Lin, Pandian, and Jaganathan (2016) claims that "while simplified texts can be more useful for weak learners [than authentic texts], they have been found to be poorly written and suffer from both language and content shortcomings" (p. 21). Graded readers are often written with a selected vocabulary and sentence structures as tools for intelligible language. In adaptations

from classic novels into graded readers/language learner literature, the language structures and vocabulary will be changed. The poetic and "literary" language might be changed into simpler sentences and/or words that the learners are likely to comprehend. However, we can also find examples of prominent phrases that are kept in the adaptations (Day & Bamford, 2013, p. 76).

According to Rodrigo (2016, p. 68) graded readers should be a part of an extensive reading library because they allow the readers to choose texts from a variety of titles, genres, and levels of difficulty. She further says that "inexperienced readers […] need well defined levels of reading difficulty". This is to make sure they read texts suited for their English reading comprehension. If a pupil tries to read a book that is too complex for him/her to understand, they might be less likely to pick up another book to read. "If they enjoy the reading experience, chances are that they will feel tempted, or less hesitant, to attempt another title" (Rodrigo, 2016, p. 68).

There are both advantages and disadvantages with both graded/easy readers and authentic reading materials, and a well-stocked primary school library should hold titles of both types of literature. The graded and easy readers are valuable texts to use as extensive reading materials to develop reading fluency, and authentic reading materials can be particularly good for developing more advanced vocabulary and provide cultural insights. One of the competence aims in the LK20 curriculums states that pupils by Year 7 need to be able to listen to and understand words and expressions in adapted and authentic texts (author's translation) [lytte til og forstå ord og uttrykk i tilpassede og autentiske tekster] (Utdannigsdirektoratet, 2019b). Adapted, in this case, means that the texts are facilitated for learners. By emphasising both authentic texts and literature for language learners, the Ministry of Education points out the need for both text types, and as the distinctly different and complementary advantages of using both texts types have been presented, it is clear that not one text type can function alone in a primary school library. There is a need to have both authentic texts and graded/easy readers in a primary school library to suit different needs and to provide different types of text in different levels.

In the following chapter, a discussion on the function and status of the school libraries in

Norway and other Nordic countries will be presented to get an understanding of what a primary school library is.

2.6 School libraries

2.6.1 Norwegian school libraries

The concept of a school library is something that most people are acquainted with, but school libraries can mean different things to different people. When researching the book collections at the school libraries, I find it important to understand what a school library is, its functions, and how it is emphasised in legal documents, curriculums, and other official writing.

In the Education Act of 1998, it is stated that pupils must have access to a school library and that the department can issue further regulations (The Education Act, §9-2). In *forskrift til opplæringslova* (2006, §21-1), which is a regulation of the Education Act, it is stated that schools must have a school library unless this access is secured through collaboration with other libraries. Libraries that are not located on the school campus must be available for pupils during school hours to make sure the library can be used actively in the education. The library must be specially arranged for schools, which means that both book collections and opening hours must be facilitated for the pupils.

The municipalities are responsible for the school libraries as they are the owners of the schools. Each municipality is different, both financially and in how they interpret the regulations. There are no national guidelines on how a school library should function and what content they should hold. According to Line Hjellup (2018, p. 111), some municipalities see a clear connection between the school libraries and reading and learning and therefore prioritise the school libraries, while others do not. Since the quality of the school libraries is not specifically defined on a national level each municipality can choose what resources to use on the school libraries and therefore the school libraries have varying quality, area, layout, opening hours, availability, and content. In an article about Norwegian school libraries and librarians, Bibliotekarforbundet (The Norwegian Librarian Association) demands a new national law to make sure that there is consistency in quality and services offered in school libraries all across the country (2019, p. 26). They argue for the importance of the school

librarian as someone who supports educational activities at school, with expertise in source criticism and credible information, and as someone who contributes to skills development, social equalisation and personal growth.

To define what a school library is, in the Norwegian context, I have decided to use the explanation from an Official Norwegian Report, the NOU1981:7, which is titled *Skolebibliotektjenesten* (the school library service).

> School library is a collective concept for the space, its function and the collections. It is assumed that it includes the school's total collection of teaching aids – whether in print or non-print – centrally and peripherally located on the school campus, together with the appropriate technology that might be needed for the use of these teaching aids. (NOU 1981: 7, translated in Koren, 2015 p. 65)

The school library can and should be used as an integral part of the education at primary school, using books and other resources in the library for teaching different subjects and at all levels. Rafste and Sætre (2008, p. 52) claim that the main purpose of the school library is for it to be an arena for learning. It is supposed to provide added value to the school subject and provide for the possibility to read, study, and communicate through texts and in cooperation with others. Elisabeth Raftse explains that referring to the school library as an arena for learning is not common amongst either teachers nor school librarians as traditional arenas for learning include classrooms and other rooms designed for use in subjects like gymnastics, arts and crafts, and science (2008, p. 16). Joron Pihl adds that the school library is a different kind of room compared to the classroom, and she explains that the classroom is a formal arena for learning, while the school library is an informal arena for learning where pupils are exempt from evaluation and control (2018, p. 27). Reasons for not including the school library as an arena for learning might be that the school libraries have been underdeveloped and low staffed. There is little research, in the Norwegian context, that clarifies what the school library can be used as and what kind of learning can take place at the school library (Raftse, 2008, p. 16). Even though the school libraries have not been seen as arenas of learning, there are advantages of using the school libraries as an integral part of the school. Tove Sætre state that the most important feature of the library as an arena for learning has been that it har current, quality-assessed and a differentiated selection of information sources, and a school librarian that can disseminate content and guide students and teachers in media search and use of

sources (2018, p. 78). In order for the school library to be an arena for learning, the school library needs a selection of updated and well-written information sources, as Sætre explains, but a well-functioning school library, in my view, does not only function as an information centre, but also as a place where encouraging reading and socialising around books are important.

National curriculums and local curriculums are the teachers' governing documents which systematise and facilitate their teaching. How the school libraries are emphasised in these curriculums, and how the school libraries are supposed to be used in teaching are important in order to understand the pedagogical function of the school libraries (Raftse & Sætre, 2008, p. 43). The function of the school library is not emphasised in the current curriculum LK06 nor in the new curriculum LK20. Raftse and Sætre explain that by not describing the function of the school library explicitly, the potential the school library as an arena for learning will not be thought of by many teachers and school leaders (2008, p. 47). By highlighting the function of the school library in national curriculums and other governing documents, the school owners would need to integrate the school library into other parts of the school, and it might become a natural part of the education at any level. By not describing the function of the school library, as is the case today, many school owners might not prioritise the school library and not use it as an integral part of the school.

The school library is in many ways an academic library or a library specialised towards a specific target group (Hjellup, 2018, p. 118). In primary school, the library is specialised towards primary school pupils, their reading levels, their interests, and the current national curriculum. A school library arranged for a primary school will, for example, have different needs than school libraries for lower and upper secondary schools, and public libraries. Public libraries cover different needs than school libraries, as they have more visitors in all age groups with all types of interests, while school libraries have the same visitors over a period of time. Pupils using the school libraries are in a narrower age group, compared to public libraries, and they are all part of a learning process.

The organisation and furnishing of primary school libraries are important to consider, as the way school libraries are organised will impact how the literature is disseminated (Hjellup,

2018, p. 118). If books are hidden or hard to find for pupils, there is a possibility that these books will not be read, and if books are placed using, for example, the Dewey Decimal System, which many libraries use, the school librarian or teachers might be able to find the books, but pupils might find it hard to locate books that are suited for them to read. In a school library, there might be more appropriate to organise books using genre or theme organisation or organising the books by reading level. If one chose to organise the library by genres or themes, one might consider marking the books with reading level or other indications as to who the books are suited for, and if one chose to organise the books using reading levels, there might be appropriate to add notes on what the books are about and what kind of book it is, e.g. fiction and non-fiction. What is most important is that the pupils are able to find books they like would like to read and that they can find reading materials suited for their reading level.

How the reading materials are displayed is important. This statement can be connected to how book retailers display books, and how attractively displayed goods draw customers. In the same way, pupils are drawn to books that are well displayed and accessible (Day & Bamford, 2013, p. 115). Day and Bamford claim that books are best displayed with visible front covers. By showing the front covers of the books, the pupils might be drawn to them in another way than they are drawn to shelves where books are placed with the spine out. By showing the front page, the pupils will see any illustrations on the front page as well as colours and font which might drive them to pick up the book, read the text at the back, or some of the first pages. The pupils might even find books that they were not explicitly looking for being attracted by the books on display. This might guide pupils into reading texts in genres or about themes they would not otherwise consider.

One issue with showing the front pages of the books instead of the spine is that it demands a lot of space. By placing the majority of books in bookshelves with the spine out and making varying displays of the books might be a good way to solve this issue as all of the books will be available at the same time, and some books will be highlighted by using displays. What is important, in my opinion, is that there needs to be a variety of books on display and these books need to be replaced regularly in order to attract as many pupils as possible to these books. The goal is, however, that pupils find books they want to read, whether they are the books being displayed or the books sitting on the bookshelves.

School librarians are responsible for the book collections and other library services at the
school libraries. As there is no legal definition of the title "librarian" in the Norwegian
context, the title must be linked to the function performed, and not to the individual's
educational background. NOU 1981: 7, states that there should be a requirement for
minimum qualifications for teachers responsible for the school libraries (1980, p. 14). Close
to 40 years after this NOU (Norwegian Official Report) was written there are still no laws
concerning school library staff and their educational background, and anyone hired at the
school can hold the position of school librarian (Bibliotekarforbundet, 2019, p. 26). Some
school librarians are primarily teachers, while others are assistants, head of department at the
school, or school secretary. To work as a librarian in public libraries in Norway, the minimum
requirements are often to have a bachelor's degree in library and information science, and
there are also master's programs to supplement the bachelor's degree. At the University of
Agder, there is also an educational program that educates school librarians, but there this
education is not required in order to work as a school librarian.

As the municipalities are responsible for the school libraries, they are also responsible for
providing resources for school librarians. There are major differences between the
municipalities both financially and in terms of priorities. In 2007, a mapping of the school
libraries in Norway was done (Barstad, Audunson, Hjortsæter & Østlie). According to their
data, school librarians in primary- and lower secondary school have on average 5,4 hours
allocated for school library work, while school librarians at upper secondary schools have 29
hours, on average, for school library work (Barstad et.al., 2007, p. 49).

School library work consists of several different tasks. In NOU 1981: 7 school librarians are
described as people being the leader of the school library and they are responsible for the
book collections (1980, p. 8). The report summarises the tasks of the school librarians and
divides them into two parts: pedagogical tasks and technical tasks regarding the library. The
pedagogical tasks include cooperation with teachers and pupils on the selection of books and
other materials, informing the teaching staff and pupils about newly purchased books,
informing teachers and pupils on how the library functions (e.g. searching for literature,
lending systems and how the bookshelves are organised), and cooperating with teachers on

the pedagogical use of the school library. The technical tasks consist of e.g. ordering books and other material for the school library, registration, classification, cataloguing, preparation and maintenance of books, and organisation of lending of books and other material. Even though these guidelines were written at the beginning of the 1980's they are highly relevant today, but today even more tasks fall on the school librarians. E.g. information on source criticism and on how to search for information on the internet.

Good school libraries have, according to Pihl, a school librarian with competence in library services, and who are present at the library during school hours (2018, p. 28). The school librarian disseminates literature, guides pupil's reading, and guides the pupils in searching for literature. Hoel, Rafste, and Sætre claim that if the school libraries are going to have an impact as a learning arena and learning resource, teachers need to gain a better understanding of what the school library can contribute to the learning process, and school librarians must have both library and educational skills (2008, p. 13).

The school librarians are important in the pedagogical use of the school libraries, they are responsible for the book collections at the school libraries as well and are responsible for the organisation of the school libraries. They acquire books, mark books by different classification systems or genres/themes, and organise the book using the system they prefer. The school librarians are also responsible for how the library functions regarding the availability of books, displays, systems, and systems for pupils to borrow and deliver books.

Hjellup emphasise that the school libraries need to have a digital library system for borrowing, delivering, and searching for books (2018, p. 122). Pihl claims that good school libraries have computers that pupils can use to search for information, search the library catalogue for books they would like to read (2018, p. 28). This way, pupils can learn to find literature that is available at the school library and online, and they can locate the book they are looking for by searching the online catalogue. The pupils need to learn how the school library functions, and both school librarians and teachers can guide them in using the school library appropriately by teaching them how the school library is organised and how to search for literature that is available to them.

Pihl explains that in well-functioning school libraries pupils' interests and needs are at the centre of attention (2018, p. 41). The school librarian knows the pupils and is based on the pupils' curiosity, wishes, needs, and prerequisites in connection with reading and learning. Pupils can be involved in the development of the school library so that their interests and knowledge of literature are taken seriously and can be reflected in the content the school library offers (Sætre, 2008, p. 87). This means that when pupils ask for books that they want to borrow from the school library, school librarians should make sure that these titles become available. It is also important that teachers who recommend books for the school library are heard, and books used in teaching or for individual pupils' reading are available at the school library.

2.6.2 The School library in a Nordic context

A school library in Norway is different from school libraries in other countries. It is interesting to look to some other countries in order to examine how their school libraries function and what they do well compared to Norwegian school libraries. As countries are very different, I found it reasonable to look to our neighbouring countries Denmark and Sweden, as these countries have similar educational systems as the Norwegian one, and as they all have a similar background concerning EFL teaching. In the following, I will look into some of the laws and regulations concerning school libraries in these three Nordic countries, and I will look at some of the initiatives they have made to strengthen their school libraries. The attitudes towards school libraries and how governments and local administrative units prioritise the school libraries are different, and there might, therefore, be suitable to get an understanding of how other countries prioritise their school libraries.

School libraries in Denmark

In 2014 Denmark changed the name from school library to pedagogical learning centre (pædagogisk læringscenter). The learning centres must play a key role in the school's everyday life and it must develop and support learning activities (Børne- og undervisningsministeriet, 2020, 10. January). The Danish child and education ministry state

that the pedagogical learning centres have different tasks, e.g. supporting and inspiring employees in focusing on learning processes and learning outcomes, cooperating with the school's management on initiatives that develop the school and disseminating cultural offering to pupils (Børne- og undervisningsministeriet, 2020, 10. January). The pedagogical learning centres have an overview of the school's resources for learning and disseminate these resources to the pupils. These resources can be both analogue and digital teaching materials, books for pupils' leisure reading, and digital tools.

By changing the name from school library to pedagogical learning centre, the focus is shifted from a traditional library to a place where learning activities are central. The function of the pedagogical learning centres is clear as the Danish child and educational ministry have stated what the learning centres are supposed to be and how they should function. This contrasts to the Norwegian school libraries where there are no clear guidelines as to what functions the school library should have, or what tasks the school librarians should do.

School libraries in Sweden

In the Swedish Education Act, it is stated that pupils must have access to a school library (Skollag, 2010, ch 2, 36 §). It also states that the premises and equipment must be available to fulfill the purpose of the education (Skollag, 2010, ch 2, 35 §). In 2012, the Swedish National Library (Kungliga biblioteket) completed a survey on school libraries and their opening hours, personnel, and media. As this survey followed their Education Act, they state that 210 000 pupils at this stage do not have access to a school library and that this violates the legal text (Kungliga biblioteket, 2012, p. 4). According to Lesley Farmer, Sweden has about 4000 school libraries that are funded and managed by local authorities (2019, p. 345). She further claims that even though several initiatives have been done to strengthen school libraries in Sweden, about half of the pupils have access to a school library that has at least half-time staffing and that one-third does not have access to a school library at all (Farmer, 2019, p. 345).

In 2014, DIK (a Swedish trade union organisation) appointed an expert group to formulate a

definition of a school library in a Swedish context (Ahlstedt, Anderson, Hög Lindmark & Westas, 2015, pp. 112-113). They defined a school library as follows:

> A school library is a pedagogical function. A school library's mission is defined by the Education Act, curriculum and syllabuses. Under the guidance of a school librarian a school library strengthens students' communicative and digital competence in a multimodal text world. (DIK, 2013 translated in Alhstedt et. al. 2015, p. 113)

This definition implies the presence of a school librarian in all school libraries. It also states the function of the school library, which is to strengthen the pupils' communicative and digital competences. According to Ahlstedt et. al., this definition was put forward to the Ministry of Education, the National Agency for Education and the Schools Inspectorate in Sweden (2015, p. 114). They further explain that this definition was not generally accepted in the discussions due to hesitation on the mention of school librarians as an integral part of the school library. They explain this by the high costs of school librarians and that 'school librarian' as a title is not defined (Ahlstedt et. al., 2015, p. 114).

Sweden has no national qualifications for school librarians (Farmer, 2019, p. 347). Farmer further states that it is the principals at each school that decide if the person is qualified to work at their school library. Farmer also explains the importance of school librarians as they are needed "in order to provide high-quality school library programs of resources and services" (2019, p. 347).

The situation of the school libraries in Sweden is close to the same as the situation in Norway. They have no official guidelines of the school libraries and no competence criteria for school libraries are officially decided. Both Norwegian and Swedish law claim that pupils must have access to a school library, but neither countries have given clear instruction on how the school libraries should function, what resources should be available, and how the school libraries should be staffed.

By comparing how the three countries there are both similarities and differences. In Norway and Sweden there are laws stating that all schools need access to school libraries, but how school libraries should function, or how these libraries should be integrated into other parts of

the school, is not mentioned in any governing documents. Even though DIK in Sweden tried to define what a school library is, there is still no official definition of the functions of the school library and school librarians in Sweden. In contrast, Denmark have elaborated on how school libraries are supposed to be a natural part of their teaching activities, how school libraries and school librarians are supposed to take part in the school development at different levels. Norwegian school libraries and schools might benefit from using the Danish model. By defining the functions of school libraries and school librarians, there might be fewer inequalities between the schools in different municipalities, and school owners might need to prioritise the school libraries at a higher degree than what is done today. In the following chapter, the methods used to illustrate the status of the book collections in some Norwegian primary school libraries will be presented.

3.0 Method

In this chapter, methodological approaches and choices of this thesis will be presented. I have chosen to use a mixed-method approach using both quantitative and qualitative elements. Quantitative methods relate to data in the form of categorized phenomena and emphasize the enumeration and dissemination of the phenomenon, while qualitative methods relate to data in the form of texts and emphasize the interpretation of the data (Johannessen, Tufte & Kristoffersen, 2004, p. 97). The first methods are counting and categorisation. Categorising the books into genres and formats and by counting how many books are in each category, might provide a general understanding of what books are available at the school libraries in ten different schools. In addition to counting and categorising the books, I have chosen to include a questionnaire and observation in order to do more qualitative research on how English-language books are made available for pupils at the same ten schools.

3.1 School Selection

In selecting the schools for my research, the location was an important factor. It was essential that I would be able to visit the schools and look at their school libraries. The ten schools that participated in this research are all situated in the Municipality of Bergen but are places within different boroughs. The selection of schools is therefore based on convenience sampling (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 113-114). I also operated with selection criteria for the schools. They all needed to be primary schools, they needed to have a school library, and the person responsible for the school library had to agree to meet me, show me their school library and answer a questionnaire. The numbers of pupils in the selected schools range from under 200 to over 500.

3.2 Counting books and systems

In order to answer the research question, I would have to get an overview of what books are currently available in the school libraries. This was done in two ways. Before I got in contact

with any of the schools, I made a screencast of the online catalogue for all the schools in the same municipality. This was to make sure that the information I gathered was from approximately the same time in order to collect comparable data.

After getting contact with the 10 schools I wrote down all their English-language books that were available for pupils to borrow. I excluded books that were located in the teacher section and books that were not placed in the English-language bookshelves. This includes books like coursebooks and instruction books for teachers. After writing down the titles, I categorised the books in fiction and non-fiction and then in sub-categories, and I added year of publication. In several of the catalogues, year of publication was already provided, but none of the books were categorised into genres.

To be able to categorise the books I used different methods. Amazon.com has a feature where you can look inside a large selection of the books they sell. By using this tool, I was able to categorise most of the books in the catalogues. Some of the books in the school libraries were older editions or lesser-known books, and they were not available to look through at Amazon.com. With these books, I had to use the information provided in the catalogue. I was often provided with information about series, or other information that could help me categorise them. For example, if a book were in a graded reader series, I could search for them on the publishers' websites. The same goes for the books where the publishers were listed.

Some of the books have different editions where I would have to look at the year of publication to figure out which categories they belong to. One example is the book *Coraline* by Neil Gaiman. This book was published in 2002 and fits my categorisation as an illustrated book. In 2008 the book was adapted by Phillip Craig Russell into a graphic novel version. As illustrated novels and graphic novels are two separate categories I have used, it was important to figure out which of the versions the school library possessed.

Some of the books in the catalogue did not provide enough information for me to categorise them by using the internet. Numerous books were listed in the catalogue without the year of publication, authors and/or publishers. To be able to categorise these books I would have to

look through them. I brought the list of books from the online catalogue to the school libraries and found them on the physical shelves in order to categorise them according to my criteria.

While at the school libraries I checked all the books I was not able to categorise from my computer and took pictures of all the English-language books on the shelves. This way, I could spend less time in the school library and check the books on the shelves when I got back to my office space. I decided that I should cross-check the books in the online catalogue with the books on the physical shelves. This was decided to make sure the information in this paper would be as accurate as possible.

Some of the books from the catalogue were not on the shelves and was not noted in the list of borrowed books. These books might be lying somewhere else at the school, for example in a classroom (without being registered), or they might be lost. As these books are not available for pupils to lend. The consequence of this is that some books that are available for pupils might have been missed, as the loan-registry I was able to check was not from the day I went to visit the school, but from when I screencasted the online catalogue. The purpose of this thesis is, nonetheless, to get an overview of the books available for the pupils, and by missing a few books will not alter the general impressions of the school libraries' book collections.

I have counted one copy of each title, even if the library held more copies of the same book. If one school had for example 30 copies of the same title, this would make a big impact on one of the categories I have used. In order to get an overview of the different kinds of books in the school libraries, I found it reasonable to count only one copy, as the different text types are more important than the numbers of books, in this thesis.

Some of the books, particularly graphic novels, held several continuing stories of the same author. These titles might have been counted as several books, which would make the numbers of books in this category higher, but these titles have been counted as one book, as the stories are written by the same author, they are continuing stories, and because only one pupil can lend the book and read the stories at the same time.

Books that was lent out to pupils at the time of the screencast has been included in the data.

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This has been done to ensure that these titles are a part of the school library collections. There is one issue, however, by using the online catalogues to collect this data. As the online catalogue do not provide information on how long these books have been lent out to pupils, some of the titles might have been lost or not returned to the school library. As some of the titles borrowed by pupils might not be available from the school libraries anymore, these should not have been included in the data, but by excluding all the books that were lent out to pupils at the same, the numbers would not be correct either.

3.2.1 Book categories

In this thesis, the fiction books have been categorised using the terms from Birketveit's and Williams' book *Literature for the English Classroom: Theory into Practice* (2013). In this book, the authors address different types of children's fiction. As non-fiction texts are not included in Birketveit and Williams' book, a choice has been made to use the terms from Mallett's *Choosing and Using Fiction and Non-fiction 3-11: A comprehensive Guide for Teachers and Student Teachers* (2010). Her book is based on six types of non-fiction that teachers have been using as a framework for teaching (2010, p. 245).

Books can be categorised in many ways. In the following paragraphs, I will inform om which categories have been chosen for this thesis and how they are used. All the categories can be categorised more specifically, but I am choosing to use wide categories because the aim of my thesis is to get an overview of what literature is available for pupils, and not to get into detail about which narrow genre-categories are present. The fiction categories used by Birketveit and Williams (2013) are picturebooks, children's poetry, graded readers, fairy tales, graphic novels, and novels. As these categories do not cover all the different literature in the school libraries, some of them have been adapted to include different text types. The non-fiction text types are recount, procedure, report, explanation, persuasion, and discussion. As there were no persuasion or discussion texts in the school libraries I visited, these categories have been excluded. In addition to these six non-fiction text types, Mallett (2010) chose to include reference texts as its own category, which is also used as a separate category in this thesis.

Fiction categories

The picturebook category might be the most 'closed' category in this thesis. This is because clear lines on defining picturebooks are important to be able to categorise these books. In addition to this, the only genre-specific literature that is mentioned in the competence aims in the new English subject curriculum (LK20) is picturebooks. The picturebooks are only placed under fiction in this text because there were no non-fiction picturebooks in English in the school libraries I visited.

The illustrated books in this text refer to books with illustrations that can not be defined as picturebooks, graphic novels/comics, graded/easy readers, poetry, or fairy tales. This category includes books like illustrated novels and shorter illustrated texts. Some of the books are widely illustrated, while others have one illustration for each chapter. Books with illustrations only on the title page are not included in this category.

In this text, the graphic novels and comics category refers to both genres. Even if the two terms, 'comics' and 'graphic novels', are often used interchangeably (Rimmeriede, 2013, p. 133), some researchers distinguish between them. Michael Cromer and Penney Clark claim that the difference between graphic novels and comics "can be found in their physical appearance, subject matter and the length and complexity of the story" (2007, p. 577). They further state that comics tend to appear in two forms, the "strip" and soft cover "book", and that comics often have light and humorous content. Comics are often episodic and can tell an ongoing story (Cromer & Clark, 2007, p. 577). In contrast, graphic novels often tell richer and more extended stories with weightier and topics and are often hardcover volumes (Cromer & Clark, 2007, p. 577). In this thesis, comics and graphic novels are counted together in one category, as there are many similarities between them.

Graded readers include literature that is written for the development of English language reading skills. The books are often graded into levels that prove insight into word count, lexical complexity, and sentence structure. Other books are not graded in the same way but give clues that they are written for learners of English. These clues could be for example that words like 'early learning' or 'easy reader' are printed on the front page. Graded/easy readers

are usually thinner than for example a novel, and they are often released in series.

The definition of non-illustrated novels in this thesis is limited to the books which are published for a (wide) audience, and not necessarily for learners of English. These books are usually longer and do not contain any illustrations. Non-illustrated novels are written for all age groups, but in this thesis, the focus is on the novels written for children, teenagers, and young adults.

In the children's poetry and songs category, books with lyrical language and rhymes for children are included. The texts in this category include poetry, verse, rhymes, and chants. I have also decided to include song lyrics in this category as they chare many of the same instruments as poetry, for example, repetition, rhyme, and rhythm.

Fairy tales are another closed category in this text. Books included in this category are both larger collections of fairy tales and stand-alone fairy tale books. As the collections of fairy tales include several of these stories, and books with one fairy tale is different in terms of numbers of fairy tales, the numbers in this category do not count as a single fairy tale, but the number of books containing fairy tales.

Non-fiction categories

Margaret Mallett has based her book *Choosing and Using Fiction and Non-Fiction 3-11* (2010) on the terminology used in UK statutory and guidance documents. I have chosen to use these categories as they provide a separation of the different non-fiction texts and give clear lines on how to categorise these texts. Argumentative texts (persuasion and discussion texts) were not found at the school libraries, and therefore they are not included in my categories.

The recount texts are chronologically ordered texts and include diaries, biographies, and autobiographies. These texts usually follow a timeline and provide information on people and events in their lives. Procedure texts are chronological and explain how to do something. This can be for example step-by-step guides and how-to books. An example of a procedure text is a

recipe. Both these text types have been categorised using Mallett's (2010) criteria.

I have decided to merge the report and explanation categories that Mallett (2010) use. Non-fiction texts might include both report and explanation, and Mallett explains that "explanation can be regarded as a type of report" (2010, p. 313). The texts in this category are primarily topic books that address themes like animals, geology, or other themes. Some how-does-it-work texts are also included in this category.

The reference text category includes dictionaries, encyclopedias, and atlases. These genres are different in types of content, as dictionaries often include single words and their meaning, while encyclopedias often include longer explanations on words and concepts, and atlases provide images and texts about different places in the world. These three types of reference texts have been counted together in this thesis, distinctions between them have not been made.

Other texts

In addition to the fiction and non-fiction categories, I have added one called 'other'. This category holds books that do not fit any of the other categories and books I was not able to categorise due to a lack of access. One text type that does not fit any of my categories is playscripts.

3.3 Questionnaire

By using the mapping of the book collections in the school libraries alone, it is not possible to answer to the different research questions of this thesis. The mapping of the book collections at the ten school libraries provided this thesis with objective data on the respective collections, but to provide more information on these book collections and how library books are acquired using a questionnaire is more suitable. This method is used, not only to provide information on how library books are acquired, but also how many hours the librarians have dedicated to library work, and if the librarians are satisfied with the selection of books.

The questionnaire in this thesis is semi-structured. Most of the questions in the questionnaire can be considered structured as they were mostly closed with yes/no answers and pre-selected answer options (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 322). Closed questions are often used to get quantitative results of the questionnaire, and open questions are used for qualitative results. As the closed questions do not enable respondents to add remarks and explanations to the answer options, it seemed reasonable to add an option of commenting on the questions, adding less structured elements to the questionnaire (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, pp. 229-230). When a questionnaire has only closed questions with no option of comments, some of the answer options might not fit the respondents' situation, and they might feel the need to describe their choices. In some of the questions, the librarian was able to choose 'other' and provide additional information. The last question asked for additional information. This open question was included to make sure the respondents would have the opportunity to explain some of their answers or add information that was not explicitly asked for in the questionnaire, but which might have been useful for the thesis (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 330).

The questionnaire was handed to the school librarian during my visit, and s/he would fill it out while I was present. This way, any misunderstandings or questions could be explained simultaneously.

3.4 Observation

Observation is used as a method to be able to gather data from the physical setting of school libraries; how the libraries are situated, the layout, and book collections. The observations are based on facts and made it possible to see things that would not occur in by using the online catalogue and questionnaire. Both structured observations and unstructured observations have been used in the collection of data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 197).

Availability is more than what is physically present. The pupils need to be able to locate the literature and reach the books on the shelves. This observation focus on where the English books are places in the library, the size of the bookshelves, the organisation of books on the

bookshelves, book displays, seating, the condition of the books, and where computers were placed in the room. The purpose of the observations was to determine whether the English-language literature are visible and accessible for the pupils, and at the same time figure out if computers, to locate books and search the internet, were also readily available.

To be able to analyse the same aspects at the different school libraries, I applied structured observation by using an observation form (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 397). The first thing I looked for while entering the school library was the location of the English-language literature to figure out if it was easily visible or not. After locating the bookshelves, I looked at their sizes, if they were filled up or not, and if there were any subdivisions or organisation in these bookshelves. I also looked at the condition of the books. Further, I looked for the books exhibited in the library to see whether English-language literature was displayed, and I observed if there were any seating for pupils to sit and read. The last thing I looked for was the placing of the computer(s) and how these were made accessible for the pupils (see attachment 2 for the full form). Unstructured observations on e.g. the feeling of the room, if it felt big or small, tidy or messy, and light or dark were also made (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 397).

To support my work with the material the school libraries were photographed to make sure I remembered how it looked. I also photographed all the English-language books in order to do the mapping of the books as close to reality as possible.

In the following chapter, results and analysis of the mapping, questionnaire, and observations will be presented.

4.0 Results and analysis

4.1 Book results

4.1.1 Total number of English books
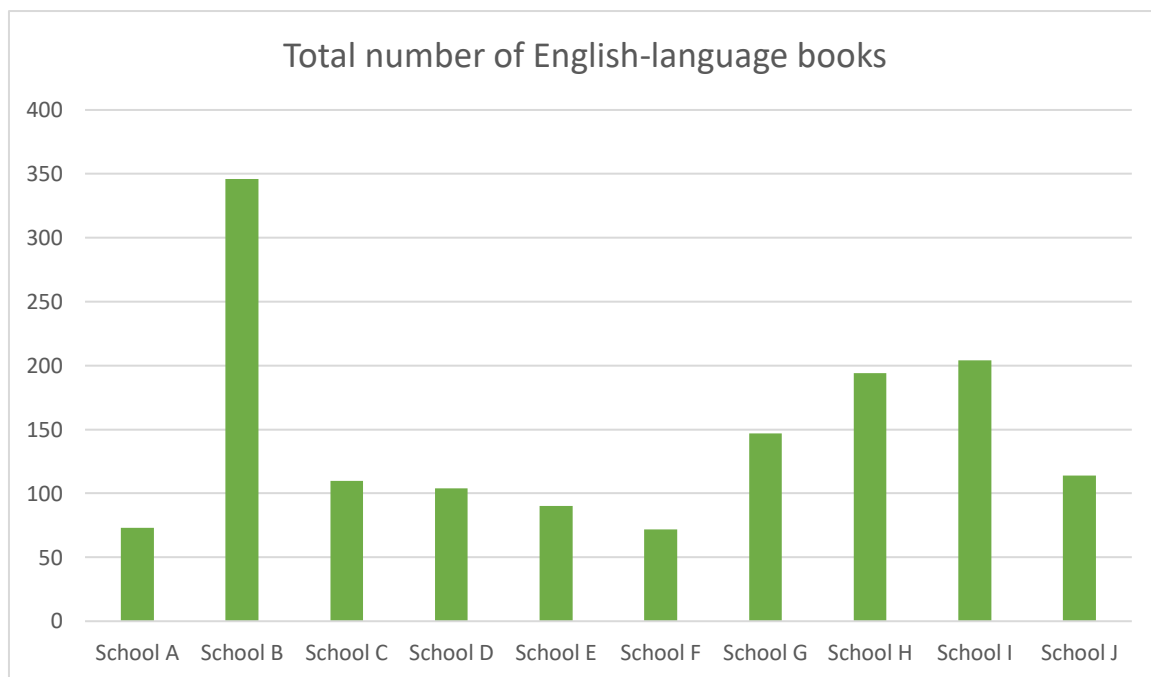
Figure 1: Total number of English-language books

In *Figure 1*, the total numbers of English language books in the 10 school libraries are presented. These numbers are based on the books found on the shelves while visiting the school libraries. As the online catalogues I screecasted withheld information on what books were available at that time, the books that were lent out to pupils at the time of my screencast, are also included in this diagram. As shown in *Figure 1,* there is a considerable variation in the number of English-language books in these ten schools. Three of the schools have less than a hundred books written in English while one of the schools has more than two hundred books, and one has more than three hundred books in English. There are some variables to consider while looking at these numbers. One is that the sizes of the schools are different. The number of pupils in these schools ranges from less than 200 pupils to more than 500 pupils.

What is interesting is that none of the schools have a number of English books as high as the

number of pupils. This means that none of the schools are able to lend an English-language
book to each pupil at the same time. As it might not reasonable to assume that all pupils
across Years 1-7 will read an English-language book each at the same, one can consider a
hypothetical scenario where Year 7 have an extensive reading programme. If the school has
approximately 50 pupils in Year 7, three of the schools would not have two books in English
for each pupil. Four schools would be able to lend out two books for each pupil, while one
school would be able to lend out six books to each pupil. By considering the fact that not all
books are suited to the reading levels of 11-12 year-olds, the selection of books would be
considerably smaller, and by acknowledging that pupils have different reading preferences,
the number of books pupils would like to read would be even smaller.

Another aspect to consider while looking at these numbers is that I have not collected
information about classroom libraries or books that are in teachers' possessions. There might
be more English-language books at the schools that are not registered in the library. Some
schools might have sets of, for example, graded readers that are being used in teaching or
reading projects, or other literature that for some reason is not available from the library.

One school stands out relating to the number of English-language books. School B has more
than a hundred books more than School I who has the second-highest number of books, and
more than three times as many books as school A, who has the lowest number of books. This
illustrates that there are substantial differences between primary school libraries as regards the
selection of English-language books. Schools with a larger number of pupils would need a
larger selection of books available at the school library for pupils to be able to freely choose
what they want to read. The school that has the highest number of pupils is not the school
with the highest number of books in their library collection, and the school with the lowest
number of pupils is not the school with the lowest number of English-language books in their
school library.

When searching the online catalogues and visiting the school libraries to examine the
selection of English-language books, I noticed that there was little consistency between the
books listed in the online catalogue and the books that were actually available from the school
libraries. Half of the schools had more than 50 books that were listed in the online catalogue

that was not available from school libraries, and two of these schools had more than 90 titles in the online catalogue that were not in the school libraries. Likewise, several titles were found in the school libraries that were not listed in the online catalogues. Four school libraries had more than 50 books in their collections that were not listed in the online catalogue, and two of these had more than a hundred titles that were not listed in the online catalogue. There might be several reasons for there being little correlation between the titles in the online catalogue and the books available from the school library. School librarians might not have had the time to catalogue new titles that have become available at the school library, or they might simply have forgotten to add some of the titles to the online catalogue. Another reason might be that they had older books at the school library that has been in the school library since before they got the cataloguing system they have today, and they might have forgotten to or decided not to include these titles in the online catalogue. A third reason might be that books that were previously available from the school library might have been lost or broken, and not removed from the online catalogue.

4.1.2 Non-fiction books

	Recount	Procedure	Report and explanation	Reference
School A	0	0	1	0
School B	0	0	21	3
School C	0	0	1	3
School D	0	0	3	3
School E	0	0	0	3
School F	2	0	11	9
School G	0	1	10	2
School H	0	0	24	2
School I	3	0	23	5
School J	0	0	5	7

Table 1: Non-fiction texts

The school that has the highest number of non-fiction books in English are School I with 31 books, and the school with the second-highest number of books in this category is school H with 26 books. Both of these schools have a predominance of report and explanation texts, and this is also the case with most of the other schools. The report texts are often referred to as information books or topic books, as they describe and inform on different topics (Mallett, 2010, p. 298). As the topic books are what one usually thinks of while referring to non-fiction texts, it is natural that these types of books have a high number compared to other types of non-fiction texts. It is, however, important to increase these numbers as they are not high enough to provide choice and variety within this category.

As some pupils prefer reading non-fiction books (Doiron, 2003; Reese & Harris, 1997), it is important to have a variety of non-fiction texts available. Some pupils might prefer reading biographies and autobiographies about celebrities or people who have done significant things in their lifetime. These books, the recount texts, are not very well represented in the schools I visited. Only two of the schools have recount texts, and their numbers are not high, as School F has two recount texts and School I have three. According to Mallett, children respond readily to chronological texts, as people plan and live their life in a time sequence (2010, p. 251). She further writes that even very young children are familiar with this chronological organisation. When children talk about what they have been doing, they are doing narrative recounts of what they have done. As this kind of organisation is familiar to a lot of pupils, school libraries should include non-fiction texts like this. Many fiction texts are organised chronologically, but it is important to have a variety of non-fiction texts as well, and the recount texts provide some variety if the majority of non-fiction texts in a school library is for example report and explanation, which are most often non-chronological.

It is interesting to note that only one school library has a procedure text. These types of texts, e.g. recipes might not be a natural choice when reading for pleasure, but they might be a useful tool in language learning and interdisciplinary topics. By, for example, using recipes in English in Food and Health class, pupils might learn words they would not learn by reading other books or by reading the coursebook. Food ingredients might not be natural to include in other types of texts but are important aspects of everyday life.

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The second-largest category is reference books. Most of the reference books in these schools are dictionaries, which can be handy tools in language learning. Some of the dictionaries are widely illustrated while others do not have any illustrations at all, and some picture dictionaries might even be considered non-fiction picturebooks. One reason for reference books being such a large category in these school libraries might be that the use of dictionaries has been used as a teaching aid in the English subject for a long time, in many schools. As pupils have a larger vocabulary in their first language than in a foreign, dictionaries are useful for Norwegian pupils to learn words in English, and to translate words that they do not know. In the ten school libraries, most of the dictionaries were bilingual where there were translations of words between Norwegian and English, and English and Norwegian. In addition to the bilingual dictionaries, there was one mixed dictionary where the main part of the book was monolingual containing only English words, descriptions, and illustrations. At the end of the book, a list of words containing translations from Norwegian to English was included. One may wonder why most of these dictionaries are bilingual, as a description of a word or a concept using English words, might lead to the same, or even more, language learning for Norwegian pupils.

Not all reference books are dictionaries, and that is not the case in these ten school libraries either. Even if the majority of texts in this category are dictionaries, the schools also have encyclopedias and atlases. These books can be useful for pupils to find additional information on a topic or a place that they are interested in, to get a definition on a subject, or to find out where in the world somewhere is.

4.1.3 Picturebooks

School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	School F	School G	School H	School I	School J
3	62	0	24	2	4	18	18	27	7

Table 2: Picturebooks

The picturebook category is one of the categories with the largest span in terms of numbers of books between the ten schools. One of the schools does not have any picturebooks in their collection while another school has 62 picturebooks. Half of the schools have less than ten

books in this category while four of the school have between 18 and 27 picturebooks in their collections.

The numbers in *Table 2* tell us that while some school prioritise to buy picturebooks in English, others do not prioritise acquiring picturebooks at all. After highlighting, in chapter 2.3.1, how pupils can benefit from reading picturebooks in EFL, it is interesting to notice that some schools have zero or just a few picturebooks in English. Picturebooks can contribute to a large amount of learning being achieved by pupils, and by having few of these books in the school library, pupils might get deprived of learning from reading authentic texts that they might be able to comprehend. School B, who has 62 picturebooks in their collection might have seen the benefits of reading picturebooks in English, as their number of picturebooks are exceptionally higher than those in the other schools.

4.1.4 Illustrated books

School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	School F	School G	School H	School I	School J
52	70	50	44	28	22	32	59	76	45

Table 3: Illustrated books

By looking at the total number of books in each category, the illustrated books contain the largest number of books in these ten schools. This means that combined, the schools have more illustrated books than any other type of book the way they are categorised. In six out of the ten schools, illustrated books are the category containing the highest number of books. In School H, the number of illustrated books is the same as the number of graded and easy readers. The three schools that do not have illustrated books as their largest fiction category, has the illustrated novels as their second-largest category in fiction. This means that these schools have prioritised acquiring illustrated books for their school libraries and that the people acquiring books for the school libraries might have discovered that many of their pupils like to read illustrated books in English.

4.1.5 Graphic novels and comics

School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	School F	School G	School H	School I	School J
0	67	4	1	0	12	2	1	0	0

Table 4: Graphic novels and comics

Four out of ten schools did not have any graphic novels or comics at all, while two schools had one graphic novel each. The graphic novels and comics category is the category where the highest number of schools does not have any books. School B stands out as they have 67 graphic novels in their collection.

One reason for schools having a low number of graphic novels might be that they might be considered expensive in comparison to other books and formats (Chun, 2009, p. 151), and schools might not be able to buy many graphic novels within their budget. This point might be contradicted by School B's high number of graphic novels, but by not being able to say how School B obtained these graphic novels, whether they bought them as new, bought them secondhandedly, or got them as donations, this might not have been an issue for them acquiring these books.

Another aspect to consider is that reading graphic novels and comics have been disputed, and the graphic novels as a genre or format have been unacknowledged as legitimate art or literature by educators and critics (Groensteen, 2000, p. 29), and might therefore not have been given much attention by educators.

The school librarian and/or teachers at School B must have given the use and reading of graphic novels and comics a lot of attention, as their numbers of graphic novels are very high compared to the other schools. They might have listened to pupils who want to read these types of books and chosen to acquire a large selection of different graphic novels and comics for their library to meet these requests. Another reason might be that teachers or the school librarian might want to forward this format as beneficial for language learning, as they

connect both verbal and visual literacies.

4.1.6 Graded and easy readers

School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	School F	School G	School H	School I	School J
5	74	21	3	38	3	66	59	21	11

Table 5: Graded and easy readers

In three of the schools (School B, School E, and School G) the graded and easy reader category contains most of the books in their collections. School H has the same number of graded and easy readers as illustrated books, and these two categories share the highest numbers of books in their book collection. In School C the graded and easy reader category is the second largest relative to numbers of books. There is a great difference in the number of books in this category, where some schools have less than ten graded and easy readers while others have more than 50 books in this category.

Graded and easy readers are accessible for schools to buy for their school libraries as there are several publishers who have published series of these types of books. One example of a graded reader series that was commonly found in the ten school libraries is the 'DK readers' series (1998-2020) which includes more than two hundred titles in different genres; both fiction and non-fiction. Other examples of graded readers found in these ten school libraries are Ladybird series like 'Key Words' (1964-1967), which include common words in the English language, 'Ladybird Readers' (2016-2020), which is also intended for learners of English, and 'Read it Yourself' (2013-2020), which is graded into reading levels but are designed for pupils whose first language is English. The Ladybird series Read it Yourself is the series that most often appeared in these school libraries. As this series is intended for pupils who have English as their first language, it is interesting to note that books from this series appear in half of these school libraries' collections. The Read it Yourself series, might be suited for more advanced readers of English, who understand more complex and idiomatic language, and who still prefer to read shorter books, or as a part of a guided reading project.

Graded and easy readers are a common genre in these ten primary school libraries, and reasons for that might be that these books are easily accessible. The school librarians can choose to acquire several books in the same series or to pick books from different graded and easy readers series. Another reason for buying graded and easy readers is that they are often cheaper than other books, and the schools are therefore able to buy more of these titles than for titles in other genres and formats. The third reason for school libraries to have many graded and easy readers might be that they are already graded into reading levels and that pupils and teachers might easily select books that suit their reading level or the reading levels of the pupils in the class.

4.1.7 Non-illustrated books

School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	School F	School G	School H	School I	School J
10	42	19	17	16	5	8	21	19	18

Table 6: Non-illustrated books

There is a wide variation in the number of non-illustrated books found in these ten school libraries. Some of the school libraries have less than ten non-illustrated books, while most of the school libraries have between 10 and 20 books in this category. School B stands out in terms of the number of books, with their 42 non-illustrated books.

Most books in this category are novels of different lengths, and many of these books are fantasy novels in the Harry Potter series (Rowling, 1997-2007), Percy Jackson & the Olympians series (Riordan, 2005-2009), and the Lord of the Rings trilogy (Tolkien, 1954-1955). One reason for there being a high number of fantasy novels in this category might be that fantasy novels are supposedly popular amongst pupils and that being able to read books of several hundred pages in English, might even be connected to status.

There are not only fantasy novels in this category, and several schools have more realistic books like *Holes* (1998) and *Small Steps* (2006) by Louis Sachar, dystopian novels like the

Hunger Games series (Collins, 2008-2010), action series like the Alex Rider series (Horowitz, 2006-2020), and adaptations of classic works. These books might have been chosen because they are popular, as they are, apart from *Small Steps*, adapted into films. *Small Steps* are considered a sequel to *Holes.*

4.1.8 Children's poetry and songs

School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	School F	School G	School H	School I	School J
0	3	1	2	2	2	5	0	3	1

Table 7: Children's poetry and songs

In the children's poetry and songs category, there are a total of 18 books across the different schools, which makes it the category with the lowest numbers of books in total. Two of the schools do not have any books in this category, and none of the schools have more than five poetry and/or songbooks. There can be several reasons for these low numbers. One is that many schools have implemented the use of digital resources like smartboards and computers in the classrooms, where for example songs can be played and lyrics can be put up on the board at the same time. Another aspect to consider is that poetry can be seen as difficult or boring to some. Many poets use the language in a different way than what pupils are used to from other text types. This might be unfamiliar to some pupils, and for some that might be intimidating. On the other hand, rhyming and singing, listening to nursery rhymes, and making up nonsense poetry might be natural for many young children. Poetry shares similarities with songs, raps, nursery rhymes, etc., which children often are surrounded by from an early age.

One reason for not having a wide and varied selection of poetry in these school libraries might be related to what types of books librarians and teachers find relevant. As coursebooks used in class often include a selection of poetic texts, teachers might find it sufficient to use coursebooks instead of using poetry from different sources.

4.1.9 Fairy tales

School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	School F	School G	School H	School I	School J
1	2	2	3	1	2	0	11	24	19

Table 8: Fairy tales

Most of the schools have fairy tales in their collection, but there is a variety also in this category concerning the number of books. 7 out of 10 schools have less than five books in this category, School H has 11 books, School J has 19 books, and School I have 24 books in this category. As these numbers are not each fairy tale, but each book containing fairy tales, the total number of fairy tales at each school is not presented. Some of these books are collections with several fairy tales while others are books with single fairy tales.

In chapter 2.3.1, I presented some of the benefits of using fairy tales in EFL learning, and it is, therefore, interesting to note that seven of these ten schools have less than five fairy tales each in their library collections. In these schools, the fairy tales might have been overseen as both a tool for teaching English, and as a means of pleasure reading, and the school libraries might have prioritised to buy other types of literature.

4.1.10 Other texts

The other texts, the ones that were not categorised into either fiction or non-fiction categories, have not been categorised to two different reasons. Two of the books did not fit any of the categorisations, as there was no category for playscripts. 12 books were lent out to pupils at the time and were not categorised because it was not possible to categorise them without accessing them.

4.1.11 Books in series

Most of the ten school libraries have several books released in series. Book series in this thesis is understood as fiction or non-fiction books with a following plot, theme, or structure.

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Fictions series are for example the Diary of a Wimpy Kid series (Kinney, 2007-2019) or the Treehouse series (Griffiths, 2011-2019), while non-fiction series include books in for example the DK Pocket Eyewitness series (DK, 2012-2020). Graded and easy reader series are not included. In nine of the ten schools, the percentage of books in series are between 23 % and 43 % of their collections of English-language books. And the average across all these school libraries is about 29 % book in series. School G stands out where only 7 % of their English-language books are books in series. These numbers suggest that books in series are popular amongst pupils and that most of the school librarians have chosen to include a high number of books in series in the English-language book collections at the school libraries.

4.1.12 Year of publication

	Pre 1960	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000s	2010-2014	2015-2019	Unk.
School A	0	1	0	1	19	14	20	17	1
School B	0	5	6	34	75	96	50	23	57
School C	0	0	1	6	10	78	13	0	2
School D	1	0	4	5	10	48	16	13	7
School E	0	0	0	6	8	35	17	14	10
School F	0	0	0	0	10	37	16	3	6
School G	0	2	1	4	32	48	24	9	27
School H	0	1	2	3	33	55	14	27	59
School I	0	0	0	4	22	94	21	28	35
School J	0	0	1	3	38	48	12	7	5

Table 9: Year of publication

As school libraries' collections are amassed over time, it is fair to assume that schools will have literature from different decades in their library. Some of the schools have English-language literature published in the 1960s and the 1970s, and one school has one book published before 1960. Most of the schools have some publications from the 1980s but the majority of books in these collections are published between 1990 and 2019. The 2000s is the decade where most of the books in these libraries were published. There is also a considerable

amount of books where the year of publication is unknown, but even if all of these 209 books were published between 2010 and 2019, the majority of books would still have been published in the 2000s. 314 books were published in the last 10 years, while 141 of these were published in the last five years. School C is a typical concerning this tendency as the table shows that School C has 78 books published in the 2000s, 13 books published between 2010 and 2014, and 20 books published before 2000.

In the questionnaire, the school librarian was asked if the books they obtain for the library are mostly new publications (last five years) or older. This was a general question that included any books in any language. All ten school librarians answered that they mostly acquire new purifications, and by comparing these answers to the publication data on their books, it seems like a large number of English-language literature has not been obtained the past ten years compared to the 2000s. There can be several reasons for this, and one of them might be that the school librarians have focused on buying literature for other parts of the library. Another reason might be financial, as the school owners decide how much school librarians can spend on books for the school libraries. Some school libraries might have been given smaller budgets for books in the last five years.

4.2 Questionnaire

In the ten school libraries, the school librarians were the main responsible people of the school libraries. They had quite a different number of hours assigned to library work. Half of the school librarians had assigned 2-3 hours of library work per week, two had five hours, one had 7-8 hours per week, while one librarian was assigned with 22 hours per week for library work. A school librarian has a lot of different tasks, and some would say it is impossible to do all this within the 2-3 hours a week most of the librarians were assigned. Nine out of ten of the school librarians claim they work more with school library tasks than the hours they are assigned, and the school librarian claiming not to work with library tasks beyond the allotted time is the one who is assigned 22 hours a week for school library work. With this feedback from the school librarians, it is fair to assume that the school librarians in nine of these ten schools do not have enough time dedicated to library work.

All of the school librarians answered that they had the main responsibility for purchasing or acquiring books in other ways for the school libraries. Seven out of ten schools use the municipal purchasing scheme for buying books in general while half of the schools answered they use the purchasing scheme for buying literature written in English.

Four out of ten schools buy books in any language directly from local bookstores while three out of ten answered they buy English-language literature directly from local bookstores. Three out of ten schools buy books in general from online bookstores while four out of ten answers they buy English-language books from the internet.

None of the schools buy used books from any sources, but half of the school librarians claim they get donations for books in general and three of the schools answer they get donations of English-language books. Three of the schools also answered 'other' in this category and noted that they get books through 'Kulturfond' which is a fund allocated by The Norwegian Arts Council. The three schools receive a package of books gifted from 'Kulturfond' 1-2 times per year. These books are written in Norwegian. One school librarian also stated that they obtain library books through a purchasing scheme by 'Biblioteksentralen' (direct translation: the library centre), who aim to be a partner and service agency for local libraries and school libraries.

There are many ways to acquire books for school libraries, and most of these ten schools use the municipal purchasing scheme. As not all titles might be available trough this purchasing scheme, school librarians might need to look elsewhere for titles they want to obtain for their school library. School librarians might also consider the price of the different titles and acquire them from the places where they can get more out of their, often limited, budgets. Local bookstores might also have a limited selection of English language books, and school librarians might need to buy books from online bookstores to obtain certain titles.

In a question on who chooses the English-language literature for the library, nine out of ten school librarians answered that they chose them, often in collaboration with teachers (4/10) and with the head teacher (1/10). One school librarian answered that one of the English

teachers at the school was responsible for selecting English-language books.

In seven of the schools, English teachers make recommendations or wishes for English-language books to be made available through the school library. The school librarians answered in five of these seven schools that the teachers 'often' get what they wish for or recommend, while two of the school librarians answered that the teachers 'always' get access to the books they ask for.

I disregard the answer to questions 10 and 11 from one of the respondents as the answers were contradictory. In question 10 I asked whether pupils request English-language books for the school libraries and seven out of nine school librarians answered that they do. Question 11 was a follow-up question to figure out if pupils get access to the books they request, where three of the schools answered 'often', and the four remaining schools answered 'sometimes'.

All ten school librarians claim that the books they acquire for the school library are mostly new publications (last five years). As discussed in chapter 4.1.12., most of the English-language books in these school libraries are not published in the last five years. By comparing this discussion to the claim that school librarians mostly acquire newer publications, it seems like there has been a decrease in the number of English-language books obtained for the school libraries the past five years.

Half of the schools claim that the largest reason for not buying more English-language literature is financial. One of the school librarians answered that it is hard to figure out which literature to buy, while one of the schools answered a combination of selection (what books to buy) and where they can obtain the literature. Two of the school librarians say that there are no obstacles for buying more English-language literature, while one librarian has not yet been able to get an overview due to being recently employed in the position as a school librarian.

Six out of ten school librarians claim they are satisfied with the selection of literature (in general) at the school library, while two out of ten schools say they are satisfied with the selection of English-language literature. The reasons for more than half of the school librarians claiming that they are satisfied with the overall selection of literature in the school

library might be that they might have been able to develop their library book collections with new and relevant books and that they might have a high number of books in different genres and formats. Concerning English-language books, only two of the ten school librarians are satisfied with the selection. This might be because they have not been able to develop the English sections of the school libraries as much as the sections containing books in Norwegian. School librarians might notice that the use of English-language literature has changed and that there might be a higher demand for literature in English, teachers might ask for titles to be used in class, and pupils might ask for English-language books for pleasure. Some pupils might even prefer to read books in English compared to Norwegian books.

All of the school libraries have a computer available at their location where pupils use the 'bibliofil' system to borrow and deliver books. They are also able to search the online catalogue for what books are available and their location at the libraries. This system requires that books are logged manually and that information like the name of the author, the title, year of publication, and occasionally the name of the publisher are added in the online catalogue. If this information is missing in the online catalogue, it might be hard for pupils to find these books in the school libraries. The system also requires that books that are lost or broken are removed from the online catalogue, and that all new titles are added. If books that are no longer available from the school library, are not removed from the online catalogue, pupils might get a false impression on what books they can actually borrow from the school library, and they will not be able to find these titles on the shelves.

4.3 Observation

School A

School A, did not have a large library, but it was tidy and well organised. The shelves with Norwegian-language books were many and large. There were had book crates for picturebooks and a desk with a computer for searching the catalogue and locating books. The pupils also use the computer for lending books and delivering them.

The English-language literature could not be located immediately after stepping into the room. The books were placed in the middle of the room on two shelves. On the top and bottom of the shelves, there was Norwegian-language literature. The bookshelf contained five shelves, and two of these five consisted of English-language literature. Smaller books like graded and easy readers were placed in a box labelled "Temakasse: engelsk" (Theme crate: English). The bookshelf was not marked with any signs that it consisted of English-language literature apart from the fact that the box with smaller books was placed on one of the shelves.

The shelves with the English-language literature were close to full, with enough space only for a few more books, and all the English-language books were placed on this location. There was no clear division system of the books, and they were not categorised into e.g. fiction and non-fiction. Even though the books were not placed alphabetically, most of the books from the same author and books in the same series were placed consecutively. This made the shelves look tidy and orderly. The condition of the books was good, and many of the books on the shelves looked almost brand new. In the box, where the smaller books were placed, many of the books looked older and some of them were quite worn.

The school library at School A had a round table covered with a white cloth and with three chairs around it. This table would fit more chairs, but it looked like an inviting place to sit and read or scroll through books. There was also a large sofa in the room which would fit about eight pupils. This sofa was placed by the window which provided a lot of natural light for reading.

Some books were displayed in the library and there were several posters of books and excerpts from some of the books in their collection. Books were displayed in the windows, on the tablecloth covered table, and in a shelf labelled 'new books'. All the books that were displayed were written in Norwegian.

School B

The library at School B was located in a big and open space. There were a lot of tall bookshelves and several crates for picturebooks that were organised alphabetically using the last name of the author. Some bookshelves were also labelled with the categories the books

were organised by, like 'art' or 'languages'. As this library was part of a larger room consisting of a classroom and a hallway, there was no seating in the actual library area. There were three computers on a desk at one end of the library. One of the computers was reserved for the librarian, while two of the computers could be used by the pupils. One of these was used for searching or scrolling through the catalogue while the other was used for lending and delivering books.

English-language literature was located instantly while entering the library. The bookshelves were marked by the Union Jack attached to the top of one of the bookshelves. In one of the bookshelves, there were four shelves and a top shelf for displaying books. This bookshelf was double-sided and looked the same on the opposite side. Next to this bookshelf, there was a separate shelf with three display shelves and four regular shelves on the back. The bookshelves were not full and would have enough space for many more books. At the back of the smaller bookshelf, there were three boxes with smaller books. These boxes were quite full and consisted of graded readers and other smaller books, like picturebooks and comics. Most of the books in the boxes looked quite old and worn, but there were also newer books in good condition. The display shelves on the tallest bookshelf were quite high up, and there is a possibility that some pupils would not be able to reach these books without help from adults or taller pupils. The organisation of the bookshelves was mixed. In some of the shelves, books were placed in bulks, with empty space on the side, while other shelves looked untidy in the way that some books were standing, and others were lying, some even face-down on the shelf. The books were not organised alphabetically or by reading levels, and there seemed to be no other categorisation of the books, even though the books were marked with the last name initial of the authors.

The bookshelves with literature in Norwegian had display shelves in the same way as the English-language books, at the top shelf. Because of this, a lot of literature was exhibited in this school library. There was also a separate table where they displayed new books written in Norwegian. English-language books were only displayed on the shelves containing English-language literature. The books displayed on these bookshelves were illustrated books, non-illustrated books, and fairy tales. Whether these books are placed on display on purpose or at random, is not known.

School C

The school library in School C consisted of three rooms. The main part of the library was placed in a room with a glass door and windows, but it was not linked to a hallway where pupils walk past. In addition to this room, there were books in the hallway outside this room. The third room is the librarian's office. The bookshelves were placed by the walls with display shelves and book crates in the middle. The library was well organised and had clearly divided sections devoted to specific genres. There were bookshelves marked with 'fiction', 'non-fiction', 'reference texts', 'songbooks', 'easy readers', 'comic books/graphic novels', and 'poetry'. In addition to this, there was a bookshelf where collections of literature that they thought best fit for pupils in Year 6 and 7 were placed. The books were organised alphabetically in their respective bookshelves and the shelves looked tidy. I was not able to locate a computer where the pupils could scroll or search the catalogue, nor one for lending and delivery. There is a possibility that they might use the computer in the librarian's office for these tasks as the librarian report, in the questionnaire, that the pupils do have access to a computer in the library. There were also two benches in the main library room that were placed next to the walls on two sides of the room. Four chairs were stacked and places by the wall.

The English-language literature was placed outside the main library room. All the English-language books were placed in one bookshelf, and they were divided into fiction and non-fiction. There was no indication that this is the bookshelf with English-language books apart from the two labels which said if the texts are fiction or non-fiction. The bookshelf consisted of three shelves, where the non-fiction books were placed on the bottom shelf. The shelf was low and small, but it was well organised. There were some empty spaces in the bookshelf, but it still seemed well-stocked. The fiction books were organised by the last name of the author and the non-fiction books had Dewey numbers but were placed, seemingly, at random.

In the main room of the library, there was a double-sided bookshelf with books on display. All of these books were written in Norwegian. There was a second shelf on the wall that displayed books recommended by other pupils, but these books were also written in Norwegian. On top of the bookshelf consisting of English-language books, one illustrated novel in English was displayed.

School D

School D had a large and well-equipped library. The fiction books were divided into Year 1-4 and Year 5-7. There were also a lot of book crates and bookshelves for picturebooks and easy readers. Other books were organised in different sections like 'nature – plants', 'nature – the universe', 'fairy tales', and 'encyclopedias'. The bookshelves looked full, for the most part, but also a bit untidy with books lying on the bookshelf at different angles, and books stocked at the top of the bookshelves. There was a large sofa in one end of the library which could fit one whole class and amphitheatre style seating with a smart board that will fit just as many. Two computers were placed close to the door, where pupils could scroll or search the catalogue and borrow and deliver books.

The bookshelf containing English-language literature was labelled by stickers on the individual shelves. These books were placed on two different shelves with books written in Norwegian surrounding them. The shelves were full and a bit untidy as the books were standing in different angles, some books were lying on top of other books, and some of the books were wrongly placed on the shelf above. The books were not organised in any way by categories or the name of the author and seemed to be placed at random on the shelves. Some books were placed in a way that made it impossible to see the spine or the front cover of these books.

There were display shelves in one area of the school library which held enough places for 14 books to be displayed. None of the books on display at the time of the visit were English-language books. No English-language books were displayed anywhere else in the library.

School E

School E had a medium-size school library with many seating areas. They had two round tables with five chairs each, two sofas, and several stools. There were tall bookshelves placed by the walls and lower bookshelves placed below the windows. Book crates with picturebooks were placed in the back of the room. There were two computers in the room, one for searching the catalogue and one for lending and delivering books. Next door, the librarian had an office space where more books and audiobooks were placed. No literature was

displayed in the school library apart from the books on two metal stands where you could see the front cover of some of the books.

The English-language books were placed on two different bookshelves in the library. One was a low bookshelf that is close to filled up with books, and the other one was a metal stand that was placed in the middle of the room. There was no organisation of the books in either bookshelf, and the books in the metal stand were placed on top of each other at several places, making it difficult to see what books were actually there. The pupils would have to lift books to see what books were behind them. The books were not organised alphabetically or in any other way. The bookshelf that was placed next to the wall did not have any labels that indicated that English-language literature was located there, while the metal stand had a sign, 'English books', at the top. In the bookshelf, the books looked tidy apart from some books where you were not able to see either the spine or the front cover. This was probably for practical reasons as the books were too big to fit between the shelves.

School F

While stepping into the library at School F the desk with the computer where pupils borrow and deliver books was encountered. The bookshelves in this library were placed next to the walls around the room, and there was a large table with seating for eight people in the middle of the room, and the table would fit even more chairs. There were also book crates for picturebooks and other smaller shelves and crates in the library. The section by the windows consisted of large double-sided bookshelves, while the other bookshelves were backed to the walls. In one corner of the room, there was a large sofa that could fit at least ten pupils and there were some stools next to some of the tables.

A high number of books were on display in this library. There were display shelves on the outside of the double-sided bookshelves, on the table in the middle of the room, and on other shelves and tables around the school library. The front covers of more than 40 books were visible across the room, and none of these books were written in English.

The English-language literature was placed on two shelves on one of the double-sided bookshelves. They were organised under the category 'languages' and were placed on the

shelves together with books of different foreign languages. Most of the books on these shelves were written in English, but there were also examples of books of languages as well, like German, Spanish and French dictionaries. The shelves looked somewhat untidy in the way that there was no alphabetical or thematical organisation, and that the English-language books were not separated from the other languages. There were Norwegian-language books on the shelves above and below the books written in English and on one of the shelves with English-language books there were also books written in Norwegian.

School G

School G's library was in a large and open space. In one end of the library, there were large windows, and the other rooms in the area had glass walls. The room was light and airy, and the bookshelves were varying in size and located at different places in the room. The library had book crates, square and oval bookshelves, and both tall and low bookshelves. There was also a computer where pupils could borrow and deliver books. In the middle of the library, there was a large sofa that could fit one whole class. In one of the corners, there were beanbags and pillows for pupils to sit comfortably and read. There were also two seminar rooms next to the library where pupils could sit and read. Several books were exhibited throughout the library on top of different bookshelves, and no English-language books were on display.

The English-language literature was placed in one of the lower shelves close to the entrance of the library area. There were three shelves in the bookshelf, and it was labelled 'English' and with a British flag. The books in this bookshelf were not organised in any way, and collections of smaller and larger books were mixed. Some of the books were lying front page up since they would not fit on the shelves while standing. The shelves had enough space to fit more English-language books.

School H

School H also had a large library, that was organised with large bookshelves, a smartboard area, and different seating areas. They had several stools stacked next to the window for the

pupils to place wherever they wanted to sit. There was also an amphitheatre style seating area for pupils to sit in, and a round table with five stools around it. The library was colourful and spacious with book crates, bookshelves and other furniture in bright colours. By the smartboard, there were two large display shelves for exhibiting books. 24 books were displayed at the time of my visit, and none of these books were written in English. The computer for lending and delivering books was placed close to the door.

The English-language literature was placed on the bookshelf closest to the computer. The books were placed on a large bookshelf with four shelves and it was labelled 'English'. The books on these shelves looked tidily organised, but there was no strict system other than that some of the books by the same author or books in the same series were placed next to each other. There was enough space for more books in this bookshelf, but it did not seem empty in any way. Some graded and easy readers in English were placed in a box under the computer desk, close to the entrance, and some books were placed at the far end of the library on a desk that did not seem like it was meant for pupils to use.

School I

The library at School I was in a large room with tall ceilings. The bookshelves were medium height and all the bookshelves were approximately the same size, apart from some book crates for picturebooks. There was a lot of seating in this library. Three tables with four chairs each, one smaller table for younger pupils with four seats, one table with three chairs by a smartboard, a round table fit for five people, and six two-seater sofas along with one of the walls. The computer for lending and delivering books was placed at one end of the library and the librarian's desk was placed right across it.

The English-language literature was placed next to the librarian's desk on a bookshelf with three shelves. Small labels indicated that this was the place where you could find English-language books. The shelves looked tidy and spines of all the books were visible at the same time, but there was no clear organisation of the books. Some books in the same series were placed next to each other. The bookshelf looked well-stocked, but there was some room for even more books.

On top of the bookshelf containing English-language books, four English-language books were displayed, and all of these were illustrated books. On top of other bookshelves, Norwegian-language literature was displayed.

School J

School J's library seemed large with tall and numerous bookshelves. The library was connected to the IT-room and had angles and bookshelves shaping the room into several sections. In one section easy readers and picturebooks were placed, in another, encyclopedias and historical books. Between some of these sections, there were also seating areas. Two sections had a round table each with four chairs, and another section had a sofa and a large bean bag. The computers for borrowing and delivering books were placed by the entrance to the library.

The English-language literature was placed in the section with the sofa and the bean bag. The books looked like they were placed at random as some of the books were placed with the spine out, some were displayed with the front cover out, and some books were lying on the shelves. The books that were standing on the shelves looked tidy as they were organised by size. Books by the same author and books in the same series were in many cases placed next to each other, but there was no alphabetical or categorical organisation of the books. There were no labels or other markings on the shelf suggesting this was the place for English-language books, but all these books were marked with a Union Jack at the bottom of the spines.

Some English-language books were displayed on the same shelf where the other English-language literature was placed, but nowhere else in the library. Some exhibitions in the library were thematic like 'books through 80 years' and 'old books'. And some books were placed on tables and display shelves around the library. English-language books were not displayed at any other place in the library.

In the following chapter, some aspects of the results and analysis will be discussed further.

5.0 Discussion

In the ten school libraries that participated in this research, none of the schools had a number of English-language books as high as the number of pupils. This means, in my view, that the school libraries can benefit from increasing their total number of books in English in order to offer the pupils an opportunity of choice when it comes to selecting English-language books. Stephen Krashen highly promotes free voluntary reading (extensive reading) as a means for both language learning and for the enjoyment of reading (2004, p. 57). To enjoy reading is important as people who like to read often read more, and therefore will have a better basis for language learning than those who do not read a lot of texts in English. As Krashen also states, books need to be available for pupils if they are going to read them (2004, p. 57). If there are not enough English-language books in the school libraries, pupils will not be able to read these books at school and might therefore not be able to read English-language texts extensively. Some pupils might be fortunate to have parents or guardians with extensive libraries at home, and among these books, there might be books written in English. The lack of a wide selection of English books in primary school libraries widens the gap between the pupils that come from homes with many books and the ones that come from homes in which there is very little in the way of English-language literature. By not promoting extensive reading in schools, pupils might be deprived of pleasurable reading experiences that could help them develop into more competent readers who enjoy reading books in English. This claim is supported by Birketveit, Rimmerede, Bader, and Fisher who argue that Norwegian school libraries need to be upgraded with new and exciting material in English (2018, p. 19).

A school library should have a variety of text types, genres, and formats available from their school library for several reasons. One important reason is that pupils like to read different types of literature. As pupils have different reading preferences it is important that the schools have a variety of text types in different genres and formats to cater for these interests. Birketveit, Rimmereide, Bader, and Fisher claim that "school libraries often do not have sufficient selections of books in English to support extensive reading programmes" (2018, p. 5). In their research Birketveit et. al. point out that they had 70 books available for the pupils in each cycle (2018, p. 17), and they mentioned that there were almost three times as many books as pupils (2018, p. 9). They claim that their project might have needed "a greater

variety of books within each reading level and genre in order to have a real choice of material" (2018, p. 17). If we consider this number of about three books per pupil in order to have the choice of material and the fact that none of these schools have one English-language book per pupil, the numbers of English books in these schools are too low. In the LK20 curriculum, it is stated that by year 7 pupils should be able to read and redistribute the content of different types of texts, including self-chosen texts (author's translation) (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019b). This means that the pupils need to have the opportunity to select which books they want to read and that they need a large selection of books available that they can choose from. By considering the competence aim which emphasise that pupils need to choose some of the texts they read, and the research of Birketveit et. al. (2018) it is fair to say that all these ten schools need to increase their numbers of English-language books in order to provide a selection wide enough for the pupils to be able to choose books freely.

In the ten school libraries presented in this thesis, there is a large variety in the different genres and formats that are included in the English-language book collections. All of the schools had a high number of books in the illustrated book category, and more than half of the schools had a high number of graded and easy readers compared to the numbers in the other categories. The graphic novels and comics, fairy tales, and children's poetry and songs are the categories where most of the schools did have very few titles, and where there might be the highest potential to obtain more books for their school library collections. Some of the schools have high numbers of non-illustrated books and picturebooks, but by looking at individual school's numbers in this category, there is also a large potential for developing the library collection of titles in these categories.

As highlighted in chapter 2.2., coursebooks are heavily relied on in EFL teaching in Norway (Drew, Oostdam & van Toorenburg, 2007, p. 327; Drew & Sørheim, 2016, p. 122; Charboneau, 2012). Even if the curriculum adds up to great freedom of method among teachers in Norway, many teachers still use the coursebooks as their main source of reading material in class. The texts in the coursebooks are often varied, including different text types and genres, but it is lacking in the sense that it only contains shorter texts or excerpts from longer texts. By only using the coursebooks in EFL teaching, pupils will not be introduced to other text types and formats that are not included in the coursebooks. As the coursebooks are

standardised for all pupils in the same year and do not always provide a large selection of texts at different reading levels, teachers might need to find English-language literature elsewhere. By expanding and developing the school library book collections, teachers might be given the opportunity to put down the coursebook and find relevant literature in English, at the school library, that cater for different reading levels in their class.

By displaying books in the school libraries pupils might be drawn to the front cover of different types of books and they might discover books they were not explicitly looking for (Day & Bamford, 2013, p. 115). The ten school libraries in this thesis have many books on display in their school libraries, but most of these books are written in Norwegian. By using displays of books, the school librarians must have observed the advantage of such displays in connection to pupils' choice of reading materials, and they might have discovered that pupils pick up and read the books that are on display. Book displays are also frequently used in bookstores, where the front covers of the newest releases and popular books are pointed towards the potential buyers. The customers are drawn to the front covers of the books and might pick one up and read the text at the back to figure out if the book seems interesting for them to read. It would be natural to assume that it works the same way in school libraries and that pupils are drawn to the front covers of the books that are displayed. Only three of the school libraries had displays of English-language books, and not many titles were displayed in each school library. The in the school libraries who do not have any English-language books on display promote reading of books in Norwegian but lack the same promotion of reading in English. As no books in English are displayed at some of the school libraries, literature in English is not as visible as literature in Norwegian, and by considering the fact that there is a considerably higher number of Norwegian-language books, the English-language books might need to be highlighted and displayed instead of being secluded from the promoted literature in these school libraries. School librarians should consider promoting English-language literature in the same way as books in Norwegian to motivate pupils to read books in English.

As Hjellup (2018, p. 122) and Phil (2018, p. 28) explains, it is important that school libraries have computers where pupils can search the online catalogue for books, to search the internet for information, and to be able to borrow and deliver books. Digital tools might seem like an evident part of school libraries today, and all the ten schools do have computers available in

their school libraries. These computers are restricted to be used as means for searching the online catalogue and for borrowing and delivering books, and the pupils are often not able to use the computers for other tasks, like searching the internet for information. In most of these school libraries, there are one or two computers, and one reason for restricting the use of these computers might be that they are not to be occupied when pupils need to search the online catalogue or borrow or deliver books. It might be advantageous to install more computers in these school libraries to expand the functions in the school libraries to include possibilities to e.g. search the internet for information and read texts online or locally on the computer.

In order for pupils to find books in the online catalogue and locate them in the school library, it is important that the books found at the school library are the same as the ones listed in the online catalogues. By looking at the online catalogues and the books physically present in the school libraries, I noticed that there is little consistency between the books in the online catalogue and those on the actual shelves. This makes the books less available for the pupils, as they might try to locate books they found in the online catalogue, which is not actually available from the school libraries, or they might miss out on titles if they only search the online catalogue and not look at the physical books in the school libraries. The online catalogues give a false impression on what English-language literature is available from these ten school libraries, and they should all update their lists with the titles they have not already listed in the catalogue, and remove the titles in the catalogue that are lost or removed from the school libraries for other reasons. If school libraries are going to use digital tools for searching their collections, these need to be updated and accessible from the school library.

In the online catalogue, books need to be added correctly. This means that titles, authors, publishers, year of publication, etc. need to be correct for pupils to be able to search for the books that are available in the school library. If a pupil searches for a title and it is misspelled in the online catalogue, the pupil might assume that the book is not available and might not look for it in the physical bookshelves. Some pupils search for authors and might want to read more titles of an author they like. If book titles in the online catalogue are not connected to the name of the author, the pupils who search for an author might not be able to get an overview of what titles of this author are available in the school library.

While visiting the school libraries I observed a tendency that Norwegian-language books were organised by the author's last name on the shelves, and most of the school libraries used an organisation of genres, text types, or formats on the different bookshelves. Picturebooks in Norwegian was in many cases placed in book crates, where pupils could flip through the books to see the front covers. The English-language books in the same school libraries were in most of the schools not organised in the same way. Only one of the schools used an alphabetical organisation either of the authors' names or the titles of the books. School C had separated the fiction books from the non-fiction books on the bookshelf and had organised the fiction books alphabetically by the last name of the author. None of the other schools had books organised by genres, text types or formats. There was, however, a tendency that school librarians had grouped books by the same author together, and books in the same series were placed consecutively. This made the bookshelves containing English-language books look tidy and organised.

As mentioned in chapter 2.6.1, it might be appropriate to organise books using genre and theme organisation in primary school libraries, as pupils might often choose books according to their interests. Another way to organise English-language book in Norwegian primary school libraries might be to classify the reading levels of the books and group books with the same reading level together. How the school librarian chooses to organise the books is not what is most important, but it is essential that pupils can access the books that are available in the school library, and that the pupils can locate books on their own, as there are not always adults available to help pupils in the school library.

There might be different reasons for books not being organised by genre, text type, format, or alphabetically. The numbers of English-language books in these school libraries are exceedingly lower than the number of books in Norwegian. Even if there is a need to organise and group the Norwegian-language books, there might not be a need to do the same with the books written in English. If school librarians chose to organise the books in genre categories and/or by format, they might get an impression of what categories are well represented in the school library and which categories are less represented. This way, school librarians might get

a larger understanding of their English-language book selection, and they might be able to assess the collections and acquire books in the categories that are less represented.

Another way to organise the English-language books in the school libraries is by reading level. As mentioned in chapter 1.1, the LK20 curriculum state that pupils by the end of Year 4 need to know how to choose books from the library that fit their interests and reading skills (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019b). If school librarians choose to organise the English-language book collections by reading levels, pupils might be able to find books that suit their reading levels more easily. This way, English-language books might also be more accessible and less intimidating for pupils to borrow.

Library books in English are acquired in several different ways. Many schools use the municipal purchasing scheme for buying books, while others use local and online bookstores, some get donations and one school uses another purchasing scheme. As mentioned in chapter 4.2, the municipal purchasing scheme is used by seven out of ten schools when buying books of any language to the school library, while half of the schools use the municipal purchasing scheme for buying books in English. There might be several reasons for school librarians to not use the municipal purchasing scheme for buying English-language books. One reason is that they might not be satisfied with the selection of titles. Another reason might financial, and that English-language books might be cheaper to buy elsewhere.

Many local bookstores in Norway have a small selection of English-language children's literature on their shelves, and many titles can be ordered to the bookstores. Three out of ten school librarians claim that they buy English-language books directly from the local bookstores. There are some advantages to buying books directly from local bookstores. The books might be easily accessible, the school librarian will be able to browse books before deciding what titles to buy, and employees of the bookstores might provide information on what books are currently popular amongst children. Reasons for not using local bookstores for buying books for the school libraries might be that many books are cheaper to buy online. Four out of ten school librarians use online bookstores for acquiring books for the school library. There are several online bookstores who sell English-language books, and many of these bookstores can provide books at more attractive prices than local bookstores are able to. Many online bookstores also provide information on the reading levels of the books, what the

books are about, and some provide reviews from other readers. One disadvantage with using online bookstores is that school librarians might not know what titles to choose, as there are enormous amounts of English-language literature available, and there might be challenging to get an overview of the selection.

The school librarians get book requests from both teachers and pupils. As presented in chapter 4.2, seven out of ten school librarians claim that teachers of English make recommendations or wishes for English language books. Five of these school librarians answered that teachers 'often' get access to the books they request, while the other two school librarians answered that teachers 'always' get access to the books they ask for. Seven out of nine schools answered that pupils request books in English for the school library. Between these seven school librarians, three of them answered that pupils 'often' get access to the book titles they request, while the four remaining school librarians answered that pupils 'sometimes' get access to the books they ask for. When pupils ask for books they want to read, they are showing interest in reading English-language books, and it is important that they get access to these books. By acquiring these books for the school libraries, school librarians cater to the pupils' interests, curiosity, and wishes, and the pupils get involved in the development of the school library (Pihl, 2018, p. 41; Sætre, 2008, p. 87). As teachers are often interested in what books pupils want to read or be read for, their wishes and recommendations also need to be considered. Wishes and recommendations from teachers and pupils also provide the school librarians with information on what books are relevant for pupils and teachers at the correlating schools. The fact that school librarians are not always able to provide the school libraries with books pupils and teachers ask for, might be associated with the financial status at the schools. Some school librarians are provided with budgets that only holds enough funding for a selected number of titles each year, and the school librarians need to prioritise what books to buy. When pupils and teachers ask for titles throughout the year, these funding might have already been expended.

As the curriculum in Norway has moved away from specifying literary text types, apart from picturebooks, the teacher is responsible to provide the class with varied, relevant, and encouraging texts for the pupils to read. There are both positive and negative effects of the curriculum's lacking specifications of literary texts. The teachers are free to use any text they

want in class, and they can incorporate which text they want in the syllabus. By providing teachers with this freedom of choice, the teachers can make sure that the texts are relevant and suitable for their class, and they can choose different texts that fit such a diverse group. But it might also get more complicated for teachers to find relevant literature and make informed choices of texts as there is a lot of English-language literature being published each year. By using the school library for acquiring, storing, and conveying relevant, interesting, and levelled literature, the task of choosing and using literature for use in classrooms and for recommending texts to pupils might get more straightforward and it might make the literature more accessible for both pupils and teachers.

6.0 Concluding remarks

There are several aspects of making the book selections available and accessible for pupils. One way is to make sure that the books listed in the online catalogue match the titles found in the school libraries. To ensure this, new books must be added to the online catalogue before they become available at the school libraries, and lost or broken books must be removed from the online catalogue. By organising the bookshelves containing English-language books into genres, formats, text types, or reading levels, the books might be more accessible for pupils as they might be better equipped to find books that interest them or books that are suited for their reading levels. Displays of books are important to promote books and tempt pupils into reading the selected books, and clear markings of the English-language books or bookshelves containing these books might make sure that pupils know exactly where to find literature written in English.

The English-language book collections need to be priorities and highlighted to become an integral part of English-teaching at the primary schools. The number of books needs to be higher, and the school libraries need a larger variety of books in terms of genres, formats, and text types to ensure that all pupils can read self-chosen English-language books.

The LK20 curriculum establishes cooperation with the school library as it emphasizes the use of the library to select appropriate literature for self-reading (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019b). Both enjoyment of reading and language acquisition are mention in connection to reading different text types (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2019b), and the amount of space dedicated to reading as a basic skill in the curriculum proves the importance of reading different texts in the English subject (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013b).

In the planning proses of this thesis questions on whether a more quantitative study should be made occurred, and it would be interesting to do a more quantitative study to be able to figure out the general status of school libraries across the country. This quantitative approach might have included sending questionnaires to several school librarians across the country and collecting data from several school libraries' online catalogues. I decided to do a more

detailed study of a selection of school libraries to get an impression on how the English-language book selections are in ten primary school libraries. This choice led to some discoveries that might not have been made if this thesis was structured differently with a more quantitative approach. However, a more quantitative approach might have led to different results and a more general impression of the English-language book selections that would be more comparable with the book selections nationwide.

There should be carried out nationwide research on the availability of English-language books in the school libraries. As the municipalities are responsible for the schools and the school libraries, it would be interesting to compare the selection of books available at schools in different municipalities, both in the cities and in the countryside. This could provide information on how different selections of books pupils in Norway are exposed to, and it would be interesting to compare these results with the results of tests on reading comprehension in English. It would also be interesting to figure out what English-language books pupils borrow from the school libraries. This would provide insight into what literature pupils like to read and could provide valuable grounds for determining what text types to include in the school libraries.

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Attachment 1: Questionnaire

Spørreskjema skolebibliotek

1. Har du et særskilt ansvar for skolebiblioteket på den skolen du jobber ved?
   - ☐ Ja
   - ☐ Nei

2. Hvor mange timer pr. uke er du tildelt for arbeid med/på skolebiblioteket?

   _____ timer

3. Arbeider du med/på skolebiblioteket ut over den tildelte tiden?
   - ☐ Ja
   - ☐ Nei

4. Har du ansvar for anskaffelse av bøker til skolebiblioteket?
   - ☐ Ja
   - ☐ Nei

   Dersom «nei»: Hvem er ansvarlig for anskaffelse av bøker til skolebiblioteket (stilling)?

   _____

5. Hvordan skaffer skolen vanligvis bøker til biblioteket (gjelder alle typer bøker)?
   - ☐ Skolen har en innkjøpsordning som brukes
   - ☐ Kjøper direkte fra bokbutikk
   - ☐ Kjøper fra internett (bokbutikker andre steder i landet/utlandet)
   - ☐ Får donasjoner
   - ☐ Kjøper på bruktmarked
   - ☐ Annet: _____

6. Hvordan skaffer skolen vanligvis engelsk-språklige bøker til biblioteket?
   - ☐ Skolen har en innkjøpsordning som brukes
   - ☐ Kjøper direkte fra bokbutikk
   - ☐ Kjøper fra internett (bokbutikker andre steder i lander/utlandet)
   - ☐ Får donasjoner
   - ☐ Kjøper på bruktmarked

☐ Annet: _____   p. 2 of 3

7. Hvem velger hvilke engelsk-språklige bøker som skal anskaffes til skolebiblioteket?
   ☐ Skolebibliotekar
   ☐ Rektor
   ☐ Lærer(e)
   ☐ Avdelingsleder
   ☐ Andre: _____

8. Kommer engelsklærere med anbefalinger eller ønsker om engelsk-språklige bøker til skolebiblioteket?
   ☐ Ja
   ☐ Nei

9. Dersom «ja» i spørsmål 8. Får lærerne tilgang til de bøkene de etterlyser?
   ☐ Alltid
   ☐ Ofte
   ☐ Av og til
   ☐ Sjelden
   ☐ Aldri

10. Etterlyser elever engelsk-språklige bøker i skolebiblioteket? (bøker elevene ønsker å lese, men som ikke er tilgjengelig i skolebiblioteket)
   ☐ Ja
   ☐ Nei

11. Dersom «ja» i spørsmål 10. Får elevene tilgang til de bøkene de etterlyser?
   ☐ Alltid
   ☐ Ofte
   ☐ Av og til
   ☐ Sjelden
   ☐ Aldri

12. Er bøkene som skaffes til skolebiblioteket stort sett nye publikasjoner (utgitt de siste fem årene) eller eldre publikasjoner?
   ☐ Nye
   ☐ Eldre

13. Får eller kjøper dere brukte bøker til skolebiblioteket?
    ☐ Ja
    ☐ Nei

14. Hva er det største hinderet for å skaffe flere engelsk-språklig litteratur til skolebiblioteket?
    ☐ Tilgang (vet ikke hvor/hvordan man skaffer engelske-språklige bøker)
    ☐ Utvalg (vet ikke hvilke bøker vi skal velge)
    ☐ Økonomiske grunner
    ☐ Ingen hindre
    ☐ Annet: _____

15. Har elevene tilgang til datamaskin i skolebiblioteket?
    ☐ Ja
    ☐ Nei

16. Kan elevene søke opp bøker som er tilgjengelig i skolebiblioteket og finne ut hvor de kan finne bøkene?
    ☐ Ja
    ☐ Nei

17. Bruker skolebiblioteket systemet Bibliofil for utlån, innlevering og oversikt over utvalg?
    ☐ Ja
    ☐ Nei

18. Er du fornøyd med utvalget av litteratur på skolebiblioteket? (alle bøker)
    ☐ Ja
    ☐ Nei

19. Er du fornøyd med utvalget av engelsk-språklig litteratur på skolebiblioteket?
    ☐ Ja
    ☐ Nei

20. Andre kommentarer?

_____

_____

Attachment 2: Observation form

	Observation	Notes
Are you able to locate the English-language books while entering the school library?		
Describe the location of the English-language books in comparison with books in Norwegian or other languages.		
Describe the bookshelves where English-language books are placed (tall, low, wide, narrow, etc.)		
Describe the bookshelves where other books are placed (tall, low, wide, narrow, etc.)		
Are the shelves containing English-language books full, too full, empty, half-full, etc.?		
Are the English-language books placed at one location, or are they scattered at different locations in the school library?		
Are there any organisation of the English-language books (genre/category, theme, author's name, title, etc.)?		

Are English-language books displayed in the school library? Are books in Norwegian displayed?		
How are the English-language books labelled (flag, sticker, text, pictures, etc.)		
Describe the condition of the English-language books.		
Describe the condition of the Norwegian-language books.		
Are there any seating areas in the school library? Describe.		
Other observations.		

Attachment 3: Information

Forespørsel om deltakelse i forskningsprosjekt om engelsk-språklig litteratur på skolebibliotek i bergensområdet

Bakgrunn og formål

Formålet med studien er å kartlegge hvilken tilgang elever har til engelskspråklig litteratur. Prosjektet er en masterstudie i Barne- og ungdomslitteratur ved Høgskulen på Vestlandet.

Hva innebærer deltakelse i studien?

Jeg har på forhånd sjekket utvalget av engelsk-språklig litteratur ved skolebiblioteket ved hjelp av bibliofil-systemet som skolebiblioteket bruker. Deretter har jeg kategorisert bøkene i ulike sjangre og typer tekster. Når jeg kommer på besøk til dere, vil jeg undersøke og fotografere skolebiblioteket. Primært områdene hvor det finnes engelsk-språklig litteratur, men også andre deler av skolebiblioteket. Samtidig ønsker jeg at du skal svare på et spørreskjema som jeg har med.

Hva skjer med informasjonen om deg?

Jeg vil ikke innhente noen opplysninger om deg eller ditt arbeid, som kan gjenkjenne deg som person. Dataene vil registreres i form av anonymiserte notater og foto. Informasjon som lagres digitalt vil anonymiseres før den blir lagret. Hverken du eller skolen vil kunne gjenkjennes i publikasjoner da det ikke vil fremkomme navn, alder eller skoletilhørighet. Det vil komme frem i oppgaven at jeg har hentet informanter fra bergensområdet, men ikke hvilke skoler som er valgt ut.

Frivillig deltakelse

Det er frivillig å delta i studien, og du kan når som helst trekke ditt samtykke uten å oppgi noen grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysninger du har gitt bli anonymisert og slettet.