

NEW LANGUAGE LEARNING  
& TEACHING ENVIRONMENTS



# Extramural English in Teaching and Learning

*From Theory and Research to Practice*

Pia Sundqvist and Liss Kerstin Sylvén



# New Language Learning and Teaching Environments

Series Editor

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Department of Education  
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Auckland, New Zealand

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New Language Learning and Teaching Environments is an exciting new book series edited by Hayo Reinders and dedicated to recent developments in learner-centred approaches and the impact of technology on learning and teaching inside and outside the language classroom. The series aims to: Publish cutting-edge research into current developments and innovation in language learning and teaching practice. Publish applied accounts of the ways in which these developments impact on current and future language education. To encourage dissemination and cross-fertilisation of policies and practice relating to learner-centred pedagogies for language learning and teaching in new learning environments. To disseminate research and best practice in out-of-class and informal language learning. The series is a multidisciplinary forum for the very latest developments in language education, taking a pedagogic approach with a clear focus on the learner, and with clear implications for both researchers and language practitioners. It is the first such series to provide an outlet for researchers to publish their work, and the first stop for teachers interested in this area.

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Pia Sundqvist • Liss Kerstin Sylvén

# Extramural English in Teaching and Learning

From Theory and Research to Practice

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*For Martin (Pia) and Peter (Liss Kerstin)*

## Preface

In the foreword to the first book of the ‘New Language Learning and Teaching Environments’ series, *Digital Games in Language Learning and Teaching* (2012, edited by Hayo Reinders), James Paul Gee focuses on how good video games create good learning conditions both in classrooms and outside of school. He talks about how digital games teach in powerful ways and that there really is no word for such teaching, but since it has to do with designing he suggests ‘teaching as designing’ (p. xiii). Moreover, he mentions that the phenomenon is ‘increasingly pervasive’ (p. xiii) out of school and we could not agree more. However, gaming is definitely not the only form of language teaching—or learning—that takes place beyond the classroom. So much more is happening outside the school context, not least when it comes to learning English as a second or foreign language. As will become clear when reading this book, we propose the term *extramural English* for all the English learners come in contact with or are involved in outside the walls of the classroom. Discussing the role of extramural English in both teaching and learning is the focus of this book.

We are both English linguists with a genuine interest in English language teaching and learning. Our paths first crossed in 2005 and since then we have worked together in several projects. The common core has always been extramural English and most of our joint publications target learners at primary and secondary school level. While doing research has

been one important part of our daily work, another has been to teach future English teachers in courses such as teaching methodology, second language acquisition, phonology, grammar, and English subject education. Over the years we have regularly also taken part in various in-service training courses for practicing English teachers. We realized early on that it was difficult to find suitable literature that brought together theory and practice on the topic of extramural English, and our teacher students and practicing teachers kept asking for such literature. They were eager to learn more and needed tools to deal with the ‘new’ situation of teaching English to ‘new’ types of learners, that is, to those who access English on their own in their free time and beyond the teacher’s control. In the same vein, how to deal with students with virtually no contacts with English outside of school has become a pressing issue. In short, being an English teacher today is demanding, not least because of the diversity found among learners as regards their total exposure to English. Time passed by and we waited for someone to write the book our students and teachers asked for. Then, in June of 2011 when we attended the conference ‘New Dynamics of Language Learning: Spaces and Places—Intentions and Opportunities’ at the University of Jyväskylä in Finland, the two of us went on an unforgettable, evening cruise. It was late, no wind, midnight sun, warm, peaceful, and a perfect setting for a creative idea: right then and there we decided to co-author ourselves the book that was needed. The first outline of this book was written the day after. Two months later we met with Hayo Reinders at AILA in Beijing and were strongly encouraged to act on our idea.

We believe the content of this book suits English teachers and teacher students across the globe, regardless of whether they work or study in places where English is traditionally referred to as a foreign language (EFL) or as a second (ESL/L2 English, see further Chap. 2). In addition, we believe parts of the book will interest researchers in the field of second language acquisition, more specifically those who focus on incidental learning (for instance, through exposure to English-mediated media), computer-assisted language learning, and game-based learning.

Most of the content in this book is brand new but we have recycled and updated previously published texts in some places. For example, in discussing the history of L2 English teaching methods we draw heavily



on a background chapter in Sylvén's (2004/2010) dissertation. Similarly, a background chapter in Sundqvist's (2009) dissertation could be partly used for our elaborated definition of extramural English and subsequent discussion of previous work on the topic (Chaps. 1 and 5). Furthermore, in Chap. 7 we present a learner called Eldin and also make references to footballer Zlatan Ibrahimović as a language learner; this specific section is a partly rewritten and shorter version of Sundqvist (2015). In addition, some of our discussion of the L2 Motivational Self System (in Chap. 4) and continuous professional development (in Chap. 8) are based on Sundqvist and Olin-Scheller (2013).

We hope that *Extramural English in Teaching and Learning: From Theory and Research to Practice* will prove to be a welcome contribution to the field. Readers are encouraged to contact us with feedback: there is so much more to learn about extramural English.

Karlstad and Göteborg, March 7, 2016

Pia and Liss Kerstin

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## Series Editor's Preface

The 'New Language Learning and Teaching Environments' book series is dedicated to recent developments in learner-centered approaches and the impact of technology on learning and teaching inside and outside the language classroom. It offers a multidisciplinary forum for presenting and investigating the latest developments in language education, taking a pedagogic approach with a clear focus on the learner, and with direct implications for both researchers and language practitioners.

The focus of the series is thus squarely on innovations, of all kinds, in our field. Although undoubtedly many innovations in language education practice and research take place outside the classroom, most of what is published reports on formal education. It is therefore exciting to see Pia Sundqvist and Liss Kerstin Sylvén tackle this huge and hugely important topic so eloquently. They start their discussion from practice (how refreshing!) and throughout the book draw useful, practical lessons for those involved in supporting learners. Although at first glance this may seem contradictory, the book is particularly useful for classroom teachers, as Sundqvist and Sylvén make many explicit links between more and less formal domains for learning and show how they are connected and can strengthen each other. By helping us to develop a lifewide understanding

of our learners and the myriad ways they learn, this book will make a significant contribution to the way we conceptualize what language learning and teaching entail and the ways in which learning can be supported.

Auckland, March 2016

Professor Hayo Reinders

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# **Part I**

**From Practice to Theory and  
Research**

# 1

## Introduction

In this introductory chapter, the concept of extramural English (EE) is introduced, and so is our model of L2 English learning. The concept was first proposed in 2009 (Sundqvist, 2009) and relates to English learned outside of school. Extramural English is clearly defined and thoroughly elaborated on, and we suggest it be used as an umbrella term for a number of other terms currently employed in the broad field of second language acquisition. The theoretical model of L2 English learning is also clearly presented in this chapter, including a visual representation. The model builds on two crucial variables: the individual learner's driving force and the physical location of the learner as learning occurs.

On a visit to a school, we came across an eighth grader whom we can call Hicham. He attends school in a small town in Sweden. The place is in the 'middle of nowhere,' surrounded by woods and mountains. There is also a beautiful lake—and access to the Internet. Hicham, an immigrant boy whose first language is Arabic, spoke flawless Swedish to us and, upon hearing that we were researchers of English with an interest in what children learn inside as well as outside of school, Hicham proudly

announced that he had learned a great deal of English thanks to gaming and Skype. Enthusiastically, Hicham continued telling us that he had started playing online games a few years ago and that he was now up to playing several hours per day, and ‘English has suddenly become so easy,’ he added. In addition, he really appreciated the fact that he had made new friends through gaming and his current best (gamer) friend was from the USA. Hicham revealed that they spoke on a daily basis with one another using Skype. As Hicham’s English teacher approached us in the classroom, Hicham claimed that his English proficiency had gone way up over the last year thanks to his out-of-school activities involving English; the teacher just smiled at his comment. We all agreed that it is amazing what gaming and Skype can do for one’s English skills—even though we felt obliged to stress that it is also recommended for teenagers to exercise and spend time outdoors every day, to which Hicham nodded and grinned. His teacher later confirmed that his English had indeed improved tremendously, and she now considered Hicham to be more or less fluent.

Our short anecdote about Hicham is not unique. We have met many others who, in a similar fashion, contend that they have learned most of their English at home (or in other out-of-school settings) as opposed to in school. Interestingly, in a Swedish nationwide survey of the school subject English, more than half of the fifth graders stated that they had learned as much, or more, English outside of school as in school (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2004). Children elsewhere, such as in Indonesia, express similar opinions, stressing the motivational/educational value of the English they encounter in other contexts than school (Lamb, 2004b). It ought to be noted that the latter two sources are both a decade old which, for instance, makes them pre-YouTube. In addition to playing video games like Hicham does, popular TV series are often mentioned by young people as another important explanation or (re)source for learning, along with other media, such as films or music. Many of the activities that children and teenagers (and, of course, also adults) regard as central to their development of English proficiency are mediated through the Internet.

The present volume is about these various types of out-of-school English activities and how they may influence learners and learning. But, above all, this volume is about how teachers may deal with a new classroom situation which is partly the result of their students' exposure to *extramural English* (EE) (Sundqvist, 2009, 2011), that is, English learned outside of school (a concept defined and elaborated on in the section that follows). Not so very long ago, the teacher was *the* main source of English for students, but times have certainly changed.

The rapid growth of research (see Chap. 5) on how EE interrelates with learning has been a key consideration in the writing of this volume. However, there appears to be a lack of titles that provide *both* in-depth information on the pedagogical implications of extramural English for English language teaching (ELT) *and* information on relevant theory and research. As a response to this gap, this book targets in particular English teachers, teacher students, and teacher educators, but also to a certain extent researchers. We hope that it will be a welcome contribution to the field of ELT.

## Extramural English

This section addresses the fundamental concept *EE*. In a second language acquisition (SLA) context, this term was introduced in 2009 by one of the authors of this book (Sundqvist, 2009; see also Sundqvist, 2011). At the time, she was unable to find an existing term that covered the phenomenon she was investigating in her PhD study: whether the time Swedish teenagers spent on English-mediated activities outside of school in some way had a connection with their oral proficiency and vocabulary in English. Although there were a number of theories and concepts that came close to describing the object of study, none of them were deemed entirely adequate. In the following, we outline our definition of EE and discuss other closely related terms, highlighting in what ways they differ from EE.



## Definition

Etymologically, *extramural* is an adjectival compound of Latin origin where the prefix, *extra*, means ‘outside’ and the stem, *mural*, means ‘wall.’ According to the *Oxford English Dictionary*, the word was first recorded in the nineteenth century, with the meaning ‘outside the walls or boundaries of a city or town.’ The term was especially used in the phrase *extramural interment* (i.e., burials outside the walls). However, the term was also used in an educational context to indicate teaching or instruction organized by a university or college for persons other than its residents. In our definition, *EE* corresponds to ‘English outside the walls’ and by that we mean the English that learners come in contact with or are involved in outside the walls of the classroom. This contact or involvement is *not* initiated by teachers or other people working in educational institutions; the initiative for contact/involvement lies with the learner himself/herself or, at times, with someone else, such as a friend or a parent. Thus, in general, contact/involvement is voluntary on the part of the learner, though there is also the possibility that learners engage in specific *EE* activities because they feel pressured to do so, for whatever reason. Moreover, some learners will take charge of their own learning of English and in this respect, *EE* is linked to the theory of learner autonomy (Holec, 1981). It is also possible that learners, through engagement in *EE*, develop a genuine interest in learning English in out-of-school settings. The following quote from Sundqvist (2009, p. 25) further illustrates how *EE* is defined:

In extramural English, no degree of deliberate intention to acquire English is necessary on the part of the learner, even though deliberate intention is by no means excluded from the concept. But what is important is that the learner comes in contact with or is involved in English outside the walls of the English classroom. This contact or involvement may be due to the learner’s deliberate (thus conscious) intent to create situations for learning English, but it may equally well be due to any other reason the learner may have. In fact, the learner might not even have a reason for coming in contact with or becoming involved in extramural English. For instance, a sudden encounter with a foreigner in the street, which leads to a conversation in English between the learner and the foreigner, is an example of an extra-

mural English activity that the learner did not even know about before it actually happened.

Some typical EE activities are the following:

- watching films,
- watching TV series,
- watching music videos,
- watching video blogs (vlogs),
- listening to music,
- reading blogs,
- reading books,
- reading magazines,
- reading newspapers,
- surfing English websites on the Internet,
- following people, news, organizations, and so on, on Twitter or Instagram (or some other online community),
- reading/writing/speaking/listening/interacting in real life or online, and
- playing video/digital games (online or offline, on one's own or with others).

Thus, the opportunities for extramural English seem endless, at least for those who have access to the Internet. For those who lack an online connection, the opportunities are more limited, but still there. It is also worth mentioning that EE encompasses input, output, and/or interaction in English; that is, the essential components needed for second-language (L2) learning are in place (see further Chap. 3 for theories of L2 teaching and learning).

## Terms and Concepts Related to Extramural English

There are other established terms and concepts which are closely related to EE. For example, Benson (2011b, p. 139) uses *out-of-class learning*, reserving the term 'for activities that have no direct relationship to

schooling' and that much of such learning takes the form of "self-directed naturalistic learning", in which the learner engages in language use for pleasure or interest, but also with the broader intention of learning.' Thus, Benson's *out-of-class learning [of English]* is very close to our notion of being involved in EE activities (and at times we have used Benson's term ourselves), but the incorporation of the word *learning* into the concept makes it somewhat inappropriate. In particular, by having *learning* as part of the key concept, there is an apparent risk that many SLA scholars, practicing English teachers, and future teachers (consciously or not) may associate it with Krashen's (1981) interpretation of the notion of learning an L2, which is that learning takes place consciously, through explicit formal instruction (as opposed to acquiring an L2, where the L2 is picked up subconsciously/implicitly through exposure). Further, associations may also be made with Krashen's idea that learning cannot turn into acquisition, the so-called non-interface position (compare R. Ellis, 2009, on the nature of the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge). In order to avoid such possible inferences, we prefer *extramural English* over *out-of-class* (sometimes also *out-of-school*) *learning of English*. Another reason for avoiding the words *class* and *school* in this connection is that they lead the mind to imagining settings that have something to do with the educational context. As we are interested in exposure to and use of English in non-educational situations, we use *extramural English*.

Another term used in this field of research is *incidental language learning*. It has been defined by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001, p. 10; see also Schmidt, 1994) as 'the learning without an intent to learn, or as the learning of one thing, e.g. vocabulary, when the learner's primary objective is to do something else, e.g. to communicate.' Incidental learning has frequently been examined in empirical studies focusing on the acquisition of L2 vocabulary in particular (see, e.g., Hulstijn, 2001; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Nakata, 2008). It is reasonable to view incidental language learning as a sub-category of EE, because EE 'allows' for both intentional and incidental learning. In linguistic terminology, it is possible to say that intentional and incidental learning of English are co-hyponyms of EE, which is the superordinate term. It is possible to say that the term *unintentional learning* has been used synonymously with incidental learning, and together with the term *extracurricular*

*influence*, the terms have been applied in research to investigate what might be said to correspond to EE (see Forsman, 2004). Further, EE is also clearly related to *implicit language learning*, which has been defined as language learning taking place ‘without either intentionality or awareness’ (R. Ellis, 2009, p. 7). Bearing this definition in mind, implicit language learning can thus be said to relate to and differ from EE in exactly the same way as incidental learning does.

A concept that was introduced to the field of SLA in 2014 is *online informal learning of English*, or *OILE* (Sockett, 2014). OILE is ‘best understood as a complex range of internet-based activities’ (p. 7). To the extent that OILE has to do with informal learning, the scope of its meaning overlaps in part with that of EE. However, while OILE restricts the sources of learning to Internet-based resources, EE encompasses a range of possible sources outside educational institutions. In the theoretical framework behind EE, as mentioned, even a casual exchange in English with a foreigner in the street would qualify as a potential language learning occasion. In brief, EE is more broadly defined than each of the other terms discussed in this chapter and, consequently, EE functions very well as an umbrella term in this field of research.

## A Model of L2 English Learning Including EE

A theoretical model can be described as a framework that can generate analytical tools for understanding and explaining (and sometimes making predictions about) a given subject matter. Benson (2011a), for instance, proposes a framework for language learning and teaching outside the classroom consisting of four dimensions: *location*, *formality*, *pedagogy*, and *locus of control*. Location has to do not only with physical location, but also with social and pedagogical relationships between learners and others. Benson identifies, for instance, a difference between out-of-class learning (described as non-prescribed activities that often are carried out independently by learners) and extracurricular learning (described as additional activities in school, but less formal than regular lessons). Formality, on the other hand, deals with the degree to which the environment for learning is structured and organized. Here, he dif-

ferentiates between formal, non-formal, and informal learning. The third dimension of Bensons’ model, pedagogy, basically distinguishes between self-instruction and a more naturalistic pedagogy, and locus of control, the fourth dimension, centers on the extent to which learners experience that learning is under their own control or under the control of somebody or something else (such as a teacher or the materials used). Benson’s (2011a) model is very helpful in understanding and explaining L2 learning beyond the classroom. However, as he points out himself, there also ‘appears to be no simple relationship between the location of learning (in or out of class) and locus of control’ (p. 12). In this section, we present a model that, possibly, solves the problem of the connection between location and learner control. We hope our model provides additional help in explaining what the broad field of L2 English language learning looks like and how EE fits into that field. Whereas we certainly believe

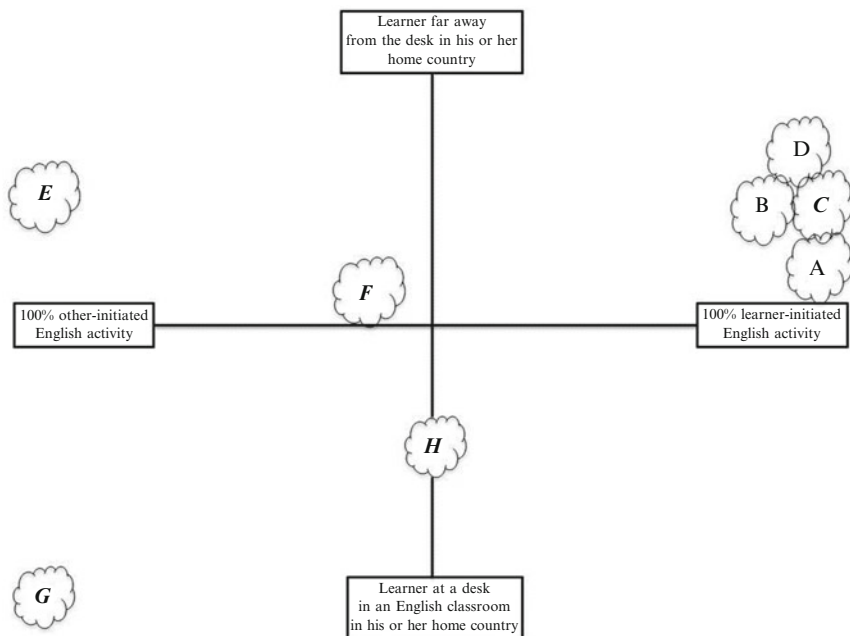


Fig. 1.1 Model of L2 English learning; EE activities in the upper right-hand corner

that the model makes an important contribution to understanding L2 English learning (and teaching), it should be acknowledged that some English learning activities that are discussed in this book, regardless of whether they take place in a classroom or not, may remain difficult to categorize, describe, or explain. That said, a good model should have the capacity to effectively explain the subject matter it pertains to; it should have high explanatory power. In our case, this means that the model should be able to account for *all* kinds of activities involving English that one can possibly learn from.

Figure 1.1 provides the visual representation of our model of L2 English learning and in the discussion of the model, the place of EE within the field of English learning, as well as teaching, will become evident. The horizontal axis (the X-axis) shows the learner's driving force for learning English and describes the extent to which the learner independently initiates an English activity. An activity that is fully initiated by the teacher (or somebody else, such as a parent or a peer) is 100 % other-initiated and an activity that is fully initiated by the learner is 100 % learner-initiated. In the latter case, to be clear, the driving force behind 'doing' a specific English activity is the learner himself or herself, and no one else. It should be added that the doing does not necessarily require any action (in its literal sense) on the part of the learner; the doing of an activity could simply mean that a learner is exposed to English (for instance, there is an ad in English in a newspaper). Note that a learner's driving force is connected with the level of formality of learning. An activity initiated by a teacher exemplifies formal instruction and, consequently, formal learning; an activity that is learner-initiated exemplifies informal learning. The vertical axis (the Y-axis) shows the learner's physical location when he or she is carrying out an English activity (or is exposed to such an activity). At one end, the learner sits at a desk in a classroom in his or her home country. At the other end, the learner is literally as far away as possible from the desk. An extreme example of the latter situation would be a learner who has traveled to the antipode of his or her normal location, such as a Swedish learner visiting New Zealand.

In our model of L2 English learning, the two variables (driving force and physical location) constitute a two-dimensional continuum. When the degree of learner-initiation is at 50 % of its maximum and the physical location is at the wall of the English classroom in the home

country, then we are at the center (i.e., at the origo) of our L2 English learning model. It is worth mentioning that the distance symbolized by the bottom half of the Y-axis (i.e., from a location at the desk in the classroom in the home country to a location at the walls of the classroom) is much, much shorter than the distance corresponding to the upper half of the Y-axis, which runs from a location directly outside the walls of the classroom to any other location in the world: the school cafeteria, the home, a neighboring village or city, or another country, to give some examples.

Our theoretical frame also differentiates between intentional and incidental L2 English learning. As explained above, a learner may engage in an EE activity with or without the intention of learning the language, where learning from the former type of activity would correspond to intentional learning and learning from the latter type would correspond to incidental learning. Presumably, most English activities that are other-initiated are examples of intentional learning (i.e., toward the left-hand side of the X-axis), whereas English activities that are learner-initiated generally tend to be examples of incidental learning. Intentionality is indicated in bold face and italics in Fig. 1.1. We would like to stress that all EE activities take place above the horizontal axis and to the right of the vertical axis. In other words, EE activities are found in the upper right-hand corner, illustrated in Fig. 1.1 with letters A–D. Other English activities—but not EE—presented in the model are denoted by the letters E–H. The list below gives general descriptions of each of the eight English activities in the model.

- A. Learner-initiated English activity directly outside the classroom; learner alone; for the purpose of entertainment.
- B. Learner-initiated English activity in the home; learner alone; for the purpose of entertainment.
- C. Learner-initiated English activity in the home; learner alone; for the purpose of learning English.
- D. Learner-initiated English activity in the home; learner and others online; for the purpose of entertainment.
- E. Teacher-initiated English activity in the home; learner alone; accessing the Internet for the purpose of learning English.

- F. Teacher-initiated English activity but with strong learner input; at the school but outside the classroom; learner and three peers; for the purpose of learning English.
- G. Teacher-initiated English activity in the classroom at the desk; learner alone; for the purpose of learning English.
- H. Learner-and-Teacher-initiated English activity in the classroom but not at the desk; learner and one peer; for the purpose of learning English.

The explanatory power of our model can be challenged by some English activities. For instance, a study abroad experience clearly takes place very far from the learner's desk in his or her home country (thus, 'study abroad' would be placed somewhere along the upper half of the Y-axis). However, a study abroad experience cannot easily be viewed as a single English activity comparable to, for example, 'reading a book at home' or 'listening to a comprehension task in the classroom.' Instead, a learner who is studying abroad is bound to become involved in numerous of English activities while away from the home country. Some of these activities will be carried out in a classroom abroad (i.e., in the upper left-hand corner of the model, provided that the activities are teacher-initiated). Other activities will occur outside the foreign classroom and they are most likely learner-initiated, thus leaning toward the right-hand side of the horizontal axis (i.e., in the upper right-hand corner, where we find EE activities). However, it is possible that someone would prefer to interpret 'study abroad' as a single English activity (i.e., *not* as consisting of numerous activities), and the model would work for such an interpretation as well. 'Study abroad' would then best be illustrated and explained by marking/imagining a *larger area* in the model, covering parts of both the upper left- and right-hand quadrants. Thus, marking or imagining areas rather than points can be of help in representing other learning scenarios as well, for example, when learners voluntarily perform an EE activity, originally recommended by a teacher, in their spare time.

The visual representation of the theoretically informed model (Fig. 1.1) is also useful when explaining the dynamics of L2 English learning. For example, an activity may originate as teacher-initiated in the classroom but over time become transformed and develop into an English activity



mix that can best be described as both teacher- and learner-initiated. In fact, such types of jointly initiated English activities can ‘start moving upwards,’ to be carried out outside of the classroom and with more of a say from the learner.

It should be emphasized that a skilled L2 English teacher not only promotes and motivates learning in the classroom (below the horizontal axis) but also teaches in ways to promote and motivate learning outside of the classroom (above the horizontal axis). A successful teacher also guides his or her learners forward, so that they can, over time and to a greater extent, take more independent initiatives with regard to their own learning (the right-hand side of the horizontal axis). Such teaching is in line with the basic ideas of learner autonomy and life-long learning.

## Outline of Chapters

In this first chapter, we have introduced the concept of *EE* and our model of L2 English learning, including *EE*. The second chapter addresses the fact that many young people have more or less daily access to English, at least in technologically advanced countries. In addition, Chap. 2 examines Global English as well as the diversity of English classrooms in order to provide a better understanding of the double challenge Global English and classroom diversity pose to teachers of English around the world. Moreover, we discuss the role of the native speaker (NS) in current ELT and assessment, as well as the importance of language use for learning—and what it means to be a successful user of English. In Chap. 3, we present a historical overview of English as a school subject as well as various language learning theories that have appeared in ELT. This is accompanied by a discussion of different teaching traditions that have prevailed in diverse parts of the world, exemplified by extracts from official documents stating the role of English. This chapter describes the situation in several countries in order to capture the many faces of the state of the art of ELT. Chapter 4, ‘Age, motivation, and theories of L2 learning,’ follows up on the previous chapter with a discussion of SLA theories, focusing on those which appeared after the so-called social turn in L2 research

(Block, 2003) and, in particular, on theories of motivation for language learning. Here our main focus is on ‘The L2 Motivational Self System’ (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). In addition, Chap. 4 devotes some space to the role of age in SLA. Learning a second or a foreign (L2) language as a child is different from learning it as an adult, and, as this book is intended for teachers of learners of different age, age constitutes an important variable that is addressed. We also discuss various forms of assessment. In Chap. 5, ‘Evidence from extramural English informing ELT,’ the focus is on empirical studies that target the relation between EE and ‘school’ English. Although this particular field is still under-researched within the broad field of SLA, a thorough canvassing of the topic yielded a number of studies that we report on in chronological order. By doing so, we hope to unveil the history of the phenomenon of English-mediated activity outside of school, the forms of activity that have been available over time, how research studies have been designed, and, not least, what results there are. In addition to serving as a research overview, Chap. 5 also introduces the EE House, a metaphor that serves to explain the concept of EE in greater depth. It also concludes the first part of the book, ‘From practice to theory and research,’ in which central findings from empirical studies are brought up and discussed in relation to theory (hence the title of Part I). In Part II, ‘From theory and research to practice,’ we attempt to be more hands-on and this part is expected to be particularly relevant to teachers and teacher students.

In Chap. 6, the focus is on ‘getting to know your students.’ As revealed in Part I, the availability of EE varies across contexts, as does the individual learner’s exposure to it. Chapter 6 illustrates how teachers can go about mapping their learners’ EE interests and introduces tools for doing so, for example, the language diary. Once the teacher has gained an understanding of the individual backgrounds and interests represented in his or her classroom, there are several ways in which to utilize this information for the benefit of individual learners, and a number of suggestions are presented. In addition, the importance of empowering teachers as well as learners is highlighted. We call Chap. 7 ‘Opening the window for L2 English development.’ In this chapter, there is a focus on how to develop learner motivation (drawing on theories presented in Chap. 3). We also discuss weak aspects of learner English that teachers, most likely,

will need to compensate for. Learner language is idiosyncratic and it is essential that teachers are familiar with the interlanguage of individual learners in order to be able to scaffold feedback for optimized learning conditions. All sorts of learners are discussed, from special education needs students to particularly gifted ones. The chapter also addresses lifelong learning along with learner autonomy (Holec, 1981) and subject education, with a focus on how teachers may plan their teaching to promote lifelong learning. Some online tools that have been empirically proven to enhance L2 learning are also discussed. Finally, in Chap. 8, the aim is to empower both English teachers and student teachers. We discuss continuous professional development for English teachers as well as novel ideas, and point to ways in which teachers themselves can keep up-to-date.

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# 2

## Global and Extramural English: Classroom Challenges

These days, English is present in many places around our globe. In an article about globalization and English, Dewey (2007, p. 333, our emphasis) argues as follows:

English is like no other language in its current role internationally, indeed like no other at any moment in history. Although there are, and have previously been, other international languages, the case of *English is different in fundamental ways*: for the extent of its *diffusion geographically*; for the enormous *cultural diversity* of the speakers who use it; and for the *infinitely varied domains* in which it is found and *purposes it serves*.

At first, the quotation might come across as a somewhat exaggerated description of the status of English at the beginning of the twenty-first century, but we would suggest that it is accurate indeed. English has a unique position as the leading world language for the very reasons Dewey brings forward. People do meet English on every continent; it is spoken by people in all sorts of trades and from all walks of life, and for a variety of purposes, not least scientific and educational. Thus, it is no

coincidence that a book such as this one is written at this specific point in time: those of us who are interested in the teaching and learning of English, regardless of our national heritage, need to approach English as a global language.

As stated in the quote above, there have been other international languages before English. For instance, in medieval times Latin had a similar function. Even in Great Britain and as late as throughout the seventeenth century, Latin held the position as the most prestigious language of international learning. In fact, three highly influential scientific works published by Englishmen in the seventeenth century were written in Latin rather than English: William Gilbert's work on magnetism, William Harvey's on the circulation of the blood, and Sir Isaac Newton's *Principia* (Barber, 2000). However, in comparison with English today, Latin in those days was much less widespread, not least geographically. Moreover, the speed at which English has become a global language is exceptional: it happened in only 50 years (i.e., during the latter half of the twentieth century), which is just 'a mere eye-blink in the history of a language' (Crystal, 2003, p. 63). Another example of an international language is Arabic. In contrast to Latin, which has now been a dead language for quite some time, Arabic is very much alive. Being the language of the *Qur'an*, it constitutes a common language for Muslims and is spoken and/or read around the world for that reason, among others. Nevertheless, Arabic is not omnipresent in the ways English is with respect to the great cultural diversity among its speakers, the many domains in which English can be found, and the numerous different purposes it serves, as Dewey (2007) has observed.

In order to reflect the prominent present position of English, the term *Global English* is used not only by Dewey (2007) but also by many others, and we will adopt that term in this book as well. In literature, several terms have been suggested for the same phenomenon: *English as a lingua franca*, *Global*, *International English* or *English as an international language*, and *World English* or *World Englishes* (*WE*), to list some of the most frequently occurring. The first of these terms, English as a lingua franca, or *ELF*, is used interchangeably with Global English in this book. A lingua franca ('common language') refers to situations in which a language is used as 'a contact language across lingua-cultures whose members are in the main

so-called nonnative speakers' (Jenkins, 2006, p. 157). For an overview of relevant terminology and detailed descriptions and definitions, we recommend Erling (2005) and, for insightful comments on the development and critique of Global English, Bolton (2006). Furthermore, it ought to be mentioned that Global English is a broad field of research in which many voices expressing varying opinions may be heard. Thus, it is possible that some English language scholars may consider our introduction to be too simplistic, or too general, perhaps even wrong. With this in mind, we encourage readers who are curious to learn more about the fascinating topic of Global English and what (other) opinions there are to study the bibliography and questions provided at the end of the chapter.

In the first section of what follows, we discuss 'The Kachruvian approach' in relation to the fact that many children, teenagers, and young adults today have access to English more or less on a daily basis, at least those who live in technologically developed countries. A majority of these countries can be found in what Kachru (1985) calls expanding circle countries. This section also includes a summary of his seminal work on inner, outer, and expanding circle countries, which links closely to Global English; Kachru himself coined and used the term *World Englishes* (Kachru, 1992). The next section, 'Norms and language use in ELT and assessment,' brings up a controversial topic, namely what norms to use for assessing learner English. Finally, in 'The diverse L2 English classroom,' we address the diverse classroom which teachers around the globe face daily, and which is mainly the result of the increased relevance of EE for learning on the one hand, and the influence of Global English on the other. Because of this, the job of an English teacher demands specialized teaching skills, and this topic is also discussed. Like all chapters in the first part of this book, Chap. 2 ends with some suggestions for further reading/links and study questions.

## The Kachruvian Approach

Three decades ago, in order to describe geographical spread, patterns of acquisition, and functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages, the Indian-American linguist Braj B. Kachru (1985)

introduced the following terms: *the inner circle*, *the outer circle*, and *the expanding circle*, also described as *three concentric circles*. (In the beginning, the expanding circle was called the extending circle, see McArthur [1998, p. 98]). The circles represent the different ways in which English is acquired and how the language is used. Ever since its introduction, this descriptive triad has frequently been used in ELT as well as linguistics textbooks. Kachru's approach to Global English is characterized by an underlying philosophy that argues for 'the importance of inclusivity and pluricentricity in (...) the linguistics of English worldwide' (Bolton, 2006, p. 240).

In terms of geography and language users, the inner circle refers to countries where English is the primary language, namely Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK, and the USA, that is, 'the traditional bases of English' (Kachru, 1985, p. 12). In other words, in the inner circle we find those who have learned English as a first language (L1). According to Crystal (2003), they amounted to approximately 337 million around the turn of the millennium. However, this number would increase if L1 figures for every inner circle country were indeed accessible, but unfortunately some such data are missing, for instance from West Africa where a number of varieties of L1 English are used (Crystal, 2003).

The countries belonging to the outer circle have particular historical ties with English in that they have been through periods of colonization; Kachru (1985, p. 12) talks about English and its 'institutionalization in non-native contexts.' Thus, most countries of the Commonwealth of Nations, such as Bangladesh, India, Nigeria, and Pakistan, belong to the outer circle. These are all populous nations. The Philippines is another large outer circle country in which English is an official language (along with Filipino, the standard register of the Tagalog language), as is Singapore (where Malay, Mandarin, and Tamil are also official languages). Typical features of the outer circle are that English has acquired a high status in the language policies of these multilingual nations and, moreover, that bilingual or multilingual inhabitants tend to use English along with another language (or languages). In these countries, English is commonly used as a *lingua franca* between various ethnic and language groups. Furthermore, English is generally taught as a second (as opposed to a foreign) language in schools. A total of between 235 and 350 million



people are estimated to have learned English this way (Crystal, 2003). As pointed out by Kachru (1985), in the outer circle, English has an extended functional range in a variety of social, educational, administrative, and literary domains. It is worth noting, for instance, that literary traditions in English have been developed in various genres (the novel, short story, poetry, etc.) in these countries. Moreover, English is often the language used in higher education, as well as in national commerce and the legislature.

In the third circle—the expanding circle—English has yet another dimension. Here, English is seen as the most important international language to master and, in contrast to the countries or geographical regions belonging to the outer circle, countries in the expanding circle do not have the legacy of British colonialism. It is in fact the users of English in the expanding circle who reinforce the claim that English indeed is an international language, not least because they clearly outnumber ‘native’ (i.e., inner circle) speakers. For obvious reasons, it is particularly difficult to calculate the total population of English speakers in expanding circle countries, but estimates ranging from as low as 100 million to as high as 1,000 million have been mentioned (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006). In the expanding circle, English is typically taught as a foreign language, and examples of countries in the expanding circle are, for instance, Brazil, Cameroon, China, Israel, Japan, Norway, and Saudi Arabia. However, to quote Bob Dylan: ‘the times they are a-changin’.’ More specifically, English is approaching (or has already reached) the status of an L2 in several expanding circle regions, and the traditional distinction between teaching English as either a second or foreign language has become (or is already) obsolete and impossible to maintain in practice (cf. Graddol, 2006).

Altogether, the present situation is bound to have substantial pedagogical implications, which is a topic we return to throughout this book. To sum up, worldwide there is an estimated total of between 1.2 and 1.5 billion people having ‘reasonable competence’ in English (Crystal, 2003) and the number of English learners has been predicted to peak at around 2 billion at approximately the point in time when this book is published (Graddol, 2006). As Kachru (1985, p. 14) rightly argues, the three circles bring to English ‘a unique cultural pluralism, and a linguistic heterogeneity and diversity which are unrecorded to this extent in human history.’

## English in the Expanding Circle

Access to authentic English input and involvement in productive interactions in English are, thus, part of everyday life for many who grow up in the expanding circle, that is, in countries where English is generally treated and taught as a foreign language in school. But, as was mentioned in the previous section, English is not necessarily so very 'foreign' anymore. Results from research show that with regard to both the teaching and learning of English, a major change is presently taking place. In France, for instance, Sockett and Toffoli (2012, p. 149) describe a situation where learners are involved in English language use daily and where they learn English 'perhaps without ever being enrolled in a formal language course.' The situation is similar in Northern Europe. If we take the case of Sweden, the prevalence of English has led some scholars to argue that English can be regarded as a second rather than as a foreign language (Hyltenstam, 2002; Viberg, 2000), even though others stress that such a claim only holds at an individual level (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2016a). The picture is very much the same in Finland (Forsman, 2004), Norway (Simensen, 2010), and Belgium (Kuppens, 2010). To give examples from other parts of the world, studies from Japan and Taiwan show that university students frequently take the opportunity to practice their English through the use of smartphones (Stockwell, 2013; Stockwell & Liu, 2015). Moreover, English university students in Japan, Thailand, and the USA showed improvement in various aspects of their English proficiency after having taken part in studies where they were instructed to play online video games (Peterson, 2012; Rankin, Gold, & Gooch, 2006; Reinders & Wattana, 2011, 2015). Others have shared experiences from their youth of how they learned a foreign language by choosing to play video games in German (Purushotma, 2005, in the USA) and English (da Silva, 2014, in Brazil), respectively. Canagarajah (2013) argues that multilingual speakers merge their own languages and values into English. This, in turn, gives them access to various negotiation strategies which help in decoding other unique varieties of English and in constructing new norms.

However, it needs to be emphasized that not all children, adolescents, or young adults in countries that belong to the expanding circle have the opportunity to use or learn English in this way, particularly not where the digital infrastructure is more limited. Among other things, international

statistics reveal that access to the Internet is more restricted in countries such as Armenia, Mexico, Sri Lanka, Vietnam, and Malawi (International Telecommunications Union, 2013). In addition, there are expanding circle countries where English language digital media may be blocked or difficult to access as digital resources in major local languages; one such example is China (Schwankert, 2007). Needless to say, the opportunities for incidental, informal language learning become fewer when learners are cut off from digital networks and various English-mediated sites. Nevertheless, in general, technological developments with access to high speed Internet connections have undoubtedly facilitated out-of-school learning of English in a majority of expanding circle countries since Kachru published his paper in the mid-1980s.

## English as a Second or Foreign Language?

In light of what has been discussed above, it is meaningless to maintain the distinction between teaching/learning *English as a second language (ESL)* and teaching/learning *English as a foreign language (EFL)*, a notion which has been put forward by others before us (see, e.g., R. Ellis, 1994; R. Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Kachru, 1985; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). As pointed out by Crystal (2003), such a distinction is a very poor reflection of sociolinguistic reality. Therefore, in line with Mitchell et al. (2013, p. 1), the basic concept of *L2 learning* is here defined broadly to include ‘the learning of any language, to any level, provided only that the learning of the “second” language takes place sometime later than the acquisition of the first language.’ In other words, an L2 is any language learned later than the early childhood years. Accordingly, *L2 English* is used in this volume regardless of whether English is learned in countries that have traditionally been described as ESL settings (the outer circle) or EFL settings (the expanding circle). The main reasons for avoiding making a distinction between second and foreign languages are eloquently described by Mitchell et al. (2013, p. 1):

We [Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden] include ‘foreign’ languages under our more general term ‘second’ languages because we believe that the underlying learning processes are essentially the same for more local and for more remote target languages, despite differing learning purposes

and circumstances. (And, of course, such languages today are likely to be increasingly accessible via the Internet, a means of communication which self-evidently cuts across any simple 'local'/'foreign' distinction.)

Both in theory, then, and in practice (as pointed out by Graddol, 2006, see above), it is no longer meaningful to separate the teaching/learning of ESL from the teaching/learning of EFL.

## Extreme Cases

As mentioned above, English has no official role in the expanding circle countries, but the language is still highly important for functions such as education, international business, and tourism. In some societies, having a good command of English is extremely highly valued. People are ready to go to great lengths to achieve the goal of becoming proficient in English by investing a great deal of time, effort, and financial resources in language learning: English is viewed as a stepping stone to success in a globalized world. Duff (2015, p. 61) describes how being a speaker of a global language (such as English) potentially connects one with a wider linguistic community 'at least in one's consciousness,' and it does not matter if one's variety of the language (in this case English) is a bit different compared to that of native speakers because it still gives the individual a sense of belonging. Motivated adolescent English language learners in Indonesia, for example, say that they strive for inclusion 'in that elite community of cosmopolitan English speakers' (Lamb, 2007, p. 775), and they are not alone.

One researcher who has taken a close look at English language learning in several regions in Southeast Asia is Yuko Goto Butler. Her research from South Korea reveals, among other things, that although Korean is almost exclusively spoken in society, many families strive to make their children Korean–English bilinguals in the hope for a bright future for their children. As a consequence, in addition to having one of the world's highest private education budgets (averaging USD 240 per child per month in 2010) and building specific villages in which 'English-only' is the rule, study abroad programs have grown increasingly popular, and it is not uncommon that Korean mothers go abroad with their children, leaving the fathers behind (Butler, 2014a). This strong emphasis on the

importance of learning English has been referred to by others as ‘a veritable English language mania’ (Park & Abelmann, 2004, p. 46). Butler’s research in South Korea explores and reveals clear links between the socio-economic status (SES) of the parents, parental attitudes toward English, and children’s motivation and achievement in English (Butler, 2014a). Similar relations between parents’ SES and children’s self-efficacy/confidence in English have been found in Butler’s studies from mainland China (Butler, 2014a, 2014b). To those who only have superficial knowledge of ELT and learning, Butler’s findings are likely to be perceived as somewhat extreme, but to those who are more familiar with the present influence of Global English, her results simply highlight its unique role and effects.

## Norms and Language Use in ELT and Assessment

As is commonly known, there is an ongoing debate in the field of SLA and L2 English about who the native speaker really is and, as a consequence, which native speaker norm to adhere to, or whether to adhere to a native speaker norm at all. Therefore, in a book such as this, it is highly relevant to discuss the role of the native speaker (NS) in current ELT on the one hand, and the assessment of learner L2 English on the other. In this section, perspectives on the native—non-native speaker (NNS) controversy are discussed. Moreover, we highlight the importance of having a focus on language use in ELT and assessment.

### The Decline of the Native Speaker

In his influential work, Kachru (1985, p. 24) argues that ‘educated varieties of English’ have emerged among both NSs and NNSs and that these varieties are mutually intelligible. Furthermore, he pinpoints the necessity of moving from what he calls ‘linguistic authoritarianism’ (of the NS speech variety) toward ‘linguistic pragmatism’ (p. 25), which would be ‘closer to the real world of English users’ (p. 16). That is, when NNS *speech fellowships* (a term borrowed from British linguist John Rupert Firth) have used a variety of English for a long time and that variety can be

considered as stable, then it ought to be considered as a variety of English in its own right. An example of linguistic pragmatism would be to initiate collaborative efforts between NS and NNS users of English in order to monitor ‘the direction of change in English, the uses and usage, and the scope of the spread and its implications for intelligibility and communication’ (p. 27). Kachru stresses the importance of including English users across the world in this collaboration. Undoubtedly, ELT as well as L2 English assessment have developed into big business on the international market, and matters related to how L2 English communicative competence should be defined have, as a consequence, become increasingly important both inside and outside of academia: Communicative competence within which setting or situation? Compared to what norm? Measured how?

Scholars have criticized the NS-based notion of communicative competence and its NS norms, referring to them as ‘utopian, unrealistic, and constraining’ in relation to Global English and its users (Alptekin, 2002). In the same vein, Graddol (1999, 2006) talks about the rise of a new paradigm—clearly related to Kachru’s ideas—and the decline of the NS as the given norm for L2 English, and others have argued in similar ways (e.g., Alptekin, 2002; Canagarajah, 2013; Cook, 1999, 2005). Perhaps no one has addressed this issue more eloquently than Lourdes Ortega in her keynote address at the 17th AILA Congress in Brisbane in 2014, in which she talked about experiences of and success in late bilingualism (Ortega, 2014). Among other things, she made clear that despite the fact that age has long been prioritized over language experience in studies within the field of SLA, actual experience of using a specific language is a stronger predictor of bilingual success. Accordingly, she argued for *the inclusion of other variables than age in L2 research*, variables such as input, exposure and active usage, to give some examples. Thus, Ortega’s line of reasoning connects very well with the ideas brought forward in this book about the crucial role EE plays for L2 English learning; as described above, EE is very much about L2 input, output, exposure, and active usage, and about interaction with others, often online. Ortega also cited Zurer-Pearson (2010) in her AILA talk, arguing that we cannot afford a monolingual norm as a frame of reference for L2 speakers any longer. Such a frame is only suitable for monolinguals—not for bilinguals—and

scholars ‘should stop flouting this tautological truism!’ (Ortega, 2014, slide 54). In addition, she observed that strictly linguistic definitions of L2 success are too narrow, perhaps even irrelevant. These arguments have clear implications for the assessment of L2 English or, phrased differently, the time is ripe for another yardstick (or possibly yardsticks) for L2 English. It is time to get rid of the ‘monolingual bias’ (Ortega, 2009, p. 6).

## The Rise of the Successful L2 English User

Most people would probably agree that teachers as well as learners of English are helped by having some sort of norm to aim at. Addressing this issue, the linguist Vivian Cook was among the first to argue for having ‘the successful English user’ serve as such a norm (see, e.g., Cook, 1999, 2005, 2006). One key argument that Cook brings forward is that L2 English learners (as well as learners of other languages) should be considered speakers in their own right, something that Ortega (2014) also emphasizes. It is neither fruitful nor right to view L2 speakers/learners as approximations of monolingual NSs since they need positive images of themselves as successful users of the target language, rather than images of themselves as failed NSs (Cook, 1999). Moreover, current theory and empirical findings from language motivation research emphasize the crucial importance of being able to see oneself as a successful L2 speaker in the future for learning to take place, a topic we return to in greater detail in Chap. 4. In brief, then, from the perspectives of L2 English teachers and learners, it is important to view learners as multicompetent language users whose L2 English knowledge is ‘grounded in the actual linguistic practices in which they engage’ (Pomerantz & Bell, 2007, p. 556).

In light of the ongoing changes within SLA and ELT, it is relevant for practicing teachers (and examiners) to carefully consider what benchmarks they employ in the assessment of L2 English. Moreover, in many countries it might be necessary to revise national curricula and test standards, so that they better align with current theory and empirical research. In many countries in Europe, for instance, the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) has had large impact on language education and assessment at all levels, from primary to upper

secondary school. Being a multilingual speaker is viewed as an asset, and becoming a multilingual speaker as an attainable goal. Heavy emphasis is put on being able to use the target language(s). The CEFR states that language learners' communicative competence is activated in the performance of different language activities: reception (oral/written), production (oral/written), interaction (oral/written exchanges between at least two individuals), and mediation (oral/written activities that make communication possible between persons who are unable to communicate with each other directly) (p. 14). Whereas it used to be common to examine or test what L2 learners were *not* able to do or comprehend, the CEFR suggests the opposite: it is most relevant to find out what learners are capable of doing or comprehending. Worldwide, frameworks such as CEFR and the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines* (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2012) clearly contribute to an ongoing transformation of language teaching and assessment. There are two shifts of focus: from knowing about language to knowing how to use it, and from the NS to the successful L2 user as norm.

Some scholars argue that English speakers in the expanding circle have the right to claim ownership of English on the basis that they outnumber speakers in the inner and outer circle (e.g., Crystal, 2003; Widdowson, 2003). Others suggest that this is the wrong way to go, not least because it would make teaching L2 English very difficult. If *any* variety of English spoken in different countries in the expanding circle would be deemed suitable as a standard (yardstick, norm) to adhere to and aim at in teaching, learning, and assessment, 'non-native' (i.e., local) L2 English teachers would be in trouble. Yoo (2014, p. 84) uses the example of Korean English, or Konglish. Nobody can be a NS of Konglish, because it is just 'broken English (...) without any consistent patterns distinct from other varieties of English.' He argues that Konglish, thus, is very different from, for example, Indian English. There are millions of NSs of Indian English, which is a proper standard variety of English with its own systematic linguistic patterns, and so forth. For local/NNS L2 English teachers in expanding circle countries, Yoo (2014, p. 86) suggests the following:

Nonnative teachers in the Expanding Circle should thus resist the temptation of claiming the ownership of English because there is nothing to gain from acquiring it. Instead, we should rightfully claim the status of the only



ideal teachers of English to our students. So, help us empower ourselves by giving us the respect that we deserve as the ideal teachers of English to EFL learners, not the ownership of English, which rightfully belongs to the speakers of English in the Inner and the Outer Circles.

Although Yoo (2014) makes a very important contribution with his paper, in particular by focusing on the empowerment of L2 English teachers who are not NSs of English (an under-researched topic in the field of ELT), the paper contains some questionable conclusions and arguments, as pointed out by, for example, Ren (2014). In general, researchers on Global English acknowledge the necessity of models both from the inner and the outer circles in ELT. Such models are perhaps particularly relevant for learners at the beginning levels. Ren argues that local varieties should not be measured or evaluated against NS models. Further, as discussed in the section ‘Norms and language use in ELT and assessment,’ teachers should not have inappropriate, unfair, and unrealistic expectations about ‘near-nativeness’ for their learners: ‘On the contrary, local varieties of English (...) need to be codified, which can then provide the linguistic benchmarks for English teaching in the Expanding Circle’ (Ren, 2014, p. 211).

## The Diverse L2 English Classroom

With the emergence of Global English and the digital era, L2 English classrooms began to change. From anecdotal evidence we know that teachers realized, slowly but surely, that their job ‘suddenly’ was a new job—and that job was challenging, to say the least. Previously, classrooms were more or less homogeneous in the sense that most learners had similar access to English input and also similar opportunities for English interaction and output. Further, the teacher could control learners’ amount of exposure to English and, in most cases, the teacher was also the main (and often the only available) English role model for the learners. In these classrooms, possible learner differences typically originated from individual differences as regards, for example, cognitive abilities and aptitude for learning languages. Working under such conditions was something that English teachers in general had been trained for pedagogically. Thus, as

professionals, trained teachers knew how to act upon heterogeneity in terms of L2 English knowledge and skills. However, as has been shown in this chapter, the L2 English classroom in the 2010s may constitute a much more diverse place, and we argue that this diversity typically originates from learners' varying experiences of involvement in EE activities. It has to do with the amount of time spent on EE, and what types of EE activities learners are engaged in.

## Diversity in Terms of Amount of EE

The amount of time students spend on EE differs a lot depending on a number of factors, one being age. Based on governmental media reports and our own empirical EE studies in Sweden, we know that the time spent on EE steadily increases with age, at least up until the mid-teens. We know, for instance, that Swedish 10-year-olds average around 7 hours per week on various EE activities, 12-year-olds around 9 hours per week, and 15-year-olds around 18 (Sundqvist, 2011; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012b). Other studies from across the globe reveal similar findings (see Chap. 5), which highlights the fact that in many countries, more time is spent on English in informal, out-of-school contexts than in school. However, it is worth emphasizing that some learners show very little or no interest in English outside of school, even though English may be very easily accessed in society. With that as a caveat, at least for learners at the secondary level and beyond, it nevertheless seems that a substantial part of their free time often is often devoted to EE activities, in particular watching TV, listening to pop music, and playing video games.

The national setting is a second factor contributing to the heterogeneity of the amount of time spent on EE. A large-scale project on media and English involving participants from Belgium, France, Germany, and the Netherlands clearly shows the heavy influence of English in the daily lives of youth (Berns, de Bot, & Hasebrink, 2007), as do similar findings among young people in Indonesia (Lamb, 2007) and university students in France (Sockett & Toffoli, 2012) and Germany (Pickard, 1995), to cite some examples. However, as mentioned above, restricted access to the Internet and/or limited access to English-mediated media or other English language sources will undoubtedly diminish learners' opportunities for engagement in EE activities.

The fact that many L2 English classrooms are diverse in the way described here has pedagogical implications. Within the boundaries of the walls of the L2 English classroom, teachers need to have teaching strategies for assisting both students who are frequently involved in EE activities and those who are not. Regardless of students' involvement in EE, all should experience the teaching as meaningful and motivating. It is crucial that each student feels at ease in the classroom and is given the chance to optimally develop his or her individual level of L2 English competence.

## Diversity in Terms of Types of EE Activities

The L2 English classroom may also be heterogeneous with regard to the types of EE activities learners choose to engage in. For instance, when it comes to playing video games, it is well known that male gamers (of all ages) tend to play much more than female gamers and that the types of games played often follow gender stereotypes (Funk & Buchman, 1996; Greenberg, Sherry, Lachlan, Lucas, & Holmstrom, 2010; Lenhart et al., 2008; Lucas & Sherry, 2004; Sherry, Lucas, Greenberg, & Lachlan, 2006; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012b). It needs not be acknowledged, though, that female gaming worldwide is 'variable enough to suggest that gender is not a reliable predictor of gaming habits' (D. Carr, 2005, p. 465). Moreover, there are numerous genres of video games, and scholars have suggested and empirically shown that some genres may be more beneficial for L2 English learning than others. So-called massively multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs) in particular have attracted attention within the field of SLA and computer-assisted language learning (CALL). In *World of Warcraft*, to give one example, the design, cultural norms for its use, and gamers' own skills interact to afford specific opportunities for L2 learning (Rama, Black, van Es, & Warschauer, 2012; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2012; Thorne, 2008). Thus, online games may be used for L2 English teaching and learning, taking advantage of the medium's *affordances* for both learners who are experienced gamers and those who are not (see Study question 5 below). Interestingly enough, *within* one specific EE activity—digital gameplay—there is thus additional diversity in that some may prefer playing online

with others, whereas others may prefer playing on their own (single player games), or not at all. As a consequence, possible positive effects on L2 English learning are bound to vary depending on game playing habits.

Gaming is only one of many EE activities; other examples are listening to music or watching films or TV series/shows. From the perspective of L2 English learning, there are interesting inherent qualitative differences between the affordances of video games, music, films, and TV series/shows. The number of ecologically valid empirical studies that focus on these four EE activities is still fairly low (i.e., few studies use methods, materials, and settings that approximate the real-life situation that is being examined, such as online gaming in the home). Nevertheless, findings from existing studies indicate great potential for L2 gains. Almost all these studies bring up the pedagogical implications of the findings. Here it may suffice to stress that English teachers can do their job more easily and more efficiently if they acquaint themselves with the EE habits of their students. The pedagogical implications for teaching practice as well as specific results from EE studies are explored in detail in Chap. 5. In sum, the *types* of EE activities bring yet another aspect of diversity to the L2 English classroom that teachers need to acknowledge in order to achieve success. The great demands made by the diverse L2 English classroom on the teacher are discussed further in Chap. 8.

In the next chapter, we turn to various theories of L2 acquisition and present a historic overview of English as a school subject. Moreover, we try to capture the many faces of state-of-the-art L2 English teaching by giving some snapshots of teaching from different parts of the world.

## Suggested Further Reading and Links

- International journals connected with Global English: *English Today*; *English World-Wide*; *World Englishes*, *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*.
- For varying opinions on Global English see, for example, Coetzee-Van Rooy (2006), Crystal (2003), Davidson (2007), Graddol (2004, 2006), Jenkins (2006), Kachru (1992), Kachru, Kachru, and Nelson (2006), McArthur (2004), Modiano (1999), Phillipson (1992), Quirk (1985, 1990), Seidlhofer (2001), Toolan (1997), and Widdowson (1997, 1998).

- Global English: The European Lessons (a debate about the role of English from *The Guardian*)
- Link: [http://www.theguardian.com/GWeekly/Global\\_English/0,8458,400340,00.html](http://www.theguardian.com/GWeekly/Global_English/0,8458,400340,00.html)

## Study Questions

1. EE has an influence on L2 learning.
  - a) During an average week, how much time do you spend on EE activities?
  - b) During an average week, how much time do your students spend on EE activities?
  - c) What types of EE activities do you prefer? Your students?
  - d) What would a lesson plan whose aim is to introduce EE to a group of students look like? Design the lesson (preferably for a group that you are currently teaching or a group you hope to teach in the future) and remember to take the students' level of L2 English proficiency into account. Present the plan to a colleague/peer and ask for feedback!
2. Ortega (2014) suggests there is a need to systematically investigate a range of non-linguistic definitions of bilingualism that enjoy standing and currency outside SLA. What might such non-linguistic definitions be?
3. How would you define 'a successful L2 English learner'?
4. Interestingly, boys and girls tend to have different preferences as regards how L2s should be taught and learned in school, which can partly be explained by powerful stereotypical narratives about what boys and girls respectively are 'good' at, for example, that boys more than girls prefer 'using computers' and 'escaping (...) the normal classroom space' (J. Carr & Pauwels, 2006, p. 80). What other gender stereotypes can you think of with regard to L2 English teaching and learning?
5. The term *affordance* was coined by psychologist James Gibson (1986) and van Lier (2000, p. 252) explains it as 'a particular property of the

environment that is relevant—for good or for ill—to an active, perceiving organism in that environment. An affordance affords further action (but does not cause or trigger it).’ Various types or genres of video games offer different sets of affordances that can benefit L2 English learning in several ways. Among your students who are gamers, what affordances of games do they view as beneficial for L2 English learning?

6. Is Global English a threat or an asset in your national context? What varying opinions are there?

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# 3

## English in Schools from Various National Perspectives

In the previous chapter, we focused on the spread of English as an L2 around the world, and how it is available in so many more places than merely the English language classroom. But how are languages best learned? In this chapter, a historic overview of approaches to L2 teaching and learning is presented. The overview is accompanied by an account of different teaching traditions that have prevailed in diverse parts of the world, as exemplified in official documents stating the role of English. The chapter also gives examples from around the world in order to try and capture the many faces of the state-of-the-art L2 English teaching.

### The History of L2 English Teaching

Views about how languages are best taught and learned have varied over time, and the topic is still an issue for lively debate. Interestingly, the present-day research area of SLA, a truly large and multifaceted research area, did not see the light of day until the 1970s, but as will become

apparent in the following, nothing much is new under the sun as regards language teaching; rather, so-called innovative ways of L2 learning are almost always new versions of methods that have been used at some point in the past.

If we go back a very long time, language was simply used for communicative purposes, and knowing and learning about other languages than one's L1 was neither considered to be an issue for education, nor looked upon as a specific qualification (Hovdhaugen, 1982). Ancient Greece considered philosophers to be the intellectuals of their time, and accordingly, the ones who were concerned with language. Their theories of logic were in part based on linguistic analyses of Greek. Greek was viewed as *the* superior language at that time and was the only one studied at school. There is no evidence that learning and teaching of other languages took place at all, even though there was an awareness of the fact that there were other languages, and even dialects, spoken (Hovdhaugen, 1982).

The first to use a systematic approach to the teaching and learning of an L2 seems to have been Comenius, who in 1654 pioneered in the teaching of vocabulary, and introduced pictures to illustrate words. Vocabulary was arranged according to semantic fields (cf. Aitchison, 1994) centuries before this notion was introduced. The illustrations were used as an aid to stimulate vocabulary acquisition (Kelly, 1969, pp. 17–18).

In the early nineteenth century, when L2 learning, or more precisely Latin learning, became something other than priests and scholars devoted their time to, the *Grammar Translation Method*, GTM, was popular. The GTM aimed at making L2 learning easier, by adapting the traditional Latin-based approach to better suit the requirements of school at that time (Howatt, 1984). A great deal of focus was put on the sentence level, rather than on whole texts, which had previously been the practice. As the name suggests, grammar was considered the most important aspect of language learning, even though, inevitably, vocabulary also played a role. To learn new words, long lists of literary vocabulary were to be remembered (Crystal, 2010). However, the practical usefulness of these vocabulary lists was severely limited by the fact that they were mainly used to exemplify grammatical rules, and they were taken from the classics. The focus of the GTM was indeed to facilitate the understanding of literature written in the target language. Thus, the GTM was never really

viewed as a method through which the language would be learned for communicative purposes.

A reaction against the GTM came later in the nineteenth century, when the *Natural Method* was introduced. Adherents of the Natural Method believed that an L2 was learned through imitation, that is, in ‘the way in which a child learned his language from his family and environment’ (Kelly, 1969, p. 11), that is, naturally. Thus, the idea was that vocabulary as well as grammar were acquired by the learner simply through exposure to the target language. In classrooms using the Natural Method, only the target language was used, in spoken as well as written form.

As a follow-up to the Natural Method, the *Direct Method* was developed as a consequence of the Reform Movement in the 1880s, whose aim was to reduce the Latin focus and to introduce new concepts and ideas about the teaching of modern languages (Simensen, 1998). Whereas the formal linguistic system had previously been the main concern in language teaching, the Direct Method focused on the spoken language. Even though the Direct Method was similar to the Natural Method, systematic work with vocabulary was part of the teaching practice, new words being explained by means of paraphrasing, synonyms, or even by the use of body language (cf. Boyd Zimmerman, 1997, pp. 8–9). Pictures to illustrate vocabulary were also used to a large extent, thus bringing back the old method devised by Comenius in the seventeenth century. At times the Natural Method and the Direct Method are used synonymously. It should be noted, however, that the Direct Method developed out of the Natural Method and applied much more rigor and structure to the teaching of languages, thereby adapting the Natural Method to better suit the classroom situation (Howatt, 1984; Kelly, 1969).

## The Audiolingual Method

In the mid-twentieth century, *the Audiolingual Method*, ALM, started to gain considerable ground. Just like the Direct Method, its focus is on spoken language but whereas in the Direct Method, vocabulary acquisition takes place in authentic encounters with the target language, the ALM uses grammatical sentence patterns in order to drill the learners. Heavily

influenced by behavioral psychology as outlined by the well-known American psychologist B.F. Skinner, the ALM was believed to reduce the influence of the learner's L1 by constant repetition of grammatical sentences in the target language. In this way, the learner would learn the language habits of the NS of the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). An offshoot of the ALM was the *Situational Approach* where lexical items were taught according to what was required in various common, everyday situations, such as a visit to the post office or a doctor's appointment (Schmitt, 2000).

## The Cognitive Code Approach

While resulting in some actual language learning, the ALM failed to a large extent to prepare the learner for real-world use of the target language. Noam Chomsky, one of the most influential linguists of all times, argued that the ALM was not at all an efficient way of learning a new language, as the method is based on repetition of pattern sentences. Real language, Chomsky argued, builds on the creation of an infinite amount of new utterances. These thoughts led to the *Cognitive Code Approach*, which took as its point of departure Chomsky's view of the individual's cognitive, or thinking processes, as being at the core of language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The Cognitive Code Approach, in turn, was the starting point for the development of several teaching methods, among them the *Silent Method*. While sounding completely counterintuitive to many present-day communicatively focused language learning curricula, the Silent Method was based on the principle that learning is superordinate to teaching. Thus, the teacher takes a subordinate role to the learner, and, by visual gestures and signs, directs the learner to the correct target language form.

Yet another approach to language learning is the so-called *Whole-person Learning*, where it is deemed important that the learner is viewed as a whole person, and that learning takes place in a supportive, trustworthy, and cooperative environment. Another important aspect of the whole-person approach is the view of learning as a dynamic and creative process (Taylor, 2010).

## The Comprehension Approach

In what is called the *Comprehension Approach*, contrary to all previously mentioned methods, the point of departure is listening comprehension. The underlying hypothesis is that learning starts with understanding and then gradually moves on to production. The underlying principles of the Comprehension Approach are found in, for instance, the *Lexical Approach* and *Total Physical Response*, TPR. The Lexical Approach, suggested by Lewis (1993), builds on the assumption that lexis, rather than grammar, is at the core of language, and that language instead of consisting of lexicalized grammar in fact consists of grammaticalized lexis. Thus, according to the Lexical Approach, the primary organizing principles of any meaning-centered syllabus should be lexis. In TPR, the focus is again on the spoken language and vocabulary. Moreover, just as with the Silent Method, silence is used but here it is the learners who initially are silent. The teacher gives instruction orally and by physical movement ('stand up'—the teacher stands up, 'sit down'—the teacher sits down). The idea is that at the start, language learning is receptive and learner focus is on understanding what is being communicated. Afterwards, with time, the focus shifts to language production and use.

In sum, all of the approaches to L2 learning described thus far focus on grammar and vocabulary in one way or another. In the 1960s, however, when Dell Hymes (1966) coined the term *communicative competence*, communication came to the fore as a key feature of language. This led to new foci in language teaching and learning in the 1970s and onward. The most well-known among communicative approaches is probably the *Immersion Method* (introduced already in the 1960s).

## The Integration of Content and Language

In this section, consideration is given in some depth to a number of approaches to L2 teaching and learning where content and language are integrated with one another. The most appropriate place to start is in Canada, where in the mid-1960s, an 'innovative' approach to language teaching and learning called the Immersion Method was introduced.



The basic idea was that by immersing the language learner in the target language, learning would take place. However, as we have seen above, this was not a new idea at all; on the contrary, this was the basis of the Natural and the Direct Methods. In fact, the idea of immersing individuals in a language in order for them to learn it has for centuries been a way of imposing a majority language on citizens in colonized territories, or on linguistic minorities within a country, and was even used by the Romans as they extended their Empire to include new territories. The only language taught then was Latin, which was used by the ruling class and, consequently, implemented in all educational settings throughout the growing empire. Of course, the Immersion Method is not implemented in order to impose languages on anybody. Rather, the method was initiated by English-speaking parents in Canada, who saw that their children were not achieving acceptable levels of proficiency in French, one of two official languages in Canada. Realizing the need for future generations to be able to speak both official languages, the guardians called for improvements to be made, and the result was the Immersion Method. At the time, it represented a highly unusual approach to teaching and learning an L2, and it has indeed been viewed as innovative in modern times.

In the Canadian context, the definition of immersion teaching is ‘a program where half or more of the instruction occurs in the second language’ (Swain & Lapkin, 1981, p. 3). And innovative it is, of course, as the focus is not on grammar and vocabulary, but rather on the communicative aspect of language. The original form of immersion in Canada was early total immersion, which means that children in kindergarten are immersed in the target language; that is, French. All of the instruction is carried out in French until grade 2 or 3, when English is introduced as a separate school subject. Then the number of subjects taught in English increases over the years, and by grade 6, the amount of French and English used during the school day is approximately 50/50.

After the introduction of the early total immersion program, other types of immersion programs were implemented in Canada, most notably, early partial, middle, and late immersion. In the early partial immersion program, French and English are used in parallel and to an equal extent throughout the school system. In practice, this means that that half the school day is conducted in English and half in French.

The middle immersion program starts in grade 4 or 5, while the late immersion program begins in grade 6, 7, or 8. Students study French as a separate subject during the pre-immersion years and then French is used as the medium of instruction from the start of the immersion program and onward. The amount of instruction given in French varies depending on the school.

These basic forms of immersion are flexible and have been used in a number of idiosyncratic ways, each one catering to local needs and possibilities. The results of the immersion methods introduced in Canada have continuously been closely monitored, and there are well over 1,000 studies dedicated to these programs (Cummins, 1991). On the whole, the results are clearly positive. Broadly speaking, there are three main areas of interest regarding the effects of immersion: first, the effect on the student's L1 skills; second, the effect on the student's skills in the target language; and third, the effect on the student's ability to assimilate the content of the subjects taught through the target language. Below, a brief summary of the main findings is given.

Concerning the effects on students' skills in their L1, temporary lags have been observed among immersion students as compared to their peers. However, after a certain period (depending on the program), the immersion students seem to score at an equal or superior level to their peers (Cummins & Swain, 1986; Swain & Lapkin, 1981). As regards skills in the target language, it is notable that the results vary according to the type of immersion program: The best results have been obtained by the early total immersion students who achieve near-native proficiency in listening and reading comprehension. However, native-like skills have not been reported in speaking and writing. In other words, students' receptive skills are better than their productive skills (see also Lapkin, Swain, & Smith, 2002). Among early partial immersion students, results have tended to be similar to those of the early total immersion students, but they have been achieved at a later stage. Late immersion students have consistently lagged behind early immersion students as regards skills in the target language.

The third issue concerns the academic achievement in the subjects taught in the target language. Swain and Lapkin (1981, p. 129) conclude that '[i]mmersion teaching has not had negative effects on the students'

general intellectual development, and in the case of early total French immersion, may lead to its enhancement.' Whereas early total immersion students perform as well as, and in some cases better than, their English-taught control peers, early partial and late immersion students occasionally show inferior results. This may be attributed to their initially limited knowledge of the target language. It also seems as though these differences disappear in the long run (Cummins & Swain, 1986).

Newer studies have shown that for late immersion students, analytical language abilities play a major role in the results of their L2 studies, whereas for early immersion students, memory abilities are of greater importance (Harley & Hart, 1997). These findings, however, may be more closely linked to age than to the type of immersion program, and the fact that 'an adolescent onset to intensive language learning will be associated with a more analytical orientation to learning than learning that begins at a younger age' (Harley & Hart, 2002, p. 327).

## CLIL

Following the principles introduced in immersion teaching, a number of approaches have been introduced where language and content are integrated. These include, among others, *content-based language teaching*, *bilingual education*, *teaching content through a foreign language*, and *language medium teaching*. In Europe, the term *Content and Language Integrated Learning*, CLIL, has become widespread. It covers all sorts of teaching where a language other than the L1 of the students is used as the medium of instruction (cf. Hartiala, 2000; Marsh, 2002; Nikula, 1997; Nixon, 2000). In a globalized world, it is no longer enough to know one's L1. To be able to function in many areas of society, proficiency in other languages is considered necessary. Being able to speak more languages than one's L1 was a concern raised by the European Commission in the 1990s. In 1995, the Commission issued a White Paper stressing the need for European citizens to know 1+2 languages, where '1' is the L1, and '2' represents two other languages spoken within the European Union (European Commission, 1995). As a way of catering to this demand for greater language proficiency, many schools started to implement

CLIL. The overall aim of the CLIL method is to integrate the learning of content, for instance math, with the acquisition of an L2. Accordingly, the exposure to the target language becomes much greater than what is ever possible in regular language teaching in the normal school setting, where typically only two to three hours per week are devoted to language learning. In many cases of CLIL, the target language is English, but any language could be used as the medium of instruction. For example, Catalan, is commonly used as the medium of instruction in Spain (see, e.g., Areanas I Sampera, 1994), while Gaelic is used in Scotland (Macneil, 1994), and Swedish in Finland (Björklund, 1994). In Sweden, the majority of CLIL classes use English as the medium of instruction (Nixon, 2000) but there are also CLIL classes in German (Dentler, 2002, 2003), as well as in Dutch, Finnish, French, and Spanish (Nixon, 2000).

Interestingly, whereas the immersion method was the original role model for CLIL in Europe, CLIL is now being adopted by many as an umbrella term, under which immersion is one approach among others (Cenoz, Genesee, & Gorter, 2014). This use of CLIL is also adhered to in this book.

The motives for using CLIL vary. In Canada, the primary aim of immersion was to make the existing societal bilingualism individual bilingualism as well. The term *societal bilingualism* refers to a state or a nation consisting of several territories of unilingual individuals; Belgium and Switzerland are examples of such states. *Individual bilingualism*, by contrast, is the ability of one individual to use two languages (Baetens Beardsmore, 1982). Thus, speakers of the majority language, English, were also aiming at achieving various levels of fluency in the minority language, that is, at functional and/or additive bilingualism. *Functional bilingualism* means that a person 'is able to accomplish a restricted set of activities in a second language with perhaps only a small variety of grammatical rules at his disposal and a limited lexis appropriate to the task in hand' (Baetens Beardsmore, 1982, pp. 12–13). *Additive bilingualism*, as defined by Lambert (Swain & Lapkin, 1981, p. 203), 'refer[s] to the situation where an individual's first language is a socially dominant and prestigious one, and in no danger of replacement when a second language is learned; individuals add another socially relevant language to their repertoire at no cost to their first language

competence.’ The USA is an example of a country having totally different reasons from those in Canada for choosing to use CLIL. With a large number of immigrants (cf. R.G. Tucker, 1991), there exists a need to assimilate these people as quickly and as efficiently as possible into American culture and society. One way of doing so is to have immigrant children attend so-called *transitional school* (cf. Nehr, 2002). In transitional school, the aim is for the child to make a gradual transition from the L1 to English, in order to enable him or her to transfer into mainstream American education. This type of motive, where speakers of a minority language need to learn the majority language, is common practice in many countries around the globe.

Using Sweden as a case in point, one of the largest immigrant groups to Sweden hails from Finland. The situation for Finnish immigrants living in Sweden has been extensively researched by Skutnabb-Kangas and others (e.g., Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson, 1985, 1989; Skutnabb-Kangas & Toukomaa, 1976). Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976) argue that the social situation of the immigrants may lead to *semilingualism* on the part of the individual owing to social deprivation. The minority groups do not have access to the majority’s everyday activities and thus are deprived of the linguistic input necessary to be able to master the language. At the same time, the native language is not developed, due to lack of natural input from other areas of society. The result is that the individual cannot function adequately in either of the two languages (Baetens Beardsmore, 1982). This, in turn, is due to the fact that the learners’ L1 is less prestigious than the high-status majority language in the new country. Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomaa (1976, p. 19) summarize the dichotomy of majority-language children being exposed to a minority-language versus minority-language children being exposed to a majority language:

If middle class children from a linguistic majority, whose own language has high prestige, voluntarily choose to be instructed in L2, the result is bilingualism and school achievement in accordance with the children’s abilities. But if working class children from a linguistic minority, whose L1 has low prestige, have to accept instruction in L2, the result may be semilingualism and poor school achievement.

A third motive for using some type of CLIL method is to enhance the learning of a *foreign* language (see Chap. 2). In this case, neither a majority nor a minority language is involved, but rather a language is deemed important for learners to acquire.

Thus, there are three main reasons for using CLIL. First, there are individuals living in a societally bilingual area wishing to become bilingual in the two languages. Second, there are immigrants needing to learn the majority language in their new country. Third, the CLIL method is viewed as an efficient way of enhancing the learning of L2s. Who or what, then, should decide if, when, and how the CLIL method should be implemented?

When immersion first started in Canada, as mentioned, the initiative to change directions in the teaching of French came from the parents of the children involved. Such initiatives from guardians are much less common today (cf. Huigbretse, 1994). Instead, CLIL initiatives may come from individual teachers or school administrators who, in one way or another, have come across and begun to accept immersion as a viable teaching method. In some cases, the initiative comes from a government body.

An example of state-initiated CLIL is the case of the Philippines, a multilingual nation. Tucker (1991) describes a new policy adopted there in 1974, which involved the use of both English and Filipino, the language of national unity. According to this policy, the children were to be introduced to English and Filipino as L2s in grades 1 and 2, and from grade 3 onward these languages were to be used as the media of instruction. However, results indicated that the academic achievement of these students was far from satisfactory. The downtrend in the educational achievement was attributed to a number of factors. For instance, many teachers lacked competence in the content material they were to teach; many of the teachers who were to use Filipino as the medium of instruction were not proficient enough in the language and there was a scarcity of teaching materials available. The Philippine experiment is an example of how good intentions may result in a negative outcome unless there is adequate planning and available resources.

A more positive example of governmental involvement in language teaching can be found in Nigeria (R.G. Tucker, 1991). In 1970, it was decided that English should be the medium of instruction from secondary

level and onward. This was done via intensive in-service and pre-service teacher training programs and the development of adequate teaching materials. The results of this project were overwhelmingly positive. The children in the experimental group outperformed their control peers in virtually all of the tests specifically designed to evaluate the project. It was also noted that the parents of the experimental group children were involved in their children's school work to a much higher degree than was the case for the control group children. What was not accounted for, however, was whether parental involvement was a result of the educational program or whether the educational success was in fact a result of the high degree of parental involvement, which, according to Huigbretse (1994, p. 151) 'appears to be a necessary condition for successful implementation of an innovation like immersion-education' (see also Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay, 1999). Furthermore, the results may, to a certain extent, reflect the so-called Hawthorne effect, that is, the mere fact of belonging to a select group yields improved results (Mayo, 1933).

The CLIL situation in the Netherlands can be used to illustrate how parents and teachers together may initiate the implementation of the method. Since the 1970s, so-called *Internationally Oriented Schools* have been in existence in the Netherlands. These schools were originally set up to accommodate the needs of the growing international population in the country. However, the success of these schools was noted by parents and teachers in ordinary schools who wished for their own children and students to become part of this successful project, even though they did not belong to the international community. Thus, bilingual streams have been introduced in an attempt to copy the successful recipe of Internationally Oriented Schools. The emphasis in these bilingual streams is placed not only on the use of English as the medium of instruction in school, but also on extracurricular activities such as the production of a newspaper in English and keeping in contact with peers in England through videos and letters (Huigbretse, 1994). The Netherlands continue to be at the forefront of CLIL implementation in the mandatory educational system. Not only are tailor-made CLIL courses for teachers required and offered regularly along with other school development measures, there is also a detailed accreditation system in place requiring schools to fulfill certain criteria in order to be allowed to refer to themselves as CLIL schools ([www.europeesplatform.nl](http://www.europeesplatform.nl)).

As we have seen, immersion teaching in Canada has been closely followed and monitored through extensive research programs. This may, at least in part, account for the fact that the Canadian method is so well-known. It seems that a great deal less is known about the equally successful teaching programs in Europe. However, there has been an increase in awareness of and interest in the CLIL method (see, e.g., Marsh, Maljers, & Hartiala, 2001; Wode, 1999). Some of the European projects are described below.

In Germany, bilingual education dates back to the early 1960s—the same time as the immersion method saw the light of day in Canada—when post-war reconciliation between France and Germany was an issue. In an attempt to promote linguistic as well as cultural bonds between the two countries, German–French bilingual sections were set up in schools in Germany (Mäsch, 1993). Over the years, these first attempts to combine content and language learning developed into what is now called the German model. It has been declared as ‘exemplary for Europe’ (Mäsch, 1993, p. 156). There are two variants of the German model, the additive and the integrative, the latter being by far the most common. A specific feature of the German integrative model is that the teacher is, ideally, a native French speaker with qualifications for teaching bilingually who also has a German teaching certification in the specific subject they teach. The pupils start with reinforced foreign language instruction in grade 5. From grade 7 on, the subjects of geography, civics, and history (art and physical education are optional CLIL subjects) are taught through the medium of the foreign language (in this case French). The reason for specifying that these particular subjects be taught in the foreign language is that they ‘have a particular significance, given their affinity with the partner culture’ whereas ‘[n]atural science subjects have no significant relationship with the culture of the partner country’ (Mäsch, 1993, p. 162). The aim of these bilingual classes is then to ‘contribute to a better understanding and awareness of other European cultures and to go well beyond a mastery of their respective languages’ (Mäsch, 1993, p. 161). Students who complete the full bilingual program and pass the school-leaving examination (Abitur) with a ‘bilingual mark’ are eligible ‘to study at university in either France or Germany, already giving them a linguistic and “intercultural” preparation for their future professional lives’ (Christ, 1996, p. 87).



Belgium and Luxemburg are both countries with several languages spoken within their borders. In Belgium, Dutch, English, French, and German, plus a number of non-indigenous languages, such as Italian and Spanish, are spoken (Leman, 1993). Luxemburg hosts three major languages: French, German, and Luxembourgish, as well as large language minority groups, primarily Italian and Portuguese (Lebrun & Baetens Beardsmore, 1993). Each of these countries has a long tradition of multilingual schools with well-established schemata for how and when to introduce new target languages into the curriculum. The success of these types of school seems undisputed. However, as Lebrun and Baetens Beardsmore (1993) point out, they depend on certain conditions such as the promotion of the target language both as a subject in its own right and as a medium of instruction, and involvement in curricular as well as extracurricular activities. Leman (1993) emphasizes the fact that these multilingual schools exist in a multilingual and multicultural context.

Spain also hosts a large number of CLIL schools. Many of the autonomous regions in Spain support CLIL, as it is seen as a way to improve Spanish school children's proficiency in other languages, primarily English. Research shows that the effects of CLIL on L2 English are indeed positive. General language competence was found to be higher among CLIL than non-CLIL students in a study of primary level students (Jiménez Catalán, Ruiz de Zarobe, & Cenoz, 2006). Among slightly older children, Ruiz de Zarobe (2008) investigated written and oral proficiency, and found that those involved in CLIL outperformed those who were not (cf. also Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). However, when the focus was on the formal aspects of language proficiency, several studies have revealed no apparent effects of CLIL (Martínez Adrián & Gutiérrez Mangado, 2015).

In Norway, the first CLIL classes were formed in 1993, with the support of the Norwegian Ministry of Research and Education (Hellekjaer, 2002). Two requirements for a Norwegian CLIL class are that the target language is used for at least 30 % of the total teaching time, and that student participation is voluntary. When a student has completed such a course, it is specifically noted on the school diploma. As far as examinations and curricula are concerned, however, the requirements are the same as for ordinary students. There are no updated statistics available

on the number of CLIL classes in Norway, but a rough estimate is that only some 20 schools offer classes using the CLIL method (Hellekjaer, personal communication).

Finland is an officially bilingual country, with Finnish as the majority and Swedish as the minority language. In 1987, Swedish immersion was introduced (Helle, 1994), and the development of linguistic skills among the children involved has been closely monitored ever since. For instance, Björklund (1994) concluded that knowledge of Swedish vocabulary among a group of immersion students in grade 5 was superior to that of traditional Finnish learners of Swedish. Furthermore, the results for the immersion students were similar to those of their Swedish-speaking peers. In a study of very young children in kindergarten, Björklund, Mård-Miettinen, and Savijärvi (2014) found that the children, almost from the start, used certain L2 utterances, typically regarded as formulaic speech, thus indicating that the L2 was being used productively early on in the classroom. A common fear is that CLIL provision may negatively affect the development and proficiency in the learners' L1; in the Finnish case studies have shown that CLIL with Swedish as the target language has no detrimental effect on learners' levels of Finnish (Björklund, 2011; Vesterbacka, 1991).

As Swedish immersion courses were already in place in Finland, the introduction of CLIL with English as the medium of instruction was a natural next step to take. Since the early 1990s, CLIL in English has become increasingly popular, and the University of Jyväskylä even has an educational research center that has grown particularly important for its research on the CLIL method. Numerous studies have been published on the implementation of CLIL, from a practical, an administrative, and an educational perspective. However, studies accounting for actual results are scarce (Marsh, personal communication). One exception is Järvinen (1999), who analyzes the linguistic development of young CLIL pupils as compared to their peers who study L2 English. The children were introduced to CLIL in the first grade. It was shown that the CLIL group was able to produce full sentences in grade 3, which the control group failed to do even at the end of grade 5. Järvinen's conclusions were that it is important that CLIL teachers have high-level language proficiency, and that the fairly short time devoted to CLIL

(25 % of class time) is 'sufficient to trigger their [the learners'] implicit acquisition of language' (Järvinen, 1999).

In Sweden, CLIL has existed since the late 1970s, but in contrast to the mainly positive outcomes observed in other countries, CLIL using English as the target language does not seem to yield L2 English learning benefits. Admittedly, comparatively little research has been devoted to the outcomes of CLIL in Sweden, but the studies that exist show that: (1) CLIL students' level of L2 English proficiency does not develop beyond that of non-CLIL students (Sylvén, 2004/2010; Washburn, 1997); (2) their L1 may be negatively affected (Lim Falk, 2008); and (3) the content knowledge in CLIL subjects may be compromised (Washburn, 1997). A large-scale, longitudinal research project into the effects of CLIL in Sweden reveals similar results; whereas CLIL students indeed perform significantly above their non-CLIL peers in tests of English, both receptively and productively, the fact is that they do so already before CLIL provision starts (Sylvén & Ohlander, 2014). In addition, CLIL students are significantly more motivated for L2 learning from the beginning, that is, prior to CLIL (Sylvén & Thompson, 2015; Thompson & Sylvén, 2015). Looking into short essay-like history exam answers written by CLIL students, Lim Falk (2015) observed that both Swedish and English were used. The questions were asked in Swedish; however, given the fact that English had been the medium of instruction during an entire school year, it was surprising that the students used the L1 to such a great extent in answering and, further, that overall achievement as measured in these essays was lower than expected. These outcomes of CLIL in the Swedish context may seem counterintuitive, but Sylvén (2013) points to four possible explanations for this state of affairs. First, there is no policy regulating CLIL provision in Sweden; rather, CLIL comes in many shapes and forms, all idiosyncratic depending on the individual school or even teacher (Lim Falk, 2008; Yoxsimer Paulsrud, 2014). Second, there is no CLIL teacher education, meaning that teachers who work in CLIL contexts need to invent their own methods, come up with their own ideas about how to teach the content of their subject through English, decide on forms of assessment (Reierstam, 2015), and so on. Third, CLIL is generally introduced at the high school level, grade level 10. Compared with many other countries implementing CLIL, such as Spain and Canada

for instance, this is very late, and in fact, may be too late for learners to reap any benefits from it. Fourth, the amount of English encountered by young people in everyday life in Sweden is overwhelming (Sundqvist, 2009, 2011; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012a), and it may be that getting a few hours per day of extra input in the form of content teaching simply is not enough for progress to be made. In Chap. 5, we will return to the importance of the fourth point, which indeed is the focus of this book.

This section has, in some depth, dealt with the integration of content and learning in various forms and in different countries. The specific interest paid to this type of L2 provision is warranted as there are in fact many similarities between CLIL and certain types of EE (see Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012c, for a detailed account). Primarily, in both CLIL and EE, the language through which a certain content (a school subject or the rules of a computer game, for instance) is conveyed is merely a vehicle to communicate such content, and not the actual focus of attention as is the case in regular L2 education. In the remainder of the book, the possibilities inherent in these situations are focused.

## The Flipped Classroom

In traditional L2 classrooms, learning typically takes place with a teacher in charge, who often gives homework to be done in preparation for the next lesson. For some time, though, the concept of the *flipped classroom*, that is, the reversing of this arrangement, has attracted considerable attention. According to one definition, which captures the essence of this idea, the flipped classroom is ‘a new pedagogical method, which employs asynchronous video lectures and practice problems as homework, and active, group-based problem solving activities in the classroom’ (Bishop & Verleger, 2013, p. 2). In other words, what used to be activities done in the classroom are now done at home by the learners themselves, and what used to be done as homework is now the focus in the classroom. This idea has emerged as an effect of the extensive computerization taking place in many places around the world, where there is a computer available in virtually every home. The basic notion behind flipping the classroom is that learning activities requiring human

interaction (such as problem solving) should take place in the classroom, in the presence of a teacher, and those that can be automated (such as instructional lectures) should be presented to the learner at a time and place he or she finds appropriate. Lectures, to be followed by practice exercises not requiring interaction, can be video recorded and enjoyed by the learner in front of the computer at home. This leaves precious classroom time for hands-on work with real problems where the teacher can focus on various individual learner needs.

As regards language teaching and learning—the focus of this book—the flipped classroom offers many possibilities in that it enables the combination of several, seemingly incompatible, learning theories. For example, the behavioristic approach to language learning, which stipulates repetition and automatization, has informed several of the teaching methods outlined above (for instance, the GTM and the ALM). These methods have been frowned upon by others who, for instance, advocate the communicative approach, where little attention is paid to grammar mistakes unless they lead to communication breakdown. However, in the L2 learning process both approaches may be necessary and, indeed, useful. This is especially true in the flipped classroom where both can actually work in tandem. In Chap. 8, we will return to the flipped classroom and supply practical examples.

## Some Present-Day L2 English Curricula in Various Countries

Thus far in this chapter, we have looked at L2 teaching and learning from a historic point of view, and touched on some of the more well-known approaches. This section is devoted to state-of-the-art language teaching, and we provide ‘snap-shots’ from a number of countries around the world, showing how L2 English is taught in various educational settings. We will start by looking at several European countries, then move on to Asia and Africa, and finally, end up in South America.

In some cases, in spite of close geographical proximity, very different national approaches to English are found. For example, Sweden and Spain are both European countries, but as will become evident, their contexts as

regards English education do not share many commonalities. In Sweden, English is officially introduced in the first grade, but formal assessment is not done until at the end of grade 6. In conformity with curriculum guidelines, the focus is on communicative competence. Students do, however, not only encounter English in school; in Swedish society English abounds, with, for instance, subtitled English TV programs and films. The ubiquity of English in everyday life is also acknowledged as an important source of input into the English curriculum. Swedish learners of English scored among the very best in the 2012 European survey of languages; only Malta, where English is an official language, did better (European Commission, 2012).

By comparison, in Spain a foreign language (which most often is English) is introduced in the first cycle of primary school at the start of which the children are six years old. Assessment and grading are done regularly on a scale from *insufficient*, via *sufficient*, *good*, *very good* to *outstanding*, and children who do not reach satisfactory levels repeat a year in order to catch up. Focus in the early years is on communicative competence, and at secondary level the official documents state that learners should ‘understand and be able to express themselves in one or several foreign languages in an appropriate manner’ ([www.mecd.gob.es](http://www.mecd.gob.es), our translation). Because the autonomous regions are free to implement the national curriculum as they deem best, there is great variation in schools around Spain as to methods used and the content of English as a school subject. Moreover, in comparison with Sweden, students’ exposure to English outside of the educational setting is generally low. English TV shows and films are dubbed rather than subtitled, and English is not necessarily encountered in naturally occurring everyday life situations. In the European survey of language competencies (European Commission, 2012), Spain scored among the lowest as regards English proficiency.

In another European country, the Netherlands, primary school is mandatory from the age of five, but many children start already when they are four. The core curriculum of primary school includes English, and the children are assessed for progress each year. Just as in Sweden, chances of encountering English outside school are great; for example, all English productions on TV are subtitled, so exposure to aural input of English starts very early.

An example from the Asian context is Japan, where the teaching of English in school according to official guidelines often seems to be at odds with practices employed in the classroom. In 2011, a new curriculum was introduced where a communicative approach to English was promoted (The Japanese Ministry of Education, 2011). However, it seems as though this has been more difficult to implement in the classroom setting than anticipated by authorities, and the main reason appears to be washback effects of high school and university entrance exams. In Japan, as in many other Asian countries, the competition for higher education is fierce, and therefore entrance exams throughout the educational system are decisive in the lives of young learners. This, in turn, means that a great deal of focus in the English language classroom is put on test-taking skills; in other words, teachers are 'teaching to the test.' Of the approaches described above, the grammar-translation method seems to be the one most commonly used in present-day Japan. Using translation as a method in SLA invariably also means the use of learners' L1, in this case Japanese, in the language classroom, which further reduces opportunities for input in the target language English ([www.japantoday.com](http://www.japantoday.com)).

Another Asian country, Indonesia, has attracted some scholarly attention as regards its English education policy (Lamb, 2004b, 2007, 2012). Officially, English is not introduced as a subject in school until junior high school, but many schools seem to give in to parental pressure and introduce it in the earlier years. Furthermore, it is not uncommon that students take English courses at private academies in their spare time (Lamb, 2004b). In school, the teaching tradition seems to be very traditional, much in line with the GTM described above. In addition, teachers' level of English tends to be low. Lamb (2012) argues that there is a danger of a rift being created in Indonesian society between those who can afford private lessons and/or whose parents are encouraging toward L2 English learning and those who are less well-off and/or who do not have parental support.

In Malaysia, English is a core subject already at primary level. At the end of primary school, in grade 6, there is a general test for all students called 'The Primary School Achievement Test.' Among the skills tested are written and oral comprehension in both Malay and English. In upper secondary education, students who opt for the academically more

demanding Science and Arts Stream continue with their English studies, whereas English is not obligatory for those who choose the Technical and Vocational Stream (<http://www.moe.gov.my/en/pelajaran-rendah>).

For children in Morocco, on the African continent, the introduction of English varies depending on whether they are enrolled in public or private schools. In the public sphere, the subject of English starts in the ninth grade, with the main focus on reading and writing. Oral communication does not seem to be dealt with in the classroom at all, whereas a great deal of attention is paid to vocabulary and grammar. Thus, that appears similar to the situation in Japan and Malaysia. However, in the private schools, English is already encountered in the third grade, often in the form of songs and chants, as well as in learning the crafts. For these young learners, basic communicative skills are in focus. Formal assessment is obligatory from the ninth grade on for all students, regardless of school form. As regards the possibility of encountering English outside of school, it seems as though satellite TV channels are the main source for such input, as English productions are subtitled (Abdelhak Saquiny, personal communication).

In Brazil, Portuguese is the official L1 and English, as the first L2, is normally introduced in grade 6 ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education\\_in\\_Brazil](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Brazil)), and that is also the grade level in which formal assessment starts. However, there is not a standard curriculum for the country as a whole but rather varies between the 26 autonomous states (Stanek, 2013). In some places, English is taught to children as young as three years old. The main focus tends to be on grammar and vocabulary, and writing. Outside of school, there is not much exposure to English, apart from what is accessible through the internet and cable TV, and songs played on the radio (Flávia Martins, personal communication).

In sum, the implementation of L2 English varies greatly throughout the world. Many countries favor mainly a communicative approach, whereas others put the emphasis on grammar translation. There are also differences as regards *when* the teaching of English is introduced. Some children encounter English when they start first grade (or even earlier), while others are a few years into primary school before they begin studying English. It should be mentioned, though, that research reveals a global trend: it is becoming more and more common to start formal L2



English instruction early, often due to parental pressure (cf. Butler, 2014a, 2014b; Enever, 2011). But is ‘the younger, the better’ the right way to go? We will discuss the relevance of age for L2 learning in Chap. 4.

## The Common European Framework of Reference

As is evident from the previous sections in this chapter, approaches to and implementation of L2 teaching and learning vary greatly from country to country. How then is one individual able to know how his or her level of proficiency compares with that of another individual from a different country? *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*, the CEFR, is precisely such a reference tool. The CEFR was originally developed in order to guide curriculum designers, teaching material developers, teachers, students, and others in their efforts to target certain proficiency levels, and to allow for comparison of proficiency levels across national boundaries. Its first version, based on decades of research and the development of language education, was published by the Council of Europe in 2001 (Council of Europe, 2001). Since then, it has been extended and developed, and to date has been translated into 39 languages. The CEFR website offers a range of information materials and useful links in connection with the background, usage, and development of the interconnected parts of the framework ([www.coe.int/lang-CEFR](http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR)).

The CEFR is action-oriented and firmly rooted in the communicative approach to language learning and teaching with an emphasis on functional language skills. Furthermore, it is learner centered. It outlines six levels of language proficiency, namely A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2, where A indicates *basic*, B *independent*, and C *proficient use*. In addition, there are three plus levels, A2+, B1+, and B2+. For the purpose of validating an individual’s level of competence, scales are available for a range of different language-related activities. The three overarching areas are communicative strategies, communicative language competencies, and communicative activities. These areas are, in turn, divided into a number of domains; for instance, communicative activities comprise reception,

production, interaction, and mediation, which in turn are further specified while interaction can be spoken or written, and spoken interaction can entail conversation, formal discussion, informal discussion, and so on. For each individual competence, the CEFR offers descriptive scales with so-called *can-do*-statements.

The CEFR has been highly influential in a number of areas. One obvious use of the CEFR is in the domain of testing, where a number of test scores are directly or indirectly interpreted in relation to the CEFR levels. This is the case for tests such as Cambridge English Language Assessment (<http://www.cambridgeenglish.org>), IELTS ([http://www.ielts.org/researchers/common\\_european\\_framework.aspx](http://www.ielts.org/researchers/common_european_framework.aspx)), and ACTFL (<http://www.languagetesting.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/12/ACTFL%20Assessments%20Brochure.pdf>). Moreover, CEFR has also influenced the design of L2 curricula, teaching materials, and learning programs. Little (2005) describes how the CEFR was used as a starting point in the development of an English as a second language curriculum at primary level in Ireland, with adapted and rewritten descriptors in order to meet the needs for that particular target group of learners. In Finland, the Finnish National Board of Education refers to the CEFR when describing their assessment practices, and in Sweden, even though not explicitly stated in the curricula, the various proficiency levels are aligned with the CEFR. Not surprisingly, a decade and a half after the emergence of CEFR, there is also a whole body of research focusing on its various aspects.

## The European Language Portfolio

An offshoot of the CEFR, the *European Language Portfolio* (ELP), was developed and introduced around the turn of the century (Little, 2002). The ELP is seen as a companion to the CEFR and is a pedagogic tool which, having the individual learner as its focus and point of departure, aims to increase his/her awareness of the learning process. It is primarily intended to motivate learners to learn languages as well as to document attained language proficiencies and intercultural contacts. There are several versions of the ELP, each one targeting a specific age

group or population group. For instance, in Ireland, there is an ELP for immigrants aimed at facilitating their learning of the language of the host country, and in Norway there is one for adult migrants. In Sweden, there is an ELP for very young learners, aged 6–11, one for learners aged 12–16, and one for the older adolescents aged 16 and above. While perhaps primarily targeting language learners still in school, the ELP can also be of use for employment purposes by providing presumptive employers with a detailed description of the job-seeker's language and intercultural skills. Further, the ELP can be used for language training within the workplace. In connection with mobility, the ELP can be of great use when evaluating a presumptive candidate's level of language proficiency, be it for employment or educational purposes. At the European Centre for Modern Languages website, many more examples and in-depth information are available (<http://elp-implementation.ecml.at/>).

In Chap. 6, we go into more detail about the benefits of the ELP, and exemplify how it can be of use in the everyday school context.

## Suggested Further Reading and Links

For those of you who are interested in learning more about language learning historically, we can recommend Kelly (1969), *25 centuries of language teaching*, which is a goldmine of information about all imaginable details on the topic. In addition, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson's (2011) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* is an accessible overview offering both brief descriptions of approaches to L2 teaching and practical examples showing how they are employed.

## Study Questions

The study questions in this chapter focus on the differences in the English curricula that have been highlighted, and encourage readers to further their own knowledge about other countries of particular interest. Such countries could be, for instance, the home countries of immigrant children in their own classes.

1. What countries of origin are represented in your classroom? How do the English curricula in those countries differ from your own?
2. What SLA theories seem to be the ones underlying your current teaching practices?
3. Does one or several of the approaches described in this chapter resemble your classroom work? If so, in what ways? If not, what do you do instead?
4. Do you use the CEFR, and if so, how? If not, what points of reference are used to establish learners' level of competence? How are these points of reference similar to the CEFR and how do they differ?
5. What CEFR level or levels are your student groups aiming at?
6. How can the material provided in CEFR be of assistance for assessment? ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre1\\_en.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre1_en.asp))
7. How does the functional language ability described in the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (ACTFL, 2012), compare with the CEFR?

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# 4

## Age, Motivation, and Theories of L2 Learning

As we saw in the previous chapter, there are many different ways to teach an L2. Likewise, there are several ways to learn an L2 and different opportunities and conditions for doing so. Learners differ with regard to, for example, aptitude for language learning, willingness to communicate, self-confidence, level of anxiety, and cognitive ability. They also differ with regard to the age at which they start learning the L2, where they live, and the extent to which they are motivated for L2 learning. For instance, whereas some strongly believe that it is best to learn an L2 in natural settings, others prefer learning new languages in school or in other educational institutions.

One language learner is Zlatan Ibrahimović, a top international football player from Sweden. In his autobiography, he describes how he grew up in poverty and under harsh conditions in a suburb of the city of Malmö in southern Sweden. His parents, who divorced when Ibrahimović was a young child, had met in Sweden after having emigrated from former Yugoslavia (Lagercrantz & Ibrahimović, 2011). Ibrahimović did not care a whole lot about school, but he certainly

loved football. He became a professional footballer around the age of 20 and, as of the time of the writing of this book, has played for teams in Holland, Italy, Spain, and France. For international players, it is important to be able to speak the native language of the country in which they are currently playing. In the autobiography, while describing the joy of having been transferred from Ajax in Holland to Juventus in Italy, Ibrahimović reveals that Juventus decided to put him in school to learn Italian. Twice a week, he was supposed to be tutored by a teacher. Such a set-up did not suit Ibrahimović at all, *because he did not believe in learning languages in that way*. Thus, instead of taking lessons, he encouraged the teacher to officially tell the club that she was giving him lessons (and make sure she was paid for it), while Ibrahimović himself went on a mission to pick up Italian in natural settings, such as in the locker room, at hotels, and in interviews with the media. From the perspective of SLA in general and motivation in particular, his strategy is highly relevant. For instance, he set his mind to begin all interviews in Italian rather than English. Evidently, Ibrahimović dared to speak even though he knew he made many mistakes, at least in the beginning. However, this did not bother him much, because he was confident his Italian would improve over time with enough practice. Ibrahimović says that he was strongly motivated to learn—and he noticed that fans and others appreciated his linguistic efforts. In the autobiography, he also gives vivid descriptions of how he was totally absorbed by playing video games—and this he did in English. Ibrahimović's approach to learning languages accords well with the present chapter, which focuses on theoretical frameworks, age, and motivation in L2 learning.

We begin by discussing theories in SLA, with an emphasis on those appearing after what has become known as *the social turn* (Block, 2003). Next, there is a section that outlines L2 motivation theories. Here, we give a brief historical account and introduce Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) 'L2 Motivational Self System.' Not only is motivation essential to learners and learning, it is also essential to teachers and teaching. Accordingly, the section that follows discusses a topic that rarely gets the attention it deserves: teacher empowerment. We then devote some space to research on age effects in SLA, and address the benefits and drawbacks of starting

L2 teaching early, in the light of findings with regard to young learners of L2 English. Finally, there is a short section on different forms of assessment, and assessment in relation to learners' age.

## Theories of Second Language Acquisition

As mentioned in Chap. 3, the field of SLA emerged in the 1970s as a discipline in its own right. Although there are numerous volumes that offer in-depth discussions of both L2 teaching and learning, regrettably, 'no serious history of SLA exists' (Atkinson, 2011a, p. 19) yet. While we are all waiting for such a volume to appear, as suggested by Atkinson (2011a), it seems reasonable to rely on the work by important pioneers in the field. Therefore, in this section, we give a brief overview of some of the more influential theories and introduce the scholars behind them—and we refer readers who would like to learn more to the Suggested further reading section at the end of the chapter.

A great source of inspiration for writing this part of the book is the work of Lourdes Ortega, a world-leading linguist based in the USA, but originally from Spain. She opens her insightful contribution titled 'SLA after the Social Turn' (Ortega, 2011, p. 167) with these words:

The field of second language acquisition (SLA) has been transformed by a process since the mid-1990s of profound critique against the cognitive foundations of the discipline and by the long-ranging deployment of socially oriented reconceptualizations of second/additional language (L2) learning. The changes have been intense and important enough to have been characterized as constituting a social turn in SLA. (Block, 2003)

The cited phrase, *social turn*, is frequently used in SLA and as seen in the quote, it originates from Block (2003). It should be noted that the social turn did not take place at a specific point in time. Rather, there was an ongoing change within the field of SLA (as well as in other disciplines). What Block did was to criticize the so-called *Input-Interaction-Output Model* (also known as the *Interactionist Approach*) as an explanation for L2 learning and instead suggested a more interdisciplinary and socially

informed approach to SLA, hence ‘the social turn.’ Ortega (2011) clarifies that after this turn, L2 learning has generally been explained by socially oriented theories. That is, language learning is viewed as a social accomplishment and it is posited ‘that knowledge and learning are socially distributed, have social histories, and are only possible through sociality’ (Ortega, 2011, p. 168). In contrast, before this turn, L2 learning was generally explained by *cognitive theories*, such as the Interactionist Approach. The word *cognition* was borrowed into English from Latin (*cognoscere*, ‘to get to know’) in the late fourteenth century and cognitivism, which is a psychologically oriented theory, construes knowledge as residing in the mind. Consequently, when someone learns an L2, it is viewed as an individual accomplishment and it is assumed that learning is possible because of environmental stimuli to the brain of the particular individual. In brief, then, the main difference between pre and post social turn theories lies in whether L2 learning is explained ‘psychologically’ or ‘socially.’

According to Ortega (2011), cognitive and social explanations for L2 learning also differ in two other respects: first, whether it is assumed that knowledge exists apart from its context (*abstractness*—cognitive theories) or not (*situatedness*, social theories) and, second, whether the focus is on *entities and objects* (cognitive theories) or on *actions and processes* (social theories). With regard to situatedness, socially oriented SLA theorists emphasize knowledge and learning as parts ‘enmeshed in greater wholes’ (Ortega, 2011, p. 168), whereas cognitivists stress abstractness, thereby suggesting that knowledge can stand alone and is transferable. As for the focus on actions and processes among socially oriented scholars, they consider it important to take advantage of actions and processes that signify ‘being in action and emergent being’ (p. 168). For cognitivists, by contrast, it is essential to rely on taxonomies or other types of categorization (cf. entities), such as ‘learner’ or ‘native speaker.’ In the following sub-sections, we address the Interactionist Approach, the Sociocultural Approach, Identity Theory, and Complexity Theory. The latter three are all socially oriented theories. The possibility of bridging the gap between cognitive and social theories is discussed in a final sub-section.

## The Interactionist Approach

Although his contribution to SLA is not valued particularly highly among many SLA scholars today, Stephen Krashen did play a major role in setting the field's current agenda (see, e.g., Krashen, 1981, 1982), in particular as regards the relevance of input for L2 learning, as well as the introduction of new concepts and terms, not least his five hypotheses about SLA (for a summary, see Krashen, 1987). First, there is *the acquisition-learning hypothesis*. The terms *learning* and *acquisition* are often used interchangeably in the field, but some prefer not to do so and instead stress that they are distinct concepts. It is worth mentioning that it has become increasingly common to replace language *acquisition* with language *development*, signaling that languages are open systems, and 'open systems are never fully acquired' (Larsen-Freeman, 2011). Krashen (1981) himself states that we have two independent ways of developing an L2, either through acquisition (subconsciously, similar to the way a child acquires an L1, i.e., by picking up the L2 through exposure) or through learning (consciously, through explicit, formal instruction). Krashen admits that it is difficult to test the acquisition-learning hypothesis directly and this is one of the reasons why many researchers choose to use the terms interchangeably (e.g., R. Ellis, 1994; Mitchell et al., 2013). What is more, there is an additional controversy regarding acquisition and learning, namely, whether learning can turn into acquisition or not. Krashen asserts that this is impossible (called the *non-interface position*) while others disagree with him, claiming, for instance, that older learners might explicitly ask for grammar rules and eventually internalize those rules which, indeed, would be equivalent to Krashen's acquisition; this is called the *interface position* (see, e.g., N. Ellis, 1994, pp. 3–4). The second hypothesis is *the monitor hypothesis*, which suggests that knowledge of L2 rules only helps the learner supplement what has already been acquired. According to this view, teaching should therefore focus on creating conditions for acquisition rather than learning. The third hypothesis, *the natural order hypothesis*, suggests that all learners acquire the target language in the same order but at a different pace. The order of acquisition is independent of the learner's age, L1 background, and conditions of exposure to the target language. Krashen's fourth hypothesis is *the input hypothesis*. It states that

learners acquire an L2 by exposure to comprehensible input. The learner makes progress along the natural order as long as there is input which is one step beyond (+1) the learner's current stage of linguistic competence ( $i$ ); comprehensible input can, thus, be represented by the formula  $i + 1$ . Finally, the fifth hypothesis, *the affective filter hypothesis*, suggests that learners with high motivation and self-confidence and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for L2 acquisition than those who have low motivation and low self-esteem. In the latter case, with the affective filter up so to speak, language acquisition is impeded. Krashen has been criticized for his model of SLA since the hypotheses are difficult to test; that is, his model lacks empirical validity (but regarding empirical support of the natural-order hypothesis, see, e.g., Dulay & Burt, 1973, 1974). Nevertheless, his terminology has undoubtedly been commonly used, and is still used by many.

Following Krashen, Long (1981) suggested that interaction is a key element in L2 acquisition, proposing *the interaction hypothesis*. Long explains that according to this hypothesis, target language input needs to be comprehensible to the learner and this is obtained via modifications during actual interaction. Later, Long (1987) added that comprehensible input is something which is mainly achieved through the negotiation for meaning, where *negotiation for (or of) meaning* refers to speakers' adjustments of their speech (or other techniques) to avoid breakdown in communication. In the mid-1990s, Swain (1995) brought forward *the comprehensible output hypothesis* which emphasizes the importance of output for L2 acquisition. In her discussion of L2 acquisition, she stresses the importance of forcing learners to produce output. She later suggested the *collaborative dialogue* which is described as knowledge-building dialogue, or dialogue that constructs linguistic knowledge (Swain, 2000). Swain says such dialogue is 'what allows performance to outstrip competence' (p. 97), and is where language use and language learning can co-occur, and where language use mediates language learning. She claims it is both a cognitive and a social activity which, in hindsight, is a comment that reflects the theoretical change, described so well by Ortega (2011). In contrast to the lack of empirical studies in support of Krashen's hypotheses, there are several that support the output hypothesis (e.g., de la Fuente, 2002; R. Ellis & He, 1999; Joe, 1995).



To conclude, the intermix of ideas regarding exposure to the L2 (input), production of the L2 (output), and negotiation for meaning/feedback through interaction turned into what has become known as *The Interactionist Approach*. All the ideas or aspects listed above are considered as highly relevant for L2 learning (for a summary of the approach, see Gass & Mackey, 2006, 2007). Interaction is also an important component of the sociocultural approach to SLA, which we discuss in the next section.

## The Sociocultural Approach

Development in children never follows school learning the way a shadow follows the object that casts it. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 91)

*Sociocultural theory* (SCT) was developed in the early twentieth century by Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky. He died at the very young age of 37 in 1934. Unfortunately, translations of his writings were not available until in the 1960s. SCT is a general theory that aims to explain human mental development, not least child development, as exemplified in the opening quote. Over the years, SCT was extended to include, for example, L2 learning. According to the American linguist James P. Lantolf (2012), the first book-length work to present a synthesis of *SCT-informed L2 research* (SCT-L2) was published in 2006 (by himself together with Steven L. Thorne, another American linguist). There had been some influential studies published earlier, which means that the emergence of SCT-L2 more or less coincides with the social turn in SLA. The basic concept underlying the general theory of SCT is that ‘human thinking is mediated by culturally organized and transmitted symbolic meaning’ (Lantolf, 2012, p. 57), and all topics within SCT-L2 research make this assumption. In addition to the basic concept, SCT comprises the important core concepts *mediation*, *internalization*, *the zone of proximal development* (ZPD), and *activity theory*, which are briefly explained below.

First, concerning *mediation*, there is a belief in SCT in ‘the centrality of language as a “tool for thought”, or a means of mediation, in mental activity’ (Mitchell et al., 2013, p. 221). Furthermore, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) explain that the fundamental ideas in Vygotsky’s SCT have their

basis in dialectics. Whereas previous theories about human thinking (e.g., behaviorism) presumed a *unidirectional* relationship between humans and nature (*either* biology *or* the environment explains why humans are the way they are), SCT suggests a *bidirectional* relationship:

The dialectical approach proposes a bidirectionality in which natural endowments form the foundation for thinking; but, in the same way that a person interacts within socioculturally organized activity and artifacts, elementary functions are transformed and come under the control of the person through use of external, self-generated, but culturally rooted *mediation*. This is the heart of what cultural-historical psychology would characterize as development. (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, pp. 27–28, our italics)

The second core concept, *internalization*, refers to the process whereby the L2 learner learns to use the target language in his or her inner speech and thinking. With regard to child development, Vygotsky himself used the example of children's typical talk to and for themselves (known as *private speech*), arguing that private speech eventually turns into *internal* or *inner speech*. What inner speech does is 'to organize the child's thought' (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 89), and no external articulation is necessary. To exemplify L2 internalization, we use a case from our own research. A teenage L2 English learner was interviewed as part of Sundqvist (2009) and when asked specifically about whether he could recall ever dreaming in English, he responded that he did not know about that, but added that he was often thinking in English (p. 197). On occasion, he had even (without realizing it) started to talk in English to his Swedish friends, and it had taken some time before he had become aware of the fact that he actually spoke in English rather than Swedish, which was the shared L1. For this particular learner, English was clearly internalized, to the point that he used it in inner speech.

The third core concept of SCT is the *ZPD*. Informed by findings from empirical classroom studies, it was possible for Vygotsky (1978) to suggest that the capacity of children to learn under teacher guidance varies greatly. According to Vygotsky, this variation in turn reveals that because the observed children do not share the same mental age, their subsequent learning is bound to differ. It is in relation to this discussion that Vygotsky (1978, p. 86; italics in the original) provides the original definition of the ZPD:

*It is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.*

Phrased differently, within SCT-L2, the ZPD can be explained as the difference between what L2 learners can do without support from others and what they can do with appropriate mediation from, for example, a teacher or a peer. It is of course possible to apply the ZPD to L2 learning contexts outside of school as well, and we return to that specific topic in the next chapter when discussing L2 learning from video games.

The fourth core concept addressed here is *activity theory*. Whereas Vygotsky's main focus was on individuals, his successor A.N. Leont'ev took it one step further, trying to 'make sense of individual actions within a broader, collaborative setting' (Mitchell et al., 2013, p. 226). Contemporary activity theory includes a collective activity systems model developed by Engeström (1999), in which 'the actions of individuals occur at the nexus of three factors' (as explained by Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 222). The three factors are available tools and artifacts, the community (including its understood rules), and the division of labor in community settings. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) explain that the tools and artifacts can correspond to language (tool) and computers (artifact), respectively. Next, the 'understood rules' of a community may be historical rules, institutional rules, or rules that have emerged locally for some reason. With regard to the division of labor in the community, it may be connected with, for example, identity or social role (compare with Identity theory below). Others, Mitchell, Myles, and Marsden (2013, p. 227), suggest that the model illustrates how 'individual actions and goals are interconnected with those of the sociocultural context.' In sum, then, the unit of analysis in activity theory is the collective activity system, and using this particular frame, it is possible to explain the gap between the individual and the societal structure (for a comprehensive overview, see Engeström, Miettinen, & Punamäki, 1999).

## Identity Theory

An influential scholar closely connected with Identity theory is Bonny Norton. She grew up in the 1970s during apartheid South Africa and experienced the horrors of both racial and linguistic segregation, as highlighted in Claire Kramsch's 'Afterword' to Norton's (2013) second edition of *Identity and Language Learning*. The first edition was published at the turn of the millennium (Norton, 2000). This work, in which she relates the stories of five immigrant women to Canada and their own stories of identity and power relations, is now considered seminal as it laid the foundation for *Identity theory*. Norton's object of inquiry was the teaching of ESL in a country 'where language was "in transition"' (as phrased by Kramsch, p. 192), and in her study, Norton gives a much more personal report as compared with what is usually the case in research. She was both a teacher and researcher, who used her students as informants, and this way of doing (and presenting) SLA research opened up the additional possibility of including affective and cultural aspects of L2 learning, that is, not only 'traditional' linguistic and cognitive dimensions.

In brief, Norton (2000) is a longitudinal study of five women which examines power relations between language learners and target language speakers, and L2 development. Among other things, her data suggest that in natural learning situations, a learner's anxiety is associated with the learner's oral skills rather than his/her literacy skills. For instance, unlike their Canadian colleagues who were fluent in English, the five informants reported that they could not take customers' orders and speak to customers at the same time, which indicates a problem with the online processing of speech (which, in turn, made them anxious). However, another probably more crucial finding in terms of contributing to explaining the phenomenon of SLA was that the women reported feeling more comfortable and fluent in speaking English when interlocutors did not constantly show their linguistic and cultural superiority (cf. affective and cultural dimensions of L2 learning). Native speakers' comments on their foreign accent, for example, were perceived as discouraging. Such comments increased the informants' level of anxiety and led to mistakes in speech that could otherwise have been avoided (Norton, 2000, p. 123). The findings

related to anxiety suggest that anxiety is not an inherent trait of language learners but one that is *socially constructed within and by the lived experiences* of language learners.

Five years before the publication of *Identity and Language Learning*, Norton had introduced the concept of *investment* to the field of SLA (Norton Peirce, 1995), because she thought there was a need to reconceptualize conceptions of the individual in SLA theory; the Ortega quote at the beginning of this chapter echoes Norton's words. By using *investment*, Norton drew on 'the poststructuralist conception of social identity as multiple, a site of struggle, and subject to change' (Norton Peirce, 1995, p. 9) to explain her earliest findings from the study on immigrant women and L2 learning. In her subsequent work, Norton argues for using the term *investment* (a term borrowed from the field of sociology) rather than *motivation* (from psychology), because the former better captures the complex relationship of language learners to the target language and the fact that learners sometimes are ambivalent about speaking the target language. Among other things, '(t)he notion of investment conceives of the language learner (...) as having a complex social history and multiple desires' (Norton Peirce, 1995, p. 9). Another useful concept that Norton brought into the field of SLA is *imagined communities* (originally coined by Anderson, 1983), which refers to 'groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we [L2 learners] connect through the power of imagination' (Norton, 2013, p. 8). She argues that a focus on imagined communities in L2 learning and teaching will enable teachers (and researchers) to explore learning trajectories better; examples of imagined communities are nations and future relationships that exist only in learners' imagination. On the whole, Norton's work on learners is a brilliant example of how practice can inform theory and research.

## Complexity Theory

One prominent linguistics scholar who has argued for Complexity theory is the American linguist Diane Larsen-Freeman. Because she was trained and started her career in the 1970s, it was natural for Larsen-Freeman to initially have a cognitive orientation to SLA. However, over time, she

became ‘disenchanted with the limitation’ (Larsen-Freeman, 2011, p. 48) of the focus that prevailed in cognitive experiments in linguistics at the time, which rested on the questionable assumption that a single factor could cause an effect on L2 learning. To Larsen-Freeman, this was not in accord with what she realized about L2 learning; on the contrary, L2 learning processes could rather be described as very complex.

Complexity theory suggests a view of language as ‘a dynamic set of patterns emerging from use. Over time, those that frequently, saliently, and reliably occur become emergent stabilities in a complex system’ (Larsen-Freeman, 2011, p. 52). Thus, according to Complexity theory, L2 learning is definitely not a simple process of accumulation where bits and pieces of the target language are learned one after the other. On the contrary, L2 language develops in a bottom-up process from interactions of several agents/learners in local speech communities; that is, L2 learning emerges from social use. Moreover, the system is described as ‘adaptive,’ which implies that L2 learning continually changes to fit new circumstances and these circumstances, in turn, also change. Larsen-Freeman (2011, p. 49) stresses that learners are sensitive to frequently occurring linguistic patterns, especially those that are ‘salient and semantically transparent.’ Such patterns are imitated by learners, but not as exact imitations; in order to describe what actually happens, Larsen-Freeman proposes the term *adaptive imitation*. She also highlights the importance of avoiding the monolingual bias (Ortega, 2010, see Chap. 2) because today multilingualism is the norm: learners do not move ‘inexorably in a line from L1 to L2’ (Larsen-Freeman, 2012, p. 78).

Two additional important concepts in Complexity theory are *soft-assembly* and *co-adaptation*. In spoken interaction, speakers/learners are said to soft-assemble the language resources at their disposal. According to Larsen-Freeman (2012, p. 76), the assembly is referred to as ‘soft’ because the resources (or elements) that are assembled (as well as the way in which the resources/elements are configured) are adaptive; in essence, this means that they can change at any point. As mentioned above, complexity theory puts emphasis on the local context in which interaction takes place, and soft-assembled patterns originating from interaction are the products of dynamic adaption to particular local contexts (M. Tucker & Hirsh-Pasek, 1993, cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2012). Furthermore, this

adaptation encompasses the process of *co-adaptation*, explained by Larsen-Freeman (2012) as the way in which individual speakers imitatively adapt to the language of another speaker (or speakers) in an interaction.

Although Complexity theory constitutes a young conceptual framework within SLA, it has long been used in the natural sciences, for example, in biology. Theoretical concepts and ideas are not restricted to specific scientific domains, and it is common to borrow terms as well as concepts between academic disciplines. In this case, *co-adaptation* may be a new concept in SLA, but it appears closely related to *convergence*, which is a sociolinguistic term used in *Communication Accommodation Theory* (CAT). CAT explores phenomena of *accommodation*, ‘the adjustment of one’s speech or other communicative behaviors vis-à-vis the people with whom one is interacting’ (Giles, 2001, p. 193), and *convergence* has to do with making one’s speech similar to that of the interlocutor. Accommodation, convergence, and co-adaptation are, then, more or less equivalent concepts.

## Bridging the Gap Between Cognitive and Social Approaches

We have now touched upon four theories in SLA, where the first was described as cognitive (The Interactionist Approach) and the following three as social (The Sociocultural Approach, Identity theory, and Complexity theory). Yet is it really possible to draw a line between cognitive and social approaches in order to explain such a complex phenomenon as L2 acquisition/development? This fundamental question was addressed in great depth at a colloquium at the 2013 meeting of the American Association of Applied Linguistics in Dallas, Texas. A number of the world’s most esteemed linguists participated, and the colloquium resulted in an issue of *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* called *Bridging the gap: Cognitive and social approaches to research in second language learning and teaching* (Hulstijn et al., 2014). The overarching goals of the colloquium and the subsequent publication were, on the one hand, to raise awareness of the limitations of addressing either only the cognitive aspects or only the social aspects in research on L2 learning and teaching and, on the other hand, to explore ways of bridging and/

or productively appreciating the cognitive–social gap in research. Taken together, the nine individual papers in the issue advance the possibility that the cognitive and social approaches are not irreconcilable (Hulstijn et al., 2014, p. 2). In fact, the suggestion was put forward that cognitive and social researchers would most likely benefit from acknowledging insights and methods gained from one another. We return later to this in a study question.

## L2 Motivation Theories

Motivation is important for all learning, not least L2 learning. In the present section, we briefly summarize three historical phases of L2 motivation theory, starting with the pioneering work of a number of psychologists before the turn of the millennium.

### Before the Turn of the Millennium

The first phase, called the social psychological period (1959–1990) (Dörnyei, 2005), is characterized by the work of Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert, two social psychologists working in the bilingual context of Canada. In their pioneering study, in which they studied L1 English high school students learning L2 French, the main idea proposed was that learners' attitudes toward the target language and target language community heavily influenced L2 learning behavior (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 267):

It is our [Gardner and Lambert] contention then that achievement in a second language is dependent upon essentially the same type of motivation that is apparently necessary for the child to learn his first language. We argue that an individual acquiring a second language adopts certain behaviour patterns which are characteristic of another cultural group and that his attitudes towards that group will at least partly determine his success in learning the new language. Our use of attitude as a motivational construct presupposes an intention on the part of students to learn the language with various aims in mind, and to pursue these aims with varying degrees of drive strength.



The two also developed the concepts of *integrative orientation* (*integrativeness*) and *instrumental orientation*, the former defined as ‘willingness to be like valued members of the [target] language community’ (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271) and the latter reflecting the more utilitarian value of L2 learning, such as enhancing one’s chances on the job market by learning the target language. Furthermore, through their work, it was established that the attitudinal dimension of L2 learning motivation made it distinct from other dimensions of learning motivation.

During this period, two other psychologists presented the *self-determination theory* (SDT), a macro theory of human motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). SDT is concerned with the degree to which an individual’s behavior is self-motivated and self-determined. Some important empirical studies that eventually steered Deci and Ryan to their theory included research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which has frequently been used in L2 research. The former type, *intrinsic motivation*, can be explained as people initiating an activity for its own sake, simply because they want to experience pleasure or satisfaction: the joy of doing a specific activity, or satisfying one’s curiosity. In terms of L2 motivation, studies show that intrinsic motivation leads to qualitatively improved learning outcomes since learners who are intrinsically motivated find learning fun and personally meaningful (see, e.g., Naiman, Frölich, Stern, & Todesco, 1996) and, as a consequence, their possible L2 learning gains tend to be more durable. The latter type, *extrinsic motivation*, can be explained as individuals performing a behavior as a means to a specific end. In L2 learning, then, some can be willing to study hard because they want to get a good grade on a course, or pass an important exam, to give two examples. Later, Deci and Ryan (2000) expanded their ideas by suggesting that extrinsic types of motivation can be placed on a continuum, where different degrees of self-determination (external control as opposed to internal regulation) depend on how internalized the extrinsic goals are (as clarified by Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The second phase of L2 motivation theory, the cognitive-situated period (the 1990s), is characterized by work that draws on cognitive theories in educational psychology (Dörnyei, 2005). There were two parallel reasons for this: first, the need to bring L2 motivation research in line with the ‘ongoing cognitive revolution in psychology’ (p. 74) and,

second, the desire to narrow down the focus of research from a macroperspective of L2 motivation (e.g., studying the motivation of whole communities) to a microperspective (e.g., studying motivation in actual learning situations in classrooms). One influential scholar during this period is Csikszentmihalyi (1990), a Hungarian psychologist who introduced the theoretical concept of *flow*. Flow is a state when individuals are completely absorbed with the activity at hand or are totally immersed in what they are doing; ordinary considerations, such as food or time, seem not to matter. Playing video games is one activity that can lead to states of flow, as testified in several accounts from gamers around the globe. In short, flow can be said to be an optimal state of intrinsic motivation and it can certainly be experienced in L2 learning.

## After the Turn of the Millennium

Around the time of the beginning of the new millennium, some scholars (e.g., Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Lamb, 2004a; Warden & Lin, 2000) began questioning whether it is meaningful to talk in terms of integrativeness when the target language cannot easily be associated with a specific community of speakers, which was the case with Global English (see Chap. 2). Thus, a new third phase emerged, referred to as the *process-oriented period* (from 2000 onward), and it is characterized by a focus on motivational change (Dörnyei, 2005).

In research, Ryan and Mercer (2011) have applied Dweck's (1999, 2006) work on implicit theories of intelligence—so-called *mindsets*—to the field of L2 learning, with a particular emphasis on the connection between mindsets and behavior. They suggest that one specific feature of mindsets can relate to beliefs about the relative 'naturalness' of the L2 learning process. In light of the fact that many countries offer almost ideal settings for involvement in EE activities—not least European and Southeast Asian countries where Internet access is high and English has a very high status in society—English encountered outside the walls of the classroom is likely to constitute a constant background presence. In such countries, a 'naturalness' mindset is likely to evolve. In short, since many learners may feel they learn English more easily outside of school in naturalistic settings, they are likely to find this way of learning qualitatively more effec-

tive than learning in school. Referring to learners' motivational change, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 60; our italics), looking through the eyes of L2 teachers, state:

Although most practitioners with sufficient classroom experience know too well that student motivation does not remain constant during the course of learning, it is only within the last decade or so that efforts have been made to analyse the *dynamics* of L2 motivation *change* at either the micro level (e.g. task motivation) or the more macro level (e.g. during the course of study, over a person's learning history or across the lifespan).

In response to this challenge, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) developed a new model of L2 motivation, which we now present.

## The L2 Motivational Self System

Like many words in the English language, *motivation* is of Latin origin. The stem *motive* comes from *motivus*, which means 'serving to move.' Thus, motivation has to do with movement. Movement is definitely part of Zoltán Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) dynamic model of motivation in L2 learning, *the L2 Motivational Self System*. Dörnyei, of Hungarian descent and based in the UK, is professor of psycholinguistics and renowned for his ground-breaking work on motivation in L2 learning in general and his model of the L2 Motivational Self System in particular. This model includes three dimensions referred to as the *Ideal L2 Self*, the *Ought-to L2 Self*, and the *L2 Learning Experience* (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). The Ideal L2 Self represents the L2-specific component of the individual's overall 'ideal self.' Thus, in a situation where the type of person a learner would like to become speaks an L2, the learner's Ideal L2 Self would function as a powerful motivator for reducing the discrepancy between the actual and the ideal self. In other words, the affective domain of integrativeness discussed above is included in the concept of the Ideal L2 Self. Next, the Ought-to L2 Self is connected with the attributes a learner believes he/she should possess, for instance, a wish to do well on language tests, in order to meet social expectations and avoid potentially negative outcomes. Last, the L2 Learning Experience concerns situated 'executive motives related to the immediate learning environment' (Dörnyei, 2005,

p. 106), generally the classroom. An example could be students who succeed in communicating with learners from another country using the L2 in teacher-initiated international tele-collaboration projects, such as eTwinning (<https://www.etwinning.net/en/pub/index.htm>). It needs to be stressed that in the L2 Motivational Self System model, motivation is viewed as a dynamic, changeable concept, and that for individual learners, L2 motivation may be very different at different points in time. Thus, the model accords well with Complexity theory.

## Teacher Empowerment

Educational research has shown that perceived teacher empowerment is associated with a high degree of professionalism and feelings of autonomy (L. C. Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). We also know that the teacher and his/her teaching is a crucial variable in terms of affecting learner achievement (Hattie, 2009). Perceived teacher empowerment can be linked to successful ELT, even though it would be wrong to assume a direct link between the empowered L2 English teacher and increased student L2 learning. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) make clear that teachers' interest in, as well as approach to and attitude toward the language they are teaching, are among the most important factors that impact learner motivation and, as a consequence, L2 achievement. Another crucial factor is the teacher's own language competence. Based on data from more than 200 teachers of English, a study revealed that teachers rated their own attitudes and approach to the subject as the most decisive factor having an impact on student motivation (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Moreover, in a study of L2 German learners in the UK, it was revealed that the teacher was rated as the single most important motivational factor by all surveyed cohorts (Chambers, 1999), and it was argued that teachers are at an immediate disadvantage if their students fail to see the relevance of the subject. In the same vein, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) claim that in order for L2 learning to be successful, it is essential that the L2 classroom provide sufficient inspiration to motivate the learners, and that the instructional practices are cognitively adequate. However, as is highlighted in Chap. 2, L2 English teachers are greatly challenged: it is highly demanding to deal with EE and Global English while simultaneously accommodating different learner needs.

In an attempt to address problems as regards the teaching of L2 English, Thorne and Reinhardt (2008, p. 558) propose a pedagogical model—*Bridging Activities*—which is designed ‘to enhance engagement and relevance through the incorporation of students’ digital-vernacular expertise, experience, and curiosity, coupled with instructor guidance.’ They emphasize the fact that teenagers often perform linguistically structured identities outside school (cf. Identity theory) that involve digital mediation in the target language, and the model therefore suggests that teachers should target awareness of, for instance, Internet-specific genres in formal L2 instruction. A key component of the Bridging Activities model is that the teaching builds on learners’ (rather than teachers’) selections of Internet or media literacy texts. The belief is that such an approach is assumed to enhance learner agency and, in turn, L2 motivation. And—the approach seems to work. Most likely unaware of Thorne and Reinhardt’s pedagogical model, some teachers have indeed successfully implemented gap-bridging activities in very different places and institutional contexts around the world. One example is the VCE (Victorian Certificate of English) English Education program in Victoria, Australia. This language program targets seniors in high school, who get to work with a variety of text types (e.g., text messages, chat, and e-mails), from different settings (e.g., Facebook and MySpace), ‘alongside the language of Shakespeare and the canon of English and Australian literature’ (Thomas & Wawer, 2010, p. 252). In these classrooms, the students are explicitly encouraged to bring their own texts to school for discussion. Standard and non-standard varieties of Australian English are studied and, according to the authors, ‘students see themselves as more self-directed, active participants in their learning, thus deriving an enormous amount of satisfaction and enjoyment from their findings [about language]’ (p. 253).

A second example is from London, in the UK, where youth slang has constituted the common denominator for teaching A-level English (an introduction for 16-year-olds to the basics of language study) with positive results (Clayton, 2010). These two studies are set in inner circle countries, so English is likely to be the L1 for many of the students involved, but most likely not for all. Nevertheless, both examples lend empirical support to the Bridging Activities model and, moreover, show that collaborative work between researchers and teachers may prove to be very fruitful for language learners.

Collaboration between researchers and teachers is common in Action Research (AR) programs, and findings from such programs also underscore the great importance of teacher empowerment. AR can be viewed as a means of continuous professional development and findings from AR have revealed a sustainable positive impact on L2 teacher development not only with regard to self-confidence and a sense of feeling connected to one's students, but also with regard to emotional experiences recognized by one's colleagues and school leaders (Edwards & Burns, 2016).

## Age Effects in SLA: The Younger, the Better?

Learning an L2 as a child is different from doing it later, and as this book is intended for, among others, teachers of learners of different ages—basically from primary to the end of upper-secondary school—age effects in SLA need to be addressed. It should, however, be mentioned that when the topic of age is discussed within SLA, it commonly has to do with studies of immigrants who learn the L2 in natural settings. In such research, Age of Arrival, which refers to at what age a learner is first extensively exposed to the L2, is a relevant factor. But age effects in SLA also deal with the *age of the learner in the L2 classroom*, and *when L2 instruction preferably should begin*, which are the main foci here.

One of the most obvious differences when it comes to learner age is cognitive maturity. Cognitive skills are not as developed in young children as in older children or adolescents (or adults, for that matter) and, as a consequence, teachers involved in ELT need to know what practices may work well in the classroom depending on the age of their learners ('practice' is further developed in Part II of this book). To give one example: explicit grammar instruction is, for several reasons, pointless in classrooms filled with eight-year-olds, most obviously because the great majority of eight-year-olds lack the cognitive ability to deal with abstract thinking, which is a prerequisite for successful processing of explicit grammar instruction. It cannot be claimed with any degree of certainty, however, that explicit grammar instruction is equally pointless for learners who are 13 years old, or 17. It is essential to define who the young learners are, before we move on.

## Defining Young Language Learners

The field of research focusing on young language learners (i.e., not just L2 English learners) is still in its infancy, but growing. As a case in point, at the 2013 BAAL (British Association of Applied Linguistics) conference, a special symposium was devoted to young learners, and at the EuroSLA 23 (European Second Language Association) conference, also in 2013, the Hungarian scholar Marianne Nikolov was one of the invited plenary speakers, talking about ‘Early foreign language learning: is it child’s play?’ (Nikolov, 2013). At least to our knowledge, this was the first time the EuroSLA put a premium on young language learners and, thereby, acknowledged the topic as an important area of inquiry for SLA research. As one of the world’s leading experts on young language learners, Nikolov, in her talk, set the tone by strongly questioning whether it is wise to start teaching L2s early, in the first years of primary school. According to Nikolov (2013) and others (e.g., Muñoz & Singleton, 2011), there is little empirical evidence to show that early starts are better for learners in the long run (see also the edited volume, Nikolov, 2009). Moreover, Nikolov stressed that it is troublesome that most primary school teachers lack specific L2 training and some may also lack adequate L2 skills, which is something that others have also highlighted (see, e.g., DeKeyser, 2012). Nevertheless, early implementation is the current worldwide trend—the younger, the better—and, without a doubt, English is the most popular target language to introduce. In June 2014, there was another conference, this time organized around the topic of L2 young learners up to 12 years of age at Umeå University in Sweden, where there was a clear focus on learners in primary school only. The specification (or clarification) of ‘up to 12 years of age’ is a reflection of the confusion in the literature as well as in the ELT profession as to how clearly the term *young learner* is defined, if defined at all.

Generally, but not always, *young learner* is used in reference to any learner under the age of 18. Such a definition is linked to the legal definition of *a child* in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (The United Nations, 1990). However, with the ever increasing number of children/teenagers learning L2 English globally (see Chap. 2), it is possible that

using the legal interpretation of children for *young learners* has become outdated in the field of SLA (G. Ellis, 2013, p. 75):

‘Young learners’, therefore, is a generic term that encompasses a wide range of learners who as a group share commonly accepted needs and rights as children but differ greatly as learners in terms of their physical, psychological, social, emotional, conceptual, and cognitive development, as well as their development of literacy.

Therefore, it is both convenient and important to define and group learners below the age of 18 into subgroups. Ellis (2013) proposes a useful and transparent set of ‘learner terms’ aligned to terms commonly used in many educational systems: *Early years/pre-primary* (aged 2–5); *Primary* (aged 6–10/11); *Lower secondary* (aged 11–14); and *Upper secondary* (aged 15–17). (For those aged 18–25, she suggests *University/further education*.) Ellis’s suggested terms help clear up the muddled waters concerning how to define (sub)groups of young learners.

In light of the fact that research has failed to show convincing evidence that an early introduction of L2 instruction is indeed better than a later one (for an overview of age-related L2 research, see Muñoz & Singleton, 2011), the global trend of starting to teach L2 English in primary (or pre-primary) school may seem a bit odd. However, there are some strong and long-lived hypotheses about L2 learning that remain influential and affect ideas and beliefs about when instruction (i.e., teaching) should begin. In addition, political (and parental) considerations also have an impact on decisions about L2 English implementation in schools. For instance, if parents prefer (or express a wish) to place their children in schools that offer early L2 English instruction, schools are likely to offer (or initiate) such programs. Also, some existing studies of early L2 instruction seem to have had a positive effect on primary school learners’ attitudes and motivation; on the one hand, this is reassuring, but on the other hand, the benefits in terms of L2 achievement have not always been evident (Tragant, 2006).



## The Critical Period Hypothesis

Epistemologically, the interest in introducing L2 English in primary school or earlier has mainly centered around the *Critical Period Hypothesis* (CPH) (Lenneberg, 1964, 1967). *Epistemology* (from Greek *episteme*, ‘knowledge’) examines the nature of knowledge, such as its presuppositions and foundations. The CPH was proposed in the 1960s and stipulates that there is a window of opportunity for language learning that ends at some point at the end of childhood or the beginning of puberty (often described as around the age of 12). Thus, because there (supposedly) is a critical period for learning languages, the younger learners are when they begin to learn an L2, the more successful they will ultimately be (see, e.g., Hyltenstam, 1992). Interestingly, research focused on early L2 learning consistently shows a rate advantage for late starters over early starters. For example, older starters have a faster rate of learning at the beginning stages of the learning process, particularly for morpho-syntactic acquisition (Krashen, Long, & Scarcella, 1979). The rate advantage has also been observed in two extensive studies from Spain (García Mayo & García Lecumberri, 2003; Muñoz, 2006) as well as in one from Sweden (Holmstrand, 1982), investigations carried out in typical limited-input language classroom settings. It needs to be emphasized that in such settings, ‘[young] age does not yield the same type of long-term advantage as it does in a naturalistic language learning setting’ (Muñoz & Singleton, 2011, p. 19). One explanation may be that *explicit* learning mechanisms, which give older children an advantage over younger children, are more important in language classrooms. Furthermore, it has been shown that age effects are clearly linked to implicit (natural, incidental) and explicit (classroom) learning (DeKeyser, 2012; Muñoz, 2011). With respect to the effects of the starting age, findings in Muñoz (2011) suggest that in the long run, and after similar amounts of input, the starting age is not a predictor of language outcomes.

Regardless of what opinions different scholars hold as regards the ‘the younger, the better’ controversy, a *relationship* between learner age and success in L2 English learning undeniably exists (Muñoz & Singleton, 2011). Two core questions that remain to be answered are whether

there is a critical period—an opportunity for L2 learning that is ‘maturationally constrained’—or whether age-related changes in L2 learning capacity and/or outcomes are results of factors beyond the CPH (Muñoz & Singleton, 2011, p. 1). DeKeyser (2012, p. 446) puts the two questions slightly differently: ‘whether there is a specific period in decline in the ability for implicit language learning’ and ‘whether any such decline is due to maturational factors.’ To make the controversy even more complex, Muñoz (2008) clearly demonstrates that within SLA, it has been tacitly agreed that in studies where early starters show better L2 outcomes than later starters, although the former group of learners have had more hours of exposure or instruction, their younger age has commonly been brought to the forefront as the main explanation for their better results. In this way, a methodological flaw in variable control is simply ignored, according to Muñoz (2008).

## Other Factors that Matter

With regard to the level of ultimate attainment in an L2, the role of factors other than age has become frequently discussed in SLA. For instance, in a study on L2 French learners, Kinsella and Singleton (2014) examined a number of factors (biological/experiential, social/psychological, instructional/cognitive, and experiential/interactive) and concluded, among other things, that affective variables seemed to be important among learners with high attainment. Other studies have pointed to the relevance of aptitude (Granena, 2014), and a number of studies focus on the interaction between age and aptitude in L2 attainment, with slightly differing conclusions (see, e.g., Abrahamsson & Hyltenstam, 2008; DeKeyser, 2000; DeKeyser, Alfi-Shabtay, & Ravid, 2010). Furthermore, Muñoz (2014) focused on the influence of starting age and input on L2 learning; she also investigated if early starters in instructional settings achieved a similar long-term advantage as learners in naturalistic settings. Interestingly, the study revealed that input had a stronger association with measures of L2 oral English than starting age had. In addition, she found that cumulative exposure as well as contact with high-quality input were good predictors of the participants’ L2 oral proficiency; qual-

ity input being particularly important. Further, in a review study by Moyer (2014), the author concludes that length of residence (in the target language country), formal instruction, and even early onset (i.e., early frequent exposure to the L2)—factors traditionally viewed as critical for successful L2 development—did not matter that much for development. What mattered more was the learners' consistent use of the L2 in ways that had personal significance for them. With this as a backdrop and considering the definition of EE, it is fair to say that EE constitutes a highly interesting 'new' object of inquiry. Chap. 5 is devoted to EE as a factor in SLA.

## Assessment and Age

It has been argued that learning and assessment are but two sides of the same coin (Erickson, 2010). Assessment can be used as a valuable tool in SLA and should preferably be used as such. Most importantly, the younger the L2 learners are, the more teachers need to consider how assessment can facilitate and promote learning. Assessment is a broad topic which is difficult to treat in any fair way in a single book section. Nevertheless, by highlighting some aspects of assessment that we believe are particularly important to be aware of as L2 English teachers, we hope at least to provide some guidance to newcomers to the profession. More specifically, we address formative and summative assessment, informal and formal assessment, and assessment in relation to testing and what types of tests there are. Above all, we highlight matters that are relevant to assessment and learner age; a simple rule of thumb being that the younger the language learners are, the greater the emphasis on formative assessment needs to be.

For L2 ELT and learning to be successful, it is essential that students have the freedom to experiment with the target language in the classroom. Having the opportunity to guess and try out one's own hypotheses about English is crucial and it is commonly agreed that good language learners tend to do so (Naiman et al., 1996). In the classroom, then, language learners should *not* be assessed all the time. Instead learners need ample opportunities to play around with English, preferably not

only with peers but also with the teacher, because language play is an important way of developing target language proficiency (Bell, 2005; Pomerantz & Bell, 2007; Waring, 2013). Thus, teaching may involve planning lessons so that there are chances for learners to listen and think, to take risks and set goals, and to process teacher (and peer) feedback in order to recycle through the L2 skills they are striving to master (cf. Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). At the same time, during classroom sessions such as these, teachers are bound to observe learner performance. It is reasonable to assume that many teachers may offer qualitative feedback on such occasions.

In successful L2 English classrooms, teacher observations constantly ‘feed into the way the teacher provides instruction to each student’ (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010, p. 6). This means that successful teachers are well grounded in SLA theory and research, not only because they know *what* to say to their students, they also know *when* to say something, and *how* to phrase it—*depending on who* the specific learner is. Ultimately, it also means that three specific pedagogic competences are well developed among and characteristic of successful teachers: *propositional knowledge*, *case knowledge*, and *strategic knowledge* (also referred to as *pedagogical content knowledge*, PCK) (Shulman, 1986, 1987). We return to these competencies in Chap. 7.

There are a number of terms associated with assessment and testing (here we note, specifically, assessment, evaluation, measurement, tests, and teaching), and it can be quite a challenge to decipher what each term stands for. In this field of research, Brown and Abeywickrama (2010) have one of the best explanations for the problem. They offer an insightful discussion of assessment and testing, from which we cherry-pick the parts that are summarized here. First, Brown and Abeywickrama clearly state that the five terms mentioned above are overlapping concepts which interrelate in various ways. *Teaching* can be said to encompass assessment, measurement, and tests. *Assessment*, in turn, encompasses measurement and tests, and *measurement* encompasses tests. Teaching, assessment, measurement, and tests all need to be evaluated, so *evaluation* stands on its own, so to speak, in relation to each of the other concepts as well as in relation to them altogether as a model of what assessment and testing is about. Furthermore, in order to untangle this ‘lexical conundrum,’

Brown and Abeywickrama (2010, p. 6) find it suitable to distinguish between informal and formal assessment, between formative and summative assessment, and between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests.

Examples of *informal* assessment involve anything from incidental and totally unplanned comments and responses, or impromptu pieces of oral advice and coach-like comments, to jotting down a smiley or another emoticon on students' homework. Informal assessment is also a part of classroom tasks designed to gauge student performances that are not recorded, assessed, or graded in any way. McKay (2006, p. 20) describes it as 'classroom assessment carried out during the course of the teaching and learning process.' It is fair to say that informal assessment is typically nonjudgmental. In contrast, *formal* assessment usually refers to planned assessment. Formal assessment tends to be carried out as a part of formal procedures, such as classroom assessment tasks when students are not allowed to speak or make interruptions. In addition, mandatory high-stakes tests are also examples of formal assessment. Such tests can be important for final grades and/or for admittance to institutions of higher education. In general, formal assessments are designed with the purpose of tapping into specific skills and knowledge, and in particular, high-stakes formal assessments are constructed to provide both teachers and learners (and possible other stakeholders) with an appraisal of achievement in (in this case) L2 English.

It was mentioned above that it is relevant to think mainly in terms of formative assessment for young language learners (McKay, 2006). Formative assessment is often contrasted with summative assessment; both concepts have to do with the function of the assessment. Whereas *formative* assessment is used in the process of 'forming' students' competencies and skills with the ultimate aim of facilitating L2 English development, *summative* assessment serves the purpose of measuring ('summarizing') what a student has learned 'at the end of a course or unit of instruction'; that is, what learning objectives have been accomplished (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). Typical examples of summative assessment, then, are final exams or general proficiency exams. Thus, summative assessment is in stark contrast to formative assessment. One reason why formative assessment is especially recommended when working with

young learners is that it helps prepare them for the future. Sometimes the expression 'feed forward' is used, which we find exceptionally fitting in the context of primary- and secondary-school L2 English learners. But more importantly, formative assessment is especially recommended for young learners since they are more vulnerable than mature (older/adult) learners. Summative assessment among young learners can have long-lasting detrimental effects for L2 development, as has been testified in several learner accounts; however, this is not to say that adults would be immune to possible negative effects of summative assessment (Shohamy, 2001). It should be added that there can, of course, also be positive effects of summative assessment. Currently, there seems to be a trend to incorporate formative aspects into summative assessment (Erickson, 2010; Ross, 2005), and for L2 English teachers, it is probably sensible to introduce formative components into summative tests that students (have to) take.

With regard to L2 testing, a distinction is made between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests. Whereas the former type of test is designed 'to enable the test user to make "normative" interpretations of test results' (Bachman, 1990, p. 72), the latter type is designed 'to enable the test user to interpret a test score with reference to a criterion level of ability or domain of content' (p. 74). The purpose of norm-referenced tests is generally to place test takers' scores along a mathematical continuum in rank order in order, for example, to be used for university admission. A well-known norm-referenced English test is the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL® Test). In contrast, criterion-referenced tests usually give test takers' feedback in the form of a grade (e.g., on a course), which may be interpreted in relation to grade criteria stipulated in a national curriculum or some other framework, such as the CEFR (see Chap. 3).

Depending on their purpose, L2 tests are commonly divided into five types: achievement, diagnostic, placement, proficiency, and aptitude tests (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). Achievement tests are used to measure learners' ability within a lesson, a unit, or a total curriculum. Diagnostic tests, on the other hand, are used to diagnose what aspects of the L2 a specific learner needs to develop further. The purpose of placement tests is self-explanatory: the aim is to place students into suitable L2 levels (within, for instance, a language curriculum or course). Proficiency tests serve the purpose of measuring learners' overall competence in the L2

and, finally, aptitude tests aim to capture learners' capacity to learn an L2 before taking a specific course.

Many of the most well-known and globally widespread L2 English tests use answering sheets that are machine-read and graded/rated automatically with regard to receptive skills (listening and reading comprehension), while productive skills (writing and speaking) are graded/rated by expert raters. In high-stakes classroom-based testing, either the students' own teacher or external raters may be used. With regard to L2 oral proficiency/speaking tests, research has revealed that teacher ratings and ratings assigned by external, trained raters correlate positively (Fortune & Tedick, 2015). Since the Second World War, most speaking tests have focused on the ability to perform or interact, whereas the focus previously was mainly on dictation and pronunciation (Fulcher, 2003). The first published speaking test was the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) Oral Proficiency Interview, commonly known as the OPI. The OPI is still widely used and involves a native-speaker examiner and a test taker. However, paired and group tests have grown increasingly common, sometimes with external examiners, sometimes with the test takers' own teacher (East, 2014; Sandlund, Sundqvist, & Nyroos, 2016b). It has been argued that paired or group tests better resemble natural conversation (Ducasse & Brown, 2009), and current educational reforms and L2 curricula often focus on communicative language teaching that stresses speaking skills. Nevertheless, results may fall short of such goals and, unfortunately, young learners with positive visions of themselves as L2 speakers may become discouraged (compare with the Ideal L2 Self and Identity theory) (Yim, 2016). Needless to say, from a learner's perspective, it is positive when assessment and testing contribute to learning.

In Chap. 5, we return to the core topic of this book: EE. The main focus will be on presenting results from studies that target the relation between EE and 'school' English. It should be clear by now, after the first four chapters, that L2 English learning and teaching is a fascinating and multifaceted topic, and EE in the next chapter is no exception in that regard.

## Suggested Further Reading and Links

- For readers who would like to learn more about the fascinating topic of SLA, we recommend the following volumes: *Alternative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition* (Atkinson, 2011b), *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* (R. Ellis, 1994), *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (Gass & Mackey, 2012), *Second Language Learning Theories* (Mitchell et al., 2013), and *Understanding Second Language Acquisition* (Ortega, 2009).
- Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 Motivational Self System has Markus and Nurius's (1986) theory of Possible Selves at its core. Read more about possible selves in *American Psychologist*.
- If you are interested in age in L2 learning, read the special issue of *Applied Linguistics* from 2014 (volume 35, issue 4, edited by Carmen Muñoz), 'Complexities and interactions of age in second language learning: Broadening the research agenda.'

## Study Questions

1. In the section on Complexity theory, the borrowing of terms from other fields is discussed, for example, with regard to *co-adaptation* and *convergence*. What other terms in this chapter belonging to different theoretical frameworks come across as very similar? Why might it be relevant to distinguish seemingly close terms in this way? (Or are such distinctions superfluous? Why?)
2. Hulstijn et al. (2014) suggest that cognitive and social researchers most likely would benefit by acknowledging each other's insights and methods. What specific insights and methods might be particularly important for each side to acknowledge? Why?
3. What experiences do you have of using formative assessment in the classroom? How would you like to work with formative assessment?
4. How can confirmatory feedback be used in teacher training? Read Kurtoglu-Hooton (2016) and discuss the benefits and drawbacks of using confirmatory feedback in L2 English teacher education.



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# 5

## Evidence from Extramural English Informing English Language Teaching

As is well known, there is plenty of anecdotal evidence of the effectiveness of language learning from activities done for another purpose. If asked, any parent or teacher can provide evidence of the surprising amount of words a child knows in an L2 just because he or she engages in reading, gaming, or film-watching in that language. However, while anecdotal evidence is a good start, it is certainly not enough for proving that certain correlations exist between factors; we need findings obtained through scientific research. Therefore, in this chapter, we give an overview of empirical studies targeting the relation between extramural English and L2 English learning. The chapter is basically organized in a chronological order, so that studies from the 1990s are reported first, followed by those published after the turn of the century. The chapter ends with reports targeting a specific EE activity, namely digital gaming, in relation to L2 learning.



## Studies into EE and Language Learning from the 1990s

One of the very first scholars to mention the positive aspects of 'real' use of an L2 in an L2 learning process was Bialystok (1981) who argues that in language learning '[t]he most functional situation would likely occur outside the classroom, in a natural setting, where conveying the message is the only essential goal of the language occasion' (p. 24). She refers to such use of an L2 outside the classroom as *functional practice*. In a questionnaire-based study among 157 learners of French, ages 14 to 17, she found such functional practice to be of importance in the achievement of all tasks investigated. Even though the study is solely based on a questionnaire, it was an early indicator of the relevance of taking functional practice (i.e., what we here refer to as EE) into account when looking into L2 learning and to use it as an example of a fruitful L2 learning strategy.

The idea of functional practice is given further evidence in a study by Nunan (1991), in which he found that the classroom is insufficient in order to develop high levels of proficiency in English. He studied EE habits among 44 high achievers using interviews and questionnaires, and the results suggest that for these 'good' language learners, the L2 classroom had evidently not been the only source of learning. Rather, they had taken advantage of many opportunities outside of school in order to enhance their language skills. Among the activities mentioned by the informants were conversations with native English speakers, listening to the radio, watching TV, and reading newspapers.

In line with both Bialystok (1981) and Nunan (1991), Pickard (1995) states that '[i]t is my belief that languages are not learnt solely in the language classroom' (p. 35), and by interviewing three German learners of English, he sets out to prove his point. Indeed, there is evidence for the importance of out-of-class language exposure in all three cases included in the study. The first, a 23-year-old female, claims that the time she had spent in Britain and the motivation sprung from her own interest (in Scottish dance!) were the two main factors for her continued efforts in becoming even more proficient in English. The second, a 22-year-old male, reported reading a great deal of English novels and said that the main thing with reading is that the content is of interest to the learner, no

matter what it is. Interestingly, this informant was clearly opposed to the common school practice of mandatory reading. He strongly emphasized that reading has to be based on the individual's own choice. Furthermore, he claimed that a short trip to England had had a decisive impact on his interest in pursuing his language studies. This is hypothesized by Pickard (1995) to be due to the fact that this young man during his week-long stay in London experienced, for the first time, that language truly is a means of communication. The third informant, a 23-year-old female, emphasized her time spent abroad as the most influential factor on her English learning process. In conclusion, Pickard (1995, p. 37), in what seems as a state of surprise, notes that in spite of not being recommended specifically by a teacher, activities such as reading outside of the classroom and listening to the radio are factors high on the list of effective learning strategies among the three students in the study, all of whom were high achievers as regards L2 English proficiency.

As is well known, English is dominant in many media, and it has been suggested that in countries using subtitles rather than dubbing, children become acquainted with a considerable amount of English long before they start school (Berns, 2007). Subtitled TV programs and their effects on incidental L2 acquisition have been studied a great deal, and among the first to take an interest in this relationship were d'Ydewalle and colleagues. Early on, studies implementing eye-movement recordings showed that reading subtitles on a screen is an automatic process, happening mandatorily (d'Ydewalle & Gielen, 1992; Gielen, 1988). Furthermore, studies on adults exposed to subtitled TV programs showed significant effects on vocabulary acquisition, whereas no, or very small, effects were seen for syntax and grammar (d'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1995, 1997; Pavakanun & d'Ydewalle, 1992). In a study on slightly younger individuals, d'Ydewalle and van de Poel (1999) investigated 327 Dutch children between eight and 12 years of age, studying Danish and French as L2s. The children were exposed to a short, ten-minute, film extract in four different experimental conditions: in the first, the soundtrack was in French and the subtitles in Dutch; in the second, the soundtrack was in Dutch and the subtitles in French; in the third, a Danish soundtrack was heard with Dutch subtitles; and in the fourth, the soundtrack was Dutch and subtitles Danish. The results indicate that having the L2 in the soundtrack

with subtitles in the L1 is beneficial above all for L2 vocabulary acquisition to occur. In addition, the level of similarity between the L1 and the L2 seems to be of importance, so that the closer the L2 is to the L1 (in this case, Danish is closer to Dutch than French is), the larger the positive effects of the auditory input through the TV program. It should be borne in mind when looking at these results, that the study is severely limited, as only ten-minute film extracts were shown and language effects were measured in immediate connection with the experiments. Nevertheless, these findings point to an interesting correlation between watching TV programs and L2 gains also among young learners.

These studies into L2 learners and their paths to learning the TL paved the way to an increased interest in the role of language learning outside of the classroom. In the next section, we move on to studies that appeared after the turn of the century. Much of their focus is on digital L2 learning trails.

## Post-Millennium Studies into EE and Learning

With the advent of the Internet, and its gradual spread into the homes of an increasing number of individuals around the globe, new encounters with English became available (see Chap. 2). Via online chat rooms and communities, individuals were all of a sudden able to communicate with one another, orally and in writing, regardless of where in the world they were located. In online games, they were able to challenge each other regardless of L1; the overall online lingua franca was English. Thus, possibilities to use and be exposed to English really started to increase.

In an ethnographically inspired case study, Lam (2000) showed how a Chinese teenager living in the USA was able to construct his English identity discursively in synchronous and asynchronous communication on the computer with peers. For a long time, this student had been concerned about the slow progress he made in English and wanted to take measures to speed it up. By communicating on the Internet with friends all around the globe, and using tutorials, among other things about building websites, he was able to improve his written skills immensely. Above all, the English he used and encountered on the Internet 'enabled

him to develop a sense of belonging and connectedness to a global English-speaking community' (Lam, 2000, p. 476).

The legendary 'hole-in-the-wall' experiment carried out in urban slum and rural areas in India, where Mitra et al. (2005) made computers available publically to children, is an example of an innovative study on what computers can do for young learners. They found that the technology offers children unique intellectual experiences and opportunities, and, in addition to acquiring computer literacy, these children also benefited socially and academically. This is one example of the importance of so-called learner autonomy, a term introduced by Holec (1981), where learners take control of their own learning (see also Chap. 7). Learner autonomy is closely associated with EE, and the inherent opportunities offered for L2 learning; for autonomous learners, EE is a useful strategy to master.

Looking at effects of CLIL on the incidental acquisition of English vocabulary, Sylvén (2004/2010) administered vocabulary tests to 15–18-year-old Swedish CLIL and non-CLIL students. While the CLIL students encountered English as the medium of instruction in several subjects during the school day in addition to studying it as a subject per se, the non-CLIL students only studied English as a separate subject. The somewhat astonishing findings showed that regardless of group, it was students with the largest amounts of English input *outside* of school who scored the best on the vocabulary tests administered, and especially those who read English texts on their own. In other words, it seems as though EE was more important for the incidental acquisition of vocabulary than CLIL instruction in school, suggesting that those high-scoring students also are typical autonomous learners who spend time outside of school engaging in EE activities.

This hypothesis is further strengthened in a study by Pearson (2004) in China. He followed Chinese students during a 12-week course in English for Academic Purposes. Eight of them were followed closely with regular interviews and 106 filled out a questionnaire at the end of the course. The questionnaire covered areas such as what materials were used outside of class, why they chose to use these materials, and what extramural activities they were involved in to improve their English. Pearson (2004) could conclude that for out-of-class L2 English learning to take place,

motivation and awareness were decisive learner characteristics. Learners with high intrinsic motivation seemed more enthusiastic about using English outside of school than those with lower levels of such motivation. In addition, the more proficient students (as measured by an initial placement test) made use of a self-access center to a larger extent than the less proficient ones, again pointing at learner autonomy as an important trait for successful L2 learning.

At about the same time, Forsman (2004) investigated EE habits among Finnish students in the secondary level of the nine-year compulsory school. She found that students in urban areas were exposed to EE to a significantly larger extent than those in more rural areas (51.1 vs. 36.7 hours per week). Forsman (2004) takes this as evidence of the fact that the urban/rural divide is a more important predictor of success than other factors. This study can be compared to the one carried out by Lamb (2004b) in provincial Indonesia among young learners in their first year in junior high school where access to computers was very limited. Yet, it was found that these learners learned English independently, without instruction from their teacher, both inside and outside of the classroom by listening to music and watching TV programs and films. Reading books or magazines in English were also among the activities listed, but to a lesser extent. Lamb's (2004b) findings once more support the strong relationship between EE and learner autonomy.

Watching films in an L2 seems to be a promising L2 learning activity, although apparently not used widely in classrooms. Pegrum, Hartley, and Wechtler (2005) asked 138 English-speaking students who were studying either French, German, or Spanish about their views on the use of films as a language learning tool. Although very few had experiences of such use of films, the general response to the idea was very enthusiastic, and one of the informants commented that 'it is a stroke of genius and would encourage learning' (Pegrum et al., 2005, p. 61). This idea is explored further by van Patten (2015), who claims that films can be a very valuable resource in a language learning context, as they provide significant amounts of communicative input. However, he laments the lack of research into effects of this specific use of film, and calls for a greater degree of interest from the scientific community.

A comprehensive approach to the use of English outside of the classroom is taken in the edited volume by Berns, de Bot, and Hasebrink (2007), where a total of 2,248 individuals, aged 12–18, in four different countries, Belgium, France, Germany, and the Netherlands, participated in a longitudinal project. The aims of the study were to: first, investigate the impact of the home environment on young people's access to media, and that of parents' level of education on attitudes toward English; second, explore where, how frequently, and with whom young people encounter English; third, look into the possible impact exposure to English media may have on motivation and attitudes toward learning and using English; and fourth, examine the possible impact exposure to English may have on English acquisition. The empirical data collected consisted of questionnaires and vocabulary tests. As the project design in its entirety is complex, there are many factors to take into account when analyzing and discussing results. However, de Bot and Evers (2007), in their contribution to the volume, arrive at the general conclusions that contact with English is made via radio music, CDs and cassettes, TV, the English teacher at school, and also, to a limited extent, via computers and traveling abroad. Furthermore, all groups of participants seemed to like English, considered having a good command of English to be important, and agreed to the fact that English is important above all for communication abroad and for the understanding of song lyrics, books, TV, and computer programs. In addition, it was found that all groups were of the opinion that school is the most important source of English input. In an analysis of parts of the data from the project, Hasebrink (2007) saw that the Internet was the only medium that highly correlated with amount of use and English contact, which the researcher argues is an indication that using computers is necessarily linked to English. For contacts with English through other media, such sources have to be especially selected by the individual. One of the major findings of the project as such, according to Hasebrink (2007), is that different kinds of English proficiency develop in different media environments, and that this serves to prove that

young people selectively choose the media which then build their media environment, which may differ quite substantially from group to group. These differences correspond to differences in English proficiency and

underscore that proficiency may not be conceptualized as a one-dimensional construct. Instead, young people develop very specific and differentiated patterns of English proficiency. (Hasebrink, 2007, p. 109)

Attempting to trace explanations for the motivation of Indonesian L2 English learners to pursue their studies, Lamb (2007) interviewed a number of students at junior high school. These students came from relatively advantageous home backgrounds, which Lamb emphasizes needs to be taken into account when looking at the results. His investigation shows that, while the general interest in English as a school subject seems to steadily decrease during the students' time in junior high school—a finding which is corroborated by others (cf., e.g., Pintrich, 2003)—their motivation to make progress in English proficiency remains at a fairly high level. According to Lamb (2007), the explanation for these seemingly paradoxical results is that while students may feel bored during English class due to, for instance, characteristics of individual teachers, they are very much aware of the need to gain proficiency in English in order to be successful in their future professional lives. Furthermore, Lamb (2007, p. 765) saw that the amount of EE among these students had increased during their time in junior high school. The largest increase was seen in the use of computers and watching English TV programs, but listening to English songs was the most popular activity. In a similar vein, Murray (2008) interviewed adult Japanese L2 English learners, and concludes with the key finding that they all shared a great interest in American pop culture. This interest proved to be the factor that most of all kept their motivation to learn English intact.

Pop culture as a means of improving the proficiency among heritage language learners of Korean was explored in Choi and Yi (2012). Designing a new course for advanced heritage language learners at university level, the authors conducted a needs analysis among their students and found heritage pop culture to be a factor of importance. Therefore, pop culture was employed as an example of informal language, and as a bridge into the more formal language used in academic contexts. For instance, pop lyrics were used as a point of access to other Korean literacy practices, as the point of departure for various writing assignments, and as a forum for discussions on topics such as social issues. Choi and Yi

(2012) conclude that by learning about students' out-of-school interests, teachers are in a favorable position to build on them for in-school literacy and language activities.

In a rare study focusing on another L2 than English, the learning trajectory of an American advanced learner of Arabic was traced (Samimy, 2008). The learner, Mark, had studied Arabic for 13 years at the start of this qualitative study, and had reached a superior level in oral proficiency. Samimy wanted to investigate how this was possible. It turned out that Mark was a highly motivated, autonomous, diligent, and disciplined learner of Arabic, who, among other things, tried to apply his experiences from learning how to play the guitar to language learning. He took advantage of every conceivable moment to practice his Arabic, and talked about how he every morning put himself in 'an Arabic bubble' (Samimy, 2008, p. 407). He listened to Arabic TV programs, radio broadcasts, Qu'ran poetry, and Arabic songs, which he had recorded so that they were readily available to him at any time. He even claimed that he rarely spoke anything in Arabic that he had not 'heard on a tape from a mini-series, or a sit-com' (Samimy, 2008, p. 410) in order to be absolutely sure that his oral output was correct Arabic. Thus, by employing a strict discipline and forcing himself to be immersed in the target language, Mark was able to reach nativelikeness in his Arabic proficiency. In Chap. 7, we tell the story of Eldin, which in many ways is similar to that of Mark.

Above, we saw that extramural reading in English seems to promote learning in, for instance, Pickard's (1995) study. In a later study, Arnold (2009) found that eight university learners whose L1 was English, studying German, made great improvements through extensive reading. The reading took place online and was of their own choice. Interestingly, as a challenge to themselves, these learners were looking for ever more challenging texts in order to stimulate and inspire their L2 German learning. And indeed, these students, who were involved in an extensive reading program in German as a foreign language (online reading, no teacher pre-selection of books), improved their reading ability and motivation to read. Arnold (2009, p. 360) interpreted the fact that these learners wanted more challenging texts as a sign of a growing intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy. *Self-efficacy* is a concept introduced by Bandura (2001) which captures the individual's belief in their own power to do something



specific, and is commonly found in connection with L2 learning motivation. Arnold's findings can also be yet another example of learner autonomy. Positive effects of extensive reading were similarly found in another study where four learners revealed, in self-reports and interviews, that they felt that their aural and oral proficiency in English had improved thanks to the reading (Cho & Krashen, 1994). The researchers hypothesized that the learners' self-assessed improvement was at least partly due to their increased vocabulary, as measured in pretests and posttests.

In an investigation of L2 English learners from Hong Kong and Germany, Chik and Breidbach (2011) traced the language learning histories of 12 Hong Kong and four German learners of English, and found extramural contact with English to play an important role for all informants. One of the Hong Kong students said that '[s]chool helped me to learn writing and reading ... TV does the rest' (Chik & Breidbach, 2011, p. 558), illustrating the significant impact EE had on these learners. The authors saw a clear relationship between an emerging autonomy in the learners and their language learning beyond the classroom.

What kinds of text, then, may be best suited for L2 learners? To investigate the usefulness of texts written for specific audiences, such as children's books, literature targeting adult readers, and graded readers aimed for language learners, respectively, Webb and Macalister (2013), employing corpus methods, found that the lexical load in texts specifically written for children is surprisingly similar to that of texts targeting adults. More specifically, they found that in order to cover approximately 98 % of the text found in a journal published for school children, a knowledge of the 10,000 most frequent word families plus proper nouns was needed (Webb & Macalister, 2013, p. 313), and that the figures were very similar to those found in texts addressing adult readers. Their conclusion was that graded readers, specifically targeting language learners, are more suited for extensive reading purposes than texts written for either children or adults that may be used for intensive reading. The fact that the texts are adapted specifically for language learners, the authors claim, will enable the learners to enjoy reading better, and thus, also hopefully lead to further reading on the part of the learner. Note the difference between these findings, which are solely based on quantitative measures of vocabulary, and the comments made by the 22-year-old

student in Pickard's (1995) study, who argued that it is the content of what you read that is decisive for the possible L2 gains made, and with the students in Arnold's (2009) study, who actively looked for more challenging texts to read.

Above, we mentioned a few studies looking into the effects of subtitles on L2 learning. Taking a slightly different approach, Rodgers and Webb (2011) explored television as the source of English input from the perspective of the vocabulary encountered. In an earlier study, Webb and Rodgers (2009b) found that learners with a vocabulary size of more than 3,000 word families who watched English TV programs an hour every day were likely to significantly increase their levels of incidental vocabulary learning. Previously, Webb (2007) had shown that ten encounters of a vocabulary item is likely to lead to learning gains, and Rodgers and Webb (2011) found that watching all episodes in a TV series enhances the possibilities to encounter the same vocabulary items several times as compared to watching unrelated TV programs. They conclude that 'students should be made aware that through watching successive episodes of one program they can expect to learn the spoken form of English, improve their L2 listening skills, learn about foreign culture, and enjoy the process at the same time' (Rodgers & Webb, 2011, p. 712).

Also using corpus methods, Al-Surmi (2012) explored to what extent spoken conversations in various TV shows are authentic. He analyzed the conversations in a number of sit-coms and soap operas, and the results revealed that while soap operas do not reflect natural conversation to any large degree, sit-coms do so to a greater extent. Both types of shows represent a range of registers (in other words, the type of language used in particular situations, for instance, formal vs. informal language) to various degrees. The awareness of such characteristics, Al-Surmi argues, is important information for, among others, teachers who then can use extracts from soap operas to illustrate certain linguistic features, and sit-coms for others. Above all, the findings reported show that not everything heard on television is representative of natural speech occurring in everyday life.

In a similar vein, Lin (2014) investigated the occurrence of so-called formulaic sequences (i.e., multi-word items such as *I don't know*, *a lot of*, *be able to*) in Internet television shows and how they correlate with everyday speech. Internet television displays some important benefits

compared to regular TV: it is easily accessible and unlimited in the sense that programs can be watched at any time and for as many times as the viewer wants. Unlike Al-Surmi's (2012) results, the findings from Lin's study show that Internet television has great potential as an L2 learning tool concerning formulaic sequences, as the occurrence of them in these TV programs not only feature the most frequently occurring ones in everyday speech, but the proportions in which they occur are also in direct proportion to everyday language. Lin (2014) points out that it is above all in the particular genres of factual, drama, and comedy that these authentic patterns in the use of formulaic sequences are apparent.

Investigating possible correlations between EE and genre awareness in written production, Olsson (2011) asked 37 students in ninth grade to write two types of text. Both texts were to be based on the successful emergency landing of a plane on the Hudson River in 2009. In the first text, the students were to take a personal stance in an e-mail or letter to a friend or relative in which they were to describe what had happened, as if they had been one of the passengers on board. The other text was to be a newspaper article, where the writer was asked to take on the role as a news reporter commenting on this incident. Through the use of a language diary (see Chap. 6), Olsson collected information about the students' use of English outside of school. The results showed that there were great individual differences in the use of EE among the students, and that boys encountered EE to a larger extent than girls. Furthermore, the students with the highest amounts of EE also got the highest grade in the English subject at school. As regards their writing, the students who frequently were exposed to English outside of school also wrote longer sentences and used a more varied vocabulary, especially in the e-mail/letter where a more informal type of language was used. In addition, they showed a greater sense of genre awareness as they used longer and more infrequent words in their newspaper article, in accordance with expectations on a more formal register. In sum, Olsson (2011) showed that students with large amounts of EE are more able to adapt their language to the two text types involved in the study.

A symposium devoted to digital literacies in the area of L2 teaching appeared in the renowned journal *TESOL Quarterly* in 2013, edited by Hafner, Chik, and Jones (2013), and a number of international scholars were invited to share and discuss their views on the topic. A great concern

among the editors was the fact that even though research more or less unanimously acknowledges the potential for L2 learning purposes held by various digital sources, this has not been picked up in mainstream L2 classrooms where focus tends to be on the curricular goals centered around printed material. Hafner, Chik, and Jones state the need for L2 teachers to become aware of and acquainted with the digital literacy practices found, and how these can be used in the L2 learning process. Barton and Potts (2013), in their contribution to the symposium, refer to young individuals' use of digital media and their different paths of doing so as a 'language-as-social-practice' approach to L2 learning (cf. Bialystok's term *functional practice* from 1981). They point to the crucial role teachers can play in overcoming barriers that may exist for certain learners in accessing digital environments and use terms such as *access*, *accommodation*, *linkage*, and *expansion*. The latter terms draw on, for instance, Gee's (2005) so-called *affinity spaces* and how the inclusion in such spaces can be linked and expanded to be applicable also in other contexts. Lam (2013) points to the means provided by the Internet and mobile media for migrants to first, maintain old relationships, and second, develop new ones, thus creating a great diversity in their linguistic practices. Giving an example of a Chinese female living in the USA, Lam shows how this young woman linguistically relates to different contexts; messages and blogging with her Chinese community; an online gaming network in the USA; and a transnational network of friends and relatives. Lam argues that educational practices need to reconsider 'these young people's communicative repertoires as resources for learning instead of keeping them invisible or marginalized in the classroom' (Lam, 2013, p. 823). Chik (2013) brings up the great advance of digital gaming into the lives of young people and how, through these games, learners take control of their own L2 learning. She speculates that one possible development within the CALL community in the coming years is the development and integration of L2 gaming into formal L2 teaching and learning contexts, an issue we return to below. The concept of learner autonomy in connection to digital literacies is brought up by Benson (2013) in his contribution to the symposium. He argues that the meaning of the concept is quite different from what it was in the pre-digital age, as access to English nowadays abounds for any L2 learner.

Fan communities have also proven to be a fruitful way for L2 learners to practice and develop their L2 skills. Black (2005, 2008) has published extensively on the topic, reporting on L2 fan participants' use of and progress in English. Fan communities are venues where individuals gather to share an interest in a particular film, book, TV series, and so on. They meet in order to have their own personal say in what, for instance, a certain character does apart from what is apparent in the actual work. Fans of Sherlock Holmes are said to be among the first to create a fan community, and it has been followed by innumerable others. In fan communities online, people from all over the world participate, and not only do they post their own plot texts, they also get feedback from their fellow fans. As this feedback is on both content and language, often provided by native speakers of English, great linguistic gains can be made. Thorne, Black, and Sykes (2009) refer to this as 'a collaborative and participatory form of writing' (p. 806); that is, there is direct and contextualized feedback. Black (2005, 2008) further illustrates the multilingual repertoire that often is taken advantage of in these fan communities, illustrating the ecological use of language adopted in these contexts (cf. van Lier, 2004), where language truly is used for communicative purposes regardless of which language has to be used to get a message across. Thorne, Sauro, and Smith (2015) use fandom activities on the web to illustrate how present-day use of language takes on new and creative forms, and the importance it has on individuals' identity creation, and similar reports are accounted for in Olin-Scheller and Sundqvist (2015).

A different way of communicating online is Twitter, which was launched in 2006 as a new social networking and microblogging service. Twitter is a medium through which short communicative exchanges are made; each message can consist of no more than 140 characters. Lomicka and Lord (2012) were interested in whether or not Twitter can also be used as a language-learning tool. Their study was conducted among university students and as a mandatory part of a French language class, and involved students in the USA and in France who were prompted by the teacher to communicate with one another through Twitter. Great potential was seen for the use of Twitter for language learning purposes. One of the findings was that the participants were highly appreciative of the

possibilities offered through Twitter to communicate outside of school, indicating that the students continued with their ‘*linguaging*,’ that is, they continued to communicate by using their various linguistic repertoires, also outside of the educational framework. In the same vein, Lai (2015) found, in an interview study involving 11 undergraduate L2 learners in Hong Kong, that the learners perceived in-class and out-of-class language learning to afford different functions, and that learners acted on this perception by creating complementary and synergetic learning experiences across the two contexts.

Certain digital environments offer the opportunity for learners to take on another persona and in so doing removing themselves from their natural restrictions on L2 performance. One such digital environment is *Second Life*, where the player constructs an avatar, that is, the role/character the individual plays in the environment. Yee and Bailenson (2007) were able to detect what they called a Proteus Effect among *Second Life* participants. *The Proteus effect* means that the behavior of a person is affected by how their digital self is represented, regardless of how others normally perceive them. This, in turn, allows the participant to indulge in linguistic experiments, permitting themselves to venture into previously untrodden linguistic territories where mistakes can be made without them affecting the participant personally. This is precisely what is needed for L2 progress to be made, and is captured in Gee’s (2007) principle on the ‘*psychosocial moratorium*’ mentioned below.

In her study of linguistic creativity in an online discussion board, North (2007) points to the humorous exchanges found as evidence of a ‘*natural human propensity to use language, not simply to convey ideational or interpersonal meanings, but also for the pleasure of playing with words*’ (p. 540). In the chat focused on in the study, the participants are unknown to one another, and thus the situation is in many ways comparable to the use of avatars in digital gaming, allowing participants to play around with language, which potentially can facilitate language learning, without having to worry about any negative consequences (cf. also Gee’s (2007) ‘*psychosocial moratorium*’). The use of humor is, among other things, seen by North as a way to keep the thread of communication open. Such online communicative facilities, thus allow participants

to use language in creative ways while communicating and building relationships with total strangers.

Kraemer, Ahn, Hillman, and Fei (2009) advocate the introduction of *multimedia interactive modules for education and assessment*, MIMEA. A MIMEA thus consists of interactive, multimedia modules for L2 learning based on 'short video clips showing native speakers interacting with other native, nonnative and heritage speakers in a variety of unscripted, natural situations' (Kraemer et al., 2009, p. 188). The development of MIMEA was sparked by the fact that there is so little exposure to target languages outside the classroom for language learners in the USA. MIMEAs are available in Arabic, Chinese, German, Korean, Russian, and Vietnamese. The authors argue that '[w]eb-based technology can facilitate language learning in context by offering easily accessible, authentic material' (Kraemer et al., 2009, p. 188), and that MIMEAs can help teachers of these languages create authentic experiences in their classrooms for their learners.

The important role virtual worlds can play for L2 learners is stressed by Wang and Vásquez (2012), who made a meta-analysis of research into the relationship between Web 2.0 and L2 learning and conclude that 'Web 2.0 technologies yield great potential in their application to L2 education' (p. 423), even though they point out that there are certain pitfalls to be aware of. For instance, students sometimes complained about the non-standard varieties of language they encountered when engaging in blog activities, and, further, about the small chances of improving their oral skills when using wikis and blogs.

Attempting to increase the exposure to English beyond the L2 English class, Lan (2015) created virtual contexts for elementary Taiwanese students to take part in. The overwhelmingly positive results obtained indicate that the game-like scenarios provided limitless opportunities for exposure to and learning of English, and enhanced L2 English performance in school.

Another type of exposure to an L2 than the ones accounted for thus far is what is referred to as study abroad. As the term suggests, this involves the learning of an L2 by means of living and studying in a country where the target language is spoken. Not surprisingly, many studies point to the supremacy of study abroad for L2 learning as compared

with other learning contexts (compare, for instance, with the participants in Pickard's [1995] study mentioned above). Among other things, vocabulary growth has been shown to be higher after a study-abroad experience than after regular school training as well as after immersion schooling (D. P. Dewey, 2008; Foster, 2009). Listening skills also seem to improve efficiently in a study abroad context (Cubillos, Chieffo, & Fan, 2008; Llanes & Muñoz, 2009). As regards possible effects of study abroad on writing skills, there is diverging evidence. Freed, So, and Lazar (2003) and Llanes and Muñoz (2013) reached the conclusion that the written proficiency among study-abroad participants did not improve, whereas Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2009) and Sasaki (2004, 2009) found that a period abroad indeed was conducive to improved written skills. Pérez-Vidal, Juan-Garau, Mora, and Valls-Ferrer (2012) found that a study-abroad context, in comparison with regular formal instruction, impacts both oral (see also Freed, 1995) and written skills to a larger extent, and in particular as regards oral fluency and accuracy.

As touched upon in Chap. 1, at least from the perspective of EE, it is challenging to research the effects of study abroad due to the fact that it is virtually impossible to distinguish what is learned within educational settings and what is learned extramurally. As the name suggests, a period of study abroad indeed entails studying, and not only being abroad. Nevertheless, it is of interest in any L2 learning context to be aware of the many positive aspects of study-abroad experiences.

To sum up the studies accounted for in this section, it seems beyond doubt that EE, learner autonomy, and successful L2 English learning are interrelated. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to convey information about this interrelatedness to all learners in order to help them take control over their own learning and, thus, become more autonomous. With reference to the theoretical model and Fig. 1.1 introduced in Chap. 1, learners should be helped to move upwards above the horizontal axis to more out-of-school learning sites, and strive to the more learner-initiated right-hand side. This is, of course, particularly important for learners who tend to lag behind and who really are in need of assistance as regards their L2 learning. In the next section, the focus is on studies into digital gaming.



## Studies into Digital Gaming and L2 English Learning

In this section, studies particularly interested in the relationship between EE in the form of digital games and L2 English learning are focused. Gaming is a worldwide phenomenon that engages many L2 English speakers and, therefore, it is relevant to discuss what possible learning gains there may be. Furthermore, it is our experience that teachers who are knowledgeable about gaming are well prepared for groups of learners that can otherwise be rather challenging to teach (see Chap. 7).

Gee (2007) defines a total of 36 general learning principles in regard to what video games have to do with learning and literacy. Many of the principles are directly applicable to L2 learning and may help explain the inherent power of digital gaming as an effective L2 learning tool. Among the 36 principles, approximately 20 can be claimed also to apply to L2 learning. Here, we discuss the most important ones of these, and refer interested readers to Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012c) for a comprehensive view of the application of Gee's (2007) principles to L2 learning.

The first of Gee's (2007) principles is *the active, critical learning principle*. It holds that all aspects of the gaming activity encourage active and critical learning, which indeed also is vital for L2 learning. Thus, by being active and critical, not only the game itself is learned and understood but also the language through which it is communicated. *The semiotic principle* involves the learning of the interrelationships that exist in the complex gaming system between words, signs, actions, and artifacts. Also this is easily transferrable to the L2 learning situation; to understand all the complexities and interrelationships in a language is fruitful in the process of mastering an L2. *The meta-level thinking about semiotic domain principle* is closely connected to the semiotic principle also in the L2 learning context. To understand the relationships between semiotic (i.e., the use of signs and images) domains at a meta-level is important in any language. One of the most important principles as regards L2 learning, however, is *the 'psychosocial moratorium' principle*, which means that learners can take risks in a space where the consequences are of minimal concern as compared with a real-life situation (see the discussion in connection with *Second Life*).

Being able to try various ways of expressing oneself in an L2, without the risk of being corrected or made fun of, is a wonderful way of becoming more and more secure in one's own role as an L2 user. Not least Norton's (2013) findings (see Chap. 4) lend empirical support to *the 'psychosocial moratorium' principle*. Furthermore, *the amplification of input principle* is also important for the L2 learner. It means that for whatever amount of input supplied by the player/learner, a great deal of more output is obtained. As is well known, input and output are among the cornerstones of L2 learning (see Chap. 4). Closely connected to this principle is *the practice principle*, which stipulates that the player/learner practices a great deal to complete tasks. What makes such practice in a gaming environment special is that it rarely gets boring, as the player is in control and can monitor the ongoing success in the game (or L2 learning process). *The regime of competence principle* is in line with Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (see Chap. 4), in which the learner, with the help of elders or more able peers, is pushed to perform at the outer edge of their own competence. Thus, the task/activity is challenging but not undoable. *The situated meaning principle* and *the text principle* are closely related to one another and concern the fact that in a gaming situation, the meanings of signs and text are not understood in a general or verbal sense, but rather through embodied experiences. *The intertextual principle*, which follows from the situated meaning and the text principles, says that the understanding through embodied experiences successively leads to an understanding of types of texts, or genres, and that such understanding in itself is helpful when trying to make sense of new text. *The transfer principle* regards the transferability of gained knowledge in one domain into others. This is, of course, also vital as regards L2 learning; the ability to use words or phrases learned in one environment (for instance, in gameplay) in completely different contexts (such as when encountering a stranger in the street) is important for any L2 learner. As pointed out by DeKeyser (2007), the automatization of an acquisition procedure that may have started in one context may be facilitated by its practice in another. Finally, *the affinity group principle* means that as a player, one interacts with other individuals sharing the same interests, values, and goals. This is important for language learners since feeling secure makes the use of the L2 much easier.

Having gone through Gee's (2007) list of principles connected with digital gaming and selected some that are particularly applicable to L2 learning, we can see that such games indeed have a great deal to tell teachers and learners about L2 learning. These principles also help in explaining some of the findings reported below, from studies into the effects of playing digital games on L2 learning.

Before going into studies targeting digital games and L2 learning, it is appropriate to give a brief description of different types of games. A multitude of digital games and game genres are available and there are several ways in which categories can be assigned to them. One is to focus on the content of the game and accordingly label them as, for instance, either sports, virtual pet, simulation, or role-playing and action/adventure games, as was done by deHaan (2005). Another way is to label games according to the type activity it offers: active, explorative, problem solving, strategic, social, or creative, as suggested by Kinzie and Joseph (2008). A third option is to focus on the scale of the social interaction in the game; that is, whether they are singleplayer, multiplayer, or massively multiplayer games. This is suggested in the Scale of Social Interaction Model (Sundqvist, 2013), or the SSI Model. All of the labels and categories mentioned in these categorizations are useful when describing and discussing digital games. The use of one above the other is dictated by the context. For instance, the SSI Model is particularly useful when carrying out quantitative research on correlations between L2 learning and gameplay, whereas the categorization by content may be more useful when trying to find games suitable for a certain learner or group of learners.

In a study where the researcher used himself as the object of study, Purushotma (2005) played the singleplayer simulation game *The Sims* in its German version with the aim of teaching himself German. Claiming to have been the world's worst language learner while in school, he managed to learn a certain extent of German through *The Sims*. He continues by suggesting other ways (for instance, by listening to music, browsing the web, and learning how to type) in which language learners can become motivated enough to learn an L2, and stresses the importance of a sense of enjoyment on the part of the learner in order to allow for learning to occur. These suggestions can be compared with Pearson's (2004) conclusions accounted for above. While Pearson claims that learners need to be aware and motivated for out-of-class L2 learning to be possible, Purushotma

(2005) argues for the other side of the coin, namely for out-of-class activities through which learners will become motivated enough to enable L2 learning. Purushotma's argument is strengthened by Turgut and Irgin (2009). By interviewing and observing 10–14-year-olds at Internet cafés in Turkey, they found that digital gaming facilitated vocabulary acquisition, increased motivation, and raised awareness about pros and cons of gaming.

Piirainen-Marsh and Tainio (2009) investigated language use among players of *Final Fantasy X*, a science-fantasy multiplayer role-playing game, in which lexical and prosodic repetitions are an integral part. Based on data from video recordings of game interaction in the home environment, the researchers found that the players/learners (boys, aged 10–14) developed both their linguistic and interactional competence in English. During the game, the players reproduced, practiced, performed, and played with different characters' styles and accents of English. Specifically, the frequent repetition of language used in the game was found to be linked to the L2 learning of these boys (see also Piirainen-Marsh, 2011). Similarly, Greenberg, Sherry, Lachlan, Lucas, and Holmstrom (2010) found that the young teenage boys that they investigated preferred games that are physically oriented, such as MMORPGs (or, at times, simply MMOs).

With the aim of investigating the use and spread of EE among students in Sweden, and possible correlations between EE and various language learning outcomes, a number of studies have been conducted by ourselves. The starting point for all of these studies was to explore EE in general, but it was soon evident that digital gaming played a more prominent role for L2 English learning than other types of EE. Sundqvist (2009; see also Sundqvist, 2011) investigated oral proficiency among ninth graders and found a significant correlation with amount of EE; those with high amounts of EE performed better orally. Furthermore, there was a significant correlation with vocabulary proficiency. In addition, Sundqvist (2009) found that the EE activities digital gaming, reading, and using the Internet were more conducive to L2 learning than other types of EE activities. In a joint study, we looked into EE habits among children in fifth grade and whether EE correlated with some aspects of L2 proficiency (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012a). We based our analyses on empirical data consisting of language diaries (see Chap. 6), vocabulary tests, results on national tests in English (reading and listening), and final grades. Among these learners, the average time spent on EE was 9.4 hours per week, with the boys 'in

the lead' with 10.6 hours compared to the girls' 8.4 hours. As mentioned above, we were specifically interested in the EE activity of digital gaming and, therefore, divided the sample into three groups: non-gamers, moderate gamers, and frequent gamers. The results clearly revealed an upper hand for the frequent gamers, who scored significantly higher than the other two groups on all measures. In a related study, we looked at even younger learners, namely students in the fourth grade (Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014). Also in this age group, the amount of EE was extensive, with an average of 7.2 hours per week. The boys were exposed to English to a larger degree than the girls, with 11.5 hours as compared to 5.1. Not only was there a significant difference in the total amount of time spent on EE, there was also a significant gender difference in types of EE with the boys engaging more in digital games and watching TV. With the same methodological approach as in Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012a), we divided the sample into three gaming groups, and for this age group, it was found that the frequent gamers were those who were most motivated to study English, and they reported the lowest amount of speaking anxiety. We take these results as indicative of the positive influence of EE, not only as regards L2 learning but also for lowering affective factors of importance in the L2 learning process.

Involving both language teachers and experienced gamers, Chik (2012) investigated views on digital games as a possible resource for L2 learning. The results show that teachers who were not well versed in digital gaming did not see any connection between gaming and L2 learning, whereas gamers saw potential for language learning in three areas: through in-game texts, through online gaming platforms, and in discussion forums.

Looking into extramural English gameplay and its correlation with English vocabulary proficiency, Sundqvist and Wikström (2015) investigated Swedish learners in ninth grade (aged 15–16). Based on questionnaire and language diary data, three gamer groups were used also in this study (non-gamers, moderate gamers, and frequent gamers). These groups were compared with regard to, for example, use of advanced vocabulary in free essay writing, essay grades, results on vocabulary tests, and final grades in the school subject English. The group of frequent gamers used significantly more advanced words (defined as words with three syllables or more) in their essays compared with the other two groups, and they also received the highest essay grade and final grade in English. The study also found positive correlations between the amount of, on the one hand, gameplay and, on the

other, vocabulary test scores and final grades, but interestingly enough only for the boys. No such correlations were found for the girls, explained by the fact that the girls engaged in gameplay to a much lesser extent than the boys (Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015). These results corroborate earlier findings in Carr and Pauwels (2006), who came to the conclusion that boys seem to prefer to learn languages through games rather than in more traditional ways.

Zheng, Bischoff, and Gilliland (2015) examined vocabulary learning that may occur in the massively multiplayer online role-playing game *World of Warcraft*. In their study, two players participated in a quest; one of them was an L1 speaker of English and the other a Japanese university student. The authors looked into the role-playing between avatars as well as between the two players as individuals. By using iterative, multimodal analyses of a two-hour quest-play in English, they identified several instances of vocabulary learning on the part of the Japanese player. Both players chose avatars so that they could co-play in the quest, and in these avatar interactions, the Japanese player from time to time took personal advantage of his L1 English friend to ask for interpretations of words he did not understand. Furthermore, the Japanese player gained vocabulary insights through the quest descriptions within the game, where information about the quest is given. Such descriptions offer 'a rich linguistic in-game resource' (Zheng et al., 2015, p. 782). The authors argue that 'learning in the digital era requires shifting from content mastery to critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration, participation, and distribution in digital environments' (Zheng et al., 2015, p. 787), which accords well with the social turn in SLA discussed in the previous chapter. Furthermore, the study concludes that MMORPG environments are powerful as language-learning platforms as they offer an embodied experience of otherwise abstract words.

Apparently acknowledging the effective characteristics of CALL in the form of digital games, but at the same time not trusting such games for use in their original form in the educational context, Chapelle (2001) set out a number of principles in order to adapt digital games for a specific language-learning context. Among these principles are clear instructions, vocabulary lists, explanatory notes, and access to online dictionaries. Although we realize that such adaptations may be necessary for digital games to be used within the classroom, we argue that digital games, and in particular games requiring large amounts of interaction between players, are indeed excellent L2 learning arenas. Furthermore, we also argue

that these games function best if chosen voluntarily by the learner, and engaged in during his or her spare time.

## Classroom Adaptations of CALL Activities

As early as in 1991, Garrett published a seminal article in the *Modern Language Journal* about the need to adopt L2 teaching to the technological developments that had started to quickly change people's everyday lives outside of the education contexts (Garrett, 1991). She saw the potential of using computers in the teaching of all four language skills—reading, listening, speaking, and writing—and she also addressed the issue of assessment in the form of computer-adapted testing. Furthermore, she proposed that students could choose activities that best suited their individual learning styles, thereby creating an individualization of L2 teaching. In 2016, all these issues are still on the L2 teaching agenda. Even though we fully agree with the editor of this book series, Hayo Reinders, who in his closing remarks at a symposium on CALL at the AILA World Congress in Beijing in 2011 said 'Do not let applied linguists mess up game design,' a great deal of research has been carried out on the use of digital media in L2 teaching along the paths suggested by Garrett (1991). Thus, in the following, some studies which are not on EE per se, but rather on possible adaptations of EE in the form of digital games and other CALL-related activities to fit into the classroom, with the sole ambition to be used as language-learning tools, will be referred to. While such studies could be argued to fall outside the scope of this book, we nevertheless include the results of them as they indeed verify the inherent potential of digital gaming for L2 learning.

Miller and Hegelheimer (2006) used Chapelle's (2001) adaptation framework, and provided support material to the game *The Sims* to a number of adult L2 English learners who were asked to play the game during a five-week period. *The Sims* is a singleplayer simulation game, in which the everyday life of the characters, the Sims, is created by the player. While there is no spoken language (apart from the nonsense language of Simlish), a great deal of written language appears throughout the game in, for instance, instructions and information updates. The

results were very positive, in that the informants who received mandatory supplemental materials significantly outperformed those who had voluntary access to such material as well as those who received no supplemental material at all in subsequent vocabulary tests. Ranalli (2008) did a replication of this study, where intermediate-level university L2 English students of various L1 backgrounds took part. All in all, the results mirrored those obtained by Miller and Hegelheimer (2006), and the use of adapted games is recommended. Ranalli (2008) concludes by suggesting that the playing of simulation games may be used as a complement to regular classroom work, much in the same way as extensive reading is.

Focusing on which type of platform would be most useful in a pedagogical framework, O'Brien, Levy, and Orich (2009) compared regular PCs with a cave automatic virtual environment (better known by the recursive acronym CAVE). CAVE is a system with multiple screens, resulting in a sense of total immersion in the game as well as offering a 3D experience. CAVE technology is advanced, used primarily in medical and military training, and quite expensive. The informants were 15–18 years old, L1 speakers of English in Canada, and in their third semester of German studies. All the 75 students involved were experienced game players and in the experiment, they were divided into two groups: one PC and one CAVE. Both groups were asked to engage in the same video game. Contrary to the researchers' hypothesis, the results showed that the CAVE environment did not provide a significantly better learning experience than the PC, as measured by various language tests. Students in both groups, however, found the game both funnier and more interesting than regular L2 classroom work. They also indicated that their listening skills were improved as a result of participating in the game. The researchers conclude that it is not the use of flashy technology that necessarily leads to better L2 learning, but rather the adaptation of games to support the pedagogical goals in the L2 classroom.

Exploring affective factors among L2 English learners, Zheng, Young, Wagner, and Brewer, (2009) assigned 61 middle-school students in China to two experimental groups: in the first group, the participants engaged in the game-like virtual world of *Quest Atlantis* in addition to their regular English classes. In the second group, no changes to the regular routine were made. The intervention took place once a week for 25 weeks, after which



all participants filled out questionnaires on attitudes and self-efficacy as regards L2 English learning. The results were overwhelmingly positive, as the *Quest Atlantis* group expressed a higher confidence in their use of English, their attitude toward English-language learning was more positive, and they reported an increased willingness to communicate in English. As all of these affective factors are decisive in the L2 learning process, the authors stress the important role virtual worlds can play for L2 learners.

This chapter has attempted to give a fairly detailed overview of the research conducted on the use of EE and the connected potential L2 learning opportunities, from the 1990s and onward. In order to make these research findings slightly more accessible, we end the chapter by introducing the EE House.

## Introducing the Extramural English House

It is not an easy task to communicate complex research findings to a wide audience, but the use of metaphors can be helpful and that is what we will use here when we present the EE House. As this chapter has shown, there are many highly interesting findings concerning EE and specific EE activities and their relations with various aspects of L2 English proficiency. Many of the studies we have reported on reveal statistically significant results, which means that chance can be ruled out. The conclusion is that EE certainly plays an important role in L2 English acquisition and, as a consequence, also in ELT. For readers who are fairly new to the specific field of EE research, at first reading, these relationships may not explain themselves very easily and that is why we choose to use a metaphor. Although we only touch upon the EE House in this section, where we apply it to further explain the results of our own research on primary- and secondary-school learners, we will return to the EE House in Chap. 7 in greater depth, and hopefully reveal its explanatory value for, and in, ELT practice.

First of all, imagine that EE is a house with two floors and an attic. On the first floor are the easily accessible rooms, namely a room for listening to music, another for watching TV, and a third for watching films. These rooms are on the first floor because these EE activities are



**Fig. 5.1** The EE House (illustration by Julius Sylvén)

readily available for anyone to take part in. The rooms for reading (the Library) and computer use (the Office) are found on the second floor. The reason for these two rooms being on the second floor is that it takes some effort to engage in these activities, which is here demonstrated through the stairs that have to be climbed to get to the second floor. As will be clarified in Chap. 7, from an L2 learning point of view, it is relatively important to climb the stairs (Fig. 5.1).

### Three Groups of Learners Visit the EE House

In order to show how L2 English learners of different ages may move around and spend time in the EE House, we use data from Sundqvist (2009), Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012), and Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014). The 2009 study involved L2 English learners in ninth grade. Using G. Ellis' (2013) terminology, they are upper-secondary learners. The 2012 study involved lower-secondary learners in fifth grade and the 2014 study involved upper-primary learners in fourth grade. The main findings from these studies have already been reported on above. Here we focus on presenting the results by use of the EE House

metaphor, which is possible since the same type of data were collected about EE in each study with the help of language diaries (presented in more detail in Chap. 6). For each learner group/study, starting with the oldest learners in the oldest study to the youngest ones in the most recent, we first present how much time was spent in each room in the EE House (as percentages of the total time spent in the house) for the sample in the specific study. Then, the boys' and girls' habits of moving around in the EE House are compared, again by use of the EE House and as percentages of the total time spent in the house for each gender (see Figs. 5.2–5.7). It can be mentioned that the percentages do not always add up to 100 %, which is due to the effects of rounding off. Furthermore, bold percentages indicate a statistically significant difference between boys and girls.

By illustrating the results of these three studies in this way, some findings stand out. First, the older the learners are, the more time they spend on EE. Second, at sample level, more time tends to be spent on the first floor compared to the second floor. Third, boys spend significantly more time in the Office as compared with the girls; this holds for all three studies. In addition, there appears to be a trend that boys in general spend more time upstairs than the girls. Among the upper primary learners (the youngest ones examined here), boys also spend more time in the Film room compared with girls, contributing to their overall statistically significant difference in terms of total EE. With the caveat in mind that these are three small-scale studies, larger studies are needed to shed more light on the EE House. Nevertheless, highly relevant actions are taking place in the EE House that need to be acknowledged by the research

Attic 2%				Total EE ( <i>N</i> = 80) 18.4 hours/week
Office 25%	Library 1%			Second floor 26%
Music 36%	TV 20%	Film 16%	First floor 72%	

**Fig. 5.2** EE House (total sample) based on Sundqvist (2009); % of total EE

Attic 2%				Total EE (36 <b>boys</b> ) 20.8 hours/week	Attic 1%				Total EE (44 <b>girls</b> ) 16.4 hours/week	
				Second floor 44%	Office 6%	Library 1%				Second floor 7%
Music 27%	TV 14%	Film 12%	First floor 53%			Music 45%	TV 27%	Film 19%	First floor 91%	

Fig. 5.3 EE House (gender) based on Sundqvist (2009); % of total EE

Attic 3%				Total EE (N = 86) 9.4 hours/week
				Second floor 42%
Office 41%	Library 1%			
Music 19%	TV 22%	Film 14%	First floor 55%	

Fig. 5.4 EE House (total sample) based on Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012); % of total EE

Attic 2%				Total EE (39 <b>boys</b> ) 10.6 hours/week	Attic 5%				Total EE (47 <b>girls</b> ) 8.4 hours/week	
				Second floor 52%	Office 28%	Library 1%				Second floor 29%
Music 14%	TV 20%	Film 11%	First floor 45%			Music 25%	TV 25%	Film 17%	First floor 67%	

Fig. 5.5 EE House (gender) based on Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012); % of total EE

Attic 0%				Total EE (N = 66) 7.2 hours/week
				Second floor 33%
Office 33%	Library 0%			
Music 19%	TV 32%	Film 14%	First floor 65%	

Fig. 5.6 EE House (total sample) based on Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014); % of total EE

Attic 0%		Total EE (22 boys) 11.5 hours/week			Attic 2%		Total EE (44 girls) 5.1 hours/week			
Office 37%		Library 0%	Second floor 37%			Office 27%		Library 0%	Second floor 27%	
Music 19%	TV 25%	Film 16%	First floor 60%			Music 18%	TV 39%	Film 12%	First floor 67%	

**Fig. 5.7** EE House (gender) based on Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014); % of total EE

community and teachers, and in Chap. 7, we revisit the EE House and discuss it in relation to teaching practice.

## Pedagogical Implications

Having accounted for the major research developments regarding EE and L2 learning, we suggest there is reason to adapt L2 teaching in line with the findings reported. In Part II of this book, the focus is precisely on how EE can be acknowledged in classroom work, how both teachers and learners can benefit from learning more about it, and how it can be used as a resource in L2 English learning and teaching.

## Suggested Further Reading

For more detailed information about the content of the articles and chapters referred to above, the interested reader is encouraged to look them up and read them in their entirety. For a more in-depth understanding of the many connecting layers between digital gaming and L2 learning, we suggest a thorough reading of Gee's book *What digital games have to teach us about learning and literacy* (2007). We also recommend readers to stay updated on new research. Primary sources for studies of relevance in this area are, for instance, the following journals: *CALICO Journal*, *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *Language Learning and Technology*, *ReCALL*, and *System*.

## Study Questions

1. One of the activities touched on above is extramural reading. Some studies argue that adapted texts are best suited for L2 learners, while others say that learners themselves are the ones who should decide what to read. What are your experiences and thoughts about extramural reading and how it is best done?
2. Many researchers claim that adapting digital games for classroom use is a good way of involving and motivating more students for L2 learning. What are your views on that?
3. It was pointed out above that films are not used to their full potential in the L2 classroom. Do you use films in your teaching? If so, how do you work with them? If not, is that something you would consider?

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# Part II

From Theory and Research to  
Practice

# 6

## Extramural English Goes to School

In Part I of the book, the focus was on research and theoretical aspects of L2 learning, various teaching methods, age issues, and studies into relationships between EE and different aspects of L2 English. In Part II, the focus is on how findings from research and theory can be used to inform teaching practice. We will go into practical, hands-on activities, connecting the theoretical perspectives with classroom practice.

Part II consists of three chapters, all aiming at putting theory into practice. This chapter is entitled ‘Extramural English goes to school,’ the purpose being to discuss ways in which EE can impact on classroom work to the benefit of teachers and learners alike. The chapter focuses on ways for teachers to get to know their students from the perspective of learner interests outside of school, and how such interests can be taken advantage of in the L2 English classroom. Therefore, we will first of all introduce the language diary (Sundqvist, 2009, 2011; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sylvén, 2006; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012a), through

which detailed information about students' extramural activities involving English will be gained. We will also give examples of tests to be used for formative assessment purposes which may be useful in determining students' level of L2 English proficiency. Once the teacher has gained an understanding of the individual backgrounds, interests, and proficiency levels present in the classroom, there are several ways in which to utilize this information for the benefit of an entire class as well as the individual learner. Therefore, this chapter also guides the reader through a number of options available, for instance, the so-called *Critical Participatory Looping* (Murphey & Falout, 2010), which can be used as a way of taking advantage of the individual mapping in the classroom in order for the learners themselves to get involved in disseminating their own experiences. This is similar to what is referred to as 'the round,' used among young language learners where learners sit on the floor in a circle and each one is given the opportunity to have a say on whatever is the topic of discussion (Mosley, 2014). All of the above are examples of ways in which both learners and teachers can become empowered. Educational research has shown that perceived teacher empowerment is associated with a high degree of professionalism and feelings of autonomy (L. C. Pearson & Moomaw, 2005) and that the teacher and his/her teaching are crucial variables in terms of affecting learner achievement (Hattie, 2009) (see also Chap. 7). So, on the one hand, in learning more about his/her students' backgrounds and interests, the teacher becomes empowered; students' spare-time activities are no longer unknown territory, but rather something the teacher can take advantage of in the day-to-day classroom work. On the other hand, students of all ages can be empowered by teachers acknowledging their out-of-school interests by showing them their importance also in the classroom. Furthermore, students are made aware of the inherent language learning potential in their EE activities, and raising language awareness has been shown to have a positive effect on both students' language development and the classroom climate (see Denham & Lobeck, 2010, for an overview of studies into language awareness). Toward the end of the chapter, some suggestions for classroom work are offered, taking their point of departure in some of the studies accounted for in Chap. 5.



## Mapping Learner Interests

One aim of this book is to highlight the role EE may play in the development of L2 English proficiency. Thus far, we have given plenty of background to EE and its relevance for L2 learning, and now we would like to shift focus to the ways in which EE can be brought into school. A number of ways in which teachers can find out more about learners' EE are introduced below; they all have to do with mapping learner interests. First of all, we take a closer look at the language diary.

### The Language Diary

In several research studies, the language diary has proven to be a very useful tool for mapping learner interests, and we firmly believe it can be of use also for the same purpose in the classroom. It consists of seven spreads (14 pages), one for each day of the week. On the first page of every spread a number of EE activities are listed (for instance, reading books, watching TV, listening to music, playing digital games, and so forth), and for each such activity there is a column to fill in the total time spent during that particular day. On the second page, questions are asked regarding the 'normality' of that day regarding the activities reported. In other words, the student can indicate whether the activities s/he has reported are comparatively normal in type and amount, or whether they are exceptional in any way. There is also room for other comments to be made by the student on the second page. The students are asked to fill in such a spread for each day during one entire week, and then hand the language diary in to the teacher. The teacher analyzes the diaries, and in so doing gains a considerable understanding of what is going on in the lives of his/her students outside of school as regards EE. Appendix I illustrates what a page in a language diary can look like.

Needless to say, Appendix I is just an example of how a language diary may be designed. Each teacher should adjust it to suit the local context in the best way possible. For instance, there may be activities listed in our proposed diary that will be obsolete in the future, or not relevant in certain contexts. On the other hand, there may be activities not listed that are

highly relevant in other settings. Of course, the students themselves can be very helpful in deciding which activities are relevant and of interest to list in a language diary. Furthermore, it is important that the diary is adjusted to the age of the learners. The example in Appendix I has been used successfully among Swedish learners aged ten and older. When primary learners are being mapped, a slight re-design of the language diary is called for, where, for instance, both layout and text are adjusted. Smilies and other emojis can be used as answer alternatives, and pictures of various possible activities can be shown instead of describing them in plain text.

## Questionnaires

Another way to map learners' language-related extramural interests is to use questionnaires. A questionnaire can be more open in its approach than the language diary in that open-ended questions can be asked together with simple yes/no questions. Students are then free to answer such questions in whatever way they find suitable. Some drawbacks related to questionnaires, however, are that questions may be left unanswered, and that open questions can be more time consuming to analyze than the information gained with the help of, for instance, the language diary. On the other hand, with open-ended questions, more details can be obtained on issues where students have taken the time to write down their answers. In line with what we said above regarding the language diary, a questionnaire also needs to be age-relevant, and questions phrased in such a way that they are not perceived as too difficult, thereby risking that learners choose not to write anything. In Fig. 6.1, examples of formulations used in a questionnaire are given.

The list of possible questions to include in a questionnaire given in Fig. 6.1 can be extended. It is important to bear in mind, though, that there cannot be too many questions included due to the risk of fatigue, which may affect the outcome negatively. In addition, the younger the respondents, the fewer questions. Before administering a questionnaire to an entire class/group of students, it is a good idea to run a pilot version with a few of one's students. By using a pilot version, questions that seem to be difficult to understand can be clarified, ambiguous formulations can be altered, and so on.

Do you read anything in English apart from school related work?  Yes  No  
 If yes, please indicate below how often and what kinds of literature you read.

I read...	Daily	Once or twice a week	Once or twice a month	Never or almost never
Books in English				
Newspapers in English				
Comic books in English				
Other, for instance song lyrics, manuals, texts on the Internet, etc.				

Do you use the computer outside of school related work? If so, please specify what you do and in what language.	
Have you visited an English-speaking country? If yes, please specify when, where and for how long.	
How would you assess your own abilities in English?	Writing: Reading: Listening: Speaking:
Do you worry about making mistakes during English class?	When? Why?
Do you ever speak English outside of school?	With whom? How often?

**Fig. 6.1** Examples of items to include in a questionnaire

## Interviews

Yet another possibility to investigate learner interests is by means of interviewing. Interviews are time consuming, require careful planning, and summing up afterwards. If done in a diligent manner, however, they are probably the very best way to get to know one's students and what they do and appreciate in their extramural lives. In order for teachers to obtain the useful information via interviews, a simple interview guide can be devised, in which the major areas of interest to bring up during the talk are noted down. An example of an interview guide is given in Fig. 6.2. By using such a guide, there is less of a risk that important issues are left unattended, and it helps the teacher/interviewer to stay on track. When finishing up the interview, it is also a good help to quickly go through the items listed in the guide in order to ensure that all areas have been covered, not least if the data are supposed to be used for research.

BASIC QUESTIONS	POSSIBLE FOLLOW-UP
Do you encounter English (or any other relevant language) in your spare time?	
What do you do in English?	TV? Films? Digital games?
How do you feel about using English?	
Are there activities in English you know about that you would like to try but haven't done so yet?	

**Fig. 6.2** Example of an interview guide

It is also advisable to use a recorder of some sort when conducting interviews. Having a recorder enables the teacher to focus on the interview, to ask follow-up questions, and to remain interested in what the student says, instead of having to write down everything being said and, thus, risking to lose opportunities to dig further into details. Usually, students become accustomed to having the recorder in front of them within minutes, and these devices, in their modern mini-designs, rarely cause any problems. If the intent of the interview is to get a general view of one's students' extramural L2 habits, then it usually is enough to listen to the recorded interviews once more (if at all); however, if an in-depth and more scientifically oriented analysis is aimed at, verbatim transcriptions should be done, which allows for various analyses and interpretations to be made.

## Portfolio

In Chap. 3, the ELP was mentioned. As pointed out, the ELP is a companion to the CEFR and meant to be used as a tool with which both learners and teachers can keep track of learner L2 progression in a formative manner.

In a study on mapping EE among young learners, Sundqvist (2012) used the ELP and two drawing tasks with young participants: 27 learners in two preschool classes (aged 5–6). The study also involved learners in third and sixth grade, but focus here is on the pre-primary learners, to use G. Ellis' (2013) terminology. The preschoolers were asked to complete

the first drawing task, called 'L1,' in the fall, whereas the second, called 'English,' was done in the spring. The procedure for the drawing tasks was as follows. The researcher began by talking to the children about what a first language is, so that everybody became familiar with the concept. Then there was a discussion about what L1s were spoken among that specific group of children, and whether anyone was a bilingual. Then each child was given a simple sketch (in the shape of a stick figure) of either a boy or a girl, which they were asked to color and turn into a picture of themselves. When all drawings were complete, the children were instructed to put a cross where (on/in their body) their L1 was placed (examples of drawings can be found in Sundqvist, 2012). For example, many placed their L1 (Swedish) in the stomach, whereas a bilingual boy made two crosses for his two languages, placing Hungarian in his head and Swedish in his heart. The second drawing task, which was carried out in the spring, adopted the same procedure but on that occasion, the children were instructed to mark where to place English. In other words, two drawings were collected from each individual learner, one for L1/L1s, and one for English.

After the second drawing task, the validated Swedish ELP for pre-school learners was used to conduct interviews (learners in pairs), with the aim of mapping EE habits and beliefs about language learning. The ELP included the following questions (translated from Swedish):

- What languages do you speak?
- How did you learn the languages?
- When do you speak the languages? With whom do you speak?
- Have you ever been to a country where they speak another language [than your L1]?
- What is it like to understand something in another language? To say something in another language?
- Is there any other language (or languages) that you would like to learn? Why?
- Is it important to learn many languages? Why/Why not?

At the end of each interview, the researcher pulled out the four drawings the two learners had drawn. The drawings were placed on a desk and

the children were encouraged to comment on the four drawings, which they all did. This method worked out very well, eliciting rather lively talk about where they had placed their languages (L1/L1s and English, respectively), and why. As expected, quite a few of the children had no idea of why they had placed their specific crosses where they did, but surprisingly many appeared to have reasoned with themselves before they made a conscious choice about the placement of each cross. Whereas the drawing task method is unreliable in the sense that it was conducted in a classroom where children could glance at friends' drawings and be influenced in that way, it was efficient in getting young children to talk freely about languages, language learning, and EE. Thus, the interview data—elicited partly thanks to the drawings—were useful for learning more about what views different learners had on language learning.

In the same study, other material in the ELP was used for the third graders. They filled out sections of the ELP related to CEFR level A1 (Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing, Speaking to others) and the so-called Language Biography. To map EE, they were interviewed (in pairs or groups of three) and two mind maps from the ELP Language Passport served as prompts together with additional questions about EE from the researcher. In order to map EE for the sixth graders, the same mind maps and questions were used in interviews. In addition, they filled out language diaries and a questionnaire (for details, see Sundqvist, 2012).

In a study from Norway, Larssen, and Høie (2012) examined to what extent it is possible to use teacher professional development courses, that is, in-service training, as a means for implementing the ELP in primary classrooms. Among other things, the ELP is a useful tool to foster learner autonomy, which is at the core of the curriculum in Norway (Knowledge Promotion Curriculum, LK06). The ELP has two functions of great value for both teachers and learners: an educational function, in that it helps learners to reflect on learning and learning objectives, and a reporting function, in that it provides a record of learners' language skills related to the levels of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) (see Chap. 3). By using the portfolio and the scales offered in the CEFR, as mentioned above, it becomes possible for teachers to communicate individual learners' progress, not only to the learners themselves, but also to the guardians. The ELP facilitates communication since the structure of the portfolio makes communication straightforward and concrete. The

researchers found that while the majority of teachers who participated in the training indeed reported a change with regard to their own English subject knowledge, language ability, and classroom practices, few were (unfortunately) planning to actively use the ELP. Whereas the change in practice was welcome, the researchers conclude that further efforts to support and maintain these changes of practice are much needed. In addition, it is not possible to expect teachers to implement the ELP without support at the school level. The researchers emphasize that time needs to be freed for teachers to actually practice using new materials, such as the ELP. The described project shows great promise for L2 English teaching, and teacher educators in other countries can learn greatly from this Norwegian example.

To sum up, this section has suggested several ways in which learner interests can be mapped. We believe knowing about such interests is crucial for successful classroom work, but far from enough. Another aspect teachers need to know about is the students' level of proficiency. In the next section, therefore, we introduce instruments to be used for that purpose.

## Formative Assessment

In order to gain insights into learners' level of L2 English proficiency, a number of options are available. Here, we suggest a couple of formative tests that can be used for learners of different ages, starting with the younger ones.

Testing young language learners, YLLs, should be done with great care. Young children are sensitive and that may be one explanation to the fact that very few tests adapted for that age group are accessible. However, it is of great importance for teachers to know also about young learners' level of proficiency, as learners otherwise risk either to lag behind or lose interest in the subject of L2 English (see, for instance, Scott Langeland, 2012). One test specifically designed for YLLs is the Young Learner Vocabulary Assessment Test, YLVAT, which we designed based on other available forms of tests (see Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2016b). In YLVAT, receptive and productive vocabulary are tested, and the items included are taken from the 1,000 and 2,000 word frequency levels, that is, only the most frequently occurring English words are tested, which are also words that YLLs are expected

to master. The majority of the words in YLVAT are nouns, some are verbs, and a few are adjectives. When designing a test for YLLs, the risk of test fatigue needs to be seriously considered. For this reason, together with other reasons such as test validity, it was decided to include three different test formats in YLVAT. The first part, Part A, consists of 13 statements to which the test-taker has to indicate whether they are (a) true (T), (b) not true (N), or (c) not known (X), and an example of an item is given in Fig. 6.3.

The second part of YLVAT, Part B, consists of 12 items from the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 2001, see further below), mostly from the 2,000 word frequency level. An example of such an item is given in Fig. 6.4. The format is such that six words are given out of which three should be selected to fit the three explanations, synonyms, or paraphrases given to the right.

Finally, the third part, Part C, consists of 12 sentences chosen from the Productive Levels Test (Laufer & Nation, 1999), which, as the name suggests, tests productive vocabulary proficiency. In each sentence, one word is left out, but the initial two or three letters are given, as in the following example (Fig. 6.5).

- 1) All the world is under water.  T  
 N  
 X

Fig. 6.3 Example of item from Part A of YLVAT

- Question 1) 1. apply  
 2. elect \_\_\_\_\_ choose by voting  
 3. jump \_\_\_\_\_ become like water  
 4. manufacture \_\_\_\_\_ make  
 5. melt  
 6. threaten

Fig. 6.4 Example of item from Part B of YLVAT

- 1) Plants receive water from the soil through their ro\_\_\_\_\_.

Fig. 6.5 Example of item from Part C of YLVAT



Some of the items included in YLVAT are cognates mainly as an affective measure, as most learners are anticipated to be able to recall or reproduce such items in English. However, this means that YLVAT needs to be adapted to whatever first language the YLLs have. The Swedish/English version of YLVAT is found in Appendix VIII, where instructions are given in both languages. Thus, care needs to be taken to ensure that both instructions and relevant/possible cognates are included to fit in with the national context in which YLVAT is used.

Finally, we suggest that at the end of YLVAT, some questions for the purpose of evaluation are included. For example, it is suitable to ask which part was the easiest and which was the most difficult, and, second, how fun it was to take the test. These answers can be used in subsequent discussions in class when feedback on the test is given. And remember, that 'a good test should not be too easy' (Erickson & Gustafsson, 2005, p. 13, original spelling), as stated by a young test-taker when asked about his/her thoughts on what a good test should be like. In other words, tests can and should include items across the entire continuum, from easy, frequent words to difficult, more infrequent ones.

For older learners, there are very useful vocabulary tests, both receptive and productive, available on the Internet. The Vocabulary Levels Test, VLT (Nation, 2001) is a test specifically designed for diagnostic purposes and, therefore, particularly suited for use in connection with mapping learners' proficiency. On the website Compleat Lexical Tutor (<http://www.lextutor.ca/>), which is a goldmine of information about vocabulary learning in general, various tests are available for use either online or for downloading, and among them the VLT. There are several versions of the VLT, but they all have the frequency-based selection of items in common. The different versions represent various levels of difficulty, some include only more frequently occurring words, while others also include infrequent words, including items from the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000), representing such language that is encountered in academically related texts. Similarly, various versions of the Productive Levels Test are available on the website, along with other useful test formats. The reader is strongly recommended to explore all the possibilities available on the website.

## Section Summary

A number of instruments have been suggested, all aiming at learning more about students' extramural activities in English as well as their individual levels of L2 English proficiency. Whatever way is employed to map learner interests and proficiency levels—whether it is by using some of the tools proposed here or some other—feedback to the learners is decisive. In the following, one way of working effectively with feedback is suggested in the form of so-called looping.

### Looping: Communicating Learner Interests

Taking their point of departure in perspectives suggested by Dewey (1910) and Freire (1970/2007), Murphey and Falout (2010) suggest that *Critical Participatory Looping*, CPL, be used in the classroom in order to increase learner engagement in and motivation for the L2 learning process. CPL is indeed a useful way of going about feedback on learner mapping activities. If we take the language diary as an example, when data have been collected, results are summarized in easily accessible tables or bullet point lists. Then, time is allotted in the classroom for CPL. In Murphey and Falout's original version, several layers of CPL are conducted. First, small groups of three or four students are formed and each group is given the summarized results to discuss. Do they recognize the results? Do these results mirror the groups' own reports in the language diary? Are there any surprises in the results? The groups are asked to write a brief report on their discussions regarding the results, and how they should best be interpreted. They are also asked to contribute with suggestions on how best to take advantage of the results in the day-to-day L2 classroom activities. The teacher then collects the reports from each of the groups, summarizes them and in the next class invites a whole-class discussion on the main points.

For younger learners, looping may best be done during circle time. The teacher shows summaries of the information gathered through various mapping activities, and the learners are invited to comment and have their say in preparing future classroom work. Both from CPL and the

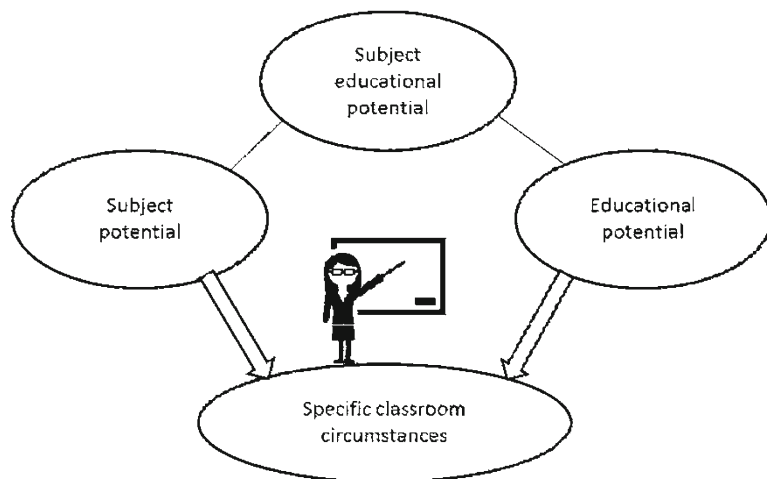
circle, the teacher can gather ideas generated directly from the students themselves regarding classroom activities that they would like to see. By involving students in this way, their levels of attention and motivation are likely to be increased as compared to when only working with teacher-initiated activities and materials. This, then, would be an example of when EE activities in the theoretical model proposed in Chap. 1 in fact are moved toward the center of the model, and indeed also downwards below the X-axis to the bottom quadrants.

## The Model of Possibilities

While the CPL above is an example of a classroom activity, this section exemplifies how original EE activities, ideally as reported in the learner mapping activities, can be fruitfully used in the L2 classroom. First, we introduce the *Model of Possibilities*, MoP (Bronäs & Runebou, 2010), in our own slightly adapted version. Originally, the MoP was created for teaching and pedagogy in general, but here it has been adjusted to specifically suit the needs and contexts of L2 education. The model then serves as the point of departure for the suggested classroom activities at the end of the chapter.

In their book, *Subject education—the art of teaching* (our translation, original Swedish title *Ämnesdidaktik—en undervisningskonst*), Bronäs and Runebou (2010) developed a model of subject education (see Chap. 7) aimed at facilitating a systematic description of teaching and actions of a teacher during a school lesson (the MoP, as illustrated in Fig. 6.6). According to the MoP, the teacher has to accumulate all the educational possibilities offered by the specific school subject. There are three so-called potentials: (1) the subject potential, (2) the subject education potential, and (3) the teaching potential. Note in Fig. 6.6 how the arrows point from the ‘subject potential’ and the ‘teaching potential’ to the specific circumstances of the classroom.

The name of the model comes from the possibilities or the potential inherent in ‘a subject, the circumstances or in educational principles’ (Bronäs & Runebou, 2010, p. 9, our translation), and the basis lies in the fact that subject and teaching are impossible to separate from one another



**Fig. 6.6** The Model of Possibilities (our interpretation and illustration)

in subject education. The MoP is fairly general in its approach in order to be applicable as a theoretical lens for the analysis of the potential of subject education. In Fig. 6.7, we have adjusted the MoP to specifically suit the school subject of L2 English.

In Fig. 6.7, we illustrate a teacher in the middle of a diverse classroom as regards learners' exposure to extramural English. The role of the teacher is to focus on the specific classroom circumstances at hand, and in order to handle the diversity in terms of EE (and presumably also in proficiency), a good start would indeed be to map learner interests, as described above. This is a first important step to enable the teacher to adjust the teaching in an optimal way. Not only that, it is also a prerequisite for individually tailored teaching when needed. As regards the 'subject potential' of L2 English, it is, needless to say, enormous. English offers hundreds of possibilities as regards classroom activities. The great many possibilities make teaching a true challenge. On the one hand, the possibilities make teaching easy (a great deal of material to choose from, easy access, and so forth, as we have already discussed). On the other hand, there are some negative sides that deserve attention. One is the question of which English should be used and taught in the L2 classroom. As so

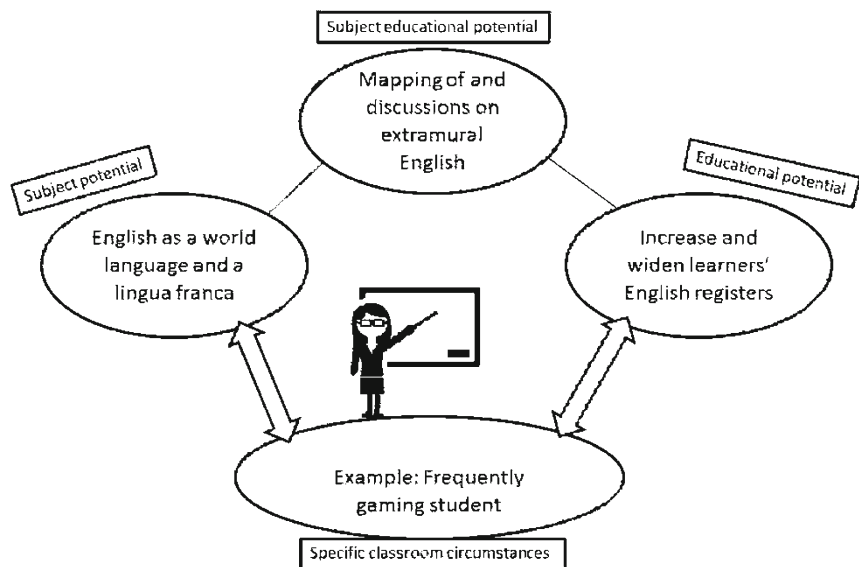


Fig. 6.7 The MoP applied to the school subject of L2 English

many people use English, it comes in many forms and varieties (discussed in Chap. 2). As a consequence, decisions have to be made about what is 'acceptable' and what is not. Another drawback can be that learners may be more advanced in certain registers than their English teachers. Such situations can disturb the hierarchical situation in many classrooms, where the teacher (generally) is supposed to be the most knowledgeable person in the room. However, by using the methods suggested in this book, we believe that both teachers and students can become empowered in their L2 English knowledge and use, and that teachers actually can acknowledge that some of their learners are specialists in certain fields. A third downside of English being a world language is the cultural aspects that are inherently connected to language learning and discussions about 'ownership of English' and so forth (see also Chap. 8). Which culture(s) should be attached to English today? We believe we have to accept the fact that English is not like other languages in this respect, and that the cultural dimensions of L2 English learning have to be dealt with in new

and innovative ways. It would lead too far to go into these aspects in detail here, but later in this chapter some suggestions are being made on activities which can include cultural aspects.

Returning to the MoP and looking at the ‘specific classroom circumstances,’ there are many such circumstances in diverse EE classrooms, and they are not always easily dealt with. In one and the same classroom, we may find a frequently gaming student, as in Fig. 6.7, sitting next to a peer who never or rarely uses English outside of the classroom. By being informed about each and every student, the teacher is in a position where s/he can build on the interests of gaming students and use their knowledge pedagogically in the classroom in order to promote further learning. Through the mapping activities, the teacher has gained an understanding of what EE activities are popular in certain classes or groups of learners. By talking about EE matters with one’s students, teachers may be able to evoke an interest for EE among students with low amounts of EE, to increase their involvement in EE after school. Likewise, by knowing more details about students with ‘heavy EE involvement,’ teachers can direct such learners toward classroom tasks that compensate for what is lacking; this could be, for instance, skills with regard to formal English or sensitivity toward style/register.

Applying the MoP specifically to L2 English, we argue that it is not only the subject and teaching potentials that influence what the teacher chooses to focus on in the specific classroom circumstances, but also the other way around, with the specific classroom circumstances influencing the focus of the teacher (compare the direction of the arrows in Figs. 6.6 and 6.7). The subject teaching potential—in this case specifically the mapping of learner interests—is used to focus the teaching from the perspective of student responses. Thus, in adapting the MoP as in Fig. 6.7, we argue that it works well for the L2 English subject as it allows for an individualization of the teaching, which should be of great importance taking into account the diversity (in terms of EE and L2 English proficiency) found in many of today’s classrooms.

From these more theoretically oriented sections on individual learner interests and how to draw on them in the classroom, we now turn to some examples of classroom work.

## Classroom Activities

This section focuses on hands-on classroom activities, based on some of the empirical evidence accounted for in Chap. 5 and the mapping of learner interests dealt with above. We start with a number of suggestions on how to utilize EE in the form of reading, TV, films, and digital games in the classroom. The section ends with ‘The 30-day Extramural English Challenge,’ an interesting activity that grew out of collaborative online work among English teachers in Sweden.

### Reading

In Chap. 5, several studies were mentioned that reported positive effects of reading on L2 achievement. Some studies were corpus based, investigating the level of difficulty from the point of view of learners’ level of vocabulary proficiency and found that graded readers were the ones where the level of difficulty was optimal—not too difficult, not too easy (Webb & Macalister, 2013). However, there were also case studies reported where individuals were interrogated about their reading habits and where it was clear that it was the individual interest that was decisive as regards effective reading for L2 learning to happen (Arnold, 2009; Pickard, 1995). As our book concerns extramural English, we tend to agree with those promoting free reading, and therefore we suggest that this be implemented in L2 English school work. One way for teachers to stimulate learners to read more outside of school is to use findings from the mapping activities, and suggest readings to students that their peers have found interesting and exciting. It is generally a good idea to invite learners to share their own thoughts on reading (and remember, reading does not necessarily have to be books—it can just as well be comic strips, journals, manuals, song lyrics, and it can be printed on paper or in digital form). The ELP can then be used as a follow-up instrument, in which students can record what they have read and their comments about the text. The teacher can use such information for in-class activities to promote further reading and to work with certain areas that may have been found to cause problems for learners.

Drawing on learner interests, visiting the library together—teacher and students—is always a good idea. For more mature learners, reading can be an activity through which differences in genres are detected. An example of such an endeavor is to compare a non-fiction text on some topic with a more scientific article on the same topic and then compare differences in, for instance, terminology, sentence structure, and text cohesion. For classrooms that are connected to the Internet, taking a look at various fanfiction sites can inspire learners to read (see, e.g., Black, 2009). Needless to say, the list of possibilities attached to reading in an L2 English classroom is endless (several suggestions for how it is possible to work with texts in the classroom are provided in Appendix VI). Only the imagination of the individual teacher and learner sets the limits.

## TV Shows

As we reported in Chap. 5, certain TV shows can be very useful as regards specific spoken registers. An activity connected to the L2 classroom, therefore, could be to give students the task of watching a number of episodes of, for instance, a sit-com as homework, and then have them perform something similar in class. Discussions can evolve around how certain terms and phrases are used, and when and where they are appropriate, and when and where they are not. For older learners, the task can be to compare soap operas produced in different countries, and look into variety in the use of language and other cultural aspects. Thus, TV can be one way of integrating the cultural perspective into L2 English work.

## Films

Films are an underused source for L2 learning in formal education (van Patten, 2015). Not only can films be used for language learning purposes, as with TV, they may also offer a chance to incorporate cultural studies. Teachers can invite students' own ideas about what films they would like to watch. Then make it into a project, where pre- and post-tasks are planned around the film. It is recommended that language use be a central part of the project. Comparing the story line of novels turned



into films is usually also appreciated by students, perhaps especially at secondary level. A way to train students to be alert to both the story and language can be to watch the first few minutes of a film several times and, by asking detailed questions, guide learners to see what they might not see without guidance, so to speak. For example, all classic films tend to have solid beginnings that are worth analyzing together with students, which may then lead on to additional language-focused work. Based on our own experiences from upper secondary school, watching and analyzing the first few minutes of *The Shawshank Redemption* (Frank Darabont, director, 1994), for example, tends to trigger the interest of all learners.

Working with films can be done with more or less all age and proficiency levels, with relevant adjustments being made. One decision to be made is whether or not subtitles should be used when watching the film, and whether they should be in English or the students' L1 (compare with the studies accounted for in Chap. 5 on the issue of subtitles).

## Digital Games

Research has shown that digital gaming seems to be an excellent way of promoting the acquisition of a large L2 English vocabulary, and especially so if the games are interactive. Serious gamers can be helpful in the classroom. They can, for instance, be asked to introduce peers who are not so well versed in gaming to such activities. By working with peer-to-peer scaffolding in this way, learners who have remained on the first floor in the EE House (see Chap. 5) are pushed and encouraged to climb the stairs up to the second floor where the Office with the computer is. Maybe they will find gaming fun and rewarding, and continue to visit the Office.

In one of our meetings with teachers, we met with a secondary school English teacher who complained about the foul language some of her students used. It turned out that these students were gamers and it was the language used in these games that they continued to use also in class. While this particular teacher was upset about her students' language, we would say that situations such as this one are golden opportunities for teachers to bridge between EE and the L2 teaching in school, where one aim is to enhance proficiency in school-related and standard language

(formal English). By pointing out the unacceptability of foul language in regular communication to these gamers, they are made aware of different registers and style, when it is appropriate to use certain expressions, and when it is not.

Other useful activities involving digital games can be to ask students to list words that are used in a certain game. In class, work can focus on how the words are used in the context of the game and how they can be used in other more general contexts. This can also be a way of promoting the use of dictionaries (whether in print or online), as dictionaries usually supply ample information about how and when to use a word. Learners can be encouraged to start subscribing to ‘word of the day’ (offered by many dictionaries online).

Finally, a number of studies were accounted for in the previous chapter where digital games, for instance *The Sims*, had been adapted for use in the L2 English classroom. Such adapted games may be worth looking into, and experiment with in educational contexts.

### **‘The 30-Day Extramural English Challenge’**

In early January, 2015, the ‘30-day Extramural English Challenge’ was suggested by teacher Emmeli Johansson, Stockholm, to members of the Facebook group for English teachers in grades 6–9 in Sweden (3,700+ members). The concept of a 30-day challenge is borrowed from training, where it has been used for a long time (with the purpose of activating one’s body for 30 consecutive days). The basic idea of the EE challenge was to encourage students to engage in one new EE activity a day for 30 days in a row. In this way, students who were yet to discover the potential of EE got several opportunities to do so, while students who were already involved in various EE activities were challenged to try out new ones. This 30-day challenge focusing on EE was new to the community of English teachers in Sweden, but it quickly grew popular and based on the number of posts to the Facebook group, hundreds if not thousands of L2 English learners across Sweden were challenged by their teachers.

Mia Smith, one of three teachers moderating the Facebook group and genuinely interested in using Information and communication technology (ICT) in English language teaching, encouraged group members to contribute with suggestions for EE activities. As a service to the members, she then put together a document which included a long list of various EE activities; the document was shared on Google Drive free for anyone to use (see Table 6.1). Smith also runs her own blog and in a post there (linked to the Facebook group), she stressed how important it is that teachers help their students to discover the possibilities of EE.

Based on teachers' comments on Facebook, which also at times included quotes from learners, the '30-day Extramural English Challenge' was appreciated. Many, both teachers and students, seemed to view the challenge as an interesting and innovative alternative to traditional homework. Students were instructed to document their EE activities on a day-to-day basis. Courtesy of Mia Smith, one authentic example of learner documentation is provided in Appendix VII, where the student Alexandra's (a pseudonym) 30-day challenge is recorded. At the end of Alexandra's record, there are four evaluative questions from the teacher as well as Alexandra's responses.

In sum, the '30-day Extramural English Challenge' was an initiative by an individual teacher which she shared with colleagues in an online community. Colleagues appreciated the idea and in a joint effort, the original idea was developed and shared. Teachers frequently discussed the activity online (and, most likely, also with colleagues at their local schools). It was easy to involve learners in the challenge (e.g., they could contribute with suggestions to the list), and learners were allowed to choose for themselves which EE activities they wanted to try. They were instructed to document their various activities and consider which English language skills were involved in each activity/task (right-hand column, Appendix VII). Furthermore, afterwards, the whole challenge was evaluated and in the evaluation, learner awareness is raised with regard to language learning beyond the classroom. The '30-day Extramural English Challenge' is one excellent way to bridge between English classroom work and EE and to promote autonomous learning.

**Table 6.1** Activities in '30-day Extramural English Challenge'

- 
1. Use Facebook in English for at least 24 hours.
  2. Watch a movie in English with no subtitles.
  3. Watch a movie in English with English subtitles.
  4. Listen to a podcast in English, look here for examples: <http://www.podcastsinenglish.com/>.
  5. Read at least one article at News in Levels <http://newsinlevels.com>
  6. Write at least five text messages in English.
  7. Watch TV news in English (using the internet works fine). Retell three important things from the news to someone else.
  8. Read a blog in English. You can find popular blogs here: <http://www.ebizmba.com/articles/blogs>, <http://www.cision.com/uk/social-media-index/top-50-uk-blogs/>.
  9. Write your own blog entry in English.
  10. During a meal with family or friends, speak only English.
  11. Make a room in your home the 'English room.' Whenever you are in it, you may only speak English. Use this rule for at least 24 hours.
  12. Take a walk with a friend or a member of your family for at least 30 minutes, speak English all the time.
  13. Use an English source of information for school work in a subject other than English.
  14. Cook a meal using a recipe in English.
  15. Listen to three songs from a top list from an English-speaking country and sing along in at least one.
  16. Practice lyrics from a song you like at [lyricstraining.com](http://lyricstraining.com).
  17. Chat with a stranger in English in a computer game for at least ten minutes.
  18. Find a clip from a TV show and imitate the accent. Overact as much as possible to sound really British or American. For British English: *Downton Abbey* or *Peppa Pig*, for American English: *Frasier* or *My Name is Earl*. These are only suggestions; feel free to find your own shows.
  19. Find a new friend at <http://www.englishbaby.com/findfriends> and write to them in English.
  20. Read a short story in English at <http://storywrite.com/>.
  21. Spend at least 15 minutes practicing vocabulary at <http://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/>.
  22. Make a short comic in English using <http://www.pixton.com/> or [www.powtoon.com](http://www.powtoon.com). Feel free to work with a friend.
  23. Watch a video-blog in English and leave comments. Here's a list of famous bloggers. <http://www.theguardian.com/technology/2013/apr/07/youtube-uk-20-online-video-bloggers>
  24. Learn at least five new English idioms. <http://www.idiomsite.com/>
  25. Make labels for at least ten everyday household items and stick them around your house or apartment.
- 

*(continued)*

**Table 6.1** (continued)

- 
26. Play a digital game of some kind (on your smartphone, through Facebook or something similar) in English and find at least ten new words to learn. Add them to your personal wordlist.
  27. Make your own meme in English, using, for example, <http://memegenerator.net/>.
  28. Read all the words and translations on one page in an English dictionary. Repeat them once later the same day.
  29. Listen to news about Sweden in English at <http://sverigesradio.se/sida/default.aspx?programid=2054#>
  30. Translate your favorite Swedish song into English and sing it to a friend (if you dare).
  31. Play at least three games with the Akinator. <http://en.akinator.com/>
  32. Send a digital message to a friend trying to persuade them to play a game or sport you like. Give them three reasons why they should start playing your game or sport.
  33. Talk/write to an avatar on [www.existor.com](http://www.existor.com) for at least 10 minutes.
  34. Read or write a story in English at [www.storybird.com](http://www.storybird.com)
  35. Read a news article at <http://www.goteborgdaily.se/> and retell it to someone in English.
  36. Listen to a news program at <http://www.ur.se/Produkter/180166-Newsreel-2014-01-25> and discuss it with someone.
  37. Practice your decorating skills at <http://www.ur.se/sprk/engelska/inredning/>.
  38. Practice British slang at [http://www.ur.se/sprk/engelska/slang\\_br/](http://www.ur.se/sprk/engelska/slang_br/).
  39. Practice American slang at [http://www.ur.se/sprk/engelska/slang\\_am/](http://www.ur.se/sprk/engelska/slang_am/).
  40. Send postcards to at least three people in English from this site: <http://www.ur.se/sprk/engelska/vykort/>.
  41. Test your personality here: <http://www.ur.se/sprk/engelska/quiz/>.
  42. Watch a film in English at [http://www.ur.se/Produkter?ur\\_subject\\_tree=engelska](http://www.ur.se/Produkter?ur_subject_tree=engelska).
  43. Write a poem in English based on your name using this structure: [http://www.readwritethink.org/files/resources/lesson\\_images/lesson391/WritingNamePoem.pdf](http://www.readwritethink.org/files/resources/lesson_images/lesson391/WritingNamePoem.pdf). If you want to, go to [www.canva.com](http://www.canva.com) and make a nice poster with your poem in it.
  44. Learn about Scotland using this website: <http://www.visitscotland.com/brave/>.
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Source: Mia Smith's blog, 'Mias klassrum' <https://miasklassrum.wordpress.com/2015/01/07/30-day-challenge-extramural-engelska-i-fokus/>

## Chapter Summary

This chapter has focused on how ‘EE goes to school,’ or, in other words, how EE can be taken advantage of in order to create a beneficial learning environment in the L2 English classroom. In Chap. 3, the Flipped Classroom was discussed. More or less all activities suggested here are perfect for a flipped approach. Reading, watching TV shows, and playing games are all activities that can be done outside of school in order for the precious time in the classroom to be devoted to discussions and work around them.

We argue that by using EE in ways suggested here, students’ language awareness is considerably raised, and both students and teachers become empowered in their respective roles. In addition, learner autonomy is strengthened.

## Study Questions

1. In this chapter, focus has been on how to take advantage of EE in the classroom. Are the ways in which we suggest mapping learner interests relevant to you and your learners? If yes, discuss with your colleagues which one(s) you prefer, and how they possibly need to be adapted to the context where you work. If no, why not, and what instruments or methods would be more appropriate in your context?
2. We suggested ways in which to formatively assess your students. Do you employ formative assessment in your daily work routinely? If yes, how? If no, why not? Discuss your assessment policies with your colleagues.

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# 7

## Opening the Window for L2 English Development

This chapter centers on how teachers can aid students in developing their L2 English. An ultimate goal of L2 English teaching would be to plan and teach in such a way as to allow students to set the agenda for their own learning, something that would be fully in line with Holec's (1981, p. 3) original definition of *learner autonomy* ('the ability to take charge of one's own learning'). In addition to aiding students/learners in developing their English, having control over their own learning agenda would most likely set the stage for their becoming lifelong learners, yet another relevant goal to strive for.

The first section of this chapter ('Developing learner motivation') focuses on ways to teach in order to enhance students' motivation for L2 English learning. For example, one way can be to use tasks that involve the envisioning of learners' Ideal L2 (English) Selves. Another way to motivate learners can be to enlighten them about the potential of the EE House and to draw on learners' EE in one's teaching. In the section 'Revisiting the EE House: Synthesizing research,' we expand on the EE House metaphor and go into detail about relationships between the various rooms, possible learning gains, and motivation as well as SLA theory.

The next section, ‘Eldin—a learner case in point,’ is an interview study of a highly motivated 14-year-old multilingual boy who took charge of his own learning. ‘Compensating for what is not there—yet,’ which follows thereafter, discusses what teachers may have to compensate for in the classroom as regards what learners may ‘lack.’ This particular topic is approached with four groups of language learners in mind (detailed below). In ‘Lifelong learning, PCK, and subject education,’ we go into Shulman’s (1986, 1987) framework in order to illustrate what successful L2 English teachers tend to do. We elaborate on the topic of English subject education and stress the importance of planning for successful teaching. Then there follows one section devoted to ‘Online tools for teaching’ and one on ‘Suggested work in offline classrooms’ respectively, as well as some study questions at the end. In brief, the aim of Chap. 7 is to point to several ways in which teachers can help learners along their idiosyncratic L2 English learning paths. Throughout the chapter, references are made to theories of L2 learning and teaching addressed in Part I of the book. A number of appendices are linked to the chapter and provide concrete examples of possible classroom work. With this approach, our intent is to synthesize theory, research, and practice.

## Developing Learner Motivation

Based on theories presented in Chaps. 3 and 4, it is time to take a closer look at the role of motivation in L2 English learning. In this section, central concepts and ideas, such as the Ideal L2 Self, the successful L2 user, investment, identity, and the EE House, are revisited.

## Envisioning Ideal L2 Selves in the Classroom

In an Action Research (see Chap. 4) study carried out at a women’s university in rural Japan, where the participants were first-year university students at the Faculty of International Communication (their average age was 19), the teacher-researcher taught three classes of Interpersonal Communication over a 15-week period, using English as the medium of

instruction (Sampson, 2012). In the very first introductory lesson of this study, the students/participants were given a free-writing task in which they were supposed to detail their 'best-possible English self' (p. 321) image (cf. Dörnyei, 2005, 2009, the Ideal L2 Self). Interestingly, the results of the study provide empirical support for the assertion that self-enhancement activities (here, working concretely with envisioning Ideal L2 Selves) are beneficial for motivation. Another example of a self-enhancement activity used in this AR was to have the students mingling and peers guessing about their future selves in different areas, after which each student spoke about their imagined selves in turn. A second example was when the students were divided into pairs and each pair was supposed to create and perform a skit in which they were to imagine that they were talking (in English) with a good friend in the future. In this specific joint task, a conversation strategy from the textbook turned out to be useful (for instance, the students were supposed to shorten sentences so that their talk turned into informal conversation). Another result from this study was that by assisting students in focusing their best-possible English self, motivation seemed to be positively affected. Furthermore, it appeared that the students' self-regulation in learning English was heightened as well. It is also worth noting that during the analytical phase of the study, it became obvious to the AR teacher-researcher that very few students had a developed vision of their future best-possible English self, which underscores that ELT planning which includes various tasks of envisioning future L2 selves, most likely, is a suitable way to go forward.

Very positive results in terms of enhanced L2 motivation were obtained in a similar study carried out in Sweden among upper secondary L2 French learners (Rocher-Hahlin, 2014). In the Swedish study, focus was also on evoking students'/learners' visions of themselves, but this time as successful users of French. A third study (Magid & Chan, 2012), also theoretically anchored in the L2 Motivational Self System, used two intervention programs with the purpose of motivating Chinese university students to learn English. One program was conducted in the UK and the other in Hong Kong, and they used different intervention designs. As was the case in the two studies summarized above, the main idea of the third study was also to enhance students' visions of their Ideal L2 (English) Self, and again the results were largely positive.

Both intervention programs, regardless of setting, were effective in terms of motivating the students to learn English. The participants' self-confidence was increased through strengthening their vision of their Ideal L2 English Self. Moreover, the students' goals became clearer and more specific thanks to the intervention programs. In a fourth large-scale survey among more than 10,000 secondary school and university L2 English learners in China, a number of imagery-related variables were examined (You, Dörnyei, & Csizér, 2016). The study also explored the visionary trajectories of the participants, comparing reports of positive and negative changes and male and female learners over time. In terms of theory development, the researchers conclude that variables having to do with mental imagery of oneself as a future L2 English user can be incorporated into the construct of L2 motivation ('a model of visionary motivation,' p. 120). Empirically, the results confirmed the relevance of vision. Moreover, as regards gender, female participants had superior L2 attitudes and motivation. Their better engagement with imagery skills is given as a possible explanation.

## Revisiting the EE House: Synthesizing Research

As shown in Chap. 5, there have been many highly interesting findings concerning EE and specific EE activities, and their relation to various aspects of L2 English proficiency. Many of the studies we have reported on reveal statistically significant results, which means that chance can be ruled out. The conclusion is that EE certainly plays an important role in L2 English development and, as a consequence, also in ELT. For readers who are fairly new to the specific field of EE research, these relationships may not explain themselves very easily. The purpose of the present section is, therefore, to assist readers in understanding what is actually going on in terms of EE and L2 English learning and, in particular, why it is crucial that teachers acquaint themselves with the concept of EE. In this section, we synthesize the results from the studies presented above in Chap. 5 by revisiting the EE House.

As the careful reader remembers, there are two floors and an attic in the EE House. Children and teenagers in general enjoy visiting the

EE House after school, and even more so in the weekend and during holidays. They go there and sometimes their parents do not even know anything about it. The house is usually locked, so it is necessary to have a key. Or to be more precise: anyone who wants to enter needs a code, and the code is the key. The EE House is high-tech and has all modern facilities one can possibly think of. As for the code, fortunately, it is easily accessed: standing in front of the door, all one needs to do is to make a wish to enter and—*abracadabra*—the door to the EE House swings open. Interestingly enough, almost all learners know that this is the way it works but the few who do not, may need a little help from their friends (sometimes it is necessary that teachers or parents help out, but that is very rare).

Once inside, primary and secondary school learners—and any others who visit the EE House for that matter—quickly notice that there are three rooms on the first floor: the Music room, the TV room, and the Film room. It is spacious and very easy to move around from one room to the other, and anyone is allowed to stay for as long as one wants in any of the rooms. There is a staircase that takes visitors to the second floor, which holds the Office and the Library. The Attic is at the very top, but we will stay downstairs for a little while longer (see Fig. 5.1, Chap. 5).

Learners who visit the EE House tend to prefer different rooms for the simple reason that learners are different and like doing different things. Thus, how much time a learner spends in specific rooms usually depends on personal preferences but other factors, such as peer pressure or parental influence, may also affect how a learner distributes his or her time inside the house. If we consider the first floor of the EE House and think of teenagers as a specific group of people visiting, in general, they tend to stay in the Music room for hours and hours (sometimes wearing large headphones they are reluctant to take off), whereas smaller kids after some time in the Music room tend to prefer to rumble around on the couch in front of the TV until they fall asleep. Notably, tweens and teenagers then take over the TV room.

For people of all ages, it is popular to spend time in the Film room; not least teenagers enjoy watching films a lot. The Film room offers a classy home cinema system with a projector and a large screen. However, at times problems arise in this room in particular, so teachers (in particular)

need to be prepared. Some learners are adamant about watching English-speaking films with subtitles in their L1, others argue for subtitles in English, a third party would like no subtitles whatsoever, and the French want the film dubbed. In such situations, when it is difficult to find a sensible solution to the problem, learners can be invited to borrow one of the tablets that are lying about in the house. In fact, it might be possible to have some learners pull out their smartphones and just use them instead: anything for peace in the EE house. However, if Film room visitors would like to improve their L2 English, they are strongly recommended to begin watching films in English with L1 subtitles, with the ultimate aim of switching to English subtitles, provided that such are available. It can also be very helpful to see the same film a couple (or more) times, first with L1 subtitling support and then with English. Using no subtitles at all does not have to be a specific goal from an L2 English language learning perspective, especially not since it might be difficult to actually hear what people are saying at times due to background film or in real-life noise (someone is munching on a donut, a car passes by outside, etc.). It is also known that if incidental L2 English learning is to take place, it will be necessary to spend many, many hours in the Film room. Just one or two films per week will not do the trick.

If we return to the TV room, the tweens and teenagers are likely to still hang around. They love watching their favorite cartoons, sports, and TV series. It is common that they binge-watch. Binge-watching (also called binge-viewing or marathon-viewing) is the practice of watching television for a long time span, usually watching a single TV show, and it could be anything between two to six (or more) episodes of the same show in one sitting. By the way, the same 'binge' phenomenon may occur with watching YouTube clips or vlogs related to a great variety of topics, depending on one's interests (fashion, makeup, animals, sports, specific artists or bands, home-styling, cooking, etc.). From an L2 English learning perspective, even small children are likely to pick up English by watching TV shows in English. In countries where they do not dub TV programs, young children tend to develop their L2 English receptive skills faster than in countries where the same programs are dubbed and, furthermore, when children are able to read fast enough so that they manage to connect L1 subtitling with L2 English auditory (and visual)

input, there is fertile ground for L2 learning. However, as with the Film room, it seems necessary to devote a large amount of time to the TV room to incidentally make significant L2 progress.

The time that children and teenagers spend in the EE House is by far more than the time they receive English lessons in school. Moreover, if the time young people spend *downstairs* is compared to that spent *upstairs*, the first floor wins, so to speak. Among 15-year-olds, for instance, it has been shown that about three times as much time is spent in the rooms on the first floor compared to the time spent in the two rooms on the second floor. One reason for this difference is obvious: the first floor is much easier to access. Remember, the learner just makes a wish—that is it. To reach the second floor is a whole other matter.

Most importantly, a visitor has to make an effort and climb the stairs. For the purpose of possible L2 English language learning, we can safely say that it is good if learners go upstairs and explore the two rooms there. Most likely, they will be rewarded if they do so. Devoting time to either room will do, but preferably to both. Relatively speaking, spending time upstairs is likely to pay off better (in terms of improved L2 English proficiency) than spending time downstairs, even though spending time downstairs can be beneficial too, there is no doubt about that. But if one has to choose, an hour in either the Office or the Library is likely to be ‘worth more’ than an hour in any first-floor room. We will soon explain why.

There are many books, newspapers, comics, and magazines to read in the Library. With regard to books, learners should pick and choose until they find the right one. Once the right title has been found and read, it is likely to trigger a wish to read more. Needless to say, some children and teenagers may need assistance here, with useful tips from friends and/or adults. For some reason, books can come across as boring or even scary for certain individuals, especially if there are few books in a learner’s own home. One way to get started may be to read the L1 translation of an originally English book from a book series, because as soon as people (regardless of age) become hooked on reading, they will *not* wait for the translation of the fourth or fifth book in the series; they will do whatever it takes to get their hands on the title they are after as soon as it has been published in English. Have no doubt. From our own experience, we know lots of Swedish tweens and teenagers who, for example, read

the first few books of the *Harry Potter* (seven-book) series in Swedish, but finished with reading the final two or three books in English. They were desperate to learn what was going to happen to Harry, Hermione, Ron, and Voldemort. The same type of book-language-switch has occurred with regard to other popular series as well, for instance, *The Twilight Saga* and *The Hunger Games*, not to mention *The Lord of the Rings* and several other fantasy series, where the number of titles within one series can be incredibly large. Another approach that works for some learners is to first find and read a good book in one's L1 and then read the same title in English. Overall, however, few young L2 English learners read literature (or other print texts) outside of school but, on the other hand, those who read tend to read extensively as well as frequently, and there is no doubt that L2 reading enhances L2 development in general.

The computer is in the Office, connected to the Internet. Taking a closer look at what young people of different ages do at the computer reveals highly interesting findings. However, before moving on we need to clarify that in the EE House, *the computer* is 'interpreted' broadly. Therefore, when we say *computer*, the term represents not only technical devices that literally speaking are computers, but also other technical devices, such as tablets and smartphones, different kinds of home video game consoles (such as Nintendo or PlayStation), and any other gadgets that learners can play around with that includes oral/aural and/or written English (for instance, handheld video game devices, such as Game Boy, or digital pets, such as Tamagotchi). As is commonly known, computers are extremely popular among both children and teenagers, and many (but not all) spend a great deal of time using them. Whereas some may use computers mainly in the L1, media reports as well as research studies reveal that the computer is also used in the L2. Although a plethora of languages are available on the Internet, English is ever present considering its status as a global language. With the emergence of the World Wide Web and easy access also from the homes, through the computer, the opportunities for L2 English exposure (i.e., mainly input) as well as L2 English output and interaction became, seemingly, endless. There is no need to go into detail here, but there was a digital revolution and a paradigm shift in the 1990s when the Internet emerged and rapidly spread across the world. It changed the whole field of L2 learning and teaching.



While reading is the obvious (but only) EE activity in the Library, the EE activities young people carry out in the Office are many more, among which reading (text on the screen) is one. In fact, at times EE activities in the Office engage learners in using several L2 skills simultaneously. One example is gaming. Playing video games can involve (more or less at the same time) L2 listening, speaking, reading, writing, and interacting skills.

It should be noted that boys and girls tend to use their time in the Office differently. At the group level, they tend to be interested in different L2 English activities afforded by the computer. A central gender-related difference has to do with gaming, which generally is much more popular among boys as compared with girls. As a consequence, boys (as a group) tend to hang around more in the Office than girls (as a group) do. As an example of how time in the Office easily adds up for boys when gaming, we return to the previously mentioned footballer, Ibrahimović (see Chap. 4). In the autobiography, he compared the games *Gears of War* and *Call of Duty* with poison (Lagercrantz & Ibrahimović, 2011), and he had clearly experienced states of flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) because he could play up to six or seven hours per day (and often late into the night). His desire to win in the video game was as strong as on the football pitch.

Some studies report findings for gender as a background variable; these findings consistently reveal statistically significant differences when it comes to time spent in the Office, more specifically with regard to differing gaming habits for boys and girls (as well as for adult males and females). We would like to stress that there may, of course, be individual differences, and to add that there are probably EE activities which engage girls to a greater extent than boys. Writing fan fiction and watching vlogs, for instance, likely attract more girls than boys, even though we only have anecdotal evidence for those suggestions.

We promised above to explain why it is relatively more important, from the perspective of L2 English learning, to spend time upstairs in the rooms on the second floor (even though spending time downstairs is not a total waste either, considering possible L2 gains). This is where the metaphor of the EE House is particularly helpful. As has already been explained, the first floor is easily accessed: anyone can enter and spend time in the rooms there—and almost everybody does that if we think of

pre-primary, primary, and secondary school level learners. The second floor requires more of its visitors. To begin with, a learner needs to have the motivation, strength, and energy to walk upstairs. Next, in general, those who spend time on EE activities in the Office and the Library *need to be active and rely heavily on their own L2 English language abilities*, because otherwise these activities tend to become pointless. For instance, there is no point in playing an online multiplayer video game if one cannot communicate (verbally and/or in writing) with one's co-players. Likewise, there is no point in reading a book if one cannot understand the content.

If spending time in the Office or the Library appears very challenging (or discouraging) to an individual EE House visitor, the choice is simple: the visitor *either* makes sure to learn enough English to be able to play the game, read the book, or do whatever needed to carry out the specific activity the visitor is interested in, then staying on the second floor will start making sense, *or* he or she gives up and leaves. In brief, EE activities which require visitors/learners to be active/productive and to rely on their own English language skills (which individuals need to do when playing video games; producing fan fiction; searching English sites on the Internet; reading English books, newspapers, comics, or magazines; etc.) seem to have a greater impact on various aspects of learners' L2 English proficiency as compared with EE activities where learners can remain fairly passive/receptive (such as when listening to music, watching TV, or watching films). It is, of course, possible to be active or productive with regard to these latter first-floor EE activities as well. For example, with regard to music, some love to sing along karaoke style and learn lyrics by heart; in such cases, there is a great deal of active 'language' work going on. Similarly, people who watch singular episodes (or even singular scenes) of favorite TV shows or films repeatedly, for example, in order to imitate the English accent of a certain actor or actress, are also being active and productive. However, generally speaking, from the perspective of L2 learning, the EE activities represented by the rooms upstairs, the Office, and the Library (active/productive) are more beneficial than the activities represented by the rooms downstairs: the Music, TV, and Film rooms (passive/receptive).

The Attic of the EE House remains to be commented on. As in most houses, the Attic is in a mess. Anything and everything go up there; that is, everything that does not fit into any of the other rooms in the EE House is put in the Attic. The careful reader may remember that when we defined EE in Chap. 1, an encounter with a foreigner in the street leading to a conversation in English was given as an example of an (unplanned) EE activity. This is an EE activity that would typically be placed in the Attic, because it does not fit in any of the other rooms. (In questionnaire data, EE activities in the Attic tend to be equivalent to responses provided for the category that traditionally is labeled ‘Other.’) Other EE activities we have come across in our own research belonging to the Attic include, for example, ‘going to the theater to watch a play in English,’ ‘talking in English to my father’s Polish business partner who happened to stop by our house,’ and ‘visiting an international fair about fish.’ The Attic is not easily accessed, which is one reason why EE House visitors rarely go there, so to speak. However, should they happen to end up in the Attic, they do not stay for long. In other words, the time spent in the Attic is close to negligible and, therefore, rarely relevant for L2 English learning. Next we introduce an L2 learner, Eldin. He has explored all the rooms of the EE House and ‘got stuck’ in the Office.

## **Eldin: A Learner Case in Point**

The first author met with Eldin (a pseudonym) when he was undergoing two weeks of practical occupational experience at the university. By coincidence, Eldin heard of the author’s research on gaming and L2 learning, and, at this point, revealed that he had learned most of his English outside of school via gaming and that he had spent about two or three years ‘waiting’ before he could actually start playing. This extended ‘waiting period’ sounded highly interesting from the perspective of L2 motivation and, therefore, Eldin was asked whether he would agree to be interviewed. He agreed, and after having settled ethical issues, such as obtaining a consent form from his parents, an in-depth interview was conducted. Three research questions guided this interview: (1) By whom and at what

age was the learner introduced to video games? (2) What was it about the games that kept the learner motivated for two years before he started to play ‘for real’? (3) How does the learner himself describe his process of language learning? In addition to interview data, three university-level vocabulary/multiple-choice (VOC/MCT) tests that Eldin took were also collected. As part of his training, Eldin had volunteered to take these tests together with the university students. The purpose of the VOC/MCT test is to measure students’ level of English proficiency (for details of the whole study, see Sundqvist, 2015).

## Immigrant Background

At the time of the interview, Eldin was 14 years old and in eighth grade. His parents are Bosnian and he was born in Bosnia himself. Thus, his L1 was Bosnian. The family, which also includes a 16-year-old sister, moved to Norway when Eldin was four. He went to preschool in Norway for a short while, but said he could not remember any Norwegian. Two years later, the family moved to Sweden. Both parents are medical doctors and Eldin aims to become a doctor too. They live in a semi-detached house in a multicultural part of a medium-sized town. At the age of six, Eldin started first grade in a regular class and began to learn Swedish. English was introduced as a school subject in third grade. In sixth grade, Eldin changed schools and became a student at a school with a CLIL profile (see Chap. 3); English was used as the medium of instruction in many (but not all) school subjects.

The interview began with the researcher asking what language Eldin would prefer for the interview. He responded ‘English,’ because he had an ‘easier time with the words’ in English than in Swedish. After some warm-up questions about his background, the interview focused on Eldin’s interest in playing video games and his beliefs about language learning.

## Becoming a Gamer and Successful L2 English User

When asked about what age he was introduced to video games, Eldin revealed that it was his parents who first introduced him to video games when he was around seven. They had given him an Xbox with the game

*Halo*, an alien science fiction first-person shooter game. Eldin claimed that his parents told him that they did not think he would be affected in a bad way by playing video games, adding that they did not think he would become aggressive or start using bad language.

With regard to his waiting period, Eldin was asked what it was with the games that kept him motivated for such a long period of time, before he started to play 'for real' (those were his own words). As regards *Halo*, Eldin revealed that he did not understand anything at all in the beginning. Everything was in English and he only knew Bosnian and some Swedish at the time. He remembered being unable to finish the first game and also how he was amazed when he suddenly realized that there were plenty more games to play in *Halo* (besides the game he had already tried). He described how there was a whole world out there, in the game, and he 'wanted to know what they were talking about, what was going on.' Despite the fact that he was so young, Eldin convincingly disclosed that he spent about two or three years observing, reading, listening, and trying to connect the visuals with the audio in order to understand what was going on in the game. He really appreciated that everything was in a context and the game was pure entertainment to him, and in hindsight Eldin described his experiences as 'three years of informally learning English by trial and error.' As for other games than *Halo*, he said he had been particularly fond of online strategy games and, at first, he usually played single player but later he switched and played multiplayer.

In the interview, Eldin frequently touched upon his own process of learning various languages. In addition to Bosnian, Swedish, and English, Eldin started studying Spanish in sixth grade as part of the mandatory language option in the Swedish curriculum. To facilitate learning Spanish, Eldin made sure to game with native speakers of Spanish every now and then, thereby forcing himself to use Spanish *naturally*. He claimed to understand some Croatian and Russian (because they are Slavic languages like Bosnian) and wanted to learn German too. In a potentially threatening future (a third world war), quite extraordinarily, Eldin explained that 'if you learn German, you will be a lot safer.'

When asked specifically about learning English, Eldin said he had learned English mainly outside of school. When English was introduced in third grade, Eldin had already spent a great deal of time with *Halo*

and, therefore, learning about colors and animals came across as too easy, and the teacher decided to let him join the fifth graders for English. Eldin praised his teacher for her decision, but unfortunately the fifth-grade solution did not work out: The older children did not appreciate the presence of a much younger learner who knew as much as them (or perhaps even more). Thus, Eldin returned to his regular class but was bored there. He was, however, motivated at home by his games. He explained that it was ‘the story and things that I wouldn’t do in real life’ that intrigued him about video games. He also gave a concrete example of language learning while gaming; for some reason, Eldin thought the letter *s* should be pronounced with an *h*-sound. Thus, when playing *World of Warcraft*, he had been saying ‘helling’ instead of ‘selling’ until a co-player enlightened him as to this specific phonemic confusion, after which Eldin immediately corrected his mispronunciation. As testimony to Eldin’s progress in English, thanks (most likely) to gaming, would be his excellent English oral fluency on the one hand (displayed throughout the interview), and his high level of English proficiency on the other (displayed through excellent results on all three university VOC/MCT tests). Had he been a university student, Eldin would have been awarded the grade ‘pass with distinction’ as a first-semester student and ‘pass’ as a second-semester student.

Although most young learners’ access to games probably needs to be monitored—perhaps not all guardians dare trust their children with games the way Eldin’s parents trusted him—we believe there is a great deal to learn from the case of Eldin. He had access to games and was prepared to ‘study’ hard for years in order to be able to play. He was extremely motivated and wanted to become a gamer (the Ideal L2 Self) and in order to succeed, Eldin needed to learn English. However, there are several obvious limitations to this interview study, such as the fact that there was only one participant who was interviewed on one occasion. Nevertheless, in many ways Eldin is like any other 14-year-old: he has friends, likes gaming, and goes to school—but Eldin is also different. Not just any boy aspires to become a medical doctor and chooses the university for his vocational training. Not just any boy sits relaxed and talks—using L2 English—for more than an hour to a researcher. It is our belief that Eldin’s experiences from gaming strongly contributed

to his ability to carry out such an interview: He was fearless when using English. Admittedly, there are other possible factors that may have contributed to his fearless attitude, such as the fact that he was born and raised in a highly educated, international family and the fact that he started attending an English CLIL school. That said, key factors for Eldin's successful learning of L2 English include experiences of having fun and of daring to use trial-and-error while gaming. Furthermore, elements of gaming such as competition, stories, and escapism appealed to Eldin and, thereby, indirectly contributed positively to his L2 English development. Using terminology from Dweck (2006), Eldin's mindset clearly seems to favor naturalistic language learning, even though he did not come across as reluctant to learning languages also in school.

## Compensating for What Is Not There—Yet

Although curricula for English look different depending on the national context, we take it for granted that L2 English teachers across the globe have shared experiences of students/learners with certain characteristics or interests: some are quick to learn, others slow; some are motivated, others unmotivated (or even demotivated); some are affected by dyslexia, others read and write easily; some are heavily involved in EE activities in their free time, others stay away from English as much as they can; some are anxious, others calm, and so on. Needless to say, many more examples could be given. Interestingly, regardless of whether one teaches English in Rio de Janeiro, Oslo, or Yokohama, teachers are likely to encounter students who have varying learner characteristics. Moreover, we know that the diversity of learners in a single group or class can be great (see Chap. 2). With this as a backdrop, it is possible to conclude that many (or possibly most) L2 English teachers are in a position that calls for action in terms of compensating for whatever individual needs learners may have. That is the focus of this section.

One of the most important duties for teachers is to compensate for whatever learners may be lacking. With regard to language learning, it should be stressed that learner language is idiosyncratic and, therefore, it is essential that L2 English teachers are familiar with the interlanguage of each

learner so that, in line with sociocultural theory, the teacher can scaffold feedback to optimize learning conditions for each student. It goes without saying that all learners deserve adequate attention from their teachers, but we focus on four groups of learners here, with the belief that these groups in fact represent a majority of learners: (1) those who have special educational needs, (2) those who are heavily involved in EE activities and have mindsets telling them that L2 learning is best done in natural settings, (3) those who are exceptionally gifted, and (4) those who are ‘ordinary.’

## L2 Learners with Special Educational Needs

Educational reforms that offer broad and balanced curricula were implemented in the 1980s in the USA, Southeast Asia, Europe, and elsewhere (see, e.g., Carnoy, 2003). Much later, the European Parliament welcomed a resolution on multilingualism brought forward by the Council of Europe (2008), *Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment*. It is emphasized in the resolution that there is a vital need to provide special attention and support at schools to students who cannot be educated in their L1. Furthermore, it is agreed upon that knowledge of one’s L1 plus two additional languages (‘1 + 2’) should be promoted in education. Before the reforms in the 1980s, the chance to learn ‘foreign’ languages had not been available to all students, especially not to students with *special educational needs* (SEN), but with the educational transformation work that took place, barriers to language learning were removed and all students, including SEN students, were welcome to study languages.

There are several definitions of SEN. In the UK, children are considered to have SEN ‘if they have a *learning difficulty* which calls for *special educational provision* to be made for them’ (Department of Education, 2001, p. 6, italics in the original). Having a learning difficulty means that a child has a significantly greater difficulty in learning than the majority of children of the same age. It can also be that the child has a disability which prevents or hinders him or her from making use of educational facilities provided by the school for children of that age. Furthermore, the definition highlights that children ‘must not be regarded as having a learning difficulty solely because the language or form of language of their home



is different from the language in which they will be taught' (Department of Education, 2001, p. 6). Some examples of types of SEN are dyslexia, physical impairment, limited concentration spans (e.g., Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, ADHD), and emotional and behavioral disorders. Students may also have weak literacy skills. Although such limitations are likely to make L2 learning (and teaching) extra challenging, no one should discourage a motivated learner from studying an L2.

A consequence of the educational reforms was that language teachers had to prepare for teaching in classrooms with much greater diversity than previously. Although our own experience of teaching in schools is limited to 15 years of teaching English and Spanish in a Swedish context in the 1990s and early 2000s, it was then evident that the diverse 'new' L2 classrooms upset some teachers (who had been used to academically rather homogenous groups of students), whereas others were more optimistic and rose to the challenge, almost thrilled about the fact that more students got the opportunity to study languages. Admittedly, students with SEN often tend to be hindered in making progress in their L2 due to a mismatch between individual capabilities and the demands of classroom tasks they face (Meiring & Norman, 2005). For example, it is common among students with SEN to lack self-confidence, or as mentioned above, to have a low capacity in terms of working memory (for instance, short-term recall). Due to reasons such as these, it is crucial that feedback to students with SEN is non-threatening and immediate in order to ensure progression. ICT can be of great service on such occasions and in L2 teaching in general (Meiring & Norman, 2005; Warschauer, 1996).

Literacy was mentioned as one possible problem area for L2 students with SEN. Traditionally, literacy is understood as the ability to read and write. However, the meaning of the term has been expanded to include many more abilities. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) defines *literacy* as

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

In order to be able to participate fully in the community and wider society, literacy in terms of ICT is also essential, according to UNESCO. With regard to the teaching and learning of L2 English, ICT can be extremely helpful for students with SEN, and it is not unusual that students with SEN who are interested in learning L2s seek out opportunities to be involved in the target language digitally, not least through EE. For example, the chance to hide between a 'mask' (an avatar) in digital gameplay is one way to overcome the anxiety and fear of interacting in L2 English (Gee, 2007; Stenberg, 2011; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012c) for students with SEN (and others). Interestingly, it has been shown in CLIL research that for some learners, speaking in an L2 may in itself be easier than speaking in one's L1; again, the L2 functions as a mask (Maillat, 2010). It is reasonable to assume that for students with SEN a mask may be especially helpful. If not ICT is used for that purpose, classic classroom role-play works out well too. We return to practical applications at the end of this chapter.

## Heavily Involved in EE: Natural Learning Mindset

An unusually challenging group of students in L2 English classrooms are those who are heavily involved in EE activities *and* have mindsets telling them that L2 learning is best done in natural settings. It is common that these types of learners impact classroom climate negatively (The Swedish Schools Inspectorate, 2011), especially when they are in their teens and go to school in expanding circle countries where the teacher does not automatically have a high status in the classroom, the case in many western European countries. In comparison, it is more common that teachers are held in high esteem in other regions, for example, in expanding circle countries in Southeast Asia (Hallinger, 2010). Although learners with 'heavy EE involvement' and 'natural mindsets' may of course be found in L2 English classrooms there as well, they are probably not as likely to pose a threat to a learning-friendly classroom atmosphere (which is not the same as suggesting that all classrooms are learning-friendly in such countries). The question for teachers is how to deal with this group of students, in particular if they tend to disrupt lessons.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a straightforward and simple solution can be to start by systematically mapping students' free time EE interests, preferably in combination with a discussion about their views on language learning. Lightbown and Spada (2006, pp. xvii–xviii) provide a questionnaire that can be useful in planning for the latter type of discussion. Popular opinions/statements about language learning and teaching are listed and respondents (i.e., the students/L2 English learners) are supposed to indicate to what extent they agree with statements such as, for example, 'Learners' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits'; 'When learners are allowed to interact freely (e.g., in group or pair activities), they copy each other's mistakes'; and 'The most important predictor of success in second language acquisition is motivation.' In our experience, such a procedure, in which students' EE background as well as beliefs about language learning and teaching are first acknowledged, can pave the way for additional L2 English classroom instruction that is better received by the students. Thus, by becoming aware of the role of EE and the mindsets for L2 English learning, students with 'heavy EE involvement' and 'natural mindsets' are likely to become more willing to accept the possibility of themselves as actually benefitting from lessons in school. As discussed in Chap. 4, Bridging Activities (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008) would be recommended for continued classroom work in this case.

## Exceptionally Gifted L2 Learners

Not only students with SEN should be helped as much as possible in the language learning process but also intellectually gifted L2 learners need teacher guidance in order to progress smoothly among peers of the same age. *Intellectual giftedness* means that a person has an intellectual ability that is significantly higher than average and in school; such giftedness requires adjustments in teaching. When it comes to school administration, developing useful identification procedures for learners who could benefit from a more challenging curriculum is problematic (Pierce et al., 2006). Although giftedness is rarely treated in L2 text books, intellectually gifted L2 students can be found in any classroom. It is worth pointing out

that giftedness varies and is frequently not evenly distributed throughout all intellectual capacities. For example, one individual may excel in reading and writing but, at the same time, have problems with mathematics. According to the US-based National Association for Gifted Children ([www.nagc.org](http://www.nagc.org)), individuals who demonstrate outstanding levels of aptitude or competence (top 10 % or rarer) are gifted. However, there is little agreement as regards how to define intellectual giftedness. Whereas it used to be based solely on high IQ scores, over time, the idea of using a broader definition has been suggested. Renzulli's (1978) *Three Ring Conception of Giftedness* is commonly regarded as a starting point for the broadened conception of giftedness. Rather than defining gifted individuals, his model defines *gifted behaviors* that reflect an interaction among three basic clusters of human traits: (1) above average ability, (2) high levels of task commitment, and (3) high levels of creativity. Children who exhibit gifted behavior are those who are capable of developing this set of traits (1–3) and of applying them to various fields of human performance. Eldin, for example, seemed to be able to do this and to apply the traits to L2 English learning; it is possible that he is an exceptionally gifted child, at least as regards L2 learning. A broad variety of educational opportunities is thus necessary for exceptionally gifted students. Considering the fact that there are learners with well-developed cognitive abilities who are also very involved in EE activities, it is not unreasonable to assume that they will stand out, particularly in the English classroom.

Studies on identifying students to be included in gifted education unfortunately reveal a recurring problem: a lack of minority student representation (Pierce et al., 2006). Some suggested explanations for the underrepresentation include, among other things, different cultural perceptions of (and attitudes toward) giftedness, overreliance on standardized tests, and inequity in educational experiences. In an attempt to overcome the routine use of standardized tests with gifted learners, especially the use of non-verbal tests, use of more 'nontraditional' assessment tools have been suggested. In the language arts, for example, VanTassel-Baska (2002) suggests assessment tools such as rubrics and portfolios which, along with other performance-based assessment tools, appear to be effective. What she proposes is basically more use of formative assessment with gifted students. With the spread of the CEFR (Council of

Europe, 2001), all kinds of students have been exposed to rubrics and portfolios as well as formative assessment, since such material and form of assessment are included.

## The Majority—Ordinary L2 Learners

Whereas the learners in the groups discussed in the three sections above all stand out in one way or the other, the members of this fourth group are ordinary L2 learners. The only way they can be said to be special is in terms of numbers: they constitute the majority of L2 learners. As mentioned, teachers should compensate for whatever learners may lack but with regard to ordinary L2 English learners, this is often easier said than done. In day-to-day work, these students are the ones teachers often rely on because they tend to do what they should do in terms of homework and tasks. They rarely cause problems in the classroom, and generally perform in accordance with teachers' expectations. However, just because they, in many ways, constitute an uncomplicated group of learners, teachers need to be aware and adopt an explicit planning and teaching strategy that ensures that ordinary L2 English learners also get the attention they deserve. How this can be done is a topic we address under 'ELT planning with a practical touch.'

## Lifelong Learning, PCK, and Subject Education

Opening the window to L2 English development is important in relation to the idea of *lifelong learning*. There are many definitions of lifelong learning. In our opinion, lifelong learning should, for instance, not just be limited to learning for adults, and a broader definition of the concept has indeed been suggested. We appreciate the one proposed by the European Union:

All learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective. (Commission of the European Communities, 2001, p. 33)

This definition places emphasis on learning from pre-school to post-retirement. Furthermore, lifelong learning encompasses the whole spectrum of formal as well as informal learning (cf. learning from EE). The principles which underpin the European definition of lifelong learning and guide its (hopefully) effective implementation clearly emphasize the centrality of the learner. In addition, equal opportunities for all are important, as are the quality and relevance of learning opportunities (Commission of the European Communities, 2001). The focus on the learner is highly relevant to the topic of L2 English and learner autonomy. We will address learner autonomy after a brief discussion of Shulman (1986, 1987) and his important ideas regarding the teacher profession, which we apply to ELT.

As argued in Chap. 4, successful L2 English teachers know what to say to their students, when to say something, how to phrase it, and adapt the message depending on who the learner is. We also argued that successful teachers have well-developed specific pedagogic competencies. In his discussion on perspectives on teacher knowledge, Shulman (1986, 1987) suggests a distinction between three categories of content knowledge: *subject matter content knowledge*, *pedagogical content knowledge*, and *curricular knowledge*. Subject matter content knowledge has to do with the amount and organization of knowledge per se, in the mind of the teacher. In different subject areas, teachers need to understand why a particular topic is especially important and why another is not. In L2 English, for example, it is essential that teachers understand why some of the key topics addressed in this book, such as various matters pertaining to Global English and EE, are particularly relevant to the subject. (Chaps. 1 and 2 offer several examples of useful ‘arguments’ for important topics in L2 English). Next, PCK goes beyond the knowledge of subject matter per se ‘to the dimension of subject matter knowledge *for teaching*’ (Shulman, 1986, p. 9, italics in the original). That is, PCK deals with content knowledge that exhibits the aspects of content that are most pertinent to its teachability (as opposed to, for instance, pedagogical knowledge of teaching, which might include how to manage a classroom, to give just one example). Phrased differently, PCK concerns useful and fruitful ways of teaching that are very likely to make the subject (in this case L2 English) comprehensible to learners. Some of these ways most likely derive from research whereas others originate from other teachers’ (or one’s own) teaching experience, that is, from practice. Finally, curricular

knowledge has to do with teachers' various understandings of the curricular alternatives that are available for instruction. To explain this we use an example from another discipline, medicine. Clearly, everybody expects medical doctors to have knowledge about several treatments for a disease and, likewise, professional teachers are expected to be familiar not only with the curriculum materials for, in this case, English, but also for other subjects that their students are studying.

Having established and classified these categories of teacher knowledge according to Shulman (1986), it is essential to ask how they can be represented. In this regard, he proposes three forms of teacher knowledge, or competencies: *propositional knowledge*, *case knowledge*, and *strategic knowledge*. Skilled English teachers are highly qualified with regard to each of these competencies. In order to be considered a competent L2 English teacher, it is necessary to be knowledgeable with regard to both English linguistics and literature. Furthermore, competent English teachers have the ability to transform linguistic and literary content into comprehensible subject matter for teaching. Subject-specific knowledge of English is, thus, a complex phenomenon. Therefore, in English teacher education, it is necessary that teacher students are given opportunities to develop all these various types of knowledge and competencies. In what follows, Shulman's terminology is explicated in more detail.

Propositional knowledge can be viewed as general knowledge of English. Case knowledge, on the other hand, would be subject-specific knowledge, such as knowledge of ways through which general subject knowledge can be exemplified to learners, so that they understand. Strategic knowledge of English implies that, based on general pedagogic principles, English teachers are able to make subject-specific knowledge relevant to their learners. This is basically equivalent to a previously mentioned concept, namely, PCK.

One of Shulman's (1986, pp. 7–8) main contributions to the general field of teaching was that he highlighted that there was a 'missing paradigm' in teacher education:

The missing paradigm refers to a blind spot with respect to content that now characterizes most research on teaching and, as a consequence, most of our [American] state-level programs of teacher evaluation and teacher

certification. In reading the literature of research on teaching, it is clear that central questions are unasked. The emphasis is on how teachers manage their classrooms, organize activities, allocate time and turns, structure assignments, ascribe praise and blame, formulate the levels of their questions, plan lessons, and judge general student understanding. What we miss are questions about the *content* of the lessons taught, the questions asked, and the explanations offered.

The missing paradigm was apparent not only in the US context but also elsewhere. No one seemed to ask how subject matter was *transformed* into the content of instruction. Important questions such as ‘Where do teacher explanations come from?’ or ‘How do teachers decide what to teach, how to represent it, how to question students about it, and how to deal with questions of misunderstanding?’ remained unanswered. And above all, how do teachers (and teacher students) transform their expertise in the subject matter into something their students can comprehend? For example, teachers of all subjects use analogies and metaphors, examples and demonstrations, but what are these? Which are the particularly useful/helpful analogies, metaphors, examples, and demonstrations for the subject English? It is important to deal with key questions such as these in subject-specific education.

*Subject-specific education*, also known as *subject education*, is rooted in several academic disciplines specializing in different school subjects. This book centers on subject-specific education in relation to the teaching and learning of English. In a northern European context, the German word *Didaktik* is commonly used in reference to subject-specific education. *Didaktik* includes questions that are linked to conditions for teaching as well as questions linked to specific individuals’ learning in different environments, formal as well as less formal. The scope of ‘*Didaktik*’ is, thus, wider than the Anglophone understanding of ‘didactics’ (Lindgren & Enever, 2015). Therefore, we do not use *didactics*, instead we choose to use the term *subject education* in reference to the wider meaning of the concept. The basic questions of subject education are *why, what, how, for whom, and when*, and they represent the platform from which specific subject education research questions and theories take shape. The ways in which subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge merge is at the core of the processes of teaching and learning, that is, at the core of subject education.



It is fairly common to describe subject education as a bridge between the subject and pedagogy. Another commonly used metaphor comes from the world of sports, where subject education is the midfield in-between (a) subject knowledge and content knowledge and (b) general knowledge about school and education. Also a triangle is used to portray what subject education is, with three of the basic questions at each point of the triangle (*what, why, and how*). Ongstad (2006) provides a definition of subject education, which was originally formulated (in Norwegian) by scholars gathered at a seminar at the University of Agder. The 'Agder definition' of subject education reads as follows (our translation):

'Subject education' is reflections on what a subject (Norwegian, History, English, Mathematics, Music, Civics etc.) is in relation to what it can or should be in schools, society, academia, and teacher education. Subject education is the knowledge and the skills that make such reflections educated and professional; it is also present in our subject-specific practices. Such perspectives, then, have the necessary grounding for developing subjects. To a great extent, subject education targets the relationship between the theory and practice of the subject and also attempts to develop this relationship with regard to its societal function. In subject education, there is an explicit critical element, directed toward the subject itself as well as toward society as a whole. Subject education aims to develop competence for change through research and teaching. (Ongstad, 2006, p. 33)

This is a useful definition that calls for in-depth discussion of what L2 English subject education entails in specific national contexts. Such a discussion is recommended in connection with ELT planning, the topic of the following section.

## ELT Planning with a Practical Touch

In addition to in-depth discussions of English subject education and the curriculum/syllabus with colleagues, solid lesson plans based on L2 learning theories are the underpinnings of successful L2 English teaching. Thus, it is essential that teachers have the ability to draw up proper lesson

plans. Dwight D. Eisenhower, the Supreme Commander of the Allied forces during the Second World War, once said: 'In preparing for battle I have always found that plans are useless, but planning is indispensable.' We agree: Planning is indispensable for the supreme commander and the English teacher alike.

Well-devised plans provide an element of security as well as direction to teaching. However, it is recommended not to follow one's plans slavishly. A competent teacher is flexible with a keen ear, which means that he or she will take the opportunity to improvise when the time is right and when something unforeseen happens. The archetypal improvising in the L2 English classroom is, most likely, connected with introducing a piece of recent news from the English-speaking world (that occurred close in time to a particular lesson), especially news that comes across as something the teacher deems as interesting for a specific group of learners. Topics could be on more or less anything that might catch the attention of learners (of various ages): from the latest (light) news from Bollywood or Hollywood to the (heavy) discovery of a new planet, from the birth of a new heir to the British crown to the death of a classic Motown artist, and so on. However, it should be recognized that not all curricula (or school policies, for that matter) are open to this sort of improvisation on the part of the teacher.

## **A Step-By-Step Approach to Planning**

Depending on numerous different variables, among them the national and local context, teachers across the globe obviously have varying degrees of freedom with regard to, for example, choice of English subject content. Nevertheless, regardless of where teachers work, planning must be done. In Appendix III, a hands-on, step-by-step approach to planning in preparation for a new academic year is outlined, but the steps should work equally well for a shorter language course. This approach has been applied successfully in the Swedish context and in China (Shanghai). Readers are advised to study the suggested approach and consider (a) to what extent it can possibly be of any assistance and (b) what alternative approaches to planning there are.

## Planning and Self-Evaluation for English Teachers

After lessons and periods of teaching, it is crucial to reflect on one's practice and evaluate how everything turned out (remember the Agder definition above). Reflecting on one's teaching is part of any teacher's daily work, or at least it should be. However, it can be difficult to find the time to reflect, in a systematic way, on one's practice, and indeed also to evaluate single lessons or periods of teaching regularly. However, it is essential to prioritize one's work-related duties so that a systematic, self-reflecting practice becomes part of routine work. For the purpose of systematic reflection and self-evaluation of plans for teaching, Appendix II provides a template that can be useful. The template encompasses all core subject education questions and covers most aspects that are generally taken into consideration in planning a specific lesson or a longer stretch of lessons. In addition, it includes a number of questions which focus on the teacher's analysis and reflection. There is also a section (in the bottom right-hand corner of the template) that serves the purpose of 'feeding forward.'

With regard to formulating explicit goals for teaching, learning, or lessons, it may be helpful to think of goals as 'SMART,' a mnemonic acronym that stands for specific, measurable, accepted, realistic, and time-constrained goals. It ought to be mentioned that SMART criteria are commonly used in project management and they are not always applicable to schooling. In fact, it might even be ill-advised to use them with language learners, especially young ones. Nevertheless, it is worth striving to formulate L2 English goals that, at the least, are realistic and accepted by the learners.

Another type of goal that teachers sometime formulate goes deeper than 'simple' lesson goals. Such 'deeper' goals can be related not only to overarching curricular goals dealing with matters such as human rights, gender equality, or sustainable development, but also to a teacher's personal beliefs about what type of L2 English teacher or role model he or she would like to be. One such explicit deep goal formulated by one of us and used in school was 'to see every single student, every single English lesson.' To ensure goal fulfillment, a classroom routine was implemented whose basic principle was to have the teacher standing at the door after a lesson was finished and goodbyes had been said, prepared to have at least eye contact with each student as they were leaving the classroom.

This ‘door routine’ quickly developed into an opportunity to also converse in English, or at least to have some sort of brief oral interaction, typically question-and-answer style. Sometimes the students were instructed to prepare a question for the teacher about anything (but the teacher had the right to respond ‘no comment’). Other times the teacher would give the whole class a question that they were to answer individually upon leaving; the questions could be about all sorts of topics, including school. At still other times, students might be instructed to carry out an impromptu role-play in pairs with two turns each at the door. In this way, not only was the deep goal realized, but students’ general tendency to focus heavily on accuracy in oral tasks in favor of fluency was downplayed (‘just say something, it does not need to be perfect, nothing is assessed’). Interestingly, on occasions when the teacher forgot to move toward the door in preparation for the end-of-lesson-door-routine, the students would remind her that she had to go there (‘you have to stand at the door, we are going to say something’). This routine worked well with primary as well as secondary school learners in Sweden.

## Online Tools for Teaching and Learning

Provided that the right technology is in place, online tools for teaching can be extremely helpful for L2 English teachers and very motivating for learners. There are several volumes available that specialize on online tools for ELT and one of the best, in our opinion, is Dudeney’s (2007) *The Internet and the language classroom*. Below, we present a short list of some trustworthy online sites known to support teaching and learning. All have been used and examined/evaluated by ELT/SLA researchers or very experienced teachers.

- Activities for ESL Students <http://a4esl.org/> (by the *Internet TESL Journal*, <http://iteslj.org/>)
- A New General Service List <http://www.newgeneralservicelist.org/>
- BBC Learning English <http://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish>
- British Council <https://www.britishcouncil.org/>
- Compleat Lexical Tutor <http://www.lextutor.ca/>
- Dave’s ESL Cafe <http://www.eslcafe.com/>
- eTwinning <https://www.etwinning.net/en/pub/index.htm>

- Starfall <http://www.starfall.com/>
- The European Center for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe (including links to the European Language Portfolio) <http://www.ecml.at/>

There are thousands of sites that offer other kinds of online tools that can support L2 English teachers in their daily work. For example, thanks to the advancement of information technology, there are tools for creating tailor-made digital versions of teaching materials that have long been known to aid language learning, such as flashcards for intentional vocabulary learning (instead of stacks of cards) and word or grammar quizzes with instant feedback (instead of pen-and-paper style with delayed feedback). In addition, there are user-friendly programs, often shareware (e.g., <http://screencast-o-matic.com>), that can capture the computer screen as a teacher comments on, for example, a student text, both orally and in writing. Such a type of formative assessment, later easily shared in a file to the student (and also to the parents, if that is of interest), is but one progressive way forward for L2 English teaching that has been shown to be motivating for learners. It would be possible to present a long list of sites that can be useful here, but we refrain from doing so because there are others who do that much better than us in books that specifically focus on such matters. Moreover, a problem with including links in print is, of course, that links easily change and can be dead by tomorrow. For these reasons, we only mention links to well-established sites (but there is no guarantee; they may also be gone tomorrow). We recommend that readers explore online sources on their own (for instance, the sites in the list above) or, even better, together with colleagues. There are also many online communities for teachers of L2 English that offer guidance.

## Suggested Work in Offline Classrooms

Globally, there are thousands of classrooms that lack access to the Internet and other technology. There are also classrooms that may be online but with restricted access to the Internet. Regardless, it is of course possible to teach English in ways that are highly motivating for learners anyway. The fact that classrooms are technologically advanced does not automatically

entail effective teaching and learning. What (or rather, who) matters most for learning in successful L2 classrooms is always the teacher. After all, there was successful (and less successful) language teaching before the digital era too, and although we are strong proponents of the use of technology in language teaching and learning and of CALL, a good L2 English teacher can do without. Needless to add, in classrooms in technologically advanced societies, teachers need to have the ability to teach successfully when technology fails them (batteries are dead, the Internet is down, the computer room is double-booked, etc.). In this section, we provide several suggestions with regard to varying one's L2 English teaching.

For certain, students get bored, lose interest, and learn less if lesson after lesson take on the same format. Thus, variety in one's teaching is very important, and an element of surprise every now and then in the classroom helps too. All suggestions given here have been used in real classrooms (both primary and secondary schools); however, whereas some tasks worked very well with one group, the same tasks were not necessarily appreciated to a similar extent by another group. Thus, it is essential that teachers adapt their plans to the student group (and not the other way around, trying to adapt the group to the plan—such procedure is bound to fail). All groups are different, just as individual learners are different. It is recommended that L2 English teachers keep the main subject education questions in mind when incorporating any of our suggestions into their teaching.

We would like to mention that while many of the suggestions are our own, others have been collected over the years thanks to tips from students and colleagues; with regard to the list of vocabulary tasks, associate professor Jörgen Tholin, University of Gothenburg, was a particular helpful source. The tasks/activities are presented in no particular order but divided into three sections: working with words, working with pictures, and working with texts. Each section is introduced below, whereas the list of activities can be found in Appendices IV, V, and VI.

## Working with Words

As pointed out by N. Ellis (1994, p. 11), 'the bedrock of L2 is its vocabulary,' and learning new words through various intentional learning tasks is an effective strategy to expand learner vocabulary. By varying the work

with words in the classroom, among other things, it is possible to unveil what strategies may be more effective for some learners and less so for others. Appendix IV includes several ways of working with words in the classroom or at home, the general goal being to learn as many words as possible. Research suggests that for incidental vocabulary learning to take place through engagement in EE, a certain level—or threshold—must first be reached in terms of size of vocabulary (Sundqvist, 2015; Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015; Webb & Rodgers, 2009a, 2009b).

## Working with Pictures

Pictures are particularly useful in speaking tasks, but most of the suggested activities can easily be turned into written tasks as well (see Appendix V). Based on our experiences, in general, pictures tend to be especially good for slow starters; that is, for students who tend to take their time before they really get going. It is highly recommended to build up, step-by-step, a picture library in the classroom, and to ask students to choose their own pictures and bring them to school as part of Bridging Activities (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008).

## Working with Texts

It is often a good idea to have three kinds of tasks when working with texts: pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading tasks. In pre-reading tasks, the teacher uses activities which aim to create an interest, introduce the topic, and activate the students' schematic knowledge. The idea is to facilitate intake and reduce the affective filter. In while-reading, the activities aim to develop the students' reading ability. Students can preferably be introduced to various text genres. A novel, a TV guide, an obituary, or a travel magazine call for different reading techniques, and it is important that students are made aware of the fact that there are different reading techniques. Reading a text for gist (i.e., a general understanding) allows weaker students to feel a sense of achievement and may prevent them blocking more challenging tasks to follow, for example. In post-reading, a wide range of activities can be carried out that are based on the

text (speaking, writing, grammar, or vocabulary, to mention a few). In Appendix VI, several activities that focus on texts are presented.

## Study Questions

1. Together with colleagues/peers, discuss the Agder definition in your national context.
2. If you were to introduce a ‘door routine’ in your classroom, what would it be like, and why?
3. Magid and Chan (2012, p. 123) use the expression ‘visionary pathway’ to describe how teachers can help learners to set long-term realistic and specific goals when learning English. When applying the L2 Motivational Self System, they propose a program for teachers that involves six components: (1) help to create a vision of the L2 learners’ Ideal L2 Self, (2) strengthen this vision through imagery enhancement, (3) make learners’ Ideal L2 Self plausible, (4) help learners to develop action plans, (5) keep activating learners’ vision, and (6) counterbalancing learners’ vision of their Ideal L2 Self by offsetting it with their so-called Feared L2 Self. Considering your own teaching situation, what visionary pathways are suitable for your students?

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# 8

## Twenty-First Century L2 English Teacher Competencies

In this final chapter, we point to the benefits of actually putting this book into good use. We hope that its contents will serve the purpose of empowering L2 English teachers in all corners of the world. There is a great need for motivated, empowered L2 English teachers; such teachers are likely to plan for successful classroom work that also reaches beyond the walls of the classroom. In our opinion, having the ability to do so is among the most important twenty-first-century L2 English teacher competencies. Learners appreciate to have such teachers in the classroom. While the book certainly shows that some (but not all) students can learn a great deal of English in their free time thanks to involvement in EE activities, it is recommended that schools compensate for the specific needs of individual learners while in the classroom. Thus, a very important aspect of being a successful teacher is to assist all different kinds of learners in their idiosyncratic learning paths. Being able to guide learners in the direction of EE is one way to aid some learners, whereas others may need help in the form of more challenging tasks in the classroom to stay

motivated for learning. Consequently, knowing how to assess learners' performance, both formatively and summatively, and knowing how to map their EE-related habits are essential teacher competencies.

In what follows, we first discuss particular demands on the L2 English teacher. The section that follows, 'Collegial cooperation—professional development,' focuses on the benefits of working closely together with other teachers and continuous professional development. A popular saying borrowed from the world of ICT, 'sharing is caring,' sums up the content of that specific section fairly well. The book then comes full circle when we return to EE, our main topic, in 'Extramural English in teaching and learning.' In the case that some readers should feel there is a missing piece in the EE puzzle, this section is where that final piece is hopefully put into place. We end the book by looking forward.

## **Demands on the L2 English Teacher**

As predicted by Graddol (2006), specialist English teachers across the world were to see the nature of their jobs change rapidly after the turn of the millennium. EE is one influential factor that has contributed to that change. Another change for teachers had to do with perspectives on nativeness. Since L2 learners by definition cannot become NSs, as discussed in Chap. 2, a gradual shift toward goals of becoming successful L2 users appeared instead—not everywhere but in many places. In essence, this meant that the monolingual norm is questioned and many teachers, as a consequence, have had to change perspectives, which is not an easy thing to do. Many teachers have been trained to adhere to and adopt the NS/monolingual norm in their practice, and it is not an easy task to change one's line of thinking regarding such a fundamental aspect of L2 English teaching and learning. However, nativeness as a yardstick in both research and classrooms has indeed lost ground in favor of a more modern view on L2 teaching, learning, and assessment. With regard to assessment in particular, over time, comprehensibility and intelligibility have turned into increasingly important aspects of learner language. While accuracy and grammatical knowledge may still be influential in terms of how these aspects are weighted in tests, it appears as if other factors, such

as fluency and interactional competence, have gained ground, at least in connection with assessing L2 oral language (Sandlund et al., 2016b). As opposed to the goal of native-like English, a reasonable goal to strive for in teaching and learning is, thus, for students to become successful L2 users (Cook, 1999, 2005). In places where this particular change has not occurred yet, the time is ripe to give up on the ‘monolingual bias,’ to use Ortega’s expression (2009, p. 6). For many teachers, it has been necessary to reflect on this particular change—nativeness versus successful L2 user—for some time, in order to be able to eventually come to grips with what it entails for one’s own practice. Without a doubt, it is understandably demanding for L2 English teachers to start thinking about teaching, learning, and assessment in a new way, looking at what they are doing through new lenses and with a new target, so to speak, especially if they have been trained to consider other foci.

Another job-related change happening after the turn of the millennium was linked to multilingualism. Whereas multilingualism had not been favorably looked upon previously, having the ability to speak many languages started to become viewed as a personal as well as professional asset. In light of what we know from research on the role of identity and investment in L2 learning (see, e.g., Norton, 2013; Norton & Toohey, 2011), this was a welcome and necessary change. In studies on the use of English as the medium of instruction in higher education, findings suggest that multilingualism indeed is seen as an asset. For instance, Moore and Dooly (2010) conclude that their multilingual sample of students appeared to have more cognitive resources at hand to solve problems in interaction, compared to when only one language was used. Furthermore, they found the plurilingual repertoire that flourished in the classroom to create a favorable environment which seemed to enrich the collective learning process. In a similar vein, Smit (2010) found that the multilinguals she investigated facilitated group work by means of their multilingual repertoire; anybody who by any means available could contribute with an explanation did so. This is referred to as ‘the principle of joint forces’ (Smit, 2010, p. 274). Even though these studies show promising results, more research is needed in the area of multilingualism and how it is being utilized in connection with above all L2 English teaching, and at lower educational levels.

On top of the matters discussed in this section, there is an ongoing debate about the ownership of English, that is, whether English ‘belongs’ to its L1 speakers or to its L2 speakers (cf. discussion in Chap. 6). There is a great deal of politics in the ownership debate, which we choose not to take part in. Instead, we would like to discuss and view ownership of English (or any other L2) from the perspective of its users/learners. It is important for learners to feel that they own English in the sense that they dare to use it, preferably without feeling particularly anxious. If teachers can contribute to making that happen, a wonderful job has been done.

Over the years, we have met and talked with many L2 English teachers about their jobs, the good and (sometimes) the bad. One comment that keeps coming up has to do with flexibility. In order to be successful and enjoy one’s job, it seems crucial to be flexible. A plan for teaching needs to be in place, but then the teacher needs to be flexible and prepared to adapt the plan depending on what happens and who the learners are. Moreover, as discussed in Chap. 2, it is not uncommon that the level of learners’ L2 English often differs greatly in a single classroom. At least in Sweden, teachers often explain such differences with learners’ different exposure to and use of EE. Thus, having the ability to be flexible is extremely valuable for teachers in the twenty-first century.

## Collegial Cooperation: Professional Development

There are several benefits of working in close cooperation with other teachers, both English teachers and teachers of other school subjects. An obvious advantage of collegial cooperation is that a single teacher does not have to do everything on his or her own. Joint planning, for instance, can be rewarding for teachers and learners alike.

In a questionnaire study among L2 English teachers in Sweden, teachers were contacted three years after they had completed an in-service training course (for some teachers, even more time had passed since they completed the course) (Sundqvist & Olin-Scheller, 2013). In the study, self-report answers to questionnaire items that focused specifically on four of the learning objectives in the course were examined. The syllabus stated that

upon completion of the course, the teachers should be able to '(1) involve learners in their language learning process, (2) bridge the gap between learning English (or other languages) outside of school and in school, (3) increase their use of ICT in language teaching, and (4) plan tasks that enhance their learners' motivation for learning languages' (p. 334).

The results revealed, among other things, that although several years had passed since the teachers participated in the course, all of them claimed to have changed their teaching practice as a result of the training, either 'to some extent' or 'to a large extent.' It is suggested that this specific finding indicates that the teachers' knowledge about and approach to teaching had changed markedly. With regard to joint planning, one illustrative example was given by a participant who had begun planning together with colleagues *and* students. For part of the school year, this teacher and his/her colleagues adopted a thematic approach in which they coordinated three upper secondary courses: English, IT, and business economics. In all three courses, the students' overall task was to make an oral presentation in English of a fictive company with the help of ICT. As part of the joint planning of the thematic project, the students and teachers also developed criteria for assessment. The L2 English teacher in the described project serves as an example of an empowered teacher going beyond traditional teaching by, for instance, deliberately incorporating ICT and EE resources in his/her teaching (for details, see Sundqvist & Olin-Scheller, 2013).

Other results from the same study revealed that teachers reported a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment, seemingly originating from the fact that they had changed the way they interacted with their students in the classroom. It is explained that this change was partly due to an increased knowledge of how to handle computers in general and the Internet in particular. However, knowledge of, for instance, attitudes, values, and habits that directly (as well as indirectly) were brought on by IT and the new media landscape was regarded as possibly even more important for the teachers than hard IT skills. Interestingly, the participating teachers reported that bringing the web into the L2 English classroom had led to a shift of power; the L2 English teacher was no longer the sole expert in the classroom. This is a concrete example of a bridging activity, using Thorne and Reinhardt's (2008) terminology, and from an L2 English learning perspective, this shift of power is beneficial.



Although trying to change teaching practices tends to be described as a slow tedious process, a single training course can, apparently, produce positive as well as enduring results. The L2 English teachers participating in the Swedish study made informed decisions about what content to teach and methodological approach to employ. In other words, their knowledge of English subject education comes across as solid and, based on their answers and accounts to open questions in the questionnaire, the participants also seemed to teach in line with theory.

While the thematic project described above is one good example of teachers who cooperate well locally, the '30-day Extramural English Challenge' presented in Chap. 6 is a good example of teachers who cooperate well online. As mentioned above, within ICT, the phrase 'sharing is caring' is used, and to us, approaches that build on that principle are commendable. Finally, it is worth noticing that in both these seemingly successful activities (i.e., the thematic project and the challenge), teachers (i) drew on EE and (ii) made sure to involve learners.

The idea of lifelong learning, which was addressed in Chap. 7, has so far been discussed from the perspective of the learners. However, needless to say, lifelong learning is of relevance also to teachers at all levels of educational systems and, therefore, a concern for politicians, educational institutions, and researchers. As discussed in Sandlund, Sundqvist, and Nyroos (2016a), central issues in research on teachers' continuous professional development include how educational reform and societal change increase the needs for continuous training for teachers (Day & Sachs, 2004), the effectiveness of various models for teacher development (Bolam & McMahon, 2004), and the ways in which new research on general education or subject education may be successfully incorporated into in-service training and practice (Erlam, 2008). They also note that in the field of language teaching and learning, the gap between new research and teachers' daily practice is perhaps particularly wide. In connection with this research/practice divide, a question for debate is what productive ways there are in terms of making L2 language research accessible and relevant to teachers, teacher education, and in-service training. By writing this book, we hope to contribute to making research on L2 English teaching and learning in general and EE in particular accessible to teachers.

Considering the fact that we live in a world where quick and dramatic changes are the norm rather than the exception, for teachers to be able to keep up with what their students are exposed to and engaged in outside of school and with other matters relevant to teaching L2 English, they need to be constantly updated, for instance, by participating in continuous professional development courses. Not only is the world rapidly changing, the younger generations are at the forefront of change (whereas teachers by necessity belong to older generations). This is yet another argument for the great importance of regular, continuous professional development courses for L2 English teachers. However, as in-service training sometimes is difficult for teachers to come by, to stay up-to-date, many teachers tend to find their own ways forward. For example, by forming pairs or small groups at their local schools, teachers work together and learn from as well as inform one another on novelties. There is promising ongoing research on the relationship between group development and health in schools (Jacobsson, 2013), and we look forward to learning more about that in the future. Another possibility to stay informed is to get involved in online communities, such as the Facebook group for English teachers discussed in Chap. 6 with regard to the 30-day EE Challenge. Good use can also be made of teacher students when they do their workplace training. By mentoring teacher students, teachers are likely to pick up on the latest issues discussed in teacher education, for example. It is also likely that teacher students can contribute with fresh insights into the EE activities of the younger generations.

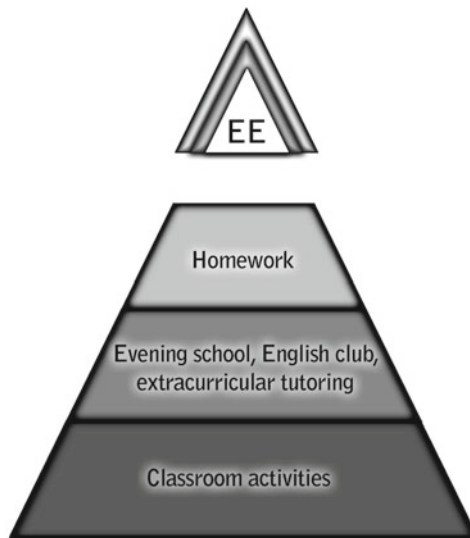
## **Extramural English in Teaching and Learning**

The learning of an L2 is generally closely associated with educational contexts. Often, school is where people first make the acquaintance with other languages than their own L1. Throughout the time in school, hours and hours on are spent in the language classroom. In addition to the regular lessons in school, many learners also engage in activities after school hours, so-called extracurricular activities, in the pursuit of reaching higher levels of L2 proficiency. Such activities go by different names, for instance, language club and evening school. Some also take

the opportunity to hire private tutors for the same purpose of becoming better at the target language. Related to school lessons and many of the extracurricular activities is homework. Tasks of various sorts are assigned by teachers or tutors, and they are to be done either as preparation for the next lesson or for the purpose of repetition.

In Fig. 8.1, the L2 English Learning Pyramid is introduced. The aim of the pyramid is to illustrate how the learning activities accounted for above are found in the basement of the pyramid, and they are all closely associated with one another (indicated by the shady lines between them and the solid line around them) as they are either teacher/tutor-led, teacher/tutor-initiated, or have some connection with the subject of L2 English in school.

As can be seen in Fig. 8.1, the top of the pyramid is floating above the base, and is detached from it. That top signifies EE, that is, all activities carried out in L2 English without having any connection whatsoever with the school subject, as defined in Chap. 1. In Fig. 8.1, we have attempted to illustrate how the EE-part of the pyramid is flexible; for



**Fig. 8.1** The L2 English Learning Pyramid (illustration by Julius Sylvén)

some learners EE is minute, for others EE constitutes by far the largest part of their L2 English.

As should be clear at this point, our aim in this book has been to raise the awareness about this part of the learning pyramid, and how it, in various ways, needs to be acknowledged and be taken advantage of in the L2 English classroom. However, we need to stress the importance of letting EE remain EE. In other words, and as we have tried to emphasize throughout the book, teachers need to realize what an important source of linguistic input EE can be, not to mention the chances for interaction and output through EE activities. Learners themselves should be informed about these positive effects of EE and be given credit for the learning that takes place thanks to EE. As has already been mentioned, teachers and learners who are frequently exposed to or involved in EE can suggest ways in which learners with less EE can increase their exposure/involvement. But, having said that, in the end, it is vital to remember that EE is always 100 % learner-initiated (compare with the L2 English learning model in Chap. 1), and that is why it is floating around on its own, above the rest of the L2 English Learning Pyramid, in Fig. 8.1.

## Way to Go: Forward

This book has sought to present a way to understand what teaching and learning English is about in a globalized world with many more L2 English speakers than L1 English speakers, and where many learners regularly come in contact with English also outside of the classroom. There has been a specific focus on the role of EE, which is the concept suggested here for all kinds of learner-initiated involvement in English activities outside the walls of the classroom. Furthermore, we have proposed a general model of L2 English learning and explained how EE fits into that frame. In addition, throughout the writing of this book, we have reminded ourselves of our main targeted readers: English teachers, students who are studying to become English teachers, their educators, and researchers. If we have succeeded in reaching the main objectives of this volume, readers in general should be well-acquainted with the concept EE by now, and teachers and teacher students in particular should be

in possession of some useful tools and ideas about how to approach EE and incorporate it in their own teaching; a quick reminder of the EE House and how learners move around in the house can be helpful. We have discussed the importance of planning and of adopting a systematic and reflective teaching practice. Some tools that perhaps can be of assistance, especially for newcomers to the profession, have been included in this book, along with a number of suggestions for varied classroom work for those readers who are still waiting for their English classrooms to be connected to the Internet (i.e., Appendices IV, V, and VI). Thus, at best this book makes a relevant contribution in that it empowers members of its main target readerships to find ways to bridge between English inside and outside the classroom. Most likely, such teaching will contribute to enhanced motivation among learners.

While conditions for teaching and learning English clearly vary across the globe, the book attempts to embrace the whole picture. We hope to have identified a common ground that applies to teaching and learning regardless of where and under what conditions teaching and learning take place.

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# Appendix I: Language Diary—Sample Page for One Day

## ENGLISH

**What do you do in English in your spare time?**

**Total time**  
If, for example, you  
have read for 25  
minutes, write 0 hrs. 25  
min.

<b>Reading books</b>	Title(s):	
<b>Reading newspapers/magazines</b>	Title(s):	
<b>Watching TV-programs</b> (on TV, computer, tablet etc.)	Title(s):	
<b>Watching films</b> (at the movie theater, on TV, video, DVD, computer, tablet, etc.)	Title(s):	
<b>Using the Internet</b>	Site(s):	
<b>Playing video games</b> (on a computer, PlayStation, Xbox etc.)	Title(s):	
<b>Listening to music</b>	Artist(s):	
<b>Other activity</b>	Example(s):	

## Appendix II: Template for Planning, Reflection, and Evaluation



<p>Lesson/task: _____</p>	<p>Aims: _____</p> <p>Why should the students learn this? Because...</p>	
<p><b>Conditions: What? Where? When? For whom?</b></p> <p><b>Outer conditions</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Room</li> <li>• Group size</li> <li>• Time</li> <li>• Teaching materials</li> <li>• Personnel</li> <li>• Curriculum and syllabus</li> <li>• Other resources</li> </ul> <p><b>Inner conditions</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher's knowledge and skills</li> <li>• Students' knowledge and skills</li> <li>• Teacher's planning</li> <li>• Students' motivation</li> <li>• Students' participation in planning</li> <li>• Teacher's personality</li> <li>• Teacher's mood</li> <li>• Limitations (fatigue, breaks)</li> <li>• Routines</li> </ul>	<p><b>Aims/Goals/Objectives: Why?</b></p> <p><b>Knowledge</b> What should the students learn?</p> <p><b>Skills</b> What type of skills do the students need to do this?</p> <p><b>Process</b> What should the students do?</p> <p><b>Attitude</b> What should the students experience? What type of atmosphere is desirable?</p> <p><b>SMART goals</b> are possible to evaluate</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Specific</li> <li>• Measurable</li> <li>• Accepted</li> <li>• Realistic</li> <li>• Time-constrained</li> </ul>	<p><b>Proceedings: How?</b></p> <p><b>How should we work?</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) English only or interdisciplinary work?</li> <li>Cooperation?</li> <li>b) The whole group/in pairs/individually?</li> <li>c) Thematic approach?</li> <li>d) How long should the session(s) be?</li> <li>e) What teaching materials will be used?</li> <li>f) What activities are suitable?</li> <li>g) What instructions are needed?</li> <li>h) What should the teacher do?</li> <li>i) What should the students do?</li> <li>j) Basics and extras?</li> <li>k) Individualized work?</li> <li>l) Who decides what?</li> <li>m) How should the work be assessed?</li> <li>n) Is something to be graded?</li> <li>o) How do we evaluate the work?</li> </ol>
<p><b>Analysis and reflections:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Did I achieve the aims/goals stated in my plan? If not, why not?</li> <li>b) Was the lesson different from the plan in any way? How and why?</li> <li>c) Did the students work according to my expectations?</li> <li>d) What was the atmosphere like? Why?</li> <li>e) How did I move from one stage of the lesson to the next?</li> <li>f) Did the students learn what I had set out to teach? How do I know this?</li> <li>g) Were there any problems? If so, which ones and why?</li> <li>h) What would I do differently next time? Why?</li> <li>i) What is the most important experience I got about being a teacher?</li> </ol>	<p><b>Actions and conclusions:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) What should be kept?</li> <li>b) What should be developed?</li> <li>c) What do I need to change?</li> <li>d) What should I think of next time?</li> </ol>	

## Appendix III: Step-by-Step Approach to Planning

1. Bring out an overview for the academic year.
2. Have the curriculum and syllabus ready, as well as any local guidelines.
3. Learn about the conditions for the new academic year.
  - a) *Time*: In the overview, note everything that will influence the plan, such as holidays, teachers' seminars, vocational training for the students, dates for mandatory tests, and so forth.
  - b) *Student group*: For what group of students is the plan made? Adapt the plan to suit the specific group.
  - c) *Room(s)*: Where will the teaching take place? What kind of room is it? What is the seating like? Can furniture be moved around if need be, for example, for group work or role-plays? What technical equipment is available? Are there computers? Laptops? Tablets? Smartphones?

Internet access? Do the students have access to a library or self-access learning center? Are there additional rooms that can be used?

- d) *Teaching materials*: What textbooks are there? Are the books for loan or for keep? Are there dictionaries? Grammars? Are there up-to-date subscriptions to a nearby media center or online material/programs? Notebooks and pencils? Blackboard, whiteboard, and/or interactive board? Access to online learning management systems?

4. What goals should be reached this academic year?

Goal attainment is important; decide what goals should be attained this year and formulate them as SMART goals (see Chap. 7). When the conditions and the goals are known, make a rough year-long plan for the student group in mind, preferably by dividing the year into periods (of a certain number of weeks) that suit both the teacher and the group.

5. Plan each period in more detail.

If the teacher already is familiar with the student group, planning tends to be rather easy and it is usually possible to plan the whole year (more or less) in advance. However, if there is a new group, the teacher first needs to plan the initial weeks so that they run smoothly. Remember to take the basic subject education questions into consideration: *why*, *what*, *how*, *for whom*, and *when*. In general, it is always possible to plan for *what*, *for whom*, and *when* early on, whereas it is more difficult to plan for *why* and *how* if the student group is unfamiliar to the teacher.

6. Students generally enjoy having a say in the planning.

The teacher is always in charge in the classroom, but should not be afraid of involving the students, one step at a time. One way of involving students in planning is to start by giving students a few options with regard to how they would like to present different tasks or homework in order to show the teacher what has been learned.

Thus, let the students decide on option(s) for presentation(s) and incorporate these options in the plan.

7. Plan each lesson in more detail.

As always, consider the conditions for each lesson. Is it a morning lesson? Can the students be expected to be alert? What lesson did they have before English? Whether the students come straight from Physical Education or Mathematics to English can (or even should) be taken into consideration and influence planning, but in different ways. In addition, does the teacher have a stressful situation before or after this particular lesson? If so, take that into consideration too, in order to avoid additional stress.

8. A lesson has three parts: a beginning, a middle, and an end. Make sure to include a beginning, a middle, and an end in the plan. Do not forget the end!

9. Set a goal for the lesson.

What are the aims? What is the content of the lesson? Why that content? What are the students going to do? And how? Why are they doing it in that way? Do they all work with the same type of content or not? With whom? Who does what? Is this plan interesting for the students? Are they likely to learn? A sensible saying teachers may want to remember reads: 'Don't do the things that the students can do themselves.'

10. Rule of thumb.

It is better to plan for too much than for too little, especially for novice teachers. Therefore, always have extra material ready.

11. A piece of advice.

'Be prepared, be yourself, go for it!'

## Appendix IV: Working with Words

1. Words in sentences  
Use new words in your own sentences.
2. Find the synonyms  
Synonym = a word that has the same meaning as another word, for example, *friend-pal*.
3. Find the antonyms  
Antonym = a word that means the opposite of another word, for example, *tall-short*.
4. Write a story  
Choose 10 (15, 20...) new words and write a story which contains the words.
5. Write a poem  
Learn words that rhyme and use them to write your own poem. Or write a poem without rhymes.
6. Picture wordlist  
Create a picture wordlist; that is, make a picture to all new words that you learn.

7. My groups of words  
Collect words that belong to the same group of words according to yourself, for example, 'GREEN' (*cucumber, pear, bush, lawn*) or 'LOVE' (*heart, red, poem, arrow, satisfaction, letter, ring, wedding*).
8. Mindmap  
Create a mindmap of your new words.
9. Explanations in pairs  
Work in pairs. Student A talks about a word without mentioning what it is and Student B is supposed to guess the word.
10. Keywords  
Select keywords from a text. Use the keywords when retelling the content of the text.
11. Crossword  
Create a crossword of your new words, let a friend fill it out and then correct it. If possible, make several copies of your crossword and let several friends try it. Correct and hand back.
12. Ask the right question  
Work in pairs or small groups. One student thinks of a word and the others ask questions in order to figure it out. One student thinks of a word and asks questions to the others in order for them to use the specific word in their answers.
13. 20 questions  
Work in pairs or small groups. One student thinks of a word and the others are supposed to figure it out. They may only use a total of 20 questions; answer only 'yes' or 'no.'
14. Domino  
Create a domino game using new words. Play it. Let friends try your game. When they are done, check so that it is correct. (Domino: Use cards; divide each card in two halves. Write word 1 in your L1 to the left and English word 2 to the right, and so forth; the last English word combines with L1 word 1 on your first card.)
15. Charades  
Play charades. Dramatize a word (or a sentence). You are not allowed to say anything. Your friends should guess the word (or the sentence).

16. Board game  
Create a board game and play it. You need a board game, a dice, and some markers.
17. Wordsoup  
Create a wordsoup. A wordsoup is like a crossword except that all squares include a letter. In the wordsoup, hide a number of English words horizontally, vertically, and diagonally, and fill up the remaining boxes with random letters. Hand your wordsoup to a friend, who is supposed to solve it. Correct the wordsoup and hand it back. Let someone make you a wordsoup.
18. The 4-column work  
Divide a sheet of paper into four columns: (1) English, (2) a sentence with the word, (3) an explanation in English of the word, and (4) L1 translation. Test yourself.
19. Odd man out  
Create word groups of four words. One word should not fit in, for one reason or another. Let a friend figure out what word is the odd word out. Example: *live-eat-boy-drive* ('boy' since it is a noun and the rest are verbs); *jet-sun-lie-help* ('help' since it has four letters and the others only three).
20. Scrabble  
Play Scrabble and follow the English rules. If you only have access to the L1 version of Scrabble, use these additional rules: You may only speak English. You will only be awarded points if you can explain what the word means in English and you can use it in a sentence.
21. Hangman  
Play Hangman and spell the words in English to each other.
22. Definitions  
Write a definition to a word without mentioning what it is. Try to write definitions that are a bit tricky and take some time to figure out. Test a friend.
23. Tic-tac-toe  
Work in pairs. Draw a tic-tac-toe with nine boxes. Fill in nine words that you would like to practice. Student A chooses one word and says

a sentence with the word. If the sentence is correct, Student A gets to write X (or O) in that box. If the sentence is incorrect, Student B says a sentence with the word, and so on. The first player with three in a row is the winner.

24. Word associations

Work in pairs. Choose 10–20 words. Student A reads a word aloud at a time and Student B writes down the first association s/he gets when hearing the word. When done, Student B tries to explain, with as much detail as possible, each association. Change roles.

25. Prefix

A prefix is a morpheme that is put at the beginning of a word in order to change the meaning of the word. Example: Prefix *re-* means ‘again’: *fill—refill*, *apply—reapply*; *anti* means ‘against’: *war—antiwar*. Collect words that all start with the same prefix, for example, *re-*, *co-*, *un-*, *anti-*, and *dis-*.

26. Suffix

A suffix is a morpheme that is put at the end of a word in order to create a new word. Example: *-ness*: *bitter* (adjective)—*bitterness* (noun); *happy—happiness*. Collect words that all end with the same suffix, for example, *-ness*, *-ous*, *-ist*, *-al*, *-ish*, *-ful*, *-ly*, *-er*, *-ee*.

27. Word cards

Create word cards with L1 on one side and English on the other. You can use these cards for all sorts of things. Here are some suggestions:

- a) Pick a card and use the word in a sentence.
- b) Translation from L1 to English and from English to L1.
- c) Pick 3 cards and make up a sentence with these cards.
- d) Pick 10 cards and make up a story with these cards.
- e) Sort the cards into groups according to your own logical system. Label each group and add a logical explanation to your label. Ask a friend, how would s/he sort the words?

28. Spelling

Work in pairs. Each of you should have 10 words. Student A spells each word letter by letter, Student B writes them down. B dictates the words. Correct the words. Switch roles.



29. Dictation  
Work in pairs. Student A dictates a text and B writes it down. Check the language. Switch roles.
30. Phonetic transcription  
Use a dictionary. Try to pronounce new words with the help of the phonetic transcriptions. If possible, record your pronunciation. Let the teacher listen and help you if you are insecure about how certain words should be pronounced.
31. Compounds  
Work in pairs. Learn compounds in English. Compounds are words that are made up of two other words, for example, *newspaper* (*news* + *paper*). Write the words on pieces of paper and cut them apart. Ask a friend to make the correct combinations into compounds.
32. Scrambled words  
Scramble the letters of a word and let your friend guess what it is. Example: *TRANTEAURS* = *restaurant*.
33. Recordings  
Record yourself when you read a text or work with the pronunciation of words. Listen to your spoken English. Let your teacher listen to your recording. Is your English comprehensible?
34. My loooooooooong word list  
Save all your new words in a long list. How long a list can you make?
35. Word families  
Start collecting word families. Create three columns: *Nouns*, *Verbs*, and *Adjectives*. Enter families as you learn them, for example, *length–lengthen–long*.
36. Dictionary  
Make it a habit to use a dictionary. Put a check mark by the word the first time you look it up in the dictionary. Be surprised, the older you get, the more often you will run into words that you have checked already.
37. Joint vocabulary list  
Work in groups of 4 or 5. Each student brings 3–5 new words to class. Each word should be presented in its authentic context, for example, a sentence from a book, a sentence from a newspaper

article, a line from a film, or a line from a song lyrics. Each group has approximately 15–20 good examples of words as well as the context of each word. Choose 4 words that you want to share with the whole class. Each group puts their choice of 4 new words + context on the whiteboard. The teacher makes sure the whiteboard examples are saved and shared with the class.

38. Card game. Collecting families  
Create a game consisting of 52 cards and approximately 9–10 word families/game. Play the game. The person who collects most families wins. Present the students with some easy rules. Encourage them to create new rules after a while. Encourage students to create/suggest new games.
39. A very traditional wordlist  
Divide a sheet of paper into three columns: (1) English, (2) English test, and (3) L1. Fill out columns 1 and 3 first. Study the words. Test yourself in column 2 by covering column 1. Keep testing yourself until you know all the words and can spell them correctly. Make sure to learn the words from the L1 to English, and from English to the L1.
40. Learning new vocabulary from a favorite interest  
Get hold of texts of your favorite interest, for example, use *Sports Illustrated* if you are into basketball. Read everything related to the NBA and take down all new words that you run into (e.g., in a traditional wordlist, as described above in example 39).
41. Memory  
Create a memory game; that is, cards with English on one card and the L1 translation on another card. Put all cards face down. Student A picks two cards. If these match, Student A keeps the pair and goes on. If they do not match, it is Student B's turn. You can also use pictures and the words in English (and the L1). The one with most pairs in the end wins.
42. Drill the right verb form of *to be*  
Play a game using *I am* and *he/she is* repeatedly for a long period. Whenever new nouns are presented, this game is possible. Sit in a circle and say, for example, 'I am a king,' 'he is a lion,' and so forth until someone has to tell what everyone else is, showing off what a great memory he or she has. The teacher needs to make sure the right verb form is used.

## 43. The adverb game

Use cards. Put lots of different adverbs (*energetically, happily, angrily, fast, nervously, etc.*) in one pile and lots of different activities (*comb your hair, post a letter, get dressed, drive a car, etc.*) in a second pile. Students pick one card from each pile and then play the charades, for example, ‘comb your hair + energetically.’ This is a way to get a feel for what adverbs are and of course to learn new vocabulary and new expressions. You can talk about which combinations make sense and which do not.

You need thick paper or regular paper that you laminate. Create a ‘wraparound’ by writing English and L1 words/phrases in the left and the right margins, adding a V-shaped cut into the card by each word or phrase. Make a hole in top left corner. Tie a string to the hole and wrap the string so that each word (phrase) combines with its correct translation (or answer). When you have wrapped the string to join all words (phrases, questions and answers, or whatever word combinations you would like to work with), *draw* the key on the back of the card (i.e., fill in the ‘string lines’).

## 44. The challenge

Students sit on their desks. One student begins as the ‘Challenger’ and gets to choose to challenge another friend. The teacher says an L1 word (or reads an English description of a word) and the two students are supposed to yell the word as soon as they come to think of it. The one who yells first wins and the other one has to sit down. If neither of the two students knows the word, anyone may answer. The person who has the right answer becomes the Challenger and continues to challenge the others. Those who have to sit down can, thus, re-enter the game when there is an open floor, so to speak. The final winner is the last person who sits on his or her desk.

## 45. The loop

Use as many cards as you have students in your group (if you have too many cards, let some students have more than one card). Create a word loop of words along the format (for each card) ‘English target word – another word in the L1’. It may sound like this, for English and Swedish: (card 1) ‘I have *guilty*. Who has *lycka*?’, (card 2) ‘I have *happiness*. Who has *window pane*?’, (card 3) ‘I have *fönsterruta*. Who

has...' etc, until the final card, which includes the question for card 1, that is, 'Who has *skyldig*?' (Note: Swedish *skyldig* = English *guilty*). The loop is now complete. The idea is that questions and answers should run through the group as quickly as possible until the first person gets to answer his or her question. The teacher can time the students and let them compete against themselves, so to speak (or against other student groups).

46. Stick figures or puppets

Let students create stick figures or puppets, which can become the students' alter egos or just plain 'people' to talk about. Collect words from different semantic fields as you work with your stick figures or puppets. Examples of semantic fields that could be used: 'family,' 'relations,' 'school,' 'clothes,' 'food,' and 'travel.'

47. The alphabet race

First of all, practice the alphabet, starting from the beginning with 'A' and later starting from a letter anywhere in the alphabet. Students should be able to tell the alphabet from any letter. Write the alphabet on the whiteboard. Start a timer. Give your group different word categories (themes), or different semantic fields, such as 'things you can eat,' 'things outdoors,' 'clothes,' 'countries,' and so forth. The students are supposed to yell words within the theme and the teacher erases each letter of the alphabet as it is produced by the students (e.g., *spinach* erases 's'). When the whole alphabet is erased, stop the timer. The group can aim to improve its result from time to time.

48. Mr. Eight

You need a dice. Draw two big 'eights' ('8s') on the whiteboard (or on a sheet of paper). Next to them, write: 1 = nose, 2 = ear, 3 = mouth, 4 = leg, 5 = arm, 6 = eye. Divide your group into two teams. One member of each team steps forward to the whiteboard. The teacher says a word in the L1 (or gives an English description of the word). The student who first comes up with the word in English may throw the dice. The number that comes up corresponds to the body part that the student should draw. The team who first finishes its 'Mr Eight' wins. This can, of course, be done without the competition format, or with students in pairs, or with other types of set-up. And,

'Mr Eight' could easily be replaced by 'Mrs Eight'! Or by a blank, which is supposed to become a dog (1 = head, 2 = body, 3 = leg, 4 = tail, 5 = ear or nose, 6 = eye or mouth), a rose (1 = stem, 2 = one petal [four petals needed], 3 = vase, 4 = water, 5 = thorn [three thorns needed], 6 = water pot), or something else. Consider what images best suit learners of different ages.

49. The flea

Create a traditional 'flea' and write numbers on its wings. Fill it with colors/patterns/images, questions, answers, words, phrases, and so forth. The difficulty level can be varied infinitely. Let students create fleas. Test vocabulary.

50. Fish (or other species)

You need pictures of different fish and what they are called in English and the L1. Play memory; practice the words.

51. Create words from single letters

Students can work individually or in pairs. Create English words from letters (one letter/card or piece of paper)—as many words as possible, as long words as possible. The task can easily be turned into a competition, or one can use the task to rehearse vocabulary. Around 40 letters are probably enough in primary school. Increase the number of letters that they work with, as the learners become more advanced. A set of letters can be kept in an envelope.

## Appendix V: Working with Pictures

### 1. Yes and No questions

Work in pairs. Student A has a picture and Student B is supposed to guess what it is by asking only Yes and No questions. If it becomes difficult, A may give B some hints.

### 2. Describe and guess

Work in pairs or small groups. Student A describes his/her picture and B should guess what it is.

### 3. Talk until you figure out what it is

Work in pairs. Student A has a picture. Student A and B simply talk until B figures out what it is.

### 4. Identify the right picture

Work in pairs or small groups. Put four similar pictures on the table. Student A has one picture which is identical with one of the four pictures on the table. Student A talks about his/her picture and the others are supposed to figure out which one it is. It can be turned into a competition (1 point per correct guess; -1 point per incorrect guess).

## 5. Sequences

Use 5–8 pictures. These should be put into a sequence that makes sense. Present the sequence orally or in writing. Work individually, in pairs, or in groups.

## 6. Comic strips

Comic strips can be used for a lot of creative language work. Some examples are:

- a) Use blank speech balloons. Let students fill them out.
- b) Use strips without speech balloons; let the students tell/write what is going on.
- c) Use strips with 3–4 frames. Integrate teaching of tenses by using the past ('What happened before the first picture?'). 'What happens then?' (the present tense). 'What is happening now?' (the present progressive). 'What will happen next, after the last frame?' (the future tense).
- d) Let the students draw their own strips and write their own speech balloons. This could be a follow-up activity of a regular text.
- e) Use English comic strips. Cut the strips according to its number of frames (i.e., a 4-frame strip becomes 4 separate pictures). Let the students build the strips using the separate pictures. Do they create the same strip as the original? Make a word collection to each picture frame.
- f) What onomatopoeic words are used in English? Study English comic strips. Compare with L1 expressions. A follow-up activity is to teach about animals and their calls: animal (*a snake*)—animal's call as a verb (*to hiss*)—animal's call as a noun (*a hiss[ing]*).

## 7. What's missing?/Find five differences

Work in pairs. Student A has a perfect picture whereas B's picture has five things missing/different. Through oral interaction, the students try to identify the differences between their pictures.

## 8. Make up a story

Simply make up stories with the help of pictures. Tip: A picture of footprints will always get students going, if no other picture works.

9. Postcards—my choice  
Place tons of postcards on a desk. Let the students look at them and choose one. Let them talk about why they chose that particular card.
10. Postcards/Pictures—geography  
The teacher brings his or her own postcards to school. The teacher tells the students about trips he or she has made. Let students bring their own postcards or pictures. Where in the world do we find English-speaking countries?
11. Famous persons  
Use famous persons, celebrities. Guess the picture. Make ‘Most wanted-signs’ of celebrities—have a guessing game.
12. Card games with pictures and word families  
Make a card game of 52 cards. There should be a number of word families among those 52 cards. For instance, ‘The electrical game’ includes word families with words suitable to learn for students who will become electricians. ‘The literature game’ includes word families with words suitable to learn in literature classes, and so forth. Students can make up the rules; the winner is the one who has collected the most word families. The teacher can create games for any category in order to teach vocabulary and practice speaking. Students can come up with new ideas and start creating their own games.
13. Odd man out  
Use four pictures; one does not belong (odd-man-out). Which one? Why? There are no wrong answers as long as the students can defend their choices.
14. Close-ups  
Use close-ups of people to work with details, descriptions, word collections, and so forth.
15. Full figure  
Use full-size figure pictures of people to work with body parts and how to describe people.
16. Board games  
Have the students create board games with pictures. Board games can be used for glossary work, for speaking tasks, almost for almost anything that needs to be practiced.



17. Play cards  
Play cards in English, for instance, poker, and learn the corresponding vocabulary.
18. Famous paintings  
Study famous paintings in English. What are the paintings called in English?
19. This is me  
The teacher brings pictures of himself/herself from different ages in life. Tell the students about yourself. Let the student do the same.
20. Why so upset?  
Use a picture of someone who looks very upset. Let the students talk in small groups about this person, why is he or she so upset? If there is time, write a story about what happened the last five minutes before the picture was taken.
21. Celebration  
Use pictures showing different days of celebration in English-speaking countries. What do the students think they are celebrating? Learn more about what days English-speaking countries celebrate, or what other cultural traditions they celebrate. What do you celebrate in your own country? Are there similarities? Differences?
22. Emergency phone numbers  
Use pictures with, for example, 'Call 911' on. In case there is an accident, what is the emergency number to call in the USA? In Ireland? Australia? New Zealand? Canada? The UK? in the country where the students live? In the neighboring country/countries?
23. Hi, I'm from X  
Use pictures of the students from, for example, a yearbook or some other time when pictures were taken of the students. Let students brainstorm in small groups and discuss why they are studying English. Write down eight reasons for studying English.
24. The flowers  
Use pictures of flowers. Discuss which one is your favorite and why.
25. Decorate a home  
Use lots of pictures of home decoration. Learn new vocabulary from the pictures. How would the students decorate a home, if they were

to decorate their dream home? Practice expressing opinions, why something is preferred over something else, and so on.

26. The building

Use pictures that include buildings and people. Why do these people live there? Who are their neighbors? What are they like? What does the picture 'tell' different students?

## Appendix VI: Working with Texts

1. Read aloud  
Students read the whole text, or just a part of it, aloud to a friend. Prepare individually first.
2. Act it out!  
If there is dialogue in the text, let the students learn it by heart and act it out.
3. Turn the text into a dialogue  
Take the text and turn it into a dialogue. Students use their own imagination. They do not have to follow the text slavishly. Act it out.
4. A radio program  
Together with a peer, students create a radio program out of the text. Record. Play the program to an audience.
5. Scrambled sentences  
The students copy a text, and then cut it into pieces. Peers are to reconstruct the original text; compare with the original.

6. What would you ...?  
Work in groups. Discussion of the text and its characters. What would Student A do if s/he were one of them? Would s/he react in the same way as him/her? Discussion.
7. Write a poem/fairy tale/newspaper article  
Use the text as inspiration and write
  - a) a poem; with or without rhymes, traditional or modern.
  - b) a fairy tale; it must begin with 'Once upon a time' and end with 'lived happily ever after.'
  - c) a newspaper article; come up with a good heading and move on from that.
8. Telegram  
Back in the old days, people used to send telegrams. Write the text as a telegram; that is, use as few words as possible to get the meaning across. The more words the students use, the more money the telegram costs to send. The maximum amount of words students may use is 30.
9. A new end  
Write a new end to the text. If students work in a group, compare the different endings. Which one did they like the most? Why?
10. Find more facts  
If the text includes facts, students try to find more facts and create a poster or a brochure.
11. Summary  
Write a summary. Students cannot use more than one-fifth of the words of the original text.
12. Letter or diary  
Pretend that one of the characters of the text writes a letter to a friend, or that he or she keeps a diary. What would the letter say? Or what would be in the diary? Write one page from the letter or the diary.
13. Poster sessions  
When students have read a book, or any type of text, let them present the text on a poster. Arrange a poster presentation session where students

get to present their interpretations of and opinions on different texts. Some students walk around while others present, and vice versa.

14. Book talk à la Chambers

The British author Aidan Chambers has suggested a model of book talks that is recommendable. When students have read the same book or text, arrange for book talks in groups of four or five students. In short, Chambers's 'Tell me' method suggests three 'sharings' from which the student talk takes its departure:

- Sharing enthusiasms
- Sharing puzzles/difficulties
- Sharing connections/discovering patterns

We would like to add a fourth sharing:

- Sharing something interesting or unexpected

15. Translation

Translate an important part of the text into the L1. Use the L1 translation and translate back into English (without looking at the original text). Compare the original text with the English translation. Is the translation identical? There might be differences, but these may be acceptable solutions as well. Discussion.

16. Gaps

Copy the text but leave gaps for others to fill in. Correct.

17. Learn by heart

Choose some good phrases from a text and learn them by heart.

18. Verbs: Tense shift

Change the tense of a text, for example, from the past to the present.

19. Additions

Add words and sentences to the text, so that it becomes more interesting.

20. 2-2-2-5

From the text, students write 2 things they disliked, 2 things they liked, 2 things they would like to learn more about, and 5 new words. Learn the new words.

## 21. Haiku

Read the text. Create a haiku, the traditional Japanese poem consisting of three lines with the particular haiku structure (a somewhat simplified description is given here): line 1 has 5 syllables; line 2 has 7 syllables; and line 3 has 5 syllables.

*Coming from the woods  
A bull has a lilac sprig  
Dangling from a horn*  
(Richard Wright)

Then, read the haiku poems aloud. Individual or pair work.

## 22. Mindmap

Make a mindmap about the text. Include things like background information, facts, characters, events, ending, students' own personal feelings about the text, and so on.

## 23. Summaries

After each paragraph of the text, ask: 'What is it about?' Write a few keywords; five at the most. Go through all paragraphs. Then, students use their keywords in order to write a summary of the whole text, or retell the text orally.

## 24. Preposition hunt

Look for expressions in the text in which prepositions are used. Copy these expressions and translate them into the L1.

## 25. True or False

Write 5–10 true or false statements/propositions about the text. Test a peer. Correct.

## 26. Frames

Turn the text into 'a film.' Draw approximately 4–6 frames which summarize the text.

## 27. Dictation

Work in pairs/small groups. Read the text aloud. Student A dictates one sentence (or whatever length is convenient) at a time; Student B writes. Check with the original. Change roles.

## 28. Topics

Work in pairs or small groups. Pick texts that cover the same topic, for instance, love, war, childhood, or food. Compare the texts. What things do the texts have in common? Differences? What is good? Bad? Why?

29. Interview  
Work in pairs. One is a character from the text and the other is a news reporter. Conduct an interview about the most important parts of the text. Write an article afterwards (or record it as a radio interview).
30. Find the differences  
Work in a group. All students have read the same text. One reads the text aloud but makes conscious changes of particular words. The peers should listen carefully and identify the differences.
31. Questions  
Students write questions to the text and let peers answer them. Correct afterwards.
32. Words in context  
Work in groups. All students start by reading the same text, quietly. Each student underlines the known words or expressions. Then, talk about unfamiliar words or expressions and see whether the group, together, can figure out the meaning of the whole text. If the group ends up with some words that no one knows, look them up in a dictionary and learn those words.
33. Mini-book  
Cut a regular sheet of paper into 4 parts and staple into a mini-book. Read a text. Retell the text in the form of a mini-book. Draw a picture and write an accompanying text for each opening in the book.
34. More facts  
Students have read a text. Learn more facts by using an encyclopedia, the teacher, or some other person(s).
35. Prediction exercise  
Guess the contents from the title. Scan the text quickly to try to find out if the predictions were accurate.
36. Scanning  
Work in pairs. Ask a peer to write three questions to a text you have not read. Scan the text as quickly as possible to find the answers.
37. Missing the first line  
Students copy a text but remove the first line from each of the paragraphs. A peer is to match the paragraphs to the missing lines.

## 38. Reversed questions

Students write some questions and answers to a text. The answers are shared with a peer, who is supposed to come up with the original questions.

## 39. Keywords

Two students read the same text and each chooses a limited number of keywords that are written down. Swop keywords. Students retell the story with the help of the keywords to one another

## 40. Convert the genre

Convert the text into another genre: business letter, diary entry, newspaper article, poem, adventure story, and so on.

## 41. Convert the perspective

Change the perspective of the text by re-writing it from someone else's point of view.

## 42. The Blurb (or the Jacket)

Students have read a book or a long text for which they are to write a blurb. A blurb is the short text written on the back of a book. The purpose of a blurb is to make people want to read the book or the story. If students enjoy Art, they might want to create the whole book jacket (the cover that protects the book); that is, not only the blurb but also the front cover.

## 43. MyBookBook

Students have a MyBookBook in which they record all books they read in English: titles, author, and total number of pages. It is possible to add an element of competition here; a student can compete against himself/herself (for instance, number of pages read per month) or against other students in the group. Groups of students can compete against other groups of students at the school.



## Appendix VII: Alexandra's '30-Day Extramural English Challenge'

[Authentic spelling]

Name: Alexandra      Class: 9X

Date	Task number	Details ( <i>who you have spoken to; which TV show, movie, game, blog, short story, or the like you have worked with</i> )	Skills practiced <i>W—writing, R—reading, S—speaking, L—listening, V— vocabulary</i>
9/1	3	Breakfast club	L
10/1	4	Welcome to nightvale	L
11/1	23	Dan Howell, Phil Lester	L
12/1	16	Primo Victoria—Sabaton Advanced mode	L, W
13/1	49	15 minutes of practice	V
14/1	4	Welcome to nightvale	L
15/1	2	Schindler's list	L, V
16/1	47	20 minutes of word games	V
17/1	38	I did the game / practice 2 times	V, L

Date	Task number	Details (who you have spoken to; which TV show, movie, game, blog, short story, or the like you have worked with)	Skills practiced
			W—writing, R—reading, S—speaking, L—listening, V— vocabulary
18/1	41	I took the test, and it said I'm 'the intellectual'	R
19/1	16	Don't stop believing	L, W
20/1	5	One about frogs in England	R, V
21/1	8	Zoellas blog	R
22/1	31	4 games with the akinator	V
23/1	51	Unbroken, Avengers 2, Insurgent	L
24/1	3	Saints and soldiers: Airborne Creed	L
25/1	23	Joe Sugg, Connor Franta	L
26/1	20	Scarecrow	R
27/1	13	A website about modern art, for art class	R, V
28/1	5	One about a chair/backpack	R
29/1	47	15 minutes word practice	V
30/1	37	1 round of decorating	V
31/1	42	Newsreel	L, V
1/2	38	15 minutes word practice	V
2/2	5	One about Aushchwitz	L, V
3/2	42	Newsreel	L
4/2	39	7/9 correct	V
5/2	33	I 'spoke' 15 minutes to the avatar	W, L
6/2	3	Saints and soldiers: airborne creed	L, R
7/2	2	A few episodes of modern family (not a movie, but a TV show)	L

Evaluation:

*What did you like the most?*

I really enjoyed doing task #16 (practice song lyrics), because I got to learn the actual lyrics to my favorite songs, and it was a fun way to practice words.

*What did you like the least?*

I didn't like #5 (news articles from a website you linked), because the news articles were pretty short and boring. The articles were very short,

even though I read it on the 'highest level,' and the articles just weren't interesting.

---

*How did you learn the most?*

I think I learned the most from #3 (watching a movie with English subtitles), because I could hear the words, read them, and have them in a sentence. So you get to learn some new words, slang and local slang, which is very interesting.

---

*What will you do again?*

I already do a lot of the things on a daily basis, but I will probably do the lyrics training again, 'cause I really enjoyed it, and it's a new thing for me, so I'll do that again!

---

# Appendix VIII: Young Learner Vocabulary Assessment Test (YLVAT)

## VOCABULARY TEST, GRADE 6 ORDPROV, ÅRSKURS 6

First and last name/För- och efternamn: \_\_\_\_\_

Class/Klass: \_\_\_\_\_

School/Skola: \_\_\_\_\_

The test consists of three parts. Read the instructions carefully. If you don't understand what to do, please ask your teacher to explain! Good luck – and thanks for doing this.

*Provet består av tre delar. Läs instruktionerna noga. Om du inte förstår vad du ska göra, be din lärare att förklara! Lycka till – och tack på förhand för att du gör detta.*

Pia Sundqvist, fil. dr., Karlstads universitet  
Liss Kerstin Sylvé, fil. dr., Göteborgs universitet

### PART A (Del A) – WORD RECOGNITION (Att känna igen ord)

#### Instructions / Instruktioner

There are 13 questions in Part A. Check "T" if a sentence is **true**. Check "N" if a sentence is **not true**. Check "X" if you **do not understand** the sentence. Follow the example!

*Del A består av 13 frågor. Kryssa för "T" om meningen är sann (True). Kryssa för "N" om meningen inte är sann (Not true). Kryssa för "X" om du inte förstår meningen. Följ exemplet!*

Example) We can stop time.

- T (This is **True**)  
 N (This is **Not true**)  
 X (I **do not understand** the question)

1)



Two of these are little.

- T  
 N  
 X

2)

When someone says 'What are you called?', you should say your name.

- T  
 N  
 X

- 3) There are many ways to get money.  T  
 N  
 X
- 4) All the world is under water.  T  
 N  
 X
- 5) When you keep asking, you ask once.  T  
 N  
 X
- 6) Sometimes people die when they fall off a building.  T  
 N  
 X
- 7) Day follows night and night follows day.  T  
 N  
 X
- 8) *Remain here* means 'stay'.  T  
 N  
 X
- 9) When there is a change of scene, we see a different place.  T  
 N  
 X
- 10) Dirty hands cannot make marks on glass.  T  
 N  
 X
- 11) Each society has the same rules.  T  
 N  
 X
- 12) Three examples of food are: shops, homes and markets.  T  
 N  
 X
- 13) It is a short way from one side to the other side of a wide river.  T  
 N  
 X

PART A TOTAL SCORE:

## Instructions / Instruktioner

There are 4 questions in Part B. Make the right combinations by writing the number next to the synonym or meaning of the word. Follow the example!

*Del B består av 4 frågor. Gör rätt kombinationer genom att skriva siffran bredvid ordets synonym eller betydelse. Följ exemplet!*

- |             |    |             |                 |                                   |
|-------------|----|-------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|
| Example)    | 1. | original    |                 |                                   |
|             | 2. | private     | <u>6</u>        | complete                          |
|             | 3. | royal       | <u>1</u>        | first                             |
|             | 4. | slow        | <u>2</u>        | not public                        |
|             | 5. | sorry       |                 |                                   |
|             | 6. | total       |                 |                                   |
| Question 1) | 1. | apply       |                 |                                   |
|             | 2. | elect       | <u>        </u> | choose by voting                  |
|             | 3. | jump        | <u>        </u> | become like water                 |
|             | 4. | manufacture | <u>        </u> | make                              |
|             | 5. | melt        |                 |                                   |
|             | 6. | threaten    |                 |                                   |
| Question 2) | 1. | blame       |                 |                                   |
|             | 2. | hide        | <u>        </u> | keep away from sight              |
|             | 3. | hit         | <u>        </u> | have a bad effect on something    |
|             | 4. | invite      | <u>        </u> | ask                               |
|             | 5. | pour        |                 |                                   |
|             | 6. | spoil       |                 |                                   |
| Question 3) | 1. | accident    |                 |                                   |
|             | 2. | choice      | <u>        </u> | having a high opinion of yourself |
|             | 3. | debt        | <u>        </u> | something you must pay            |
|             | 4. | fortune     | <u>        </u> | loud, deep sound                  |
|             | 5. | pride       |                 |                                   |
|             | 6. | roar        |                 |                                   |
| Question 4) | 1. | basket      |                 |                                   |
|             | 2. | crop        | <u>        </u> | money paid for doing a job        |
|             | 3. | flesh       | <u>        </u> | heat                              |
|             | 4. | salary      | <u>        </u> | meat                              |
|             | 5. | temperature |                 |                                   |
|             | 6. | thread      |                 |                                   |

PART B TOTAL SCORE:

## PART C (Del C) – PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY (Produktivt ordförråd)

## Instructions / Instruktioner

Complete the underlined words as has been done in the example!

Skriv färdigt de understrukna orden på det sätt som exemplet visar!

Example) He was riding a bicycle \_\_\_\_\_.

- 1) Plants receive water from the soil through their ro \_\_\_\_\_.
- 2) The nu \_\_\_\_\_ was helping the doctor in the operation room.
- 3) He is walking on the ti \_\_\_\_\_ of his toes.
- 4) The mechanic had to replace the mo \_\_\_\_\_ of the car.
- 5) There is a co \_\_\_\_\_ of the original report in the file.
- 6) They had to cl \_\_\_\_\_ a steep mountain to reach the cabin.
- 7) The railway con \_\_\_\_\_ London with its suburbs.
- 8) The house was su \_\_\_\_\_ by a garden.
- 9) This work is not up to your us \_\_\_\_\_ standard.
- 10) She wan \_\_\_\_\_ aimlessly in the streets.
- 11) They sat down to eat even though they were not hu \_\_\_\_\_.
- 12) The doctor ex \_\_\_\_\_ the patient thoroughly.

PART C TOTAL SCORE:

TOTAL SCORE ON THE WHOLE TEST (Max: 37)


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