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English in Primary Education in Sweden and Vietnam

Teaching practices, learner outcomes and out-of-school exposure

Son, Vi Thanh

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Vi Thanh Son

English in Primary Education in Sweden and Vietnam

-TEACHING PRACTICES, LEARNER OUTCOMES
AND OUT-OF-SCHOOL EXPOSURE

This thesis investigates the interaction between teaching and learning of English in young learners in Sweden and in Vietnam, bringing together two perspectives – teaching and learning – that are seldom compared between cultural contexts. The main focus of the study was to examine procedural and declarative knowledge of English grammar.

A number of Grade 5 English lessons in primary school classrooms in Sweden and Vietnam were observed and analysed using the COLT scheme (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching). The pupils' proficiency in English was assessed using elicitation instruments that captured procedural and declarative knowledge of English subject–verb agreement. In addition to this, the learners' out-of-school exposure to English was investigated.

The results show that the Swedish learners, in addition to communicating more in the classroom, also had more exposure to English outside the classroom. The Vietnamese learners, on the other hand, had limited exposure to English outside school, except in the form of private tutors, and received more focus-on-form instruction in the classroom. Analysis of the learners' grammatical knowledge showed that most of the Swedish learners were able to produce 3-sg-s, but could not describe the rule. The opposite result was found among the Vietnamese learners, who were often able to give the rule but did not produce 3-sg-s. The finding that the procedural and declarative knowledge of the learners was not correlated has implications for language teaching, and the results of this thesis may contribute to a better understanding of the L2 acquisition of grammar.

English in Primary Education in Sweden and Vietnam

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English in Primary Education in Sweden and Vietnam

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Vi Thanh Son



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Dành tặng Mẹ và hai con trai yêu
To my beloved mother and my two dearest sons

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Now the PhD chapter ends, but I carry you all in my heart and my mind for the chapters that come next.

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Abbreviations

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
3-sg-s	third person singular -s
Agr	agreement
ANT	anterior
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
COP	copula
DEM	demonstrative
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
EXCL	exclusive
F	feminine
FFI	Form-focused instruction
INCL	inclusive
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MOET	Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training
NP	noun phrase
NEG	negation
NNS	Non-native speaker
NS	Native speaker
O	object
PART	participle
PL	plural
PT	Processability Theory
S	subject
SG	singular
SLA	Second language acquisition
TM	topic marker
V	verb

Chapter 1.

Introduction

1.1. Background and motivation

One of the most discussed topics in second language acquisition (SLA) research is the role of explicit grammar rules. It is not the explicit rules themselves that are controversial. It is their place in language teaching and learning. Should grammar rules be taught? While some researchers (e.g., Anderson, 1983, 1985; Krashen, 1982, 1985) argue that grammar instruction has little place in second language acquisition, others claim that instruction of grammar rules is necessary to promote language learning (e.g., DeKeyser, 1995; Doughty, 1991; R. Ellis, 2006, 2015; Robinson, 1995, 1996; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Spada & Tomita, 2010). There is as yet no consensus on this issue.

The idea of language acquisition without grammar instruction is closely associated with the approach of communicative language teaching (CLT). This approach to language teaching aims at having learners use language communicatively instead of practicing grammar rules and was inspired by the notion of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). It originated in the 1970s as an alternative to traditional grammar teaching and to the audiolingual method. However, CLT does not entirely preclude grammar teaching. It has been suggested that explicit grammar instruction should also take place in communicative language teaching (N. Ellis, 1993; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nassaji, 2000; Spada & Lightbown, 1993, 2009; Williams, 1995) since attention to structural aspects is important for developing L2 communicative competence (R. Ellis, 2010; Spada, 2007). In order to analyse classroom interaction, Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) was developed in the early 1980s by Nina Spada, Maria Fröhlich and Patrick

Allen (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) within the context of a research project examining the nature of second language.

There is, however, a lack of empirical studies systematically comparing the two teaching approaches and how they affect learners. The purpose of the current study is therefore to compare English language teaching and learning in two different contexts: Sweden and Vietnam. The participants in the study are primary school children who are in their third year of English instruction in Sweden and Vietnam and their teachers. The language teaching methodology in Sweden today is characterised by a communicative orientation (Cabau-Lampa, 1999a, 1991b; Lundahl, 2012; Malmberg, 2001; Tornberg, 2009), whereas the methodology in Vietnam has been described as more grammar-oriented (Ho & Wong, 2000; Hoang, 2011; Khuong, 2015; Le, 2000; Le & Do, 2012; Moon, 2005, 2009; H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007; M. Nguyen, 2011). The two settings thus potentially provide a good testing ground in relation to the effects of the different approaches on learning outcomes in general, and on procedural and declarative knowledge in particular.

There are different views on the usefulness or necessity of declarative knowledge in second language acquisition. Some scholars claim that declarative knowledge will lead to procedural knowledge (e.g., Anderson, 1983; DeKeyser, 1995, 1997; Johnson, 1996) while others suggest that there is only “a weak interface between procedural and declarative knowledge” (Pienemann, 2015, p. 137). Findings that L2 grammars can develop without explicit rules (e.g., Klein & Perdue, 1992; Meisel, Clahsen, & Pienemann, 1981) support the latter suggestion. There are, however, not many empirical studies examining the relationship between procedural and declarative knowledge in young children (but see Malmberg, Bergström, Håkanson, Tornberg, & Öman, 2000). This thesis aims at filling this research gap through systematic comparison of children’s procedural and declarative knowledge of L2 English.

With English increasingly seen as a key tool for participation in world markets, teaching English from an early age in primary schools is rapidly expanding in Asia, Europe and other parts of the globe. The Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET, 2010) introduced English as a compulsory subject at primary schools in the 2010–2011 school year. The

CLT approach to teaching English as a foreign language is advocated by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET, 2003, 2006, 2008, 2010). This has sparked a heated debate among educators and language teachers, and several studies have investigated teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Vietnam (Hoang, 2011; Khuong, 2015; Le & Do, 2012; M. Nguyen, 2011; Pham, 2013). One European project focusing on language learning and teaching in primary schools is the Early Language Learning in Europe (ELLiE) research project (Enever, 2011), which investigated teaching of English in primary schools in a range of European countries (Croatia, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Spain and Sweden), and of French and Spanish in England. In a later volume, Enever and Lindgren (2017) broaden the scope to include studies of early language learning not only in European classrooms, but also in Africa, Asia and South America.

English is such a widely used language internationally that learners are likely to encounter ‘out of school’ usage (extramural English). This includes films, television, video games and music, as well as hearing English spoken in e.g., public spaces. This ‘out of school’ element is particularly important to take into account when the focus is on English as a second language. In European contexts, many studies investigating out-of-school experiences among language learners have shed light on its effects on young learners’ language proficiency in terms of vocabulary and grammar (Kersten, Rohde, Schelleter, & Steinlen, 2010; Kuppens, 2010; Kuure, 2011; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Muñoz & Lindgren, 2011; Piirainen-Marsh & Tainio, 2009; Rohde, 2010; Statens medieråd, 2015; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Turgut & Pelin Irgin, 2009). Enever’s (2011) study in particular offered much valuable information on the effects of out-of-school exposure to English.

1.2. Aims, research questions and study design

1.2.1. Aims and research questions

The main aim of the thesis is to compare English language teaching and learning at primary level in two different contexts: Sweden and Vietnam. The thesis attempts to identify the teaching practices, curriculum, out-of-school exposure and other factors that facilitate the learning of English as a second language at the primary school level and to investigate whether these input factors have an impact on the ultimate outcomes in terms of learners' language performance.

An additional aim is to investigate learner outcomes in terms of the declarative and procedural knowledge of English grammar (plus lexical repertoire) in two culturally different classroom contexts.

Based on the literature on English as a second language including L2 declarative and procedural knowledge (presented in Chapter 2), and the review of in-school language teaching and learning in primary schools and of out-of-school learning (presented in detail in Chapters 2 and 3), and in order to achieve the main and additional aims presented above, this thesis addresses the following research questions:

1. Do the teaching methodologies in Sweden and Vietnam differ according to classroom orientation?
2. Do the learning outcomes differ between learners in Sweden and learners in Vietnam?
 - a. Is there a difference in terms of procedural knowledge, according to the stages in Processability Theory, and in terms of lexical repertoire?
 - b. Is there a difference in terms of declarative knowledge?
 - c. Is there a relationship between procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge of L2 English among the learners?
3. Can the learning outcomes be tied to teaching methodology, and/or out-of-school exposure to English?

1.2.2. Study design

The thesis investigates both language teaching and language learning. In this study, the term ‘second language’ (L2) refers to both foreign and second languages (R. Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). In order to answer the research questions presented above, three empirical studies are conducted.

Teaching practices: The study uses multiple sources of information to provide an overview of current teaching methods at public primary schools in Sweden and Vietnam. This includes an analysis of curricular documents regarding the policy of English teaching in the two countries, as well as audio recordings and direct observations in classrooms providing data on teaching practices. Additionally, the study includes interviews and questionnaires in order to shed light on what teachers actually say and do in the classroom, and to investigate similarities and differences between teaching practices and policy documents.

Learner outcomes: The study investigates learner outcomes using a speech production task and a written metalinguistic task. Procedural knowledge of grammar is investigated through a picture description task. Declarative knowledge of grammar is investigated by means of a metalinguistic task which in this thesis is labelled ‘acceptability judgement’, requiring learners to choose appropriate answers and explain the reasons for their choices by referring to grammatical rules. Both tests of procedural and declarative knowledge focused on the third person singular –s (3-sg-s).

The 3-sg-s structure is chosen in the study for several reasons. Firstly, it is one of the most studied structures in SLA (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Dyson, 2009; Johnston, 2000; Lenzing, 2013; Pienemann, 1984, 1998), and in studies of Swedish learners (Källkvist & Petersson, 2006; Karlsson, 2002; Köhlmyr, 2003; Malmberg et al., 2000). Secondly, it is taught extensively in schools and thus can be discussed in terms of declarative and procedural knowledge. Finally, the structure is expected to represent a similar challenge for Swedish and Vietnamese learners, since neither Swedish nor Vietnamese have subject-verb agreement.

Apart from the analysis of grammar, which is the main focus of this thesis, the lexical repertoire of the learners is investigated in an analysis of

type/token ratios i.e., the number of different words used by the learners in the oral production task.

Finally, *out-of-school exposure to English* is investigated using a demographic questionnaire aimed at determining whether there is a correlation between learning outcomes and exposure to English outside the classroom.

1.3. Outline of the thesis

The thesis consists of eight chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 presents theories and previous studies in SLA and English as a second language, including some key concepts and terms used in the study. Chapter 2 serves as the theoretical background for the empirical studies on teaching practices, learner outcomes and out-of-school exposure to English for the Swedish and Vietnamese learners.

Chapter 3 reviews English language teaching at primary level in Sweden and Vietnam. Analysis of policy documents regarding English teaching at primary level and textbook analysis serve as a backdrop for the empirical study on English teaching practices in Sweden and Vietnam.

Chapter 4 includes a detailed description of the study materials and the methods used for collecting and analysing the data of the three empirical studies, followed by the results in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the empirical study on teaching practices in Sweden and Vietnam.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the empirical study on learning outcomes. The chapter investigates the influence of teaching practices on learner outcomes, based on the results obtained in the study.

Chapter 7 presents the results of the empirical study on out-of-school exposure to English among the Swedish and Vietnamese learners. The correlation between the learners' out-of-school exposure to English and

their procedural and declarative knowledge of English grammar is discussed.

Finally, Chapter 8 summarises and further discusses the main findings in terms of the three research questions, followed by a consideration of the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research. A summary in Swedish and Vietnamese is provided after Chapter 8.

Chapter 2.

Theory and previous research

This chapter presents theory and previous research in SLA and English as a second language, introducing some key concepts and terms used in the empirical studies conducted in the thesis. The chapter is divided into three sections on teaching, learning and out-of-school exposure to language learning. The first section (2.1) gives a historical overview of language teaching with two main teaching methods in the classroom worldwide, Communicative Language Teaching (2.1.1), and Focus on Form(s) (2.1.2). The second section (2.2) concerns second language learning. Within Section 2.2, the first subsection (2.2.1) defines the main concepts of procedural and declarative knowledge, two types of L2 knowledge widely used in cognitive theory (Anderson, 1983, 1985; Faerch & Kasper, 1983). Previous studies on procedural and declarative knowledge (also referred to as implicit/explicit knowledge) are then presented. Further, the subsection includes a short discussion on the distinction and relationship between implicit (procedural)/ explicit (declarative) *knowledge* and implicit/explicit *learning*. The second subsection (2.2.2) reviews an internal focus on learner language that serves as a background to Processability Theory. The role of input, interaction and output is discussed in the third subsection (2.2.3). The fourth subsection within Section 2.2 (2.2.4) introduces concepts related to Processability Theory, including the acquisition of procedural knowledge in English subject-verb agreement. The third section (2.3) presents previous research on out-of-school exposure to language learning. The first introductory subsection (2.3.1) includes the definition of the term out-of-school exposure to English in the Swedish and Vietnamese context. The second subsection (2.3.2) presents previous research on the impact of out-of-school exposure to English on L2 English proficiency for school-aged learners in Europe and Asia. The chapter ends with a short summary (2.4).

2.1. Teaching methods

2.1.1. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching can be found in the changes in the British language teaching tradition from the late 1960s (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). It has since been expanded beginning in the mid-1970s, both on a theoretical level (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979; Widdowson, 1978; Wilkins, 1976) and in published materials for students (Abbs, Ayton, & Freebairn, 1975). The important development of CLT can be traced back to Hymes's (1972) introduction of the notion of "communicative competence" that is in contrast to Chomsky's (1965) view of linguistic competence. Chomsky defined competence as the ability of speakers to identify grammatically correct sentences in a language. Meanwhile, Hymes defined competence as the knowledge and ability for language use in a speech community "whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails" (Hymes, 1972, p. 281). Hence, according to Hymes, CLT focuses on communicative competence, referring to a speaker's capacity to communicate in another language with linguistic proficiency and to use language appropriately in a community. Canale (1983) divided communicative competence into four parts: grammatical competence (the domain of grammatical and lexical capacity), sociolinguistic competence (the ability to use the language appropriately in social contexts), discourse competence (structuring the meaning of the linguistic context in the individual message) and strategic competence (coping strategies to redirect the communication). These definitions have come under scrutiny (e.g., Schachter, 1990), though many researchers agree that language proficiency consists of different competences that are interrelated and interconnected, and that each competence plays a crucial role in the acquisition of communicative competence (Meyer, 1990; Swain & Lapkin, 1990). Both American and British proponents have seen CLT as an approach that aims to (i) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching, and (ii) develop procedures for teaching foreign language skills for communication. However, the communicative language approach does not

have a single model that is universally accepted. Instead, the model can lead to several methods for communicative language teaching, such as an integration of functional and structural teaching, and pair or group work (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

There are three major principles underlying CLT which have been widely identified as the communication principles which promote learning and second language learning processes: activities in real communication, task principle and meaningfulness (language that is meaningful to the learners). These principles can be found in CLT practices (e.g., Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981). However, a variety of theories of language learning have been discussed within the framework of CLT. Krashen (1982, 1985) and other second language acquisition theorists emphasise that learning outcomes result from using language communicatively, rather than practising language skills. Meanwhile, Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) consider learning theory as a skill-learning model. Learning theory involves both cognitive and behavioural aspects, with an emphasis on practice as a way of developing communicative skills.

2.1.1.1 Methodology for Communicative Language Teaching

Many scholars have applied the ideas of CLT in practice, for example the work of the Council of Europe, and Wilkins' (1976) notional syllabus. Through the writings of Wilkins and other applied linguists, language teaching specialists and curriculum development centres, syllabus models in CLT have been expanded. Wilkins' original notional syllabus model was criticised by British applied linguists in that it specified products rather than communicative processes. There are several proposals and models for the syllabus such as 'structures plus function' (Wilkins, 1976), 'interactional' type (Widdowson, 1979), and 'task-based' type (Prabhu, 1984). Task specification and task organisation have been considered as the criteria for syllabus design.

2.1.1.2. Types of learning and teaching activities

The learning types and teaching activities within CLT are unlimited, provided that the classroom activities enable learners to reach the communicative objectives of the curriculum and using communication processes as a source of information sharing, meaning negotiation and interaction. Different roles are assigned to teachers within the approach. Two main roles proposed by Breen and Candlin (1980) were adopted in Richards and Rodgers' (2014): firstly, to facilitate the communication process between all participants and activities and, secondly, to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. In the CLT approach, the teacher's role is to be responsible for determining and responding to learner language needs, and to act as the needs analyst, counsellor, and group process manager with less teacher-centred classroom management skills. Additionally, instructional materials to support communicative approaches play an important role in supporting communicative language use. Three kinds of materials are currently used in CLT: text-based materials (textbooks), task-based materials (games, role plays, cue cards, pair-communication practice materials, student-interaction practice booklets), and "language-based realia" (such as signs, magazines, advertisements, newspapers, maps and pictures). Meanwhile, the learner has different roles in CLT. Breen and Candlin (1980) describe the learner's role as negotiator between himself, the learning process and the learning object. In this role, the learners have more responsibility and choice to make decisions about their own learning and accept that failed communication is a joint responsibility rather than the fault of the speaker or listener.

In order to measure communication in second language classrooms, Allen, Swain, Harley, and Cummins (1990) developed an observational instrument named "Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching" (COLT) in the early 1980s. The instrument aims to describe the instructional practices and procedures in different L2 classrooms. COLT is able to differentiate between a "more or less communicatively oriented instruction" (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 7) and has been used in several studies (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.1 for further details regarding COLT).

2.1.2. Focus on form

There have been many concerns about combining instruction with focus on forms and the communicative approach. However, first it is important to define the focus on form since this notion has been used in various ways.

2.1.2.1. *Focus on forms and focus on form*

Long (1991) differentiates between focus on forms and focus on form. Focus on forms: as learning grammatical rules, “the content of the syllabus and of lessons based on it is the linguistic items themselves” (p.44). Focus on form: as drawing on the learner’s focus on grammar in communicative activities and tasks, “overtly draw students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication” (p.46).

Different terms have been used to refer to instruction involving focus on forms, such as *grammar instruction*, *formal instruction*, *form-focused instruction*, and *code-focused instruction*. This use of different terms can cause confusion. Typically, the term form-focused instruction denotes the instruction of linguistic forms in isolation, and teaching that integrates attention to forms, meaning and use. Doughty and Williams (1998) use the terms formS-focused instruction for “focus on forms” and FonF instruction for “focus on form” (p. 4).

According to R. Ellis (2012, p. 273), the two types of form-focused instruction require different ways of organising the teaching. In focus on form instruction, the syllabus mainly consists of tasks and teaching is task-based, while focus on forms instruction is based on a structural syllabus. R. Ellis (2006) also holds that focus on form “involves a focus on meaning with attention to form arising out of the communicative activity” (p. 100). This can be planned or incidental as defined by R. Ellis (2002) and by Doughty and Williams (1998).

2.1.2.2. *Methodology for focus on forms and focus on form*

Research concerning form-focused instruction (FFI) has a rich history. FFI research in the 1960s focused on different methods, particularly in explicit grammar instruction (e.g., grammar-translation and the cognitive-code

method) or methods implicitly based on controlled practice exercises (e.g., the audiolingual method). However, the learning outcomes from these methods are unclear (R. Ellis & Shintani, 2014). In the 1970s, FFI research focused on the comparison of groups of instructed and uninstructed learners. Long (1983) reviewed a number of studies and found that instructed learners achieved higher levels of proficiency. Pica (1983) found that there was a natural order of acquisition of English grammatical morphemes, and that an instructed group of learners performed plural-s more accurately than an uninstructed group. Pienemann (1989) reviewed several studies in relation to teachability and found that FFI becomes effective if the learner's developmental stage is taken into account. Some studies have explored the question of which types of FFI have an effect on L2 learning. VanPatten (1996) found that it is important to draw learners' attention to key grammatical markers in the input rather than to elicit the correct features in speech. Meanwhile, Harley (1989), Day and Shapson (1991), and Swain (1998) found that the inclusion of both functional and production activities increased accuracy in the production of target features. Corrective feedback in L2 learning was also found to promote learning. However, R. Ellis and Shintani (2014) suggested that it may not be possible to confirm which type of FFI is universally more effective because its effectiveness depends on (i). "the linguistic feature that is the target of the instruction", (ii). "the instructional context" and (iii). "the individual learner" (p. 19). Although de Graaff and Housen (2009) conclude that "it is hard to formulate generalizable conclusions, and even more difficult to formulate implications or recommendations that are relevant to, and useful for, teaching practice" (p. 742), the results of some studies provide evidence that "FFI does benefit learning" (R. Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p. 20).

2.1.2.3. Focus on form in CLT

There are many different methods for communicative language teaching as mentioned above, but they have in common that grammar is not given a strong role. Krashen's (1982, 1985) and Prabhu (1987) claim that grammar instruction is not very important in SLA. Krashen's (1982, 1985) hypothesis of acquisition versus learning states that a focus on meaning is

sufficient for SLA. In contrast, Pica (2000) concludes that a minimal focus on forms is not sufficient for learners to attain native-like proficiency. Research has shown that many learners who receive CLT develop fluency and confidence in using their second language, but do not reach native-like competence in grammar (Harley, 1992; Swain, 1998). This may be due to a lack of language production and form-focused teaching (Lightbown & Spada, 1995).

Some CLT researchers have been interested in integrating a focus on form instruction with communicative activities and claim that there is a need for grammar instruction in CLT (N. Ellis, 1993; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nassaji, 2000; Spada & Lightbown, 1993, 2009; Williams, 1995). Several studies (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown, 1991; Trahey & White, 1993; White, 1991) have found that students receiving focused instruction perform better than those without instruction on the targeted forms. Additionally, N. Ellis (1993) studied L1 English learners of L2 Welsh in the acquisition of rules of Welsh morphology. The study consisted of three groups: a random group that was exposed to random instances, a grammar group that received instruction on rules before being exposed to the same instances as the random group, and a structured group which was taught rules and given examples before being exposed to the same instances. The results indicated that the random group performed poorly on the test in spite of extensive amounts of training and had little knowledge of the rules. The grammar groups could demonstrate explicit knowledge of the rules but failed to perform on the tests. The structured group performed best on the test and were able to demonstrate explicit knowledge of the rules.

To summarise, studies appear to show that a combination of focus on form and meaning in language instruction has the potential to most effectively promote language learners' linguistic competence. However, the discussion is still ongoing.

2.2. Learning

2.2.1. Procedural and declarative knowledge

2.2.1.1. *Types of L2 knowledge: Procedural (Implicit) knowledge and Declarative (Explicit) knowledge*

An important issue in SLA research is the difference between declarative and procedural knowledge. These two types of linguistic knowledge were identified by Anderson (1983, 1985, 2010, 2015) and discussed in the Adaptive Control of Thought Model (ACT). Declarative knowledge is defined as the knowledge of rules that have been stored in the conscious memory, while procedural knowledge is the ‘how and what’ of things in the unconscious memory.

Implicit memories involve *knowledge about how to perform tasks*. A classic example of such an implicit memory involves procedural knowledge.

(Anderson, 2010, p. 177)

Declarative memory basically refers to *factual memories we can explicitly recall*. It appears that the hippocampus is particularly important for the establishment of declarative memories.

(Anderson, 2010, p. 179)

In another account, R. Ellis (1985) defines declarative knowledge as “knowing that”, with awareness consisting of internalised L2 rules and memorised chunks, whereas procedural knowledge is rather “knowing how” (p. 164) and is available for automatization consisting of the learner’s strategies and procedures to process L2 data for acquisition. These strategies are described by R. Ellis (1985, pp. 165-166), who divides procedural knowledge into social and cognitive components. Social components consist of the learner’s behavioural strategies to manage the interaction (i.e., the use of the L2 in face-to-face contact). The cognitive component consists of the mental processes involving both ‘learning’ and ‘using’ the L2. Learning processes involve those in which the learner

accumulates new L2 rules and automatises L2 knowledge. Using L2 knowledge involves ‘production/reception’, which operates when the learner uses available resources easily (as defined by Tarone, 1981) and subconsciously. Additionally, the learner uses communication strategies which operate when the learner needs to use alternative resources to express it when he cannot communicate in the L2, hence requiring greater effort and consciousness. The issue of declarative versus procedural memory is also explored in neurocognitive studies (e.g., Paradis, 2004; Ullman, 2001, 2004) but these will not be reviewed here.

Anderson (1985, 2010, 2015) assumes a shift from declarative to procedural knowledge in three stages:

1. ‘The cognitive stage’: Learners study a description of the procedure, and they rehearse the facts relevant to the skill as they perform the skill.
2. ‘The associative stage’: Learners carry out the methods for the skilled performance.
3. ‘The autonomous stage’: The procedure becomes automatic.

The use of declarative knowledge involves *explicit learning* in which learners learn rules explicitly and have awareness of those rules. The automatization of procedural knowledge involves *implicit learning*, in which learners begin to proceduralise the explicit knowledge they possess. Later, through situational practice and use, the behaviour becomes second nature (DeKeyser, 1997). The stages illustrate that declarative knowledge is obtained through ‘practice’ and that the task can subsequently be performed automatically. In this way, declarative knowledge becomes proceduralised. The development from declarative to procedural knowledge is thus similar to the development from controlled to automatic processes.

The declarative stage involves acquisition of isolated facts and rules; processing is relatively slow and often under attentional control. Development to the procedural stage involves processing of longer

associated units and increasing automatization, which frees attentional resources for higher-level skills. Proceduralization requires practice.

(Saville-Troke, 2006, p. 75)

However, Anderson has in later work proposed that not all knowledge starts out as declarative (Anderson and Fincham, 1994), also stating that

Sometimes, the two forms of knowledge can coexist side by side, as when we can speak a foreign language fluently and still remember many rules of grammar. However, the procedural, not the declarative, knowledge governs the skilled performance.

(Anderson, 2015, p. 212)

Many theories of classroom language learning address the difference between explicit and implicit knowledge. “Explicit knowledge of a L2 (i.e., *knowledge about the L2*) and implicit knowledge (i.e., *the knowledge that underlies the ability to use the L2*)” (R. Ellis, 1985, p. 7).

Implicit knowledge is tacit and procedural. That is, learners have no conscious awareness of what they know; the existence of implicit knowledge only becomes apparent in some kind of performance that is carried out without deliberation and without consciousness. Implicit knowledge is procedural in the sense that it allows for automatic processing... In contrast, explicit knowledge is conscious and declarative. It consists of facts about language which learners know they know and can tell you they know.

(R. Ellis, 2015, p. 419)

The terms procedural and declarative knowledge are often used interchangeably with implicit and explicit knowledge (R. Ellis, 1985, 2008, 2015; R. Ellis et al., 2009). Some view implicit and explicit knowledge (procedural and declarative knowledge) as forming a continuum (Dienes & Perner, 1999) while others (e.g., R. Ellis, 2015; Krashen, 1981; Paradis, 1994, 2004) view the two types of knowledge as distinct. R. Ellis (2015, p. 420) suggests that the two types of knowledge involve different types of memory, i.e., that they should be seen as separate, but that they interact with each other in terms of acquisition and use of an L2. In this sense,

explicit knowledge can be used by learners to verbalise grammatical rules while implicit knowledge cannot be brought into learners' awareness (Anderson, 2010; R. Ellis, 2004; Hulstijn, 2005). Explicit knowledge is characterised as stable, discrete and contextual (Anderson, 2010; Taylor, 2003; Ungerer & Schmid, 1996). Explicit knowledge is rule-based processing (Roehr, 2008, 2010) that is accessible to conscious awareness (Hampton, 2005; Smith, 2005).

2.2.1.2. *Implicit (procedural)/explicit (declarative) knowledge Vs. Implicit/explicit learning*

A distinction is often made between implicit and explicit knowledge and implicit and explicit learning (N. Ellis, 1994; R. Ellis, 2015). Explicit learning refers to situations “when the learner has online awareness, formulating and testing conscious hypotheses in the course of learning” while implicit learning “describes when learning takes place without these processes; it is an unconscious process of induction resulting in intuitive knowledge that exceeds what can be expressed by learners” (N. Ellis, 1994, pp. 38-39).

Implicit and explicit *learning* and implicit and explicit *knowledge* are related but distinct concepts that need to be separated. The first set refers to the processes of learning, the second to the end-products of learning (or sometimes to knowledge that is innate and not learned at all).

(Schmidt, 1994, p. 20)

There are two ways of investigating implicit/explicit learning (R. Ellis, 2015). The first is to investigate if the process of learning takes place with awareness and the second is to examine the products of learning (if the knowledge that results is implicit or explicit). In this way, learning is the *process* while knowledge is the *product*. Generally, implicit learning results in implicit knowledge, but this is not always the case. Learners learn implicitly but still acquire explicit knowledge if they form an explicit generalisation of specific linguistic forms. This is more common for older learners in most language classrooms. Explicit learning may also lead to

implicit knowledge production when the learner learns a rule to which he or she is repeatedly exposed, leading to that rule becoming implicit.

2.2.1.3. *Previous research on declarative and procedural knowledge in SLA*

Three different positions have been suggested with regard to the relationship between explicit (procedural) and implicit (declarative) knowledge.

The non-interface position (e.g., Krashen, 1981; Paradis, 1994) holds that explicit knowledge cannot develop directly into implicit knowledge. The two types of L2 knowledge are stored in different parts of the brain and hence are accessed by different processes, automatic versus controlled.

The strong interface position (e.g., Bialystok, 1978; DeKeyser, 1995, 1997, 1998) holds that explicit knowledge can develop directly into implicit knowledge through practice. Implicit knowledge is developed through exposure to the L2 in communication ('functional practising') while explicit knowledge arises when learners focus on the language code, and it is facilitated by 'formal practising'. The model proposed by Bialystok (1978) offers a 'full-interface' view of the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge: formal practice enables explicit knowledge to become implicit knowledge, and inferencing can transform implicit knowledge into explicit knowledge. DeKeyser (1995) directly tested the interface position in a study that investigated the effects of two kinds of form-focused instruction: explicit and implicit. The learners performed a judgement test in which they were asked to judge whether a sentence matched a picture, and a production test in which they wrote a sentence to describe a picture. Additionally, the learners were required to complete fill-in-the-blank tests to test their understanding of the grammatical rules. The results showed that the learners who received explicit instruction performed better on the tests than the learners in the implicit condition. The findings of the study suggest that learners who are given explicit knowledge about simple grammatical forms – and then practise them – are able to use them. Findings from DeKeyser's later experimental studies (DeKeyser, 1997, 1998) also supported the strong interface position in which practice of specific grammatical rules leads to highly specific skills.

The sequence of explicit rule learning, followed by a short period of activities focused on using explicit knowledge during performance of the target skills, and finally by a long period of repeated opportunities to use that knowledge, is likely to yield knowledge that is highly automatized.

(DeKeyser, 1997, p. 215)

The weak interface position (N. Ellis, 2005; R. Ellis, 1994; Pienemann, 1989) exists in three versions. The first holds that explicit knowledge can transform into implicit knowledge through practice if the learner is at a developmental stage in which he or she is ready to acquire the linguistic form (R. Ellis, 1994). The second holds that explicit knowledge contributes indirectly to the acquisition of implicit knowledge by assisting ‘noticing’. Finally, the third version holds that learners can use explicit knowledge to produce output that can later serve as ‘auto input’ to their implicit learning mechanisms.

Many studies have sought to examine the relationship between learners’ implicit and explicit knowledge of grammatical rules (e.g., Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984; Seliger, 1979; Sorace, 1985). Seliger (1979) found that there was no relationship between the ability of adult L2 learners of English to explain the rule for distinguishing *a* and *an* and their use of the rule in speech production. Meanwhile, Hulstijn and Hulstijn (1984) found that adult L2 learners of Dutch who could describe the rules of word order produced more accurate results in a story-retelling task than learners who were not able to describe the rules. Similarly, Sorace (1985) found that learners with explicit knowledge performed better at oral production tasks than learners with no explicit knowledge.

Other studies have examined the relationship between the two types of knowledge in different ways. White and Ranta (2002) examined the relationship between L2 learners’ performance on a metalinguistic task (grammatical rule explanation) and on an oral production task with respect to a particular grammatical feature: the third-person singular possessive determiners ‘his’ and ‘her’ in English. The study reported on two ESL classes of 59 French-speaking children in Grade 6 (11-12 years old). The two classes both received communication-oriented instruction, but the ‘rule’ class was given metalinguistic information about the structure and

the opportunity to practice it, while the ‘comparison’ class did not. The results showed a positive correlation at the pre-test stage between metalinguistic knowledge and the learners’ performance in an oral production task, but not for the rule class after they received formal instruction on the structure. Macrory and Stone (2000) examined L1 English students’ perception of what they knew about the French perfect tense in a self-report questionnaire, and their actual knowledge of the structure as tested in gap-filling exercises, spoken interviews and written production tests. The results showed that the students had a good explicit understanding of the perfect tense as shown in their performance on the gap-filling exercise but omitted the tense in free production.

Similarly, Flyman Mattsson (2003) investigated the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge (explicit knowledge) and the use of that knowledge in output for Swedish learners of high school French. The students completed a questionnaire about some grammatical phenomena in French (tense and aspect) after they performed the film-retelling task. It was found that some students had only metalinguistic knowledge of the usage of the *passé composé* and *imparfait* structures but were not able to apply the knowledge in production. Others had neither explicit nor implicit knowledge of the structures, while a small group of students had both explicit and implicit knowledge. Moreover, R. Ellis (2008), drawing on his (2006) study on the difficulty of learning 17 grammatical structures in English¹, investigated whether learners’ implicit grammatical knowledge follows the same incremental stages of difficulty that Pienemann and other researchers have found in naturally occurring data. Further, the study also investigated whether elicited data obtained from experiments designed to measure learners’ explicit grammatical knowledge displayed the same or a different “order of difficulty” (R. Ellis, 2008, p.6). The participants were the same as in his (2006) study ($N=224$), but 20 participants were randomly selected from the total sample in the study. They were international students of mixed language proficiency in English, for the most part from China,

1 Verb complement, 3rd person –s, Plural –s, Indefinite article, Possessive –s, Regular past tense –ed, Yes/no questions, Comparative, Unreal conditionals, Modals, Ergative verbs, Embedded questions, Adverb placement, Question tags, Since/for, Dative alternation, Relative clauses.

Japan and Malaysia. Four structures – possessive *s*, question tags, *since/for*, and third person singular *s* – were chosen for the tests. It was shown that there was a difference between the results on the measures of implicit and explicit knowledge. While 15 of the 20 learners had acquired the two simplest structures (possessive *s* and *since/for*) as implicit knowledge, only 12 had acquired these structures as explicit knowledge. In contrast, while only a few learners had acquired the two most difficult structures as implicit knowledge, some other learners had also acquired these structures as explicit knowledge. One learner had neither implicit nor explicit knowledge of any of the four structures, while three learners displayed both implicit and explicit knowledge of all four structures. Four learners had no implicit knowledge, but explicit knowledge of at least one of the structures. Many learners had explicit knowledge of a structure without implicit knowledge, while fewer had implicit knowledge of a structure without explicit knowledge. The study demonstrated that the learning difficulty of structures varied according to the type of knowledge being measured, reinforcing the conclusion drawn by R. Ellis (2006).

Another study concerning young language learners' declarative knowledge of grammar is the STRIMS project (*Strategier vid Inläring av Moderna Språk*, 'Strategies for the acquisition of modern languages'; Malmberg et al., 2000). The aim of the project was to examine the strategies that pupils in Swedish primary and secondary schools use as they solve daily tasks during language lessons (in English, Spanish, German and French). One of the studies in the project examined the pupils' declarative knowledge in English grammar. The pupils were asked to think aloud while trying to select the correct grammatical form and specify what was wrong and what was right in the sentences of the task. The purpose of the study was to see if the pupils could decide if a number of given sentences were correct or not. In order to probe the pupils' explicit knowledge, they were also asked to state what was right or wrong by referring to the grammatical rule that applies to the particular structure. The results showed that many pupils were not able to give correct explanations for their grammatical correctness decisions.

De strategier vi kan upptäcka i materialet är, när det gäller grundskoleeleverna i engelska, följande: Övergeneralisering av en känd regel, t.ex. används *-s* i tredje person singular presens genomgående efter *he, she* och *it*, alltså även i imperfekt: *he wents, she askeds*. Plural *s* vid substantiv används också vid verb i plural (*my parents comes* är rätt "för när det är många ska det vara 's'"). Imperfekt dubbelmarkeras vid *do*-omskriving ("*didn't wanted* det är rätt").

(The strategies that we can discover in the materials regarding the primary school pupils in English are as follows: Overgeneralisation of a known rule, e.g., *s* in third person singular is used after *he, she* and *it*, even in imperfect: *he wents, she askeds*. Plural *-s* for nouns is also used in verbs in plural (*my parents comes* is correct "for when there are many, it is going to be 's'"). Imperfect is double marked by *do*-support ("*didn't wanted*, that is right")

(Malmberg et al., 2000, p. 73, my translation)

In summary, there are many studies (R. Ellis, 2008; Flyman Mattsson, 2003; Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984; Macrory & Stone, 2000; Seliger, 1979; Sorace, 1985; White & Ranta, 2002) comparing learners' explicit and implicit knowledge, but it is still not clear if, and in which case how, explicit knowledge contributes to the development of implicit knowledge.

The focus of the current empirical study on learner outcomes is on the grammatical structure of English subject-verb agreement. Following earlier literature, the terms 'procedural' and 'declarative' knowledge are used throughout the thesis. Procedural knowledge denotes the learners' actual production of English subject-verb agreement, and declarative knowledge denotes what the learners are able to describe with regard to the grammatical rules of English subject-verb agreement.

2.2.2. Learner language

Research in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) began in the 1960s with the analysis of learner language, especially focusing on how the errors made by learners provided information about the learning process. The seminal publication on SLA, Corder's (1967) study, largely concerned learners' errors. Another seminal publication was Selinker's (1972) paper which introduced the term *interlanguage*. Interlanguage is defined as the language that is used by learners ('learner language') until they reach full native-like proficiency. Some of the pioneering interlanguage studies were those of Hyltenstam (1977) and Meisel et al. (1981), and Selinker's concept of interlanguage was supported by analyses of learners' speech and by morpheme studies. SLA research in the 1970s was heavily influenced by findings that L2 learners acquire grammatical structures in a fixed and predictable order. A later perspective on learner language is Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998) discussed in Section 2.2.4.

Other studies from this period investigated different stages or sequences of the development that learners go through in order to acquire certain grammatical structures. R. Ellis (1994) defines *order* of acquisition as referring to whether learners acquire some features of the target language before other features, and *sequence* of acquisition as concerning how learners acquire a particular linguistic feature. Early research into developmental sequences found similarities in the developmental process across different languages, such as Ravem (1968) on the use of English negation and Wh-questions by Norwegian learners of English, and Wode (1976) on the development of English negation among German-speaking children. In this period, the project conducted by the ZISA (Zweitspracherwerb Italienischer und Spanischer Arbeiter) project, showed a clear developmental sequence for L2 learners of German word-order rules (Clahsen, 1980; Pienemann, 1980). Meisel et al. (1981) argued that there is considerable variation within each stage. In order to capture this variation, 'emergence' (the first systematic and productive use of a structure; Pienemann, 1998) has been used as a criterion to assess the developmental stages of L2 learners (Meisel et al., 1981; Pienemann, 1998, 2015).

2.2.3. The role of input, interaction and output

During the early 1980s, the role of input, interaction and output was much discussed in SLA research (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985; Long, 1983, 1985, 1996; Swain, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Krashen's (1981, 1982, 1985) "input hypothesis" claimed that it is important to simplify the speech addressed to learners in order to make it comprehensible. Input is "what we read and hear" and output is "what we speak and write" (Krashen, 1982, p. 57). Long (1983, 1985) agreed with Krashen that input is necessary for acquisition to take place but also argued that input alone is not enough. It is the "interactional modifications" such as clarification requests and confirmation checks that promote language acquisition. Krashen's hypothesis has been criticised (see for example, Doughty, 1991; R. Ellis, 1994; Long, 1983; White, 1987), in part with regard to the lack of evidence for the claim that input alone is enough for language acquisition. Despite this criticism, Krashen's model influenced language teaching in the USA in the 1980s and 1990s and led to the avoidance of explicit grammar instruction in many classrooms. Today, the situation has changed, and formal grammar instruction has increasingly been introduced for adults who are considered to need explicit explanation of grammatical structures (Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 45). Swain's (1985) "output hypothesis" stresses the importance of output in helping learners produce the language. In studies of Canadian French immersion programs, Harley and Swain (1984) and Swain (1985) showed that students made grammatical errors despite having received comprehensive input in the target language for many years.

The results of a series of tests administered to Grade 6 French immersion students indicate that, in spite of 7 years of comprehensible input in the target language, their grammatical performance is not equivalent to that of native speakers

(Swain, 1985, p. 251)

Swain (1985) suggested that the reason for this result was that the students did not have opportunities to use the target language in the classroom:

Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately.

(Swain, 1985, p. 249)

A number of studies discuss the claim that learners will benefit from being ‘pushed’ in assisting language acquisition. A study by Nobuyoshi and R. Ellis (1993) found that being ‘pushed’ (by means of requests for clarification) improved the accuracy of learners’ use of past tense forms in oral narratives. Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, and Fearnow (1999) reported that a group of learners who were required to produce English relative clauses performed better than those groups that only received input. Although there are some disagreements on the necessity of input, interaction and output, Swain’s research has shown that interaction in group work and negotiation of meaning help learners acquire new language. This is confirmed by R. Ellis and Shintani (2014), who found that that “learners do not always need to be ‘taught’ new language; they are capable of acquiring it on their own when they interact collaboratively in small groups” (p. 222).

2.2.4. The acquisition of procedural knowledge: English subject verb agreement and Processability Theory

Processability Theory (PT) is a theory predicting the development of procedural knowledge of grammatical skills (Pienemann, 1998).

The task of acquiring a second language is based on the acquisition of the procedural skills needed for the processing of the language.

(Pienemann, 1998, p. 215)

When procedural skills are automatised, they are expected to be similar in native speakers and non-native speakers who have acquired the required skills. Pienemann (1998) refers to this as ‘the procedural skill hypothesis’.

Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998, 2005, 2011b, 2015) conceptualises the process of language development as a set of stages. PT

describes the underlying processing procedures for the grammatical forms present at each stage of language development.

Processability Theory predicts six stages for the acquisition of English as a second language. The prediction has been corroborated in empirical studies (Dyson, 2009; Itani-Adams, 2007; Pienemann, 1998, 2005; Pienemann & Keßler, 2011; Yamaguchi, 2009). The stages (presented in Table 2.1) include both morphological and syntactic structures of English. During the first stage, learners produce invariant forms and formulae (*How are you?; Hello; Five*). In the second stage, learners use strings of words, and are able to produce lexical morphemes such as plural *-s* (*Cats*); Past *-ed* (*She played, he goed*) and Possessive *-s* (*Pat's cat*). The word order at this stage is subject-verb-object (SVO) (*Me live here; You live here*), with negation before SVO (*No me live here*). At stage three, learners are able to produce phrasal morphemes in which there is an exchange of information between the head of the noun phrase (NP) and other NP constituents, such as in plural agreement (*Two cats*). Learners at this stage can also vary the syntax by placing adjuncts in initial clausal position, such as do-fronting (*Does he live here?*). At stage four, learners produce the first instances of subject-verb inversion (*Is he at home?*) and the auxiliary in the initial position in inverted yes/no questions (*Have you seen him?*). At the fifth stage, learners produce inter-phrasal morphemes, such as third person singular *-s* (3-sg-*s*) (*He eats*), and the inverted syntax of the auxiliary in second position (*Why did he eat that?*). Finally, at the sixth stage, learners are able to produce the structure 'cancel inversion' (*I wonder where he is*).

Table 2.1. ESL acquisition (Pienemann, 2011b, p. 51)

Stage	Syntax		Morphology		
			+	>	-
6	Cancel inversion	I wonder where he is. I wonder what he wants to eat.			
5	Do-2 nd Aux-2 nd Neg-do-2 nd	Why did she eat that? Where have you lost it? Why didn't you tell me?	3-sg-s	<i>he eats</i>	<i>he is eats</i> <i>he eat</i>
4	y/n inversion Copula Inversion Particle shift	Have you seen him? Is he at home? Where is she? Turn it off?			
3	Do-fronting Adverb-fronting Neg+Verb	Do he live here? Today he stay here	pl-agreement	<i>Two cats</i>	<i>a cats</i> <i>two cats</i>
2	Neg+SVO	No me live here Me live here You live here	past -ed plural -s poss. -s	<i>she played</i> <i>cats</i> <i>Pat's cat</i>	<i>goed</i> <i>he saw</i> <i>Pat's</i> <i>two cat</i> <i>Pat cat</i>
1	Single word Formulae	How are you? – Where is X? Hello – Five Dock Central			

Note: + correct use; > overuse; - underuse

As shown in Table 2.1, PT concerns itself with appropriate levels of use, i.e., the overuse, underuse and correct use of the morphemes. Learner variation is prominent in PT, linking to the stages of acquisition. PT is an illustration of the way in which learners deal with language problems by taking a risk and attempting to produce certain grammatical structures in their speech before they have acquired such structures. As seen in Table 2.1, in the example *he eats*, the meaning of 3-sg-s contained in the morpheme “s” is tied to the singular subject “he”. Learners need to learn that “3rd-person-singular-s is affixed to only one verb and not to several verbs as in *he is eats*” (Liebner & Pienemann, 2011, p. 68). Before developing the final processing procedure, learners overuse (as in *he is eats*) and underuse (as in *he eat*) inflectional morphemes in ESL acquisition. “Emergence criteria” – such as the number of occurrences of particular structures – are thus a vital component of PT.

The marking of person agreement in two grammatical verb types, copula/auxiliary verbs and lexical verbs in English subject-verb agreement is shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. English subject-verb agreement (Pienemann, 1998, p. 124)

	Copula	Lexical verb
1 st person	I am	I V
2 nd person	You are	You V
3 rd person	he, she, it, Singular-NP <i>is</i>	he, she, it, Singular-NP Vs

(Note: V signifies “verb stem”)

In some PT accounts, it has been suggested that different verb types show agreement at different stages. Third person singular is marked at Stage 4 in copulas and auxiliaries. This means that they represent a stage prior to the marking on lexical verbs, which appears at Stage 5 (Di Biase, Kawaguchi, & Yamaguchi, 2015; Dyson, 2009; Lenzing, 2008), where “the processing can be seen as inter-phrasal, although SV agreement may not yet have been acquired” (Dyson, 2009, p. 373). In the same vein, Dyson and Håkansson (2017) propose mini-paradigms of *is/are*, *has/have* and *do/does*, and do not regard these verbs as evidence of the acquisition of proper 3-sg-s. In my analysis, I will follow this approach and distinguish copula/auxiliary verbs from lexical verbs. Within the PT framework, the grammatical information contained in the subject (*third person* and *singular*) needs to be exchanged with the verb itself, as seen in Figure 2.1.

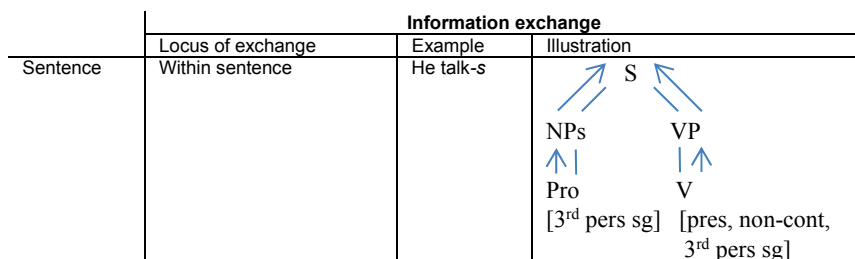


Figure 2.1. Types of processes in morphology: Information exchange involved in 3-sg-s (Pienemann, 2011a, p. 35)

The figure shows information exchange involved in 3-sg-s marking in English. As noted by Pienemann (2011a), the diacritic features *third person* and *singular* must be deposited in the sentence-procedure until they are matched with the features of the verb entry.

The acquisition of English subject-verb agreement has long been discussed and is documented in a large number of studies (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Dyson, 2009; Johnston, 2000; Lenzing, 2013; Pienemann, 1998). The structure has been studied in Swedish learners, both at compulsory school level (Källkvist & Petersson, 2006; Köhlmyr, 2003) and at university level (Karlsson, 2002; Ruin, 1996). Although there are some assumptions that “the principles underlying it [the third person *-s* marker] are so simple” (Johnston, 2000, p. 32), and “most learners have no difficulty in grasping the rule for third person-*s*” (R. Ellis, 2006, p. 88). Malmberg et al. (2000) and Källkvist and Petersson (2006) showed that the system of 3-sg-*s* and its usage are rather complex. In Källkvist and Petersson’s (2006) study, school-age learners (14-year-olds in Grade 8 of Swedish compulsory school and 17-year-olds at upper-secondary schools) and university-level students of English were not found to be able to easily “grasp” the structure.

A meta-analysis of 12 studies of L2 acquisition of English between 1973 and 1996 by Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001) suggests that the order of acquisition of six grammatical ‘functors’ (morphemes) (e.g., progressive *-ing*, plural *-s*, possessive *-s*, articles *a*, *an*, *the*, third person singular present *-s*, and regular past *-ed*) can be predicted by the combination of five factors: perceptual salience, semantic complexity, morphophonological regularity, syntactic category, and frequency. Among the functors, third person singular present *-s* was considered a complex one, predicted to be acquired late in learners’ development as a result of a number of factors: (i) third person singular *-s* expresses person, number, and present tense (semantic complexity); (ii) there are two non-syllabic allomorphs ([*s*] and [*z*]) of third person singular *-s* (number of phonological alternations); (iii) third person singular *-s* is homophonous with plural *-s* and possessive *-s*; (iv) third person singular *-s* marks the sentence functions (the subject).

Taking a similar stance, Johnston (2000) and Pienemann (1984, 1998) indicate that the marking of third person singular *-s* on verbs presents a difficulty for learners because it must be matched with the grammatical information in the subject (third person and singular). Lenzing (2008) also found that 3-sg-*s* is located high up on the processability hierarchy and suggested that it should be introduced rather late in learning goals and

textbooks. Further, Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001) suggest that frequency of a given structure in the input can allow it to be acquired quicker, and that L1 transfer can play a role in morpheme acquisition and accuracy orders. In a similar vein, Källkvist and Petersson (2006) suggest that “the monolingual Swedish-speaking L2 user of English is not used to paying attention to subject-verb agreement since present-day Swedish uses the same verb form for all persons” (p. 117).

2.3. Out-of-school exposure to language learning

2.3.1. Definition of the term ‘out-of-school’ learning in the Swedish and Vietnamese contexts

As defined by previous research, ‘out-of-school’ can be an umbrella term for other related concepts. ‘Out-of-class’, ‘out-of-school’, ‘after-school’, ‘extracurricular’, and ‘extramural’ learning focus on “location” and imply “something that is supplementary to classroom learning and teaching” (Benson, 2011, p. 9). All of the terms refer to language learning beyond the classroom walls. Additionally, Benson (2011), referring to an interesting case in Hong Kong schools, points out that out-of-class exposure may also take place within school grounds in activities such as debates, public speaking competitions or performances. This is referred to as extracurricular. Extracurricular L2 activities are not the same as extramural activities. Extramural English refers to self-directed naturalistic learning (Benson, 2011), in Sundqvist’s (2009, 2011) definition, involving an absence of any deliberate intention by learners to acquire English. In contrast, the term ‘extracurricular’ most often relates to formal teaching at schools. To be more precise, in order to teach the English language, extracurricular activities are organised at schools, such as English speaking clubs, language debates or singing contests, and are optional for the learners (Hoang, 2011). The present study focuses on exposure to English

out-of-school activities (extramural English as opposed to extracurricular activities organised by schools) among Swedish and Vietnamese young language learners.

In Sweden, extramural English is “omnipresent” (Sundqvist, 2009, p. 28). The English language is common in the media, music and on the Internet (Sundqvist, 2009). Most English language TV programs and films in Sweden are subtitled (Sundqvist, 2009). The use of the Internet is widespread in Sweden. A report by the Swedish Media Council (Statens medieråd, 2017) found that the proportion of young people using the Internet for more than three hours daily has more than doubled in just over a decade. The most common activities involving the Internet were found to be listening to music, watching videos and finding information. Moreover, a national survey by the Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket, 2004) reported that many Swedish school-aged children learn English via out-of-school activities.

Vietnam is reported as one of the fastest growing Internet countries in the South East Asia region, and it is common for young people to have mobile phone Internet access in Vietnam (Cimigo, 2011). However, it is unknown whether English is the dominant language for Internet use in Vietnam. Most English language television programs and films in Vietnam are dubbed, a factor which has been associated with comparatively low levels of second language knowledge (Berns, 2007). Moreover, as ‘out-of-school’ learning refers to location, the term can be used for “attendance at private tutorial schools or language centres after the school day is finished” (Benson, 2011, p. 9). This reflects a similar situation in Vietnam. In order to increase the exposure to English in Vietnam, foreign/English language centres and/or private English tutors have emerged rapidly throughout Vietnam (Hoang, 2011; Le, 2000; C. Nguyen, Hamid, & Renshaw, 2016; M. Nguyen, 2011). In Vietnam, there is very little research on the effect of out-of-school activities on English language learning for young learners. However, with regard to out-of-school language learning, it has been found that foreign/English language centres or private English tutors compensate for the little exposure to language environment, and these resources have become very popular with Vietnamese learners of English (Hoang, 2011; Le, 2000; C. Nguyen et al., 2016; M. Nguyen, 2011). Foreign and joint

venture language centres offer a range of courses at different levels to meet the needs of different types of learners. These forms of English instruction provide increased opportunities for learners to interact with native English speakers in Vietnam (Hoang, 2011; C. Nguyen et al., 2016), as is the case in other parts of Asia such as South Korea (Garton, 2014; Kang, 2012), and Bangladesh (Hamid, Sussex, & Khan, 2009).

For this reason, private tutoring is included in the current study within the framework of out-of-school activities.

2.3.2. Previous research

A number of studies have shown that learners' out-of-school contact with English plays an important role in L2 English proficiency, both for school-aged learners (Kuure, 2011; Malmberg, et al., 2000; Muñoz & Lindgren, 2011; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Piirainen-Marsh & Tainio, 2009; Turgut & Pelin Irgin, 2009) and for ESL students (Forsman, 2004; Pearson, 2004). Extramural activities, primarily in relation to the media and video games, have been seen to promote English language learning in a number of Western countries, including Sweden (Olsson, 2011; Statens medieråd, 2015; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sylvén, 2006); Finland (Kuure, 2011), Belgium (Kuppens, 2010), the Netherlands (Unsworth, Persson, Prins, & de Bot, 2014), Iceland (Lefever, 2010), Spain and other European countries (Enever, 2011; Muñoz & Lindgren, 2011).

Noteworthy among these is the transnational longitudinal project Early Language Learning in Europe (ELLiE; Enever, 2011), conducted by researchers in seven European countries. As a part of the project, Muñoz and Lindgren (2011) investigated the impact of out-of-school factors (watching films, cartoons and/or series on television, playing video games, listening to music, reading books, magazines, or comics, etc.) on learners' listening and reading skills in Grade 4 of formal foreign language instruction in seven European countries (Croatia, England, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain and Sweden). Information on out-of-school exposure was gathered from the children's parents in questionnaires, and the children's language skills were measured in listening and reading tests.

The study found variation in the amount of foreign language exposure of children in the seven country contexts. Swedish and Croatian children had the most exposure to English in all activities. Dutch and Swedish children were found to use the Internet most frequently to play games and listen to songs in English and were the most active in using English abroad. Meanwhile, Spanish children hardly ever used English abroad but more at home. In spite of this variation, the results of the statistical analyses showed that exposure through watching television and films, and parents' foreign language use at work, were among the strongest predictors of children's listening and reading scores in all countries.

A handful of empirical studies have demonstrated the development of L2 English skills as a result of exposure to English outside the classroom through media. Lefever (2010) found that Icelandic primary school children without previous education in English successfully learnt English words and phrases through watching films in English. Sundqvist (2009) examined the effects of extramural English on the oral proficiency and vocabulary knowledge of English of 80 Swedish school-aged children (aged 15-16) within one school year. EE was measured by means of questionnaires and so-called language diaries, in which the learners reported their daily activities using English outside of school such as reading, watching television or films, surfing the Internet, playing video games and listening to music. The participants' oral proficiency was measured in five interactional speaking tests and their vocabulary knowledge was measured in two written vocabulary tests. The results showed significant correlations between extramural English and the participants' vocabulary knowledge and oral proficiency skills in English. The findings also showed that active or productive activities (e.g., video games, surfing the Internet and reading books or magazines) had a greater impact on oral proficiency and vocabulary size than passive activities (e.g., listening to music and watching television or films). In another study investigating the effect of video games on the English skills of young L2 English learners ($N=86$, aged 11–12, Sweden), Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) found that frequent gamers scored significantly higher than moderate gamers, and moderate gamers scored higher than non-gamers on an English vocabulary test. Similar findings regarding the impact of digital

games on English learning were found by Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014) for Swedish learners of English in Grades 4-6 (aged 10-11). In addition, Håkansson (in press) found that grammar is acquired through media exposure among Swedish school children aged 7-8 years, before the commencement of English instruction. In the same vein, Berns (2007) found that the frequent viewing of subtitled television programmes helps many children to speak and understand English even before starting English lessons at schools. Kuppens (2010) also showed that long-term exposure to media positively influences children's progress in learning English. The study included 374 Dutch-speaking 11-year-old children in the last year of primary education in Belgium. Participants' self-reported use of three English language media (watching subtitled television and films, listening to popular music, and playing computer games) was compared with their scores on two oral translation tests, from Dutch to English and from English to Dutch. The results revealed that playing English computer games positively influenced scores on the English to Dutch translation test, and that the children who frequently watched subtitled English television programmes and films performed significantly better on both tests.

The use of media, and particularly computer games, as support for L2 learning, has also spread to Asia, where English is currently the dominant language in global digital media, typically in video games, television shows and music. Internet access is no longer a barrier, and many learners in Asian developing countries also use media and computer-assisted tools for learning English. Since the area of exposure to language learning outside schools for Asian children in general – and Vietnamese young learners in particular – has not been extensively studied, other relevant studies in Asia for ESL students are mentioned here.

Barbee (2013) studied L2 exposure, attitudes, and motivation in high-level and low-level Japanese high school EFL students aged 16-17. The study showed that Japanese EFL students had the most exposure to English in the form of music, online media, movies/television, and non-native speakers. English music was found to be the most enjoyable form of exposure for the learners, while exposure to native-speakers was considered the most effective and the most motivational experience in

learning English. The amount of exposure was most highly correlated with enjoyability.

A study by Baki, Leng, Ali, Mahmud, & Hamzah (2008) investigated the potential benefits and risks associated with playing video games from the perspective of six Malaysian secondary school students, aged 16-17 years. The study employed a qualitative research method with in-depth interviews as the main form of data collection. The researchers found that video games were objectively beneficial to students' learning processes and their development as a whole in terms of cognitive, social, motivational, and emotional development. In addition, video games helped players enrich their language vocabulary and reading comprehension.

2.4. Summary

Chapter 2 has reviewed theories and relevant previous studies related to teaching methods, learning a second language, and out-of-school exposure. First, the two main teaching methods, Communicative Language Teaching and Focus on Form, were presented, serving as a background to an introduction to English teaching from the Swedish and Vietnamese perspectives more specifically. In the second section of the chapter, the key terms procedural and declarative knowledge were defined. In this study, procedural knowledge is defined as learners' ability to produce a grammatical structure, while declarative knowledge is what learners are able to describe with regard to grammatical rules. The terms procedural and declarative knowledge are used interchangeably with implicit and explicit knowledge (R. Ellis, 1985, 2008, 2015; R. Ellis et al., 2009). The two types of knowledge can be viewed as distinct, with learning difficulty varying according to the type of knowledge being measured. The distinction between procedural and declarative knowledge is important in the language classroom where grammatical rules are taught. The role of input, interaction

and output was also discussed briefly. Moreover, since the present study analyses learner language on the basis of spoken production, and since Processability Theory acts as a basis for examining learner language in relation to procedural knowledge of subject-verb agreement, research with an internal focus on learner language (interlanguage), the acquisition of subject-verb agreement and PT was also presented. Finally, regarding out-of-school exposure to English, the term 'out-of-school' was defined as an umbrella term for other similar concepts, taking into account the different cultural contexts of the study. The previous research discussed showed that English language learners in Sweden generally have a high level of exposure to English while many learners in Vietnam gain more exposure to English via foreign language centres. Differences in the existence and effects of the out-of-school factor between learners in the two national groups will be examined in closer detail in Chapter 7.

Chapter 3.

English language teaching in primary schools

The present chapter reviews and compares English language teaching in primary schools in Sweden and Vietnam. The first two sections (3.1 and 3.2) describe English language instruction in Sweden and Vietnam in general, and at the primary school level in particular, through an analysis of policy documents and teaching materials. These sections serve to describe the curriculum of English instruction at primary schools in the different cultures and organisational settings of Sweden and Vietnam before examining the reality of the classroom activities. This serves as a fundamental backdrop for the study on teaching practices (Chapter 5). The chapter ends with a short summary (3.3).

3.1. English language teaching in Swedish primary schools

3.1.1. Introduction to English language teaching in Sweden

As in many other European countries, Latin was the main foreign language taught in Sweden five hundred years ago. In the sixteenth century, French, Italian and English replaced Latin and when these modern languages were taught in schools, they were taught in the same way as Latin (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In the post-war era after 1945, with the creation of the modern Swedish state, English gradually replaced German as the principal second language of education. From the 1960s onwards, English language television and media became popular and English was widely taught in

most Swedish schools (Bolton & Meierkord, 2013). “Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, the Swedes developed a growing sense of pride and self-confidence in their proficiency in the English language.” (Bolton & Meierkord, 2013, p. 96).

Sweden is often viewed as a society in which English is successfully taught and learnt by school children at all levels (Ferguson, 1994). From the 1950s to the present, English has been enthusiastically learnt and used by most of the population in Swedish industry and business (Bolton & Meierkord, 2013). In 1962, English became a compulsory subject for all students in Sweden as a tool for gaining “socioeconomic opportunities” (Cabau-Lampa, 1999a, 1999b; Hult, 2012, p. 232; Teleman, 2003). In Sweden today we see an increased use of English as a teaching medium in secondary schools, a large impact of English loanwords, and the use of English terms in Swedish advertising and websites has increased (Bolton & Meierkord, 2013). Eurobarometer data for Sweden placed Sweden alongside the Netherlands as having one of the highest proportions of English speakers in Europe (89% in 2006 and 86% in 2012; Eurobarometer, 2006, 2012).

In the foreign language teaching in Sweden of the 1960s, it was considered important to learn the structure of the language first (Lundahl, 2012). During this period, language instruction focused mainly on a grammar translation approach (Cabau-Lampa, 2005). In the 1970s, with the rise of a new orientation in language teaching in Europe, Sweden began to shift to a functional approach in which communicative language teaching was the target (Malmberg, 2001). The new curriculum of Lpo94 in 1994 (*1994 års läroplan för det obligatoriska skolväsendet, förskoleklassen och fritidshemmet*, ‘Curriculum for the compulsory school system, pre-school education and the leisure-time centre 1994’; Skolverket, 2006), emphasised the importance of foreign language teaching in Sweden, especially with regard to increasing internationalisation and its impact on education, which has led to a view of communicative competence in foreign languages as a key to increasing different opportunities for Swedes (Cabau-Lampa, 1999a, 1999b). Related to this, Tornberg (2009) found that the European curricula (including those used in Sweden) currently applied a communicative view of language

teaching. According to the communicative view, learners should be given opportunities to use the target language in the classroom, and to communicate with each other in the foreign language. Grammar instruction is seen as primarily serving a communicative purpose. Following the publication of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (the Council of Europe, 1996), the national syllabi for language education (Skolverket, 2000) were published in 2000, which emphasised communicative competence (Malmberg, 2001). The Swedish National Agency for School Development (Myndigheten för skolutveckling, 2008) states that communicative language skills should be the focus of an English curriculum that aims to enhance learners' abilities in using English to communicate in real life both in speech and writing.

It is more important to get someone to understand what you say than to have a perfect pronunciation; important to be able to assimilate the contents of a text than to know what all the words mean; important to write an intelligible letter than to formulate linguistically flawless sentences.

(Myndigheten för skolutveckling, 2008, p. 24)

3.1.2. English at primary school level in Sweden: Policy documents and teaching materials

3.1.2.1. *Policy documents*

The following section provides an overview of English language instruction in Swedish primary schools, through an examination of the time allotted for English instruction, the aims of English learning, the materials used in English language classes, and the methods of assessment specified in policy documents.

The provision of time: The Swedish education system offers education for students of different ages and with differing needs and abilities (Skolverket, 2011a). Preschool caters to children starting from 1 to 5 years old. At the age of 6, children have the opportunity to attend what is referred to as “preschool class”. Attendance at preschool and preschool class is

voluntary. From the age of 7, all children attend compulsory schools for Grades 1-9 (primary and lower secondary education for students aged 7-15). Compulsory schools may be run by municipal governments or private educational providers. After this compulsory schooling, students may attend upper secondary school between the ages of 16 and 19. Upper secondary school is voluntary and is intended to prepare students for university studies, or to go on to employment without further education. Education at all levels is free of charge in Sweden.

As mentioned above, English became a compulsory subject in Sweden in 1962, and the Swedish National Agency for Education encourages schools to teach foreign languages from an early age. According to Skolverket (2011b, 2016), the guaranteed number of hours allocated to English instruction over the period of compulsory schooling is 480 hours. This means that irrespective of whether children's English instruction begins at Grades 1, 2 or in Grade 3, they will receive the same number of hours of English instruction in compulsory school.

The goals: According to the curriculum of Lgr 11 (*Läroplan för grundskolan, förskoleklassen och fritidshemmet 2011*, 'Curriculum for the compulsory school system, the pre-school class and the leisure-time centre 2011'; Skolverket, 2011b), the aim of English instruction in Sweden is to increase pupils' opportunities to enter into various contexts and be able to make themselves understood in English.

Teaching of English should aim at helping the pupils to develop knowledge of the English language and of the areas and contexts where English is used, and also pupils' confidence in their ability to use the language in different situations and for different purposes.

(Skolverket, 2011b, p. 32, an official translation).

In the curriculum of Lgr 11 (Skolverket, 2011b), it is stated that pupils should be given the opportunity to develop a comprehensive communicative ability that involves understanding spoken and written English, the ability to speak and write as well as adapt their language to different situations.

Through teaching, pupils should be given the opportunity to develop all-round communicative skills. These skills involve understanding spoken and written English, being able to formulate one's thinking and interact with others in the spoken and written language, and the ability to adapt use of language to different situations, purposes and recipients.

(Skolverket, 2011b, p. 32)

Furthermore, pupils should develop the ability to express themselves and communicate in speech and in writing and use linguistic strategies to make themselves understood. Additionally, they should be able to reflect on living conditions, social and cultural phenomena in different contexts and areas where English is used.

The content of English instruction in Swedish primary schools: The current study focuses on learners at Grade 5. The core content of the Grades 4-6 English curriculum in Sweden (Skolverket, 2011b) is as follows:

Content of communication

1. Topics that are familiar to the pupils.
2. Daily situations, interests, people, places, events and activities.
3. Views, feelings and experiences.
4. Daily life, ways of living and social relations in different contexts and areas where English is used.

Listening and reading – reception

1. Clearly spoken English and texts from various media.
2. Oral and written instructions and descriptions.
3. Different types of conversations, dialogues and interviews.
4. Films and dramatised narratives for children and youth.
5. Songs, fairytales and poems.
6. Strategies to understand key words and context in spoken language and texts, for example, by adapting listening and reading to the form and content of communications.
7. Different ways of searching for and choosing texts and spoken English from the Internet and other media.

8. Language phenomena such as pronunciation, intonation, grammatical structures, spelling and also fixed language expressions in the language pupils encounter.
9. How words and fixed language expressions, such as politeness phrases and forms of address, are used in texts and spoken language in different situations.
10. How different expressions are used to initiate and complete different types of communications and conversations.

Speaking, writing and discussing – production and interaction

1. Presentations, instructions, messages, narratives and descriptions in connected speech and writing.
2. Language strategies to understand and make oneself understood when language skills are lacking, such as through reformulations.
3. Language strategies to participate in and contribute to discussions, such as questions, and phrases and expressions to confirm understanding.
4. Language phenomena to clarify and enrich communication such as pronunciation and intonation, spelling and punctuation, polite phrases, and other fixed language expressions and grammatical structures.

(Skolverket, 2011b, pp. 33-34)

Although language phenomena are mentioned in the core content for Grades 4-6, the curriculum does not account for the specific structures involved. At this level in the curriculum, there is a strong and consistent emphasis on the need to communicate, and consequently on the importance of learning language through communication. The curriculum Lgr 11 (Skolverket, 2011b) emphasises a communicative approach when it comes to learning the grammar at the primary school level.

The assessment: Pupils are graded from the sixth grade and onward. Three grades were used at the primary school level: Pass (*Godkänd* or G), Pass with distinction (*Väl godkänd* or VG), and Pass with special distinction (*Mycket väl godkänd* or MVG). With the 2010 Education Act (Skollagen, 2010) that came into force on 1 July 2011, a new grading system was introduced in the Swedish school system. In this new system, Swedish

grades are awarded on a scale from A to F, with A, B, C, D, and E as passing grades and F as a fail grade (Skolverket, 2013). According to Skolverket (2011b), the key requirement for an E grade in English is that pupils can understand the language and express it clearly and comprehensibly in spoken and written communication. The requirement for an E grade in English in the final year of primary school (Grade 6) is as follows:

Pupils can understand the most essential content in clearly spoken, simple English at a relaxed pace in simple texts about daily and familiar topics. Pupils show their understanding by reporting content in a simple form with comments on content and also with acceptable results act on the basis of the message and instructions in the content. To facilitate their understanding of the content of the spoken language and texts, pupils can choose and apply a strategy for listening and reading. Pupils can choose texts and spoken language of a simple nature and from different media and with some relevance use the selected material in their own production and interaction.

In oral and written production, pupils can express themselves simply and understandably in phrases and sentences. To clarify and vary their communication, pupils can work on and make some simple improvements to their communications. In oral and written interaction, pupils can express themselves simply and understandably in words, phrases and sentences. In addition, pupils can choose and use a strategy that solves problems and improves their interaction. Pupils comment in simple forms on some phenomena in different contexts and areas where English is used and can also make simple comparisons with their own experiences and knowledge.

(Skolverket, 2011b, pp. 35-36)

Communication is a basic tool for implementing English as a second language in Swedish schools. The document *Commentary material for the syllabus of English* (Skolverket, 2011c) gives guidelines for teachers and aims to provide a broader understanding of the English curriculum.

The emphasis on language structure should also be balanced against research showing that people learn language most efficiently through

expressing themselves and striving to understand and communicate, not by studying the individual building blocks of language.

(Skolverket, 2011c, p. 6)

This communicative view of language permeates the English curriculum in Sweden. Furthermore, knowledge of language form and structure also falls under communication skills in the syllabus since the main focus is on communication.

Kursplanen anger alltså inget obligatoriskt innehåll och ingen obligatorisk ordningsföljd för vilka grammatiska företeelser eleverna ska få undervisning i och om. Detta kommer sig av att kursplanen utgår från att kommunikationen är primär. Språkliga element som grammatiska strukturer och stavning ska därför tas in i undervisningen först när de fyller ett funktionellt syfte, för att förtydliga och berika kommunikationen.

(The syllabus does not specify any obligatory content, or any mandatory sequence in which grammatical phenomena should be taught. This is because the curriculum has communication as its primary focus. Linguistic elements such as grammatical structures and spelling should be included in the instruction only where they fill a functional purpose, in order to clarify and enrich the communication)

(Skolverket, 2011c, p. 16, my translation)

3.1.2.2. *Teaching materials*

In Swedish schools, English teachers are given the freedom to choose the textbooks and teaching materials that they use. Two different textbooks are commonly used in Grade 5 English instruction in Sweden: *What's up? 5* (Widlund, Göransson, Hjålm, & Cowle, 2007) and *New Champion 5* (Bermheden, Sandström, & Wahlgren, 2006). Both include a textbook and a workbook, glossaries and a CD.

What's up? 5 is geared toward teaching English in a communicative manner, ensuring that pupils work actively with the material. The textbook is divided into units, each containing four chapters. Grammar is presented in Focus-boxes as part of each chapter. The book continues with the theme of the Clark family's adventures, introduced in previous grades, and

explores themes concerning New Zealand and India. The final unit of the book takes the form of articles from a youth magazine on the theme of animals. In *What's up?* 5, pupils are given the opportunity to practise situational language such as what to say at the breakfast table or how to ask directions, and to talk about different topics such as seasons and weather, films and television programmes, and different professions.

New Champion is an entry-level English textbook series intended for Grades 4-6. The series has a well-connected structure, colour illustrations and is rich in detail. The books contain a variety of songs and the texts included in the books are built around vocabulary and grammar from previous parts in the series. The topics dealt with in the books focus on English-speaking countries.

They should both be fun to study and give a good insight into the life and environment of the English-speaking country².

The books contain more text than pictures, since it is designed for reading and dramatisation. After each text, the books contain an English-Swedish wordlist along with pictures illustrating a selection of the words. The books also contain exercises with an emphasis on communication, and there is also information on the phonetics of English in some chapters.

Although the two textbooks differ in some respects, they are similar in that (i) there are more extended texts in the units rather than occasional paragraphs mixed with pictures; (ii) they contain a small amount of grammar and phonetics in each chapter; (iii) the content of the books emphasise communication.

From the above, we can see that policy documents and the textbooks used in English instruction promote communicative language teaching.

² <http://www.sanomautbildning.se/Laromedel/Grundskola-Fk-6/Engelska/Baslaromedel/Champion/Fordjupad-information/>

3.2. English language teaching in primary schools in Vietnam

3.2.1. Introduction to English language teaching in Vietnam

In Vietnam, as in Sweden, English has been taught, learned and popularly used as a “leading international language” (Janson, 2002, p. 260) since the beginning of 1990s when there was an ‘open door policy’ in Vietnam with regard to liberalisation of the economy (Trinh, 2005). Vietnam’s linguistic history is affected by its political history (Denham, 1992). External influences have included a thousand-year period of Chinese rule (111 BC–938 AD), the domination of French colonialism (1858–1945), the old Soviet Bloc influence (1945–1975), and American influence (1964–1972). Chinese rule dominated in Vietnam between 111 BC and 938 AD. Under Chinese rule of the feudal times, the system used Chinese characters named ‘Hán’. After 17 centuries, Vietnam had its own system of Vietnamese characters named “Nôm” (Chinese-transcribed Vietnamese) (Karnow, 1983). Between 1858 and 1945, Vietnam was heavily dominated by French colonialism. During this period, French was the principal foreign language taught in schools and some universities (Dang, 1986). The resistance movement against French colonialism between 1954 and 1975 resulted in two divided regimes: (i) the North (the Democratic Republic of Vietnam), which was heavily influenced by the Soviets, and where Russian and Chinese were compulsory subjects during the first two years of university; (ii) the South (the Republic of Vietnam) which was influenced by French and US models and where English was the principal foreign language taught at schools (Dang, 1986). After independence in 1975, Vietnam became a unified nation, and underwent two major shifts in foreign language instruction, first with a focus on Russian (1975-1986) (Do, 2000) and then shifting to a focus on English (1986 - present) (Trinh, 2005). The open-door policies of Vietnam in the late 1980s – leading to closer ties to other countries and adoption of a market-oriented economy – resulted in English skills being viewed as an important tool for developing the country (B. Nguyen & Crabbe, 2000; Trinh, 2005). Since then, the teaching and

learning of English in Vietnam has been encouraged and developed. Trinh (2005) identified three ways in which the status of English has manifested itself. Firstly, since 1993, the number of students enrolled in teaching English programs at colleges and universities has doubled every year. Secondly, the national English language teaching textbook series for secondary education was written (1989-1992). Thirdly, 1993 saw the introduction of an English language proficiency requirement for all students graduating from university programs and all teaching staff in post-graduate education. Furthermore, a prime-ministerial decree issued in 1995 led to government officials being required to learn English. English was also one of the first subjects in which scholarships could be granted to overseas programs in English instruction in 2010 (MOET, 2010). English instruction is also expanding in Vietnam due to popular demand, as the Vietnamese see English as a key that opens many doors (Denham, 1992). Some English words are also used as loan words in Vietnam, such as “internet”, “fast food,” “shop,” “hot girls/boys,” “fan”, etc. (Toan, 2010). Furthermore, the educational system in Vietnam requires students to start learning English from an early age (Denham, 1992; MOET, 2003; H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007; see also Section 3.2.2). English is the most popular foreign language in schools (Bui, 2005; Denham, 1992; M. Nguyen, 2011). English has been made a compulsory subject at the primary school level in many Asian countries, in Korea from 1997 (Kang, 2012), in China from 2001 (Wu, 2012), in Japan from 2011 (Yoshida, 2012), and in Vietnam from 2010 (MOET, 2010).

The traditional grammar-translation method of English instruction has been prevalent in Vietnam for a long time. In 1982, English was introduced as an elective subject at lower secondary level. During this period, the two sets of textbooks used in schools were mainly grammar-based along with small amounts of reading comprehension and oral skill practice (Hoang, 2011).

There have been some developments in English instruction in Vietnam since this time. The aim of learning a foreign language according to the Vietnamese Government’s Decree No 14/2001 TC-TTg on the Renovation of the Vietnamese General Education Curriculum is to use it for communicative purposes, and new textbooks have been introduced to

primary schools in Vietnam (Kam, 2002). However, the reality of large class sizes in Vietnamese schools (40–60 students per class) means that the new method is difficult to implement. Additionally, few teachers are aware of the new guidelines regarding foreign language instruction, and the culture of the typical classroom, not only in Vietnam but generally in Asian schools, favours teacher-pupil communication, i.e., “teacher asks a question, pupils respond, followed by, inevitably, a comment from the teacher” (Kam, 2002, p. 18). The rhetoric of the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training stresses the development of communication skills in language teaching, but this is rarely seen at the classroom level where the teaching of grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension are still the main classroom activities (Hoang, 2011). This is partly due to pressure to pass the end-of-school and university entrance examinations, which primarily focus on testing students’ lexicogrammatical knowledge. Thus, most Vietnamese teachers of English focus on language knowledge rather than language use and more on receptive skills than productive skills (Le, 2000, pp. 73–74).

A shortage of competent teachers, coupled with inadequate teacher training, adds to the challenges in implementing communicative methods (Moon, 2005; 2009; M. Nguyen, 2011; H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007). However, intensive training and re-training of English teachers is currently being promoted (Kam, 2002; Pham, 2013; Tran, 2005). There have been some projects aiming to provide teacher training assistance, for example projects by the Australian International Development Assistance Bureau (AIDAB also called AusAID; Kam, 2002), the Vietnam Projects (Denham, 1992), National Foreign Languages 2020 project (Government of Vietnam, 2008). Specifically, Project 2020 focuses on improving Vietnamese teachers’ English proficiency, with the aim of assisting them to reach level B2 in English according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

The issues related English language instruction in Vietnam may be summed up by three dilemmas (Kam, 2002):

1. Quantitative vs. qualitative issues: a shortage of English teachers and a need to improve the quality of English teaching.
2. Traditional vs. modern issues: traditional practices such as text-centred grammar translation are still prominent while the more modern communicative approach is difficult to promote.
3. Continuity vs. change: there are strong aspirations for change and for progress in English teaching methods in Vietnam. However, teaching remains traditional, and innovative and creative teachers are required to promote change.

3.2.2. English at primary school level in Vietnam: Policy documents and teaching materials

3.2.2.1. *Policy documents*

The following section provides an overview of English language instruction in primary schools in Vietnam, by examining the provision of time allotted for teaching, the aims of English learning, the materials used in English language classes, and the methods of assessment that reflect and highlight the roles of teachers and learners.

The provision of time: In Vietnam, the 12 grades of compulsory education are divided into primary school (Grades 1–5 for children ranging in age from 7 to 11), lower secondary school (Grades 6–9 for ages 12–15) and upper secondary school (Grades 10–12 for ages 16–18). English (as the most prominent foreign language) is now being taught starting at lower grades. In the national curriculum for secondary schools, foreign languages, and especially English, are compulsory and are most commonly taught during three 45-minute periods per week from Grade 6 to Grade 12. Meanwhile, English has been an elective subject at the primary level (H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007).

English has been taught as a pilot program at some primary schools in the major cities since the 1990s. Many primary schools in Ho Chi Minh City, the largest financial and commercial centre in Vietnam, began teaching English in Grade 1 as early as 1998 (Le & Do, 2012; A. Nguyen, 2007). At some private language schools, English is taught to children from five or six years of age (M. Nguyen, 2011; Nunan, 2003). Since 2003, pupils in public primary schools study a foreign language as an elective subject from Grades 3 to 5. This pilot program of teaching English as an elective subject has been launched for children starting from Grade 3 followed by the Decision No.50/2003 QD-BGD&DT on 30 October 2003 by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET). According to Decision 50 (MOET³, 2003), Grade 3–5 children in the pilot program receive two 35 to 40-minute lessons of English instruction per week, for a total of 210 lessons (70 lessons in each grade).

In 2008, Decision 1400 on the improvement of foreign language teaching and learning in the national education system for the 2008–2020 period was issued. The policy aims to introduce English as a compulsory subject at all educational levels throughout the country, starting from Grade 3. The policy aimed to reach 70% of pupils in Grade 3 by the 2015–2016 school year, and 100% by the 2018-2019 school year. There was no new curriculum issued at that time, so the 2003 curriculum (MOET, 2003) was still in action. By the 2010-2011 school year, a newer curriculum was issued in order to improve the quality of English education in the Vietnamese education system.

The latest Decision 3321 (MOET, 2010) issued on 12 August 2010, provided guidance for implementing the pilot English language programs at primary education. According to the Decision, English is taught as a compulsory subject from Grades 3 to 5 for a total of 420 periods (140 periods for each grade), in four 35 to 40-minute periods per week. This represents a significant change in the language curriculum and means that the two optional periods of English per week have increased to four compulsory periods of English per week, at the primary level. In reality,

³ The documents from Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) are equivalent to the documents issued by the Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket).

however, I found that only some primary schools have implemented the change, depending on the conditions of different schools in different provinces and cities.

The goals: According to the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET, 2003), English instruction in primary education aims:

1. to practise four skills: listening comprehension, speaking, writing and reading in order for the pupils to be able to communicate in English at school, at home and in a social environment;
2. to provide pupils with basic knowledge of English in order for them to gain a basic understanding of the people and culture of some English-speaking countries;
3. to build positive attitudes towards the English language and a better understanding and love for the Vietnamese language through learning English. Additionally, during the three years of learning English (Grades 3 to 5), pupils' learning methods, intelligence and personality will gradually develop;
4. to develop different methods for learning English effectively in order to create a foundation for learning other foreign languages in the future.

(MOET, 2003, p. 2, my translation)

According to the 2003 curriculum, by the end of their primary school education, the intention is that pupils will have gained the following basic linguistic knowledge:

1. Phonology: mastery of English phonetics and phonology at a basic level with correct pronunciation.
2. Vocabulary: acquisition of and ability to use about 140-500 words, as divided into each grade: 120-140 words in Grade 3, 140-160 words in Grade 4, and 180-200 words in Grade 5.
3. Grammar: knowledge of how to use verbs, nouns, pronouns, adverbs, adjectives, etc. and how to form correct grammatical sentences at a basic level.

(MOET, 2003, pp. 3-4, my translation)

In the new curriculum from 2010 based on Decision 3321, the MOET (2010) states that at the end of their primary school education, pupils should have reached Level A1 (Basic User) in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 1996). In the 2010 curriculum, the performance objectives for each grade are described through four communicative skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing, as shown in Table 3.1. For example, by the end of Grade 5, pupils should be able to listen to, understand and answer simple questions about familiar themes, to say simple sentences, tell short stories, and write short paragraphs in English. There is evidence in the new curriculum that communicative competence is valued in English language instruction in Vietnam.

Table 3.1. The performance objectives in different skills for Grade 5 English

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Listen to, understand and follow the teacher's guidance in the classroom.	Say simple sentences.	Read simple sentences with correct pronunciation and basic intonation.	Write simple sentences.
Listen to, understand and answer simple questions about familiar themes.	Use directives to elicit responses from others.	Read and comprehend short stories on familiar themes with more complicated content.	Fill in forms, letters and post cards at a basic level.
Listen to and understand simple, short texts and stories about familiar themes.	Ask and answer questions about familiar topics with more complicated content. Tell short stories about familiar themes.		Write short, simple paragraphs about familiar topics (with hints).

(MOET, 2010, p. 5, my translation)

Assessment: Pupils begin receiving grades in the first grade. Vietnamese grades are awarded on a scale from 1 to 10 points; 5 points and above are passing grades and below 5 points are failing grades (MOET, 2012).

The assessment of the learning outcomes of pupils rests on four language skill objectives: listening, speaking, reading and writing, as in the above-mentioned performance objectives. The outcomes of pupils' learning are assessed via two methods of examinations: regular tests during lessons, and term-final exams measuring the evidence for pupils' communicative

competence achieved through the learning process. The assessment of learning outcomes is based on the observations and comments of teachers throughout the school year. The format of examinations should be diverse and include oral and written tests (MOET, 2010, p. 7). Typically, after English instruction at Grade 5, pupils are assessed as to whether they have reached Level A1 (Basic User) in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, as follows:

Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce himself/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

(Basic Level A1 in Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, CUP, 2001, (Council of Europe, 1996, p. 5))

According to MOET (2012), tests of English at the primary school level should follow the test sample designed by MOET. The focus of the test is on listening, in which listening makes up 50% of the test time and scores, reading and writing make up 40%, and speaking 10%. The guidelines for the structure of Grade 5 English tests are given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Test sample in English at Grade 5 in Vietnam

<p>There should be 10 questions, each question consisting of 4 sentences, and each sentence worth 0.25 points.</p> <p>Part I. Listening (20 minutes) with 5 questions</p> <p>Question 1: Listen and number (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Question 2: Listen and colour (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Question 3: Listen and draw the lines. There is an example (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Question 4: Listen and number (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Question 5: Listen and complete (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Part II. Reading and writing (15 minutes) with 4 questions</p> <p>Question 6: Look and read. Put the correct word on each line (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Question 7: Look and colour. Insert the missing letters (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence): Depending on the school region and the pupils' level, teachers may replace the content of this question with other content such as reading a paragraph, looking at an invitation, schedule, forms, etc. and complete the following tasks.</p> <p>a) Replace the incorrect words with the correct ones, or</p> <p>b) Select the correct information to fill in the blanks, or</p> <p>c) Read the questions and give short answers.</p> <p>Question 8: Read and write ONE or more words in the gap (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Question 9: Choose the correct words/phrases and write (4 sentences x 0.25 points/sentence)</p> <p>Part III. Speaking (5 minutes) with Question 10 for 4 pieces of content, as follows</p> <p>a) Listen and repeat</p> <p>b) Point, ask and answer (for example: "Where does this boy live?"; "What did he give his friend for her birthday?")</p> <p>c) Listen and comment (for example: the teacher says "I'm tall", and the pupil answers: "Yes, you are" or "No, you aren't. You are short.")</p> <p>d) Interview (for example: "What is your name?"; "How old are you?"; "What's the weather like today?")</p>

(MOET, 2012, pp. 3–5, my translation)

Teaching methods and content: In the 2010 curriculum (MOET, 2010, p. 6), it is suggested that communicative language teaching should be used to teach English in primary schools, in the sense that the learner is the subject of the teaching process and teachers are the organisers, guides, and regulators of learning activities.

According to the curriculum, teaching activities should be organised as part of a diverse communicative environment, rich with interactive activities (games, songs, plays, storytelling, puzzles, painting, etc.) and in the form of individual work and pair- and group work. The teaching should help pupils to form and reinforce language-learning methods, such as techniques for remembering words, phrases and spelling, guessing the meaning of a word or phrase based on the context of communication, or using simple materials such as dictionaries appropriately and efficiently. Teachers should aim to create a maximum of opportunities for the pupils to use English in the classroom.

The curriculum specifies that pupils should be engaged in positive and creative communication under the guidance of teachers. Pupils are taught

to combine the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, with particular focus on listening and speaking skills. Language knowledge such as vocabulary, phonetics and grammar is meant to form the basis of these skills.

Teachers should use a combination of documents and teaching facilities such as textbooks, references and listening devices as part of their teaching process.

Moreover, the curriculum issued guidelines regarding teaching content. The content of English instruction at the primary school level takes themes as a starting point. The content of the instruction is directed toward developing both communicative competence and linguistic competence and its design is flexible for both teachers and textbook writers to choose specific language functions and linguistic components for each topic. The specific content for the Grade 5 curriculum can be found in Table A, Appendix 1.

As reported by M. Nguyen (2011), most current English language curricula in Asian countries specify communicative language teaching as the preferred method. However, in reality, teachers' practices in the classroom are often far from meeting the expectations of the curriculum (Moon 2005, 2009). Le and Do (2012) found that most of the teachers at the primary level in their survey (165 teachers in 154 primary schools in the Red River Delta area of Vietnam) overemphasised instruction of linguistic structures and overused choral repetition drills for vocabulary. They found that many teachers were not sufficiently prepared for the task of teaching English at the primary school level. Additionally, Moon (2009) observed 22 lessons taught by primary school teachers and found that most of the teachers used traditional approaches such as focus on forms, drilling and repetition, and not much pair- or group work activities. This style of teaching is thought to be a result of the pre-service teachers' education programmes (Moon, 2009; Moore-Hayes, 2008; H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007), and form-focused examinations (Le & Do, 2012).

3.2.2.2. *Teaching materials*

Since 1996, in response to the introduction of English at the primary school level in Vietnam, a number of English textbooks have been produced for use in primary schools, such as *Let's go* (Nakata, Hoskins, & Wilkinson, 2000), *Family and Friends* (Simmons, 2011), *Let's learn English* (T. Nguyen, Phan, Do, & Dao, 2013), and *Tiếng Anh 1-5* (English 1–5; Hoang et al., 2013). The first and second are published by Oxford University Press while the third and fourth are published by Vietnam Education Publishing House. The first three textbooks are commonly used at Grade 5. However, as in Sweden, the choice of textbook and the specific syllabus depend entirely on the local schools (M. Nguyen, 2011).

The *Let's go* series of textbooks currently used in Vietnamese primary schools includes four books ranging from 1A, 1B, 2A and 2B. *Let's go* 1A is designed for Grade 3, 1B for Grade 4, and 2A for Grade 5, while 2B is an extra book designed for pupils learning by themselves. The books are mainly written in English.

The *Let's go* series is used in many different countries in English language instruction for children. The edition used in Vietnam is a re-edited version, adapted based on the training programme and protocols of the Ministry of Education and Training in Vietnam. This textbook series is more popular than others owing to a greater number of visual aids and colourful materials, and a greater variety of activities (Moon, 2009).

Vietnamese teachers of English depend heavily on textbooks as the main teaching materials due to a lack of expertise in English primary school education and a lack of knowledge and skills in developing their own materials (M. Nguyen, 2011). Moon (2005) examined the textbooks used in Vietnam and found that the textbooks are not really suited to children's needs in developing competence, since they contain very simple language with minimal texts, and focus more on grammar than communication. Tran (2005) summarised an assessment by the provincial Department of Education and Training of the textbooks used in primary school English instruction in Vietnam, coming to a similar conclusion:

The books are small size with few black and white pictures, not clear, not attractive, lack games and pronunciation practice exercise. The

topics are consistent in terms of vocabulary and grammar throughout the three books. Cassette tapes attached to the books are not enough in quantity and not of good quality.

(Tran, 2005, p. 42)

In the above discussion it can be seen that policy documents (especially the 2010 curriculum) and the textbooks used promote communicative language teaching in Vietnamese education, but that in practice there is often still a main emphasis on form (e.g., grammar and vocabulary).

3.3. Summary

In summary, the present chapter has provided a description of English language instruction in primary schools in Sweden and Vietnam by examining the provision of time allotted for teaching, the aims of English learning, the materials used in the English language classroom, and the methods of assessment. This review serves as a fundamental backdrop for the present study on teaching practices. The review reveals that English has been present in both Swedish and Vietnamese education for a long time, but with important differences in approach between the two countries.

In the Swedish education system, a communicative view of language permeates the policy documents, curriculum and textbooks in English, starting from the primary school level (Cabau-Lampa, 1999a, 1999b; Lundahl, 2012; Malmberg, 2001; Skolverket, 2011b, 2011c; Tornberg, 2009). Meanwhile, English teaching in Vietnam is more focused on grammar and vocabulary than on communication, because of lexicogrammatical knowledge testing and the challenges of teachers outlined above (Hoang, 2011; Khuong, 2015; Le, 2000). A focus on forms has been the traditional approach to language teaching in English classrooms in Vietnam, starting from the primary school level. In recent

times, there have been some reforms in language education policy, in that communicative language teaching is encouraged in the current curriculum for primary school education (MOET, 2010), but a number of challenges remain for teachers and learners, and the practice adopted in schools differs. The overall emphasis on grammar remains.

Given the differences in policy between Sweden and Vietnam, it is likely that teaching practices in actual classrooms differ as well. The empirical study on teaching practices in Chapter 5 will examine this issue in detail.

Chapter 4.

Material and methods

Chapter 4 presents the study design and the methods used in the three empirical studies. The overall design of the studies will be introduced in the first section (4.1), followed by the ethical considerations regarding research with children in section two (4.2). In the third section (4.3), the empirical study focusing on teaching practices is presented. Before describing how the data were collected and the procedure of the study, I provide a description of the COLT scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) as a background for the study on teaching practices. Teacher interviews and questionnaires from Sweden and Vietnam are also included. In the fourth section (4.4), I introduce the methodology for the empirical study on learner outcomes in Sweden and Vietnam including data collection, tasks, data treatment, and data analyses. The tasks are designed to investigate individual learners' procedural knowledge (including lexical repertoire) based on the PT acquisition criteria, and their declarative knowledge based on acceptability judgement. The chapter closes with a section (4.5) on the methodology used in the empirical study on out-of-school exposure to English, which involved a questionnaire administered to children in both countries. Furthermore, since two of the research questions focus on the relationship between procedural and declarative knowledge, and on whether out-of-school exposure to English affects learner outcomes, statistical analyses are carried out.

4.1. Overall design

In order to answer the research questions outlined in Chapter 1 (Section 1.2.1), three empirical studies were conducted.

First, the empirical study on teaching practices in primary schools in Sweden and Vietnam aims to answer the first research question regarding similarities and differences in teaching methodologies in Sweden and Vietnam. In addition to the analyses of policy documents and teaching materials presented in Chapter 3, I also made video/audio recordings and direct observations of Grade 5 English lessons in Swedish primary schools (5 lessons) and in Vietnamese primary schools (6 lessons). The lessons were then analysed according to the communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) observation scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). COLT is designed to differentiate between “more or less communicatively oriented instruction” (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 7), and is described in greater detail in Section 4.3.1. In addition, interviews and questionnaires were administered to teachers in different primary schools, with the aim of identifying similarities and differences in English teaching methods at primary schools in the two countries.

Second, the empirical study on learner outcomes concerns learners’ procedural and declarative knowledge and lexical repertoire. This study aims to answer the second research question regarding similarities and differences in learner outcomes in Sweden and Vietnam, the relationship between declarative and procedural knowledge of L2 English in young learners, and the relationship between learning outcomes and teaching methodologies. Two tasks that tap into learners’ procedural and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s were administered. The learners’ procedural knowledge and lexical repertoire are examined in picture description task. The learners’ declarative knowledge is assessed through analysis of a metalinguistic task in which they are required to choose between two expressions and explain the reasons for their choices. Based on the stages of morphosyntax identified in Processability Theory, the Swedish and Vietnamese learners can then be situated at different stages, and specifically, it is assessed whether they have reached Stage 5 morphology

(3-sg-s) or not (see Section 2.4). In order to make the tests of procedural and declarative knowledge more comparable, I adopted the measure of the implicational scaling done in R. Ellis (2008). Thus, 3-sg-s was considered to be part of procedural knowledge if a learner had produced the structure on two different words in the oral picture-description task. 3-sg-s was considered to be part of declarative knowledge if the learner correctly explained the grammatical structures and chose the correct answers for two of the four questions in the written test. An explanation is considered correct when the learner is able to give the basic grammatical rule for subject-verb agreement as defined by Pienemann (1998) and Hasselgård, Johansson, & Lysvåg (1998), that is, that the subject and the lexical verb phrase agree in number and person.

Third, the empirical study examines the same learners' out-of-school exposure to English as a potential alternative influence on learner outcomes, in order to answer Research Question 2d regarding the relationship between learning outcomes and out-of-school exposure to language learning. A demographic questionnaire was used to investigate the learners' background and the frequency of their use of English out of school in different contexts.

4.2. Ethical considerations

The empirical study involved making audio and video recordings in language classrooms. The participants were children between 11 and 12 years of age, and therefore the ethical aspects of classroom observations were considered. The study was carried out in Sweden and Vietnam, where the procedures of the local contexts required gaining permission from the school rectors, teachers and the children's parents. In Sweden, I first contacted the school rectors by email to explain the purpose of the study and the planned practical activities in the classrooms. Only when the school

rectors accepted could appointments be made to go to the schools to explain the research process and obtain the agreement of the teachers. In Sweden, only audio recordings were allowed. In Vietnam, permission was obtained from the Ministry of Education and Training to conduct data collection at the schools, which included both video and audio recordings of the lessons. In addition, other primary schools were contacted via the Department of Education in order to administer an online questionnaire to English teachers.

Written consent was obtained from the children's parents since they were minors (see the consent letter in Appendix 2). Furthermore, the anonymity of individual pupils, teachers, and schools was guaranteed.

4.3. Teaching practices

In each classroom, lessons were video/audio recorded, lesson notes, materials and books used in the lessons were gathered, and open-ended interviews were conducted and questionnaires administered with the teachers. These were used to compare teaching practices with the curriculum of English teaching and learning at Grade 5. The lessons were described and the communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) observation scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995; see below) was used in order to document the activities of the English language classrooms in different groups. Observation is defined here as a method “of generating data which entails the researcher immersing him/herself in a research setting so that they can experience and observe at first hand a range of dimensions in and of that setting” (Mason, 2002, p. 84). Classroom observations were used in the study because they both “permit researchers to study the processes of education in naturalistic settings” and “provide more detailed and precise evidence than other data sources” (Waxman et al., 2004, p. 3).

4.3.1. Description and rationale of the communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) observation scheme

COLT (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) is an established method for classroom observation, leading to improved descriptions of the instructional practices and procedures in different L2 classrooms. There are two parts in the COLT observation scheme. Part A involves description of classroom events at the level of episode and activity, including seven main features: Time, Activities and Episodes, Participant organisation, Content, Content control, Student modality, and Materials. Part B involves an analysis of the communicative features of the verbal communication between teachers and students and/or among students. Since the focus in this study is on classroom activities, only Part A is used. However, the languages used in the classroom (L1 and/or L2) are also analysed in order to show how much the target language is used in the classroom. The assumption in COLT is that the L2 should be the language of instruction in order to aid the development of the target language (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). Target language input has been shown to be crucial in L2 learning and to contribute to learners' target language development (Lightbown, 1992). For this reason this category (L1/L2) is added to the COLT observation scheme in this study (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 provides an overview of each category of Part A of the COLT scheme based on Spada & Fröhlich (1995). Each category includes several subsections.

COLT PART A

School: _____ Grade(s): _____ Observer: _____
 Teacher: _____ Lesson (min.): _____ Visit No.: _____
 Subject: _____ Date: _____ Page: _____

TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION			CONTENT						CONTENT CONTROL		STUDENT MODALITY				MATERIALS				L1	L2																																																																															
		Class	Group	Indiv.	Manag.	Language			Other Topic	Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/Struc	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Text		Source																																																																																	
						1	2	3										1	2	3			1	2	3	1	2	3																																																																									
1	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100

Figure 4.1. The COLT observation scheme, Part A (adapted from Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 13)

The category *Time* is used to indicate the starting time of each episode/activity so that the percentage of time spent on different COLT features can be calculated.

The category *activities and episodes* are “separate units which constitute the instructional segments of a classroom” (p. 14) and serve as the basic units for COLT analysis. An activity may be marked by a change in the overall theme. Each activity, such as a drill, a translation task, a discussion or a game, is separately described. One activity may consist of several episodes, such as the teacher introducing a dialogue, the teacher reading the dialogue aloud, followed by students reading parts of the dialogue aloud. An example of an activity from the current study is when the class practises a grammatical structure. Episodes in this activity can be the pupils completing exercises with that structure individually, then communicating in their groups, and finally presenting their work to the other groups or to the class.

The category *participant organisation* describes three basic patterns of organisation: *Class*, *Group* and *Individual*. Each of the patterns consists of various subsections:

1. Classroom interaction between teacher and student or class, student to student, or student to class, choral work by students (e.g., repeating a model provided by the textbook or teacher).
2. Groups on the same task and on different tasks.
3. Individual students working individually on the same task or on different tasks.

The subsections describe how the students are organised as participants in classroom interaction. Group work is considered to be a crucial factor in the development of communicative competence (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). This category also aims to differentiate between teacher-centred and group work interactions in L2 classrooms. Its rationale is that working in a group encourages learners to use different linguistic forms and functions and to develop fluency skills. Learners also have more control in the negotiation of meaning, hence they are more communicatively oriented. Meanwhile, in teacher-centred instruction, students tend to simply answer the teacher's questions and rarely initiate speech, restricting the students' productive ability.

Content category describes the subject matter or theme of the activities, such as what the teacher and the students are talking, reading, or writing about or listening to. There are three major content areas: *management*, *language*, and *other topics*. *Management* divides into (a) Classroom procedures (e.g., 'Open your books to page 3 and do Exercise 4') and (b) Disciplinary statements (e.g., 'I am getting more and more exhausted with the noise in our class'). *Language* focuses explicitly on (a) *Form* referring to grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation; (b) *Function* with reference to functional and communicative acts (e.g., requesting, apologising and explaining); (c) *Discourse* referring to how sentences, in spoken and written form, combine into a cohesive and coherent manner in a process (e.g., how to bake cupcakes), and (d) *Sociolinguistics* with reference to forms or styles in spoken or written language appropriate to particular

contexts. *Other topics* may arise in the classroom discourse including (a) a narrow range of reference in which topics refer to the classroom and the student's immediate environment and experiences, and (b) a broad range of reference in which the topics extend beyond the classroom and immediate environment.

The rationale for these subcategories arises from discussions about whether the primary focus of instruction should be on meaning or form and to what extent a focus on meaning and/or form may lead to differences in L2 development. Traditional second language teaching and learning which primarily focused on grammar and correction has not been considered successful in the development of linguistic or communicative competence. In the 1970s, many researchers argued that L2 instruction should instead be exclusively meaning-oriented, since that is how children succeed in learning L1 (Corder, 1971; Richards, 1974).

Content control refers to who selects and decides the topic or task that is being talked about as the focus of instruction. *The teacher/text control* method is used when the topic is to be determined by the teacher and/or the text. *The teacher/text/student control* method utilises topics jointly determined by the teacher, the students and/or the text. The final method is *student control*, where the students themselves determine the topic. It has been argued that the more involved the students are in their learning as co-participants and the more active the student participation in selecting materials, tasks or topics, the more positive and robust is their learning (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). This category aims to measure how classrooms may vary along this dimension.

Student modality identifies the different skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) that may be involved in a classroom activity. This category is included to cover such activities as drawing, acting, or arranging classroom displays. Focus in this category lies on the students, and its purpose is to discover whether each of the skills or a combination of skills may contribute to differences in learners' L2 competence. A prominent argument in the COLT literature is that the integration of different skills is encouraged in order to reflect a more authentic use of language (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995).

The category *materials* relates to the materials used in the classroom including text type and source of materials. Text type varies in terms of length. Minimal texts include isolated sentences and word lists. Extended length texts can consist of stories, dialogues, connected sentences, and paragraphs in either written or audio format, or even visual media (which may include pictures, movies, cartoons, or other animations). Source of materials indicates whether the material is specifically designed for second language teaching, namely L2-NNS (L2-Non-native speakers) such as course books or teacher-prepared exercises and materials. The material may also be designed for native speakers of the target language, namely L2-NS (L2-Native speakers), and come from sources such as newspapers, brochures, or advertisements, or may be L2-Native speaker-Adapted (L2-NSA), that is, native speaker materials adapted for L2 purposes, such as linguistically simplified or annotated stories and other texts. Materials that are student-made such as stories, reports, puppet shows, etc. are yet another source.

Target language use in the classrooms (L1-L2) is included based on the view that use of the target language facilitates L2 development (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). In the current study, a mixture of L1 and L2 most often occurs when teachers translate the task or instruction between the languages.

4.3.2. Data collection: Classroom data

The criterion for the inclusion of primary schools in all of the studies was that they had English instruction starting from Grade 3. The selected schools were in urban areas. In Sweden, the schools were located in Skåne (in the south of Sweden), and in Mekong Delta area of Vietnam also in the south. In Sweden, two teachers at two different schools agreed to participate. In the Vietnamese context, three teachers at three different schools agreed to participate. Recordings and observations were made of five lessons from two English classes in Sweden and six lessons from three English classes in Vietnam.

The children in the two classes in Sweden and the three classes in Vietnam were aged 11-12 and were attending Grade 5 of primary school. In Sweden, there were 20 children in the one class and 21 in the other. In

the Vietnamese context, there were 35 children in the one class, 36 in the second class and 38 in the third class. All of the pupils had had two years of classroom exposure to English before starting Grade 5.

In addition to the classroom recordings, questionnaires were administered to Swedish and Vietnamese teachers of Grade 5 English. The teachers whose lessons were recorded also participated in a separate interview. The questionnaire (see Appendix 3) was distributed in two ways: in paper format to the five teachers that took part in the classroom observations and interviews, and online to an additional group of teachers in the two countries (10 Swedish teachers and 52 Vietnamese teachers answered). The main aim of the online questionnaire was to see if the opinions (regarding the teaching methods) of the individual teachers in the observed lessons matched with and could possibly be generalised to those expressed by the other teachers in that country.

Table 4.1 summarises the data collection.

Table 4.1. Classroom data

Classroom Data	Swedish group		Vietnamese group		
	School 1	School 2	School 1	School 2	School 3
	Class 1	Class 2	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Children (<i>n</i>)	20	21	35	36	38
Teachers	1	1	1	1	1
Lessons observed	3	2	2	2	2
Teacher interview (offline questionnaire)	1	1	1	1	1
Online questionnaire to other teachers in the countries	10 responses		52 responses		

4.3.3. English lessons

4.3.3.1. Procedure

Observations and audio and video recordings were made of five English lessons from two Swedish classes and six English lessons from three Vietnamese classes with informed consent from the children's parents. Notes were taken of all activities in the lessons based on the observations

made. Following Spada & Fröhlich (1995), during the observation period, each activity and episode was recorded in the scheme, and check marks were placed in all relevant categories. Start and end times of each activity were noted. At the same time, recordings were made of the classroom interaction for later verification of the coding.

In Sweden and Vietnam, audio recorders were set up in the classrooms, one in the front and one in the back of the classroom in order to capture audio from all pupils. The recorder at the back of the classroom was kept close to where the researcher sat in order to facilitate monitor the recordings. In Vietnam, a video camera was also placed in a corner at the front of the classroom and angled to capture all pupils and the teacher. The microphone that recorded the audio was located on the audio or video recorder. The instruments were installed in the classroom at least 5-10 minutes before the start of the lessons. The lessons were 45 minutes long in Vietnam and about 55 minutes long in Sweden, the total lesson time analysed adding up to 268 minutes for the five lessons in Sweden and 270 minutes for the six lessons in Vietnam.

4.3.3.2. Data transcription and coding

The activities in the classrooms were transcribed using the CHILDES system (Child Language Data Exchange System) (MacWhinney, 2000). The extracts of classroom activities given as examples in the body of the text have been shortened from the original transcriptions, with repetitions, pauses, and so on being excluded in order to make space for the word-by-word translations into English. Each speaker line is introduced by a star, followed by a three-letter code, indicating the speaker (e.g., *TEA = teacher, *CHI = children, *CLA = class) (see Table A, Appendix 4).

4.3.3.3. Data analysis

All classroom activities were timed, sorted and categorised based on Part A of the COLT scheme. Coding of each lesson was done in real time by the researcher. Timing is necessary to calculate how much time the teacher spends on each category of the total allotted lesson time. If the most time was spent on a particular category as a predominant feature of a certain activity, it was marked as the 'primary focus' with a circle drawn around

the check mark in the column under that feature. If approximately equal amounts of time and emphasis fell on more than one category, these were marked as ‘combinations’ with equal focus. Where there was a primary and a secondary focus, only the primary focus was taken into account. Where there was a combined focus, the contributing foci were annotated separately (in accordance with Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, pp. 115-116). An example of the annotation of the category *participant organisation* is as follows:

The total lesson time was 60 minutes. During 42 minutes (70% of the class) the primary focus was on classroom interaction between teacher and student or class (T- S/C) while the secondary focus was student to student, or student to class (S-S/C). This means that 70% of the class was oriented as T-S/C. During 18 minutes (30% of the class) the focus was on a combination of T-S/C and S-S/C interaction.

4.3.4. The online questionnaire and individual interviews with Swedish and Vietnamese teachers of English at Grade 5.

4.3.4.1. *Questionnaire design*

The construction, and administration of the questionnaire was based on Dörnyei (2003). The questionnaire measured teachers’ beliefs about the teaching methods that they use in the classroom in their Grade 5 English as a second language instruction. The questionnaire consisted of a series of statements related to a particular target, and respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements on a five-point Likert scale (Dörnyei, 2003). The questionnaire was constructed around the content of the COLT observation scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) and adapted to be suitable to the present study. The questionnaire included seven questions that were similar to the COLT categories, for example Question 2 as given below.

Should the focus of activities in the classroom be on meaning (communication) or/and grammar?

Communication should be considered the main activity in the classroom, while the teaching of grammar is a secondary activity.

Strongly Agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion

The questionnaire also included open-ended questions, intended to give the teachers the opportunity to give more elaborated or specific answers (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 47). The questionnaire was written in English and all of the individual teachers were allowed to use both their mother tongue (Swedish or Vietnamese) and English to answer the questions. The online questionnaire was created digitally in Google Drive Forms. This online format was chosen to enable distribution and response via email. The questionnaire was distributed in paper format to the five teachers who participated in the classroom observations, and online to additional teachers in both countries. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix 3.

4.3.4.2. Procedure

The questionnaire was piloted with two Grade 5 English teachers not included in the study, one in Sweden and one in Vietnam. Based on the feedback from these teachers, minor changes were made, for example, some questions were shortened.

In Sweden, the Swedish National Agency for Education was consulted to find different public primary schools. The questionnaire and cover letter were then emailed to the school rectors, the school coordinators, with a request forward it to Grade 5 English teachers at the school, and directly to English teachers where their email addresses were available. The questionnaire was also sent to colleagues and friends who were asked to forward it to any Grade 5 English teachers that they might know. In Vietnam, the questionnaire was forwarded by the Education department to Grade 5 English teachers in Vietnamese primary schools (the teachers were informed that participation was voluntary).

In total, 10 Swedish teachers and 52 Vietnamese teachers of Grade 5 English responded to the online questionnaire.

4.3.4.3. *Individual interviews*

Individual interviews were conducted with the five teachers whose lessons were recorded. The interviews were based on the answers in the questionnaire with those individual teachers to complement the classroom observations and to investigate whether what they say and do matches the stated aims and policies as described in the curriculum.

The five Grade 5 English teachers in the current study all took part in the interviews: two teachers (both females) from two different Swedish primary schools and three teachers (two females and one male) from three different Vietnamese primary schools. The interviews were conducted in person directly after the lesson observations. Each interview lasted around 15-20 minutes. The questions were asked in English, and the Swedish teachers answered in English, while the Vietnamese teachers used both Vietnamese and English in their answers.

4.4. Learner outcomes

4.4.1. Participants

The children included in the study on learner outcomes came from the same classes and schools in Sweden and Vietnam as described in the study on teaching practices; two urban schools in Sweden and three urban schools in Vietnam. The word ‘participant’ is used to indicate pupils that did the two tasks, to differentiate them from other children in the classroom. There are two tasks for the individual participants: a procedural knowledge task and a declarative knowledge task. The number of participants depended on the learners’ willingness under their parents’ consent and the teachers’ decision to take part in the study. The tasks took place when the children were nearing the end of Grade 5. There were 32 Swedish participants (12 females) from two classes in two different Swedish schools, and 44 Vietnamese participants (28 females) from three classes in three different schools (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Swedish and Vietnamese learner data

Learner Data	Swedish group		Vietnamese group		
	School 1	School 2	School 1	School 2	School 3
	Class 1	Class 2	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Children	20	21	35	36	38
Participants	18 (11 Males, 7 Females)	14 (9 Males, 5 Females)	15 (7 Males, 8 Females)	15 (4 Males, 11 Females)	14 (5 Males, 9 Females)

4.4.2. Procedural knowledge test and lexical repertoire

4.4.2.1. Description and rationale of the task.

Task choice was constrained by a number of factors: the task must be short since the data collection was conducted during lesson time, the participants were children and so the task should be simple, and the task must focus on the third person singular *-s*, the target grammatical structure to be tested. In order to elicit the target grammatical structure, the third person singular *-s*, a so-called habitual action task was chosen. In this type of task, participants are asked questions about a day in the life of someone such as “What does a librarian do every day?” (Pienemann, 1998, p. 280). The habitual action task is designed to provide a natural communicative context for producing the grammatical structure 3-sg-s that taps into the learners’ procedural knowledge (Lenzing, 2013; Mackey, 1994; Pienemann, 1998; Pienemann & Mackey, 1993). To make the task more child friendly, the topic chosen was the daily life of a pupil named Peter, and participants were asked the question “What does Peter do every day?”. This task requires learners to describe habitual actions of a person by using the third person singular *-s*.

All learners were asked to describe Peter’s daily activities as shown in a picture series. For example, one of the pictures of the series showed a boy getting out of bed, with the clock showing 7 am. The picture was designed to elicit a habitual action sentence such as “He wakes up at seven every morning”. The pictures of the series varied in terms of the number of people illustrated, giving participants the opportunity to demonstrate a contrast between the singular and plural forms of the verb, such as the copula ‘is’ and ‘are’ for singular and plural subjects as in “He *is* in the bathroom.” (child 3) and “There *are* many pupils on the bus.” (child 10).

Due to copyright restrictions, the picture series cannot be reproduced in this thesis. Instead, a drawing has been made depicting the same scenes (see Appendix 7).

4.4.2.2. *Procedure*

The participants were audio-recorded individually in a separate room. Participants were asked to first look at all of the pictures of the series and then to describe Peter's daily activities. This instruction was emphasised in an attempt to prevent the use of the progressive form rather than 3-sg-s for the boy's activities as shown in the pictures. The instructions were given in English, in order to create an English-speaking environment for the participants during the recordings. In the interviews, I contributed only very short back-channelling cues (i.e., 'yes', 'that is right', 'OK', 'that is good') and nodding, to keep the conversation going and to encourage the participants to continue speaking.

Participants' speech was transcribed, and then analysed following the different stages of English acquisition as a second language outlined in Processability Theory (PT; Pienemann, 1998).

4.4.2.3. *Transcription*

The recordings were transcribed in full by the researcher using the CHAT (Codes for the Human Analysis of Transcripts) transcription standard as used in the CHILDES (Child Language Data Exchange System) corpora (MacWhinney, 2000). All details of the participants' speech were transcribed including repetitions, pauses, filled pauses, retractions, overlap, interruptions, and paralinguistic material such as coughing or laughing. including some remarks and explanation. I also used CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) software developed as a part of the CHILDES project (MacWhinney, 2000) in order to analyse the transcriptions (See Table A, Appendix 4 for the CHAT Transcription Format adopted from MacWhinney, 2000).

4.4.2.4. Coding for English subject-verb agreement

After the recordings were transcribed, the data were coded in a CLAN format. In order to capture subject-verb agreement with different verbs, two grammatical verb types, copula/auxiliary verbs and lexical verbs were coded, indicated with %sva for subject-verb agreement marking.

In order to be assigned PT Stage 5 (lexical verbs in present tense, coded as *\$lex:prt*), the learner had to produce at least two examples of the morpheme ‘-s’ in obligatory contexts with at least two different lexical verbs, for example “he *eats*; he *takes* a shower” (child 16). Such responses were coded as *sc*. If the learner overused the morpheme ‘-s’ in a response, this was coded as *so*, for example: “and it *is* looks very full; Ye(a)h it’s very many people in there” (child 3). If the learner underused the morpheme ‘-s’ in a response, this was coded as *sm*, for example: “He *wake* up for this morning then after that he *read* a book” (child 31).

In order to be assigned PT Stage 4 (copular agreement, coded as *\$cop:cor*), the learner had to produce at least two examples of the copular/auxiliaries in obligatory contexts for singular and plural, for example: “Okay he *is* in the shower; and another thing, okay the school bus, lots of children *are* in the school bus; it *is* yellow” (Child 6), and “this one he *is eating* breakfast at half past seven” (Child 28).

In some cases, particular words in the learners’ utterances were repeated twice, for example: “He eats (.) eats breakfast”. Such instances were not coded twice, only one instance of 3-sg-s was coded.

There were ambiguous cases in the data, coded as *am*, as follows:

Some Vietnamese learners used only bare infinitives without subjects to describe some of the pictures, e.g., *sleep* (child 39). Therefore, this case was coded as ambiguous.

Another case of ambiguity was due to unclear pronunciation, e.g., examples of phonetic assimilation such as *he eat(s) sandwich*.

For more details about the coding scheme, see Appendices 5 and 6.

4.4.2.5 Analyses: Acquisition criteria based on PT

Different SLA theories use different criteria for acquisition. In PT the emergence criterion is used, meaning that two productive examples (with lexical and/or morphological variation) are considered to be evidence of

acquisition. The analysis of the learners' interlanguage in the current study is based on the processability hierarchy of morphological structures as identified for ESL development (Pienemann, 1998, 2005).

The emergence criterion is defined as the "first systematic use" of a morphosyntactic structure (Pienemann, 1984, p. 191). This criterion is used in the current study, and two productive uses of a target structure with two different verb types is used as the criterion for deciding the learners' development stages.

The emergence criterion should be supported by a distributional analysis in order to avoid memorized chunks. This means that all tokens and all obligatory contexts are counted. In order to state that the learner is able to process subject-verb agreement (3-sg-s), verbs with *-s* should only occur in the context of third person subjects. Furthermore, there has to be lexical and/or morphological variation in the learner's language:

1. Lexical variation: 3-sg-s must occur with at least two different verb types, for examples *eats*, *sleeps*.
2. Morphological variation: the same verb occurs in at least two different forms, for example: *goes*, *go*, *going*.

When the distributional analysis is done, the numbers can be entered in a table and be ordered implicationally. Implicational scaling is a method for observing the distribution of linguistic features and determine if what may look like free variation is in fact a systematic pattern. The method was first introduced by Guttman (1944) as *the Guttman procedure* for measuring social attitudes. It has been used extensively to describe the systematicity in linguistic variation, for example in creole studies (e.g. DeCamp, 1971) and in studies on second language acquisition (Pienemann, 1998). The use of implicational scaling makes it possible to capture the dynamics of learner language by showing that use of a certain structure implies use of other structures.

It is important to note that implicational scaling is used in the current study as a tool for comparison of participants. It is not the aim of this study to test the validity of Processability Theory.

4.4.2.6. *Lexical repertoire*

The lexical repertoire of the learners was measured by the number of words the participants produced during the picture description task. The aim was to see how many individual word types the participants produced in their speech. Filled pauses and other transcription symbols (presented in Appendix 4) were excluded from the word count. Indistinctly pronounced words were coded as ambiguous, and were excluded from all counts.

Following Pienemann (1998, p. 282), T-units and turns were also counted in order to get a general idea of the sample size for the task. A T-unit is defined as a sentence consisting of “one main clause with all the subordinate clauses attached to it” (Hunt, 1965, p. 20), while a turn is defined as “any speaker’s sequence of utterances bounded by another speaker’s speech” (Chaudron, 1988, p. 45).

4.4.3. Declarative knowledge test

4.4.3.1. *Test design*

A test with four questions about 3-sg-s in English was administered to the participants. The test was inspired by the STRIMS project (see 2.2.1.3; Malmberg et al., 2000). The purpose of the test was to examine children’s declarative knowledge of the grammatical rule for 3-sg-s.

The test consisted of two parts: First, participants were asked to choose between two expressions, and then were asked to motivate their choices. The test sentences were formulated so that they contained contexts that required the subject and the verb to agree in person and number in the present tense. A translation of the test in English is given below. Two questions (Questions 1 and 4) asked whether the sentence was right or wrong, and two questions (Questions 2 and 3) required participants to choose the appropriate form to fill the blank. For all four questions, the participants were required to give reasons for their choice. The Swedish and Vietnamese versions of the test are included in Appendix 8.

1. They sings well.

Is the sentence right or wrong? Why did you choose that answer?

2. Peter (drive/drives) a taxi

Which word in the brackets should you use to fill in the blank? Why did you choose that answer?

3. The dog often..... (eat/eats) fishes.

Which word in the brackets should you use to fill in the blank? Why did you choose that answer?

4. She often plays piano at 8 am.

Is the sentence right or wrong? Why did you choose that answer?

4.4.3.2. *Procedure*

Participants were not given a time limit in which to complete the test. The task was completed in the classroom and collected at the end of class. Participants were allowed to use their first language or English to answer the questions.

In order to collect more information about the task, a selection of individual participants were interviewed after completion of the task about their reasons for and against using the suffix ‘-s’ in the examples they were given in the task. Due to time constraints, only 26 individual participants (10 Swedish participants and 16 Vietnamese participants) were interviewed like this.

4.4.3.3. *Scoring procedure*

To score the responses, all answers were compared to a standardised explanation: third person singular verbs take an -s in the present tense, while first and second person singular verbs in the present tense do not. Responses were scored based on the following schema (adapted from Roehr & Gánem-Gutiérrez, 2009):

- i. Correct answer: 1 point; incorrect or no answer: 0 points
- ii. Rule explanation:
 - Correct and satisfactory explanation: 2 points
 - Partially correct/satisfactory explanation: 1 point
 - Incorrect explanation: 0 points

- No explanation: 0 points
- No explanation, but correcting the error: 0.5

Since the questions were structured in a way so as to allow only one of two choices for the answer, 0.5 points were added for participants who did not give an explanation, but did correct the mistake in the sentence. For example, learner 20 answered that where there is ‘they’ then one should write ‘they sing’.

4.4.4. Analyses: Comparison and correlation

Since one of the research questions focuses on the relationship between procedural and declarative knowledge, the correlation between scores on the procedural and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s between the Swedish and Vietnamese participants was calculated. The aim of the analysis was to examine whether there was a correlation between the learners’ procedural knowledge, that is whether they can produce the 3-sg-s correctly in speech, and their declarative knowledge of the grammatical feature. The statistical analyses are presented in Chapter 6.

4.5. Out-of-school exposure to English

4.5.1. Participants

The third study examining learners’ out-of-school exposure to English involved the same learners that took part in the study on learner outcomes, with 32 questionnaire responses from Swedish participants and 44 responses from Vietnamese participants.

4.5.2. Task and procedure

The demographic questionnaire distributed to the learners was inspired by Dörnyei (2003). The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first dealt with factual questions (e.g., name, age, native language, country, language used at home). The second part concerned the contextual factors of English learning and the frequency of contact with English outside of school. Some of the items of the second part of the questionnaire were inspired by Sundqvist (2009), such as questions about reading books, watching television, and playing computer games in English. The questionnaire also included an open choice question for other activities (cf. Forsman, 2004; Pearson, 2004). The response categories were *every day*, *some days in the week*, *some days in the month*, *some days in the year* and *no activity/never*. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix 9.

During the school visits, I also asked how much English the learners use outside of school, to complement the answers in the questionnaires. Due to time constraints this could only be done with 51 participants (20 Swedish participants and 31 Vietnamese participants). The participants completed the questionnaire either in class with the help of teachers, or at home together with parents.

4.5.3. Data treatment

The percentage of a frequency description was calculated by dividing the number of learners who did some interaction at a certain frequency with the total number of learners:

$$\frac{\sum Lf}{\sum \text{Learners}}$$

For example, 4 Swedish participants watched films every day, of a total 32 participants. This gave us 12.5%.

Lf = number of learners doing something at a specific frequency. The frequencies were *everyday*, *some days in the week*, *some days in the month*, *some days in the year*, or *never*.

4.5.4. Analyses: Correlation

The final research question of the study concerns whether participants' learning outcomes correlate with their exposure to out-of-school learning. To answer this question, correlation analyses were conducted. The average test scores and use of lexical types were statistically analysed. A correlation analysis (Pearson's r) was performed on the frequency of out-of-school exposure, use of lexical types, and scores on procedural and declarative tests (see Chapter 7).

Chapter 5.

Results: Teaching practices

5.1. Introduction

Researchers have long emphasised the importance of classroom interaction for enhancing foreign language learning (Carroll, 1967; R. Ellis, 2008; Krashen & Seliger, 1976; Krashen, Butler, Birnbaum, & Robertson, 1978; Pica, 1983). This chapter addresses the reality of Grade 5 English classes at public primary schools in Sweden and Vietnam. The chapter presents results from three analyses. First, the classroom observations using COLT (see Section 4.3.1 for details) are presented in order to reveal whether classroom activities are teacher-centred or focus on group work interactions, and whether the teacher focuses on grammar instruction and/or a communicative approach. Research has shown that group work provides opportunities for learners to communicate and use the language, and hence improve their language (Brown, 1991; Cao & Philp, 2006; R. Ellis, 1991). Second, results from the teacher interviews are presented, and third, the results of the online questionnaire are presented. The purpose of the interviews and questionnaire was to complement the classroom observations in order to examine whether what they say about their teaching tallies with that they do.

The chapter consists of five sections. In the introductory section (5.1), the first subsection (5.1.1) briefly touches on the method, described in more detail in Section 4.3. The second section (5.2) presents the results of the classroom observations, teacher interviews and online questionnaire in the Swedish context. The third section (5.3) presents the results of the classroom observations, teacher interviews and online questionnaire in the Vietnamese context. The fourth section (5.4) contains a discussion of the similarities and differences between the Swedish and Vietnamese groups

with regard to classroom activities. The chapter ends in Section 5.5 with a discussion of the teaching practices observed in the classroom observations in comparison with the results from the interviews and with the stated aims and policies.

5.1.1. Method

As mentioned in Section 4.3.2, in Sweden, two teachers at two different schools, and three teachers at three different schools in the Vietnamese context agreed to participate in the current study (Table 4.1). The lessons were recorded and analysed based on the COLT observation scheme. The teachers were interviewed, and an online questionnaire was distributed to additional groups of English teachers in Sweden and Vietnam. For a presentation of the participants, the procedure and data analysis, see Section 4.3.

5.2. Results: L2 English classrooms in Sweden

5.2.1. Results: Classroom observations

The results presented in this section are based on a total of 5 lessons observed in Sweden. The total duration of the lessons was 268 minutes. The lessons contained 26 different activities, and were taught by two teachers at two public primary schools, distributed as shown in Table 5.1. Each activity and episode was timed, and the percentages of time spent on different features in the COLT scheme were calculated.

Table 5.1. Distribution of lessons, time, and activities in the classes in Sweden

	Swedish schools	
	Class 1	Class 2
Lessons	3	2
Time (minutes)	170	98
Activities	15	11

As shown in Table 5.1, three of the observed lessons involved one class, and two involved another class, from two different Swedish schools. The total duration of the lessons in class 1 was 170 minutes, comprising 15 different activities, while the duration of the lessons in class 2 was 98 minutes with 11 different activities.

5.2.1.1. Participant organisation

Table 5.2. Participant organisation by class in the Swedish classrooms, total.
(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Participant organisation [%]	Class 1	Class 2
Primary		
T<-> S/C	45.3	30.6
S<->S/C	4.2	17.4
Individual – Same task	2.9	9.2
Group work – Same task	4.7	36.7
Group work – Different task	23.5	0
Group work (total)	28.2	36.7
Combination		
T-S/C & S-S/C	19.4	6.1
Total [%]	100	100

Note: T = teacher; S = student; C = class

Table 5.2 illustrates the different types of work activities included in the five lessons in the two Swedish classes. This included work performed by the whole class, group work and individual work.

The teachers interacted with the whole class within the activities (T<-> S/C; 45.3% in class 1, 30.6% in class 2). However, during this time, the pupils not only listened to the teachers, but responded and communicated with the teachers (using choral responses) as well as with each other. Although there were some percentage differences between the classes on group work (28.2% in class 1 and 36.7% in class 2), group work predominated (whether on same tasks or different tasks) rather than individual work. There was no interaction among the pupils while they

engaged in individual work, but the teachers did get involved and interact with most of the pupils.

Additionally, the combination of classroom interaction between teacher and students or class, and student to class (S<->S/C) was more prevalent in class 1 (19.4%) than in class 2 (6.1%), which could be due to the different tasks used (see the tasks in the *content* category, 5.2.1.2).

5.2.1.2. Content and content control

Table 5.3. Content in the Swedish classrooms, total.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category)

Content [%]		Class 1	Class 2
Primary			
Management	Discipline	0	1
	Procedure	12.8	7.2
Language	Function	0	0
	Discourse	0	5.1
	Form	10.6	17.3
Other topics (meaning)	Narrow	12.4	12.3
	Broad	20.6	36.7
	Total	33	49
Combinations			
	Discourse/Form	0	3.1
	Function/broad topic	0	6.1
	Form/broad topic	2.4	0
	Discourse/Broad topic	41.2	0
	Form/Narrow topic	0	11.2
Total [%]		100	100

The *content* category refers to the subject matter of the activities. As shown in Table 5.3, the two classes differed substantially in the focus of instruction, especially a focus on *form* (10.6% for class 1 and 17.3% for class 2), and a focus on meaning, which is represented by *Other Topics* (33% for class 1 and 49% for class 2). Additionally, the combination *discourse - broad topic* dominated in class 1 (41.2%) while the most

common combination was *form and meaning* in class 2 (11.2%). This could be explained by the fact that in class 1, the first two lessons were based on an idea from the teacher: she had initiated a pen pal project with a Grade 5 English teacher in the USA. The pupils in class 1 and the children in the USA had begun to write and communicate with each other during that semester.

The pupils in class 1 worked in the following fashion. During the first lesson, they first had an exam on the words from the previous week. Next, they looked at the new task together. The pupils were asked to read the task out loud and translate it. The teacher explained and discussed some difficult words. The pupils received that week's words and read them out loud together. During the second lesson, the pupils made use of the digital pen pal platform ePals⁴, and read the email they had received. They then wrote a reply, using a scaffolding structure to assist them in writing an extended text on a particular topic and to achieve coherent sequences. The children were assigned to one computer each and logged in to epals.com. According to the teacher, the pupils appeared to learn a great deal of English from this task, with regard to both writing and reading.

The third lesson in class 1 was designed by the teacher as a speaking activity. The pupils performed a play and reconstructed a set of dialogues so that they had a logical structure. In the observed lessons, the pupils were asked to work on the letter and the play, and were engaged in producing extended texts on these topics. For this reason, *discourse* combined with (*broad*) meaning predominated. Meanwhile, the lessons in class 2 focused more on form and (*narrow*) meaning. For example, the teacher asked the pupils about how they spent their previous weekend, requiring them to use the simple past tense.

The main similarities between the Swedish classes are as follows:

(1) The lessons in the two Swedish classrooms mainly referred to meaning (*other topics*) (33% in class 1, 49% in class 2) rather than *form* (10.6% in class 1 and 17.3% in class 2). That is, overall, the focus was on communication.

⁴ ePals is a platform designed to promote collaborative classrooms engaged in cross-cultural exchanges, and language learning (www.epals.com).

(2) The form referred to primarily related to vocabulary and pronunciation, and no grammar was explained. Additionally, the teachers did not correct the pupils' mistakes in terms of grammar and pronunciation when they spoke.

(3) Most of the discussion involved broad rather than narrow topics.

(4) Finally, the teachers used language for *procedural directives* more than for *discipline* in both classes such as "Now let's work in a group!"; "Please answer the questions on the blackboard!"; "Please open the book!". At times, the teachers had to use language for disciplinary purposes. The pupils sometimes interrupted the teachers and spoke without waiting to be called or asked.

Table 5.4. Content control in the Swedish classrooms, total.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Content control [%]	Class 1	Class 2
Teacher/text	63.6	69.4
Teacher/text/student	12.9	0
Student	23.5	30.6
Total [%]	100	100

The *content control* category refers to who it is that selects the topic or task that is the focus of the instruction. There was not much difference in *content control* between the two Swedish classes. In both classes, most topics were determined by the teacher and the texts (the textbook and the materials designed by the teachers). However, in the speaking activities it also happened that the pupils determined the topic and the task (23.5% in class 1, and 30.6% in class 2). This indicated that even when the teachers controlled the classes, the pupils were still given the chance to be involved in their learning by negotiating the tasks and the materials. For example in one lesson, the children chose the picture of a certain person they liked, and started to describe or tell that person's story.

5.2.1.3. Student modality

Table 5.5. Student modality in the Swedish classrooms, total.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category)

Student modality [%]	Class 1	Class 2
Primary		
Listening	12.9	11.3
Speaking	38.2	23.7
Writing	0	5.2
Reading	0	0
Combination		
Listening/Speaking	44.2	59.8
Listening/Reading	1.8	0
Writing/Reading	2.9	0
Total [%]	100	100

As shown in Table 5.5, there was not much difference in the various skills used by the pupils in the two classes although there was a small percentage difference in reading and writing skills between the classes. The classes were similar in that half of the lesson time in the Swedish classrooms (Class 1: 44.2% and Class 2: 59.8%) was spent on a combination of speaking and listening either to the teachers or to other pupils. Only a small amount of time was spent on writing and reading. All classes observed in Sweden had two weekly lessons. In one lesson, both of the teachers used the textbook and focused on the four skills in combination. Another lesson focused on a speaking activity in which the teachers assigned a task and arranged the pupils in groups so that they could speak about a certain topic or perform a play.

Below are some typical examples from the lessons regarding *participation organisation*, *content* and *content control*, and of different *activities* in the Swedish classes. As is clear from the transcripts, there was group work with the teachers directing the activities in the class. This work focused on meaning and communication.

Extract 5.1 Class 2 (lesson 1)

(After greeting the class, the teacher asked them to review the previous lesson by talking about last weekend)

TEA: It was a very nice sunny weekend, right?

CLA: Yeah

TEA: So, we are talking a little bit about what you were doing this weekend out in the sun. I hope you were outside in the sun, right?

CLA: Yes

TEA: So, could anyone tell me something that you have done, please?

CHI1: I played football this weekend, it was on the early evening.

TEA: With your team or..?

CHI1: Yes, with my team. Then on Sunday, I was visiting my friend and then we were outside and played football.

TEA: That's nice!

CHI2: On Sunday, I went to see the match.

TEA: Outside or inside?

CHI2: Inside

TEA: Too bad

CHI2: But then I walked outside with my dog, and I biked yesterday.

TEA: You went biking yesterday. That's nice!

CHI3: I also went biking and I was babysitting.

TEA: Okay.

CHI: I went to Stockholm and we visited my brother.

TEA: Was it as nice weather in Stockholm as it was here?

CHI4: Yes, very very nice.

TEA: About the same here, right? Sunny and 18-20 degree?

CHI4: Yes, very warm.

CHI5: I was in Högånäs and watching the game.

TEA: What kind of game was it?

CHI5: Football and I watched my dad's team.

CHI6: My dad and I went to Dunkel.

TEA: But that is inside and dark.

CHI6: Yes, but we went to Ica and bought ice cream and sit outside eating ice cream.

TEA: That is great!

CHI7: How about you, your weekend?

TEA: Oh, my weekend...My friend and I were out and ran in the sun. That was great! The best way of enjoying the sun was running and then enjoying the coffee with a nice company -Two best things to enjoy the sun!

CHI8: So, you are going to take part in the running competition in town?

TEA: Yes, and I want all of you get up and out and cheer up me when I am running competition. (laughing)

CLA: Yeah! (laughing)

(And then the pupils continued to ask some more questions about the teacher's running activities. It was noisy but the pupils took the initiative to ask, talk and communicate).

Extract 5.2 Class 1 (lesson 1)

TEA: Today we are going to talk about the pictures that were put on the floor. I will divide the group with ordering numbers. You will talk in pairs first and then you will be in a bigger groups to talk more.

CLA: yes

(Then, the children were moving around to find their partners, chatting while choosing the pictures and then they looked at the picture of a person and asked the questions as below

How old are you?

Where do you live?

Do you have a family?

What do you like to do on Saturday?

Who are your friends?

What is your favourite food?

What kind of music do you like to listen to?

What makes you angry?

(Then the groups continued their communication about those questions while the teacher walked around to listen to the pairs and groups).

Extract 5.3 Class 1 (lesson 2)

TEA: We are going to start a play-writing project.

CLA: What is it?

CHI1: Do we have to do by ourselves?

TEA: Okay, okay silent. I am going to explain ... Here are some story books that you have read before, for example *Snow White*, *The Ugly Ducking*, *The three little pigs*, *Cinderella*, *Pinocchio*, *Hansel and Gretel*. You will work in group and each group need to write a play based on the story.

CHI3: So, we will make a story and perform the play?

TEA: Yes, yes and we will present it next time.

CHI4: Do we need to make the same story as in the books?

TEA: No, you need to use your imagination to write the manuscripts. It should be fun and interesting and be your own special version of the book.

CHI5: Will we write it in Swedish or English?

TEA: You can write either in Swedish or English, but when you present in front of the class, you need to speak English.

TEA: Now, I am going to group you by chance. Do you think the group of 3 or 5? Which one is better?

CLA: three

TEA: Okay, three then.

After this, the children did group work. This involved sitting in groups of three or four children and brainstorming about the writing project. Most of them had discussions in both Swedish and English. The teacher walked around to the different groups to listen to their ideas, make suggestions and guide them. Then, in the following lesson, the groups started performing their plays. The groups had five minutes to perform and two minutes for the

others to evaluate the group. At that time, they took initiatives to talk, perform and ask questions freely among the pupils.

5.3.1.4. *Materials: type and source*

Table 5.6ab. Materials: type and source in the Swedish classrooms.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Table 5.6a. Type

Type [%]	Class 1	Class 2
Text (Minimal)	8.8	10.2
Text (Extended)	69.4	48
Visual	0	4.1
Combination		
Extended/ Audio	0	2
Extended/ Visual	21.8	35.7
Total [%]	100	100

Table 5.6b Source

Source [%]	Class 1	Class 2
L2-NNS	89.4	100
Student-made	10.6	0
Total [%]	100	100

The most common types of material used in the two Swedish classes were texts of different kinds. *Extended* texts (e.g., stories and dialogues) and *visual* materials (e.g., pictures) were used in all of the lessons. However, *minimal* texts also played a small part in the classrooms (8.8% in class 1 versus 10.2% in class 2). In most cases, materials were designed for second language teaching, that is, *L2-Non-native speakers* (L2-NNS), that is, materials from the course book and teacher-prepared materials and exercises. However, there were some large differences between the classes in their use of materials specifically designed for L2-NNS and student-made materials. The use of L2-NNS materials dominated in class 2 (100%) whereas they made up 89.4% of the materials in class 1. Class 1 used more student-made

materials (10.6 % versus 0% in class 2). The difference could be explained by the fact that the children in class 1 were involved in the pen pal project and the play during the observed lessons and were expected to create their own materials.

5.3.1.5. Target language use in the classrooms

Table 5.7. Target language use in the Swedish classrooms

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Language [%]	Class 1	Class 2
L1	40	1
L2	33.5	69.4
L1/L2	26.5	29.6
Total [%]	100	100

As shown in Table 5.7, L1 alone was hardly ever used in class 2 (1%), but was used to a larger extent in class 1 (40%). The percentage of L2 is higher for class 2 (69.4%) than class 1 (33.5%). Both teachers mostly used a combination of L1 and L2 only when they needed to give translations of their instructions or guidance.

5.2.2. Results: Teacher interviews and online questionnaire

The results of the interviews with the two Swedish teachers were compared to the results of the online questionnaire from the additional 10 Swedish teachers of Grade 5 English in different primary schools in Sweden (See Section 4.3 for a detailed description of the participants and procedure).

i. Do classroom activities entail a lot of teacher-led activities, pupil-led activities, group work, or individual work?

The two interviewed Swedish teachers of Grade 5 English both strongly agreed that classroom activities entailed a lot of group work in almost every lesson. 6 of 10 teachers from the online questionnaire agreed on this point, 1 strongly agreed and 3 disagreed.

ii. Should the focus of activities in the classroom be on meaning (communication) or/and grammar?

The interviewed Swedish teachers stressed that communication should be considered the main activity in the classroom, while the teaching of grammar is a secondary activity (7 out of 10 Swedish teachers from the online questionnaire strongly agreed about this, 1 disagreed, and 2 agreed). One of the teachers said that a typical lesson may involve 70% of the time spent on activities for practising English, and just 15% of the time spent on grammar and 15% on vocabulary.

Swedish teacher 1 emphasised:

I would definitely say my main perspective is that they need to have an English that works functionally and that makes themselves understood. They can understand basic English both written and speech. And grammar, I put less focus on them, for Swedish pupils, it is hard to understand because in Swedish we say the same verb for many people or a person and it can happen that they make errors on 'is and are' as in 'I are happy', but mainly we talk about it and try to get them to the right and talk about developing sense of the language so I can take examples so that they can think which is right or wrong...I also teach the rule but I am not a big fan of traditional English grammar.. the same with spelling and glossaries but the most important is that they understand them and communicate.

(Swedish teacher 1, personal communication, May 16, 2013)

The other Swedish teacher said:

I found the kids are very motivated to learn English in general. I mean even if I give them a boring task, they do it without complaining because they really see the points of learning English... If you only do grammar, it is very easy to lose their interests, then I almost only do the meaning based tasks, but sometimes they come to me and say 'I really want to know how I use 'have' and 'has', I don't know, please explain it', then I have, of course, to do that. They know if you want to be successful in English, you need to speak perfect English and write and be able to express everything in English.

(Swedish teacher 2, personal communication, May 17, 2013)

iii. What are the materials used in the classrooms?

In response to this question, both Swedish teachers said that they mainly used extended texts so that the pupils could develop reading skills and acquire new words from the contexts. 7 out of 10 Swedish teachers from the online questionnaire strongly agreed while 1 agreed, and 2 answered 'no opinion'.

iv. What are the pupils' activities in your classroom?

Both Swedish teachers said that the pupils' main activities were practising English by speaking and listening. 6 out of 10 Swedish teachers in the online questionnaire strongly agreed about this while the rest agreed. For example, one of the interviewed teachers said that pupils participated in role-play dialogues and retold stories or books (that they were asked to read at home before class) in front of the class, after which the other pupils asked questions and gave comments. Another activity involved listening to an audio recording and then discussing the topic.

v. How do you teach grammar in your classroom?

Both Swedish teachers said that they sometimes teach grammar implicitly through conversation, but do not explicitly teach grammar rules, and do not correct mistakes in pupils' speech. 6 out of 10 Swedish teachers in the online questionnaire agreed on this point, 1 strongly agreed and 3 disagreed.

Swedish teacher 1 said:

I do think some of the rules you just have to learn them and in some structures it is easier to understand and guess when you use it, you can tell about the rules but I don't want to put the main focus on the structures then it will be very theoretical.

(Swedish teacher 1, personal communication, May 16, 2013)

Additionally, the teacher said that she did not correct grammar while the pupils were speaking since the pupils need to build up their confidence while speaking another language without being afraid of mistakes.

Swedish teacher 1 emphasized:

No, I never do it if they don't ask me. What I do is that if a pupil tells me 'I buy a new bike yesterday', then I said 'Oh, you bought a new bike' then I repeat it in a good way... Sometimes I see they are searching for a word, then they try something then I say 'oh that is almost a good try' but I never go in and say 'No, that's wrong' and it is very important that they get a flow.

(Swedish teacher 1, personal communication, May 16, 2013)

The other Swedish teacher also shared this view, stating that she almost never corrected the learners' grammatical mistakes while they were speaking.

Swedish teacher 2 said:

Sometimes the other pupils correct each other, most of the time I say 'yes, but that doesn't matter much, it is not a big thing' because I don't want so many small polices sitting there and say 'it's wrong... wrong'. I want to focus more on the parts that are right, not the parts that are wrong. If you focus more on the things that they are good at and they will do more about that and they will develop.

(Swedish teacher 2, personal communication, May 17, 2013)

And when asked if she did not correct the mistakes and whether they would probably make the mistakes again,

Swedish teacher 2 said:

I don't think they will make the same mistakes again and again. They will read it, see it and hear it from the other places, they will get used about it and they will know it even without noticing it sometimes. That is why I want them to read a lot so that they can see how the word looks and how you build the sentence. When they read a lot, listen a lot and watch a lot, they can feel the sense of the correct language.

(Swedish teacher 2, personal communication, May 17, 2013)

The teacher added that the pupils also had some homework, mostly focusing on reading and writing, in which the teacher could correct their mistakes, including grammatical ones, but that this was only done in written form in their notebooks, not during the lesson time or during communicative tasks.

vi. What do you do to improve the pupils' communication in English in the classroom?

Both Swedish teachers answered that providing speaking activities would help improve the pupils' communication in English in the classroom. 8 out of 10 Swedish teachers strongly agreed on this point, 2 agreed.

viii. How much use of English is made in the classroom?

Both Swedish teachers said that they tried to use a lot of English in almost all lessons but that they also used their mother tongue. English was used for 70% of the time and Swedish for 30% of the time in the classroom, according to the Swedish teachers. 6 out of 10 Swedish teachers from the online questionnaire strongly agreed that mostly English was used in all lessons, but that the native language (L1) was also used, 4 agreed on this point.

5.2.3. Summary

The analysis based on the COLT scheme indicated both differences and similarities between the two classes observed in Sweden. The individual Swedish teachers in the lessons differed in relation to the *content* of the lessons, and in the use of L2 in the classroom, with L2 being used more in class 2 than class 1. The main similarities between the two teachers were (1) a communicative approach focusing on meaning; (2) a focus on group work and teacher-led activities (but also a small amount of student control), (3) the use of extended texts in an L2 learning environment in which speaking and communication predominated, and (4) the absence of direct corrections on grammar, and grammatical explanations.

The results of the classroom observations corresponded with what was revealed in the interviews. Additionally, the views of the two interviewed

teachers largely corresponded with those of the other English teachers in Sweden who responded to the questionnaire.

5.3. Results: L2 English classrooms in Vietnam

5.3.1. Results: Classroom observations

The results presented in this section are based on a total of six lessons observed in Vietnam. The total duration of the lessons was 270 minutes. The lessons contained 46 activities, and were taught by three teachers at three public primary schools, distributed as shown in Table 5.8. Each activity and episode was timed, and the percentage of time spent on the different features in the COLT scheme was calculated.

Table 5.8. Distribution of lessons, time, and activities in the classes in Vietnam

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Lessons	2	2	2
Time (minutes)	90	90	90
Activities	16	16	14

As shown in Table 5.8, two lessons were observed in each class in the three Vietnamese schools. The duration of each lesson was 90 minutes. The two lessons in classes 1 and 2 had a total of 16 activities while there were 14 activities in class 3.

5.3.1.1. Participant organisation

Table 5.9. Participant organisation by class in the Vietnamese classrooms, total.
(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Participant organisation [%]	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Primary			
T-> S/C	59.6	49.4	39.3
S->S/C	0	0	0
Choral work by students	6.7	10.1	13.5
Group work – Same task	7.9	10.1	11.2
Group work – Different task	7.9	0	4.5
Group work (total)	15.8	10.1	15.7
Individual – Same task	3.3	0	0
Individual – Different task	0	0	0
Combination			
T-S/C & S-S/C	9.0	0	0
T-S/C & Choral	5.6	30.4	31.5
Total [%]	100	100	100

Note: T = teacher; S = student; C = class

Table 5.9 shows that all three teachers spent around 50 per cent of the time or less in whole-class interaction (59.6% in class 1, 49.4% in class 2 and 39.3% in class 3). Meanwhile, the combination of teacher to class interaction and choral work by children was more prevalent in class 3 (31.5%) and in class 2 (30.4%) as compared to class 1 (5.6%). The teachers of classes 2 and 3 introduced new words and grammatical structures in the lessons and the pupils were expected to repeat what the teachers said. Thus choral repetition was frequently used in classes 2 and 3. Group work, rather than individual work, predominated in all three classes, despite slight differences between the classes (15.8% in class 1, 10.1% in class 2 and 15.7% in class 3). During group work, pupils were often asked to complete exercises in textbooks or practice certain grammatical structures.

The results show similarities between the three classes as follows. (1) There were few or no questions from the pupils. There was also little game play and conversations. (2) Responses from the pupils mostly took the

form of choral work in which the pupils repeated the words, structures or sentences provided by the teachers and in the textbooks. (3) Group work predominated more than individual work. When practising in groups, pupils mostly repeated the words or the structures written on the blackboard and in the textbooks.

5.3.1.2. Content and content control

Table 5.10. Content in the Vietnamese classrooms, total.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Content [%]		Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Primary				
Management	Discipline	1	0	0
	Procedure	9	11	6.1
Language	Function	7.1	12.6	10
	Discourse	0	0	0
	Form	72.4	61.4	60.2
Other topics (meaning)	Narrow	0	0	0
	Broad	0	0	0
	Total	0	0	0
Combinations				
	Function/Form	7.1	3.5	6.8
	Discourse/Broad	0	0	0
	Form/Narrow	3.4	11.5	16.9
	Form/Discourse	0	0	0
Total [%]		100	100	100

The content category refers to the subject matter of the activities of the lessons. As shown in Table 5.10, the three classes differed slightly in the focus of instruction. A focus on *Form* was found in class 1 (72.4%, class 2: 61.4%, class 3: 60.2%). *Function* was seen in all classes (class 2: 12.6%, class 3: 10%, class 1: 7.1%). Some examples of focus being placed on *Function* in classes 2 and 3 were the following. The teacher in class 2 asked a pupil what the question ‘Could/can you pass me the salt?’ could mean in the context of different situations. After this, the class talked about how the question could function as either an interrogative question or as a request. In another example, the teacher in class 3 explained to the class that there were different ways of saying sorry (e.g., ‘I’m sorry’, ‘My apologies’, ‘My mistake’, ‘I had that wrong’). In some cases, the teachers also reminded the pupils that some expressions required the present or past tense. In this way, a combination of *Form* and *Function* was seen in the classes (7.1%

for class 1, 3.5% for class 2 and 6.8% for class 3). The classes also differed in how prevalent *Form – Narrow topic* was. It was more common in class 3 (16.9 %) and class 2 (11.5%), as compared to class 1 (3.4%). This could be explained by the fact that in class 1, the lesson observed focused on explicit form and was exclusively related to grammatical structures and formulas, whereas in classes 2 and 3, a focus on meaning and form was combined. One such case involved the teacher and pupils in class 3 describing the furniture in their house. The teacher provided the vocabulary and the grammatical structure to name different pieces of furniture and to describe where they were located in the house (e.g., *table, chair, TV, picture, kitchen, bedroom, bathroom*; and *there is a picture in my bedroom, there are two tables in the kitchen*, etc.). In this way, the linguistic forms were selected according to the topics to be discussed.

Nevertheless, the table highlights the similarities among the classes rather than the differences as follows.

(1) In terms of *management, classroom procedures* dominated, that is, the teachers mainly gave directions to the children and commands for them to follow (e.g., ‘Please repeat after me!’). The teachers seldom used language for disciplinary purposes since the Vietnamese pupils listened to the teachers in order to show respect. The teachers praised some of the pupils who concentrated on the lesson and volunteered to answer the questions.

(2) The lessons in the Vietnamese classrooms mainly focused on form (72.4% in class 1, 61.4% in class 2 and 60.2% in class 3) and the combination of *form* and *narrow topic* (16.9% in class 3, 11.5% in class 2 and 3.4% in class 1) rather than focusing exclusively on meaning (0% in three classes). *Narrow topics* referred mainly to the classroom and the pupils’ immediate environment (personal information, family, leisure time, etc.). There was a lot of explicit reference to form in the teachers’ instructions, for example the teacher asking the pupils to use the simple present tense when describing their habits.

(3) The teaching was focused on *function*, with teachers explaining the use of English expressions in the context of different situations.

Table 5.11. Content control in the Vietnamese classrooms, total.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Content control [%]	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Teacher/text	93.3	95.5	96.6
Teacher/text/student	4.5	0	0
Student	2.2	4.5	3.4
Total	100	100	100

The *content control* category refers to who it is that selects the topic or task that is the focus of the instruction. There was not much difference in *content control* between the three Vietnamese classes. Topics were determined by the teacher and the texts (the textbook and the materials designed by the teachers) to a large extent (93.3% in class 1, 95.5% in class 2 and 96.6% in class 3). A small amount of time was spent on topics and tasks determined by the children, which mainly involved constructing sentences based on certain grammatical structures that they had learned previously. The teachers also asked the children which game they wanted to play, mainly to practise and review vocabulary items. The Vietnamese pupils had little opportunity to become more involved in their learning by negotiating the tasks and materials used.

5.3.1.3. Student modality

Table 5.12. Student modality in the Vietnamese classrooms, total.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Student modality [%]	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Primary			
Listening	16.6	23.6	18.0
Speaking	38.5	33.7	28.1
Writing	11.2	19.1	10.1
Reading	0	0	2.2
Combination			
Listening/Speaking	33.7	20.2	41.6
Listening/Speaking/Reading	0	3.4	0
Total [%]	100	100	100

As shown in Table 5.12, there was not much difference in the four skills the children used in the three classes, despite some small differences. The classes were similar in that most of the time was spent on speaking (38.5%

in class 1, 33.7% in class 2 and 28.1% in class 3), followed by the combination of speaking and listening (33.7% in class 1, 20.2% in class 2 and 41.6% in class 3) either to the teachers or to other children in the classes. Listening was also a commonly used skill. Pupils listened to the teachers and to audio recordings, before practising saying some sentences or writing them down. Listening and speaking involved many activities geared towards learning grammatical structures and error correction, including choral work, and questions asked by the teachers. Some amount of time in the lessons was also spent on writing. Writing mainly involved copying from the blackboard into the notebooks to review at home and writing some sentences on the blackboard. Not much time was spent on reading. All classes observed in Vietnam had two weekly lessons. In the first weekly lesson plan, the teachers used the textbook and proceeded to teach the four skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing. The second lesson dealt with practising the grammatical structures and using them in speaking and writing activity. Importantly, the pupils did not typically speak in order to communicate, but most of the time were simply repeating what was said by the teachers. Pure grammar instruction, discussion of grammar, and translation of Vietnamese into English were often seen in the classes, as can be seen in the following examples.

Below are some typical examples regarding *participation organisation*, *content*, *content control*, and *activities* in the Vietnamese classes. As is clear from the transcripts, the teachers primarily led the activities in the class, and focused on grammar.

Extract 5.4 Class 1

TEA: Em nào có thể tìm thấy một cấu trúc mới
 2PL who? can find see one structure new

trong đoạn hội thoại này?
 in paragraph conversation DEM

‘Who can find a new structure in this conversation?’

CHI1: going to do tomorrow.

TEA: That is right! Thank you.

TEA: Vậy có một câu là mai bạn sẽ
 then have one sentence as tomorrow 2PL FUT

làm gì thì “we” trong câu là gì?
 do what TM “we” in sentence COP what?

‘If we have a sentence like “what are we going to do tomorrow?”, then what is the word “we” in the sentence?’

CLA2: “We” là chủ từ.
 “we” COP subject word

‘The word “we” is a subject.’

TEA: Yes, correct. What is “are”?

CHI3: “Are” là động từ “to be”.
 “are” COP verb word “to be”

‘“Are” is a “to be” verb.’

TEA: “Yes” chủ từ và động từ phải hòa
 “yes” subject word and verb word must mix

hợp với nhau, và rồi mình thêm vào
 match with together and then 1PL add in

“going to” phải là động từ nguyên mẫu
 “going to” must COP verb word same sample

như cấu trúc sau.
 as structure below

‘Yes, subject and verb need to be in agreement, and then we add “going to” followed by a bare infinitive verb as in the following formula.’

(Writes the formula “*S + to be + going to + V (bare infinitive)*” on the board, and then continues to explain the structure one more time in English and Vietnamese in order to introduce how and when to use the structure.)

Extract 5.5 Class 2

(After reading a text in the textbook, the teacher asks some questions about the text).

TEA: What time does Ruby go to school?

CHI1: At 8 am

TEA: Đứng rồi, khi mình đề cập thời gian
 correct already when 1PL mention time
 để trả lời trong câu này, mình
 to reply in sentence DEM 1PL
 phải dùng giới từ “at”. Giờ lập
 must use preposition “at”. Now repeat
 lại theo cô! “Ruby goes to school at 8 am.”
 again follow 1SG.F

‘Correct! When we mention time in the answer, we should use the preposition “at”. Now, please repeat after me “Ruby goes to school at 8 am”!’

Extract 5.6 Class 3

(During a similar lesson, the other teacher reviewed the former structure).

TEA: Tôi thức dậy lúc 7 giờ sáng
 1SG wake up at seven time morning
 nói tiếng Anh ra sao?
 speak language English into how

‘How do you say “I wake up at 7 am” in English?’

CHI1: I get up at 7 am.

TEA: Yes, correct. “I” là chủ từ, động
 yes, correct “I” COP subject word verb
 từ là “get up”, và theo sau
 word COP “get up” and follow after
 là túc từ, vậy đây là
 COP object word so here COP
 cấu trúc các em đã học như sau
 structure PL 2PL ANT learn as after

“‘I’ is subject, the verb is “get up” and the rest is object, so here is the structure we have learnt.’

(Writes the formula $S + V + O$ on the board and continues)

TEA: Khi chúng ta sử dụng chủ từ số
 when 1PL.INCL use subject word number
 nhiều, vậy động từ cũng là
 plural then verb word also COP

số nhiều hay số ít?
 number many or number little?

‘When we use plural subjects then what happens to the verbs? Plural or singular?’

CLA: Plural

TEA: Đúng rồi, khi chủ từ số nhiều
 correct already when subject word number many
 thì động từ phải ở số nhiều,
 TM verb word must in number many
 nguyên mẫu không có gì đặc biệt như “we wake up”.
 same sample NEG have what special aa “we wake up”

‘Correct, when plural subject, we use plural verbs and the verbs are infinitive, nothing special, for example “we wake up”.’

TEA: Còn đối với chủ từ số
 And according with subject word number
 ít như “she, he, it” thì động từ phải ra sao?
 little as “she, he, it” TM verb word must be how?

‘When we mention singular subjects, such as “she, he, it”, what happens to the verbs?’

CHI2: Phải thêm “s”.
 must add “s”
 ‘An “s” must be added.’

TEA: Yes, here is the formula.

(Writes the formula *I, We, You, They + V infinitive; He, She, I + Vs-es* on the board and continues)

TEA: Nếu mình muốn nói “chúng tôi học tiếng
 if 1PL want speak 1PL.EXCL learn language
 Anh”, thì nói tiếng Anh ra sao?
 English TM speak language English be how

‘Now if we want to say “we learn English”, how do you say that in English?’

CHI3: I learn English.

TEA: Good! Cô ấy học tiếng Anh?
 Good! 3SG.F DEM learn language English?
 ‘Good, how about “That lady learns English”?’

CHI4: She learns English.

TEA: Yes, chúng ta phải có “s” ở trong
 yes 2PL.INCL must have “s” in inside

động	từ	“learn”	khi	dùng	chủ	từ	số
verb	word	“learn”	when	use	subject	word	number
ít	“she”	nhé?					
little	“she”	PART?					

‘Yes, we must add an “s” to the verb “learn” when the singular subject “she” is used. Okay?’

CLA: Dạ
Yes
‘Yes’

(Asks the class to practise the structure by giving the class some other examples in Vietnamese and asks them to translate into English using the same formula).

In short, these examples were used for listening and speaking activities in the Vietnamese classrooms in Grade 5 in order to introduce and practice grammatical structures. The teachers used formulas which the pupils were expected to learn by heart, and used the translation from the mother tongue into the target language to explain the grammatical structures.

5.3.1.4. Materials: Type and source

Table 5.13ab. Materials: Type and source in the Vietnamese classrooms.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Table 5.13a. Type

Type [%]	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Text (Minimal)	96.6	88.8	69.7
Text (Extended)	0	0	0
Audio	0	0	12.3
Visual	3.4	11.2	18.0
Total [%]	100	100	100

Table 5.13b. Source

Source [%]	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
L2-NNS	100	100	100
Student-made	0	0	0
Total [%]	100	100	100

Tables 5.13a and 5.13b show the distribution of the different types and sources of materials used in the lessons. The largest difference among the classes was in the use of audio and visual materials. Only class 3 used audio (cassette) recordings in the lessons, allowing the pupils to hear the text as spoken by a native speaker. Class 1 used a small amount of visual materials (e.g., pictures). There were a lot of similarities between the classes. More than half of the lesson time was spent on minimal texts specifically designed for L2 teaching (96.6% in class 1, 88.8% in class 2, 69.7% in class 3). Pictures were also used in classroom activities to some extent, especially in introducing new vocabulary. For example, in class 2, the teacher introduced the new vocabulary to the class by using pictures of people and animals performing different verbs such as *run*, *fly*, *walk*, *talk*, *swim* and *climb*. He attached the pictures to the blackboard and pointed to one of them, asking the pupils in Vietnamese what it was. The pupils answered in Vietnamese that it was *fly*. Then the teacher said ‘yes’, said new word *fly* in English, and wrote it on the blackboard. The pupils repeated the word *fly* in English and wrote it down in their notebooks. This was followed by iterations for the remainder of the new words. After this, the teacher elicited the use of the verbs in sentences, e.g., *He can swim*; *The bird can fly*.

Only materials designed for second language teaching, that is, textbooks and teacher-prepared material and exercises, were used in the lessons.

5.3.1.5. Target language use in the classrooms

Table 5.14. Target language use in the Vietnamese classrooms.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Language [%]	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
L1	52.8	56.2	51.7
L2	39.3	25.8	40.4
L1/L2	7.9	18.0	7.9
Total [%]	100	100	100

As shown in Table 5.14, L1 was used for more than half of the time in all three Vietnamese classes. The percentage of L2 was only slightly higher for class 3 than class 1. A mixture of L1 and L2 most often occurred when the teachers said things in English and then translated into Vietnamese in

order to make sure the pupils understood, for example, when giving instructions for tasks (e.g., “We are going to do role play with the same conversation in the book”; “I will read the conversation first and you repeat after me”). At times, the teachers used Vietnamese first and then English in order to explain certain grammatical structures and new words and to make sure the children understood the context, as in the following example.

Extract 5.7 Class 1.

TEA: Cô nhắc lại cấu trúc “there is, there are” cho các em.
 1SG.F repeat again structure “there is, there are” for PL 2PL
 Các em còn nhớ cấu trúc đó không?
 PL 2PL still remember structure DEM NEG?

‘I am going to review the structures “there is, there are” for you. Do you still remember them?’

CLA: Dạ
 Yes
 ‘Yes’

TEA: “There is” thì chúng ta dùng với danh từ
 “there is” TM 1PL [inclusive] use with noun word
 số ít phải không?
 number little correct NEG?

‘We use “there is” with singular nouns. Is that correct?’

CLA: Dạ
 yes
 ‘Yes’

TEA: Còn “there are” thì sao?
 And “there are” TM how?
 ‘How about “there are”?’

CLA: Danh từ số nhiều
 noun word number many
 ‘Plural nouns’

TEA: So, here is the formula: *There is + N (singular)...*; *There are + N (plural)...*

(The teacher writes the formula on the blackboard and the pupils write it down in their notebooks).

5.3.2. Teacher interviews and online questionnaire

The results of the interviews of seven questions with three individual Vietnamese teachers of English at Grade 5 are compared to the feedback on the online questionnaire from the other 52 Vietnamese teachers of English in different primary schools in Vietnam, as seen below. See Chapter 4, Section 4.3 for a detailed description of the participants and procedure.

i. Do classroom activities entail a lot of teacher-led activities, pupil-led activities, group work, individual work?

The three interviewed Vietnamese teachers agreed that group work was useful in the classrooms. However, the teachers reasoned that since the pupils are young, they need teacher-led activities, and due to large class sizes, they need primarily whole class interaction. Thus they strongly agreed that classroom activities entailed a lot of teacher-led activities at this level. 33 out of 52 Vietnamese teachers who responded to the online questionnaire strongly agreed on this point, 2 only agreed, and 17 disagreed. One of the teachers explained that she followed the units in the textbook very strictly and said that many exercises in the textbooks were not only suitable to group- or pair work but also whole class interaction.

ii. Should the focus of activities in the classroom be on meaning (communication) or/and grammar?

All three Vietnamese teachers agreed that it was important that the pupils were able to speak English and communicate in English, but they also stressed the need to produce correct English grammar at a basic level. Therefore, in their view, grammar-based activities should be included in the classroom. All three teachers agreed that a combination of meaning (helping the pupils to understand and produce L2 speech) and form (practising grammatical structures) was needed, but that focus on form was the priority at this level. 41 out of 52 Vietnamese teachers who responded to the online questionnaire agreed on this point, the rest disagreed.

Vietnamese teacher 1 said:

At this level, we should focus on the learners' comprehension, conversation and basic grammar by doing drills and exercises, and by speaking. This is due to the fact that it is important to become familiar with the language, as well as to produce and use it correctly at a basic level, before moving on to using the language in broader and more complex contexts. (my translation)

(Vietnamese teacher 1, personal communication, June 3, 2013)

iii. What are the materials used in the classrooms?

The teachers interviewed stated that pupils in Grade 5 were still young and beginners in English and that minimal texts should be used for this reason. 39 out of 52 Vietnamese teachers who responded to the online questionnaire strongly agreed that minimal texts should be commonly used and 13 stated that they agreed. In this way, according to one of the interviewed teachers, the pupils were allowed to “digest the language slowly but surely” at a basic level in order to prepare for extended texts at a higher level. Additionally, another teacher said that pupils could have fun learning the language through pictures and simple songs.

iv. What are the pupils' activities in your classroom?

The three teachers interviewed said that they strongly agreed that the pupils' main activities were activities in the textbook and that most focus was placed on practising grammatical structures and vocabulary, with some focus on speaking activities (29 out of 52 Vietnamese teachers who responded to the online questionnaire strongly agreed about this approach, 8 disagreed and 15 stated that they agreed).

v. How do you teach grammar in your classroom?

Two of the interviewed teachers said that they strongly agreed with the approach of using rules and examples to teach grammar and then doing exercises, and also using drills related to those grammatical structures (37 of the 52 Vietnamese teachers who responded to the online questionnaire strongly agreed on this, 2 agreed and 13 disagreed). The third teacher interviewed said that she most often described the rule and used examples

from texts or dialogues to illustrate the rule. The three interviewed teachers strongly agreed that it was necessary to correct grammatical mistakes in speech and writing.

Vietnamese teacher 2 said:

We all need to correct their grammatical mistakes. Otherwise, they will make it again and again and when they go to higher grades, it can be difficult to correct their habits in making simple grammatical mistakes.

(Vietnamese teacher 2, personal communication, June 5, 2013)

vi. What do you do to improve the pupils' communication in English in the classroom?

The three teachers interviewed said that providing a large amount of speaking activities could improve the pupils' communication in English in the classroom. Two of the three Vietnamese teachers strongly agreed that they provided the pupils with a lot of vocabulary first before the pupils practised speaking, while the third teacher tried to correct pupils' grammar and pronunciation while they were speaking, and would ask the class to repeat structures in chorus so that they would be able to use the same patterns correctly in speaking (38 out of 52 Vietnamese teachers who responded to the online questionnaire strongly agreed that they provided the pupils with a lot of vocabulary first before the pupils practised in speaking, while 14 stated disagreed).

vii. How much use of English is made in the classroom?

The teachers interviewed said that, at this level, it was necessary to use a mixture of English and Vietnamese in the classroom in order for the pupils to be able to understand the teachers in their mother tongue and practise their English at the same time. According to the teachers, 40% English and 60% Vietnamese should be used in the classroom since at this low level, Vietnamese pupils would understand English better through using their mother tongue (40 out of 52 Vietnamese teachers strongly agreed, 6 just agreed and 6 stated 'no opinion').

5.3.3. Summary

The COLT analysis indicated minimal differences and large similarities between the three classes observed in Vietnam. As pointed out by H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen (2007), due to the utilization of nationalized and unified lesson plans in accordance with Decision No 50/2003/QĐ-BGD&ĐT by MOET, the general steps and procedures in English classrooms in Vietnamese primary education are generally quite similar between classes.

The main similarities between the three classes were that (1) classroom activities were focused on form practice, involving repetition and rote-learning; (2) the majority of class time was spent on choral work and teacher-led activities; (3) the use of minimal texts in an L2 learning environment was predominated; (4) the Vietnamese teachers frequently attended to errors in grammar, and often gave grammatical explanations; and finally (5) the L1 (Vietnamese) was used more than the target language L2 (English) in the classrooms.

The results of the teacher interviews and online questionnaire matched the results of the classroom observations, especially in their focus on grammar. Additionally, the opinions expressed by the interviewed teachers were in line with the ideas and opinions expressed by the majority of the teachers that took part in the questionnaire.

5.4. Comparison of English lessons in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms

After having examined the classroom observation data separately for the Swedish and Vietnamese contexts, the aim of the following section is to highlight the most typical similarities and differences between the classes in the two countries.

5.4.1. Quantitative results

The results presented in this section are based on a total of five lessons (26 activities over 268 minutes) in two Swedish classrooms, and six lessons (46 activities over 270 minutes) in three Vietnamese classrooms, distributed as shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15. Distribution of lessons, time, and activities in the classes in Sweden and Vietnam

	Swedish schools			Vietnamese schools			
	Class 1	Class 2	Total	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Total
Teachers	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
Lessons	3	2	5	2	2	2	6
Time (minutes)	170	98	268	90	90	90	270
Activities	15	11	26	16	16	14	46

5.4.1.1. Participant organisation

Table 5.16. Participant organisation by class in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms, total.

(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Participant organisation [%]	Swedish schools	Vietnamese schools
Primary		
T<-> S/C	33.1	48.7
S<->S/C	9.5	0
Choral work by students	0	12.3
Group work – Same task	21.2	10.1
Group work – Different task	18.8	4.2
Group work (total)	40	14.3
Individual – Same task	6.4	1.6
Combinations		
T-S/C & S-S/C	11	3.5
T-S/C & Choral	0	19.6
Total [%]	100	100

As shown in Table 5.16, both the Swedish and Vietnamese pupils were involved in whole class, group and individual work. Both in the Swedish and Vietnamese classes, the teachers predominantly led the activity, but the Vietnamese teachers did this more than the Swedish teachers (48.7% in the Vietnamese classrooms versus 33.1% in the Swedish classrooms). The Vietnamese teachers often asked their pupils to repeat after them, and corrected their mistakes during the assigned tasks. Meanwhile, the Swedish teachers seldom corrected their pupils' mistakes during lessons. In addition, responses from the Vietnamese pupils mostly consisted of choral work (repeating the words, structures or sentences provided by the teachers and in the textbooks), while the Swedish pupils were given many opportunities to interact, for example in group work. Although there were differences between the classes in Sweden and Vietnam with regard to group work (40% in the Swedish classrooms and 14.3% in the Vietnamese classrooms), group work still predominated rather than individual work in both contexts.

5.4.1.2. Content and content control

Table 5.17 Content in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms, total.
(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Content [%]		Swedish schools	Vietnamese schools
Language; Other topics			
Primary			
Language	Function	0	8.1
	Discourse	4.4	0
	Form	14.6	73.9
Other topics (meaning)	Narrow	12.5	0
	Broad	30.5	0
	Total	43	0
Combinations			
	Function/Form	0	6.9
	Function/Broad	4.4	0
	Form/Broad	2.2	0
	Discourse/Broad	21.4	0
	Form/Narrow	7.1	11.1
	Form/Discourse	2.9	0
Total [%]		100	100

Table 5.17 shows a greater focus on meaning (represented by *other topics*) for communicative purposes (43%) rather than form (14.6%) in the Swedish classrooms, while the opposite pattern was seen in the Vietnamese classrooms (73.9% focus on form). The form in focus in the Vietnamese classrooms mainly related to grammar, as well as some focus on vocabulary and pronunciation. *Broad* topics, and the combination of *discourse* and *broad* topics predominated in English lessons in the Swedish classrooms while the main focus in Vietnamese classrooms was on *form* and the combination of *form* and *narrow* topics. *Function* as a primary focus, in combination with *form*, was seen in the Vietnamese classrooms, but not in the Swedish classrooms. This can be explained by the fact that the lessons taught by the Vietnamese teachers made heavy use of textbooks. Each unit in the textbook in the Vietnamese classroom focused on a certain topic with particular relevant expressions and grammatical structures.

Table 5.18. Content control in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms, total. (The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Content control [%]	Swedish schools	Vietnamese schools
Teacher/text	67.8	94.9
Teacher/text/student	5.3	2.2
Student	26.9	2.9
Total [%]	100	100

There was a quite large difference in *Content control* between the classes in Sweden and Vietnam. In the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms observed, most of the topics and texts (the textbook and the materials designed by the teachers) were determined by the teachers (67.8% in the Swedish classrooms versus 94.9% in the Vietnamese classrooms). However, in the Swedish classrooms, both the topic and the task were determined to a certain extent (26.9%) by the children, mainly in communicative tasks and speaking activities. Meanwhile, the Vietnamese pupils had little opportunities to become more involved in their learning by negotiating the tasks and materials (2.9%), the only cases of this were when pupils were asked to make sentences based on a certain grammatical

structure. This indicates that the Vietnamese teachers controlled the activities in the classes more than the Swedish teachers did.

5.4.1.3. Student modality

Table 5.19. Student modality in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms, total.
(The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Student modality [%]	Swedish schools	Vietnamese schools
Primary		
Listening	12.1	19.7
Speaking	31.1	32.3
Writing	3.3	14.2
Reading	0	1.3
Combinations		
Listening/Speaking	51.1	31.3
Listening/Reading	1.3	0
Writing/Reading	1.1	0
Listening/Speaking/Reading	0	1.2
Total [%]	100	100

As seen in Table 5.19, there was not much difference in the various skills the children used in Sweden and Vietnam. A clear similarity between the classes was that the majority of the lessons focused on speaking (31.1% in the Swedish classrooms and 32.3% in the Vietnamese classrooms), followed by listening (12.1% in the Swedish classrooms and 19.7% in the Vietnamese classrooms). A small difference was that half of the lesson time in the Swedish classrooms (51.1%) was spent on a combination of speaking and listening either to the teachers or to other pupils in the classes, while in the Vietnamese classrooms, 31.3% of the lesson time was spent on this. More time was spent on writing in the Vietnamese classrooms than in the classrooms in Sweden. Writing in the Vietnamese classrooms mainly consisted of pupils copying from the blackboard into their notebooks. Reading was very rare in the lessons in both Sweden and Vietnam.

All classes in Sweden and Vietnam had two weekly lessons. Pure grammar instruction and discussion of grammar were not common in Swedish classrooms. Translation was involved in speaking activities in both contexts, but with the difference that in the Vietnamese classrooms, translation of new words and structures from English to Vietnamese was

common while in the Swedish classrooms the tendency was to translate whole texts or long paragraphs.

5.4.1.4. Materials

Table 5.20. Materials: Type and source in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms, total. (The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Table 5.20a. Type

Type	Swedish schools	Vietnamese schools
Text (Minimal)	9.8	85.1
Text (Extended)	56.2	0
Audio	0	4.1
Visual	2.1	10.8
Combination		
Extended/ Audio	1.1	0
Extended/ Visual	30.8	0
Total [%]	100	100

Table 5.20b Source

Source [%]	Swedish schools	Vietnamese schools
L2-NNS	95.3	100
Student-made	4.7	0
Total	100	100

Tables 5.20 a and b show the distribution of different types and sources of materials in the classes. The most prominent difference in the type of materials used in Swedish and Vietnamese classes was that between extended and minimal texts. Extended texts were used in around half of the Swedish classes (56.2%). Meanwhile, minimal texts were primarily used in the Vietnamese classrooms (85.1%). *Audio* and *visual* materials were also used in classroom activities in both Sweden (30.8% combined extended text and visual materials) and Vietnam (10.8% visual materials). Most materials in Sweden and Vietnam were textbooks and teacher-prepared materials and exercises (95.3% in the Swedish classrooms versus 100% in the Vietnamese classrooms). Meanwhile, 4.7% of the time in the Swedish classes was spent using student-made materials, as compared to 0% in the Vietnamese classes.

5.4.1.5. *The target language*

Table 5.21. Target language use in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms, total. (The results are given as percentages of the total amount of time spent on each category).

Language [%]	Swedish schools	Vietnamese schools
L1	20.6	54.5
L2	51.3	33.6
L1/L2	28.1	11.9
Total	100	100

As shown in Table 5.21, the L1 was used in the classes in both countries, but was used more in the Vietnamese classes (54.5%) than in the Swedish classes (20.6%). The L2 was used more in the Swedish classes (51.3%) than in the Vietnamese classes (33.6%). A combination of L1 and L2 was also used in both contexts.

5.4.2. Summary

In sum, the main difference between the Swedish and the Vietnamese classrooms was that there was more focus on communication and group work in the Swedish classes, while the instruction in the Vietnamese classrooms was geared towards grammar teaching and grammar correction, as well as teacher-centred activities. Additionally, broad topics and the target language were used more in the Swedish classes than in the Vietnamese classes.

5.5. Summary and discussion

5.5.1. Teaching practices

The following is a summary of the main findings as regards teaching practices in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms.

(1) There was a more communicative approach in the Swedish classrooms despite a small amount of meaning-oriented activities involving some kind of form practice. This is in line with the findings of previous research (Cabau-Lampa, 1999ab; Malmberg, 2001; Tornberg, 2009; Lundahl, 2012). Meanwhile, there was more of a focus on form practice in the lessons observed in the Vietnamese classrooms, where most of the lesson time was spent teaching grammatical structures and new words. This supports the results of previous research (Khuong, 2015; Le, 2000; Moon, 2005, 2009; H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007).

(2) There were more teacher-centred activities in the Vietnamese classrooms while there was more group work and student control in the Swedish classrooms. Group work has been found to provide opportunities for learners to use the language (Brown, 1991; Cao & Philp, 2006; R. Ellis, 1991).

(3) The materials used in the Swedish classrooms were geared towards communicative purposes, rather than the command of a certain grammatical rule as seen in the Vietnamese classrooms. Rote reading and recall methods were often used in the classes observed in Vietnam, in line with what has been seen in previous research (Le, 2000; Lewis & McCook, 2002; Duong & H. Nguyen, 2006; N. Nguyen, 2014; Trinh, 2005).

(4) The Swedish teachers did not deal with the children's errors, except for some explanations on pronunciation. The Vietnamese teachers frequently attended to errors in grammar.

(5) Finally, the language of instruction in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms was a combination of L1 and L2. The L2 was used more often than the L1 in the Swedish classrooms while the contrary was true for the Vietnamese classrooms, as it may be easier to make the Vietnamese children understand the new words, as well as teacher instructions. This matches with the results of Kieu's study (2010) that Vietnamese teachers

hardly use the target language as language of instruction. In addition, the translation of new words and structures from English to Vietnamese was a commonly used tool in order to help pupils learn the new terms more quickly. Furthermore, the L1 should not be overused in English lessons according to Kieu (2010) with regard to the classes in Vietnam and Enever (2014) with regard to Swedish and other European teachers of English in project ELLiE.

Whilst the use of L1 has an important role in the first stages of young children's introduction to learning a FL, these teachers tended to overuse it and sometimes failed to strategically plan purposeful use.

(Enever, 2014, p. 240)

5.5.2. What teachers say and do: Teacher interviews, online questionnaire and policy documents in Sweden and Vietnam

Despite some similarities regarding classroom activities (such as group work, material and the languages used in the classroom), a major difference between the two contexts was the degree of focus placed on communication and grammar in the classes. The objective of the lessons observed in Sweden appeared to teach the children how to speak and communicate in a broad context rather than to read, write and understand grammar points and basic vocabulary as in the Vietnamese classrooms. Additionally, the Swedish teachers preferred not to correct the pupils' grammatical mistakes while the Vietnamese teachers did. This was in line with the results of teacher interviews.

On the one hand, the Vietnamese teachers said in the interviews that providing speaking activities and group work within communicative language teaching could improve pupils' communication in English in the classroom. On the other hand, their behaviour in the classroom did not reflect these beliefs. The grammar-translation teaching method is still popular in English language classrooms at the primary school level. Hiep (2007) found that the teachers in his study believed in communicative language teaching but that in practice, were deterred due to difficulties in organising pair and

group work, and due to “systematic constraints” (traditional structure-based exams, large class sizes), “cultural constraints” (beliefs about the dominant role of the teacher in the classroom), and “personal constraints” (students’ low motivation in independent learning activities and teachers’ limited expertise in CLT). However, the teachers in the current study did say that they still used a lot of grammar correction. This matched with the reality in English classrooms.

Furthermore, most responses from the online questionnaire matched with those obtained in the teacher interviews. This, to some degree, shows that the Swedish and Vietnamese teachers had similar ideas to those of other teachers in Grade 5, although there were some small variations among the teachers.

In regard to policy documents, the Swedish curriculum for Grade 5 English focuses on communication in English and fluency in speech and writing, as well as increased understanding about English-speaking countries. According to the Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket, 2011c), English instruction at the primary school level should aim to develop “a comprehensive communicative ability” in young Swedish learners of English (See Section 3.2.2 ‘Policy documents’ for further details). Meanwhile, the Vietnamese curriculum focuses on meaning and form in English, and on the use of English with correct grammatical structures at a basic level, including simple vocabulary and pronunciation. The 2010 curriculum (MOET, 2010) reflects the Vietnamese Ministry of Education’s desire to employ communicative language teaching in English lessons for Vietnamese children. The policy documents regulating English education at the primary school level both in Sweden (Skolverket, 2011b, c) and in Vietnam (MOET, 2003, 2010) specify that pupils should be trained in four skills: listening comprehension, speaking, writing and reading, in order to be able to communicate in English and express themselves simply and understandably in oral and written production. Both the Swedish and Vietnamese teachers in the present study (including the majority of the teachers in both countries who responded to the online questionnaire) referred to and followed their official national curriculum.

In short, differences were seen in teaching practices in the two countries, both in terms of the practices of individual teachers and of the national-level education systems. In the case of English language teaching in the Swedish and Vietnamese classrooms observed in the present thesis, the national differences were much larger than the individual teacher differences within countries.

Chapter 6.

Results: Learner outcomes

6.1. Introduction

Having presented in Chapter 4 how the sample was selected and the procedure of the study of learner outcomes, this chapter presents the results of the study of learner outcomes in Sweden and Vietnam. The aim of this empirical study is to examine the similarities and differences in learner outcomes between the Swedish and Vietnamese groups in general, and to tap into the participants' procedural and declarative knowledge of English 3-sg-s and their lexical repertoire. The study aims to answer two research questions, namely, 1) if there is a relationship between the learners' procedural and declarative knowledge, and 2) if the learner outcomes relate to teaching practices.

In this introductory section (6.1), I will provide a short summary of the method, before moving on to the presentation of the results in the sections that follow. In the two sections that follow, the results concerning the learning outcomes of L2 English learners in the two contexts are presented separately, the results from Sweden are presented in Section 6.2, and from Vietnam in Section 6.3. The presentation includes the learner outcomes on procedural and declarative knowledge, and the lexical repertoire, followed by a summary and discussion of the results on learning outcomes in each context. In the closing section of the chapter (6.4), I compare the outcomes of Swedish and Vietnamese learners on the types of linguistic knowledge. This section includes three subsections, the first compares lexical richness (token/type) between the Swedish and Vietnamese learners (6.4.1); the second presents and discusses the comparison of procedural and declarative knowledge of English 3-sg-s between Swedish and Vietnamese learners (6.4.2); and in the final subsection (6.4.3), statistical methods are

used to examine the relationship between procedural and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s in the two groups.

6.1.1. Method

6.1.1.1. Participants

The Swedish and Vietnamese participants were taken from the Grade 5 English classes observed in the study of teaching practices. 32 Swedish participants (12 females) and 44 Vietnamese participants (28 females) participated in the study on learner outcomes (see Table 4.2). For further details on participants, see Chapter 4 (Section 4.4).

6.1.1.2. Task and materials

The participants completed a speech production task and a written metalinguistic task. The participants' procedural knowledge and lexical repertoire are examined in picture description task (See pictures in Appendix 7). Declarative knowledge was investigated by means of a metalinguistic task (acceptability judgement) in which participants were required to select between two expressions and were asked to explain the reasons for their choice by referring to grammatical rules (see Appendix 8). Both the tests of procedural and declarative knowledge focused on 3-sg-s. For more details on the tasks and materials, see Chapter 4 (Section 4.4).

6.2. Results: Swedish learner outcomes

6.2.1. The size of the sample

The numbers of words, verbs, T-units and turns produced in the task by the Swedish learners were counted in order to get an overview of the sample size in the picture description task (see Table A, Appendix 10).

The total length of the recordings made was five and a half hours. During this time the learners produced a total of 3150 word tokens, 457 T-units and 190 turns. As can be seen in Table A, Appendix 10, the participants varied in terms of the number of words they produced (between 51 and 189 word tokens), and the average number of word tokens produced by the participants in the picture description task was 98.44.

Similarly, the number of word types used varied among participants: the minimum was 29 and the maximum was 88, while the average number of word types for the Swedish participants was 50.56.

The average number of T-units per turn was 6.53 for the Swedish participants. The number of T-units varied: the minimum was 9 and the maximum was 26, with an average T-unit per participant of 14.28 for the picture description task.

6.2.2. Procedural knowledge

In order to examine the procedural knowledge of English 3-sg-s of the learners, occurrences of the morphological marker on verbs were analysed. The analysis included V-*ing* without a copula (*he reading*; PT-stage 2), copulas/auxiliaries (*he is eating*; PT-stage 4), and lexical verbs (*he wakes up*; PT-stage 5). Based on the occurrences in the data, a distributional analysis was undertaken. The results are presented in the implicational table below (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1. Implicational scaling (for the Swedish participants)

Stage	Structure	1	2	4	9	7	13	19	14	32	8	18	15	17	24	31	5	3	28	10	12	6	30	23	16	20	29	11	25	26	22	27	21		
5	3-sg-s	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	(+)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
4	Cop/Aux agr	/	/	/	-	/	/	/	-	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	/	/	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
3	PL-egr	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
2	V-ing	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
1	Lemmas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Note: 3-sg-s = Third person singular -s; Copula SV agr = Copula subject-verb agreement; Auxiliary SV-agr = auxiliary subject-verb agreement; PL-agreement = plural agreement; V-ing = a verb ending in *-ing*, without an auxiliary, or a copula.

The first column of Table 6.1 shows the PT stages of the structures. The grammatical structures related to the respective stage are listed in the second column, while the following columns refer to individual participants from 1 to 32. A plus '+' in the table means that at least two occurrences of the structure have been produced in obligatory contexts, a minus '-' marks that no occurrences were produced despite at least two obligatory contexts, and a slash '/' means that no obligatory contexts for the structure were produced. A plus within parentheses (+) indicates that only one occurrence has been recorded. Observe that PT-stage 3 (NP plural agreement) was not relevant in the elicitations and is only included in the table in order to illustrate the full PT-hierarchy.

The implicational scaling revealed that the verb markings produced by the Swedish participants were implicationally related. In other words, a learner that was able to produce Stage 5 also produced Stages 2 and 4. For example, the learners who acquired the highest stage of 3-sg-s, such as learners 11, 25, 26, 22, 27, 21, also produced the verb markings of the lower stages. A few learners (learners 1, 2, 4, 9) did not use any verb morphology, and were placed at Stage 1, where only lemmas were used.

6.2.3. Declarative knowledge

32 Swedish participants completed the declarative knowledge test on the structure 3-sg-s, in which they were first required to select correct sentences and then to explain the reason for their choice (in Swedish). The test scores show that only one participant (child 6) chose the correct sentence on all 4 test items, 3 participants chose the correct sentence on 3 test items, and the remaining chose the correct sentence on 1 or 2 test items. Participants' responses were then compared with their explanations of the reasons behind their selection, to see if they knew how to describe the rules governing 3-sg-s. The results showed that most of the participants give several different explanations for the 3-sg-s rule. In the following section, the task is illustrated with examples from the participants.

6.2.3.1. Question 1

1. They sings well.

Is the sentence right or wrong? Why did you choose that answer?

Target response: *Wrong*. The grammatical subject is required to agree with the verb in tense and number (Hasselgård et al., 1998; Pienemann, 1998). The subject “they” is a plural pronoun and thus requires a verb in plural form. Therefore, “-s” should not be used and the correct form is “They sing” in the present tense. In PT it is important that one form of a word is used in the appropriate context: “-s” is only used when there is a third person singular subject. The participants gave the following explanations:

Table 6.2. Answers to Question 1 from the Swedish participants (answers are translated from Swedish)

Answers to Question 1 given by the Swedish participants	Total number
‘It sounds good.’, or ‘It does not sound good.’	12
‘“S” makes it plural.’	6
‘People often say “they are singing”, not “they sings”’.	5
No explanation.	4
‘I just made a guess.’	3
‘When there are many, it should be “they sing”. When it is “he/she/it”, it should be “sings”’.	2

In the responses to Question 1, 19 participants (59%) stated that the sentence was incorrect while 13 participants (41%) considered it correct. As shown in Table 6.2 above, among the 19 participants who deemed the sentence incorrect, only two focused on the singular–plural distinction in their explanation of the rule. Their explanations are given in Examples 6.1 and 6.2 below.

- (6.1) Learner 6 *För att här är det flera så ska det vara “they sing”. När det är “he/she/it” så ska det vara “sings”.*
‘Because there are several people, it should be “they sing”. When it is “he / she / it”, it should be “sings”.’
- (6.2) Learner 25 *För att de är många.*
‘Because they are many.’

5 participants stated that the present continuous should be used, i.e., “they

are singing”, as in Example 6.3.

- (6.3) Learner 28 *För att man säger “they are singing”, inte “they sings”.*
‘Because you say “they are singing”, not “they sings”.’

Some of the participants explained their choice by referring to the noun plural rather than subject–verb agreement, as in Examples 6.4–5.

- (6.4) Learner 19 *För att det är flera och då är det “s” på verbet.*

‘Because they are many, so there is an “s” on the verb.’

- (6.5) Learner 27 *Det är rätt för att “sings” är när det är flera personer och när det är “sing” så är det en person. “S” gör att det blir flera personer.*

‘It is correct because “sings” is for several people while “sing” is for one person. “S” makes it plural.’

In such cases it appears that participants confused the affix ‘-s’ on plural nouns and the 3-sg-s affix on verbs.

12 out of 32 participants stated that ‘it sounds good’ or ‘it does not sound good’, and three participants wrote ‘I just made a guess’. The remaining participants gave no explanation.

6.2.3.2. Question 2

2. Peter (*drive/drives*) a taxi.

Which word in the brackets should you use to fill in the blank? Why did you choose that answer?

Target response: *Drives* is the correct answer. “Peter” is a singular third-person subject requiring the singular form of the verb “drives”.

Table 6.3. Answers to Question 2 from the Swedish participants

Answers to Question 2 given by the Swedish participants	Total number.
'It sounds correct.'	9
'An "s" would have indicated that several people performed the action.'	7
'"Drives" is present or future, 'drive' is past.'	7
No explanation	5
'I just made a guess.'	2
'In Swedish, you say "drive" to all people. In English, you say "drive" to everyone.'	2

For Question 2, 13 participants (40%) chose "drives" and 19 (59%) chose "drive" as the correct form. Among the 13 participants who chose the correct form, only one gave the correct explanation, given in Example 6.6.

- (6.6) Learner 6 *"Peter drives a taxi" för att han är en person.*
 "Peter drives a taxi" because he is one person.'

7 of the 19 participants who chose "drive" as the correct form expressed the idea that "drive" was for a singular subject (referring to either the word "he" or "a taxi"), as can be seen in Examples 6.7–10.

- (6.7) Learner 4 *För att han bara är en.*
 'Because he is only one.'
- (6.8) Learner 31 *För att det är en person och då är det inget "s" på verbet.*
 'Because it is one person, so there is no "s" on the verb.'
- (6.9) Learner 27 *Jag valde "drive" för att det inte finns något "s" för om det hade varit ett "s" så hade det varit flera personer.*
 'I chose "drive" without the "s", because if there was an "s" it would have been several people.'
- (6.10) Learner 9 *"Peter drive a taxi" för han kör en inte två.*
 "Peter drive a taxi" because he drives one, not two.'

In such cases, the participants focused on "-s" as a plural marker on nouns, as was the case in Examples 6.4 and 6.5 above.

Some participants gave explanations relating to the future, present and past tenses. They appeared to believe that zero "-s" indicated present or future tense while '-s' indicated the past tense.

- (6.11) Learner 20 *För att när det är i nutid så skriver man till exempel "drives" istället för "drive". "Drive" är i dåtid.*
 'Because when it is in the present tense you write for example "drives" rather than "drive". "Drive" is in past tense.'
- (6.12) Learner 25 *För att "drive" är framtiden t.ex. "I want to drive tomorrow". "Drives" är nutid.*
 'Because "drive" is the future, e.g. "I want to drive tomorrow". "Drives" is present.'

Two participants explained their choices based on the fact that Swedish verb suffixes do not change with number, and thus that there should be no suffix "-s" on "drive", as in Examples 6.13–14 below.

- (6.13) Learner 32 *På svenska så säger man "åker" till alla personer. På engelska säger man "drive" till alla.*
 'In Swedish you say "drive" to all people. In English you say "drive" to everyone.'
- (6.14) Learner 29 *Det är svårt att förklara. Det låter som sagt konstigt och om jag skulle säga "Peter kör en taxi" på svenska skulle jag använt "drive".*
 'It is difficult to explain. It sounds strange and if I would say "Peter drives a taxi" in Swedish, I would use "drive".'

Some participants stated that 'it sounds correct' or 'I just made a guess', and the rest gave no explanation.

6.2.3.3. Question 3

3. *The dog often..... (eat/eats) fishes.*

Which word in the brackets should you use to fill in the blank? Why did you choose that answer?

Target response: *Eats* is the correct answer. "The dog" is a singular noun which requires the singular form of the verb with an "-s", regardless of the plural form of the object following the verb.

Table 6.4. Answers to Question 3 from the Swedish participants

Answers to Question 3 given by the Swedish participants	Total number
No explanation	12
'It sounds correct.'	8
“Eat” is present or future, ‘ate’ is past.’	5
“Eat” is chosen because it is only one dog. If there had been many dogs, that would be ‘eats.’	4
‘It should be “the dog often eating fishes”.’	1
‘I just made a guess.’	1
‘The dog “eats” because there is only one dog which often eats fishes.’	1

In response to Question 3, 22 participants (68%) chose “eats”. However, only one participant provided an explanation that related to subject–verb agreement, given in Example 6.15.

- (6.15) Learner 6 *“The dog eats” för att det är bara en hund som ofta äter fiskar.*
 ““The dog eats” because there is only one dog that often eats fishes.”

Other participants suggested that “eat” should be the choice for a singular subject, as in Examples 6.16–17.

- (6.16) Learner 19 *Det ska vara “the dog often eat fishes” för det är en hund.*
 ‘It should be “the dog often eat fishes” because it is one dog.’
- (6.17) Learner 23 *Det är bara en hund. Om det hade varit fler skulle det vara “eats”.*
 ‘It is only one dog. If there had been more, it would be “eats”.’

Similar to the responses to Question 2, some participants who chose “eat” in Question 3 gave explanations relating to the future, present and past tenses. One participant appeared to believe that zero “-s” (“eat”) indicated future tense (Example 6.18), and another specified that the correct form is “ate”, based on the impression that the sentence referred to a situation in the past (Example 6.19).

- (6.18) Learner 31 *“Eat” är framtiden det ska vara “ate”.*
 ““Eat” is the future, it should be “ate”.’

(6.19) Learner 33 *Det ska vara "ate fishes" för att "ate" beskriver något som har hänt och meningen ska betyda "hunden åt fiskar", "ate" betyder åt.*
 'It's supposed to be "ate fishes" because "ate" describes something that has happened and the sentence should mean "the dog ate fishes", "ate" means "åt"⁵.'

Another participant suggested "eating" instead of "eat", as in 6.20.

(6.20) Learner 25 *För det ska vara "the dog often eating fishes". Det ska vara "eating" istället för "eat".*
 'Because it should be "the dog often eating fishes". It should be "eating" instead of "eat".'

The remainder of the participants stated that 'it sounds correct' or 'I just made a guess', or gave no explanation.

6.2.3.4. Question 4

4. *She often plays piano at 8 am.*

Is the sentence right or wrong? Why did you choose that answer?

Target response: The subject 'she' is a singular personal pronoun which requires the third person singular form of the verb: "plays". The adverb "often" expresses a habit.

Table 6.5. Answers to Question 4 from the Swedish participants

Answers to Question 4 given by the Swedish participants	Total number
No explanation	10
'It sounds correct.'	7
"Plays" is a plural verb because she "often" plays pianos, not just once.'	6
'An "s" means more than 2.'	4
'I just made a guess.'	3
'There is one person and "plays" is a singular verb.'	2

In response to the final question, 8 out of 32 participants (25%) stated that the sentence was correct, 15 (46%) considered it incorrect, and 9 stated that

⁵ "Åt" is the Swedish past tense form of the verb 'eat'.

they did not know. Two participants explained that the sentence was right because there was one person, and “plays” was a singular verb, as in Example 6.21.

- (6.21) Learner 15 *Det är rätt för att det är en person och “plays” är ett verb i singular.*
‘It is correct because it is one person and “plays” is a verb in the singular.’

Some participants suggested that “s” was plural, as in Example 6.22.

- (6.22) Learner 18 *Det är fel på grund av “s”: ett “s” betyder fler än 2, det betyder även “plural”.*
‘It is wrong because of “s”: an “s” means more than 2, it also means plural.’

Meanwhile, in many cases, participants considered the sentence correct, referring to the word “often”. These participants argued that “s” is plural, because she often plays piano, not just once.

- (6.23) Learners 25 *“Plays” är ett verb i plural för att hon spelar ofta pianon och inte att hon gjort det 1 gång.*
‘“Plays” is a verb in the plural because she often plays pianos and not that she has done it just once.’
- (6.24) Learner 28 *För att hon gör det flera gånger.*
‘Because she does it several times.’

The remainder of the participants stated that ‘it sounds correct’ or ‘I just made a guess’, or gave no explanation.

6.2.4. Summary and discussion

The Swedish participants' lexical repertoire varied but the average number of word types used by a participant in the picture description task was 50.6. With regard to procedural and declarative knowledge, 12 out of 32 of the Swedish participants (37,5 %) reached stage 5 of 3-sg-s in the picture description task, but only one of them (3%) (participant 6) could formulate the rule and explain it grammatically (that an -s must be added to the verb after the third person) in three of the four questions. 3 out of 32 Swedish participants (9%) (participants 15, 18, 24) could do that in one or two questions. In general, the Swedish participants' procedural knowledge had thus reached a higher level than their declarative knowledge.

The results of the declarative knowledge (acceptability judgement) test showed that the learners had many different hypotheses about the suffix 's'. The Swedish participants were often under the impression that the suffix '-s' was a plural marker for both nouns and verbs. This reflected the findings of the STRIMS project (Malmberg et al., 2000), in which pupils often suggested that an '-s' added to verbs was for plural nouns, not singular nouns (see examples in Malmberg et al., 2000, p. 48). The interpretation of the authors is that:

Det bestående intrycket av elevernas förståelse av 's'-morfemet i tredje person singular presens blir att eleverna, framför allt i årskurs 5, inte kan ta till sig några grammatiska förklaringar.

(The lasting impression of the pupils' understanding of the 's' morpheme in the third person singular present tense is that the pupils, especially in Grade 5, cannot take in any grammatical explanations.)

(Malmberg et al., 2000, p. 50, my translation)

In a similar vein, Källkvist & Petersson's (2006) study showed that neither 14-year-old learners in Grade 8 nor 17-year-olds attending upper-secondary schools could "grasp" the 3-sg-s easily. Only 41% of the 14-year-olds and 31% of the 17-year-olds in the study were able to state a simple rule in relation to the use of the verbs *was/were*, *is/are* and *get/gets*. Most of the participants gave inaccurate responses because they confused

the singular and plural subjects, such that, for example, *gets* was associated with a plural subject, and *get* with a singular subject.

The 3rd person singular *-s* is a homograph as well as homophone of the plural *-s* morpheme.

(Källkvist & Petersson, 2006, p. 129)

Some Swedish participants in the present study considered the sentence in Question 1 incorrect, stating that it should be “they are singing” in the present continuous. A similar result was found by Köhlmyr (2001), who found that many Swedish students had problems with the simple present tense and hence often replaced it with the present progressive form.

The most frequent form of category substitution involving the simple present consists in replacing it with the present progressive.

(Köhlmyr, 2001, p. 56)

Furthermore, an L1 influence was seen in the declarative explanations given by some participants. However, the discussion on L1 influence is usually about procedural knowledge, whereas the L1 influence in declarative knowledge found in the present study is rather a metalinguistic activity, when the learners compare the two languages.

The results of the procedural and declarative knowledge tests from the Swedish learners will be analysed in more detail in Section 6.4 where comparison is made with the results from the Vietnamese learners.

6.3. Results: Vietnamese learner outcomes

6.3.1. The size of the Vietnamese sample

The number of words, T-units and turns were counted in order to get an overview of the sample size in the picture description task (see Table B, Appendix 10).

The total length of the recordings made was nine hours. During this time the participants produced a total of 1958 word tokens, 549 T-units and 410 turns.

The number of word tokens used by participants varied between 8 words and 92 words. The average number of word tokens per participant for the Vietnamese learners was 44.50.

Similarly, the number of word types varied: the minimum was 6 and the maximum was 55, while the average number of word types per participant was 27.27.

The average number of T-units per turn was 1.45 for the Vietnamese participants. The number of T-units also varied: the minimum was 5 and the maximum was 19, with an average T-unit per participant of 12.48.

6.3.2. Procedural knowledge

The procedural knowledge of English 3-sg-s among 44 Vietnamese learners was examined by analysing the occurrences of morphological markers in each learner's picture descriptions. In Table 6.6, Stage 2 refers to occurrences of a verb ending in *-ing*, without an auxiliary *V-ing* (*he reading*), Stage 4 refers to copula/auxiliary verb markings (*he is eating*), Stage 5 refers to 3-sg-s on lexical verbs. As in the previous table (see Table 6.1), PT Stage 3 is given only in order to give the full PT hierarchy. A distributional analysis of learner utterances was built, which showed the five stages of development. Table 6.6 shows the implicational scaling of the learners' morphology.

Table 6.6. Implicational scaling (for the Vietnamese participants)

Stage	Features	2	3	4	5	8	9	13	19	30	32	42	20	6	43	40	11	21	12	16	34	35	36	37	33	29	28	1	15	38	7	14	22	24	26			
5	3-sg-s	-	/	-	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
4	Cop/Aux agr	-	-	-	/	-	/	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
3	PL-agr	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
2	V-ing	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	(+)	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
1	Lemmas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Stage	Features	27	44	41	31	39	23	17	25	10	18
5	3-sg-s	-	-	-	/	-	-	-	-	-	+
4	Cop/Aux agr	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
3	PL-agr	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
2	V-ing	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	(+)	(+)	(+)
1	Lemmas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Note: 3-sg-s = Third person singular -s; Copula SV agr = Copula subject-verb agreement; Auxiliary SV-agr = Auxiliary subject-verb agreement; PL-agr = Plural agreement; V-ing = a verb ending in -ing, without an auxiliary, or a copula.

Table 6.6 is laid out as an implicational table. The first column shows the PT stages of the structures. The grammatical structures related to the respective stage are listed in the second column, while the following columns refer to individual participants from 1 to 44. A plus '+' in the table means that at least two occurrences of the structure have been produced in obligatory contexts, a minus '-' marks that no occurrences were produced despite at least two obligatory contexts, and a slash '/' means that no obligatory contexts for the structure were produced. A plus within parentheses (+) indicates that only one occurrence has been recorded.

The implicational table shows that more than half of the Vietnamese participants were at Stage 4 (30 participants), and the remainder at Stage 1 (12 participants), Stage 2 (1 participant), and only 1 on Stage 5. Noun phrase agreement was not elicited in the task, and it is only included in the table in order to illustrate the full PT-hierarchy. The implicational scaling revealed that the verb markings produced by the Vietnamese participants were implicationally related, but there were not enough data for every stage. For example, learner 18 was able to produce Stage 5 also produced Stages 4 and 1. Learner 6 was on stage 2 who did not produce the features of stages 4 and 5, but stage 1. Some of them (participants 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 13, 19, 30, 32, 42, 20) did not use any verb morphology, and were placed at Stage 1, where only lemmas were used.

6.3.3. Declarative knowledge

Like the Swedish participants, 44 Vietnamese participants, the same participants who completed the picture description task, completed the acceptability judgement task on the structure 3-sg-s, in which they first selected one of two expressions and then explained the reason for their choice. The results of the test showed that 22 of the 44 Vietnamese participants (50%) answered all 4 questions correctly. 4 learners (9.09%) answered 3 questions correctly, 9 (20.45%) answered 2 questions correctly, 5 (11.36%) answered 1 question correctly and 4 (9.09%) did not answer any questions correctly. Most of the participants who received the highest scores also gave correct explanations of the rule governing the use of 3-sg-s. Other participants gave other explanations for the 3-sg-s rule,

typically involving the meaning of the sentences and the use of ‘-s’ as a plural marker. The target answers and explanations for the rule are the same as those listed for the Swedish participants (see Section 6.2.3 for further detail).

6.3.3.1. Question 1

1. *They sings well.*

Is the sentence right or wrong? Why did you choose that answer?

Table 6.7. Answers to Question 1 by the Vietnamese participants (answers are translated from Vietnamese)

Answers to Question 1 given by the Vietnamese participants	Total number
‘When it is “I/we/they”, the verb does not have an “s”.’	26
“They” means many people so ‘sing’ should have an “s”.’	8
“They are singing”, not “they sings”.’	5
No explanation	4
‘I just made a guess.’	1

In response to Question 1, 30 Vietnamese participants (68%) stated that the sentence was incorrect and the rest, 14 participants (32%), considered it correct. Among the 30 participants who considered the sentence correct, 26 (86%) provided an accurate explanation of the rule, i.e., that there should not be an “s” for the verb “sing” because “they” means “many people”. A few examples of participants’ explanations are given below.

(6.25) Learner 18 *Bởi vì “they” là đại từ số nhiều nên “sing” chúng ta không phải thêm “s”.*

‘Because “they” is a plural pronoun, we do not need to add an “s” to “sing”.’

(6.26) Learner 2 *Vì chủ từ là “I, we, they” thì động từ không thêm “s”. Chỉ có “he, she, it” mới thêm “s”.*

‘When there are subjects “I/ we/ they”, the verb does not have an “s”. Only when the subject is “he/ she/ it”, then we add an “s” to the verb.’

- (6.27) Learner 18 *Sai vì ta không thêm “s” vào động từ số ít, nhưng vào động từ số nhiều thì hiện tại.*
 ‘It is wrong because we do not add an “s” to the singular verb, but the plural verb in the present tense.’
- (6.28) Learner 30 *Sai bởi vì động từ của “I, we, they” không cần phải thêm “s”. Chỉ có các động từ của “he, she” cần thêm “s”.*
 ‘It is wrong because there is no “s” added to the verbs of “I/ we/ they”. We only add an “s” to the verbs of “he/she”.’

Meanwhile, some participants said that the verb “to be” is missing in the sentence, and one learner (learner 17) knew the plural form of “be” (i.e. “are”).

Other participants considered the sentence correct and referred to the plural, as in Examples 6.29–6.31.

- (6.29) Learner 3 *Vì “they” là nhiều người - số nhiều, động từ “sing” phải có “s”.*
 ‘Because “they” are many - plural, the verb “sing” must have an “s”.’
- (6.30) Learner 32 *Đúng là vì động từ số nhiều ở thì hiện tại phải thêm “s” vào, nhưng không thêm “s” đối với số ít.*
 ‘It is right because the plural verb in the present tense is with “s” added, but the singular is without “s” added.’
- (6.31) Learner 38 *Đúng vì chúng ta không thêm “s” vào dạng số ít ở thì hiện tại, mà vào dạng số nhiều.*
 ‘It is right because we do not add an “s” to the singular form in the present tense, but to the plural form.’

In such cases, the participants seemed to understand that ‘-s’ was a plural marker for both nouns and verbs.

Some learners did not give any explanations and one stated that ‘I just made a guess’.

6.3.3.2. Question 2

2. Peter (drive/drives) a taxi.

Which word in the brackets should you use to fill in the blank? Why did you choose that answer?

Table 6.8. Answers to Question 2 by the Vietnamese participants

Answers to Question 2 given by the Vietnamese participants	Total number
“Peter” is a proper name and it is one person, so the verb is singular “drives”.	26
‘There is one person, so “drive” without “s” is singular.’	14
No explanation	4

For Question 2, 29 participants (65%) chose “drives” as in “*Peter drives a taxi*” and 15 participants (34%) chose “drive”. All 29 participants who gave the correct answer also gave the correct explanation. A few examples are given below.

- (6.32) Learner 18 *Em chọn “drives” bởi vì chủ từ là số ít “Peter”.*
 ‘I chose “drives” because of the singular subject “Peter”.’
- (6.33) Learner 25 *Lái taxi là công việc của Peter nên “he drives”, not “he drive”.*
 ‘Driving a taxi is Peter’s job, so “he drives”, not “he drive”.’
- (6.34) Learner 43 *Peter là danh từ riêng và 1 người, nên động từ là số ít “drives”.* “Peter” is a proper name and it is one person, so the verb is singular “drives”.’
- (6.35) Learner 1 *1 người và thì hiện tại đơn nên em chọn “drives”.*
 ‘There is one person and it is the simple present tense, so I chose “drives”.’

14 of the 15 participants who chose ‘drive’ gave explanations in which they appeared to express the belief that zero ‘-s’ was for a singular subject (either referring to the word ‘he’ or ‘a taxi’), as in Examples 6.36–40.

- (6.36) Learner 3 *Bởi vì “Peter” là một người duy nhất, nên “drive” không có “s” được chọn.*
 ‘Because “Peter” is only one person, “drive” without “s” is chosen.’

- (6.37) Learner 8 *Em chọn “drive” bởi vì nếu em chọn “drives”, thì “a” không nên có ở trong câu này.*
 ‘I chose “drive” because if I had chosen “drives”, “a” should have not been in the sentence.’
- (6.38) Learner 19 *Bởi vì “Peter” là tên riêng số ít, nên ta không nên thêm “s” vào “drive”.*
 ‘Because “Peter” is a singular proper name, “drive” should not be added with an “s”.’
- (6.39) Learner 33 *Vì “drives” là một động từ số nhiều và nó không đúng trong câu.*
 ‘Because “drives” is a plural verb and it is not correct in the sentence.’
- (6.40) Learner 41 *Em chọn “drive” vì “a” là số ít, “drive” không có “s” là số ít.*
 I chose “drive” because “a” is singular, “drive” without “s” is singular.’

The remaining participants gave no explanations.

6.3.3.3. Question 3

3. The dog often..... (eat/eats) fishes.

Which word in the brackets should you use to fill in the blank? Why did you choose that answer?

Table 6.9. Answers to Question 3 by the Vietnamese participants

Answers to Question 3 given by the Vietnamese participants	No.
“The dog” means “it”, so the verb following “it” must end with an “s”.	21
No explanation	12
“Eat” is a singular verb.’	7
‘The verb must have an “s” when there are many fishes.’	4

In response to Question 3, 30 of the 44 participants (68%) chose “eats”, and among these, 21 participants explained that “the dog” is a singular noun which requires the singular form of the verb with an “s” added, as in 6.41–4.

- (6.41) Learner 15 *Em chọn “eats” vì “eats” là số ít phải thêm “s”, và “cá” không cần thêm “es”.*

‘I chose “eats” because “eats” is a singular verb that needs an “s” added, and we do not need to add “es” to “fish”.’

(6.42) Learner 20 *“The dog” là “it”, do đó động từ theo sau “it” phải được thêm “s” vào.*

‘“The dog” means “it”, so the verb following “it” must end with an “s”.’

(6.43) Learner 24 *Vì “the dog” là một danh từ số ít, động từ “eat” phải được thêm vào với “s”.*

‘Because “the dog” is a singular noun, the verb “eat” must end with an “s”.’

(6.44) Learner 2 *“The dog” là một con chó, và nó “often” thường ăn cá chỉ thói quen, nên em chọn “eats”.*

‘“The dog” is one, and it “often” eats fishes as a habit, so I chose “eats”.’

One participant (see Example 6.45 below) chose “eats”, referring to agreement between the object (not the subject) and the verb, and that “-s” was a plural marker for the verb.

(6.45) Learner 44 *Em chọn “eats” vì động từ phải có “s” khi có nhiều cá “many fishes”.*

‘I chose “eats” because the verb must end with an “s” when there are many fishes.’

14 participants selected the form “drive”, some explaining that zero “-s” is used for singular verbs, as in 6.46.

(6.46) Learner 10 *“Eat” là đúng vì nó là động từ số ít.*

‘“Eat” is correct because it is a singular verb.’

Other participants gave no explanation.

6.3.3.4. Question 4

4. *She often plays piano at 8 am.*

Is the sentence right or wrong? Why did you choose that answer?

Table 6.10. Answers to Question 4 by the Vietnamese participants

Answers to Question 4 given by the Vietnamese participants	No.
“She” must be followed by a singular verb with an “s” added.’	25
‘The verbs in English that have an “s” added are plural.’	11
‘The word “often” means “many times”, the word “plays” is plural.’	5
‘I just made a guess.’	2
No explanation	1

In response to Question 4, 25 of the 44 participants (57%) stated that the sentence was correct, and explained that ‘plays’ was a singular noun since there was one person. A few examples are given in 6.47–50.

- (6.47) Learner 18 *Đúng vì có “he, she, it”, động từ phải thêm “s”.*
‘It’s correct because when there is “he, she, it”, the verb must add an “s”.’
- (6.48) Learner 5 *Đúng vì “plays” là động từ số ít, và chúng ta thường thêm “s” vào một động từ số ít.*
‘It is correct because “plays” is a singular verb and we often add an “s” to a singular verb.’
- (6.49) Learner 14 *Đúng vì “she” phải theo sau bởi một động từ số ít.*
‘It is correct because “she” must be followed by a singular verb.’
- (6.50) Learner 20 *Tất cả các động từ theo sau “she” là những động từ số ít.*
‘All verbs following “she” are singular verbs.’

19 participants (43%) considered the sentence incorrect, some explaining that “-s” was a plural marker (i.e. confusing the verbal -s with the nominal plural marker), as in Example 6.51–52.

- (6.51) Learner 8 *Sai vì “plays” là một động từ số nhiều có “s”, mà “she” là số ít.*
‘It is wrong because “plays” is a plural verb having an “s” while “she” is a singular subject.’

(6.52) Learner 33 *“Plays” là một động từ số nhiều vì thông thường những động từ trong tiếng Anh có “s” là số nhiều.*

‘“Plays” with an “s” is plural because normally, the verbs in English with an “s” added are plural.’

Two participants who considered the sentence correct referred to the word “often” in their explanations, reasoning that “s” is plural, because she often plays piano, not just once (see Examples 6.53–54).

(6.53) Learner 4 *Đúng vì “often” nghĩa là “nhiều lần”, nên động từ phải là số nhiều “plays”.*

‘It is right because “often” means many times, so the verb should be plural as “plays”.’

(6.54) Learner 38 *Đúng bởi vì từ “often” có nghĩa là “đôi khi”, nên “plays” là số nhiều.*

‘Because the word “often” means “sometimes”, the word “plays” is plural.’

Two participants stated ‘I just made a guess’, and the rest gave no explanation.

6.3.4. Summary and discussion

The lexical repertoire of the Vietnamese participants varied between 8 words and 92 words in the picture description task. The average number of word types per participant was 27.3.

Regarding procedural knowledge, the majority (30 participants or 68%) were on PT Stage 4 and were able to produce subject–verb agreement with copular and auxiliary verbs. Only one of the 44 Vietnamese participants had reached Stage 5 with subject–verb agreement on lexical verbs.

The results from the declarative knowledge test showed that more than half of the Vietnamese participants (61%) were able to provide correct answers to all four questions of the test and also explain the grammatical point correctly. The remaining participants did not answer correctly and gave incorrect explanations; most suggesting that the suffix ‘-s’ was a plural marker both for nouns and for verbs (but not a verb singular marker).

However, some participants who could not produce correct instances of 3-sg-s could still formulate the rule and explain it grammatically. These findings support the suggestions from Mitchell & Myles (2004, p. 103) that they may have acquired declarative knowledge of that rule, but the knowledge has not been fully proceduralised yet. The relation between procedural and declarative knowledge will be discussed below.

6.4. Comparison of Swedish and Vietnamese learner outcomes

6.4.1. Sample size: the Swedish and Vietnamese learners

Table 6.11. Sample size in the picture description task between the groups: 32 Swedish participants and 44 Vietnamese participants

	Tokens		Types		T-units		Turns	
	Swe	VN	Swe	VN	Swe	VN	Swe	VN
Minimum	51	8	29	6	9	5	1	3
Maximum	189	92	88	55	26	19	15	13
Total	3150	1958	1618	1200	457	549	190	410
Average	98.44	44.50	50.56	27.27	14.28	12.48	5.94	9.32

As mentioned above, participants differed in the amount of time they used to complete the picture description task. The Swedish participants took an average of 10 minutes per participant to complete the task, for a total of five and a half hours of recordings resulting in a 3150 word tokens, 1618 types, and a total of 457 T-units and 190 turns. Meanwhile, the Vietnamese participants took an average of 12 minutes per participant to complete the task, for a total of nine hours of recordings, resulting in a 1958 word tokens, 1200 word types, and a total of 549 T-units and 410 turns (see Table 6.11).

As shown in Table 6.11, most of the Swedish participants produced more tokens and types in the picture description task than the Vietnamese participants, in general.

For the Swedish participants, the number of words (tokens) varied; the minimum was 51 and the maximum was 189 while the average number of words per participant was 98.44. Meanwhile, for the Vietnamese participants, the minimum number of tokens was 8 and the maximum was 92 while the average number of tokens per participant was 44.50.

Similarly, the number of different words (types) produced by the Swedish participants in the picture description task varied; the minimum was 29 and the maximum was 88 while the average number of different word types was 50.56. For the Vietnamese participants, the minimum number of types was 6 and the maximum was 55, while the average number of word types was 27.27.

The results show that the Swedish participants used more English word types in the task than the Vietnamese participants did. In addition, the number of T-units of the Swedish participants in the picture description task was greater than those of the Vietnamese participants. For the Swedish participants, the minimum T-unit was 9 and the maximum was 26 with an average T-unit of 14.28. Meanwhile, for the Vietnamese participants, the minimum was 5 and the maximum was 19, with an average of 12.48. Additionally, the average number of T-units per turn was 6.53 for the Swedish participants (see Table A, Appendix 10) and 1.45 for the Vietnamese participants (see Table B, Appendix 10). The Swedish participants produced many complex structures at the sentence/clause level, and most of them were able to speak continuously without intervention from the researcher. This was not the case for the Vietnamese participants, whose speech was rather short, and who did not speak continuously and needed the support of the interviewer.

6.4.2. Procedural and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s among the Swedish and Vietnamese participants

As mentioned before, the study was based on the concept of ‘emergence’ in Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998) and aimed to measure the learners’ acquisition of 3-sg-s in their production. In order to make the procedural and declarative knowledge tests more comparable, the analysis of the tests made use of the implicational scaling previously used by R. Ellis (2008). Accordingly, 3-sg-s was considered acquired as procedural knowledge if a learner produced 3-sg-s in two different contexts in the oral picture description task. And 3-sg-s was considered acquired as declarative knowledge if the learner chose the correct answers and correctly explained the grammatical structures for two of the four questions in the written acceptability judgement test (a minimum of 6 points). The results are shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12. Implicational scaling of the Swedish and Vietnamese participants' procedural and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s.

Participant No.	Swedish participants		Participant No.	Vietnamese participants	
	Declarative knowledge 3-sg-s	Procedural knowledge 3-sg-s		Declarative knowledge 3-sg-s	Procedural knowledge 3-sg-s
6	+	(+)	18	+	+
11	-	+	1	+	-
16	-	+	2	+	-
20	-	+	4	+	-
21	-	+	5	+	-
22	-	+	6	+	-
23	-	+	7	+	-
25	-	+	9	+	-
26	-	+	10	+	-
27	-	+	11	+	-
29	-	+	12	+	-
30	-	+	13	+	-
1	-	-	14	+	-
2	-	-	15	+	-
3	-	-	16	+	-
4	-	-	17	+	-
5	-	-	20	+	-
7	-	-	21	+	-
8	-	-	22	+	-
9	-	-	23	+	-
10	-	-	24	+	-
12	-	-	25	+	-
13	-	-	26	+	-
14	-	-	27	+	-
15	-	-	28	+	-
17	-	-	29	+	-
18	-	-	30	+	-
19	-	-	3	-	-
24	-	-	8	-	-
28	-	-	19	-	-
31	-	-	31	-	-
			32	-	-
			33	-	-
			34	-	-
			35	-	-
			36	-	-
			37	-	-
			38	-	-
			39	-	-
			40	-	-
			41	-	-
			42	-	-
			43	-	-
			44	-	-

Note: A plus '+' in the table means that at least two occurrences of the structure have been produced in obligatory contexts, a minus '-' marks that no occurrences were produced despite at least two obligatory contexts, and a plus within parentheses (+) indicates that only one occurrence has been recorded.

Implicational scaling is used in the current study for both procedural and declarative knowledge, even though “Processability Theory does not predict learning difficulty as explicit knowledge” (R. Ellis, 2008, p. 16). However, the scaling helps us to see the differences between the two types of knowledge of 3-sg-s for the two groups for comparison. For example, while 12 out of 32 (37.5%) Swedish participants had acquired 3-sg-s on lexical verbs as procedural knowledge, only one had acquired the structure as declarative knowledge. This seems to go against Anderson’s (1985, 2010, 2015) ideas about learning of rules preceding output. In contrast, only one of the 44 Vietnamese participants had acquired the structure as procedural knowledge while 27 (61%) had acquired the structure as declarative knowledge. 20 of the 32 Swedish participants (62.5%) and 18 of the 44 Vietnamese participants (40%) had neither procedural nor declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s on lexical verbs. Meanwhile, only one Swedish participant (learner 6) and one Vietnamese participant (learner 18) had both procedural and declarative knowledge of the structure. Additionally, some participants in both groups gave incorrect explanations, such as that the suffix ‘-s’ is a plural marker for both nouns and verbs (but not a singular marker for verbs), as in the examples given in the previous sections. Similar results were found for the Swedish group, confirming the findings of previous studies about common mistakes among Swedish learners (Malmberg et al., 2000; Köhlmyr, 2003; Källkvist & Petersson, 2006).

6.4.3. Correlations of procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s in the two groups

In order to more clearly show the relationship between the scores of the procedural and declarative knowledge tests, the scores on the two tests were plotted against each other for each individual participant, as shown in Figure 6.1.

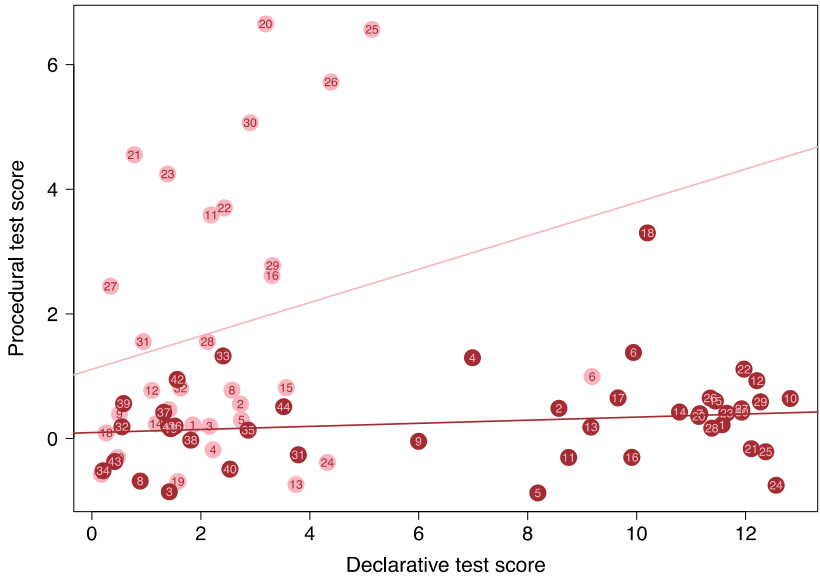


Figure 6.1. Relation between procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge test scores on 3-sg-s.

Note: The Swedish participants: the pink circles, the Vietnamese participants: the brown circles.

Figure 6.1 shows the scores on the procedural and declarative knowledge tests for the Swedish participants (the pink circles) and the Vietnamese participants (the brown circles). The numbers inside the circles represent the participant numbers. Since many of the points overlap, some jitter (random variation) has been added to the scores so that all points are visible.

As shown in Figure 6.1, the participants cluster in three corners: high on procedural and low on declarative knowledge (top left), high on declarative and low on procedural knowledge (bottom right), and low on declarative and low on procedural knowledge (bottom left). The figure shows that the declarative knowledge of the Vietnamese participants was better than that of the Swedish participants. Nevertheless, the scores of the Vietnamese participants on the procedural knowledge test were comparatively low.

Many of the Swedish participants had high scores on the procedural knowledge test and low scores on the declarative knowledge test. However, some of Swedish and Vietnamese participants were placed in the same range (e.g. the ones who were in lower scores in both tests).

The correlation between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge within each group was calculated. In general, correlation coefficients that have values close to zero indicate the absence of correlation between variables. Values that are further away from zero, i.e., values close to 1.0 or to -1.0, indicate that there is a correlation between variables. Additionally, a *p*-value lower than 0.05 indicates that a correlation coefficient is statistically significant. Within each group, the correlation between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge was not significant (Swedish learners: $r = 0.20$, $p = 0.185$; Vietnamese learners: $r = 0.22$, $p = 0.220$). This finding is in line with previous research (R. Ellis, 2008; Flyman Mattsson, 2003; Macrory & Stone, 2000; Seliger, 1979) that found that there was no relationship between learners' ability to explain a grammar rule and their use of the rule in speech production.

6.5. Summary and discussion: Teaching practices and learner outcomes

There was a clear difference between the Swedish and Vietnamese learners' knowledge of English. The Swedish participants produced more types and had higher scores on the procedural knowledge test than the Vietnamese participants while the Vietnamese participants had higher scores on the declarative knowledge test than the Swedish participants. The situation is complicated due to variation among participants. However, based on the results from the classroom observation and teaching practices in the first empirical study (see Chapter 5), form practice and rule explanations were prevalent in Vietnamese classrooms (cf. Khuong, 2015;

Moon, 2005, 2009; H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007). This potentially had a large influence on Vietnamese learner outcomes where many were able to describe the rules of English subject-verb agreement. Previous research shows that form-focused instruction (FFI) promotes learners' declarative knowledge rather than procedural knowledge (R. Ellis, 1990, p. 170), and that "FFI does benefit learning" (R. Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p. 20).

Meanwhile, the classroom activities observed in the Grade 5 English lessons in Sweden focused more on communication in English (as previously found by e.g., Cabau-Lampa, 1999ab; Lundahl, 2012; Malmberg, 2001; Tornberg, 2009). This may be one of the possible factors affecting the learning outcomes of the pupils. Research has shown that many learners who receive CLT develop fluency and confidence in using their second language, but do not reach native-like competence in grammar (Harley, 1992; Swain, 1998).

Källkvist & Petersson (2006) found that 17-year-old Swedish learners learning English did not score higher than 14-year-olds on stating a simple rule for the use of 3-sg-s. The explanation given by these authors was that, unlike compulsory schools, upper secondary schools placed more focus on reading and writing than on basic grammar exercises. The authors also pointed out that the Swedish learners in their study rarely used grammatical terminology, and that this may be due to the fact that "there is a tendency in Swedish schools to de-emphasise rote learning of grammatical rules as a result of greater emphasis on communication in syllabi and standardised national tests." (Källkvist & Petersson, 2006, p. 130).

There were some similarities between the groups in how knowledge had been acquired. For example, both Vietnamese participants and some Swedish participants failed to use 3-sg-s in their speech production. Furthermore, some in both groups acquired stage 4 in producing copular and auxiliary agreement. In addition, learners from both groups gave similar (incorrect) explanations of the grammatical rule governing English subject-verb agreement, such as that the suffix '-s' was a plural marker for both nouns and verbs, or that there was agreement between the object (instead of the subject) and the verb.

After an investigation of out-of-school exposure to English between the groups in the next chapter (Chapter 7), more conclusions on the impact of e.g. teaching and out-of-school factors on learning outcomes will be discussed further in the final chapter (Chapter 8).

Chapter 7.

Results: Out-of-school exposure to English in Sweden and Vietnam

7.1. Introduction

Greater length and intensity of learners' exposure to out-of-school learning has been found to enhance the development of lexical and grammatical knowledge (e.g., Kuppens, 2010; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Rohde, 2010; Sundqvist, 2009, 2011).

This chapter examines the out-of-school exposure to English of the 32 Swedish participants and 44 Vietnamese participants. The results for out-of-school exposure to English in Sweden and Vietnam will be presented separately in Sections 7.2 and 7.3. The fourth section of the chapter (7.4) will compare out-of-school exposure to English in the two groups. The fifth section (7.5) presents the correlation between the participants' out-of-school exposure to English and their lexical repertoire and procedural and declarative knowledge. The chapter closes with a summary (7.6).

7.1.1 Method

In total, 32 questionnaire responses from the Swedish participants and 44 responses from the Vietnamese participants form the basis of the study on out-of-school exposure (see Appendix 9). The aim of the questionnaire was to identify how English is used or encountered in out-of-school contexts. For a detailed presentation of the participants, the task, procedure, data treatment and analyses see Chapter 4 (Section 4.5).

7.2. Results: Out-of-school exposure to English for the Swedish participants

The results of the Swedish questionnaire are illustrated in Figure 7.1. The bars represent: every day (Ed), some days in the week (SdW), some days in the month (SdM), some days in the year (SdY), no activity/never (N/A).

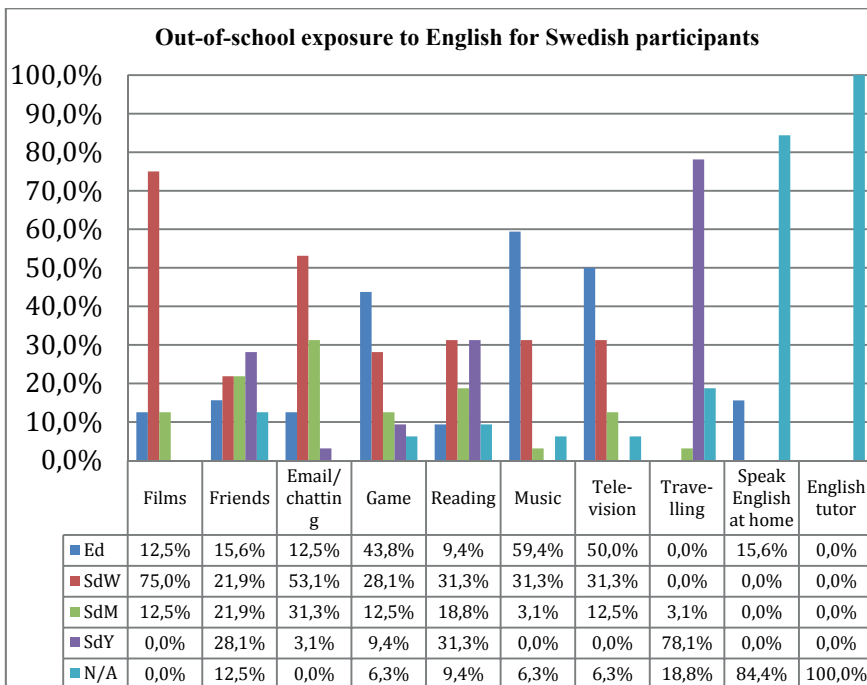


Figure 7.1. Percentages of Swedish participants' English out-of-school activities
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month;
 SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

Figure 7.1 shows the percentage of the Swedish participants who were in contact with English in different ways and with different frequencies. It is clear from the figure that the most frequent ways in which the Swedish participants interact with English were via video games, music and television. About 50% of the participants interacted with English in these

ways every day. Reading books and newspapers, and travel were the least common way the participants interacted with English at a daily frequency. More than 50% of the participants interacted with English via films, email/chatting, games, music and television once a week or more. Thus most of the Swedish participants interacted with English many times every week in different ways. It is interesting to note that the majority of the most common interactions involved listening to English. 15.6% of the participants spoke English at home and with their friends every day. Additionally, 78.1% of the participants also used English when travelling some days in the year.

7.3. Results: Out-of-school exposure to English for the Vietnamese participants

The results of the Vietnamese questionnaire are given in Figure 7.2. The bars represent: every day (Ed), some days in the week (SdW), some days in the month (SdM), some days in the year (SdY), no activity/never (N/A).

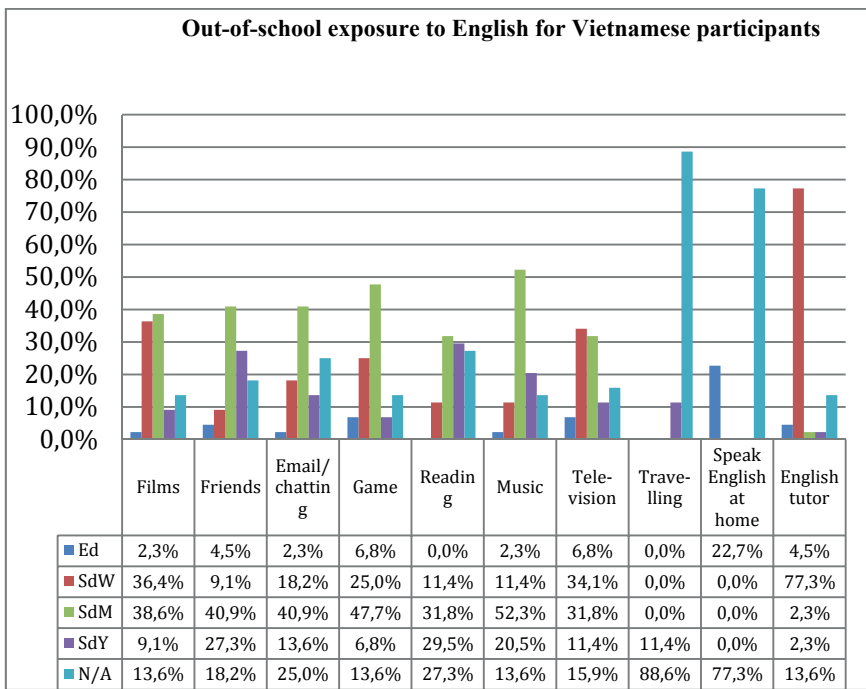


Figure 7.2. Percentages of Vietnamese participants' English out-of-school activities

Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

Figure 7.2 shows how often the Vietnamese participants came into contact with English in different ways and at different frequencies. 22.7% of the Vietnamese participants stated that they spoke English at home. The most common form of exposure to English outside the classroom was private English classes: 81.8% of the participants attended private English classes at least once a week. The least form of exposure to English was travel: only 11.4% of the participants were exposed to English via travel at some time in a year and 88.6% were never exposed to English via travel. One important observation is that the participants' interaction with native English speakers was very limited, as few of the participants had travelled to English speaking countries. Apart from private English lessons, the most common form of exposure to English was films and television. 38.7% of the Vietnamese participants watched English films at least once a week and

40.9% watched English television at least once a week. Interactions like communicating in English with friends, communicating via email/chatting or reading English books were the least common forms of interaction the participants had with English. 13.6% of the participants communicated in English with their friends at least once a week and 11.4% read English books at least once a week. 20.5% of the participants communicated in English via email/chatting at least once a week.

7.4. Comparing out-of-school exposure to English in the two groups

The percentages of out-of-school exposure to English of the Swedish and Vietnamese participants were calculated and compared between the groups.

The most common type of exposure to English for the Swedish participants was in the form of films. A majority of the Swedish participants (87.5 %) watched films in English at least once a week, as compared to only 38.7% of the Vietnamese participants, as shown in Figure 7.3.

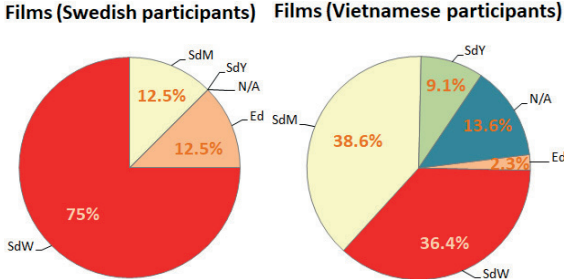


Figure 7.3. Out-of-school exposure to English: Films
 Note: Ed (everyday), SdW (some days in the week), SdM (some days in the month), SdY (some days in the year) or N/A (no activity).

Communicating in English with friends was more common for the Swedish participants than the Vietnamese participants. As seen in Figure 7.4, 28.1% of the Swedish participants versus 13.6% of the Vietnamese participants communicated in English with their friends at least once a week.

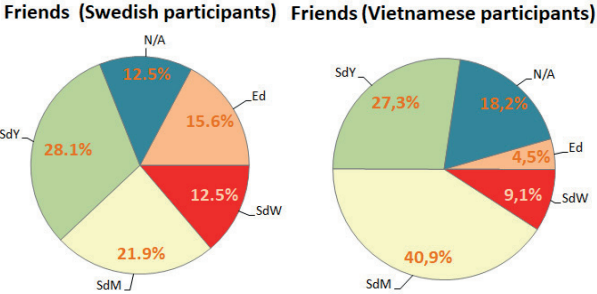


Figure 7.4. Out-of-school exposure to English: Friends
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

It is clear in Figure 7.5 that the Swedish participants interacted in English via email/chatting more than the Vietnamese participants. 65.6% of the Swedish participants used email and chatting in English some days per week or more while only 20.5% of the Vietnamese participants did this at least once a week.

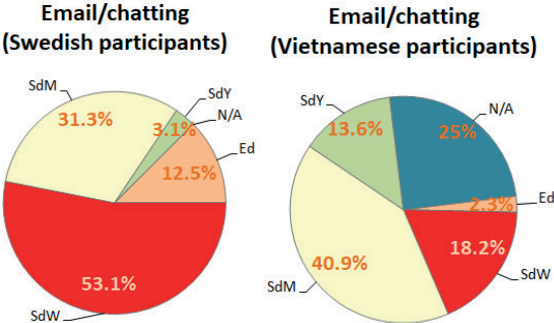


Figure 7.5. Out-of-school exposure to English: Email/chatting
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

Video games are very popular among young people worldwide, including in Sweden and Vietnam. However, the Swedish participants played games in English considerably more often than the Vietnamese participants. 71.9% of the Swedish participants in comparison with 31.8% of the Vietnamese participants played video games in English at least once a week, as shown in Figure 7.6.

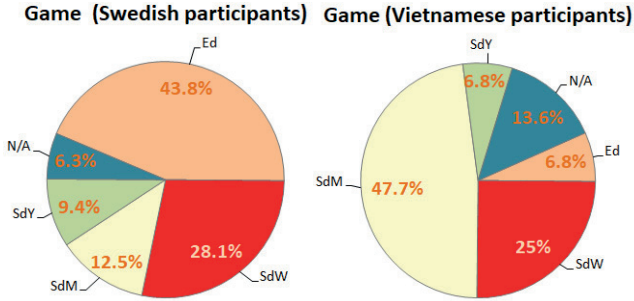


Figure 7.6. Out-of-school exposure to English: Video games
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

As shown in Figure 7.7, some (9.4%) of the Swedish participants read books every day, while none of the Vietnamese participants did. Furthermore, 11.4% of the Vietnamese participants in comparison with 40.7% of the Swedish participants read English books and newspapers at least once a week.

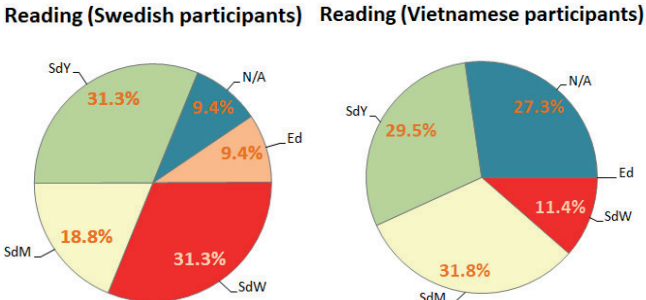


Figure 7.7. Out-of-school exposure to English: Reading English books
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

As shown in Figure 7.8, listening to music and watching television programmes in English were among the most frequent ways in which the Swedish participants interacted with English. 59.4% of the Swedish participants in comparison with only 2.3% of the Vietnamese participants listened to English music every day. Additionally, half of the Swedish participants in comparison with only 6.8% of the Vietnamese participants watched English programmes on television every day, as shown in Figure 7.8 below. It is worth mentioning that most English language television programmes and films in Vietnam are dubbed. Meanwhile, most English language television programmes and films in Sweden are subtitled (Sundqvist, 2009). Thus, Swedish learners are exposed to more spoken English as compared to Vietnamese learners, with regard to media.

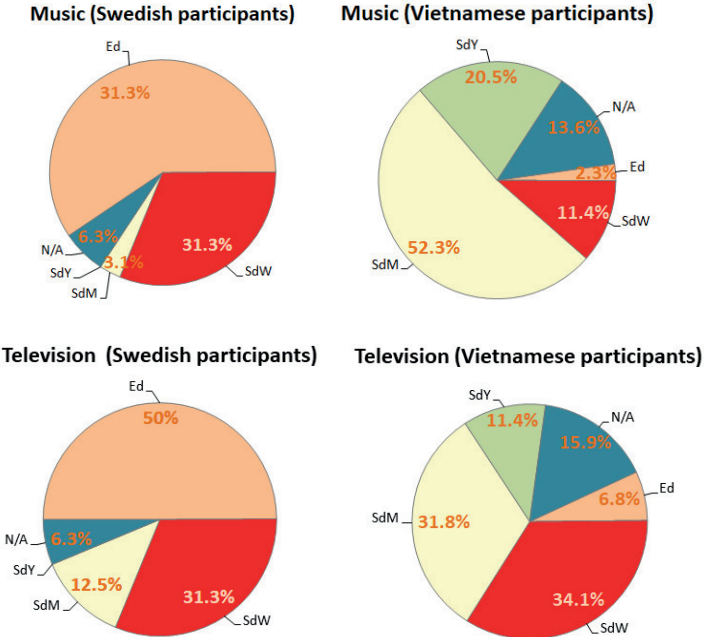


Figure 7.8. Out-of-school exposure to English: English music and television programmes
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

Figure 7.9 shows the percentages of participants who used English whilst abroad. 81.2% of the Swedish participants used English during travel abroad while this was very limited for the Vietnamese participants. The Vietnamese participants did not have many opportunities to travel abroad and use English (only 11.4% reported going abroad).

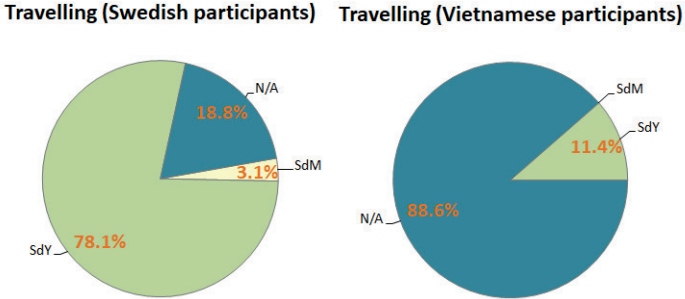


Figure 7.9. Out-of-school exposure to English: Travelling
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

Surprisingly, speaking English at home every day appeared to be more popular for the Vietnamese participants (22.7%) than the Swedish participants (15.6%) as shown in Figure 7.10.

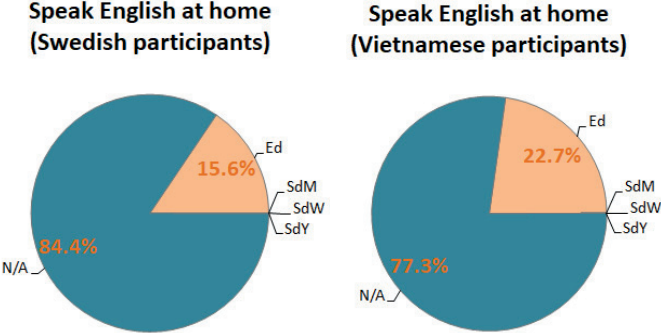


Figure 7.10. Out-of-school exposure to English: English at home.
 Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

Many Swedish participants reported travelling to English-speaking countries. 77.3% of the Vietnamese participants had private English classes outside of the school some day each week (4.5% did it every day), while none of the Swedish participants went to these classes, as Figure 7.11 indicates. It thus appears to be quite common for Vietnamese parents either send their children to English centres or to private tutors (C. Nguyen et al., 2016). These lessons aim at giving pupils opportunities to practise their English language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing including form practice) outside of the normal classroom⁶.

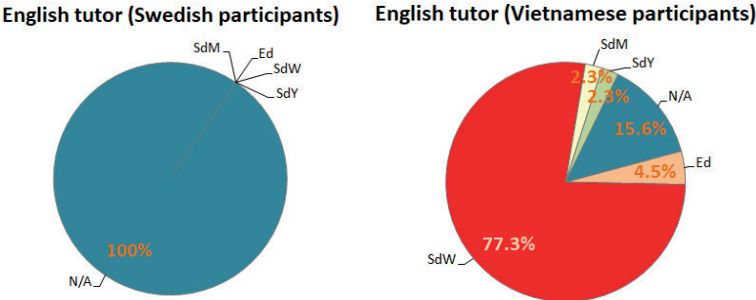


Figure 7.11. Out-of-school exposure to English: Private English classes (foreign language centres and tutoring)

Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

In sum, the Swedish participants on average had more exposure to English out-of-school activities than the Vietnamese participants. The most frequent forms of exposure for the Swedish participants were via video games, music, television and travelling, while private lessons were much more common for the Vietnamese participants.

⁶ This information was provided by the Vietnamese teachers who took part in the interviews, and who worked as private English tutors and teachers in foreign language centres in the evenings.

7.5. Correlation: Out-of-school exposure with lexical repertoire, procedural and declarative knowledge

This section aims to investigate the correlation between participants' out-of-school exposure to English and their lexical repertoire, procedural knowledge, and declarative knowledge of English 3-sg-s.

In order to do this, the frequencies of out-of-school exposure (every day, some days a week, etc.) were converted to a number from 1 to 5 (Ed = 1; SdW = 2; SdM = 3; SdY = 4; N/A = 5), where lower numbers indicate higher frequency (everyday). For each child, summary scores (i.e., the mean of all ten demographic variables) were calculated (see Table A, Appendix 11), and these were then correlated with the scores on the two tests and the number of lexical types. In Table 7.1, the averages are presented, ordered according to the results from the Swedish participants, from most to least exposure.

Table 7.1. The average scores for each demographic variable in the two groups

Variables	Swedish	Vietnamese
Music	1.62	3.32
Television	1.81	2.95
Films	2.00	2.95
Video games	2.06	2.95
Emails/chatting	2.25	3.41
Friends	3.00	3.45
Reading books, newspapers	3.00	3.73
Travel	4.16	4.89
English at home	4.37	4.09
English tutor	5.00	2.10

Note: lower numbers indicate higher frequency.

Table 7.1 shows that in general, the Swedish participants had lower scores (higher frequency) than the Vietnamese participants on all variables except English private lessons and English at home, indicating that they had more exposure to English than the Vietnamese participants.

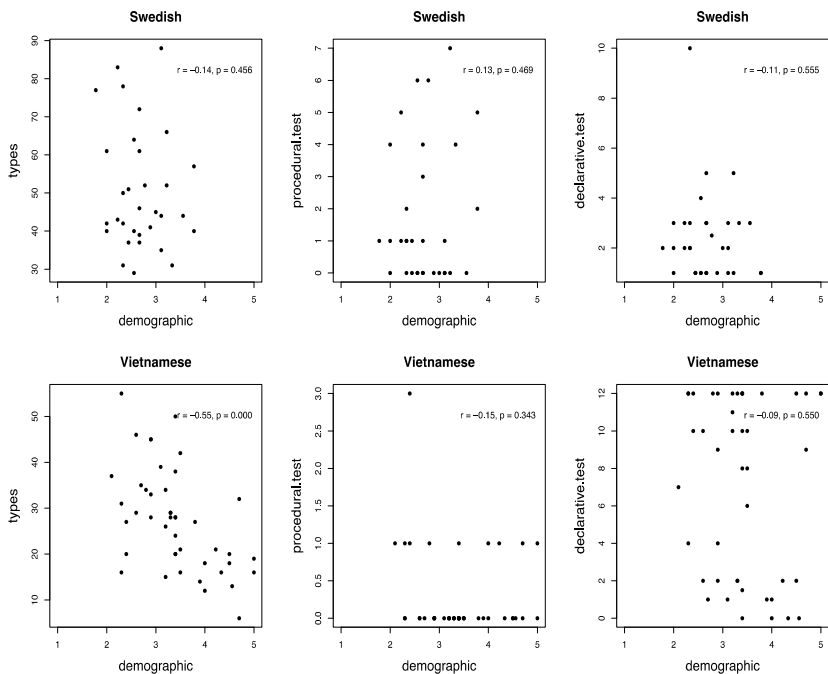


Figure 7.12. Scatterplots of the Swedish and Vietnamese participants' out-of-school exposure to English, their use of lexical types and their scores on the procedural and declarative tests of 3-sg-s

The average demographic scores for each participant were correlated with their use of lexical types and their scores on the procedural and declarative knowledge tests. The results are shown in Table 7.2, and are illustrated in the scatterplots above (Figure 7.12).

Table 7.2. Correlations between the Swedish and Vietnamese participants' out-of-school exposure to English, their use of lexical types and their scores on the procedural and declarative tests of 3-sg-s

Correlation	Swedish	Vietnamese
Types - Exposure	$r = -0.14, p = 0.456$	$r = -0.55, p = 0.000$
Procedural knowledge - Exposure	$r = 0.13, p = 0.469$	$r = -0.15, p = 0.343$
Declarative knowledge Exposure	$r = -0.11, p = 0.555$	$r = -0.09, p = 0.550$

Table 7.2 shows that there were no significant correlations between exposure and the other variables for the Swedish participants. For the Vietnamese group, the only significant correlation was between lexical types and out-of-school exposure to English ($r = -0.55, p = 0.000$), but the correlation between out-of-school exposure to English and the procedural test scores was not ($r = -0.15, p = 0.343$), nor was the correlation between declarative test scores and out-of-school exposure to English ($r = -0.09, p = 0.550$), as seen in Figure 7.12. This means that, for the Swedish participants, the number of lexical types and the scores on the linguistic knowledge tests were not determined by out-of-school exposure to English. However, the number of types produced by the Vietnamese participants was determined by the amount of out-of-school exposure to English, but the scores on procedural and declarative knowledge tests were not. This means that the Vietnamese participants who had more out-of-school exposure to English produced more lexical types than those who had less out-of-school exposure to English, as seen in Figure 7.12. It is worth mentioning that there was a relatively large amount of variation among the Vietnamese participants in terms of the out-of-school exposure to English, so the relation between this variable and the lexical types variable could be seen more clearly. Meanwhile, many participants in the Swedish sample had similar amounts of out-of-school exposure to English and there was little variation in the group. Therefore, it was more difficult to see the relation between this variable and the other variables. In the Swedish context, Sundqvist (2009) found significant correlations between vocabulary size and learners' total amount of out-of-school exposure to English in activities (e.g. digital gaming and Internet use). A similar correlation between out-of-school exposure to English and lexical repertoire size was not seen in the present study for the Swedish participants. The reason for this difference in results may be that Sundqvist's (2009) study involved a method different from mine. In the present study, the children talked about pictures, while in Sundqvist's (2009) study, the Swedish students of English were tested with five interactional speaking tests and two written vocabulary tests.

Two participants (Swedish participant 6 and Vietnamese participant 18) stood out from the others in their high scores on the procedural and

declarative tests of knowledge of English 3-sg-s. These participants also had frequent exposure to English in most out-of-school activities. The average demographic scores for these two participants (2.3 for the Swedish participant and 2.4 for the Vietnamese participant; See Tables A and B, Appendix 11) indicate that they had more exposure to English than many others. The Swedish participant had recently spent two years learning English in an international school in Beijing where she used English most of the time, both in and outside of school. The Vietnamese participant had exposure to English in all out-of-school activities some days in the week, including private lessons at a foreign language centre and travelling some days in the year in contexts where she could use English. This may be one among several factors influencing their learning outcomes.

7.6. Summary and discussion: Out-of-school exposure and learner outcomes

The aim of the questionnaire was to explore in what contexts and how often the Swedish and Vietnamese participants used English outside of school. The results showed that, overall, the Swedish participants on average had more contact with the English language than the Vietnamese participants.

It is clear from the self-reported data that the most frequent ways in which the Swedish participants interacted with English outside of school were via video games, music, television, and travel (cf. Olsson, 2011; Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén, 2006; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). This finding matches with the results of a national survey in Sweden which found that more than half of Swedish fifth graders have learnt English outside of school (Skolverket, 2004). For example, the survey found that many children read English texts on the Internet, chat in English and, above all, play games in English. However, watching subtitled television programmes frequently helps children speak and understand English prior

to formal English instruction (Berns, 2007; Kuppens, 2010). Travelling also gave the Swedish participants more opportunities to communicate in English.

The Vietnamese participants also interacted with English outside of school in different ways, but not to the same extent as the Swedish participants. Many of the Vietnamese participants in the sample received private instruction at foreign language centres or from English tutors, while none of the Swedish participants did. Language centres are found all over Vietnam and attract many Vietnamese learners of English (Hoang, 2011; Le, 2000; M. Nguyen, 2011; C. Nguyen et al., 2016). The most common forms of out-of-school exposure to English for the Vietnamese participants (apart from private tutors or lessons at language centres) were films as well as small amounts of television and video games.

Nevertheless, the scores on the procedural and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s were not correlated to out-of-school exposure in the two groups. The only significant correlation was between lexical types and out-of-school exposure to English for the Vietnamese group.

Chapter 8.

Discussion and conclusion

This final chapter summarises and discusses the main findings of the research in relation to the study aims and research questions. The first section (8.1) summarises the main findings. The rationale for the research is reviewed and a description of the empirical studies is provided in subsection 8.1.1. This is followed by a review of the main results of the studies and the answers they provide to the research questions, in subsections 8.1.2, 8.1.3 and 8.1.4. In the next section (8.2), further research questions are raised that call for closer investigation, and some limitations of the present study are considered.

8.1. Summary of the main findings

8.1.1. Brief review of the studies

Some previous research findings on language teaching and learning claim that there is need for grammar instruction in Communicative Language Teaching (N. Ellis, 1993; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nassaji, 2000; Spada & Lightbown, 1993, 2009; Williams, 1995). Others favour focus on forms (e.g., DeKeyser, 1995; Doughty, 1991; R. Ellis, 2006, 2015; Robinson, 1996). However, the majority of previous studies on classroom teaching and learning have looked at adult language learners, and empirical research on language teaching and learning in young language learners has been scarce.

This study sets out to investigate both in-school language teaching and learning and out-of-school learning of English among young learners at the

primary school level in two different contexts, Sweden and Vietnam. Bringing together two fields of research – language teaching and language learning – the main aim of the present thesis was to examine the learning and teaching of English as a second language, and to examine whether classroom factors and out-of-school exposure affect second language learning. Differences between the Swedish and Vietnamese contexts provided an ideal testing ground to investigate the relationship between types of teaching and types of acquired knowledge. An additional aim was to investigate declarative and procedural knowledge of English as a second language as well as lexical repertoire in the two culturally different classroom contexts. Procedural knowledge was defined as what learners actually produce, and declarative knowledge as the description of rules in an acceptability judgement task. The research questions were as follows.

1. Do the teaching methodologies in Sweden and Vietnam differ according to classroom orientation?
2. Do the learning outcomes differ between learners in Sweden and learners in Vietnam?
 - a) Is there a difference in terms of procedural knowledge, according to the stages in Processability Theory, and in terms of lexical repertoire?
 - b) Is there a difference in terms of declarative knowledge?
 - c) Is there a relationship between procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge of L2 English in the learners in this study?
3. Can the learning outcomes be tied to teaching methodology and/or out-of-school exposure to English?

In order to achieve these aims and to investigate the answers to the research questions, three empirical studies were carried out. The studies were based on data collected from Grade 5 learners of English in classrooms in Swedish and Vietnamese primary schools and their teachers. The criteria for selection of the schools were that they were public primary schools in urban areas that had English instruction starting from Grade 3.

In the empirical study relating to *teaching practices*, two Swedish teachers in two Grade 5 classes in two schools in Sweden participated. In the Vietnamese context, three teachers in three Grade 5 classes at three primary schools participated. In the Swedish schools, there were on average 20 pupils in each class, while the Vietnamese classes had 36 pupils on average. Both the Swedish and Vietnamese pupils had received two years of English instruction at school before starting Grade 5. In addition to the analyses of policy documents and teaching materials, video/audio-recordings and observations were made of five English lessons in the two Swedish classes and six English lessons in the three Vietnamese classes. The lessons were described and analysed based on the communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) observation scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). A questionnaire was distributed both offline to the five teachers whose lessons were observed and online to other teachers in the two countries in order to examine what the teachers actually say and do in the classroom in comparison with the stated aims and policies, and whether the ideas of these individual teachers could be considered representative of a larger group of teachers.

The empirical study on *learner outcomes* examined two types of English knowledge among the young learners using a speech production task as well as a written metalinguistic task. 32 Swedish participants from the two Grade 5 classes in Sweden and 44 Vietnamese participants from the three Grade 5 classes in Vietnam participated. The number of individual learners who participated depended on the participants' willingness and their parents' consent as well as the teachers' decision to take part in the study. Procedural knowledge of grammar was examined in a picture description task. Declarative knowledge of grammar was investigated by means of a metalinguistic task (acceptability judgement) in which learners selected appropriate answers and were asked to explain the reasons for their choice by referring to grammatical rules. Both tests of procedural and declarative knowledge focused on the third person singular *-s* (3-sg-*s*). 3-sg-*s* was considered as acquired procedural knowledge if a learner had produced the morpheme on lexical verbs in two different contexts in the oral picture description task, based on the emergence criterion of Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998). 3-sg-*s* was considered to be acquired in terms of

declarative knowledge if the learner had correctly explained the grammatical structures and chosen the correct answer for two of the four questions in the written test. Apart from the analyses of grammar knowledge, which was the main focus of the study, the lexical repertoire of the learners was investigated by means of a type/token ratio i.e., the number of different words the learners used in the oral picture description task were counted. The aim of the analysis was to examine the similarities and differences in learner outcomes between the Swedish and Vietnamese groups. Correlation analyses were used in the study in order to investigate the relationship between the learners' procedural and declarative knowledge of English 3-sg-s. The influence of teaching practices on learner outcomes was also discussed here.

Out-of-school exposure to English was measured among the same participants (32 Swedish participants and 44 Vietnamese participants) as a potential alternative influence on learner outcomes, that is, in addition to teaching practices. This was conducted through a self-report questionnaire about the participants' background, and the frequencies with which they use English in different ways outside of school. Short interviews were also conducted with 51 of the participants. Correlation analyses were used to examine the relationship between out-of-school factors and learner outcomes.

The findings of the studies and answers to the research questions were discussed in detail in previous chapters (Chapters 5, 6, and 7). The section below summarises and further discusses the main findings in relation to each of the research questions.

8.1.2. Research question 1

Do the teaching methodologies in Sweden and Vietnam differ according to classroom orientation?

As concluded in the comparison between the observed Swedish and Vietnamese primary school classrooms (see details in Section 5.4), the answer to Research Question 1 is that the teaching methodologies in Sweden and Vietnam did indeed differ. In the Swedish classrooms, more

communicative-oriented activities were observed, as has been previously suggested (Cabau-Lampa, 1999ab; Malmberg, 2001; Tornberg, 2009; Lundahl, 2012). In contrast to this, the Vietnamese classrooms were more grammar-oriented, and this was in line with the results of previous research (Moon, 2005, 2009; Ho & Wong, 2000; Hoang, 2011; Kam, 2002; Khuong, 2015; Le & Do, 2012; Le, 2000; H. Nguyen & T. Nguyen, 2007; M. Nguyen, 2011). The results from the Vietnamese classrooms matched with those of Moon's (2005) study on teaching methodology in Vietnamese classrooms, which found (i). a focus on form and accuracy rather than fluency; (ii). heavy use of repetition drills and whole class chorus in order to help pupils remember words; (iii). lack of opportunities for pupils to produce the target language freely for communicative purposes. Communicative Language Teaching began to be adopted in Vietnam in the early 1990s (T. H. Nguyen, 1999; Pham, 2005), and there is evidence from the 2010 curriculum for English that communicative competence is valued in Vietnamese primary education (MOET, 2010). However this is not yet reflected in classroom practices. While the teaching practices observed in both Sweden and Vietnam in the present study show the same results as the previous research, the above-mentioned previous research was quite different with regard to the study design. Most of them were based on policy documents and teachers' interviews, but they did not include as many analyses of classroom practices using some observation schemes (for example COLT) as the present study. Thus the present study complements the analysis of policy documents by undertaking new empirical work which strongly confirms suggestions made in the previous studies of a focus on forms with more grammar correction in Vietnam, and a more communicative focus in Sweden.

8.1.3. Research questions 2ab

Do the learning outcomes differ between learners in Sweden and learners in Vietnam?

- 1. Is there a difference in terms of procedural knowledge, according to the stages in Processability Theory, and in terms of lexical repertoire?*
- 2. Is there a difference in terms of declarative knowledge?*

The findings from the empirical study revealed that learning outcomes differed between the participants in Sweden and Vietnam, and demonstrated that the pupils had different kinds of knowledge. Based on the detailed findings about learning outcomes presented in Chapter 6, it was concluded that 12 of the 32 Swedish participants (37.5%) produced ‘-s’ on lexical verbs in third person singular contexts, that were placed at Stage 5 of the PT hierarchy, but this did not mean that they were able to formulate the rule and explain it grammatically: only 1 of the 32 Swedish participants (2%) could correctly explain the grammatical rule. In contrast, 27 of the 44 Vietnamese participants (61%) had declarative knowledge of the structure, but only 1 of the 44 Vietnamese participants (2%) had the procedural knowledge of the structure.

According to Anderson (1985, 2010, 2015), declarative knowledge becomes procedural through a process with three stages: the cognitive stage, the associative stage and the autonomous stage, and thus the learning of rules precedes the acquisition of forms. This may be the case for some of the Vietnamese participants who have not yet started to produce the 3-sg-s structure. This is in line with Seliger (1979), but not with Hulstijn & Hulstijn (1984) or Sorace (1985) who found that learners who could describe the rules were more accurate at oral production. However, these three earlier studies investigated adult L2 learners, and different grammatical structures. They thus differ from the present study which focuses on young learners, a potential explanation of the differing results. The results from the Swedish participants did not support Anderson’s (1985, 2010, 2015) ideas about rule learning preceding output either. Nevertheless, the findings match with some of his later work which showed that not all knowledge starts out as declarative (Anderson & Fincham,

1994). It is interesting that a number of participants from both groups (62.5% of the Swedish and 41% of the Vietnamese groups) had neither procedural nor declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s on lexical verbs (Stage 5). Instead, the majority (68% of Vietnamese participants and 40% of Swedish participants) were on Stage 4 in that they could produce copula and auxiliary verb agreement.

Regarding declarative knowledge, many of the Swedish and Vietnamese participants gave the same incorrect explanation for the 3-sg-s, i.e., that the suffix ‘-s’ was a plural marker both for nouns and for verbs. This finding is in line with previous studies showing that the confusion of plural ‘-s’ on nouns with 3-sg-s on verbs is a common mistake among Swedish learners (Malmberg et al., 2000; Köhlmyr, 2003; Källkvist & Petersson, 2006). These studies investigated metalinguistic knowledge of 3-sg-s but differed with regard to the age of the participants and the specific tasks involved. Köhlmyr (2003) looked at the grammatical errors in Swedish 16-year-old learners’ written production in English, Källkvist & Petersson (2006) studied how one class of 14-year-olds and one class of 17-year-olds formulated the rule for subject-verb agreement in English, while Malmberg et al. (2000) used metalinguistic tasks in English grammar for children at Grades 5 and 7 (11-14 years old). Despite the differences between the three studies, there was a similarity in the results in that 3-sg-s was still a difficult structure, and many Swedish learners associated ‘s’ with plural. According to Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998), plural-s is placed at the earliest stage of morphology, requiring no unification of features between elements, whereas third person singular -s is placed at the stage of sentence structure, where there is unification of features between the subject and the verb. Furthermore, plural -s expresses a semantic content (number), while 3-sg-s is a marker of a grammatical function (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001). The present study is similar to Malmberg et al. (2000) with regard to the metalinguistic task used and the age of the participants, and arrives at similar results for the Swedish participants regarding declarative knowledge of 3-sg-s. Similar results were also found for some of the Vietnamese participants in the present study. 39% of the Vietnamese participants had not acquired declarative knowledge of the structure, which shows that not only Swedish participants – who displayed similar results –

had problems with the structure. Both Swedish and Vietnamese differ from English in terms of subject-verb agreement. There is subject-verb agreement in English (marked by an *-s* suffix in 3-sg-*s*), whereas neither Swedish nor Vietnamese have inflections showing subject-verb agreement.

Regarding lexical repertoire, the Vietnamese participants did not produce as many English words as the Swedish participants during the picture description task. The average number of types produced by the Swedish participants was 50.6 while it was 27.3 for the Vietnamese participants.

8.1.4. Research question 2c

Is there a relationship between procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge of L2 English among the learners in this study?

Based on the empirical evidence on learner outcomes, it is now possible to answer Research Question 2c about the relationship between the Swedish and Vietnamese learners' procedural and declarative knowledge of 3-sg-*s*. The results of the present study show that within each group, the correlation between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge was not significant. Half of the Swedish participants who were able to produce 3-sg-*s* on lexical verbs could not describe the rule governing this grammatical feature, and 41% of the Vietnamese participants who did not produce 3-sg-*s* on lexical verbs correctly were nevertheless able to describe the rule. This result is similar to the findings of earlier studies (e.g., R. Ellis, 2008; Flyman Mattsson, 2003) that some learners had neither declarative nor procedural knowledge, whilst others had only declarative knowledge, and still others had both declarative and procedural knowledge. According to R. Ellis (2008) "what constitutes learning difficulty needs to be considered separately for implicit and explicit knowledge" (p. 4).

8.1.5. Research question 3

Can the learning outcomes be tied to teaching methodology and/or out-of-school exposure to English?

Before answering Research Question 3 concerning the effect of input on learning outcomes, we will discuss the differences in out-of-school exposure to English between the groups. The Swedish participants reported more out-of-school contact with the English language than the Vietnamese participants. The most frequent ways in which the Swedish participants interacted with English outside of school were via playing video games, watching television programmes, listening to music, and travelling to countries where English is spoken. The Vietnamese participants also reported some out-of-school exposure to English, but less than the Swedish participants. The most common exposure to English among the Vietnamese participants was through private tutors or lessons at language centres.

The classroom activities observed in the Swedish context were found to involve a large amount of communication. 12 out of 32 (37.5%) Swedish participants had acquired 3-sg-s on lexical verbs as procedural knowledge, only one had acquired the structure as declarative knowledge.

The learning outcomes of the Vietnamese participants may be explained by the way in which Vietnamese classroom instruction focuses on form, as well as the learners' limited exposure to the target language outside of school (except the private tutors).

Only one Swedish participant (learner 6) and one Vietnamese participant (learner 18) were able to both correctly describe the rule governing 3-sg-s and produce correct 3-sg-s utterances. Swedish participant number 6 was exposed to the same instruction as the other Swedish participants in her class, but had also received English language medium schooling in Beijing for some time. Meanwhile, Vietnamese participant number 18 received more out-of-school exposure to English than many of the other Vietnamese participants.

Finally, correlation analyses showed that the Vietnamese participants with more out-of-school exposure to English produced more lexical types. Out-of-school exposure to English thus appeared to play a particularly important role in developing the Vietnamese participants' lexical knowledge. There was a significant correlation between the demographic variable of out-of-school exposure to English of the Vietnamese participants and their lexical knowledge. This finding is in accordance with

previous research that found that exposure to out-of-school learning promotes vocabulary and oral proficiency skills in English (cf. Kuppens, 2010; Lefever, 2010; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2014; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012).

8.2. Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

The limitations of the study will be discussed together with some suggestions for future research.

One potential limitation is the possibility that the target structure of English subject-verb agreement is more difficult to produce for the Vietnamese learners than for the Swedish learners. Neither of the source languages have subject-verb agreement, but Swedish has verb suffixes for tense, which could perhaps help these learners to identify other verb suffixes. Vietnamese learners often omit final consonant clusters in English (Kelz, 1984; L. Nguyen, 1966; see also Son, 2015). It would have been interesting to look at L1 factors in the current study. Vietnamese words are monosyllabic, with no affixes indicating tense or number. In the Swedish context, as Källkvist & Petersson (2006) note, Swedish speakers may have problems with subject-verb agreement in English because in Swedish, the same verb form is used for all persons. However, the study was not designed to look at transfer as an influencing factor in language acquisition, but focused on the influence of classroom differences. In order to study transfer, it would have been necessary to choose structures that occurred in one of the languages and not in the other, something which is outside the scope of the present thesis.

Second, the tasks for the individual learners were designed to focus only on a single grammatical structure, namely English subject-verb agreement. It would be interesting to gain insight into procedural and declarative

knowledge of different grammatical structures among the groups, for example using structures from different stages in the Processability Hierarchy.

The third limitation relates to the data sample. The study investigated classrooms in five schools with a total of eleven lesson observations in Sweden and Vietnam and is inevitably limited in scope, in that it may not be representative of classrooms in the nations as a whole. A truly representative study would require many participants from a large number of different schools located in different parts of the countries. A larger sample size would also strengthen the results of the statistical analyses, and provide additional information in terms of the correlation between procedural and declarative knowledge among the groups. Moreover, the data on English out-of-school exposure was self-reported data. Qualitative interview data and language diary data may be necessary to give a clearer identification of out-of-school learning experiences, and in order to find strong indicators of the relation between out-of-school variables and learner outcomes. Thus, the samples obtained in the empirical studies, whilst representative of the individual classes examined in the research, are not necessarily representative of the larger nations or regions. Policy documents regulating language teaching in the two countries are useful in providing a larger context for the study, although the relationship between policy and practice cannot be assumed to always be a close one.

Further, since the research mostly compared the learners at the group level, the individual differences between language learners were not examined in detail. Individual variation is a potential source of evidence to be studied further in order to better examine the relationship between different types of knowledge and different types of teaching or other factors. Furthermore, it would be worth investigating procedural and declarative knowledge in relation to psycholinguistic measures. For instance, an investigation into learners' working memory could provide a better understanding of how different types of knowledge are acquired.

Finally, the results concerning learner outcomes were investigated at specific discrete times of data collection, and it is possible that results can change over time as learners reach different stages of their learning. Thus, it would also be interesting to undertake a longitudinal study to provide

information on how differences between the groups develop over time. Despite these limitations, the links between the research findings and the broader literature on second language learning and teaching do suggest that the results of the study are informative about English teaching and learning at primary schools in different settings

To conclude, the present thesis provided empirical data on English language education in Swedish and Vietnamese primary schools. The results demonstrate that knowing a grammar rule does not automatically lead to being able to produce the structure in speech. It is hoped that the findings comparing language teaching practices and learner outcomes in terms of procedural and declarative knowledge will provide useful information for language teachers, L2 learners, and SLA researchers and that the findings in the present thesis will stimulate further research.

Summary in Swedish and Vietnamese

Sammanfattning på Svenska

Denna avhandling undersöker kopplingen mellan undervisning och inläring av engelska hos elever i Sverige och i Vietnam. Det innebär att två perspektiv – undervisning och inläring – förs samman och jämförs mellan kulturer, något som man sällan har gjort tidigare. Huvudfokus ligger på analyser av procedurell och deklarativ kunskap om engelsk grammatik, närmare bestämt 3-dje person singular –s.

Ett antal engelsklektioner från femte klass i grundskolor i Sverige (5 lektioner i 2 skolor) och i Vietnam (6 lektioner i 3 skolor) ligger till grund för klassrumsanalysen. Lektionerna observerades och analyserades enligt COLT – schemat (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching; Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). För att kartlägga elevernas kunskaper i engelska användes olika elicitationsinstrument som fångade procedurella och deklarativa kunskaper om engelskans subjekt-verb kongruens. Slutligen besvarade eleverna en enkät med frågor som berörde erfarenheter av engelska utanför skolan.

Resultaten visade att undervisningsmetoderna skilde sig åt mellan Sverige å ena sidan, och Vietnam å andra sidan. De svenska klassrummen utmärktes av en kommunikativ orientering, vilket stämmer överens med tidigare forskning (t.ex. Lundahl 2012). De vietnamesiska klassrummen i studien visade sig istället vara grammatikorienterade, vilket man även funnit i tidigare forskning (t.ex. Khuong, 2015). Olikheterna mellan undervisningsmetoder återspeglades i de skillnader som återfanns i elevernas språkkunskaper. Eleverna i Sverige hade bättre procedurella kunskaper, medan eleverna i Vietnam hade bättre deklarativa kunskaper. Analyserna av de grammatiska kunskaperna visade att de flesta svenska eleverna klarade av att använda 3-dje person –s, men de kunde inte beskriva själva regeln (jfr Malmberg et al., 2000; Källkvist & Petersson, 2006). För de vietnamesiska eleverna var resultatet det motsatta; de kunde ofta ange regeln, men de använde inte 3-dje person –s i produktion. Den statistiska analysen visade ingen korrelation mellan procedurell och

deklarativ kunskap (jfr R. Ellis, 2008; Macrory & Stone, 2000; Seliger, 1979). De svenska eleverna hade inte bara mer kommunikation på engelska i klassrummet, utan de hade också mer exponering för engelska utanför klassrummet. För de vietnamesiska eleverna låg fokus på grammatiska former i klassrummet och de hade endast begränsad erfarenhet för engelska utanför skoltiden. Om detta förekom handlade det oftast om privatlektioner i engelska.

Avhandlingens huvudresultat, att de procedurella och de deklarativa kunskaperna inte var korrelerade, har implikationer för dagens språkundervisning, och resultatet kan därmed bidra till en ökad förståelse av andraspråksinläring av grammatiska strukturer.

Bản tóm tắt luận án bằng tiếng Việt

Luận án này nghiên cứu mối quan hệ giữa việc dạy và việc học tiếng Anh đối với học sinh tiểu học ở Thụy Điển và ở Việt Nam. Rất ít nghiên cứu so sánh việc dạy và học ngoại ngữ giữa hai bối cảnh văn hóa, đất nước khác nhau. Mục đích chính là nghiên cứu kỹ năng tiếng Anh giữa hai nhóm khác nhau, xem người học vừa có khả năng nói tiếng Anh thành thạo đúng ngữ pháp hòa hợp giữa chủ ngữ và động từ ở ngôi thứ 3 số ít (procedural knowledge) mà vừa có thể giải thích được quy tắc ngữ pháp này trong bài viết (declarative knowledge) hay không.

Một số tiết học tiếng Anh lớp 5 ở các trường tiểu học ở Thụy Điển (5 bài học ở 2 trường) và Việt Nam (6 bài học ở 3 trường) được quan sát, ghi âm, ghi hình và sau đó được phân tích thông qua mô hình giảng dạy ngôn ngữ theo hướng giao tiếp (the communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) observation scheme; Spada & Fröhlich, 1995), ngoài việc phân tích chương trình đào tạo tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học ở hai nước. 32 học sinh ở Thụy Điển và 44 học sinh ở Việt Nam trong độ tuổi 11-12 và đang học Lớp 5 được kiểm tra kiến thức tiếng Anh sau các tiết học bằng các bài kiểm tra nói và viết. Các em được ghi âm riêng khi các em nói mô tả một số hình ảnh bằng tiếng Anh, và làm bài viết ngữ pháp. Ngoài ra, các em cũng được trao bảng câu hỏi để điền các thông tin về các hoạt động ngoài trường mà các em có sử dụng tiếng Anh như nghe nhạc tiếng Anh, xem phim tiếng Anh.

Kết quả cho thấy phương pháp giảng dạy trong trường tiểu học ở Thụy Điển và Việt Nam khác nhau. Các lớp học tiếng Anh ở Thụy Điển có định hướng giao tiếp đàm thoại hơn, đúng như kết quả nghiên cứu của Lundahl (2012). Ngược lại, các lớp học tiếng Anh ở Việt Nam dạy nhiều về ngữ pháp hơn, đúng như kết quả nghiên cứu của Khương (2015). Sự khác biệt được tìm thấy trong các hoạt động giảng dạy trong các lớp học giữa hai nhóm đi song song với sự khác biệt trong kết quả các bài kiểm tra kiến thức và kỹ năng tiếng Anh của các em giữa hai nhóm. Hầu hết học sinh ở Thụy Điển nói giao tiếp đúng ngữ pháp trong cấu trúc hòa hợp giữa chủ ngữ và động từ ở ngôi thứ 3 số ít, nhưng các em lại không biết giải thích đúng cấu trúc ngữ pháp này. Còn học sinh Việt Nam lại giỏi hơn về việc phân tích và giải thích cấu trúc ngữ pháp hòa hợp giữa chủ ngữ và động từ trong bài viết nhưng không nói tiếng Anh lưu loát, và thành thạo cấu trúc này. Theo kết quả phân tích khoa học thống kê cho thấy không có mối tương quan giữa hai kỹ năng và kiến thức này giữa hai nhóm, đúng như kết quả các nghiên cứu trước (ví dụ R. Ellis, 2008; Macrory & Stone, 2000, Seliger, 1979). Một phát hiện khác là học sinh ở Thụy Điển, ngoài việc giao tiếp nhiều hơn trong lớp học, cũng có nhiều tiếp xúc với tiếng Anh ngoài lớp học. Mặt khác, học sinh Việt Nam bị hạn chế tiếp xúc với tiếng Anh bên ngoài lớp học, ngoại trừ dưới hình thức đi học thêm tiếng Anh ở các trung tâm ngoại ngữ.

Kết quả của luận án này có thể giúp nâng cao hiểu biết hơn về mối quan hệ giữa dạy và học ngoại ngữ, và về khả năng nói và viết miêu tả cấu trúc ngữ pháp (procedural and declarative knowledge) của người học một ngôn ngữ thứ 2.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Curriculum

Table A. The Vietnamese curriculum: The specific content of English for Grade 5 at primary education level.

THEMES	TOPICS	COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCES	LINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE
Me and My Friends	New friends	Talking about a town/city/country. Talking about nationalities	Pronunciation: Word stress Rhythm and intonation. Vocabulary: Words to name cities/countries/nationalities. Words to indicate ordinal numbers, days, dates, months of the year. Words to name jobs. Words to talk about parts of the body, common sicknesses and accidents in the home. Words to name sports and games of children. Words to indicate frequency. Words to describe free time activities. Words to talk about festivals. Words to name seasons. Words to describe the weather. Words to indicate processes. Words to name places of interest. Words to talk about means of transport.
	New places	Identifying a home address Describing a new place	
	Birthday party	Naming days/dates/months. Identifying when and where someone was born.	
	My diary	Talking about daily activities. Talking about special days and dates.	
	My dreams	Talking about future plans. Talking about a favourite activity.	
Me and My School	Primary school life	Talking about pupils' activities in the school garden. Talking about pupils' activities during breaks.	
	Children's sports and games	Talking about popular sports and games. Expressing frequency.	
	My favourite books	Talking about types of children's books. Talking about (a) character(s) in a book.	
	School festivals	Naming school festivals. Talking about activities at a school festival.	
	Learning English	Talking about the importance of English. Describing how English is learnt.	

Me and My Family	Health and common sicknesses	Naming parts of the body and sicknesses. Specifying healthy foods and drinks.	Words to describe directions. Words to talk about lifestyles. Time expressions. Words to talk about types of books, characters. Cardinal numbers: 51-100. Ordinal numbers: 51 st – 100 th . Grammar: Past simple, Future simple. Complex sentences: <i>clauses of time, place, reason, ...</i> wh-questions: <i>what, when, how, yes/no</i> questions. Modals: <i>should, could, would</i> . Nouns: <i>countable /uncountable</i> . Adjectives: <i>sick, tired, cloudy</i> . Adverbs (manner): <i>fast, hard, well</i> . (frequency): <i>often, never</i> . Prepositions: <i>by, on</i> . Connectives: <i>because, when</i> .
	Safe and sound	Talking about accidents in the home. Expressing concern and giving advice.	
	Holidays and vacations	Describing free time activities of a family member. Talking about family activities in the past.	
	A tale	Telling a story. Counting 51 – 100. Saying 51 st – 100 th .	
	Hobbies of my family members	Talking about hobbies of family members. Talking about future activities/plans.	
Me and the World Around	Seasons and Weather	Asking about the weather. Describing seasons and weather.	
	My community	Talking about a community.	
	Places of interest	Talking about plan for an excursion to a place of interest. Identifying a process of doing/making something.	
	Directions and road signs	Talking about means of transport. Giving directions.	
	The village/city life	Describing a village/city. Comparing a village and a city lifestyle.	

(MOET, 2010:12-13)

Appendix 2.

Letter to the parents (in Swedish and Vietnamese)



LUNDS
UNIVERSITET Lund University
Center for languages and literature

Till föräldrar med barn i klass 5, Xskolan. Tillstånd för inspelning av elever

Hej!

Mitt namn är Vi Thanh Son och jag är doktorand i Lingvistik på Språk-och Literaturcentrum vid Lunds Universitet. Jag jobbar med ett forskningsprojekt där jag jämför engelskkunskaperna mellan grundskolelever i Sverige och Vietnam. För att få in den information jag behöver så skulle jag vilja spela in ljud från engelskalektioner vid ert barns skola. Allt tal på inspelningarna kommer att skrivas ner och användas i min forskning. Jag kommer även att spela in ett antal barn enskilt där de skall beskriva ett antal bilder. Det kommer även att delas ut frågeformulär till eleverna som de skall svara på tillsammans med sina föräldrar.

Alla inspelningar kommer att hanteras konfidentiellt, alla utskrifter och frågeformulär kommer att vara helt anonyma. Eleverna kommer inte jämföras med varandra, information kommer endast användas för att jämföra engelskkunskaperna mellan klasserna i sin helhet.

Jag ber om er tillåtelse att ert barn medverkar i min forskning och att jag spelar in ljud på lektioner där ert barn medverkar samt enskilda inspelningar samt att de svara på mitt frågeformulär. Om ni accepterar att ert barn spelas in under dessa lektioner så fyll i lappen nedan och låt ert barn ge tillbaka till mentor eller engelsklärare. Ett stort tack!

Har ni några frågor om detta så hör gärna av er till mig på telefon eller e-mail.

Telefonnummer: 046-2228710/ 073-7213459

Email: vi_thanh.son@ling.lu.se

Med vänliga hälsningar

Vi Thanh Son

Tillstånd för elever att spela in och delta i forskningsprojekt

Elevens namn- Klass:-----

M ålsmans namnförtydligande – Ort och datum:-----



LUNDS
UNIVERSITET Lund University
Center for languages and literature

Kính gửi phụ huynh của các em học sinh lớp 5, Trường X

Xin phép cho học sinh được ghi âm và tham gia vào đề án nghiên cứu

Kính thưa,

Tên tôi là Sơn Thanh Vi và là một nghiên cứu sinh trong Ngôn ngữ học thuộc bộ môn Ngôn ngữ và Văn học thuộc Đại học Lund, Thụy Điển. Tôi đang làm việc trên một dự án nghiên cứu Tiến Sĩ trong đó tôi so sánh kỹ năng tiếng Anh giữa học sinh tiểu học ở Thụy Điển và Việt Nam. Để có được thông tin mà tôi cần, tôi muốn ghi âm từ các bài học tiếng Anh tại trường của con quý vị. Tất cả các cuộc nói chuyện của các bản ghi sẽ được ghi lại và được sử dụng trong nghiên cứu của tôi. Tôi cũng sẽ ghi âm riêng một số em khi các em sẽ mô tả một số hình ảnh bằng tiếng Anh. Các em cũng sẽ được trao bảng câu hỏi về các hoạt động học tiếng Anh ngoài trường và có thể sẽ trả lời dưới sự hướng dẫn với cha mẹ.

Tất cả các bản ghi âm sẽ được xử lý một cách bí mật, tất cả bảng câu hỏi sẽ hoàn toàn vô danh. Học sinh sẽ không được so sánh với nhau, thông tin sẽ chỉ được sử dụng để so sánh các kỹ năng tiếng Anh giữa các lớp trong nghiên cứu.

Tôi xin phép các bậc phụ huynh cho con mình tham gia vào nghiên cứu của tôi và tôi ghi âm những bài học mà con quý vị tham gia và thu âm cá nhân, và họ trả lời câu hỏi của tôi. Nếu bạn chấp nhận, xin vui lòng điền vào các thông tin dưới đây và cho các em gửi lại cho thầy cô chủ nhiệm lớp. Chân thành cảm ơn!

Nếu có thắc mắc, xin vui lòng liên hệ với tôi qua điện thoại hoặc e-mail.

Điện thoại: 00 46-2228710 / 00 46 73-7213459

Email: vi_thanh.son@ling.lu.se

Trân trọng kính chào!

Sơn Thanh Vi

Tôi cho phép con tôi tham gia vào nghiên cứu này và tham gia vào bài học mà được ghi âm và ghi âm cá nhân.

Tên của học sinh - Lớp:-----

Tên, chữ ký phụ huynh - Ngày tháng năm:-----

Appendix 3. Online questionnaire to Grade 5 English teachers

QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH IN GRADE 5

The questionnaire is designed based on the observation schemes of teaching (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) and has been adapted by myself to be suitable to the study.

The questionnaire aims to study the teaching methods used in English as a second language (L2) at grade 5 in the classroom.

Information will be anonymous and confidential, and greatly appreciated.

Multiple choice questions: Please select the best answer for each question.

Question 1: Do classroom activities entail a lot of teacher-led activities, pupils-led activities, group work, and/or individual work?

Classroom activities entail a lot of teacher-led activities, a few pupils-led activities.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion

Classroom activities entail a lot of group work.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion

Classroom activities entail a lot of individual work.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion

Other ideas.....

Question 2: Should the focus of activities in the classroom be on meaning (communication) or/and grammar?

Communication should be considered the main activity in the classroom, while the teaching of grammar is a secondary activity.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- A combination of meaning (making the pupils understand and produce L2 speech) and form (practicing grammatical structure) is needed, but focus on form is the priority.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Other ideas.....

Question 3: What are the main materials used in the classrooms?

I mainly use minimal written texts (i.e., captions, isolated, word lists, pictures)

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- I mainly use extended written texts (i.e., stories, long dialogues, movies)

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Other ideas.....

Question 4: What are the pupils' main activities in your classroom?

The pupils' main activities are practicing English by speaking and listening for communication.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion

The pupils' main activities are activities in the textbook including speaking English, but more focus is placed on practicing grammatical structures and vocabulary.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Other ideas.....

Question 5: How do you teach grammar in your classroom?

Teaching grammar implicitly during the conversation, but not the grammar rules, and no correcting of mistakes in speech.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Teaching using grammatical rules with examples, drills related to the structures, as well as correcting grammatical mistakes.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Other ideas.....

Question 6: What do you do to improve the pupils' communication in English in the classroom?

Provide the pupils with speaking activities

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Provide the pupils with a lot of vocabulary first before the pupils practice speaking.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Other ideas.....

Question 7: How much use of English (L2) is made in the classroom?

Only English in all lessons.

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Mostly English is used in all lessons, but the native language (L1) is also used some (i.e., 70% English, and 30% L1).

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Both English (L2) and L1 are used, but L1 is used more in all lessons. (i.e., 40% English, and 60% L1).

Please mark only one oval.

- Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree No opinion
- Other ideas.....

Appendix 4.

CHAT Transcription Format

Table A: The CHAT Transcription Format was adopted and adapted from MacWhinney (2009) with the examples in the present study

Symbol	Meaning	Examples in the current study
*	Every speaker line is introduced by a star, followed by a three-letter code, indicating the speaker	*CHI
%	Every transcription line, or main tier, can be followed by one or several comment tiers, or dependent tiers. They always begin with %, followed by a three-letter code. A translation tier (%eng) where the transcription is translated to English.	%sva for subject-verb agreement marking.
#	Pause	
###	Long pause	
()	Explaining remarks	Nej ('no')
[:]	Assimilation	Gonna [: going to]
[=! text]	Paralinguistic Material such as "coughing," "laughing," or "yelling"	[=! text] *CHI1: fish [=! laughing].
xxx	Incomprehensible speech	
Hmm? huh	Questioning	
Mmhm	Yes	
yup	Yes	
hmm	Thinking, waiting	
ahem	Ready to speak	
Er; Uh; Um	Pause	
[= text]	Brief explanations on the text tier	
ahhah	Discovery	
+...	Trailing off, i.e. when an utterance is not completed, but not interrupted because the speaker shifts attention away from what he/she is saying.	
+/.	Interruption, i.e. when an utterance is incomplete because one speaker is interrupted by another speaker	*CHI1:he plays football +/. *INT:ye(a)h. *CHI1:+, in a break.
+,	Self-Completion; used at the beginning of a main tier line to mark the completion of an utterance after an interruption.	
+<	Overlap, i.e. it is used at the beginning of the utterance that overlaps a previous utterance	
Oy	Dismay	
<word (s)> [/]	Retracing without correction	he [/] he says
<word (s)> [//]	Retracing with correction	he [//] she says
<word (s)> [///]	Retracing with reformulation	He says that [///] I think you can say that

Appendix 5. Coding

Table A. Coding and examples in the present study

Code	Meaning	Examples in the current study
%sva	Dependent tiers (%) for subject-verb agreement marking (sva)	*CH11: Peter wake up # in the morning. %sva.\$lex:prt:sm
\$lex:prt:sc	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for lexical verb (lex) in the present tense (prt): The third person singular-s is used correctly (sc)	He <i>eats</i> ; he <i>takes</i> a shower. (Child 16)
\$lex:prt:sm	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for lexical verb (lex) in the present tense (prt): The third person singular-s is underuse/missing (sm)	He <i>wake</i> up for this morning then after that he <i>read</i> a book. (Child 31)
\$lex:prt:so	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for lexical verb (lex) in the present tense (prt): The third person singular-s is overuse (so)	and it <i>is</i> looks very full; # Ye(a)h it's very many people in there. (Child 3)
\$lex:prt:am	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for lexical verb (lex) in the present tense (prt): only one infinitive verb used is considered as ambiguous (am)	Sleep (child 39); Drive a taxi. (Child 40)
\$cop:cor	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for copular verb (cop) used correctly (cor)	Okay he <i>is</i> in the shower; and another thing, okay the school bus, lots of children <i>are</i> in the school bus; it <i>is</i> yellow. (Child 6)
\$lex:pco:aux	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for auxiliary verb (aux) in the present continuous tense	and this one he <i>is eating</i> breakfast at half past seven. (Child 28)
\$lex:pco:ing	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for a verb ending in –ing (V-ing), without an auxiliary, or a copula in the present continuous tense	but this, he <i>reading</i> a book about the moon. (Child 19)
\$oth:have/has	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for other verbs (oth), such as, have/has agreement used as lexical verb or auxiliary verb (have/has)	And then he <i>has</i> lunch. (Child 11) They <i>have</i> lesson. (Child 19)
\$oth:fut	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for other verbs (oth), such as the modal verb <i>will</i> used for future time (fut)	At one o'clock he <i>will</i> eat some lunch. (Child 32)
\$oth:pas	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for other verbs (oth), such as, verbs in the simple past tense (pas)	He <i>got</i> out of the bus, I think. (Child 26)
\$oth:L1	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for other verbs (oth), such as, verbs used in the first language	And after that he; I think he is dirty so he # <i>duschar@s:swe</i> [shower] [=! laughing]. (Child 18)
\$oth:am	Morphemic analysis coding (\$) for others (oth), such as using only nouns instead of verbs	Peter (.) breakfast; Peter (.) lunch. (Child 19)
@s:swe @s:vie	The @s code is used to explicitly mark the use of a particular language, e.g. Swedish or Vietnamese	nej@s:swe [=no]

Appendix 6.

Sample of the transcripts with coding

Learner 16

1 @Begin
2 @Languages: eng
3 @Participants: CHI16 Target_Child, INT Interviewer
4 @ID: eng|sample|INT||||Interviewer|
5 @ID: eng|sample|CHI16||||Target_Child|
6 @Location: Sweden
7 @Media: MZ000019 , audio
8 *INT: Please look at the picture, and please tell me about Peter; what
9 does Peter do every day?
10 *CHI16: Peter, first he wake up in his bed.
11 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
12 *INT: mmhm.
13 *CHI16: and he takes a shower.
14 %sva: \$lex:prt:sc
15 *INT: mmhm.
16 *CHI16: and after the shower, he eats (.) breakfast.
17 %sva: \$lex:prt:sc
18 *CHI16: and then xxx after that he goes to school.
19 %sva: \$lex:prt:sc
20 *CHI16: then he's having a lesson.
21 %sva: \$lex:pco:aux:cor
22 *CHI16: and then he have lunch.
23 %sva: \$have/has:lex:inc
24 *CHI16: and then he read the book.
25 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
26 *CHI16: and he's out with his friends playing football.
27 %sva: \$cop:cor
28 *INT: Good!
29 *CHI16: and then he goes from school.
30 %sva: \$lex:prt:sc
31 *CHI16: and then he eats &er (.) &er food.
32 %sva: \$lex:prt:sc
33 *INT: mmhm.
34 *CHI16: and then he go to sleep at the night.
35 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
36 *INT: okay, that's very good; thank you very much.
37 @End

Learner 12

1 @Begin
2 @Languages: eng
3 @Participants: CHI12 Target_Child, INT Interviewer
4 @ID: eng|sample|INT||||Interviewer|
5 @ID: eng|sample|CHI12||||Target_Child|
6 @Location: Sweden
7 @Media: MZ000015 , audio
8 *INT: Please look at the picture, could you please tell me about
9 Peter, but mostly about Peter's daily activities.
10 *CHI12: Can I tell you about what he did [/] does on the picture?
11 %sva: \$lex:prt:sc
12 *INT: ye(a)h, about his daily activities. What does Peter do every day?
13 *CHI12: ye(a)h okay.
14 *CHI12: he's going up (.) in the morning.
15 %sva: \$lex:pco:aux:cor

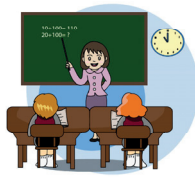
16 *INT: mmhm.
17 *CHI12: &er (.) he take a shower +/.
18 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
19 *INT: mmhm.
20 *CHI12: +, before school so he doesn't smell bad.
21 %sva: \$aux:cor
22 *INT: ahhah okay.
23 *CHI12: he eat breakfast (.) at half past seven.
24 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
25 *INT: Yes, that's right.
26 *CHI12: and there he go in the school bus to school because ye(a)h
27 his parents working and they can't drive him.
28 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm \$lex:pco:ing
29 *INT: Yes.
30 *INT: mmhm.
31 *CHI12: and there the teacher is explaining something to the class.
32 %sva: \$lex:pco:aux:cor
33 *INT: mmhm.
34 *CHI12: there he eat lunch and &er (.)
35 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
36 *CHI12: he eat sandwiches as he brought from home.
37 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm \$oth:pas:lex
38 *INT: mmhm.
39 *CHI12: and there he read a book about the moon.
40 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
41 *INT: mmhm.
42 *CHI12: on the break, he play soccer with friends.
43 %sva: \$lex:prt:am
44 *CHI12: mmhm.
45 *CHI12: and then he go home after school and wave to friends.
46 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm \$lex:prt:sm
47 *CHI12: and then before he go to sleep, he eat dinner (.) ahem chicken,
48 &er potato, broccoli and water.
49 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm \$lex:prt:sm
50 *CHI12: and then he go to bed.
51 %sva: \$lex:prt:sm
52 *INT: okay, that's very good.
53 @End

Appendix 7.

The picture series for the picture description task

(drawn by Utumporn Sankam)

PETER'S DAILY ACTIVITIES



Appendix 8.

Declarative knowledge test (in Swedish and in Vietnamese)

För- och efternamn:.....

Rätt eller fel?

Välj ditt svar genom att fylla i cirkeln,
och ge en motivering till ditt val.

1. *They sings well.*

Är meningen rätt eller fel?

- Rätt
 Fel

Varför det? Motivera ditt svar.

2. *Peter (drive/drives) a taxi*

Vilket ord skulle du fylla i?

- drive
 drives

Varför det? Motivera ditt svar.

3. *The dog often..... (eat/eats) fishes.*

Vilket ord skulle du fylla i?

- eat
 eats

Varför det? Motivera ditt svar.

4. *She often plays piano at 8 am.*

Är meningen rätt eller fel?

- Rätt
 Fel

Varför det? Motivera ditt svar.

Họ và tên:.....

Đúng hay Sai? (Right or Wrong?)

Hãy chọn câu trả lời đúng nhất và giải
thích lý do chọn.

1. *They sings well.*

Câu trên đúng hay sai?

- Đúng
 Sai

Giải thích tại sao chọn câu trên đúng
hay sai.

2. *Peter (drive/drives) a taxi*

Bạn nên sử dụng từ nào trong
ngoặc đơn để điền vào chỗ trống?

- drive
 drives

Giải thích tại sao chọn câu trên
“drive” hoặc “drives”.

3. *The dog often..... (eat/eats) fishes.*

Bạn nên sử dụng từ nào trong
ngoặc đơn để điền vào chỗ trống?

- eat
 eats

Giải thích tại sao chọn câu trên “eat”
hay “eats”.

4. *She often plays piano at 8 am.*

Câu trên đúng hay sai?

- Đúng
 Sai

Giải thích tại sao chọn câu trên
đúng hay sai.

Appendix 9.

Demographic questionnaire

– English out-of-school exposure

Demographic questionnaire

Purpose: This questionnaire is designed for the second language learners of English in order to gather information on demographics, knowledge of second language, and the environment besides classroom showing how they use English.

Note: All information will be kept strictly confidential

I. Demographic Characteristics

Questions 1 – 4 ask about your background and second language experience. Please answer the questions below. Circle your answer or fill in the blank as appropriate.

Name: _____ Your age: _____ Your sex: Male Female

1. What is your native language?

2. I speak English as a second language
 Yes
 No. Others:.....
3. Did you live in any English speaking countries before?
 No
 Yes
 3.1. If yes, then where and how long?
4. How many years have you already had English education at school?
 Number of years:.....

II. How I use English

5. Please indicate how much you use English as a second language in the following situations by sticking in the most appropriate column.

	Every day	Some days in the week	Some days in the month	Some days in the years	Never
8.1. Watching films in English					
8.2. Speaking English with friends					
8.3. Email/chatting in English					
8.4. Playing video games in English					
8.5. Reading English books, newspapers.					
8.6. Listening to English music					
8.7. Watching television programmes in English					
8.8. Traveling to English-speaking countries					
8.9. Speaking English at home					
8.10. Private English lessons at Foreign Language Center/ English Tutor					
8.11. Others:.....					

Thank you very much!

Appendix 10.

Sample size in terms of lexicon, T-units and turns for the Swedish and Vietnamese participants

Table A. Sample size in terms of lexicon, T-units and turns for the Swedish participants

Learner	Types	Tokens	T-units	Turns	T-units/Turn
1	31	68	9	1	9.000
2	50	100	17	3	5.667
3	83	166	22	3	7.333
4	44	73	14	10	1.400
5	42	79	12	5	2.400
6	78	162	24	7	3.429
7	61	107	17	7	2.429
8	45	91	14	12	1.167
9	29	51	12	13	0.923
10	37	73	15	15	1.000
11	31	68	10	9	1.111
12	77	133	15	10	1.500
13	44	79	17	15	1.133
14	40	75	10	6	1.667
15	61	127	13	4	3.250
16	39	72	11	4	2.750
17	46	103	11	2	5.500
18	41	88	9	2	4.500
19	35	59	10	3	3.333
20	52	96	11	1	11.00
21	72	189	26	8	3.250
22	40	68	11	2	5.500
23	40	68	10	1	10.00
24	37	101	13	4	3.250
25	52	96	15	5	3.000
26	64	107	16	5	3.200
27	57	118	18	8	2.250
28	88	168	21	10	2.100
29	42	71	11	5	2.200
30	43	70	10	1	10.00
31	51	97	15	3	5.000
32	66	127	18	6	3.000
Average	50.56	98.44	14.28	5.94	6.539

Table B. Sample size in terms of lexicon, T-units and turns for the Vietnamese participants

Learner	Types	Tokens	T-units	Turns	T-units/turns
1	26	45	12	10	1.200
2	45	72	14	8	1.750
3	20	34	17	9	1.889
4	37	65	13	11	1.182
5	21	50	13	10	1.300
6	28	46	15	10	1.500
7	29	52	13	12	1.083
8	24	26	12	12	1.000
9	16	23	10	6	1.667
10	50	87	12	3	4.000
11	28	67	19	10	1.900
12	16	25	8	4	2.000
13	6	8	5	3	1.667
14	42	62	13	11	1.182
15	38	73	16	12	1.333
16	29	50	12	8	1.500
17	34	56	17	13	1.308
18	27	45	15	12	1.250
19	35	48	15	12	1.250
20	27	48	12	10	1.200
21	20	25	12	9	1.333
22	32	56	13	13	1.000
23	20	25	14	10	1.400
24	45	92	14	13	1.077
25	55	87	12	8	1.500
26	34	49	13	13	1.000
27	20	22	13	13	1.000
28	16	18	10	8	1.250
29	15	16	9	9	1.000
30	19	29	12	8	1.500
31	33	55	8	4	2.000
32	16	28	12	8	1.500

Learner	Types	Tokens	T-units	Turns	T-units/turns
33	21	27	11	11	1.000
34	13	22	11	8	1.375
35	29	47	12	9	1.333
36	46	72	13	10	1.300
37	28	49	13	11	1.182
38	39	64	11	4	2.750
39	14	17	16	8	2.000
40	18	21	12	7	1.714
41	28	49	12	12	1.000
42	18	24	7	5	1.400
43	12	24	12	12	1.000
44	31	58	14	11	1.273
Average	27.27	44.50	12.48	9.32	1.456

Appendix 11.

Out-of-school exposure to English among the Swedish and Vietnamese participants

Table A. Average demographic scores for each participant in the groups

Learner	Swedish	Vietnamese
1	2.33	3.20
2	2.33	2.90
3	2.22	3.40
4	3.11	2.10
5	2.00	3.50
6	2.33	3.40
7	2.00	3.30
8	3.00	3.40
9	2.56	3.50
10	2.44	3.40
11	3.33	3.40
12	1.78	2.30
13	3.55	4.70
14	2.55	3.50
15	2.67	3.40
16	2.67	2.60
17	2.67	3.20
18	2.89	2.40
19	3.11	2.70
20	2.78	3.80
21	2.67	4.50
22	2.00	4.70
23	3.78	2.40
24	2.67	2.90
25	3.22	2.30
26	2.56	2.80
27	3.78	3.40
28	3.11	5.00
29	2.33	3.20
30	2.22	5.00
31	2.44	2.90
32	3.22	4.33
33		4.22
34		4.56
35		3.30
36		2.60
37		2.90
38		3.10
39		3.90
40		4.50
41		3.30
42		4.00
43		4.00
44		2.30

Table B. Swedish participant 6 and Vietnamese participant 18: The contexts of out-of-school exposure to English

English out-of-school activities	Swedish participant 6	Vietnamese participant 18
Films	SdW	SdW
Friends	SdW	SdW
Email/chatting	SdW	SdW
Video games	Ed	SdW
Books_Newspaper	Ed	SdW
Music	Ed	SdW
Television	SdM	SdW
Travel	SdY *2	SdY*1
English at home	SdW	SdW
Others (Formal and informal language learning)	Spent two years at an international school in Beijing	Lessons at foreign language centres (3 evenings per week)

Note: Ed = everyday; SdW = some days in the week; SdM = some days in the month; SdY = some days in the year; N/A = no activity/never.

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