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BERGEN UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

«Hvem sa det?»

Forskning på bruk av muntlig engelsk i engelsk undervisning samt kilder til 'incidental learning' i to norsk ungdomsskoleklasser.

"Who said that?"

A study into the use of oral English in English-language teaching and sources of incidental English-language learning in two Norwegian lower-secondary school classrooms.

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ABSTRACT.

This thesis investigates how much oral English pupils are exposed to, and how much oral English they produce, in two ESL classrooms in the eighth and tenth grades in western Norway. The study also focuses on extra-curricular sources of incidental language learning where these pupils are exposed to and can produce oral English. Research from neighbouring Sweden (Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Olsson, 2012; Henry, 2013) has focused on the effect incidental language learning, in particular online digital gaming, has on pupils' acquisition of English. There is however little Norwegian research in this particular field (Sletten, Strandbo & Gilje, 2015; Theodorsen, 2015).

Inspired by these studies, this thesis hypothesized that pupils produce little oral English in ESL language classes in Norway. Furthermore, that pupils are exposed to greater amounts of oral English from extra-curricular sources. These sources, particularly online digital gaming, provide pupils greater opportunity for exposure to and to produce oral English, in arenas the pupils perceive as authentic and relevant.

To investigate these hypotheses, data was collected through 15 hours of classroom observation, using the Classroom Oral Participation Scheme (COPS). This scheme described events in the classroom on multiple levels: activities at whole class level (writing, reading, episodes of L1 and L2 speech production, listening, silence): and who engaged in these activities (teacher, individual pupils, groups, whole class). Three pupils in each class were selected for closer observation, to provide greater nuance in the same areas as described at whole class level. In addition to classroom observation, pupils in the sample population (N= 45) answered questionnaires designed to explore active and passive extra-curricular sources of oral English these pupils were exposed to.

Research findings indicate that while instances of individual pupils producing oral English in the ESL classroom were infrequent, pupils were exposed to and produced significant amounts of oral English through discussions, conversations and reading. Activities requiring use of oral communicative abilities (listening and speech production) accounted for nearly 90% of the observed activities in both classes. The passive incidental language learning sources music, television and YouTube were the greatest sources of exposure to oral English, followed by the ESL-classroom and the cinema. Online digital gaming was found to be the smallest source of exposure for the sample population in this study.

ABSTRACT IN NORWEGIAN.

Denne masteroppgaven omhandler bruk av muntlig engelsk blant elever på åttende- og tiende trinn i to engelsk-som-andrespråk (ESL) klasserom i Vest-Norge. Formålet med studien er å undersøke hvor mye muntlig engelsk elever blir eksponert for, og hvor mye muntlig engelsk de produserer i ESL-klasserommet. Samtidig har studien fokusert på kilder av *incidental language learning* utenfor skolen hvor disse elevene både blir eksponert for, og har mulighet til å produsere muntlig engelsk. Forskning fra Sverige (Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Olsson, 2012; Henry, 2013) har fokusert på hvordan *incidental language learning* har påvirket måten elever tilegner seg engelsk. Det er lite forskning som har blitt gjort på dette feltet i Norge (Sletten, Strandbo & Gilje, 2015; Theodorsen, 2015).

Denne studien antar at elevene produserer lite muntlig engelsk i ESL-klasserom i Norge. Videre antas det at elever blir utsatt for større mengder av muntlig engelsk utenfor ESL klasserommet. Disse arenaer, spesielt online digitale spill, antas å gi elevene de største mulighetene for eksponering til, og for å produsere muntlig engelsk.

For å undersøke disse hypotesene ble data samlet gjennom 15 timer med observasjon i klasserommet, ved hjelp av *Classroom Oral Participation Scheme* (COPS). Dette redskapet beskriver hendelser i klasserommet på flere nivå: aktiviteter på klasse nivå (skriving, lesing, episoder av L1 og L2 taleproduksjon, lytting, stillhet), og hvem som deltok i disse aktivitetene (lærer, enkeltelever, grupper, hele klassen). Tre elever i hver klasse ble valgt for nærmere observasjon, dette for å gi større nyanser i de samme områdene som beskrevet på hel-klasse nivået. I tillegg til klasseromsobservasjon, svarte elevene i utvalget (N = 45) på et spørreskjema utviklet for å utforske aktive og passive kilder til muntlig engelsk disse elevene utsettes for.

Oppgavens forskningsresultater viser at mens tilfeller der enkeltelever produserer muntlig engelsk i ESL klasserommet var sjeldne, ble elever eksponert for og produserte betydelige mengder muntlig engelsk gjennom diskusjoner, samtaler og lesing. Aktiviteter som krever bruk av muntlige kommunikasjonsferdigheter (lytting og tale produksjon) stod for nesten 90% av de observerte aktivitetene i begge klasser. De passive kilder; fjernsyn, musikk og YouTube, var de største kildene for eksponering til muntlig engelsk, etterfulgt av ESL-klasserommet og filmer på kino. Online digital spill ble funnet å være den minste kilden til eksponering for elevene i denne studien.

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1. INTRODUCTION.

Now more than ever, English is considered necessary for international communication in many parts of the world. Taught as a foreign language in many countries, English is fast becoming a second language in Norway. Pupils in Norway receive English teaching alongside their mother tongue from first grade. Mastery of English-language oral communicative abilities is essential if English-language users are to be successful in international communication.

In an increasingly digital world, the use of text messages, Twitter and other social media are affecting the length, register and nature of how we communicate, in both mother tongues and the lingua franca English has become. Abbreviations such as 'lol' and 'brb', the necessary brevity imposed by space restrictions (Twitter, Snapchat and SMS), and the generally informal nature of most communication exchanges in these different forms of media, contribute to language use which is becoming more 'oral' in nature every day.

The aim of this study is to describe phenomena related to use of oral English both in and outside one eighth-grade and one tenth-grade classroom in Western Norway. Mastery of English-language communication, both in the international arenas described here and as laid out in the Norwegian national curriculum requires young language learners to be exposed to and allowed to experiment with the language. The exposure or input they receive should be comprehensible, and more importantly, deemed relevant by the learners themselves. This study intends to investigate how much production of oral English occurs in the English-language classroom, and who is producing it. The aim is to describe how much oral English pupils are exposed to, and which opportunities pupils receive to use their oral English communicative abilities in a classroom situation. With the increasingly digitalised and globalised world described here in mind, the possibility that young language learners are exposed to and use more oral English outside the classroom than they do in the classroom is ever more realistic. This study aims to explore what extra-curricular sources of English pupils are exposed to, and how these might affect their oral English communicative abilities.

1.1. Background.

Sundqvist (2009), Olsson (2012) and Henry (2013) describe pupils who seem to bring extensive knowledge of English to lower-secondary classrooms, yet use oral English infrequently in the classroom: instead, they use their oral-English communicative abilities

more frequently in other arenas. Further contributing to the impression of pupils as adept English-language learners, the Swedish National Agency for Education compiled a report evaluating secondary schools in Sweden. As part of this evaluation, over 50 percent of pupils indicated that they learnt as much if not more English outside the classroom (National Agency for Education 2004: 79). My own experiences as an English-language teacher in Norwegian lower-secondary schools reflect this image. Pupils with low amounts of participation in oral activities in the classroom still achieve remarkable results in end-of-year oral exams. The implication would appear to be that pupils are acquiring their oral English communicative abilities in arenas outside the classroom.

Henry's (2013) concept of *authenticity* has had a significant impact on the direction of research conducted for the present study. Learners assess activities based on perceptions of relevance the activity has to their sense of self-identity. If the learner deems these activities irrelevant, or not authentic, to their sense of identity, they may choose not to engage in the activity (Henry, 2013: 14). The present study posits the idea that evaluations of authenticity made by pupils, combined with a range of factors affecting motivation – extrinsic/ intrinsic sources of motivation, investment-return analyses – affect pupils' decision to engage in activities in the English-language classroom. With Norwegian tenth graders achieving high average grades in-end-of year oral exams (Skoleporten, 2016), in spite of apparently little oral English use in the classroom, extra-curricular arenas would appear to offer opportunities for use of oral English that pupils identify as both authentic and relevant to their needs as language users. Such relevant exposure or input would appear to motivate pupils to use oral English more often in these extra-curricular arenas than in the English-language classroom.

A further significant source of inspiration for the present study is research on sources of incidental language learning, with a focus on online digital gaming and the effects this has on English-language communicative abilities in pupils. Studies conducted by Sundqvist (2009), Sylvén & Sundqvist (2012), Olsson (2012) and Henry (2013) have been particularly influential in defining the area of focus for research. These studies show significant connections between online digital game play and English communicative abilities in pupils at lower-secondary school age. Henry suggests that these rich, engaging and culturally relevant sources of incidental language learning may also seriously affect pupils evaluation of the relevance and authenticity of classroom based English language teaching they receive (Henry, 2013: 7).

Inspiration provided by these studies, in combination with an apparent lack of research in this area conducted from a Norwegian perspective, lead to the focus for research conducted for this study. Recent research conducted on oral English in Norway is discussed in the next section in order to illustrate the gap in research conducted within the focus area of the present study.

1.2. Norwegian studies on use of oral English and incidental language learning.

While outweighed by the amount of research concerning written English, there has been some recent research into oral English in Norwegian schools. Agasøster (2012) and Chvala (2012) investigated the use, structure and assessment of oral English exams in lower-secondary schools. Yildiz (2011) conducted research with a similar focus at upper-secondary school level. Research conducted by Salsten (2008) focused on oral interactions between teacher and pupils in one teaching session in an English-language classroom. The primary focus of this study was to investigate what kind of language-learning was promoted through the co-construction of meaning involved in oral pupil-teacher interactions– steered predominately by the teacher involved (Salsten, 2008).

Gjendemsjø (2013) investigated the use of English in a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) project in a ninth-grade classroom. The language of instruction was English, but the focus of this research was on the teacher and pupils' perceptions of CLIL as a teaching method, and their perceptions of how this method affected the manner in which they learned English. Research conducted by Hestnes (2006) had a similar focus. This Norwegian-language study observed teaching conducted in upper and lower secondary schools in Norway, by foreign-language teaching students involved in an exchange program. These students taught a range of subjects in English. The focus of this study was on how pupils involved in these classes perceived the teaching they received, as well as their perceptions of how this affected their English-language learning (Hestnes, 2006: 219).

Research conducted in Norway on incidental language learning is somewhat more limited. Theodorsen (2015) investigated the effects of short periods of exposure to one digital game, on individual 11-13 year old pupils' ability to translate 28 English words to Norwegian. This small scale study concluded that the digital game used as part of the conducted research was well suited for learning (Theodorsen, 2015: 19). Rugesæter (2014) studied the effects of passive incidental language learning through exposure to subtitled English language television programmes, on young Norwegian pupils' ability to distinguish between English phoneme

pairs. The conclusion from this study was that exposure to the subtitled programmes in itself had little or no effect on the pupils' ability to discriminate between these phonemes (Rugesæter, 2014: 17).

Sletten, Strandbø & Gilje (2015), conducted the only other Norwegian research this study could identify that focused on connections between incidental learning and digital gaming. This Norwegian-language study explored relationships between participation in sports clubs, digital gameplay and grades achieved in maths, Norwegian and English in a sample of pupils aged 13-16. English was the only subject where a slight positive relation between significant amounts of digital gameplay and average grades in English was recorded among boys from the sample population (Sletten et al., 2015: 346).

In summary, there is a growing body of research conducted in neighbouring Sweden (Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Henry, 2013) showing connections between oral English input in classroom settings, the amount of extra-curricular oral English pupils from those classrooms may be exposed to, and pupils' acquisition of oral communicative abilities. With the Norwegian curriculum resembling that of its neighbour in many aspects (LK 06, 2011[1]; Skolverket, 2011), and high levels of exposure to extra-curricular sources of oral English through social media, music, digital gaming and television common in both countries, it would be logical to assume that a similar scenario might exist in Norway.

The present study identified only limited amounts of Norwegian research into the effects of incidental learning on pupils' English abilities. None of the research identified focused on factors affecting pupils' motivation to produce oral English in English-language classrooms, or the arenas outside of the classroom where pupils can be exposed to and engage in the production of oral English. As such, this study aims to provide some insight that may aid in filling that research gap.

[1] This reference is to the webpage with the English language translation of the Norwegian curriculum first released in 2006. Despite recent updates, this curriculum is still referred to as LK 06, and will be referred to as such throughout this study.

1.3. Research hypotheses and aims.

1.3.1. Research hypotheses.

This research project began with a set of hypotheses. The first was that - *Pupils in Norwegian lower-secondary classrooms produce little oral English in English-language teaching sessions.* Lower-secondary pupils receive an average of one and a half hours English-language teaching per week, while Norwegian language subjects at this level account for up to 22 hours of teaching a week (Udir f, 2015). Yet the average grade for tenth grade end-of-year English oral exams has been the same or higher than the average grade in Norwegian oral exams in recent times (Skoleporten, 2016). Several of the desired oral language use competencies laid out in the English curriculum in LK 06 address pupils' ability to produce oral English in a range of different registers and situations (LK 06, 2011). If the oral English input pupils receive in these classes is to motivate them to experiment with and produce oral English, and if it is to be effective in the face of the possibilities for extra-curricular input and language production the present study believes pupils are exposed to, it must occur in a fashion the pupils themselves deem relevant and *authentic.*

Henry (Henry 2013, 12) explores this concept of authenticity of oral English input language learners are exposed to, and its effects on these learners' motivation to produce oral English themselves. Henry's research describes Swedish teenagers who produce little English in the classroom, while engaging in English-language online digital gameplay outside of school. These games are described as offering a rich, engaging experience requiring high levels of cooperation with other players. Success in these games requires communication between players, which almost exclusively occurs in oral English. According to Henry (2013), such language use is perceived by these teens as relevant, resulting in greater motivation to engage in production of oral English in these arenas than in the classroom (Henry, 2013: 14).

These concepts of authenticity and motivation contributed to the second and third hypotheses the present study seeks to address. The second hypothesis is - *Pupils are exposed to more oral English from extra-curricular sources of input than they are in the classroom.* Discussions with both my own pupils in English-language classes, and those involved in research for the present study, indicated that films and television, social media, music and in particular, online digital gaming are common extra-curricular sources of exposure to English-language input for these pupils. Henry's (Henry, 2013) idea that this extra-curricular input could provide greater

opportunity for pupils to produce oral English inspired the third hypothesis – *Online digital gaming would provide the majority of this exposure for pupils in this study*.

1.3.2. Research aims.

To explore these hypotheses, a set of research aims was developed. The first aim is designed to address the first hypothesis by investigating *i. How much oral English use occurs in the classrooms observed for this study, and who is producing it?* This aim will be investigated using a classroom observation scheme. This scheme will record type and origin of oral production (pupil or teacher initiated, response, choral activities etc.), which register the oral production occurs in (conversation, reading, presentations etc.), the duration of the language produced, which language is produced (L1 Norwegian or L2 English), as well as other activities occurring in the classroom (writing, silence, listening exercises etc.).

This data will help to identify how active pupils are, the amount of oral English production they engage in, as well as give an indication of how much input these pupils are exposed to in a classroom situation. Discussion of the amount of input pupils receive in the classroom compared to the amount of input they are exposed to from extra-curricular sources of oral English, will also have a basis in this data. The data will also assist in determining to what level the scenario described in Swedish lower-secondary schools (National Agency for Education 2004; Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Henry, 2013) earlier in this section, applies for the two classes observed as part of this study.

The second aim addresses the two remaining hypotheses, by investigating *ii. In which other arenas are pupils in this study exposed to, or engage in the production of, oral English? w*ith the aid of a questionnaire. This questionnaire will ask pupils to identify their ESL learner history, different sources and types of extra-curricular oral English input (*passive*, requiring no follow-up use of the language, or *active*, requiring active use of the language) as well as the amount of time they are exposed to these sources of input. This information allows comparison between the number of hours of exposure to oral English input recorded here and in the classroom observation, and the number of hours of oral Norwegian exposure pupils receive in classrooms. The results collected as part of this research aim will also allow a nuanced picture of the types and amount of extra-curricular exposure which could allow pupils to produce oral English.

To summarize, this study has three hypotheses regarding the research being conducted:

1. *Pupils in Norwegian lower-secondary classrooms produce little oral English in English-language teaching sessions*
2. *Pupils are exposed to more oral English from extra-curricular sources of input than they are in the classroom.*
3. *Online digital gaming would provide the majority of this exposure for pupils in this study*.

These hypotheses will be addressed through two research questions:

i. *How much oral English use occurs in the classrooms observed for this study, and who is producing it?*
ii. *In which other arenas are pupils in this study exposed to, or engage in the production of, oral English?*

1.4.Thesis Structure.

This thesis is composed of six chapters. Chapter 2 presents theory on English as second language (ESL) learning, defines oral communicative abilities, and explores factors affecting motivation for language learning, including, among others, authenticity. Theories concerning incidental language learning are also presented in this chapter. Chapter 3 presents the methodology, methods and design used in this study, while chapter 4 presents research findings. Chapter 5 presents a discussion of research findings in light of the theory presented earlier. Chapter 6 concludes the study, summarizing the research conducted and proposing areas for further research.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.

2.1. Introduction.

With English being the global language described in the introduction, successful acquisition of oral English communicative ability requires both input and the possibility to produce the target language (Udir c, 2013). The first aim of this study sets out to investigate how much time pupils spend exposed to English-language input in the two observed classes, as well as how much time they spend using and producing oral English.

The second aim of this study is an attempt to identify what extra-curricular sources of oral English these pupils may be exposed to. In an increasingly digital world, the study will attempt to explore what role passive sources - social media, film, and streaming websites – and active sources – online digital gaming - of incidental language learning potentially have on pupils' production of oral English. As briefly outlined in the introduction to this study, there exists a very real possibility that pupils may be exposed to greater amounts of English-language input and engage in more production of oral English, outside the English classroom than within the classroom.

In the preface to its English curriculum, the Norwegian Directorate of Education[2] defines the ability to use written and oral English, as well as an understanding of how the language is used in different contexts, as vital for success in a world where English is an international language. (Udir a, 2013). This focus on English as a global lingua franca is indicative of the aims laid out elsewhere in the document. Crystal posits the idea that a language becomes global when it either is acknowledged as the native language, official language, or prioritised foreign language (Crystal, 1997: 3). Pupils in Norway are taught English alongside their mother tongue, from first grade. Speitz argues that English is no longer a foreign language in Norway, rather it is almost a second language (Speitz, 2012: 12). If this status as a second rather than a foreign language is correct, pupils should ideally receive similar amounts of classroom-based English-language input as they do in L1 Norwegian.

If pupils are to attain the mastery of oral forms of the English language Udir aims for, English needs to be used in *contextually relevant situations* (Udir c, 2013; Lave, 1999; Henry, 2013). If these contextually relevant situations do not occur in the classroom, there exists a

[2] Hereafter Udir, the common contraction used for the directorate's Norwegian name, Utdanningsdirektoratet.

possibility for pupils to be exposed to, and engage in producing, the English language in a variety of extra-curricular sources. These extra-curricular sources are identified by a number of different terms – *extramural learning* (Sundqvist, 2009; Olsson, 2012; Sylven & Sundqvist, 2012), *out-of-school learning experiences* (Henry, 2013) and *incidental learning* (Sylven, 2010; Rugesæter, 2014). This study adopts the term *incidental language learning*.

2.1.1.Structure of the chapter.

This chapter starts with a presentation of English as Second Language (ESL) learning theory. While English enjoys an important status in Norway (Speitz, 2012: 12; Udir a, 2013), pupils have potentially already been exposed to six years of L1 language learning at home and in kindergarten, before their English L2 learning begins in the first grade. In an attempt to define the area of focus for this study, a section on the importance of oral communication and communicative ability is presented. This is followed by an overview of the Norwegian curricula, guidelines, desired competencies and evaluation methods for the teaching of English in primary and lower-secondary learning. The focus here is on the portrayal of oral English in the curricula. Further, the Norwegian curriculum is compared to international curricula, exploring differences and similarities. This will both describe the Norwegian curriculum in an international perspective, and provide a platform later in this study for discussion of the collected data. Different language learning perspectives are then discussed, in an attempt to place the present study within a given language theory perspective.

There appear to be several factors at play when considering pupils' use of oral English in the classroom. Theories exploring some of these factors - amount and quality of oral communication input, motivation, investment/return analyses made by pupils and social context - are presented in this section. These factors are discussed to provide a theoretical framework for the first aim of this study; investigating how much oral English occurs in a Norwegian lower-secondary school, and who is producing it? An in depth review of all the factors affecting oral language use is beyond the scope of this study, but theories deemed relevant to the theoretical framework for this investigation are included.

The second aim of this study is to investigate possible sources of incidental English-language learning pupils may be exposed to or engage in. Research into this field is discussed and compared, with the intent of providing an understanding of the nuances involved, and aiding in an eventual discussion of incidental language learning sources identified in data collected as part of this study.

2.2. English as Second Language Learning (ESL).

Learning a second or foreign language represents a different set of challenges to first-language learning. Variations in grammatical rules, sentence structure, and cultural differences between the L1 and L2 must all be negotiated. By definition, second-language learners have a set of experiences and skills developed from learning their first language, which they did not have when learning their L1, which they may draw on to assist in learning the new language (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 30).

Proponents of Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG) and the *Critical period hypothesis* believe that first language acquisition occurs naturally in a given period of a learner's development. Younger learners may lack life-experience and well-developed metacognitive strategies to learn new languages. However, they possess the innate ability to understand new language features, as explained by UG, if these language features are presented in an intelligible manner (Maccaro, 2003: 24).

Spada & Lightbown (2006) reference differing opinions on how UG and the critical period hypothesis apply to second-language learning. White (1991) and Cook (2003) represent one of the approaches they discuss (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 35), stating that UG suitably explains the processes of second-language acquisition. According to the authors, Bley-Vroman (1983) and Schachter (1990) represent the alternative argument that UG can explain first-language acquisition, but does not adequately explain the processes involved in second language acquisition, especially in learners who have passed the critical period (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 35). This approach suggests that second language learners, who have passed this critical period, may rely on meta-cognitive language awareness, gained from experiences in learning their first language, to assist in acquiring a new language (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 30-31).

Sociocultural perspectives on first and second-language learning are similar. Both focus on the cognitive processes involved the acquisition of a new language. This study interprets these perspectives from within the tradition best represented by Vygotskij's Zone of Proximal Development. Meaning and cognitive processes develop during social interaction with others, through the use of tools such as language, with these processes eventually becoming internalised (Woolfolk, 2004: 76; Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 48). Similar to ideas presented in the discussion of UG earlier in this section, in a sociocultural language learning perspective, L2 learners have an assortment of tools - strategies and meta-cognitive

knowledge acquired from learning their first language - which can be used to assist in the process of internalising meaning created by learning the L2 (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 30-31).

The present study approaches ESL learning from a sociocultural perspective. The belief is that language learning, whether L1 or L2, is a socially dependent phenomena, allowing learners to create meaning and develop cognitive processes through interaction with others. This creation and internalisation of meaning occurs first through mastery of the language, in this case English. In line with the focus of this study, oral communication is considered the primary tool language users have to engage in this interaction and creation of meaning. The next section explores oral communication theory relevant to the present study.

2.2.1.Oral communication.

As argued by Brown communication is a complex, situationally and socially dependent process, requiring production, comprehension, reflection and processing of both external and internal sources of information (Brown, 2000: 6),. In the *Common European Framework Of Reference For Languages,* The Council of Europe states that communication can be used in structured and unstructured forms – for example speeches and presentations - or spontaneous interaction with others. As such, it is contextually dependent, and requires the language user to engage in a number of communication skills as well as adapt strategies suitable to the context (Council of Europe b, 2014: 43-100).

In *Orality and Literacy* Ong (1982) discusses arguments for the importance of oral communication. The book presents his theories on primary orality, defined as the oral speech of cultures that are"… unfamiliar with writing."(Ong, 1982; 6). He presents de Saussure's (1959) idea that oral speech is fundamental to verbal communication, and is complemented by – rather than augmented by - written language (Ong, 1982; 5). Although the focus of his book is on the importance of oral communication forms, Ong acknowledges the potential of written language to broaden knowledge and understanding in ways which oral primacy does not allow. Indeed, Ong claims that advanced study of language and other phenomena would be impossible without written language forms. (Ong, 1982: 7-8). However, the focus of Ong's investigations is oral language, perhaps best summarized in his statement that "Oral expression can exist and mostly has existed without any writing at all, writing never without orality." (Ong, 1982; 8).

Seeming to both echo and support Vygotskij's theories on the importance of oral communication for social interaction and the development of higher cognitive processes, Ong stated that oral language and thought are both intrinsically connected to sound (Ong, 1982; 6). Indeed, Ong argues that "Human society first formed itself with the aid of oral speech,…" (Ong, 1982: 2), with written language forms coming noticeably late, in evolutionary terms. While written communicative ability is also a valid component of language learning (Ong, 1982: 7-8; Udir a, 2013), Ong's theories on the importance of oral communicative ability are particularly relevant to the discussion of sources of incidental language learning the present study investigates. Indeed, oral English is the primary form of communication in the sources of incidental language learning explored in the second stage of data collection for this study.

The last decade has seen dramatic changes in access to different forms of media and digital communication. The introduction to this study discussed the manner in which changing digital media usage has affected the manner in which such information exchanges take place, with a tendency toward more 'oral' forms of communication. The increased use of text messages and social media has affected the brevity, register and formality of both written and oral communication.

Henry's study into the effects online gaming has on incidental language learning in Swedish youth illustrates these changes in the use of media and digital communication. This study reported that for Swedish teens, between 2006 and 2010, there was a noticeable decrease in the time they spent watching television and reading books, at the same time as there were significant increases in internet use, watching film clips online and online gaming (Henry, 2013: 6). Changes such as these have contributed to increased demands on language users' communicative abilities, in particular oral communicative ability. Watching films or listening to music online are examples of language learning through passive input, where learners are not required to use the language (Rugesæter, 2014: 2). Online digital gaming requires language learners to engage much more actively in language use, both through interaction with the game being played as well as other players (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012: 305; Henry, 2013:7).

The increase in popularity of text messages as well as social media platforms such as Snapchat and Facebook, has led to changes in the frequency and duration of communication. A range of studies have investigated how written texts used in these arenas have become shorter, use a different register, and are increasingly "oral" in nature (Crystal, 2001; Chua,

2009; Lanchantin et.al, 2013). With English being the default language in many online gaming arenas where oral communication has a central role (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012: 303), and the lingua franca of the internet, communicating online in English with friends and fellow game players with another L1 is increasingly more common. Ong's theory on the role of oral speech as the primary communication form is perhaps even more valid today than it was almost 35 years ago..

2.3.1. Communicative ability.

The importance of being able to communicate is defined in the five fundamental skills laid out in LK 06, (LK 06, 2011) with the ability to communicate orally being extensively underlined in the English course plan (LK 06, 2011). According to Hasselgreen (2004), Hymes first introduced the idea of *communicative competence* in 1972. Hymes argued that the dominant Chomsky-esque model of language competence that existed at the time, did not adequately describe the scope of the different elements involved, which include competence, knowledge of language, and the ability to use the language (Hasselgreen, 2004: 33).

This section presents two models of communicative ability, Canale & Swain's *model of communicative ability* (Canale & Swain, 1980), and the Common European Framework of Reference(Council of Europe, 2001). Brief exploration of these models is presented here to define how the term *communicative ability* is understood and the context in which it is used in the present study. These models are also used to illustrate the complexity of the concept of communicative ability.

Canale and Swain developed a model of communicative language ability which shows the complexities involved in defining the term (Canale & Swain, 1980). Communicative ability is shown as a multi-component set of different elements, related to and affecting each other. The model was originally composed of *strategic, sociolinguistic* and *grammatical* elements. Strategic competence addresses strategies around the use of verbal and non-verbal forms of communication, especially where communication breakdowns occur (Canale & Swain, 1980: 30). Grammatical competence includes lexical, morphological, syntactical, semantic and phonological understanding (Canale & Swain, 1980: 29). Sociolinguistic competence concerns communication choices in regards to topic, setting, and the role of those involved in communicating (Canale & Swain, 1980: 30).

Canale revised the model in 1983, expanding it to include four elements, by adding *discourse competence*; combining grammatical form and meaning to create a written or spoken text (Canale, 1983: 9). Competent use of communicative ability implies rapid assessment and choices of how to use strategies from all four of these elements, often simultaneously (Canale & Swain, 1980: 29). Skills described in the elements regarding discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence are particularly relevant to the present study's discussion of oral communicative ability. Production of oral English requires language users to rapidly analyse information being exchanged, understand register and context, as well as make decisions regarding suitable responses and how to deliver these responses. These competencies require listening skills, if analysis and comprehension are to occur.

The Council of Europe-developed *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR) is 'A common European framework for language learning, teaching and assessment (Council of Europe b, 2014: 19). The CEFR has a comprehensive set of criteria for the evaluation of language learners' skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening, which according to the COE- web pages "…makes it possible to compare tests and examinations across languages and national boundaries" (Council of Europe a, 2014). As part of an extensive definition of communicative ability, the CEFR defines lexical competence, grammatical competence, semantic competence, and orthoepic competence as important elements of general communicative ability They also define phonological competence (oral communicative ability) and orthographic competence (written communicative ability) as vital elements of communicative competence (Council of Europe b, 2014:108).

The CEFR also developed a model of language skills, which describes learners' communicative abilities across six levels. The CEFR is particularly relevant to LK 06 as Hasselgreen describes it as implicitly linked to the national curricula in Norway (Hasselgreen, 2012: 224). The CEFR and LK 06 emphasize the role of both listening and speech production in their discussion of oral communicative ability. Through focusing on *turn-taking* in conversation, the CEFR (Council of Europe b, 2014: 73) emphasizes the importance of listening abilities in order to understand appropriate times to use oral communicative abilities. One of the desired competencies in the section for Oral Communication in the English curriculum in LK 06 states that pupils should: introduce, maintain and terminate conversations on different topics by asking questions and following up on input (LK 2006, 2011). Though not explicitly stated in this competency, the focus in this section of LK 06 is

on turn-taking, with the required use of both listening and speech-production abilities implied. This connection between listening abilities and oral communicative abilities is vital to the discussion of findings in chapter 5.

As illustrated by Canale & Swain's *model of communicative ability* , and the CEFR, successful communicative ability requires the language learner to not only master a complex set of competencies, they also need to understand when these competencies should be used. Listening and speech production are both vital components of the *oral communicative abilities* defined for the present study. The two models presented in this section will contribute to a discussion of data collected for this study. A thorough exploration of all facets of communicative ability would require more space than the present study allows.

2.4. Oral communication in the Norwegian curriculum.

In line with the complexities of the two models presented in the previous section, The National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion in Primary and Secondary Education and Training – hereafter LK 06[3] - lays out an extensive range of ambitions and desired competencies pupils should have acquired at certain levels of their education (LK 06, 2011). In order to establish the framework which teachers in Norway operate within, this section will examine how those criteria, aims and desired competencies regarding oral English communication are presented in LK 06 (LK 06, 2011). Topics presented in this section include; the fundamental skills necessary for pupils to succeed in the education system, the role of English as lingua franca in a globalised society, the structure of the English curriculum and allocation of teaching hours, similarities to regional and international curricula, and oral English exam forms. Since LK 06 has such a vital role in education in Norway, this section aims to provide a solid understanding of how oral English is presented in the document.

By defining the ambitions for pupils' oral English communicative abilities as laid out in LK 06, the foundation is laid for a discussion of what possibilities pupils have to develop those abilities in the classroom. Of special interest in such a discussion is the amount of classroom-based exposure to English-language input pupils receive, as well as what possibilities exist for them to produce oral English in the classroom, compared to the extra-curricular input and speech-production possibilities they are exposed to outside the classroom.

[3] LK 06 is used here as it is the abbreviation used in the English translation pages of Udir's website.

2.4.1. Structure, standards and guidelines in LK 06

The Norwegian school system is similar to many other countries, with pre-school, primary, lower- and upper- secondary schools as well as vocational training. Pre-school, primary and lower- secondary schooling are the responsibility of regional councils, while each of the country's 19 counties supervises upper-secondary schools and vocational education. The governing body responsible for teaching in Norway is The Norwegian Directorate of Education. The implementation of the combined primary and lower-secondary school curriculum in Norway builds on Bruner's spiral curriculum. (Bruner, 1960). Topics are introduced, then revisited several times during first to tenth grades. Content is expanded upon with each new encounter with a topic, with desired pupil competencies and evaluation criteria increasing in accordance with further exposure.

Udir has established standards and guidelines for teaching, presented in LK 06 (LK 06, 2011). LK 06 is a comprehensive document. It defines the intentions and objectives for each subject taught, desired competencies at different levels of education, and the basic skills needed to obtain these competencies. The ability to communicate is emphasised as an essential skill in all areas of the document. The curriculum defines five fundamental skills - oral communication, reading, writing, numeracy and digital competence - perceived as necessary for successful learning and development. Oral communication is necessary in school, working life and society in general (LK 06, 2011).

In its preface to the English curriculum, Udir describes the English language as a global lingua franca, and therefore necessary for Norwegians engaging in international communication. Knowledge of language structures and functions, different styles of communication, and cultural insights lead to increased awareness and understanding. This knowledge also leads to an increased meta-cognitive understanding of an individual's language learning. Achieving these desired levels of English-language competence should occur through exposure to, and investigation of, oral and written English in an array of forms (Udir c, 2013).

Further, the English curriculum in LK 06 is divided into three main sections that define areas of focus for pupils' learning – Language Learning, Communication (both oral and written) and Culture, Society and Literature. The section devoted to Oral Communication has no fewer than 10 aims for desired competence for pupils upon completion of the 10th grade. These aims are presented here:

- choose and use different listening and speaking strategies that are suitable for the purpose
- understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics
- demonstrate the ability to distinguish positively and negatively loaded expressions referring to individuals and groups
- understand the main content and details of different types of oral texts on different topics
- listen to and understand variations of English from different authentic situations
- express oneself fluently and coherently, suited to the purpose and situation
- express and justify own opinions about different topics
- introduce, maintain and terminate conversations on different topics by asking questions and following up on input
- use the central patterns for pronunciation, intonation, word inflection and different types of sentences in communication
- understand and use different numerical expressions and other kinds of data in communication (LK 06, 2011).

There is a clear focus in these points on skills necessary for both comprehension and production of oral forms of communication. While three of the above points explicitly refer to comprehension of oral communication, seven of them refer to active production of oral communication. A number of these aims focus on the ability to communicate in contextually dependent situations, i.e. prepared and spontaneous communication.

Desired competencies in the sections covering Language Learning and Culture, Society and Literature, also place demands on the oral communication skills of 10th grade pupils. Language Learning aims to equip pupils with a metacognitive awareness of how to choose strategies and techniques to aid in their own learning, as well as being capable of describing their own learning. The section on Culture, Society and Literature aims to equip pupils with the ability to reflect on and compare their own culture to English speaking cultures. While many of the aims in these two sections also lend themselves readily to written activities, pupils are expected to be able to "discuss….converse….describe…." (LK 06, 2011). These activities in particular require well developed oral communicative abilities in pupils.

By defining these fundamental skills and desired competencies in such detail, and in a manner that permeates the document that is the foundation for teaching in Norway, Udir give clear indications as to the importance of these skills and competencies. Not only does this provide a framework for the country's educators, it provides the possibility for the present study to compare and analyse collected data, in light of the ideals presented in LK06. Some of the fundamental beliefs expressed in the present study are that pupils' development of these skills and competencies occurs in a social context, and that development of pupils' oral communicative abilities is dependent on both exposure to oral English input as well as the possibility to explore and produce oral English. The introduction to this study presented hypotheses regarding pupils' exposure to and production of oral English in the classroom, and regarding pupils' extra-curricular exposure to and production of oral English. The degree in which these hypotheses are confirmed by the results of research conducted for this study, will open up for discussion around what extent the competencies and aims laid out in LK 06 are achieved through classroom teaching. Such a discussion will be especially interesting in light of the results from research regarding the level of exposure to and production of oral English pupils observed as part of this study engage in outside the classroom.

2.4.2. The Norwegian curriculum in an international perspective.

Such detailed definition of skills, aims and competencies as defined in LK 06, is not unique to the education system of Norway. The documents introduced in this section show that use of such an overarching pedagogical framework is widespread in modern schooling around the world.

Locally, the Swedish National Agency for Education's (Skolverket, 2011), the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture (Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture 2016) and the Danish Ministry for Children, Education and Gender Equality's (Folkeskoleloven, 2015) curricula use similar aims and competencies to the Norwegian LK 06. Further afield, The Department for Education in England (National Curriculum, 2014) and The Department of Education and Training in Australia (The Foundation – Year 10 Australian Curriculum, 2015) also use similarly structured curricula. The United States of America leaves curriculum design to individual states. The State Board of Education in California, the largest state in the Union, also uses a document similar in structure and pedagogical content to LK 06 (CDE, 2014).

There are differences between these documents concerning terminology, the amount of defined content, aims, and desired competencies each contains. There is also variation in the

degree of national, state or regional control of the education system within the various countries. An exploration of such differences is well outside the scope of this present study. A comparison of time allocated to English-language teaching within some of these documents is however discussed in the next section. The relevance of such information to the present study is also explored in the following section.

2.4.3. Time allocated to English teaching.

The Norwegian, Danish and Finnish education systems stand out from others presented in the previous section, because they specify the number of hours of teaching pupils should receive in a given subject. As with other aspects of each country's curriculum discussed in the previous section, there are differences between the three countries in the number of hours allocated for teaching English. Danish pupils receive 630 hours of English teaching during first to ninth grades (UVM, 2015), averaging 1.9 hours per week[4]. Finnish language teaching is a complex, multi-layered system. Depending on their choice of English as mother tongue, second national language or foreign language, pupils begin learning English in either first, third or sixth grades respectively. Hours of teaching can vary from two to eighteen hours per week, during first to ninth grade (OPM, 2016).

These figures are presented here to establish differences in the potential number of hours of English teaching pupils may receive in different countries within the region. In addition these figures will form the basis for comparison of the amount of English-language teaching pupils theoretically receive in the classroom, the amount of time pupils in this study were recorded engaged in production of oral English during observation, and the amount of time these pupils report they are exposed to passive and active sources of incidental learning.

The English curriculum in LK 06 defines the amount of time allocated for teaching different subjects at each level of education.[5] The totals for primary and lower-secondary classes are as follows; first to fourth grade – 138 hours; fifth to seventh grade – 228 hours; eighth to tenth grade, 222 hours (Udir f, 2015). In total, pupils receive 588 hours of English teaching, during first to tenth grade. In comparison, pupils receive 1770 hours of teaching in Norwegian (398 of those between grades eight to ten), 1201 hours of teaching in mathematics (313 for eighth – tenth grades, and 634 hours for social studies teaching (249 for eighth – tenth grades) in the

[4] Weekly averages presented here are calculated by the author, based on a 39-week school year.
[5] Totals for upper-secondary and vocational programs are defined in LK 06, but not included here.

course of first to tenth grades (Udir f, 2015). Schools are free to allocate these hours of teaching as they see fit during the course of the school year (Udir a, 2013).

Based on the figures presented above, eighth and tenth grade pupils receive English-language teaching for 1.9 hours on average per week. Teaching of Norwegian as a language in eighth-tenth grades accounts for 3.4 hours per week, mathematics 2.7 hours per week, and social studies 2.1 hours per week, on average. Subjects taught in Norwegian at this level account for up to 22 hours of teaching per week (Udir f, 2015). This would appear to be at odds with the description given by Speitz (2012: 12) of English as a second language in Norway. It would also appear to be in contrast to the portrayal of English as an important language as described in LK 06 (LK 06, 2011). Given that the average grades for tenth grade end-of-year oral English exams for the last five years have been comparable or higher than the average grades for oral Norwegian exams at the same level (Skoleporten, 2016), this breakdown also raises questions concerning how pupils are mastering the use of oral English, with relatively little classroom-based input available to them. Further exploration of these items occurs in the discussion of results, presented in chapter 5.

2.4.4. Oral English in exams in Norwegian schools.

The importance allotted oral communication in both prepared and spontaneous situations is further reflected in the structure of English oral exams at 10th grade level. The exams are locally produced (Udir b, 2013). Agasøster (2015) looks more closely at this examination form, discussing structure, evaluation criteria, and the roles of local and external examiners. In short, 10th grade English exams consist of a prepared 10 minute presentation, as well as 20 minutes to further discuss or debate the selected topic with two examiners (Agasøster, 2015; 26).

This exam form allows pupils to show competence in a range of the competencies previously outlined from LK 06. Agasøster (2015) claims that "..most of the competence aims regarding oral English are thus relevant for the exam" (Agasøster, 2015; 26). This includes, among others, their ability to reflect, draw conclusions and make comparisons, given the exam form opens up for discussion of all topics covered during the study year, not just the prepared topic from the first section of the exam.

As discussed in the previous section, the average grades achieved by tenth grade pupils in their end of year oral English exams are of particular interest to this study. Exam grades are

based on a 1-6 scale, with a 2 being the lowest passing grade, and a 6 being the highest possible grade (Udir, e, 2016). Results from end-of-year English-language oral exams show a grade average of 4.42 at national level for the period autumn semester 2010 - spring semester 2015. Norwegian-language oral exams show a grade average of 4.4 at national level during that same period. In Hordaland County, where the school where observation was conducted at is located, the average grade for the oral English exam in tenth grade was even higher, averaging 4.46 for the same period. Results for the Norwegian oral exam in the same period show an average grade of 4.46 in Hordaland County (Skoleporten, 2016).

Chvala's (2012) study of the structure of 10th grade oral English exams is however critical to the demands put on pupils by this exam form. Chvala (2012) questions whether the oral exam structure adequately gives pupils the chance to show their abilities to choose and adapt strategies and language use in a variety of situations, as laid out in LK 06. Chvala's small scale study indicates that there may be an overrepresentation of one form in this exam setting - informative oral presentations - and limited explicit information to pupils regarding how they might prepare themselves to show their skills in other manners (Chvala, 2012: 242). This would appear to be at odds with the curricular aims for students to receive exposure to a variety of language situations, and develop a range of skills within these different situations.

This would also seem at odds with the evaluation criteria for oral skills, as developed by Udir for teachers to use when giving end-of-year grades to 10th grade pupils (Udir b, 2013). Competence is measured here with reference to a range of language strategies, situations, and genres. Chvala posits the idea that in order for pupils to meet the curricular aims developed by Udir, greater variation in exam tasks and instruction "…would be a beneficial move…" (Chvala, 2012: 243). The message implicit in this study is that the use of a reoccurring exam form may be shaping the focus of teaching, thereby limiting the chances for pupils to engage in and master different oral communication skills that are defined in LK 06.

If such limitations affect English-language teaching, the possibility that pupils receive adequate input, produce oral English, and attain mastery of oral communicative abilities – as indicated by recent oral English exam results - in a limited amount of exposure in the classroom sessions per week seems somewhat unlikely. This would appear to give support to the second hypothesis formulated for the present study - *Pupils are exposed to more oral English from extra-curricular sources of input than they are in the classroom.* The discussion in chapter 5 will explore these ideas in greater depth.

2.5. Linguistics theory, factors affecting the use of oral English.

One of the fundamental areas of focus for the present study is how languages are learned. This section will present some of the central theories from different perspectives on language learning. The intention is to establish the role of the classroom as an arena for interaction with others, to illustrate differences between perspectives and some of the development of theories within the field, and to further develop the theoretical framework for discussing data collected during research for this study.

To illustrate some of differences in theories and how they are described, Woolfolk (2004) discusses *socio-cultural* (represented by Vygotskij) and *behaviourist* theories (Piaget , Skinner), while Maccaro (2003) discusses *nativist perspectives* (Chomsky, Krashen; Spada & Lightbown), *behaviourist perspectives* (Skinner), *innatist* perspectives (Chomsky) and *cognitivist perspectives* (Piaget, Vygotskij).

In spite of differences between these perspectives regarding the complexities of language-learning processes, there appears to be agreement that in order for communicative language abilities to develop, learners must be exposed to language through interaction with others. The amount and quality of this exposure – in addition to a range of internal and external factors - will affect how learners' communication skills develop. The processes involved vary within these linguistic perspectives.

2.5.1. Learning in a social context.

The present study investigates phenomena involved in the use of oral English, in a small sample (N= 45) of Norwegian lower-secondary pupils. The first aim of investigation focuses on language use in a classroom environment, the second focuses on language use in a variety of extra-curricular settings. Mutual to both is that they occur in a social context and involve some sort of interaction, with other learners or a teacher. This section presents socio-cultural learning theory, to establish a framework for the observation conducted, and to contribute to the discussion of findings presented later in this text.

Socio-cultural theories such as Vygotskij's Zone of Proximal Development, and the internalisation and development of higher cognitive processes, emphasize oral communication in the process of interaction with others as the most important tool available to young language learners. (Woolfolk, 2004; Spada & Lightbown, 2006; Kozulin, Hanfmann, &

Vakar, 2012). Social interactions with others at a level near or above that of a learner contribute not only to acquisition of knowledge, but further shape the learner's thought processes and cognitive development. The internalisation of these socially constructed processes occurs through, and is shaped by, the use of culturally available implements, such as speech, symbols and concepts. According to Vygotskij, without speech, this internalisation and resulting higher cognitive processes would be impossible (Woolfolk, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Lave's contention that learning is socially and contextually situated (Lave, 1999: 16)) is important when applied to oral communicative ability. Be it in the classroom or another extra-curricular arena, interaction with others and feedback of various forms received in these arenas, is essential to develop oral communication skills. Without the social interaction that occurs in a group and the learning that occurs within the context of the group, pupils could not learn norms for what is socially acceptable, practice and experience mastery of these norms, receive positive feedback, or develop motivation to adopt behaviours the pupil experiences as socially acceptable.

Otneim (2013) argues that the English-language classroom provides space for learners to combine both knowledge of the language and skills in using it (Otneim, 2016: 16). In support of this argument she references Bygate's (1993) idea that only speaking requires the language learner to engage in rapid reflection, analysis and strategic choices in regards to implementation of the language (Otneim, 2013: 16). Adding further support to this argument and Lave's contention, Otneim also refers to both Littlewood's (1992) and Skeehan's (1999) arguments for the benefits that engaging in classroom dialogues provide pupils (Otneim, 2013: 17).

Henry's study into digital gaming and English- language learning, contends that contextually situated learning experiences are important for young language learners (Henry, 2013: 17). The study investigates the possibilities available to English teachers through combining school-based and extra-curricular language learning. With a focus on learning possibilities involved in digital gaming, Henry explores a multitude of concepts; motivation, self-identity, the previously discussed concept of authenticity, and how pupils may perceive the gap in relevance between classroom learning and language learning that occurs in these other arenas. If a pupil fails to recognize classroom-based learning – a contextually situated learning arena -

as relevant to their self-defined identity, this may lead to their opting out of engaging in activities in the classroom (Henry, 2013: 16).

Sylvén & Sundqvist (2012) investigated the role of online digital gaming as a source of extra-curricular English-language learning. This study focused particularly on large-scale online games, such as World of Warcraft, which require high levels of interaction and cooperation between players in order to succeed. The authors argue that the contextually situated social interaction many of these games present language learners with, allows for elements deemed desirable within a socio-cultural perspective: these elements - comprehensible input, scaffolding and motivation – occur in situations the learners themselves deem as relevant (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012: 305).

The first research aim for the present study focuses on the production of oral English by pupils from the observed sample. The ideal presented in LK 06 (LK 06, 2011) is one where pupils engage in production of oral English, in relevant, contextually situated learning arenas, represented by the English language classroom. Such a learning situation closely reflects Vygotskij's ZPD. This ideal receives support from Lave (1999), Henry (2013) and Otneim (2013), who argue that such learning environments are important for acquisition of oral communicative abilities, and are of significant importance for the learners involved. If pupils feel alienated by the learning environment they encounter in the classroom, this may contribute to them not engaging in classroom activities. In addition to the limitations described earlier in this chapter (time restrictions, teaching structure and content), such disengagement from classroom-based, socially contextual learning activities may contribute to pupils seeking more appealing arenas in which to engage in use and production of oral English. These concerns are further addressed in the discussion of results.

2.5.2. Input or language exposure through social interaction.

As mentioned in the section 2.5., terms and processes involved in language learning vary between different theoretical perspectives. Researchers associated with what Maccaro (Maccaro, 2003: 22) describes as the nativist perspective focus on the input necessary for learners to develop language skills. The amount and type of input will affect the communication skills pupils learn. This section presents important theories concerning input. Some of them – particularly Krashen's and Chomsky's theories – do not sit well within the socio-cultural perspective the research for the present study was conducted from. They are included here, both to assist in exploring some of the essential differences between socio-

cultural and innatist/ nativist theories, and to illustrate the development of theories around input over the last few decades. Input or exposure to a language through interaction with others, appears to be one element of language learning that the two different theoretical approaches agree on. The research findings conducted as a part of this study will also be further discussed in light of theories concerning input or exposure.

Chomsky's *universal grammar* (UG) is a significant theory within what Maccaro calls the nativist perspective (Maccaro, 2003: 24), and Lightbown & Spada refer to as the innatist perspective (Lightbown & Spada, 2006: 35). Chomsky attributed the language learner's ability to understand complex features of language learning to a centre in the brain, the *Language Acquisition Device* (Maccaro, 2003: 24). Chomsky's argument was that this device must be universal, since a young language learner could process and understand input during a critical period of their development, regardless of the language. This theory was difficult to prove, with no researchers having identified such a device in the brain (Maccaro, 2003: 24).

Krashen's *Comprehensible Input* (CI) and *i + 1* theories discussed the importance of input in language learning. According to the CI theory, a learner can acquire new information if the input is presented in a comprehensible fashion. The *i + 1* or input hypothesis, describes *I*, language skills the learner already has, and *+ 1*, being language a step ahead of the already acquired level (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 37). The learner can acquire *+ 1* language knowledge, if further input is given in a comprehensible fashion. This seems similar to Vygotskij's ZPD. However, Krashen's *i + 1* focuses on the comprehensibility of information, while the ZPD focuses on the construction of knowledge together with others (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: 47). Criticism of CI and UG theories argued that they did not adequately describe why some components of language were easily acquired, while others, in spite of comprehensible input, were not (Maccaro, 2003: 29).

Sundqvist found a strong connection between extra-curricular English-language activities such as digital game-play and surfing the internet and increased vocabulary and oral proficiency (Sundqvist, 2009). This research has obvious parallels with the second area of investigation in the present study. With roots in Krashen's acquisition/ input theories, Sundqvist presents research (Schmidt, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Robinson, 1995) to support her argument that awareness is an essential element of language learning (Sundqvist, 2009: 14).This, according to Sundqvist, can occur in two ways – *implicit* and *explicit* learning. The distinction is made between learning where the internalisation of a language feature comes

almost as a by-product of language use after repeated exposure, and eventual comprehension - implicit learning - and learning through conscious focus on a particular language feature - explicit learning (Sundqvist, 2009: 14).

In Sundqvist's argument, both are valid forms of learning, but for these new language features to be stored in long-term memory, the learner must eventually become aware of them. Sundqvist argues that awareness of, and attention to a language feature are prerequisite for said language feature to move from short-term to long-term memory. Thus, the transition from input to what Schmidt terms *intake* (Sundqvist, 2009: 15) is dependent on cognitive processing on behalf of the learner. This is echoed in Maccaro's idea that comprehensible input alone is not enough, using the language through interaction with others is essential for acquisition of language skills (Maccaro, 2003: 185).

Input is mentioned as a vital element in the process of acquiring English communicative abilities in LK 06 (Udir c, 2013). The two models of communicative ability presented in section 2.3.1., Canale & Swains *model of communicative ability*, and the CEFR, discuss communicative abilities necessary to participate in conversations and discussions. Implicit to those models is that communication between people requires input, in either written or oral form. The first hypothesis developed for the present study is designed to measure the production of oral communication which occurs in the two classrooms observed. In combination with other factors mentioned earlier in this section, the contention is that pupils receive more input from extra-curricular sources than they do in classroom situations. This has contributed to the second hypothesis, and will form part of the discussion presented later in this research.

2.5.3. Motivation and authenticity.

This section examines factors of motivation both considered relevant to this study, and which may contribute to affecting motivation in the lower-secondary school learners observed. Skaalvik & Skaalvik's (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009: 36) claim that pupil motivation decreases between fourth and tenth grades is of particular interest in light of the age of pupils observed for this study. One of the classes observed in the present study was in the eighth grade at the time research was conducted. This is the first year where Norwegian pupils receive mid-term and end of year grades. This type of feedback can contribute to expectancy-value judgements or investment-return analyses, which can affect pupils' motivation. Such analyses are discussed in this section.

Pupils in the other class observed for this study were in the tenth grade. Tenth grade is particularly significant in the Norwegian school system, as it marks the transition to senior-secondary school. Tenth grade is the final year of compulsory education, and is also a year where many significant events occur; among others, confirmation ceremonies and important examinations that can affect pupils' further study possibilities. Parental pressure and the pupils' own pressure to perform well under exams, a busy timetable and stress are significant factors which may affect pupils' *extrinsic* or *intrinsic* motivation in lower-secondary school in general, but particularly in the tenth grade. Discussion of these types of motivation is presented in this section.

2.5.3.1. Factors affecting motivation.

In spite of different approaches to, and interpretations of motivation, the one thing most research in the field seems to agree upon is that it is a complex concept. Woolfolk (2004) presents four diverse fields of research on motivation , together with important researchers within those fields; behaviouristic (Skinner); humanist (Maslow, Deci); cognitive (Weiner, Graham); and socio-cultural (Lave, Wenger).

Lave (Lave, 1999: 120) argues that it is difficult to assess such complex cognitive processes as motivation in individuals, since both the processes and the individuals involved exist in constantly changing contexts. To illustrate the complexities involved, Atkinson (2000) describes no less than 11 important factors when considering the relationship between pupil motivation, performance and personal attributes. Gender, general and creative abilities, ways of thinking and working, personal goal orientation, knowledge base, past curriculum experience, and the attributes of the actual task all affect a pupil's motivation for learning (Atkinson, 2000: 46).

Expectancy-value theories can also be relevant in trying to understand motivation, and how this can affect the development of language ability in L2 English learners. Wigfield & Cambria credit pioneering research in this field to Tolman(1932), Lewin (1938) and Atkinson(1957, 1964) (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010: 36). They also present several researchers (Wigfield, 2002; Eccles, 2005; Pekrun, 2006) who have contributed to expand and enrich these theories (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010: pp 36-40).

These theories essentially describe the investment-return analysis an individual makes before engaging in an activity. The higher the foreseeable return, the more likely the individual is to

choose to engage in the activity. As defined by Eccles (in Wigfield & Cambria , 2010: pp. 36-37), choices are influenced by psychological, cultural, social and contextual factors. In the context of this study, the type of investment-return choices pupils make may be influenced by their cultural background, the amount of English the pupil is exposed to outside of school, and the value placed on English communication abilities in different social groups the pupil may be a part of. i.e. family, peer groups, or social media networks. Wigfield & Cambria state that factors such as pupils' cognitive maturity, the pupil's own perception of their abilities as an English-language user, as well as intrinsic or extrinsic factors of motivation may also affect these types of investment-return choices (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010: pp. 36-37).

Ryan & Deci have explored the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic forms for motivation. From a humanist research perspective, intrinsic motivation describes engaging in an activity because the activity itself is interesting or gives pleasure. Ryan & Deci (2000) claim intrinsic forms for motivation to be most desirable in an education scenario, because they lead to high quality learning (Ryan & Deci, 2000: pp. 56). Extrinsic forms of motivation describe engagement in an activity for the reward or return said activity brings (Ryan & deci, 2000: 60). Parallels can be drawn between extrinsic motivation and expectancy-value theory.

Both intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation can affect choices learners make, and the subsequent level of engagement learners invest in language-learning activities. According to Olsson (2012), pupil's desire to be proficient in using English during online gameplay is an example of intrinsic motivation (Olsson, 2012: 16). This proficiency can lead to personal enjoyment or satisfaction. Csizér & Dörnyei posit the idea that extrinsic forms of motivation are common in L2 langugae-learning contexts. Pupils are made aware of what criteria apply to a given task, and what they need to do to meet these criteria. Recognition and praise from parents or teachers for these achievements is an external form for motivation according to Csizér & Dörnyei (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005: 20).

With a basis in research by Dörnyei (2005, 2009) into motivation in language learners, Henry (Henry, 2013: 14) explores the concept of *authenticity*. He argues that motivation can be affected by the learner's perception of the authenticity of the activity. The learner assesses authenticity based on how relevant the activity is to his or her own sense of identity and their concept of their own place in the world. According to Henry, if the learner feels the activity is inauthentic, this can affect their motivation to engage in an activity (Henry, 2013: 16). Further, Henry claims that if a pupil fails to recognize classroom-based learning as relevant to

their self-defined identity, this may lead to their opting out of engaging in activities in the classroom (Henry, 2013: 17).

While none of the hypotheses or research aims for the present study directly address or measure motivation, it is considered an important element

2.6. Extra-curricular sources of incidental learning.

Section 2.4. discusses factors - socially-situated learning, input and motivation - which may affect pupils' acquisition of oral communicative ability in a classroom learning environment. Henry stated that without learning possibilities which pupils themselves define as relevant, the motivation to engage in classroom-based learning can quickly disappear, leaving the impact of extra-curricular sources of learning to have an even greater effect (Henry, 2013: pp.18, 20, 24). These ideas, in light of the number of hours of English-language teaching Norwegian lower-secondary pupils potentially receive, are particularly interesting in a discussion of the effects extra-curricular English-language activities may have on language learning.

An investigation into possible sources of incidental learning in English forms a large part of the data collected for the present study. The following section presents recent research in the field, aimed at providing a basis for further discussion.

2.6.1.Sources of incidental learning.

An important division within the concept of incidental language learning is that between *active* and *passive* forms of learning. The differences are discussed during the following presentation of four recent studies. Two of these studies discuss *active* incidental language acquisition (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Henry, 2013), one looks at *passive* incidental language acquisition (Rugesæter, 2014) while the last of the four looks at both forms (Sundqvist, 2009).

Sundqvist's study of the effects of *extramural* English on oral proficiency and vocabulary size claimed a correlation between extramural learning and increased vocabulary (Sundqvist, 2009: 204). According to Sundqvist, Swedish learners of English who engaged in extramural activities that required active participation had a larger vocabulary size than other pupils. Passive activities such as listening to music and watching television or films were of less importance for vocabulary and oral proficiency (Sundqvist, 2009: 203). Sundqvist also found

a correlation between extramural English and oral proficiency, but the correlation was not as strong as for vocabulary size (Sundqvist, 2009: 202).

Exploring similar territory to Henry (2013), Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) investigated the effects online role-playing games may have on English proficiency in a group of pupils with Swedish as their L1. The study claimed a positive correlation between this style of gaming and English-as-L2 proficiency – in particular vocabulary - in the target group of 11-12 year olds (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012: 302). This study describes *extramural* learning, with a focus on active acquisition of language skills. The authors argue that online games where the primary language for communication is English demand certain levels of proficiency of players (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). Echoing the richness and interaction involved in online game-play mentioned by Henry (Henry, 2013: pp 7-9), Sylvén & sundqvist's article also describes how certain games offer phenomena considered desirable within second-language acquisition research - "…first, comprehensible input and scaffolding through interaction, and second, motivation." (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012: 305).

Henry's study from 2013 illustrated the changes in leisure activities of young Swedes in recent years. Television, movies and console-based gaming has given way to contact through social media and online digital gaming, with Henry describing the latter as the most common leisure activity among Swedish youth (Henry, 2013: 5). In 2010, 9-16 year olds spent less time reading books, watching television and engaging in face-to-face contact with their peers. The number in this age group with a computer in their room had increased by more than a third in 2010, with after-school internet use increasing by 10 % from 2006. Watching film clips and playing digital games were the most popular online activities.

Henry claims online digital game play gives the greatest exposure to English (Henry, 2013: 6-7). Online games not only require pupils to actively use the English language, they can stimulate self-identity, affect motivation to use English, as well as stimulate the pupils' experience of agency and authorship (Henry, 2013: pp 9-10). These aspects of game play combine to give what Henry describes as " ... the most intense experiences." (Henry, 2013: 7). Faced with a medium that offers a saturation experience, requiring extensive use of English language skills, Henry describes a Swedish school system lagging behind, struggling to remain relevant.

The idea is posited by Henry that English teaching in Swedish lower-secondary schools lacks *authenticity*. Teaching methods used in the English classroom are deemed by computer-savvy

pupils as irrelevant to the arenas where they use English, and where they gain most satisfaction (Henry 2013: 13). Henry cautiously suggests that selectively incorporating elements from some of these sources of incidental learning could benefit both schools and pupils. By stimulating pupils' personal expression and creativity, English classroom teaching might create learning environments that pupils perceive as relevant to their own developing English language abilities, as well as meeting desired curricular aims (Henry, 2013: 30-32).

In contrast to the rich, multi-faceted interaction with online gameplay described by Henry (Henry, 2013: 7), Rugesæter (2014) describes Norwegian pupils' "passive" exposure to sources of incidental learning. It is important to notice the contrast in areas of focus between these two studies. In Rugesæter's article, the focus is on the effects passive reception of subtitled television programs have on phonological acquisition in young learners. This passive exposure is defined as activities where no follow-up use of the language occurs (Rugesæter, 2014: 2). Subtitled television offers both auditory, visual and textual information pupils can use in understanding new language concepts. However, it does not require pupils to actively engage in using their communicative language abilities (Rugesæter, 2014: 13-14). This is in sharp contrast to the demands placed on pupils' English language communicative abilities described in Henry's study. Rugesæter found that passive exposure to television programs with English subtitles had minimal effect on phonological acquisition among the pupils studied (Rugesæter, 2014: 4).

2.7. Summary of theoretical framework.

This chapter has presented the theoretical framework that contributed to and shaped the approach to research conducted for this study. Relevant language learning theories were discussed. Oral communicative ability was defined in an attempt to narrow the focus for the first aim of this research. The overarching document that educators in Norway follow was explored, to define the manner in which teaching of oral English is conducted in Norwegian lower-secondary schools. Factors that might affect the use of oral English communicative abilities among the pupils observed – input, motivation, the concept of authenticity - were also presented. Finally, in order to assist in addressing the second research aim of this study, research regarding incidental language learning was discussed. The next chapter discusses the choices made concerning the methods used to conduct research for this study.

3. METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN.

The methodology, design and methods used in this study are presented in this chapter.

3.1.Methodology.

The intention of this study is to describe phenomena related to use of oral English both in and outside two lower-secondary classrooms in Western Norway, as stated in Ch. 1. The aims of research were; *i. How much oral English use occurs in the classroom, and who is producing it? ii. In which extra-curricular arenas are pupils exposed to, or engage in, the use of oral English?*

Fundamental beliefs inherent in different approaches affect both the design and the potential results the research can achieve (Taber, 2007: 1). By using questionnaires with close-ended questions, not requiring the production of free writing (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 76), and non-interventionist, descriptive classroom observation, this study hopes to answer the aims and research questions laid out in chapter 1, within a quantitative framework.

These two data-collection devices are typical tools used in quantitative research approaches. They are however not indicative of such approaches. Indeed, the use of forms of information such as questionnaires, observation schedules such as the one used in this study, and description of phenomena in natural settings (i.e. not constructed or directed, as in experimental research), are described by Friedman in her definition of the properties of *qualitative* research (Friedman, 2012: 186). A closer look at how data is used within the two approaches will illustrate some of the differences involved.

3.2.Research design.

The nature of the research conducted for this study necessitated a two-part design process. A non-interventionist classroom observation was chosen to investigate the first aim, followed by a questionnaire to collect data designed to assist in the exploration of the second aim. The choice of these data collection instruments was made before research began, in line with the definition of quantitative research by Révész (Révész, 2012: 203), to assist in answering the stated aims for this study.

Use of real-time observation schemes such as *Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching* (COLT) or the *Classroom Oral Participation Scheme* (COPS) instrument used in this study, (explored further in Section 3.3.) is discussed in a range of studies involving

classroom observation (Spada & Frölich, 1995; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Fazio & Lyster, 1998; Huang, 2011; King, 2012). Classrooms are busy places, with large amounts of different types of interactions occurring in an average lesson (Wragg, 1994:2). Pre-established categories for observation, based on both the overarching methodology chosen and the hypotheses or aims of investigation, allow the observer to collect information relevant to the chosen focus. One benefit of using a pre-existing instrument of this type is that results can be compared to results from other studies which have used the same instruments (Loewen & Philp, 2012: 56). Data collected during research was then analysed in order to provide answers to the first aim of the study.

A questionnaire consisting of mostly close-ended questions was composed to investigate the second aim of this study. Dörnyei defines these as questions not requiring the respondent to engage in *free writing,* instead presenting them with pre-determined responses they can place a tick or an X beside to indicate their answers. (Dörnyei, 2010: 35). The questions in this study are defined as *mostly* close-ended, given some of them provided space for the pupils to give supplementary information. The information collected here will be presented in chapter 4 with further discussion in chapter 5.

Data collection instruments used in this study are only briefly described here. Further discussion occurs in section 3.3. The instruments were chosen to collect data in an attempt to answer the stated aims of the study, within the framework of the quantitative approach of the study.

3.2.1.Participants.

This study aimed to observe and describe the use of oral English used in two Norwegian lower-secondary English-as-second-language (ESL) classes. The pupils observed have already received several years of ESL teaching. As described by Spada & Lightbown, pupils in this age group have had time to develop metalinguistic awareness, have a reasonably large vocabulary, and have theoretically had the chance to be exposed to different registers (Spada & Lightbown, 2006: pp 8-9). The pupils involved are also at an age where the possibility of their encountering different English-language sources of incidental learning are greater than, for example, first graders. This increases the chances of collecting useable data to answer the second aim of the study.

Convenience sampling is the best description for the sample chosen for this study. The classes making up the sample were easily accessible, able to allocate time for the observation involved, share characteristics with the target population, and were geographically close. (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 81; Taber, 2007: 70). Taber calls this sample type *weak*, since the ability to generalize results from the sample to the rest of the population is limited (Taber, 2007: 70). The ability to generalize from such a study can be negligible according to Dörnyei & Csizér: limitations need to be outlined as thoroughly as the characteristics that make the participants relevant to the target population (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 81-82). Despite such criticism, the sample type used is deemed suitable to this study, since the intent is to *describe*, rather than generalize or infer. A description of the decisions made both in planning and underway is included here to illustrate eventual limitations.

Teachers that taught ESL classes at a lower-secondary school in the Bergen area were asked to participate. Originally, three teachers, one each from eighth, ninth and tenth grades, responded positively. After the initial discussion of the parameters for the observation, the ninth-grade teacher chose not to participate further, which left two classes, class A, with 23 pupils, and class B, with 22 pupils. The teachers received information about the intended length of the observation period, with the research focus described as 'phenomena occurring within the classroom'.

Limiting the amount of information given to the teachers involved regarding the research focus was a conscious decision. The intent was to keep teaching practices as close to natural as possible, (Friedman, 2012: 182; Wragg, 1994:15) and to reduce the effects of Labov's *observer's paradox*, which states that the researcher's presence in a given situation will affect the behaviour of those being observed (Labov, 1972: 209).

A consent form, illustrating the outline of the present study, types of information that would be collected and how that information would be used, was sent to parents. The researcher presented these forms to the pupils in class, where the voluntary nature of participation in this study, and the confidential treatment of collected information was highlighted. Parents and pupils were informed that the study had been approved by Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS, the Norwegian authority responsible for quality assurance, information use and privacy in research (NSD, 2016). They were also informed that the author was solely responsible for the research being conducted, and received no funding to conduct the research.

23 consent forms were returned from class A, with all parents consenting to their children participating in the study, with 22 returned from class B, where all consented to participation.

3.2.2.Piloting and observation.

During classroom observation, the researcher sat unobtrusively at the back of the classroom, making notations using an observation scheme known as the Classroom Oral Participation Scheme, or COPS (King, 2012: 330). Proximity and line of sight were elements involved in the selection of pupils for closer observation in this class. Gender also played a role in the selection of pupils. An attempt was made to have an even total number of male and female pupils from both classes. In Class A, two pupils were male, and one female while there were two female pupils and one male pupil chosen from Class B.

Teachers and pupils involved received no instruction, and were not informed what the focus of observation would be, in line with the previously discussed aims to keep teaching as natural as possible, and avoiding the observer's paradox (Labov, 1972: 209).

Supporting the concepts addressed in the previous paragraph, some researchers recommend observing several lessons, in an attempt to reduce the effects of observer being present (Wragg, 1994 :15; Loewen & Philp, 2012:56). In an attempt to counter these issues, the observation instrument was piloted in two 60-minute classes per week, for four weeks, in both class A and B. This resulted not only in a total of 16 hours to pilot the observation instrument, but removed some of the novelty of the observer being in the classroom, allowing the data collected in the observation period to be as natural as possible. The actual period of observation involved seven 60-minute lessons in class A, and eight lessons in class B, resulting in 15 hours of observation.

The chosen sample group is intended to represent the target population, lower-secondary pupils in Norwegian schools. Questions used to elicit data, should be relevant to both the sample and the target population if they are to be useful in answering the outlined research aims (Taber, 2007: 70). Questionnaires used to gather information relevant to the second part of this study were presented in paper form, with pupils using between 20 and 35 minutes to answer them. The researcher was present to answer questions the pupils had regarding the survey.

3.3.Methods used for collection of data.

This section presents the instruments used for data collection. The manner of implementation, modifications made underway, and an explanation of decisions made in relation to said modifications will be presented.

3.3.1.The Classroom Oral Participation Scheme (COPS).

The Classroom Oral Participation Scheme (COPS) [6] instrument used in this study was developed by Dr. Jim King and is inspired by the COLT notation instrument (Spada & Frölich, 1995). King developed the COPS instrument in combination with research into the phenomenon of silence in university classrooms in Japan (King, 2012).

The COPS system is made up of two sections on one page, and divides the teaching session being observed into one-minute intervals. The first section is devoted to observation of the entire classroom, with nine variables. These include space for teacher or pupil initiated oral activity, teacher or pupil response, group activities, and silence.

The second section allows closer focus on up to three individual pupils and the activities they engage in. This section includes 11 variables for observation for each pupil. The categories *Talk Response* and *Talk Initiate* describe instances where pupils individually use their communicative oral language abilities, with *Talk pair/ group* and *Talk choral* recording instances of multiple pupils using these abilities. *Reading Aloud* recorded instances where one or more pupils engaged in using their oral communicative abilities. O*ral communicative abilities* were defined in chapter 2 of this study as including language users both listening to others speaking, and producing speech themselves. The categories *Listening teacher, Listening pupil* and *Listening audio* also record pupils' use of their oral communicative abilities, as per this definition. The notation protocol requires the observer to mark the variable that uses most time and is considered most significant for each interval (King, 2012: 332). Space is included for additional notes to be added.

The COLT system is made up of two sections on two separate pages, with a similar notation method to COPS. The first section comprising 33 variables, covering categories such as group or individual participation, content in exchanges, activities and materials used. The second section contains 45 variables, including categories for language being used,

[6] The notation instrument is presented in Appendix 1.

information gap, reactions to information, and responses for both the teacher and pupils (Spada & Frölich, 1995). Categories are marked after the same protocol described for the COPS instrument.

The COPS instrument was chosen instead of the COLT instrument, as it was deemed simpler in use, and featured categories that were more suitable to the focus of investigation in this study. Several of the categories from COLT were deemed irrelevant, as they focus on phenomena outside the focus of research for the present study. These include the categories from the content and materials sections in Part A of the COLT system, and the information gap, form restriction reaction to form/ message/ behaviour sections in Part B. One criticism of notation systems used in classroom observation is that the inherent outsider-looking-in perspective of such studies may not reflect the opinions or beliefs of pupils and teachers being observed (Loewen & Philp, 2012: 56). The present study alleviates such concerns through the non-interventionist approach, and by focusing on recording instances of events which occurred in the classroom, rather than inferring meaning or intent based on the actions of those being observed.

The decision to use a notation system like COPS was also partly dictated by time and technical constraints. Video or audio recording of the lessons would have given a far more nuanced representation of the events taking place. However, suitable recording equipment was not available to the researcher at the time observations were conducted. The workload involved in transcribing recordings of the several hours of lessons observed also precluded the use of such an approach.

The developers of both instruments recommend piloting the instruments before engaging in actual observation (Spada & Frölich, 1995, King, 2012). This allows the researcher to familiarize themselves with the instrument, as well as to fine tune categories if necessary. Piloting also helps to ensure speed and consistency in observations that are made, simultaneously reducing the possibility of errors (King, 212: 332).

The aforementioned 16 hours of piloting showed that while the notation protocol may have been appropriate for the observation of silence in large-scale university-level classrooms, it failed to capture the rapid pace of communication occurring in the classrooms observed as part of this study. An illustration of this can be found in Wragg's description of research on classroom observation, conducted by Bales (1950), who found 10 to 20 different events occurring within a one-minute interval (Wragg, 1994: 9). King acknowledges this, but

qualifies this situation by addressing the workload involved in noting every oral exchange, when faced with classes of up to 103 students (King, 2012: 329). A two-part notation protocol was chosen for this study, given the smaller class sizes involved. The protocol described by King was expanded upon. An additional symbol was used, representing significant instances of communication (i.e. more than a single word answer), which did not meet the criteria necessary to be defined as the dominant phenomena observed in the given one minute interval.

Three pupils were chosen for closer observation in both classes. The pupils were selected based on proximity to the observer, in order to hear what they said, as well as a clear line of sight, to assist in observation of activities the pupils engaged in. There were two male and one female pupil in class A, with two female and one male pupil selected in class B.

The small number of pupils in the sample and the convenience nature of the sample itself, give little scope for generalisation (Taber, 2007: 70; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 81). King echoes this sentiment in his description of the COPS scheme, stating limitations in ability to establish correlations, or long-term variations in populations (King, 2012: 326). These concerns are not considered as limitations to the present study. The body of data generated by the chosen observation instrument is considered an asset, given the intended *descriptive* nature of the study. One benefit of using a structured notation instrument like COPS, is the possibility for other studies which use the system, to make comparisons to the findings of this study (Loewen & Philp, 2012: 56).

3.3.2.Questionnaire.

A well-structured questionnaire needs careful consideration of multiple elements. Length, style, number and type of questions, as well as how to analyse and present the information collected are all to be considered (Taber, 2007: 149; Dörnyei, 2010: 16). Dörnyei recommends questionnaires no longer than four pages and requiring no more than a half hour to answer as acceptable (Dörnyei, 2010:18). Given the age of the pupils in the sample for this study, the manner in which items are formulated – ambiguous statements, language used etc. – is also a significant factor when compiling a questionnaire. Indeed, this proved to be an issue, with one item in the questionnaire apparently providing some confusion. This is discussed in chapter 5.

In accordance with guidelines set down by the Norwegian authority responsible for research (NSD, 2016), pupils were informed that information collected from this questionnaire was anonymous and would be destroyed upon completion of the study. The voluntary nature of the pupils' participation was emphasized, as well as their right to withdraw consent to participate in the research at any time.

The questionnaire for this project was composed after informal discussion with pupils from other classes in the eighth and tenth grades at the same school. These discussions were an attempt to identify extra-curricular arenas, where pupils might be exposed to oral English, or be required to use their oral English communicative abilities – the previously discussed sources of incidental learning.

The questionnaire contains ten items. Three of these were used to obtain background data (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 75). These questions sought to identify gender, number of years pupils had received English language teaching, and identifying the language backgrounds of pupils' parents. Six of the remaining items used close-ended questions, seeking to establish sources of incidental language learning the pupils might be exposed to. The final question allowed pupils to describe additional sources of incidental language, not identified in piloting and planning the questionnaire. The Norwegian-language original version of the questionnaire, as well as the English-language translation are presented in Appendix 2.1 and Appendix 2.2.

As mentioned, the items included are comprised mostly of close-ended questions. This type of question presents users the chance to answer by placing a mark next to one or more alternatives that best indicates their response (Dörnyei, 2010: 35). Taber cautions that this style of question is simple to analyse, but does not provide scope for alternatives outside of those offered (Taber, 2007: 149). This is elaborated upon in Dörnyei's warning that analysis is pointless, without useful information to analyse (Dörnyei, 2010: 31). In order to address these concerns, questions were selected based on discussions with pupils in parallel classes at the same school. The intention was that the items selected would best reflect a range of alternatives relevant to the target sample.

What became clear as a result of the informal discussions was that the pupils involved named a diverse range of sources of incidental learning. This dictated the subject matter of the questions that were included. It also inspired the decision to add space for pupils to include additional information in seven of the ten items. Providing this alternative gave pupils the

chance to include unforeseen responses (Dörnyei, 2010: 47). This decision was also made to alleviate some of the limitation involved in only having close-ended items, as discussed by Taber (Taber, 2007: 149).

The questionnaire was piloted with the same classes involved in the informal discussions. This gave an indication that pupils required around 25 – 35 minutes to complete the questionnaire. In spite of the survey being half of the four pages suggested by Dörnyei, the decision was made to not include additional items, as it was felt this would require more time than the half hour suggested (Dörnyei, 2010: 18).

Another issue observed during piloting was in regards to questions dealing with the amount of time spent engaged in various extra-curricular activities. Some pupils reported significant variation between the amounts of time used on these activities on weekdays as compared to weekends. Both the pilot groups and the sample population were instructed to report an average amount of time, based on these figures. Additional items allowing for variations in time used on the given activities both on weekdays and weekends could have been introduced to provide more nuanced results. The decision was made to not include these additional items however. The concern was that by including items which appeared similar to others in the questionnaire, this might contribute to pupils repeating answers (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 78), or pupils perceiving the survey as monotonous or uninteresting, thereby affecting the validity of their responses (Dörnyei, 2010: 90).

In spite of the focus of this study being the use of oral English, the questionnaire was presented to pupils in Norwegian. This is in accordance with the belief that eliciting the information in the pupils' mother tongue will improve the quality of information collected (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 79). The author of this study is proficient in Norwegian, however, the questionnaire was sent to the thesis supervisors for review and quality assurance, with modifications made where necessary.

Of the 23 pupils observed in Class A, 18 delivered responses to the questionnaire. In Class B, 19 of the 22 pupils observed returned responses to the questionnaire. These discrepancies are accounted for by absence, sickness or other activities on the days pupils answered the questionnaire.

3.4.Analysis of data.

This section explains the process involved in the data analysis used for this study. As stated in the introduction to the chapter, this study uses a quantitative-method approach. The framework dictated by this approach affects not only the manner of data collection, but also how said data is analysed.

3.4.1.Analysis of observation.

The observation scheme used is regarded within the framework of this study as a quantitative instrument. Results were coded with respect to percentages of time engaged in certain activities, language used, both teachers' and pupils' use of oral English, and other categories represented in the COPS instrument. Given the study is descriptive in nature rather than experimental, measures such as establishing correlations, recording variation in given phenomena over time, or evaluation of results achieved in an instructed exercise are not the objective. Comparison of portions of the sample population that are made are - between the six pupils focused on in the second section of the COPS instrument and the sample population; between the eighth and tenth grade classes - or focused on differences in amount of time pupils and teachers use oral English.

3.4.2.Analysis of questionnaire results.

The questionnaire used is also regarded as a quantitative instrument within the framework of this study. Data collected from this questionnaire is coded with respect to gender, amount of English-language teaching, language background, as well as sources of and amounts of exposure to a range of sources of incidental language learning. Again, the intent is for this study to be descriptive, so correlations, generalized inferences and results of experiments are not the focus here.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS.

As discussed in chapter 3, the COPS scheme is divided into two sections, Section 1 being devoted to activities at whole-class level, with Section 2 allowing for closer observation of a selection of pupils. This chapter presents results from both sections, class by class. Information collected from the questionnaires is then presented, with results from both classes presented simultaneously.

4.1. Important decisions made regarding the collection and coding of information.

During piloting of the COPS scheme, a decision was made to make notations of minor instances of language use that were significant, but did not meet the criteria necessary to be defined as the dominant phenomena observed in the given one minute interval (King, 2012: 332). Practically speaking, this divided the noted results into two groups; those between one and thirty seconds in length (minor instances, more than single-word utterances), and those between thirty-one and sixty seconds in length. Significant instances, noted in accordance with the criteria described by King, are shown in tables in this chapter in the rows marked *Minute*. Minor instances are shown in the tables in the rows marked <*Minute*. Where use of Norwegian was recorded, this is represented in tables as *L1*.

In order to calculate percentage sizes for figures noted for minor instances (<*Minute*), the following steps were taken. The difference between noted minutes and observed minutes was calculated. This amount was then divided by the number of minor instances recorded, to give an average amount of time for each instance.

Using the figures from observation in Class A as an example:

$$(Minutes\ observed - Minutes\ noted = Minutes\ of\ minor\ instances)$$

$$391min. - 368min. = 23\ min.$$

$$\left(\frac{Nr.\ minutes\ of\ minor\ instances}{Nr.\ of\ minor\ instances} = Average\ time\ per\ minor\ instance\right)$$

$$\frac{23min.}{68\ inst.} = 0.34\ \text{min.}\ per\ minor\ instance.$$

An average amount of time per minor instance of oral language use was calculated for both classes; 0.34 min for Class A and 0.19 min in Class B, which translates to 20.4 seconds and 11.4 seconds respectively. A more detailed representation could have been achieved through recording and transcribing lessons. Recording and transcribing nearly 15 hours of observation was deemed unfeasible, based on limitations created by resources, time and equipment for the present study. While not giving a word-for-word account of the lessons observed, it was felt that recording these minor instances of oral language use gave a more nuanced account in contrast to King's previously discussed study of university classes (King, 2012).

4.2. Results collected through use of the COPS scheme.

The results collected from Section 1 of the COPS scheme present the possibility for a meta-level analysis of phenomena recorded. Types of activity, as well as who is engaging in them are recorded in this section. Section 2 of the COPS scheme also allow for greater nuance. Activities requiring pupils to actively use their communicative language competence are more thoroughly illustrated. This provides a range of information to the ESL researcher. Instances where pupils actively engage in writing, reading, listening as well as speaking are all registered in this section. Some of these activities require use of communicative abilities from more than one of these areas simultaneously. Engaging in a conversation for example requires both listening and speaking abilities. However, with oral-language communicative abilities being the focus of this study, the majority of this section will address activities where pupils are required to use these abilities.

A minor modification was made between coding data from the COPS notation system and presenting it in tables shown in this chapter. The COPS system has categories marked for both Teacher and Student activity. For the tables shown here, Student has been replaced with Pupil. The categories are not otherwise modified from the original (shown in Appendix 1).

4.2.1. Results of observation from Section 1 of the COPS scheme, Class A.

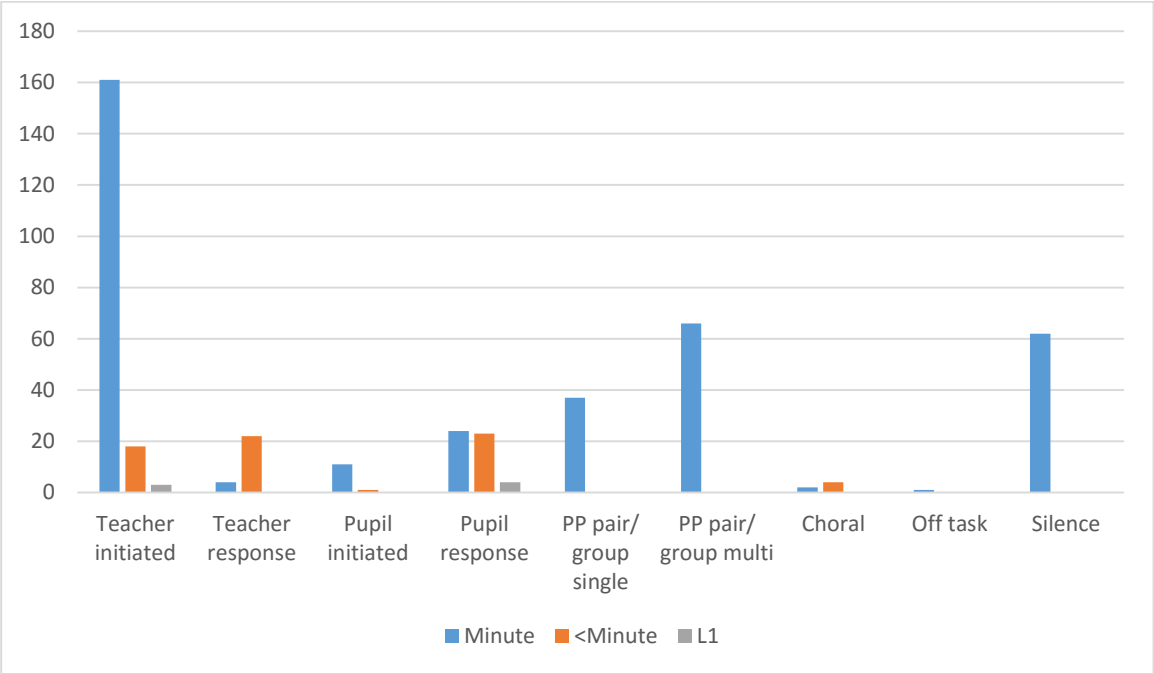

Diagram 1: Oral Participation, Class A. Results shown in minutes.

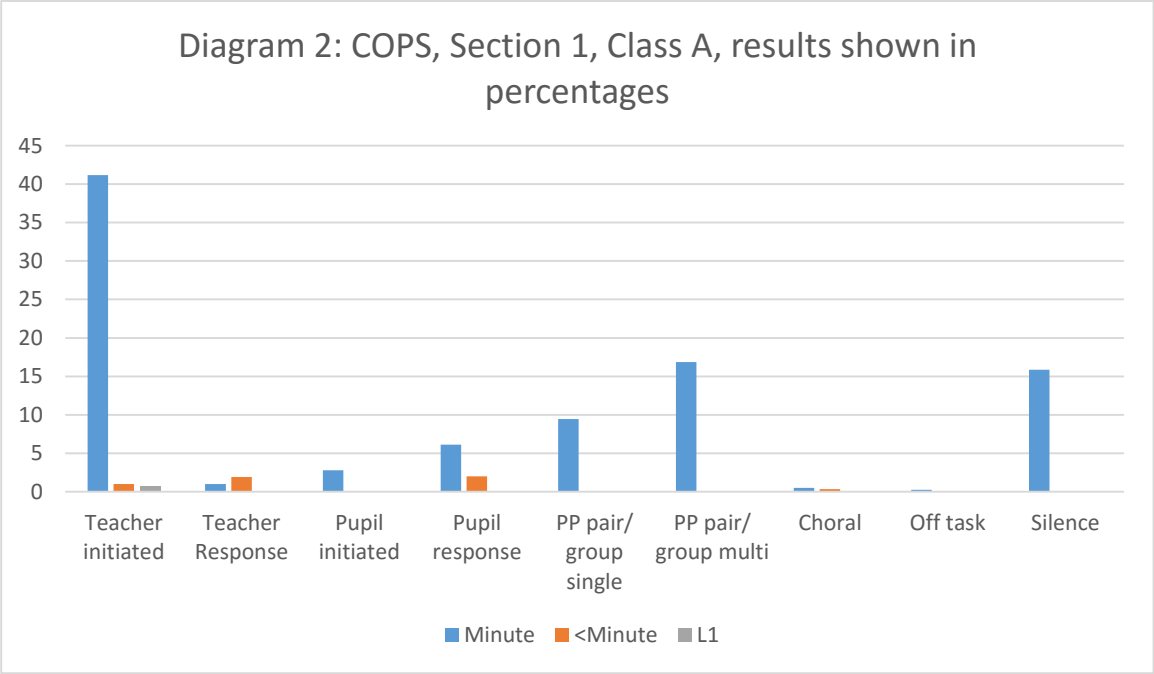

Diagram 2: Oral Participation, Class A. Results shown in percentage form.

Diagram 1 and Diagram 2 show *Minute*, *<Minute* and *L1* events at whole-class level in Class A, during the seven teaching sessions observed. These figures are presented both in total minutes and in percentage form to assist in discussion of the observations.

The data collected allows for interpretation of several different phenomena. In keeping with the focus of the first research question defined for this study, the most obvious is the relationship between the amount of time teacher and pupils engage in oral-English use. By far the most significant single category in this class was *Teacher-initiated* oral activity, accounting for just over 41% of the observed activities. Combined categories of oral activity by the teacher, minor instances included, accounted for 45.65% of the recorded time, which eclipsed the figure for all oral activity from pupils. Including minor instances, combined oral activity for pupils accounted for 38.24% of the time observed. At this meta-level, silence, in combination with writing or reading, was the next most significant category, recorded for just over 15% of the time.

Closer analysis of pupil activity shows that instances where the class as a whole worked in pairs or groups allowed the greatest possibility for pupils to use oral English. Just over 16% of the time was devoted to this category in Class A. Activities in this category included several pairs or groups simultaneously taking turns reading, discussing or even engaging in dramatizations of texts they had read. Pupil-initiated oral language use, pupil responses and oral activity in individual pairs or group (making a presentation, or speaking while the rest of class observed) and choral oral-language use, were all eclipsed by the amount of silence recorded during observation. These four categories each account for less than ten percent of the time observed. Pleasingly, from both a teaching and an ESL perspective, off-task activities in this section (interruptions from outside the classroom, staring into space, L1 language-use etc.) account for just over one percent of the time observed.

4.2.1.2. Results of observation from Section 2 of the COPS scheme, Class A.

Section 2 of the COPS scheme allows for closer observation of a selected sample of pupils. The manner in which these pupils were selected for observation is discussed in greater detail in chapter 3 of this study. In short, line of sight, and proximity to the observer were predominant choices made to aid in observation.

This section of the COPS scheme includes 11 categories, designed to provide greater detail in regards to pupil activities. As an example, Section 1 allows the observer to note whether a pupil or teacher is speaking. Section 2 allows further nuance, with sections to indicate when the selected pupils are listening to a teacher, a fellow pupil or if they themselves are speaking. The category for silence in Section 1 receives further depth from observations made in Section 2, which enable the observer to indicate if this time was spent reading, writing, or just staring into space.

Of the 11 categories mentioned, five (*Talk response, Talk initiate, Talk pair/ group, Talk choral and Reading aloud)* describe activities requiring use of oral communicative abilities, three *(Listening Teacher, Listening Pupil, Listening Audio)* describe listening, two categories are devoted to reading, one focuses on writing, and the last describes off-task activities. The category *Reading Aloud* requires both oral communicative abilities, as well as reading skills. Based on averages for all three pupils observed in this section, the largest category was *Listening Teacher.* The next largest categories were *Listening Pupil, Talk Pair/ Group, Writing, Off-task, Listening Audio, Talk Response, Reading Aloud, Reading Silent, Talk Initiate,* and *Choral*.

Diagram 3 and Table 1 show[7] the results in percentage form. This allows for both an easily understandable graphic representation, as well as more nuanced interpretation where needed.

[7] Actual minutes of observation are presented in Appendix 4, in the interests of saving space in this chapter, and allowing easier reading.

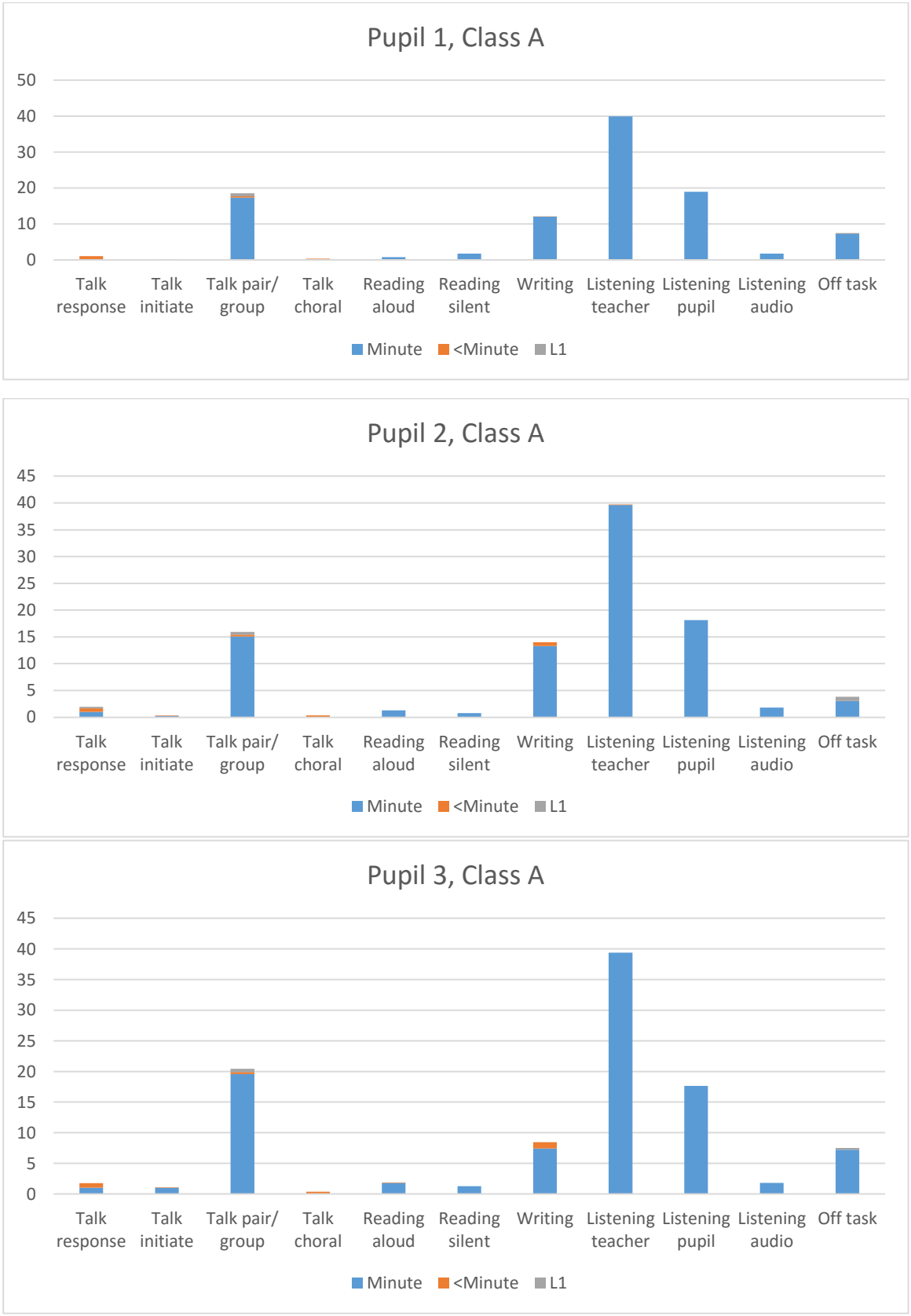

Diagram 3: Selected pupils, Class A. Shown in percentage form.

	Pupil 1	Male.									
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Pupil	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	0.26%	0	17.39%	0	0.78%	1.79%	12.02%	39.90%	18.93%	1.79%	7.23%
<Minute	0.83%	0.09%	0.35%	0.35%	0	0	0.09%	0	0	0	0
L1	0	0	0.77%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.26%
	Pupil 2	Male.									
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Pupil	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	1.02%	0.26%	15.09%	0	1.28%	0.77%	13.29%	39.64%	18.16%	1.79%	3.05%
<Minute	0.65%	0.09%	0.35%	0.35%	0	0	0.70%	0.09%	0	0	0
L1	0.26%	0	0.51%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.77%
	Pupil 3.	Female.									
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Pupil	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	1.02%	1.02%	19.57%	0	1.79%	1.28%	7.42%	39.39%	17.65%	1.79%	6.41%
<Minute	0.74%	0.09%	0.35%	0.35%	0.09%	0	1.04%	0	0	0	0
L1	0	0	0.26%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.26%

Table 1: Selected Pupils, Class A. Shown in percentage form.

There are some discrepancies between the figures shown here and those shown in Section 1. The amount of time Section 1 indicates that the teacher spent talking, does not correspond with the amount of time Section 2 shows that pupils spent listening. Similarly, the indicated amount of silence described in Section 1 is not reflected exactly by the figures for silent reading or writing as shown in Section 2. These discrepancies are accounted for in the *Off-task* category, which recorded events that may have affected the time pupils spent on these activities. As an example, Pupil 3 was recorded listening to her fellow pupils around one percent of the time, almost five minutes, less than the two other pupils in this sample, due to a toilet break.

Important to note here is that the *Off-task* category in Section 2 recorded the activities of the three pupils from the selected sample. The similar category in Section 1 recorded off-task activities for the remainder of the class. Thus, the three percent of the time Pupil 2 engaged in off-task activities is not reflected in the 0.26% registered for the rest of the class. Further discussion of the variations recorded in this category will take place in chapter 5. Also important to note is that the figures presented in tables in this chapter, which indicate L1 use, are in addition to the figures representing English-language use in each category. To illustrate this, in Table 1, Pupil 2 was recorded in the Talk Response category as using Norwegian for 0.26% of the time observed, in addition to the 1.67% of the time he used English in this category.

As indicated by time recorded in the categories devoted to the teacher's oral language use from Section 1, Diagram 3 shows that the pupils in this sample spent the majority of their time listening to the teacher talking, over 39% in all instances. On average, the next largest recorded categories were, in order, listening to fellow pupils, speaking in pairs or groups, followed by writing. Pupil 3 represents an exception to this, having spent more time speaking in group activities than she did listening to fellow pupils. Pupil 3 also spent more time reading aloud, but less time writing, than the two other pupils observed in this section. Pupils 2 and 3 were more active, in both initiating communication with, as well as responding to, the teacher, than pupil 1.

Categories in this section describing the use of oral communicative abilities are *Talk Response, Talk Initiate, Talk Pair/ Group, Choral* and *Reading Aloud*. Pupil 1 used 20.05% of his time on these activities, Pupil 2 used 19.09% of his time, with pupil 3 engaged in these activities for 25.02% of her time. This provides an average figure of 21.39% of the time these

three pupils used their oral communicative language abilities. The two categories recording listening indicate that on average, the three pupils observed spent 59.7% of their time listening. Writing accounted for an average of 11.50% of time, while reading consumed 2.6% of time observed. The *Off-task* category in this section indicates these three pupils spent on average 5.57% of their time staring out the window, checking their mobile phone, communicating with other pupils and taking toilet breaks. Pupil 1 spent most time engaged in these activities, with pupil 2 using the least amount of time in this category.

4.2.2.1. Results of observation from Section 1 of the COPS scheme, Class B.

Diagrams 4 and 5 show categories and events at whole-class level in Class B, during the eight teaching sessions observed.

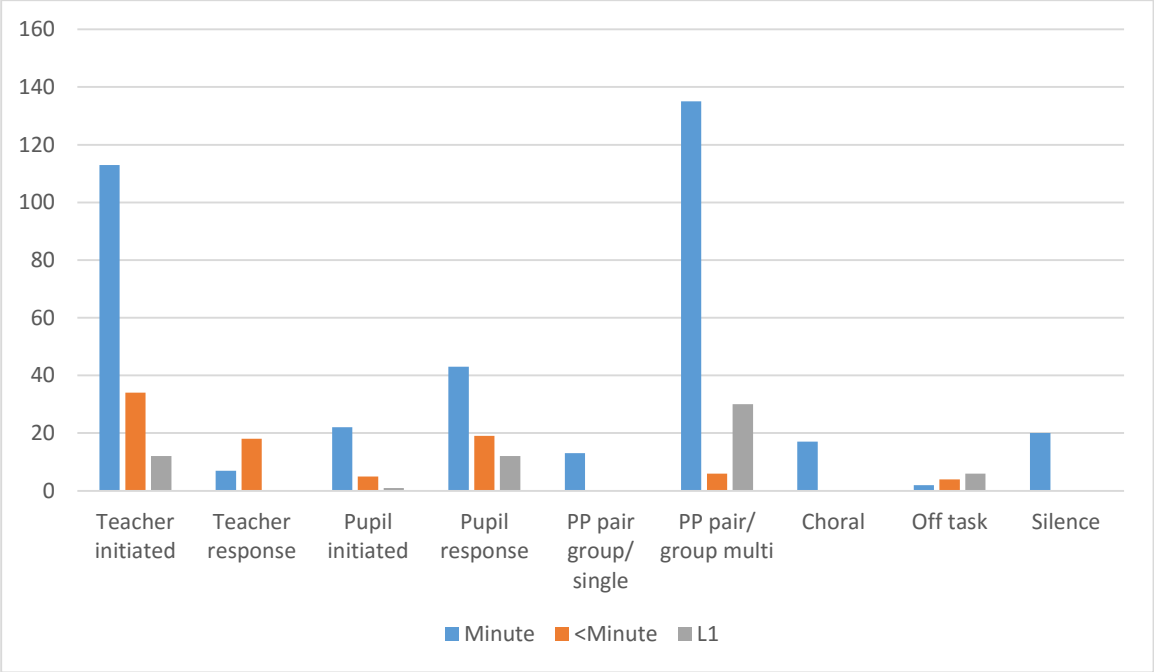

Diagram 4: Oral participation, Class B, shown in minutes.

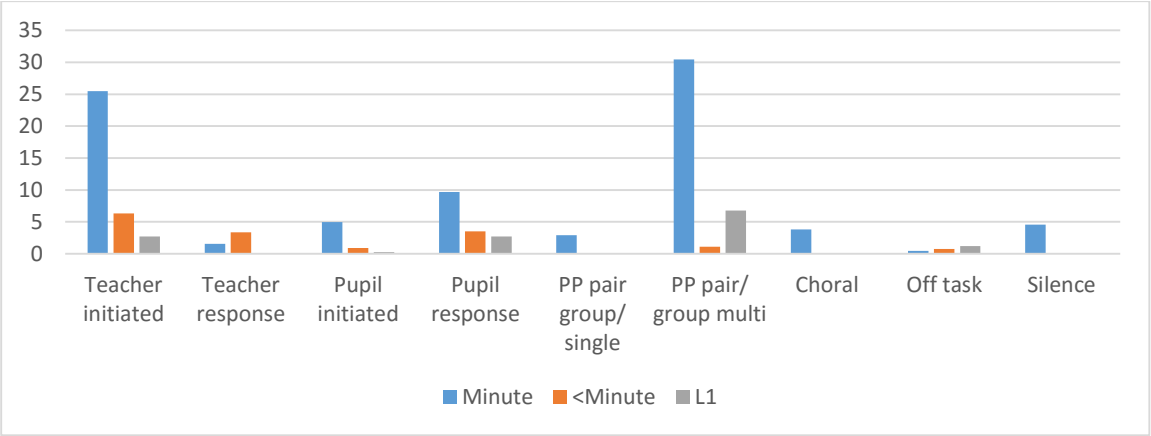

Diagram 5: Oral participation, Class B, shown in percentage form.

Similar to Class A, *Teacher-initiated* oral activity made up the largest single category observed, almost 32%, with all categories of oral activity by the teacher accounting for nearly 37% of the recorded time. The five categories that recorded oral activity for pupils accounted for 57.5% of the time observed. Interesting for this class, is that the category that recorded *Teacher-initiated* oral activity was only marginally larger than the category for pupils working in pairs or groups, with the difference here being only 0.24%. Silence recorded accounted for just under 5% of the observed time, somewhat less than the approximately 16% for Class A. The majority of the silence recorded for this class can be attributed to a written test, which consumed a significant portion of one of the teaching sessions. Another notable difference between the two classes is the amount of L1 language use recorded, with 66 instances noted for Class B, compared to seven in Class A.

The single activity that provided pupils in this class with the greatest chance to use their oral communicative abilities was again when the entire class was engaged in pair or group work. As mentioned, Class B used nearly the same amount of time for this type of activity as the teacher did speaking to the class.

Pupils in this class were significantly more active in the *Pupil-initiated* and *Pupil- response* categories than the pupils in Class A. Together these accounted for over 19% of the time in Class B compared to 11% in Class A. While more time was used in Class B for *Choral* activities than in Class A, the amount of time where Norwegian was spoken was also significantly greater than for Class A. Less time was devoted to single pairs or groups making some form of presentation. The amount of time used on off-task activities was, similar to the results in Class A, just over one percent of the time.

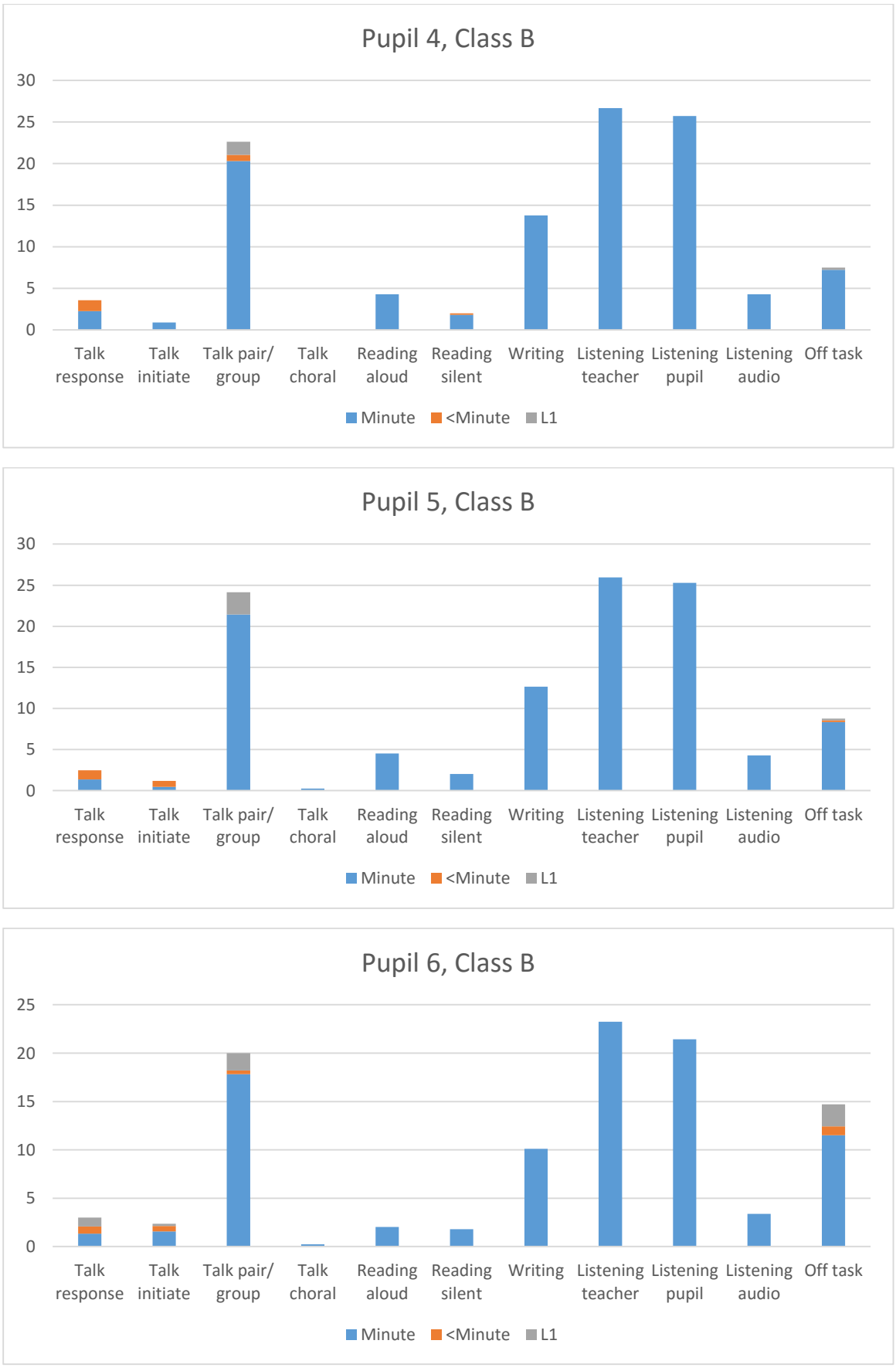

Diagram 6: Selected pupils, Class B. Shown in percentage form.

	Pupil 4	Male									
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Pupil	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	2.26%	0.90%	20.32%	0	4.29%	1.81%	13.77%	26.67%	25.73%	4.29%	7.22%
<Minute	1.30%	0	0.74%	0	0	0.19%	0	0	0	0	0
L1	0	0	1.58%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.23%
	Pupil 5	Female									
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Pupil	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	1.35%	0.45%	21.44%	0.23%	4.51%	2.03%	12.64%	25.96%	25.28%	4.29%	8.35%
<Minute	1.12%	0.74%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.19%
L1	0	0	2.71%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.23%
	Pupil 6	Female									
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Pupil	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	1.35%	1.58%	17.83%	0.23%	2.03%	1.81%	10.12%	23.25%	21.44%	3.39%	11.51%
<Minute	0.74%	0.56%	0.37%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.93%
L1	0.90%	0.23%	1.81%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.26%

Table 2: Selected Pupils, Class B. Shown in percentage form.

4.2.2.2. Results of observation from Section 2 of the COPS scheme, Class B.

This section presents the results for observation recorded in Section 2 of the COPS scheme. This data is presented in graphic form in Diagram 6, and in percentage form in Table 2, to allow for both quick visual reference and more nuanced analysis of results as needed.

As previously mentioned, there are 11 categories for observation in this section of the COPS scheme. These cover four main areas of focus, as well as off-topic activities. Five of the categories register use of oral communicative abilities. There is space for three categories describing listening and two categories are devoted to reading. Of the two final categories, one is devoted to writing, and the last describes off-task activities. On average, the category showing the largest recorded activity was *Listening Teacher,* followed in descending order by *Listening Pupil, Talk Pair/ Group, Writing, Off-task, Listening Audio, Reading Aloud, Talk Response, Reading Silent, Talk Initiate,* and *Choral*. The results in percentage form are shown in Diagram 6. Actual minutes of observation are presented in Appendix 3, in the interests of saving space in this chapter, and allowing easier reading.

The categories *Talk Response* and *Talk Initiate* describe instances where pupils individually use their communicative oral language abilities. Pupil 4 was recorded as being more active than either of his female fellow pupils in these two categories. Pupil 5 was observed to be the most active of the three pupils in group activities (*Talk pair/ group*). She also recorded the greatest amount of oral language use in total for the five combined categories addressing oral language use.

Pupil 4 recorded most activity in the categories addressing reading, writing and listening activity, followed in order by Pupil 5 and Pupil 6. These three pupils spent an average of one fifth of their time involved in pair or group activities. Pupil 6 was in general less active than her classmates in all categories except for one: *Off-task activities*. She was observed engaged in off-task activities for just over 12% of the time, with Pupil 4 and Pupil 5 noted as using approximately two-thirds as much time in the same category. Apparent daydreaming, toilet breaks and mobile phone use occupied much of Pupil 6's time in these instances. Further discussion of these activities is presented in chapter 5.

Worth noting is the amount of time recorded as spent listening to fellow pupils in relation to the amount of time devoted to hearing the teacher speak. Pupils 4, 5 and 6 spent on average 25.29% of their time listening to the teacher, and 24.15% listening to fellow pupils. Activities

noted in this category included listening to fellow pupils reading, pupils summarising activities or texts, short presentations and giving answers to homework tasks.

4.3. Results from Questionnaires.

The development of the questionnaire used in this study was discussed in chapter 3. Piloting was conducted in classes from the same grade levels at the same school, or other members of a population who represent the selected sample. The aim here was to identify arenas where pupils might be exposed to incidental English- language learning.
Composed of a total of ten items, the first three items in the questionnaire were designed to identify gender and establish the pupils' English-language learning history (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 75). A further six items were close-ended, allowing pupils to mark one or more options which best suited them. Space was given in these six items for additional information. The final item gave the possibility for pupils to identify unforeseen sources of incidental learning. The Norwegian-language original version of the questionnaire, as well as the English-language translation are presented in Appendix 2.1. and Appendix 2.2.

This section presents tables of results for each item individually. These tables include results for both classes. This is to aid in both ease of reading and further comparison. Further discussion occurs in chapter 5.

4.3.1. Gender and English language-learning background.

Diagram 7: Gender and English-learning history.

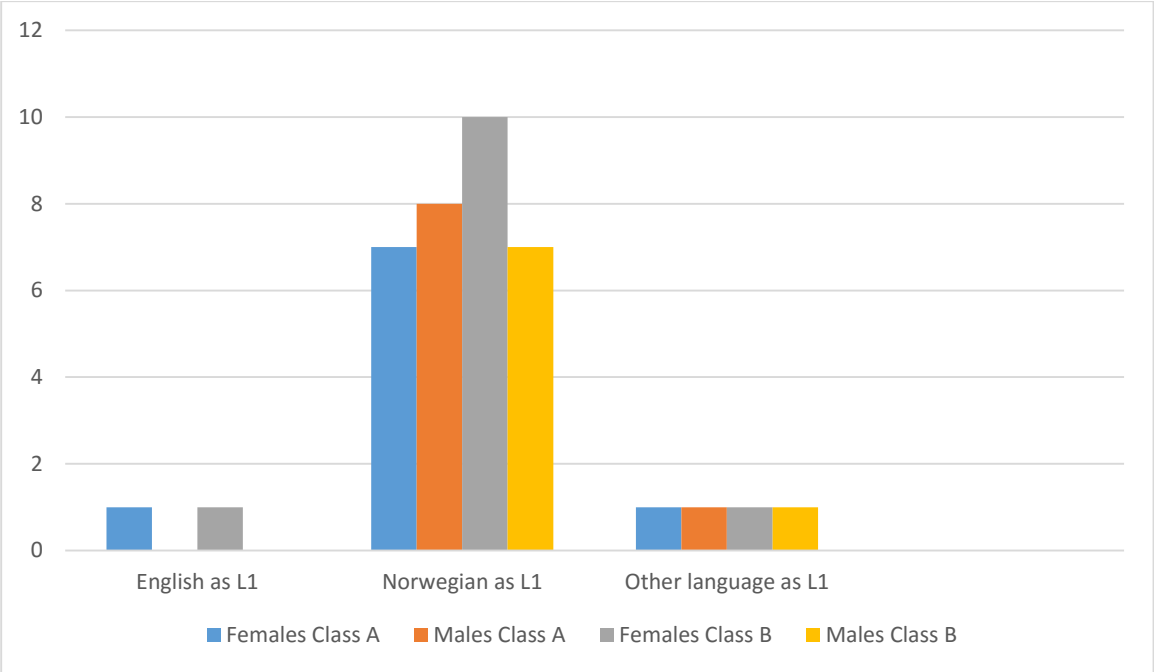

Diagram 8: Gender and L1 background.

Diagrams 7 and 8 present data collected from the first three items in the questionnaire. Results are shown for 18 respondents in Class A, nine of them female and nine male. Results from 19 respondents in Class B are also shown, 11 of them female, eight of them male. Two of the pupils in Class A indicated more years of English language learning than that expected from these eighth graders. In Class B, six pupils indicated more years of English-language learning than the amount expected for this tenth-grade class. The majority of pupils in each class indicated their parents had Norwegian as their mother tongue. One pupil in Class A indicated one parent with English as their L1, and more than 10 years of English-language learning. One pupil from Class A reported one parent with Tamil as L1. This pupil also reported more than 10 years of English-language learning. One pupil in Class A also responded that they had one parent with Spanish as L1 but indicated the same number of years learning English as their classmates. One pupil in Class B reported Croatian as parental L1 language. Finally, one pupil reported having one Spanish as L1 parent, and 1-2 years of English-language learning.

4.3.2. Where do pupils hear and use oral English?

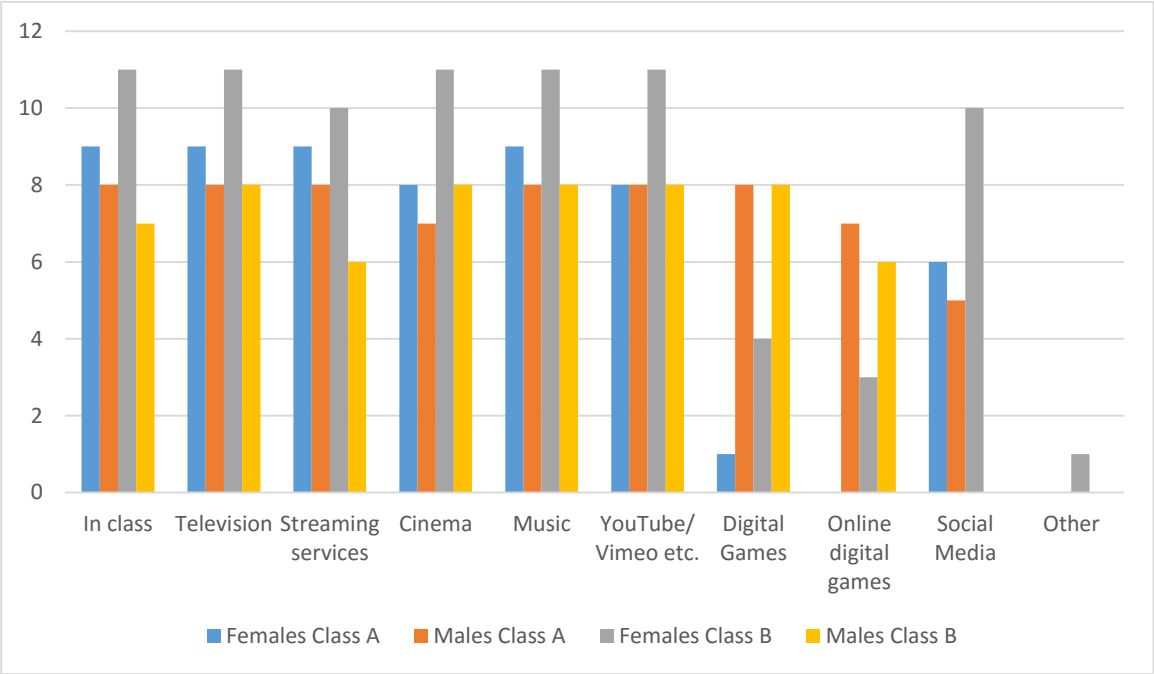

Diagram 9: Where do you hear oral English in use?

Results for the item concerning where pupils hear oral English in use are presented in Diagram 9. The most common arenas where girls in Class A heard oral English are; during English-language classes, television, Netflix and similar streaming services, as well as music. YouTube and the cinema were also popular sources of exposure for female pupils in this class. Social media – particularly Facebook and Snapchat - was a common arena in which to hear oral English for two-thirds of girls in Class A. A single female pupil from this class indicated she heard oral English while playing digital games.

Male pupils in Class A indicated that the sources of most English language exposure were the same five categories as their female classmates, with the addition of digital gaming. Hearing English at the cinema and in social media were less common arenas for exposure. In sharp contrast to the girls in this class, digital gaming and online gaming were very common sources of exposure to English for the male pupils in Class A.

Just like their counterparts in Class A, female pupils in Class B most commonly heard oral English in English-language classes, on television, through Netflix and similar streaming services, as well as music. All but one of the girls in this class indicated they heard English in

use in social media. This is in contrast to two-thirds of the girls in Class A who reported English-language exposure through social media. Around one third of the female pupils in this class reported exposure through digital or online gaming, in contrast to 11% of girls in the same category in Class A. One pupil reported another source of exposure not accounted for by the categories in the questionnaire, that being on vacation.

All but one of the male pupils in Class B indicated they heard oral English in English-language class. This raises concern as to whether the pupil misunderstood the formulation of the question for this item, forgot to mark this category, or consciously chose not to mark this category. Television, music videos, online gaming, social media, music and the cinema were the most common arenas for this group to hear English. Twice as many male pupils as female pupils reported hearing English through digital and online gaming.

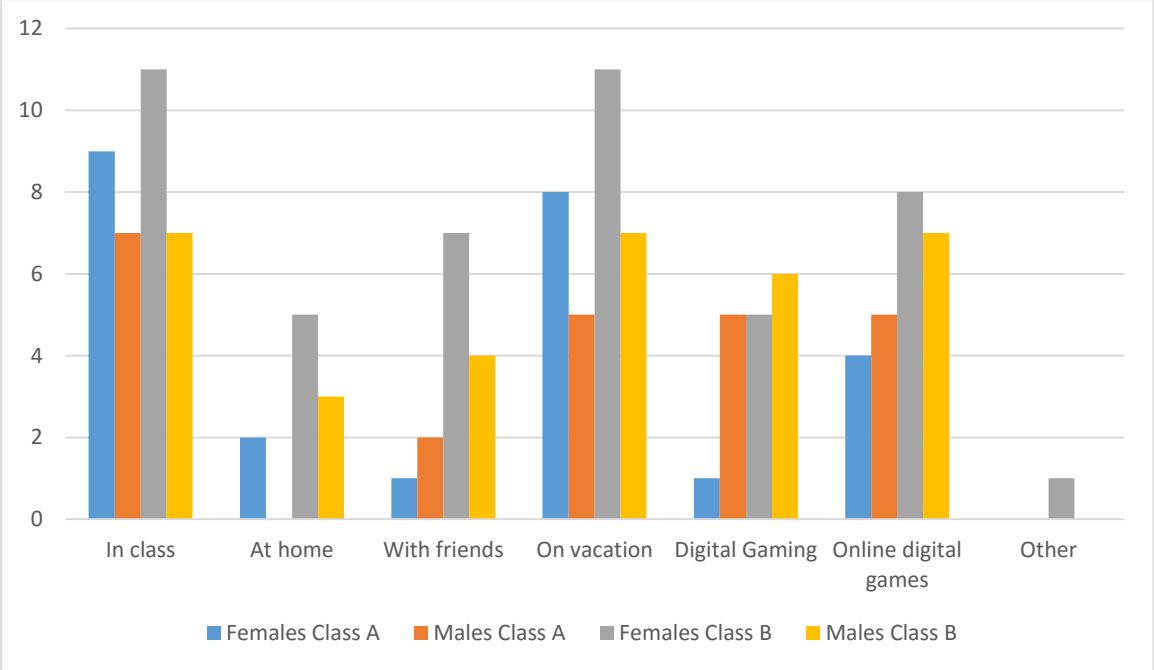

Diagram 10: Where do you use oral English?

Diagram 10 presents results for the questionnaire item concerning arenas where pupils speak English. Similar to the previous item discussed, one of the male pupils in Class B indicated he did not speak English in English–language classes. English-language classes, online gaming and vacations were the categories where both male and female pupils reported speaking

English most often. Interestingly, more female pupils spoke English in online gaming and with friends than male pupils in this class, with the reverse being true for digital gaming. One female pupil in this class reported speaking English with family members living overseas via Skype.

Similar to the results for Class B, one male pupil in Class A indicated that he did not speak English in English-language classes. More boys in this class indicated that they spoke English on vacation or in online and digital gaming than they did at home or with friends. The same applied in these categories for the female pupils in Class A, with one exception; more girls indicated they spoke English at home, than they did in digital gaming.

4.3.3. Where are pupils exposed to sources of incidental English-language?

This section examines the results from four questionnaire items designed to explore how much time pupils involved in this study spend each day exposed to active or passive sources of incidental English-language. Rugesæter's definition of passive incidental language acquisition was presented in chapter 2, as activities where no follow-up use of the language occurs (Rugesæter, 2014: 2). The first three items presented here address passive sources of exposure. The final item presented in this section explores a source of active incidental language exposure – digital game play.

4.3.3.1. Hours per day spent watching English-language programmes.

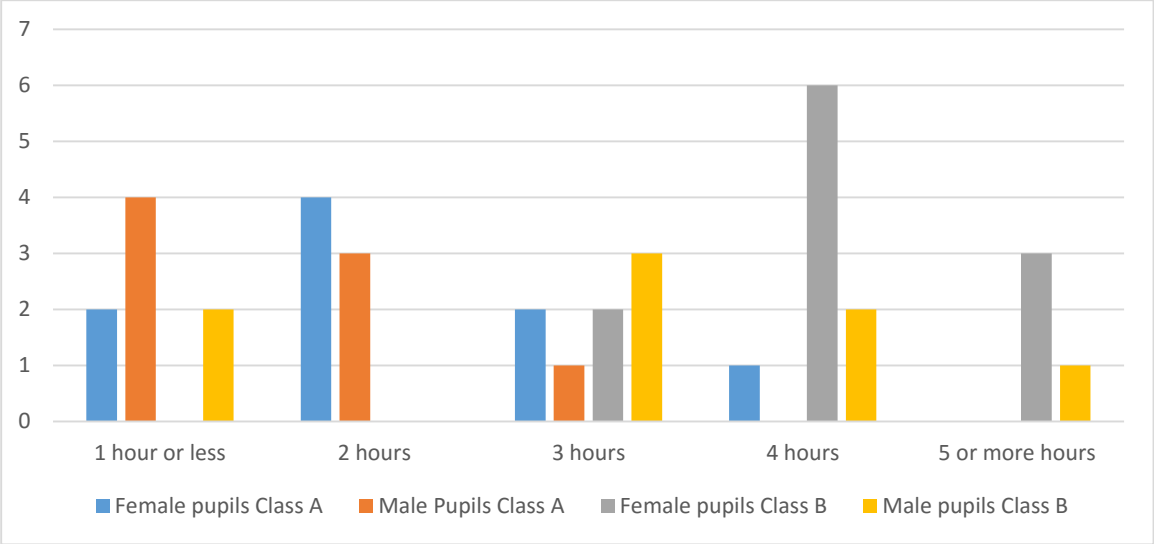

Diagram 11: How many hours a day do you use watching English-language television?

Diagram 11 presents the reported number of hours pupils spent per day watching English-language programmes on television or streaming services such as Netflix. As can be seen in this table, both male and female pupils in Class B generally reported spending more time watching such programmes than pupils from Class A. Female pupils in Class A averaged 2.23 hours per day, male pupils averaged 1.63 hours per day. In Class B, female pupils averaged 4.09 hours a day, with male pupils spending an average of 3 hours watching English-language programmes per day. The average amount of time spent watching this type of programme was 1.93 hours in Class A and 3.55 hours in Class B. This provides an average of 2.74 hours a day watching English language programmes for the entire sample.

Popular programmes female pupils from Class A mentioned watching included Modern Family, The Kardashians, Gossip Girl, Glee, The Originals, and The Vampire Diaries. Among female pupils in Class B programmes such as Gossip Girl, The Vampire Diaries, Pretty Little Liars, Glee, NCIS, Teen Wolf, Game of Thrones, and The Walking Dead were popular. Few male pupils from Class A gave examples of English-language programmes they watched. The only programme listed was The Flash. Many of these pupils simply listed broadcasting networks, with MTV, Viasat, Animal Planet and Discovery frequently mentioned. The male pupils in Class B listed programmes such as Modern Family, The Flash, Top Gear, Fast and Loud, and television coverage of the English Premier League. Pupils who reported watching such programmes for more than three hours per day listed substantially more programmes than pupils who reported fewer hours in this category.

4.3.3.2. Hours per day spent watching English-language films on YouTube, Vimeo or similar.

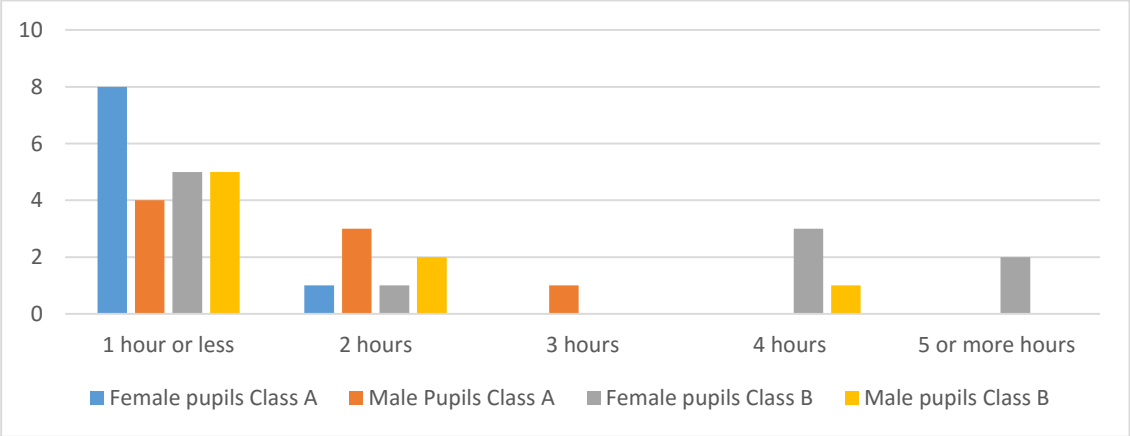

Diagram 12: Do you watch English-language films on YouTube, Vimeo or similar? How many hours a day do you spend watching these?

Diagram 12 presents results from the questionnaire item regarding watching films from other sources such as Vimeo or YouTube. Male pupils in both classes averaged 1.63 hours per day, with female pupils from Class A spending an average of 1.1 hours, and female pupils from Class B using the most time on this type of films, on average 2.64 hours per day. This indicates that on average, pupils were exposed to oral English through this type of film for 1.37 hours in Class A, and 2.14 hours per day in Class B. The average time this sample population spent watching YouTube or similar was 1.75 hours per day.

When asked what type of films they watched in this category, the most popular response for girls in Class A was “YouTubers”, without specifying what type of content they included. Blooper reels were most popular for the male pupils in this class. In Class B, films showing make-up techniques were most popular amongst the female pupils, followed by Top 10 lists, and music videos. Films about sport (football highlights, extreme sports etc.) were the most popular among the boys in this class.

4.3.3.3. Hours per day spent listening to English-language music.

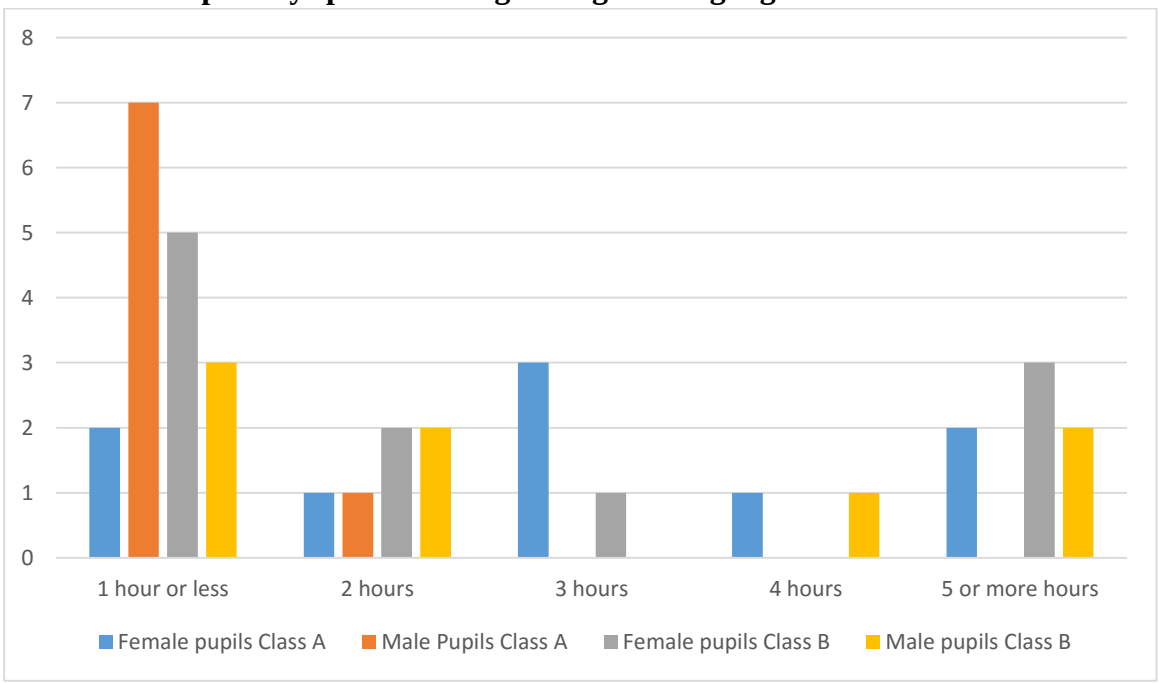

Diagram 13: How many hours a day do you use listening to English-language music?

The data in Diagram 13 represents the number of hours per day pupils reported listening to English-language music. This item was the only one of the three relating to passive incidental learning where female pupils from Class B did not register the highest average. Girls from Class A recorded the most time in this category with 3 hours per day, while male pupils in

this class reported an average of 1.13 hours per day. Male pupils from Class B averaged 2.63 hours, with females in the same class reporting an average of 2.45 hours a day. The average amount of time used for this category per class was 2.07 hours for Class A and 2.54 hours for Class B, giving an average of 2.3 hours per day for the sample population.

When asked if they could name artists they listened to, the most popular responses for males in Class A were hip-hop, R&B, pop and metal. Justin Bieber, Rihanna, Sia and Demi Lovato were popular among females in the same class. Taylor Swift, Adele and The Neighborhood were most popular among female pupils in Class B, with Elvis and The Beatles proving surprisingly popular among these tenth graders. The most popular response among male pupils in this class was a variety of artists, without explicitly naming said artists, closely followed by hip-hop and R&B artists, with country musicians the next most popular.

4.3.3.4. Hours per day spent playing English-language online digital games.

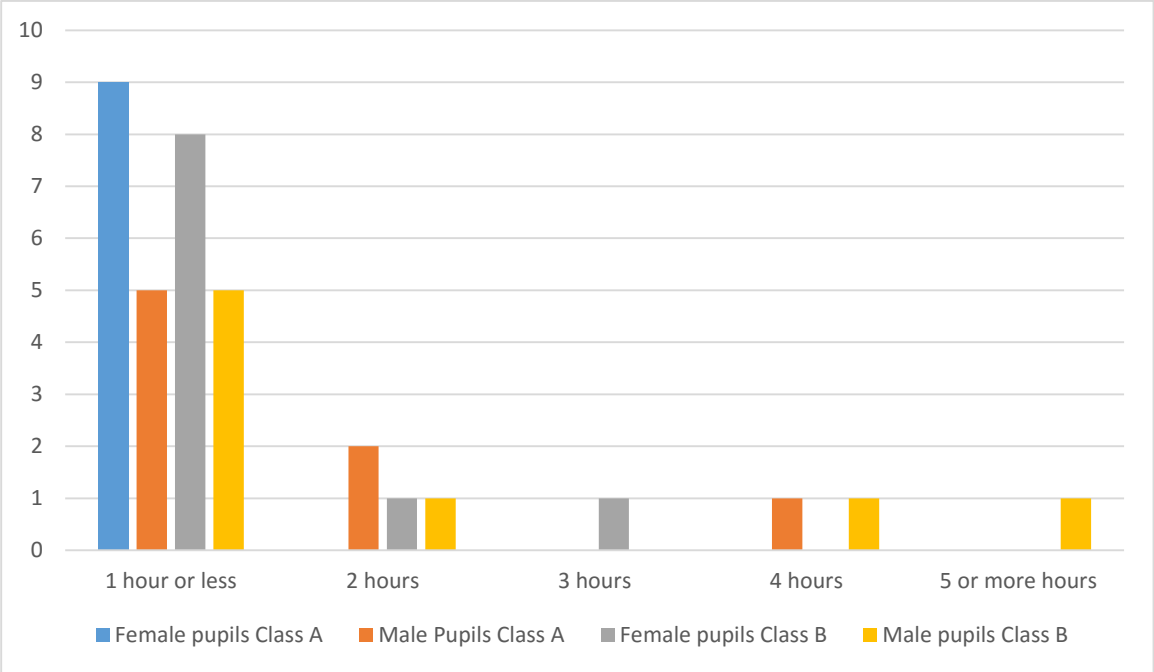

Diagram 14: Do you play English-language online digital games? How many hours a day?

As shown in Diagram 14, the majority of pupils who responded to the questionnaires indicated relatively low amounts of time spent on average playing online digital games each day. Male pupils from Class B averaged the most with 2 hours per day, followed by males from Class A (1.63 hours), female pupils from Class B (1.3 hours) and females from Class A (1 hour). Per class averages calculated from these results show pupils in Class A used an average of 1.32 hours a day for online digital gaming, while pupils from Class B spent an

average 1.65 hours per day engaged in the same activity. The average for the sample population was 1.48 hours per day. Male pupils reported the most hours of online digital gameplay, with 1.8 hours on average, while female pupils averaged 1.16 hours per day.

The most popular online digital games among male pupils were FIFA 16, Call of Duty and Grand Theft Auto. The most popular online digital games reported by female pupils in this study were Assassin's Creed and Minecraft, while Call of Duty and Lord of the Rings were also mentioned. This represents a somewhat different scenario than Sundqvist's findings that boys generally played large-scale multi-player online games while girls prefer single-player offline games (Sundqvist, 2009: 305).

Assassin's Creed, Minecraft and Grand Theft Auto all allow multiple players to engage in group tasks. Communication during gameplay occurs in both written – using chat forums, text-messages or various social media sites – and oral forms, using microphones and headphones. The majority of pupils who reported playing Minecraft indicated that they communicated mostly in Norwegian with friends from school. Those pupils who reported playing Assassin's Creed and Grand Theft Auto indicated that they often played with Norwegian friends, but the majority of the time gameplay involved players from other countries. Consistent with earlier research focusing on incidental learning and online digital gameplay (Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Henry, 2013) pupils reported that communication in these games occurred exclusively in English, even with fellow Norwegians.

Call of Duty online gameplay in developmental phase, and is theoretically only available to internet-users based in China (Gamespot, 2016). Pupils reporting playing this game online referred to a range of English-language websites that showed them how to bypass this restriction. The online version of the game uses Mandarin text. However the "cheats" provided by the websites described by pupils, as well as cooperation necessary for successful gameplay, used English as the primary form of communication.

5. DISCUSSION.

This chapter presents discussion of the data collected during research in light of theory from chapter 2. Results relating to the first investigational aim of this study are discussed, followed by discussion of findings related to the second investigational aim.

5.1. Findings related to the first research aim.

The first research question for this study was *i. How much oral English use occurs in the classrooms observed for this study, and who is producing it?* The findings related to this question are from information collected during the classroom observation phase of research. This research question contains two components, one regarding the amount of oral English use occurring in the observed classrooms, and the other concerned with who is producing it. These components will be addressed separately in this section.

5.1.1. How much oral English occurs in the classroom….?

Research findings can be analysed from two perspectives when addressing the first research aim. The first is a narrow perspective, where the oral English use described in the first research aim focuses only on production of oral English. The alternative is a broader perspective, with a basis in the described models of communicative ability (Section 2.3.1.), where oral communicative abilities addressing *speech production* and *listening* are included.

To discuss these figures, it is necessary to return briefly to the models of communicative ability presented in chapter 2. Models from Canale & Swain (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983) and The CEFR (Council of Europe, 2014) describe communicative ability as complex phenomena, often requiring simultaneous use of a broad range of skills. Listening is an important part of oral communicative ability: the CEFR and LK06 stress the importance of both listening and speech-production skills for oral communication (Council of Europe, 2014: 73; LK 06, 2011).

Categories from Section 1 of the COPS scheme related to the use of listening skills are understood here as *T initiated, T Response, P Initiated, P Response*, both categories describing pupils engaged in group activities, and *Choral*. Categories describing the use of speech production abilities are defined here as *P Initiated, P Response*, the two categories describing pupils engaged in group activities, and *Choral*.

Section 1 of the COPS scheme shows that in Class A, pupils' production of oral English accounted for just over 38% of the observed time (Diagram 2). Teacher communication and other events account for the remainder of the time observed. From the narrow perspective described above, the research findings appear to indicate that pupils in this class spent more than 60% of their time not engaged in using their oral communicative language abilities. From a similar narrow perspective, findings recorded in Class B (Diagram 5) indicate that in total, pupils' production of oral English accounted for 57.5% of the observed time, implying that pupils did not engage in using their oral communicative abilities for more than 40% of the time.

From the broader perspective, where the oral English use mentioned in the first research aim includes the oral communicative abilities speech production and listening, the data collected from Section 1 of the COPS scheme (shown in Tables 1 and 2), indicates that pupils in Class A potentially spent 83.89% of their time using their oral communicative abilities. These pupils were engaged in activities requiring listening and producing speech when observed from within the framework of these models of communicative ability for significant amounts of the time they were observed. The term potentially is used here, as it is impossible to state categorically that all pupils listened 100% of the time when others in the classroom spoke. Findings recorded in section 1 from Class B (Diagram 5) indicate that pupils in this class potentially spent 94.26% of their time engaged in activities requiring use of listening and speech production abilities.

Section 2 of the COPS scheme describes individual pupil activity in a more nuanced set of categories. Categories from this section defined as describing speech production abilities are *Talk Response, Talk Initiate, Talk Pair/ Grp, Talk Choral, and Reading Aloud*. Categories from this section addressing listening abilities are defined as *Listening Teacher, Listening Pupil, Listening Audio*.

Results presented in Diagram 2 and Diagram 5 indicate that instances of individual pupils producing speech were low in both classes (approximately 11% in Class A and just over 19% in Class B). When analysed from the narrow perspective, results from Section 2 of the COPS scheme show that the six individual pupils observed also produced relatively few instances of individual speech production. Pupil 4 recorded the most instances of individual speech, almost 4.5% of the time observed. This translates to 21 minutes. The pupil recording the lowest amount in this category was Pupil 1, who produced English speech 1.18% of the time,

equating to 13 minutes. Using these figures in combination with the 588 hours of oral English Norwegian pupils potentially receive from first to tenth grades (Udir f, 2015) raises some interesting concerns. If pupil 4 produced oral English at the same rate as he was observed during the conducted research, throughout first to tenth grades, he would produce oral English for approximately 26.5 hours during those ten years. Following the same rationale Pupil 1, would produce oral English for just under seven hours in the same period.

However, analysing results from Section 2 of the COPS scheme (Diagram 2 & Table 1) from the broader perspective indicates that Pupil 6 used her oral communicative abilities least of the six pupils observed, just 72.77% of the time. Pupil 4 engaged in the greatest use of his listening and speech production skills, registering 86.5%. Pupils 1, 2 and 3 spent an average of 81.07% of their time potentially engaged in activities requiring the use of both listening and speech production abilities. Table 2 indicates that Pupils 4, 5 and 6 spent an average of 81.55% of their time potentially engaged in activities requiring the use of both speech production and listening abilities. Using these figures presents a far more optimistic image, with Pupil 6 potentially engaged in use of her oral communicative abilities for 427 hours during first to tenth grades, and pupil 4 potentially using these abilities for nearly 509 hours in the same period. Following this same rationale, these six pupils on average engage in using their oral communicative abilities for 478 hours during first to tenth grades.

5.1.2. … and who is producing it?

In Class A, the teacher was responsible for the majority of oral English speech production. Group activities provided pupils in this class with the greatest opportunities for speech production. Categories describing instances of individual pupils speaking English in front of the rest of the class were among the smallest of the five categories representing student production of oral English.

In Class B, pupils were responsible for the majority of oral English speech production. The amount of oral English production recorded by the teacher was only marginally more than that produced by pupils when engaged in group activities. Instances where individual pupils spoke English in front of the rest of the class were significantly greater: more than double the amount of instances of Pupil Initiated speech were recorded, and over 50 percent more instances of Pupil Response speech were recorded in this class than in Class A.

5.1.3. Summary of the first research aim.

The findings from this study indicate that in both classes, the teacher was responsible for the majority of oral English speech production. Instances of individual pupils producing English utterances accounted for noticeably less time than those recorded for the teacher in both classes. In Class A, the teacher was observed producing four times as much oral English as the pupils in this class. The teacher in Class B was responsible for almost twice as many instances of oral English production as individual pupils in this class were.

The first hypothesis for this study – *1.Pupils in Norwegian lower-secondary classrooms produce little oral English in English-language teaching sessions* - is confirmed by these results, when they are interpreted from the narrow perspective, focusing solely on production of oral English. Pupils produced little oral English individually in the English language classrooms observed for this study. However, total instances for both classes observed where pupils produced oral English accounted for 47% of the time on average at whole-class level, and 25% of the time on average for the six pupils observed in Section 2 of the COPS scheme.

In addressing the first research aim – *i. How much oral English use occurs in the classrooms observed for this study, and who is producing it?* - research findings from this study, when interpreted from the broader perspective, indicate that significant amounts of oral English use occurred in the classrooms observed. Pupils in both classes were actively engaged in using their oral communicative abilities for the majority of the time they were observed. Group activities provided the most significant possibilities for pupils to simultaneously use both listening and speech producing abilities. Time where the teacher or other pupils spoke or read aloud, as well as listening to recordings, provided significant possibilities for pupils to engage in using their listening abilities.

Data collected through the use of the COPS system indicate that the pupils observed in this study received significant amounts of time to practice and develop their oral English communicative abilities. This occurred in a social context – the ESL classroom – resembling Vygotskij's Zone of Proximal Development (Kozulin et al. 2012). Input received in this social learning context creates the possibility for pupils to achieve the competencies and desired skills laid out in LK 06 (LK 06, 2011) and the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2014).

5.2. Findings related to the second research aim.

Research findings presented here relate to the second research aim – *ii. In which other arenas are pupils in this study exposed to, or engage in the production of, oral English?* – and attempt to address the second and third research hypotheses – 2. *Pupils are exposed to more oral English from extra-curricular sources of input than they are in the classroom. 3. Online digital gaming would provide the majority of this exposure for pupils in this study*.

5.2.1. In which other arenas are pupils exposed to, or engage in, the use of oral English?

This section starts by discussing results collected from the first three items in the questionnaire, which present what is described as pupils' background data (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 75). Further, results describing sources of passive and active incidental learning are discussed and summarized.

5.2.2. Background information.

The majority of pupils in both classes had parents with Norwegian as L1, and reported the expected number of years of English language-learning, based on the grade they were in at the time of observation (i.e. eight years of English language-learning for an eighth grader). The majority of pupils reporting an L1 other than Norwegian also reported a greater number of years of English-language learning than their classmates. One pupil in each class reported a parent with English as their L1, as well as one pupil in each class reporting a parent with Spanish as their L1. Tamil and Croatian were other parental L1 languages reported. This represents approximately 13% of the sample population, which is fairly consistent with the 16.3% of the Norwegian population who are immigrants, or born in Norway to immigrant parents (SSB, 2016). This homogeneity in the sample population increases the possibility of further research in this field replicating the results from the present study.

5.2.3. Sources of incidental language learning.

The results presented in Diagram 9 and diagram 10 presented a range of sources where pupils both heard and spoke oral English. These results indicate that pupils in both classes heard English in use more often than they spoke it themselves. A greater proportion of female pupils in Class B than in Class A reported hearing English in online games, digital games and in social media such as Facebook and Snapchat. A greater proportion of female pupils in Class B

than in Class A reported speaking English in both categories regarding gaming. The majority of boys in each class reported both speaking and hearing English in the categories concerning gaming and social media.

Categories describing passive exposure to English language use in Diagram 9 are defined as those for television, streaming services, cinema, music, social media and YouTube. More female pupils in both classes reported exposure to English in these categories than in the categories describing gaming or social media. In general, a larger proportion of male pupils than female pupils in both classes reported hearing English in all categories, with the exceptions to this being the categories for social media and streaming services.

Diagram 10 describes five categories where pupils may speak English outside of English-language classes. The results indicate that more pupils in Class B spoke English in these extra-curricular arenas than pupils in Class A did. In these same five categories, fewer pupils from both classes reported speaking English at home or with friends than they did in both forms of gaming. A greater number of boys than girls reported speaking in these extra-curricular categories in Class A, whereas the opposite was true for Class B.

The phrasing of the question used to gather information for the item represented in Diagram 10 – *Where do you use oral English?* - caused some confusion for pupils. The researcher instructed pupils to interpret the question as asking where they spoke English. Given that a greater number of female pupils in both classes indicated that they used oral English in digital gaming than the number that indicated they hear oral English in use in digital gaming, it would appear that this instruction may not necessarily have been understood by all pupils.

5.2.3.1. Sources of passive incidental language learning.

Differences between *active* and *passive* forms of incidental language learning were discussed during the presentation of theory relevant to the present study in chapter 2. The present study adopts Rugesæter's definition of passive sources, which describes exposure to oral English where no follow up use of the language occurs (Rugesæter, 2014: 2). Active sources of exposure are by definition the opposite.

Four of the items in the questionnaire explored which sources of passive incidental language-learning pupils in this study were exposed to. These items also sought to describe how many hours each day pupils in this study were exposed to these sources.

Female pupils in both classes heard oral English most commonly in English-language classes, on television, at the cinema, through Netflix and similar streaming websites, on YouTube, as well as English-language music. Social media was an arena where almost all of the female pupils in Class B heard English in use, while two-thirds of their female counterparts in Class A reported the same.

Male pupils in both classes generally reported hearing oral English in use in the same categories. YouTube was not as common a source of English-language exposure for male pupils as it was for female pupils in this study.

The one area where male pupils reported hearing more oral English than their female classmates was through digital online gaming. Nearly three times as many female pupils in Class B than in Class A indicated they heard oral English when playing digital online games. The number of male pupils in this study reporting this category as a source of oral English exposure was twice that of female pupils.

When answering the item describing passive incidental language learning through exposure to television, pupils were asked to indicate how many hours a day they spent watching English-language programmes. Female pupils in Class B reported the highest number, averaging over 4 hours per day. They were followed by their male classmates, who averaged 3 hours per day, male pupils from Class A who averaged almost 2.4 hours a day, and female pupils from Class A, who spent approximately two and a quarter hours a day watching English-language programmes.

The next item exploring sources of passive incidental language learning asked pupils to describe how much time they used each day watching YouTube, Vimeo or similar online film clip websites. Again, female pupils from Class B used the greatest amount of time watching this type of films, more than 2.5 hours per day. Male pupils in each class averaged over 1.5 hours per day, while female pupils in Class a used the least amount of time in this category, just over one hour a day.

The final item addressing sources of passive incidental language learning concerned the English-language music pupils listened to. Worthy of note here is that several pupils indicated they listened to English-language music while simultaneously engaged in other activities such as gaming or homework. Defying the trend in other questionnaire items, female pupils from Class A recorded the greatest number of hours in this category, with an average of 3 hours per day. They were followed by male pupils from Class B, their female classmates, and finally

male pupils from Class A with the lowest average number of hours in this category, just over one hour per day.

5.2.3.2. Sources of active incidental language learning.

There were two items in the questionnaire addressing which sources of active incidental learning the pupils in this study were exposed to.

The first of these items asked pupils to describe where they spoke oral English. English-language classes, online gaming and vacations were the categories where both male and female pupils in Class B reported speaking English most often. Interestingly, more female pupils reported speaking English in online digital gaming and with friends than male pupils in this class, with the reverse being true for digital gaming. In these same three categories, pupils in Class A also reported using oral English more often than the pupils from Class B. Male pupils in this class registered more use of oral English in both forms of digital gaming than their female classmates. Fewer pupils in Class A reported using oral English in digital gaming than in Class B. Of particular concern is the fact that one male pupil in each class reported not using oral English in English-language classes.

Boys in Class A reported speaking English on vacation or in online and digital gaming more often than they did at home or with friends. Female pupils in Class A reported the same, with one exception; more girls indicated they spoke English at home, than they did in digital gaming.

The other questionnaire item concerning active incidental language learning explored pupils' use of digital online games. Henry describes this style of gaming as requiring pupils to actively use the English language, and says these games offer "intense experiences" (Henry, 2013: 7). Other studies (Sundqvist, 2009: Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012) regard active sources of incidental language learning as having desirable effects on pupils' English communicative abilities. Henry (2013) and Sylvén & Sundqvist (2012) described online digital gaming as a popular activity among a significant portion of the sample populations in the studies. This form of incidental language learning was anticipated to be a significant source of exposure for the pupils observed as part of the present study. Surprisingly, pupils in this study indicated somewhat low hourly averages of online digital gaming per day. Males in Class B reported the highest average, two hours per day, followed by their counterparts in Class A, female pupils from Class B, with female pupils in Class A reporting an average of one hour per day.

Male pupils reported an average 1.8 hours per day of online digital gameplay, while female pupils indicated they used 1.16 hours per day on average engaged in the same activities. Male pupils generally were exposed to more oral English than female pupils in this category, with three males in total reporting 4 or more hours of digital gaming per day.

The most popular games played by pupils in this study were Call of Duty, Grand Theft Auto, Assassin's Creed and Minecraft. In line with findings presented by Henry (Henry, 2013: 7) in his study of the gaming habits of Swedish teens, the most popular games reported by pupils in this study were games include the possibility for in-game communication between players. Pupils in this study reported between 7 and 14 hours of online digital game-play each week. With English being described as the default language for many online digital games (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012: 303), there exists significantly greater potential for pupils to actively use their oral English communicative abilities within these games than there exists for them to use these same abilities in English lessons at school.

5.2.4. Discussion of sources of incidental language learning.

In order to collect data relevant to the hypotheses and research aims, questionnaire items were developed after discussions with other pupils from the same grades at the school where research was conducted. Findings from the questionnaire conducted for this study show that more pupils in this sample reported hearing and using oral English in the classroom than in any other arena. Passive sources of extra-curricular incidental language learning provided the greatest amounts of extra-curricular exposure to oral English. The incidental language learning source pupils in this sample used the most time engaged in per day, on average, was watching television (2hrs 44 mins per day). The next largest category was listening to music (2 hrs 18 mins per day) followed by watching YouTube etc. (1 hr 45 mins per day) and online digital gaming (1 hr 29 mins per day).

To compare these figures with the amount of time pupils spend listening to or speaking English in the classroom requires calculations based on the figures presented in Diagrams 2, 3, 5 and 6, using a basis of two one-hour lessons per week.

Using these calculations for data shown in Diagram 2, instances where individual pupils in class A were observed speaking English accounted for 13.24 minutes *per week*. Similar calculations based on data presented in Diagram 5 indicate pupils in Class B were engaged in the same activity for just under 23 minutes per week. Calculations based on data from

Diagram 2, show that the pupils in Class A spent slightly more than 1 hr 40 mins per week engaged in activities requiring them to use a broader range of their oral communicative abilities (speech production and listening skills). Using data shown in Diagram 5, the same calculations show that Class B spent approximately 1 hr 53 mins per week using this combination of their oral communicative abilities.

The same calculations were used for information regarding the six pupils who were the subject of closer observation, as presented in Diagrams 3 and 5. Pupil 1 was observed engaged in the fewest instances of individual production of speech. On average, he spent just 1.4 minutes *per week* speaking English. Pupil 4 recorded the largest number of instances of individual speech production, translating to an average of 5.4 minutes per week. Pupil 4 recorded the least amount of time engaged in activities requiring use of a greater range of oral communicative abilities (speech production and listening), translating to 1 hr 43 mins per week. Pupil 6 recorded the lowest figures in this combination of categories, equating to 1 hr 27 mins per week.

The extra-curricular sources of incidental language learning where pupils in this study were exposed to the most oral English were passive forms. The source where pupils were exposed to the least oral English was online gaming. Pupils devoted on average approximately one and a half hours per day to this activity. If the stated averages apply for each day of the week, that equates to ten and a half hours per week. This is significantly more than the approximately one and three quarter hours and two hours per week that Pupils in Class A and Class B respectively spent engaged in activities requiring both speech production and listening skills in classroom teaching.

Building further on the calculations and the average numbers of reported hours per day engaged in each activity presented above, pupils in this study would appear to engage in up to 19 hours per week watching English-language television, 16 hours per week listening to English-language music and 12 hours per week watching English-language films on YouTube. These results would appear to support Henry's description of a Swedish study where 50 percent of secondary pupils questioned reporting learning as much if not more English outside the classroom (Henry, 2013: 4). Such significant amounts of exposure also lend credence to Speitz's portrayal of English being a second, rather than foreign, language in Norway (Speitz, 2012: 12).

Given the significant amounts of exposure to extra-curricular incidental language learning sources reported here, it is easy to believe Olsson's observation regarding pupils who do little work in class, yet achieve impressive results when listening and reading comprehension are tested (Olsson, 2012: 1). Were such large amounts of exposure to oral English incidental language learning sources shown to apply for the general population of lower-secondary pupils in Norway, this may be a factor contributing to the relatively high average grades for oral English exams. Grades in oral English exams at national level during the period autumn semester 2010 - spring semester 2015 were on average higher than grades for oral Norwegian exams. The average for both oral exams in the same period in Hordaland County, where observation for this study was conducted, were above the national average – 4.46 locally vs. 4.2 at national level for English, and 4.46 locally vs. 4.4 at national level for Norwegian (Skoleporten, 2016). Such

5.2.5. Summary of sources of incidental language learning.

Research findings from the second research aim for this study – *ii. In which other arenas are pupils in this study exposed to, or engage in the production of, oral English?* - confirm the second research hypothesis – *2. Pupils are exposed to more oral English from extra-curricular sources of input than they are in the classroom.* Results indicate that pupils in this study were exposed to large amounts of both passive and active incidental language learning. The most optimistic interpretation of results indicate that these passive sources may account for more than 45 hours per week in total, while the active sources may account for as much as ten and a half hours of exposure per week. These figures are calculated on averages, as discussed above. Even allowing for error, exposure to these sources of incidental language learning account for significantly more hours per week than classroom-based teaching of English ever could. The third hypothesis – *3. Online digital gaming would provide the majority of this exposure for pupils in this study*. – was shown to not apply for the sample population in this study.

5.3. Further discussion of research findings.

There is a noticeable difference in the recorded time teachers in both classes spent talking, and conversely the amount of time pupils were observed using their oral communicative abilities during the observation phase of research. The teacher in Class B spent nine percent less of the observed time speaking than the teacher from Class A. Pupils in Class B spent

nearly twenty percent more of their time engaged in activities requiring the use of both listening and speech production skills than their counterparts in Class A. On average, pupils 1, 2 and 3 from Class A spent 21.39% of the time during observation speaking English, with pupils 4,5 and 6 from Class B speaking English for an average 28.11% of the time. Pupils 4, 5 and 6 spent 53% of their time on average listening to others, six percent less than the average time spent by pupils 1, 2 and 3. Far from an indication that they payed less attention, the pupils from Class B were more frequently engaged in other activities such as writing, reading and group work requiring the use of a wider range of oral communicative abilities.

The differences in time devoted to the observed range of activities can be attributed to a number of things. Among others, these include the teachers' individual styles of teaching and the extra two years of English-language teaching the pupils in Class B have received compared to the pupils in Class A. The pupils in Class A were in eighth grade at the time of observation, while pupils in Class B were in their final semester in tenth grade. The most significant academic event in tenth grade in Norwegian schools is the end of year exams. Grades received in these exams play a significant role in which senior high school pupils may be accepted to study at. The desire for praise and recognition from parents and teachers - for achieving good grades, acceptance to a school perceived as desirable – are examples of extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000: Csizér & Dörnyei 2005), which may have affected the amount of time and effort pupils invested in oral English activities while being observed.

Alternatively, pupil motivation for these activities may have been affected by their knowledge regarding the structure of the upcoming exams. At the time of observation, the tenth-grade pupils in Class B had already engaged in two mock oral exams. As a result, these pupils were familiar with the structure and requirements involved in the exam situation, as well as the desired competencies necessary to achieve a given grade in these exams. Chvala implies that the structure of oral English exams may affect the nature of teaching (Chvala, 2012: 242), and the greater amount of engagement in group activities recorded in Class B may be an example of this in action.

Obviously, the teacher plans each session of teaching, so they have a decisive role in which activities actually occur in each lesson. One factor which may have affected the participation of pupils in Class B in the observed activities is that the pupils may have felt the different activities were relevant and interesting enough that they valued these as authentic, therefore worth participating in (Henry, 2013: pp 17-18). Activities which the teacher in Class B used

in teaching appeared to be structured towards the pupils generating spontaneous speech around topics they were familiar with and had some knowledge of. This would further affect the pupils perception of the activities as relevant and authentic.

5.4. Summary of research findings.

Using the broad perspective of oral English use discussed in this chapter, research findings from this study confirm the first and second hypotheses, while the third hypothesis was shown to be incorrect. Pupils observed in this study engaged in significant amounts of use of English oral communicative abilities (both speech production and listening). They reported large amounts of exposure to sources of incidental language learning. Contrary to the view posited by the third research hypothesis, passive sources of incidental learning accounted for the greatest exposure to oral English in extra-curricular arenas.

The findings of this study are taken from a small sample at one Norwegian lower-secondary school, and are therefore by no means representative of the larger population that the sample is a part of. However, the sheer volume of extra-curricular oral English pupils in this study reported being exposed to suggests the potential development of two unique cultures of English as described by Henry, one in school, the other outside school (Henry, 2013: 2). According to Henry, such a dichotomy has the potential to seriously affect the manner in which pupils perceive the relevance of the English they experience in school, in the face of sources of active incidental language learning such as online gaming, which offer intense, immediate and highly authentic experiences (Henry, 2013: 7). The introduction to this study presented the concept pupils encountering oral English in contextually relevant situations, in order to achieve the aims and competencies described in LK 06 described (Udir c, 2013;). Such large-scale exposure to incidental learning as reported in the present study could indicate that these situations are more likely to occur outside the ESL classroom. As a result of such engaging exposure to oral English, pupils' perceptions of the authenticity of the classroom-based culture of English may decline, adversely affecting their motivation to engage in this culture (Henry, 2013: 2).

If such a dichotomy exists in Norway, this presents significant pedagogical ramifications for ESL classroom based teaching in lower-secondary schools in the country. Classroom based ESL teaching of oral communicative abilities accounts for significantly fewer hours per week

than the amount of hours of extra-curricular exposure to incidental learning pupils in this study reported. If this teaching is to assist pupils in attaining the competencies laid out in LK 06 (LK 06, 2011), it must occur in a fashion that engages pupils. Henry's concept of authenticity (Henry, 2013: 12) is particularly relevant for pupils acquisition of oral communicative abilities through ESL classroom teaching, if these significantly larger amounts of extra-curricular exposure to oral English apply to the larger population in Norwegian lower-secondary schools.

The present study posits the idea that the staid, formulaic teaching portrayed and criticized by Chvala (Chvala, 2012), might not contribute to bridging the apparent gap between ESL classroom-based teaching of oral communicative abilities and extra-curricular sources of incidental language learning. This study by no means advocates the wholesale incorporation of sources of incidental learning into ESL teaching as a reaction. Rather, by recognising, understanding and acknowledging the influence incidental learning can have on pupils' English oral communicative abilities, this study promotes the view that classroom based ESL teaching can develop techniques and methods which pupils perceive as relevant and authentic to their own needs as language users.

6. CONCLUSION.

This chapter summarizes the research findings and discussion of data collected from the present study. Suggestions for further research will also be presented.

6.1. Summary of research.

The aim of this thesis is to describe exposure to and production of oral English in and outside two Norwegian lower-secondary classrooms. Inspired by remarkable average grades achieved in tenth-grade oral exams, in spite of research depicting low levels of pupil participation in ESL teaching, as well as research into incidental language learning, this study set out to identify sources of exposure to oral English which might account for the development of Norwegian pupils as adept users of oral English.

Research conducted for this study based itself on three hypotheses:

1. *Pupils in Norwegian lower-secondary classrooms produce little oral English in English-language teaching sessions*
2. *Pupils are exposed to more oral English from extra-curricular sources of input than they are in the classroom.*
3. *Online digital gaming would provide the majority of this exposure for pupils in this study*.

Classroom observation using the Classroom Oral Participation Scheme (COPS) and a questionnaire for pupils in the sample population were used to develop the two research aims formulated to explore the hypotheses for this study:

i. *How much oral English use occurs in the classrooms observed for this study, and who is producing it?*
ii. *In which other arenas are pupils in this study exposed to, or engage in the production of, oral English?*

By assessing the first aim from a narrow perspective where oral English use focuses explicitly on speech production, research findings appear to confirm the first research hypothesis. Instances of individual pupils producing speech accounted for an average of 14.6% for both classes. However, by using a broader perspective, where oral English use encompasses a wide range of communicative abilities (listening and speech production), research indicates that this hypothesis was incorrect, as pupils engaged in significant use of oral English in the ESL classrooms observed, averaging 89.08% of the observed time for both classes.

The second hypothesis was confirmed by the research findings. Pupils in the sample population reported dramatically greater amounts of exposure to sources of incidental language learning than the exposure they received through ESL teaching. Pupils in this sample reported average levels of exposure ranging from 10.5 hours per week playing online digital games to 19 hours per week watching English-language television. These figures are in stark contrast to the average 2 hours per week of classroom-based ESL teaching these pupils receive.

The third research hypothesis was proven incorrect, as online digital gaming was the source pupils reported least exposure to. Pupils in this study reported greater amounts of exposure to oral English sources of passive incidental language learning such as listening to music or watching television and YouTube than to online digital gaming. Despite being reported as the smallest source of exposure to oral English, pupils reported five times as much exposure to online digital gaming as they receive in ESL classroom teaching. Male pupils reported more online digital gameplay on average than female pupils, 1.8 and 1.16 hours per day respectively.

This study presented theories describing factors affecting motivation to engage in classroom-based ESL teaching, the structure and focus of ESL classroom teaching and the authentic nature of incidental language learning sources such as online digital gaming. Pupils from the sample reported greatest levels of exposure to passive sources of incidental language learning. However, active sources of incidental language learning accounted for more than five times as much exposure as the amount of ESL classroom teaching pupils received. Given the sheer volume of exposure to these sources, this study posits the idea that sources of incidental language learning give pupils greater possibilities to hear and produce oral English than they receive in classroom based ESL teaching.

Research conducted for the present study replicates earlier research in describing low rates of individual pupils producing oral English in class. In spite of this, the high levels of use of oral communicative abilities recorded in both classes studied may give some insight into the remarkable average grades achieved in tenth grade oral English exams in Norway in recent times. The average grade for oral English exams in tenth grade have been the same or higher than for oral Norwegian exams at the same level in recent times. However, ESL teaching accounts for less than one tenth of the time devoted to subjects taught in Norwegian at the school where research was conducted. Should the levels of exposure indicated in this study be

shown to apply to the larger population this sample was taken from, this could imply that pupils have a greater chance of attaining the aims and competencies laid out in LK 06, as well as attain high grades in oral exams, through exposure to oral English sources of incidental learning, than they do through classroom-based ESL teaching.

The research for this study was conducted with a sample population of 45 pupils. In order to determine whether the results described in the present study are applicable to Norwegian lower-secondary pupils in general, further longitudinal research focusing on larger sample populations is necessary. Such large-scale research would assist in giving a more nuanced description of the connections between incidental language learning and Norwegian lower-secondary pupils' oral English communicative abilities. Research addressing some of the limitations in data collection described in this study could also contribute to a more detailed presentation of the use of oral English in lower secondary classrooms in Norway. Addressing different socio-economic groups could add another level of insight, since the present study did not allow for how this might affect access to online digital gaming for the pupils in the sample.

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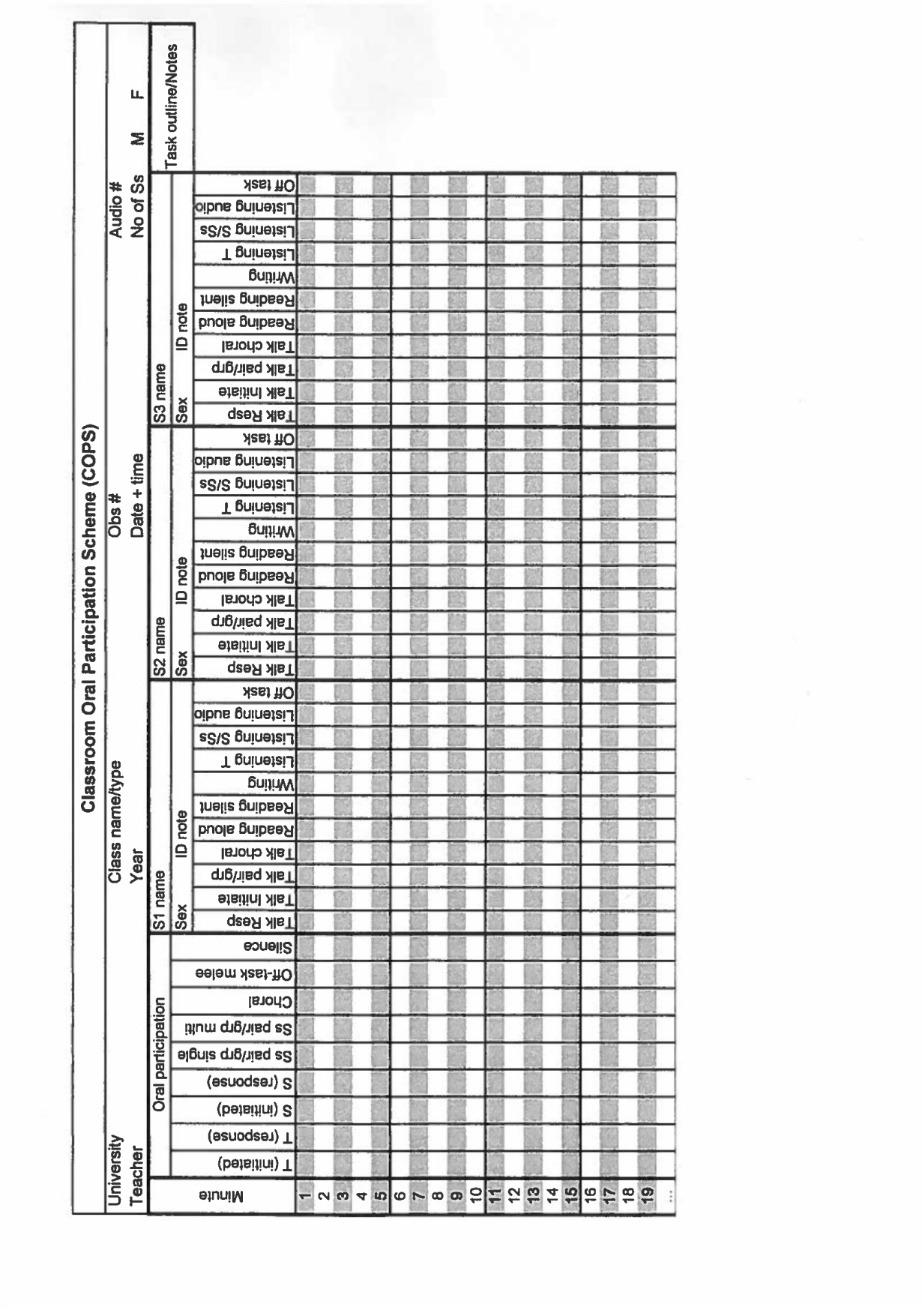
APPENDICES

Appendix 1. COPS notation system.



Appendix 2.1. Questionnaire, English translation

Questionnaire as a part of my Masters

1. Gender____

2. Do your parents have English as their mother tongue?: (Place an X on one alternative).
   One ____ Two ____ None ____

   Other language? (If yes, please write which language)_____

3. How many years is it since you started to learn English?

   1-2 yr____ 3-5 yr ____ 6-8 yr ____ 9-10 yr ____ 10+ yr____

4. Where do you use oral English? (Place an X on the alternatives that apply):
   In English lessons ____ At home ____ With friends ____
   On vacation ____ Online ____ In computer games ____

   Other (Give a short description) _____

5. Where do you hear oral English in use?
   In English lessons ____ TV programmes ____ Streaming services (Nettflix etc.) ____
   Cinema ____ Music ____ You tube ____
   Computer games ____ Sosial media ____ Online computer games ____
   Other (Give a short description) _____

6. How many hours a day do you spend watching English-language television? (This includes streaming services such as Nettflix etc.)
   One hour or less ____ Two hours ____ Three hours ____
   Four hours ____ Five or more hours ____

   Can you name the programmes you watch? _____

   _____

7. Do you watch English-language films on Youtube, Vimeo or similar? How much time do you spend watching these each day?
   One hour or less ____ Two hours ____ Three hours ____
   Four hours ____ Five or more hours ____

   Describe what type of films you watch. _____

   _____

8. How many hours a day do you listen to English-language music?
   One hour or less ____ Two hours ____ Three hours ____
   Four hours ____ Five or more hours ____

   Can you remember the names of some of the artists you listen to? _____

   _____

9. Do you play English-language computer games online?
   One hour or less ____ Two hours ____ Three hours ____
   Four hours ____ Five or more hours ____
   Can you name some of these games? _____

   _____

   Are there other places you hear or speak English that have not been mentioned so far? Give a short description.
   _____

   _____

   Thank you for taking part in this questionnaire! ☺

Appendix 2.2. Questionnaire, Norwegian version.

Undersøkelse i forbindelse med masteroppgaven

1. Kjønn____

2. Har dine foreldre engelsk som morsmål?: (Sett kryss på et alternativ).
   en av de ____ begge to ____ Ingen ____

   Annet språk? (Hvis ja, skriv gjerne hvilket språk)_____

3. Hvor mange år er det siden du begynte å lære engelsk?

   1-2 år____ 3-5 år ____ 6-8 år ____ 9-10 år ____ 10+ år____

4. Hvor bruker du muntlig engelsk? (Sett kryss på de alternativene som passer):
   I engelsk timer ____ Hjemme ____ Med venner ____
   På ferie ____ På nettet ____ I dataspill ____

   Annet (Gi en kort beskrivelse) _____

5. Hvor hører du muntlig engelsk i bruk?
   I engelsk timer ____ Tv programmer ____ Streamingtjenester (Nettflix o.l.) ____
   Kino ____ Musikk ____ You tube ____
   Dataspill ____ Online dataspill ____ Sosiale medier ____
   Andre steder (Gi en kort beskrivelse) _____

6. Hvor mange timer bruker du hver dag til å se du på engelskspråklig tv programmer? (Dette inkluderer streaming tjenester som Nettflix o.l.)
   En time eller mindre____ To timer ____ Tre timer ____
   Fire timer ____ Fem eller flere timer ____

   Hva heter noen av programmene du ser på? _____

   _____

7. Ser du på engelskspråklig filmer på Youtube, Vimeo eller lignende? Hvor mye tid bruker du hver dag på disse?
   En time eller mindre____ To timer ____ Tre timer ____
   Fire timer ____ Fem eller flere timer ____

   Kan du beskriver hvilke typer filmer du ser på? _____

   _____

8. Hvor mange timer bruker du hver dag til å høre på engelskspråklig musikk?
   En time eller mindre____ To timer ____ Tre timer ____
   Fire timer ____ Fem eller flere timer ____

   Husker du navnene til noen av artistene du hører på? _____

   _____

9. Spiller du engelskspråklige dataspill online?
   En time eller mindre____ To timer ____ Tre timer ____
   Fire timer ____ Fem eller flere timer ____

   Kan du nevne noen av disse dataspill? _____

   _____

10. Er det andre steder hvor du hører eller snakker engelsk som ikke har blitt nevnt her? Gi en kort beskrivelse

    _____

    _____

    Tusen takk for at du har deltatt i denne undersøkelsen! ☺

Appendix 3. Results from Section 2 of the COPS scheme, Selected Pupils, Class B.
Results shown in minutes.

						Pupil 4	Male				
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Student	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	10	4	90	0	19	8	61	118	114	19	32
<Minute	7	0	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
L1	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
						Pupil 5	Female				
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Student	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	6	2	95	1	20	9	56	115	112	19	37
<Minute	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
L1	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
						Pupil 6	Female				
	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Student	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	6	7	79	1	9	8	45	103	95	15	51
<Minute	4	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
L1	4	1	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10

Appendix 4, Results from Section 2 of the COPS scheme. Selected Pupils, Class A.

Results shown in minutes.

Pupil 1

	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Student	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	3	0	64	0	6	7	47	156	74	7	27
<Minute	9	1	2	4	0	0	10	2	0	0	0
L1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Pupil 2

	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Student	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	1	1	59	0	5	3	52	155	71	7	11
<Minute	7	1	5	4	0	0	8	1	0	0	0
L1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3

Pupil 3

	Talk Response	Talk initiate	Talk Pair/grp	Talk choral	Reading aloud	Reading silent	Writing	Listening Teacher	Listening Student	Listening audio	Off task
Minute	4	4	72	0	7	5	29	154	69	7	24
<Minute	8	1	4	4	1	0	12		0	0	0
L1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1