

*Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations  
from the Faculty of Educational Sciences 40*

# Teaching and learning to speak a foreign language

*An investigation about spoken Spanish in the Swedish foreign language classroom*

FREDRIKA NYSTRÖM



ACTA UNIVERSITATIS  
UPSALIENSIS  
2026



UPPSALA  
UNIVERSITET

Dissertation presented at Uppsala University to be publicly examined in Blåsenhus, hörsal Eva Netzelius, von Kraemers allé 1A, Uppsala, Friday, 17 April 2026 at 13:15 for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The examination will be conducted in Swedish. Faculty examiner: Professor Gudrun Erickson (Göteborgs universitet).

### **Abstract**

Nyström, F. 2026. Teaching and learning to speak a foreign language. An investigation about spoken Spanish in the Swedish foreign language classroom. *Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Educational Sciences* 40. 114 pp. Uppsala: Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis. ISBN 978-91-513-2760-0.

This thesis investigates speaking in Spanish as a modern language in Swedish lower secondary schools. While communicative competence is emphasised in current curricula, concerns have been raised about students' achievement in modern languages, particularly in speaking. At the same time, there is limited knowledge about how oral skills are enacted in classroom practice. Against this background, the study explores how speaking Spanish is taught and learned from multiple perspectives.

The thesis addresses three overarching research questions: (1) What is foregrounded when teachers and students talk about speaking Spanish as a modern language in Swedish lower secondary school? (2) In which classroom contexts do students speak the target language? (3) How is students' spoken language enacted in the classroom? These questions are examined in three empirical sub-studies based on data from 21 observed lessons in five Year 9 classes (ages 14–16) across five Swedish lower secondary schools, complemented by teacher and student interviews.

The overall findings are discussed through curriculum theory, drawing on John I. Goodlad's model of curriculum domains (ideological, formal, perceived, operational and experienced curricula).

Paper I, based on qualitative content analysis of interviews, identifies four didactic dilemmas in teaching speaking: authenticity versus adaptation; individual versus group adjustment; whole-class versus small-group organisation; and use of Swedish versus Spanish. Students generally perceived small-group speaking activities as engaging, whereas whole-class speaking, especially when assessed, was described as anxiety-inducing.

Paper II, using a structured observation scheme, shows that students spoke Spanish primarily when explicitly prompted. Oral activities were typically scaffolded and often supported by written materials. Although form-focused and written activities occupied substantial lesson time, oral tasks occurred and enabled student spoken production.

Paper III, grounded in sociocultural theory, analyses 20 small-group interactions. Two main functional categories were identified: continuous functions and supporting functions (procedural and language-related). Both Spanish and Swedish were used strategically, with the majority language serving as a mediating tool for collaboration and problem-solving.

In sum, students speak Spanish when internal factors (emotional safety, linguistic resources) and external factors (task design, scaffolding, speaking time) enable it. The study nuances communicative language teaching in compulsory schooling, highlights the value of structured, meaning-oriented small-group tasks, and underscores the importance of teacher and student reflection in developing oral practice.

*Keywords:* Language didactics, Speaking, Spanish as a foreign language; Lower secondary education; Communicative language teaching; didactic dilemmas, Classroom interaction; peer work; Curriculum theory, Sociocultural theory

*Fredrika Nyström, Department of Education, Box 2136, Uppsala University, SE-75002 Uppsala, Sweden.*

© Fredrika Nyström 2026

ISBN 978-91-513-2760-0

URN urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-578775 (<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-578775>)

## Tack

Om jag vill föra en människa mot ett visst mål måste jag först finna henne där hon är och börja just där.

Denna strof av filosofen Søren Kierkegaard (ur: *Synpunkter på min författarverksamhet*, postumt utgiven 1859), brukar ofta citeras när det handlar om undervisningskonst, eller kanske hellre, undervisningshantverk. Jag tar nu hjälp av Kierkegaard när jag med stor tacksamhet ser tillbaka på dessa utbildningsår, eftersom ni är många som först funnit mig där jag var och sedan fört mig till detta mål.

Först vill jag tacka dig, Jenny Wiksten Folkeryd som varit huvudhandledare och med ett tryggt, omtänksamt, klokt, varmt och stadigt grepp trott på mig varje dag under hela utbildningen. Utan dig, ingen avhandling. Fernando Bermúdez och Johan Gille som har varit mina kunniga och vänliga biträdande handledare, tack för alla kloka kommentarer och alla timmar av samtal kring stringens, kunskapsbidrag och argumentationsteknik. Kära Jenny, Fernando och Johan, tack vare er blev det till slut en avhandling. Jag tror mig nu kunna resonera vetenskapligt om både språk och didaktik och jag hoppas att våra forskningsvägar fortsätter att korsas.

Kierkegaard ska också ha uttryckt: *Att våga är att förlora fotfästet en stund. Att inte våga är att förlora sig själv*, som ett sätt att förhålla sig till rädsla och mod. Trots att de är stora ord, har de hjälpt mig hit. Men mod är aldrig en ensam människas prestation och ni är fantastiskt många som har hjälpt mig att våga denna doktorandresa. Jag vill tacka er alla och hoppas att du känner igen dig i beskrivningarna, trots att du inte hittar ditt namn explicit.

Jag vill direkt rikta mitt uppriktiga tack till de modiga lärare och elever som ingår i studien. Tack vare spansklärarna Ana, Beatriz, Claudia, Diana, Eduardo och piloten Frida så finns nu mer kunskap om en viktig språklig förmåga, nämligen den muntliga. Tack för att ni ställde upp, släppte in mig, samlade in papper och svarade på frågor. Ni lät er både filmas och spelas in med en diktafon hängande runt halsen. Ni var hela tiden professionella, nyfikna och engagerade och jag gratulerar de elever som får ha er som dörröppnare till den spansktalande världen.

Tack, Åsa af Geijerstam som läste och återkopplade min allra första text under 10%-seminariet. Din grundliga läsning och dina uppmuntrande formativa kommentarer gjorde att projektet fick en tydligare riktning. Ett stort och varmt tack går också till Camilla Bardel och Jonas Granfeldt för ert omfattande arbete med mitt manus under 50%- och 90%-seminarierna. Era kunniga förslag och relevanta funderingar har varit ovärderliga och fått mig att både förstå vårt fält, språkdidaktik, och att identifiera mig som språkdidaktiker.

Eva Lundqvist och Anne Reath Warren, mitt allra varmaste tack för er utförliga och inspirerande återkoppling på den nästan färdiga kappatexten. Ert noggranna arbete hjälpte mig att välja och välja bort delar som säkert gjorde avhandlingen tydligare.

Och till alla er doktorandkollegor och andra kollegor på Institutionen för pedagogik, didaktik och utbildningssociologi och Institutionen för moderna språk vill jag nu rikta mitt allra hjärtligaste tack. Tack, forskningsmiljöerna Nätverket Språk & Lärande, Romanska seminariet, STOLP och FBA vid Uppsala universitet, där jag har fått lära och växa. Tack också forskningsmiljöerna RomSLA vid Stockholms universitet och SOL vid Karlstad universitet, dit jag inbjudits att delta.

Jag vill också tacka de stiftelser och fonder som möjliggjort skrivande och deltagande i forskningskonferenser: Stiftelsen Bergmångårdarna på Fårö, Anna Maria Lundins stipendiefond, Sista minuten-fonden på Institutionen för moderna språk samt Wahlunds stipendiefond.

I den akademiska världen utanför Uppsala så har jag fått stor och generös hjälp av kollegor vid Göteborgs universitet, Linköpings universitet, Lunds universitet, Stockholms universitet, Umeå universitet, och Universitetet i Bergen. Mitt allra varmaste och hjärtligaste tack till er.

I världen utanför den akademiska världen finns skolan. Den världen har varit hemma både före, under och efter forskarutbildningen och jag vill tacka tidigare elever och vårdnadshavare som korsat min väg. Ni har fått mig att inse hur betydelsefulla lärare faktiskt är och jag tar ödmjukt emot allt ni gett mig.

Av hela mitt hjärta vill jag tacka tidigare kollegor på Nya Elementar samt nuvarande elever och kollegor på Äppelviksskolan i Stockholm. Ni har tagit emot mig med öppna armar och varje dag får jag nu förhandla didaktikens *vad*, *varför*, *vem* och *hur* med er. Vilket enormt privilegium!

Tack, Stockholm Teaching & Learning Studies (STLS) för möjligheten att få tänka forskningstankar i klassrummet och genomföra ramprojekt hos er. Ett stort och varmt tack går också till Spanskläraryöreningen i Stockholm för ert banbrytande arbete och idoga kamp för spanskan och spanskan som modernt språk i skolan.

Och alla ni sparringpartners, krockkuddar, gurus, ljusfyror och stödstrumpor, ni heter olika saker i min telefonbok. Många ryms i gruppen Tre trappor upp utan hiss, men ni kan också finnas i bokklubbarna, Norrmalm, Vad-vem-hur-gruppen, Vega, eller inte i någon grupp alls. Ni är kvinnliga akademiker med på (bowling-)banan som visat vägen i akademien, och ni är vänner av olika kön som visat vägen i livet. Ni är vänner, familj och släktingar som burit mig, hejat på mig och hållit ihop mig när det varit gungigt. Ni är de som gått före och på vars axlar jag nu står och vilt gestikulerande försöker formulera hur tacksam jag känner mig.

Under dessa år har ni erbjudit sängplats, middagar, promenadsällskap, lyxfika, sms-hjärtan, lästips, morgondopp, kramar, AW-kvällar och ett enormt tålamod när ni lyssnat på mina evighetslånga funderingar om både

forskning och icke-forskning. Utan er vore jag mycket räddare och utan dig, min modiga polyglott, vore jag mindre hoppfull inför framtiden.

Bland er alla finns det tre personer som ändå måste få sina alldeles rätta namn. Min älskade syster Johanna och mina äskade barn, Hannes och Elsa. Ni har hållit ihop mig och hjälpt mig att vara modig när jag inte trodde att det gick. Den tacksamhet jag känner mot er kan omöjligen beskrivas i ord, inte på något språk. Hannes och Elsa, tack för de personer ni var och för de ni har blivit. Jag kommer alltid att stå och skrika mig hes när jag hejar på er, det lovar jag.

Till sist får nu ytterligare ett citat av Kierkegaard (*Dagboksanteckning*, 1843), sätta punkt för denna omvälvande utbildningsresa. Nu börjar något annat.

Livet kan bara förstås baklänges, men måste levas framlänges.

Berlin, februari 2026

*Fredrika Nyström*



# List of Papers

This thesis is based on the following papers, which are referred to in the text by their Roman numerals.

- I. Nyström, F. (2025) Didactic dilemmas and possibilities. Teachers' and students' perceptions of speaking Spanish in foreign language education in Swedish lower secondary school. *Educare*, (4), 163-198.
- II. Nyström, F. (2025) Opportunities for speaking. The if, how, and when of students' spoken target language in the second foreign language classroom. *Moderna språk*, 119 (2), 194-215
- III. Nyström, F. (2026) Learning possibilities in Spanish as a foreign language. The value of peer interaction tasks. *Journal of linguistics and language teaching*, vol 17

Reprints were made with permission from the respective publishers.



# Contents

1. Introduction .....	13
1.1. Aim and research questions .....	16
1.2. Outline of the thesis.....	16
2. Background.....	19
2.1. The construction of “speaking” in steering documents.....	19
2.1.1. The syllabus historically.....	24
2.2. The context of the school subject Spanish as a modern language in Swedish compulsory school.....	25
2.2.1. Evaluations of ML.....	28
2.2.2. The situation for Spanish as a ML in particular.....	29
3. Previous research .....	31
3.1. Students’ perceptions of teaching and learning to speak in primary and secondary schools.....	31
3.1.2. Emotional aspects of speaking a FL .....	32
3.1.3 Motivation and engagement .....	33
3.2. Teachers’ beliefs about speaking and spoken communication.....	34
3.2.1. Assessing spoken interaction.....	35
3.3. Speaking in the classroom.....	36
3.3.1. Target or majority language .....	36
3.3.2. Collaboration between learners .....	38
3.3.3. Explicit teaching .....	39
4. Theoretical and conceptual frameworks .....	42
4.1. Didaktik and didactics.....	42
4.1.1. Understanding didactics through curriculum domains .....	45
4.1.2. Speaking and learning to speak in the foreign language classroom: the didactic <i>what</i> question .....	45
4.1.3. Aspects of Communicative language teaching (CLT): the didactic <i>how</i> question .....	48
4.2. Learner engagement and agency: the didactic <i>who</i> question .....	50
4.3. Language teacher cognition: the didactic <i>who</i> question.....	51
4.4. Sociocultural theory and language didactics.....	52
4.4.1. The languages in the FL classroom .....	52
4.4.1. Learner collaboration and scaffolding .....	54

5. Methodology .....	56
5.1. Research design.....	56
5.2. Data collection.....	57
5.2.1. Teacher and student interviews.....	57
5.2.2. Classroom observations and recordings .....	59
5.3. Ethical considerations .....	59
5.4. Limitations .....	60
5.5. Data analysis .....	61
5.5.1. Teacher and student interviews.....	61
5.5.2. Classroom observations .....	63
5.5.3. Interaction in peer activities.....	65
5.6. Reflections on methodological choices.....	67
6. Results.....	69
6.1. Summary of the papers.....	69
Paper I.....	69
Paper II .....	71
Paper III .....	73
7. Discussion .....	76
7.1. Teachers' perceptions in relation to students' perceptions.....	76
7.2. Teachers' perceptions in relation to classroom processes.....	77
7.3. Students' perceptions in relation to classroom processes.....	78
7.4. Perceptions and classroom processes in relation to underlying values and steering documents .....	79
8. Conclusions and further research .....	84
9. Svensk sammanfattning .....	87
9.1. Inledning.....	87
9.2. Metod .....	88
9.3. Resultat.....	89
9.4. Diskussion .....	91
References.....	95
Appendices.....	107
Appendix I.....	107
Appendix II .....	109
Appendix III .....	111
Appendix IV.....	113
Appendix V .....	114

# Abbreviations

CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
FL	Foreign Language: A language other than the dominant language in the surrounding social context
ML	Modern Languages which in the present thesis refers to French, German and Spanish and can be chosen in the school subject the <i>Language choice</i> or the <i>School's choice</i>
NAE	Swedish National Agency for Education
L1	The speaker's first learned language, generally referred to as the mother tongue
L2	The speaker's additional language/s, achieved after the mother tongue
SCT	Socio-cultural theory



# 1. Introduction

‘Yes, I have studied German for six years now, but I can’t speak it at all, so can we please speak English instead?’ These were my words when I, aged 19 years old, arrived in Zurich, Switzerland, and met my host family at the airport. The purpose of going there was, in fact, to improve my skills in the foreign language German; however, at that point, I did not consider myself proficient or confident enough to use the German I had learnt at school in Sweden.

Many language learners share this experience of finding themselves unable to speak a new language despite having invested considerable effort and time in studying it. Spoken production and interaction are, in fact, complicated skills to acquire even in one’s mother tongue, and they become even more complex in a second or foreign language (De Bot, 2004; Goh & Burns, 2012; Levelt, 1989; Tornberg, 2020).

While learning is difficult and complex, so too is teaching. The core of teaching skills is often described in metaphors, or in terms of an art, or as an art form based on scientific knowledge (Håkansson & Sundberg, 2020). After many years of experience and reflection, teachers and teacher educators are still searching for the precise connection between teaching and learning, as formulated by Professor Dylan Wiliam:

The more I do this job, the more amazed I get that teaching ever happens, because it just seems like such a complicated process. It’s just so many things that can go wrong, I am just amazed that anybody manages to teach anybody anything.

(Wiliam, 2023)

Consequently, if learning to speak a foreign language (FL) is difficult, and teaching generally is also difficult, then teaching somebody to speak a FL is particularly challenging. It is therefore possible that speaking, compared with other skills, is less often addressed explicitly when planning and carrying out teaching. This is an issue that Goh and Burns (2012) question, describing it in terms of *doing speaking* rather than *teaching speaking* in the FL classroom. However difficult it may be, speaking is important to learn and thus important to teach. The ability to speak and communicate with others is a basic human need, and in the context of language learning, speaking is commonly seen as the most central skill. When asking someone about their language

competence, we typically ask whether they can “speak” a language, as if speaking were at the very core of language knowledge (Nation, 2011).

In other words, speaking is **a**, or perhaps **the**, core skill of FL knowledge. Hence, it is alarming that learning and teaching how to speak are, in fact, neglected research areas, not least in the Swedish context of the present thesis (Granfeldt et al., 2023). In Swedish lower secondary school, students generally learn English as their first foreign language, given that it has been compulsory from year 3 of primary school. A second foreign language is typically studied within the school subject Modern Languages, offered as a language choice from year 6 (around age 12) in lower secondary school, with Spanish being the most popular language over French and German (Bardel et al., 2019; Skolverket, 2017, 2022). There are different pathways for studying second FLs within the subject of Modern Languages (ML), both as a language choice and as part of the school’s choice.

Teaching and learning to speak appear not to have received sufficient attention in research. Furthermore, relatively little is known about students’ spoken proficiency in FLs, since speaking is the least assessed language skill, both in Sweden and internationally (European Commission, 2018). In the comprehensive European language survey evaluating the most frequently studied FLs, speaking was not included. However, with regard to reading, listening and writing, Swedish students of Spanish as a Modern Language (ML) seemed to demonstrate a worrying low level of proficiency (European Commission, 2012; Skolverket, 2012). As a consequence of these alarming results, a Swedish study by Aronsson (2020) compared the two productive skills of speaking and writing among students in upper secondary school. The findings showed that the students had higher levels of written production than of spoken production and interaction. Moreover, her results indicated that grades were too high compared to the corresponding international proficiency levels (Aronsson, 2020).

Similar problematic results were reported by Granfeldt et al. (2023) when investigating MLs in Swedish lower secondary schools. Two spoken proficiency tests were carried out, one productive and one interactive, revealing that only a minority of the students reached the expected proficiency level. Interestingly, students rated their own performance higher in interaction, despite the fact that the results did not differ between the two spoken skills. In the study, results for Spanish were lower than for the other MLs, German and French. However, Granfeldt et al. (2023) stress that these results should be interpreted with caution, given that only 35 students of Spanish participated.

These two investigations contribute valuable knowledge about students’ spoken proficiency, i.e. what they have learnt, in Spanish as a ML, which is also the educational context of the present thesis. However, less is known about how speaking is taught. This gap is exemplified in the influential book, *The Language Book* (Ferm et al., 2001), which was distributed to language teachers in connection with the revised syllabuses introduced in 2000. The

chapter on speaking includes thorough descriptions of spoken interaction, primarily between native speakers or between native-speakers and learners, but ends with the words: ‘We know relatively little about how to teach interactive skills, which skills must be taught and when they should be taught’ (Aijmer, 2001, p. 91 the author’s translation).

Although 25 years have passed since those words were written, there is still a need to learn more about how and when interactive skills are best taught (Granfeldt et al., 2023). If, in fact, students’ spoken proficiency in Spanish and the other MLs is worrying low, we need to open up the black box of the classroom and make teaching practices visible. We must observe and carefully analyse classroom processes in order to identify whether and how students speak and interact in the target language and, if so, when and how the target language is performed.

To understand why spoken proficiency levels may be low, we must listen to those directly involved in the teaching and learning process. In other words, we must also listen to the students’ voices. Given that learners are both the subjects and the objects of education, their perceptions, attitudes and beliefs are essential, and their experiences constitute an invaluable source of knowledge for developing teaching practices. Students’ voices can help teachers and teacher educators avoid relying on common-sense assumptions about how a certain content is learnt – in this case, learning to speak a new language (c.f. for example Méndez, 2010).

In the same way, we must listen to what teachers say about speaking the target language and about how the teaching of speaking is planned and carried out. Their experiences and beliefs, whether conscious or unconscious, unquestionably influence their actions and thus provide keys to didactic decisions (Borg, 2015; Fernandez & Pozzo, 2021). In fact, interviews with students and teachers can shed light on the beliefs and experiences they bring into the language classroom.

To conclude, given the importance of being able to speak a ML, this study will investigate both teachers’ and students’ perceptions of speaking, and will also investigate whether there are discrepancies between their perceptions and actual language performance in the classroom. In other words, it will investigate what occurs in class in relation to speaking and whether this differs from what teachers and students report. As Spanish is the most popular language choice, it is particularly important to investigate it more closely, although the findings are likely to be useful also for the other MLs, French and German, and possibly also for English.

Overall, the present investigation will highlight and contribute to areas of knowledge that remain insufficiently explored, despite their importance for FL teaching and learning.

## 1.1. Aim and research questions

The aim of the present thesis is to investigate how speaking is perceived and performed within the context of the subject Spanish as a Modern Language in Swedish lower secondary school. The following research questions form the basis for achieving this aim.

- What is foregrounded when teachers and students discuss speaking Spanish as a ML in Swedish lower secondary school?
- In which contexts do students speak the target language in the classroom?
- How is the students' spoken language realised and enacted in the classroom?

These three research questions are designed to work together. RQ 1 explores perceptions and beliefs about speaking Spanish, providing insights into what teachers and students value and prioritise. RQ 2 and RQ 3 then investigate classroom processes, examining the nature of students' spoken use of the target language. Together, they enable an analysis of alignments and discrepancies between beliefs and classroom practices.

## 1.2. Outline of the thesis

The following thesis is an empirical qualitative study based on classroom observations and recordings, as well as interviews with teachers and students. Since it explores one core skill, speaking, in Spanish as a ML in Swedish schools, and the challenges surrounding it, it is necessary to contextualise the object of study. Hence, chapter 2, *Background*, explains how spoken skills are conceptualised in the Swedish syllabus for MLs, both currently and historically. The process of learning to speak a FL is complex overall, as explained in section 4.1.2. However, the focus of the present thesis is on how this process is carried out in the particular educational setting of young learners in compulsory lower secondary school. For this reason, section 2.2 outlines the particular situation for Spanish as a ML in Sweden.

Chapter 5 summarises *previous research* on students' and teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning to speak a FL in school, alongside studies on how speaking a FL is enacted in the classroom. Thereafter, important *theoretical and conceptual frameworks* are outlined in chapter 6, explaining how the investigation is positioned within language didactics and inspired by sociocultural theory (SCT). The data collection, conducted in six different schools, including the pilot study, is described in section 5.2. while the data analysis, mainly through thematic analysis, is described in section 5.5.

The research questions are addressed in three individual papers, and table 1, below shows the context for each of them. Chapter 6, *Results*, summarises the papers and explains how they are linked together and each builds upon the findings of the previous one. In chapter 7, the results are discussed in terms of the curricula domains framework, which highlights alignments and discrepancies between classroom processes, teachers' and learners' perceptions, as well as steering documents and their underlying values and ideologies.

Finally, chapter 8 concludes the thesis and suggests several proposals for important future research projects within the field of language didactics. Below is a comprehensive overview of the theoretical and contextual framework of the papers that form the basis of the thesis, including research questions, data and analytical approaches.

Table 1

	<b>Paper I</b>	<b>Paper II</b>	<b>Paper III</b>
<b>Addressing RQ1:</b> <i>What is foregrounded when teachers and students discuss speaking Spanish as a ML?</i>	x		
<b>Addressing RQ2:</b> <i>In which contexts do students use the target language in the classroom?</i>		x	x
<b>Addressing RQ3:</b> <i>How is students' spoken target language realised and enacted in the classroom?</i>			x
<b>Data: Fieldnotes and audio and video recordings of 21 lessons</b>		x	x

<b>Data: Interviews with 5 teachers and 15 student pairs (=30 students)</b>	x		
<b>Focus of the paper</b>	Didactic questions, Who? What? How? Didactic decisions and dilemmas from the teachers' point of view	Students' spoken target language in the classroom. Degree of independent language production; written language as scaffolding	Students' spoken language in peer interaction. Collaboration and language choice as scaffolding
<b>Theoretical and/or methodological frameworks applied</b>	Qualitative content analysis; Language teacher cognition; Learner engagement	Communicative Language Teaching (CLT); communicativeness; observation scheme; Thematic analysis	SCT; Thematic analysis; tools from conversation analysis

## 2. Background

Teaching and learning to speak a FL is, as explained in the introduction, at the core of language knowledge. Although this complex situation faces many challenges, the present thesis aims to add new knowledge to nuance the deficit perspective on learning and teaching to speak a FL. The following chapter outlines the concept of *speaking* and how it is constructed in the Swedish syllabus for MLs, both currently and previously. It also describes the present situation for MLs in the Swedish compulsory school system in 4.2., as well as the situation for Spanish in particular. The abbreviation FL is used in the present thesis to emphasise that the learning context differs from L2, where L2, as used in several studies, refers to a language in the surrounding society. For example, the L2 in Swedish school, is called Swedish as a second language, and it is likely that teaching, learning and learner motivation differ between FL and L2 contexts.

### 2.1. The construction of “speaking” in steering documents

To begin with, the following section will describe both Swedish and European perspectives on speaking, as these form the basis for language teacher education and may also influence classroom practices and language teachers’ beliefs.

When it comes to how spoken skills are described in the Swedish syllabus for MLs, the approach is, as in most European countries, communicative and action-oriented. The learning aims related to speaking include the ability to express oneself and interact with others, to develop problem-solving strategies, and to build confidence in using the language (Skolverket, 2022b).

The structure of the syllabus is divided into *aims*, *core content* and *grading criteria*. In the excerpts below, words specifically related to speaking are highlighted by the author. The current syllabus for MLs is very similar to the previous one (Skolverket, 2017), which was in effect during the data collection for the present thesis.<sup>1</sup> To begin with, the *aims* of the subject ML in lower secondary school are summarised in the following bullet points:

---

<sup>1</sup> During data collection, the following syllabus was valid (Skolverket, 2017).

Modern language teaching shall provide pupils with the prerequisites for developing

- understanding of the target language in **speech** and writing,
- the ability to express themselves and communicate in the target language in **speech** and writing,
- the ability to adapt the language to different purposes, **listeners/readers** and contexts, and
- an understanding of the cultural and social conditions in different contexts and areas in which the language is used.

(Skolverket, 2022b, pp. 67–68 Bold text highlighted by the author)

The section in the *core content* related to speaking outlines the following:

**Speaking**, writing and **conversation** – production and interaction

- **Conversations** and writing for contact and communication.
- Presentations, instructions, messages, stories and descriptions in cohesive **speech** and writing.
- Strategies, including rephrasing, questioning and supporting phrases, to contribute to and facilitate **conversation** and written interaction, including digital.
- Linguistic phenomena, including **pronunciation**, words, polite phrases, forms of address and other fixed expressions, as well as grammatical structures and spelling in pupils' own production and interactions.
- Revision of pupils' own **oral** and written language output to clarify and adapt communication to the purpose and listener/reader.

(Skolverket, 2022b, p. 71 Bold text highlighted by the author)

In the *grading criteria* for the language choice at the end of year 9, the grade E (=approved) requires the following:

In **oral** language output of various kinds, the pupil expresses himself in a simple and comprehensible manner using phrases and sentences. In written language output of various kinds, the pupil expresses himself in a simple and comprehensible manner using phrases and sentences. In interactions, the pupil expresses himself in a simple and comprehensible manner using words,

phrases and sentences. The pupil also uses strategies that facilitate and improve the interaction to a limited extent.

(Skolverket, 2022b, p. 80 Bold text highlighted by the author)

As shown above, speaking and writing are generally not separated, other than in the first sentence of the grading criteria. Moreover, in all parts of the current steering documents, spoken skills are consistently presented prior to writing skills.

The current syllabus for MLs is influenced by the *Common European framework of reference* (CEFR) for language learning, teaching, assessment, (Council of Europe, 2020), since they share the same action-oriented approach that views learners as social agents. Terminology from the CEFR is also frequently found in the Swedish syllabuses (Skolverket, 2022a). Nevertheless, the structure of the CEFR differs from the Swedish system; it is divided into *activities*, *strategies* and scales of *descriptors*, with *can do-statements* used to define and evaluate proficiency. Considering this difference, and in order to address “speaking”, both the sections on *production* and *interaction* must be consulted in the CEFR. As in the excerpts above, concepts that are, or can be, related to speaking are highlighted in the figures 1-2 by the author (see below).

**Figure 12 – Production activities and strategies**

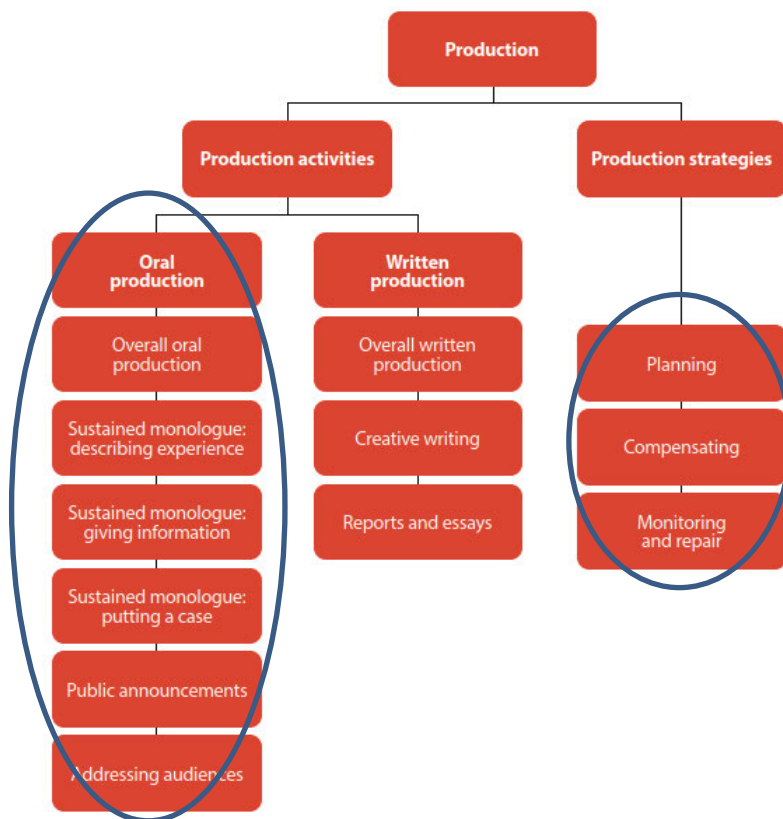


Figure 1

(excerpt from CEFR, Council of Europe, 2020, p. 61 marked areas are connected to "speaking")

Figure 13 – Interaction activities and strategies

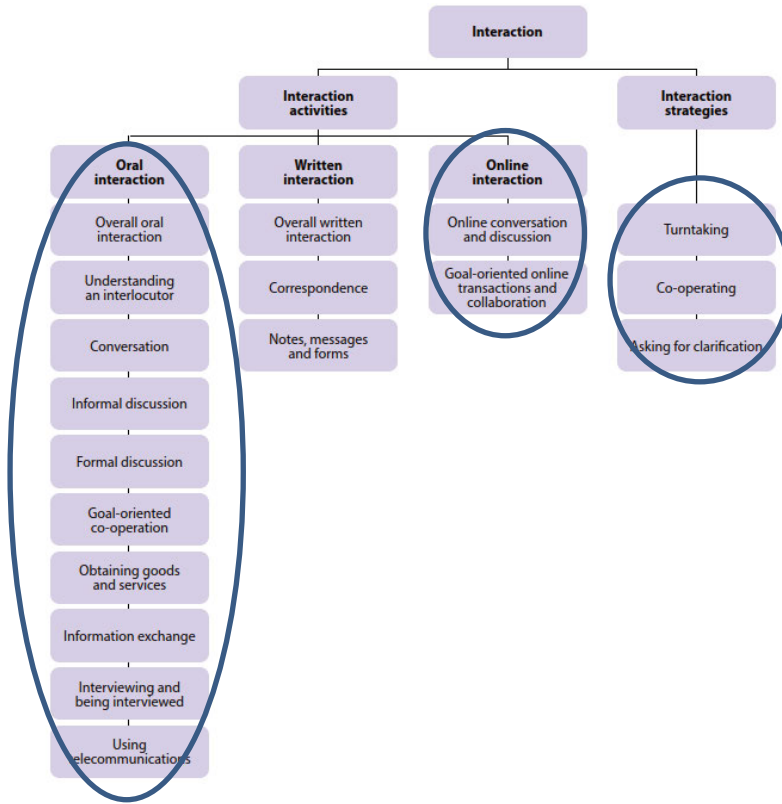


Figure 2

(excerpt from CEFR, Council of Europe, 2020, p. 71 marked areas are connected to "speaking")

When considering the concept of “spoken communication”, the CEFR structure is possibly more specific than the Swedish syllabus and can also be very useful. Interestingly, competence *mediation* (Council of Europe, 2020) is not (yet) included in the Swedish syllabus for MLs, but considering how it is defined, it clearly involves aspects that could be related to speaking:

In mediation, the user/learner acts as a social agent who creates bridges and helps to construct or convey meaning, sometimes within the same language, sometimes across modalities (e.g., from spoken to signed or vice versa, in cross-modal communication) and sometimes from one language to another (cross-linguistic mediation). The focus is on the role of language in processes like creating the space and conditions for communicating and/or learning, collaborating to construct new meaning, encouraging others to construct or understand new meaning, and passing on new information in an appropriate form.

(Council of Europe, 2020, p. 90)

### 2.1.1. The syllabus historically

Historically, in the Swedish school system, the steering documents have not considered the subject-specific syllabuses as separate from the general curriculum. Rather, the syllabuses have been integrated parts of the general curriculum. In other words, with the exception of the additional syllabus introduced in 2000 (Skolverket, 2001), each new general curriculum has also included a new syllabus for languages. Interestingly, in both the previous and current language syllabuses, spoken skills have generally been placed before writing skills.

In 1962, English became a compulsory school subject from year four, and French and German were optional from year seven. The syllabuses were divided into *aims* and *key elements*, as well as *comments*, which often included detailed descriptions of classroom activities. Both French and German could be studied within the framework of a larger or smaller course, and the larger was more challenging than the smaller course. The aims regarding speaking in English, French and German were primarily to acquire a limited amount of vocabulary, phrases and grammatical structures, and to establish good pronunciation. The rationale for these competences was to enable pupils to understand standard speech and simple texts, express themselves in common situations and, to a limited extent, express themselves in writing (Skolöverstyrelsen, 1962, p. 190).

In French and German, speaking was conceptualised under the rubrics *Pronunciation* and *Speaking-listening*, which were presented first among the key elements. In the key elements for year seven, *speaking exercises* were defined as simple questions and answers between students, relating to reality, images or sounds. Memorising dialogues was also included, and in years eight/nine, description of pictures, free speaking activities and theatre were added to the speaking exercises (Skolöverstyrelsen, 1962, pp. 191–192). Speaking exercises in the smaller course included simple questions and answers between students, but with the addition of ‘without too much concern about linguistic accuracy’ (Skolöverstyrelsen, 1962, pp. 192–193). The comments explained that the teacher conducts (in present tense) the lesson in the target language, which provides a natural comprehension practice for the students.

Speaking was explicitly stated to be the most important element of language teaching. In addition to comprehensively described pronunciation exercises, listening and speaking exercises were categorised as either “fixed”, or “free” activities. The fixed activities were primarily reading aloud, with a focus on accuracy and memorisation, while the free activities were more content-based with less focus on linguistic accuracy.

In the next syllabus, 1969 (Skolöverstyrelsen, 1969), the large and small course options were removed, but students could still choose between different levels of French and German, called general or specialised courses (Tholin

& Lindqvist, 2009, p. 167). The aims, key elements and comments related to speaking did not differ substantially from those in the 1962 syllabuses.

Meanwhile, a communicative approach to language teaching was beginning to take shape in language learning projects based at the Council of Europe, and the significant threshold framework (Ek & Alexander, 1977) started to appear in the next Swedish syllabus of 1980 (Malmberg, 2001; Skolöverstyrelsen, 1980). This time, the aims were similar to those of the current syllabus, but speaking was separated from other skills and explicitly highlighted in both the aims and key elements. Furthermore, French and German were brought together rather than presented in separate sections (Skolöverstyrelsen, 1980).

The importance of communicative competence was further foregrounded in the following syllabus, from 1994, when the subject was called B/C languages (English as the first FL being considered the A-language), and the rubric was changed from key elements to *skills*. The character of the subject was now divided into two parts: communicative competence and intercultural understanding (Utbildningsdepartementet, 1994a).

Among the *learning aims to be achieved*, clearly influenced by the threshold levels, the first three of a total of seven aims were related to speaking. These stated that learners should be able to understand the content of conversations, participate in conversations, and orally communicate or describe their own experiences.

As mentioned above, in 2000, new syllabuses were introduced, but there was no new curriculum, and the subject was now called *Modern languages*, with the exception of English. The syllabus had a completely new section called *assessment*, which was divided into: *emphasis on the assessment* and *grading criteria* (Skolverket, 2001). Among the eight learning aims, the first three were related to speaking and were very similar to those from 1994, while the last two were new. One of these concerned meta-reflection on speaking and reading, and the other addressed the ability to perform spoken or written tasks, individually or in collaboration with others.

## 2.2. The context of the school subject Spanish as a modern language in Swedish compulsory school

As illustrated above, both the current and previous syllabuses have put speaking and communication at the core of MLs, a feature that is even more significant in the 2017 syllabus (Skolverket, 2017), which was in effect during the data collection for the present thesis. In the following section, other parameters important for contextualising the study will be described.

Sweden's educational system regarding FL education aligns with the multilingual approach that supports language diversity, as outlined by the

European Parliament. Language diversity and multilingual competence are emphasised as a means of promoting lifelong learning, increasing mobility and improving intercultural skills. This policy represents a development from earlier, more precise writings stating that every citizen should master two languages in addition to their mother tongue (European commission, 2003, 2007).

In Sweden, English is now the first FL and has been mandatory from year three of primary school.<sup>2</sup> This organisation aligns with the structure in many other European countries, where the first FL is typically English (European Commission, 2023).

In year 6, age 12, students make a language choice, generally between French, German and Spanish. Prior to 2018, schools could choose whether to introduce the language choice in year 6 or 7, but currently it is now mandatory to start in year 6. It is also possible to choose additional Swedish/English, Swedish as a second language or sign language for the hearing. Students with an immigrant background may also choose mother tongue tuition (Bardel et al., 2019; Skolverket, 2022b). From the language learner's perspective, German would arguably be an easier language for Swedish speakers to learn; however, other factors appear to be more influential, as Spanish is the most popular language choice (Bardel et al., 2016; Skolverket, 2023; Österberg & Bardel, 2016).

From 1995 (Utbildningsdepartementet, 1994b), schools had the possibility to organise an additional ML within the subject *pupil's choice*. In the school year 2023-2024, less than 1% of year 9 students participated in such provision.<sup>3</sup> From autumn 2024, the subject pupil's choice was removed from the curriculum; however, additional MLs can still be organised by allocating hours from "the school's choice" to a language course. Currently, there are no statistics indicating how many schools make use of this opportunity.

Compared to English, MLs face a very different situation and generally score lower in terms of social status, learners' motivation and student proficiency levels (Erickson et al., 2022; Skolverket, 2012). In addition, English is more similar to a second language than to a FL (Bardel et al., 2023) and has a strong position in Swedish society. In school, English is studied as a compulsory subject for seven years, includes obligatory national achievement tests, and is one of the three subjects in which a grade E (= pass) is required to continue on to upper secondary school.

Currently, all Swedish schools are obliged to offer at least two MLs, including Sign Language for the Hearing, from year 6. However, recent research show that not all schools meet these requirements and that socio-economic and regional differences seem to determine which languages are offered (Granfeldt et al., 2019). Surveys involving a considerable number of school

---

<sup>2</sup> Compared to when it was made mandatory from school year 4 in 1962

<sup>3</sup> [https://sir.is.skolverket.se/siris/sitevision\\_doc.getFile?p\\_id=553087](https://sir.is.skolverket.se/siris/sitevision_doc.getFile?p_id=553087)

leaders throughout the country show that 76% of schools offer all three languages: French, German and Spanish. When only two languages are offered, they are typically German and Spanish or French and Spanish. French is more commonly studied in urban areas, and German is more common in rural areas and French is offered less frequently in the northern parts of Sweden (Granfeldt et al., 2019).

In cities and rural areas around the big cities, most students study a ML. However, there has been a general increase in the proportion of lower secondary school students studying a ML (Granfeldt et al., 2020), and in the 2023-2024 school year, 74% of all students studied a ML in year nine.<sup>4</sup>

When it comes to steering documents, the communicative orientation of the ML syllabus holds potential for identity-formation and democracy in Sweden's multicultural and pluralistic society (Tornberg, 2000). On the other hand, the school subject ML appears to be socio-economically coded, given that more children from well-educated and resource-rich families achieve higher grades and are also more likely to continue their language studies in upper secondary school. Lower middle-class and working-class children more frequently drop out of MLs, and the proficiency gap between boys and girls is wide within this group, where girls have higher grades (Krih, 2019).

The school subject ML has been the target of several policy changes aimed at encouraging more students to take on and continue studies in modern languages – changes that have not been carried out in other school subjects (Granfeldt et al., 2020; Tholin, 2017). One such regulation concerns the grading system, which provides extra credit points for students who continue their studies of ML from lower to upper secondary school. The credit point system was implemented in 2007 and has had various effects, one being a lower drop-out rate from ML in lower secondary school. However, this impact is most visible in rural areas, where more students had already been studying modern languages (Granfeldt et al., 2020; Tholin, 2017).

Language teachers themselves are ambivalent as to whether ML ought to be mandatory. The teacher's union conducted a survey among ML teachers, and approximately 50% argued that it should be a compulsory school subject, given the lack of future teachers and difficult working conditions (Lärarnas Riksförbund, 2016). Currently, this opinion appears to have changed. In a large-scale study, 68% of ML teachers were positive towards mandatory ML (Bardel et al., 2019; Erickson et al., 2022).

ML teachers' viewpoints on the policy changes vary; however, they are not always aware of them or of their presumed impact on day-to-day classroom practice. Tholin (2017) describes how French and German teachers find it difficult to be the only representatives of their language at their schools. Moreover, due to the rising popularity of Spanish, many Spanish teachers are still

---

<sup>4</sup> [https://sir.is.skolverket.se/siris/sitevision\\_doc.getFile?p\\_id=553086](https://sir.is.skolverket.se/siris/sitevision_doc.getFile?p_id=553086)

unqualified, which leads to a constant turnover of colleagues and, correspondingly, constant changes in teachers for students.

### 2.2.1. Evaluations of ML

As explained above, ML as a school subject appears to face various challenges, which have also been identified in several evaluations, outlined in the following section.

The Swedish School Inspectorate (2010) conducted an evaluation of MLs and found that students had few possibilities to communicate in the target language, nor did they receive the necessary support to continue their language studies. Furthermore, the evaluation revealed a remarkably high number of dropouts, and that these dropouts were neither followed up nor analysed by school management. The subject was also unevenly provided throughout the country, meaning that students did not have equal opportunities in the process of choosing a language. A follow-up evaluation by the Swedish School Inspectorate (2022) confirmed that students still lack the necessary support and opportunities for communication in the target language. Moreover, MLs are given lower priority than other subjects by school management, and ML teachers generally work in isolation with limited opportunities for in-service training.

In both reports, the concept of *communicative competence* is highly frequent, as is the verb *speaking* (*tala* in Swedish). Nevertheless, the concept of *spoken conversation* (*samtala* in Swedish) occurs only twice in the report from 2022 and not at all in the report from 2010. Despite the emphasis on speaking, the reports do not stress spoken interaction, nor do they define spoken communicative competence or distinguish it from written interaction or other modalities. This would have been relevant, since the reports have a major impact on language teachers and implicitly criticise classroom processes. Although the notions of *communication* and *speaking* are interrelated, they are not synonyms, which makes it problematic that these reports do not clearly define them separately. The present thesis aims to define spoken classroom activities as more or less *communicative* and, in addition, explicitly emphasises spoken production and interaction.

Spoken skill is the least assessed language skill, both in Sweden and internationally (European Commission, 2018). The only evaluation to date of the five most frequently taught FLs as school subjects took place in 2011 and was carried out across 14 countries (European Commission, 2012; Skolverket, 2012). Oral skills were not evaluated due to methodological and financial reasons; consequently, results in reading and listening comprehension and written production were interpreted as indicators of overall language proficiency. Sweden participated with English as the first FL and Spanish as the second FL, the latter being the most popular choice. The only other country participating in Spanish was France, and the Swedish results were considerably lower than the French results and also comparatively weak compared to other

second FLs in the survey. However, in English, Swedish students performed remarkably well, and Swedish students' proficiency was among the highest.

In 2017, the Swedish National Agency for Education (NAE) initiated an in-service training project for teachers of MLs in secondary school called "The Language Boost" (*Språksprånget*). However, the project has not yet been evaluated. Similar projects had previously been implemented for mathematics, Swedish literacy and the natural sciences, with varying effects on student learning.

### 2.2.2. The situation for Spanish as a ML in particular

As described above, Spanish is currently the most popular language choice, and the situation is different compared to the other modern languages, as noted by various researchers. One example is the large Spanish class size, which increases teachers' workloads compared to French and German (Finndahl, 2023; Riis & Francia, 2013; Österberg, 2021).

In 1986, a Swedish conference for language teacher educators and researchers was organised with the aim of outlining the future of languages in schools. One presentation, given by Gunilla Bouvin (Andered & Lindblad, 1986, pp. 95–100), strongly argued for including Spanish alongside German and French in lower secondary school. Her (and others') proposition was recognised, and in 1994, Spanish was included as a language choice. Since then, school organisers must offer at least two of the three languages – French, German and Spanish – in lower secondary school.

Spanish was popular from the very beginning and became the most popular language in 2006. Its popularity continued to grow until 2014 and has remained stable thereafter (Bardel et al., 2023; Granfeldt et al., 2020). Currently, approximately 50% of all students choose Spanish instead of French and German (Skolverket, 2023).<sup>5</sup> As explained by Finndahl (2023), the rationale for choosing is often related to emotional factors, such as travels, culture, family and friends.

After approximately a decade with the new modern language, a report was written to identify the state of Spanish as a school subject, as well as future challenges and possibilities (Riis & Francia, 2013). The report displayed a lack of professional development and of educated teachers; at that time, three out of four Spanish teachers had no formal graduation from teacher education. Many students chose Spanish, assuming it would be the easiest of the three languages, but also because they had a strong interest in Hispanic culture and connections with, or travel to, Spain. The authors suggested making modern languages a compulsory school subject, improving professional development, informing about travel grants for teachers and students, increasing exchange programmes between schools and countries, and conducting further

---

<sup>5</sup> [https://siris.skolverket.se/siris/sitevision\\_doc.getFile?p\\_id=553086](https://siris.skolverket.se/siris/sitevision_doc.getFile?p_id=553086)

evaluations of teachers' working conditions (Riis & Francia, 2013). Recent research shows that there is still a shortage of qualified teachers, although the majority of Spanish teachers now hold a pedagogical degree (Österberg, 2021). Considering that Spanish is the most popular language choice, teachers' working conditions are still unsatisfying, particularly when it comes to professional development or opportunities to work full-time at a single school (Österberg, 2021).

Given that spoken skills were not investigated in the European language survey of 2012, the NAE conducted an expanded study with a specific focus on speaking in order to identify features of the best-performing schools (Skolverket, 2013). The study found that these schools had certified Spanish teachers, used optional national proficiency tests and started earlier with modern languages. Spanish was spoken to a certain extent in the classroom, and students appreciated the teaching methods and the varied lessons. Nevertheless, they also expressed a need to be further challenged in using Spanish, both within and outside the school.

To conclude, this chapter has shown that the situation for Spanish as a ML in schools appears problematic due to large class size and many unqualified teachers. Additionally, the presumed proficiency level of spoken target language in secondary schools appears to be low. Although syllabuses have always put speaking and communication at the forefront, and policy changes have aimed to increase the status and knowledge of FLs among young learners, the situation is still difficult. Reports indicate that insufficient ML is spoken in the classroom, which further reinforces the image of a deficit discourse. Nonetheless, relatively little is known about teachers' and learners' perceptions, or about classroom processes when it comes to speaking Spanish as a ML. Given this situation, the present thesis aims to investigate precisely what occurs when spoken target language is taught and learned among teenagers in Swedish compulsory school.

### 3. Previous research

This chapter reviews previous research relevant to the three research questions. As presented in chapter 2, *Background*, the popularity of Spanish as a language choice has increased in Sweden over the past decades and has consequently become the subject of classroom research. For example, Källermark Haya (2015) investigated students' agency when working collaboratively online in Spanish, while Fredholm (2021) examined students' application of automatic online translation when writing and editing Spanish texts. However, teaching and learning to *speak* Spanish have not yet been investigated in Sweden. Therefore, the following chapter outlines previous research relevant to investigating how speaking a FL is perceived and performed in the classroom.

The literature search was conducted using key terms such as *teaching speaking, learning to speak, foreign language classroom, teachers' beliefs, teacher cognition* and *student perceptions*. Investigations about speaking English as a FL were also included, although English and other MLs have different positions as school subjects in many countries, as explained in chapter 2, *background*.<sup>6</sup>

The search resulted in numerous investigations into how speaking is perceived and performed, both in Sweden and internationally. The majority of the studies included in this chapter were conducted in Scandinavia and other European countries, given that the educational context is similar.

The chapter starts with students' perceptions (3.1.) and continues with teachers' beliefs (3.2), both of which are relevant to the first research question of the thesis. Eventually, research on classroom processes is presented (3.3), which is relevant to the second and third research questions.

#### 3.1. Students' perceptions of teaching and learning to speak in primary and secondary schools

Given that the present thesis investigates the teaching and learning of speaking the target language in the classroom, the students' perspective constitutes one

---

<sup>6</sup> The acronym LOTE (Languages Other Than English) emphasises the significance of other languages in the context of the dominance of English as the worldwide lingua franca. LOTE includes minority languages, second languages or modern languages both in society and taught in schools (Lanvers, 2024).

of its cornerstones. Research in a Scandinavian ML-context has established that speaking is the most desired learning aim, and that students perceive the main purpose of studying a ML to be its use, both inside and outside the classroom (Barfod Lund et al., 2023; Finndahl, 2023). In a comprehensive survey, Swedish students expressed generally positive attitudes towards the ability to speak a ML, although they did not always consider it to be an important school subject. Girls were more motivated to learn, but also more anxious to speak in class. Generally, it was considered more difficult to produce one's own language than to interact with a peer (Granfeldt et al., 2023).

Danish students considered that their ML classes involved too much writing, text-reading, grammar and computer-work compared with speaking (Barfod Lund et al., 2023). Swedish students valued speaking skills more highly than writing skills, but they have also reported a low frequency of spoken activities in class. Moreover, Swedish students explained that they are not accustomed to speaking and interacting freely in the ML classroom (Aronsson, 2023; Granfeldt et al., 2023; Henry, 2011; Henry & Thorsen, 2018).

In one early and comprehensive investigation into the use of strategies in ML learning, Swedish students explained that meta reflection on their own learning processes was helpful (Malmberg & Bergström, 2000). Regarding spoken skills specifically, they affirmed that interaction and group work are meaningful and fun activities, and therefore beneficial for learning. Interestingly, this investigation has not been followed up or further developed.

### 3.1.2. Emotional aspects of speaking a FL

A key dimension of students' perceptions concerns the emotional aspect. In a Swedish educational context, the connection between speaking and emotions has been established by Nilsson (2020). She conducted a study of English in Swedish primary schools, where students' proficiency levels are roughly equivalent to those of the Spanish students in the present thesis. Many of the English students expressed that they were uncomfortable and anxious about speaking in class and worried about not understanding instructions or being unable to communicate in the target language.

Similar findings have been reported among learners of German in the UK when investigating speaking strategies (Gallagher-Brett, 2007). They reported experiencing language anxiety, and noted that their daily mood affected their willingness to speak. Moreover, they considered it difficult to speak German in class without a written prompt, and expressed a contradiction in their beliefs: on the one hand, they felt it was acceptable to guess an unknown word but, on the other, they believed one should not speak at all without good pronunciation and fluency. This contradiction was reinforced when they expressed an awareness of strategies, but also emphasised practice and repetition as the only means to improve speaking. The strategy of using the knowledge

they already possessed was not mentioned by the students, who overall held themselves personally responsible and expressed personal reasons for failing to speak German in class (Gallagher-Brett, 2007).

Regarding the connection between emotion and motivation, Sayehli et al. (2022) showed that these concepts are closely related to learners' WTC (*Willingness to Communicate*) in a ML. When comparing the three Swedish MLs, learners of Spanish had a higher level of instrumental motivation, defined as the ambition to achieve higher grades, than learners of French and German. The correlation between high levels of *Foreign language classroom anxiety* (FLCA) (Horwitz et al., 1986) and low levels of *Willingness to communicate* (WTC) (Macintyre, 2007)<sup>7</sup> did not differ significantly between the languages. As described by the authors in the following conclusion:

Third, we found across all learners, that FLCA was the strongest predictor for younger learners' behaviour and thus mitigating their willingness to communicate despite being overall motivated learners

(Sayehli et al., 2022, p. 217).

However, intervention studies have also been conducted to reduce speaking anxiety, displaying ways to create supportive learning environments and decrease FLCA. These are described in section 3.3.3., *Explicit teaching*.

### 3.1.3 Motivation and engagement

When it comes to motivation for language learning, MLs in Sweden have been researched thoroughly within this field. Regarding Spanish specifically, Österberg (2008) showed that language learning correlates with students' aptitude, on the one side, and their motivation, on the other. In her longitudinal study, she followed students' linguistic development with a special focus on spoken language and found that motivation, rather than talent or aptitude, was the most important factor determining success or failure in the progression of spoken Spanish.

These results were further developed by Cardelús (2015), who found that students who continue their ML studies when in upper secondary school were passionate about languages, enjoyed learning and envisioned themselves as speakers of the ML. They appreciated communication with others and emphasised contacts with, or travel to, countries where the target language is spoken.

Regarding the vision of themselves as target language speakers, Henry (2011) found that Swedish lower secondary school students' excellent level of English had, in fact, a demotivating effect on learning a ML. Rocher-Hahlin

---

<sup>7</sup> In section 4.1.2., the concepts of FLCA and WTC are described in more detail.

(2014) showed that upper secondary school students of French were better able to picture themselves as target language speakers when authentic materials were used in the classroom, which also correlated positively with their willingness to invest extra effort in learning.

Related, but not equivalent, to motivation is the concept of *language learner engagement*, which has not yet been thoroughly investigated in the Scandinavian context. Nonetheless, research has been conducted in other countries. For example, Sulis (2022) conducted a longitudinal study of two FL classes in the United Kingdom, one in Spanish and one in French. Throughout the school year, the researcher used stimulated recall, and the students self-reported fluctuations in their behavioural, cognitive and emotional engagement during lessons.

Although the processes were dynamic and complex in relation to the different types of engagement, Sulis (2022) highlights the importance of the social and psychological learning environment. She suggests that small-group activities should be carried out more often than teacher-led activities. Moreover, tasks should be slightly challenging but not too overly difficult in order to maintain cognitive engagement, which means that scaffolding and supporting structures need to be available for students. The study emphasises short and varied tasks within a lesson, which enable immediate feedback on progress and are more likely to sustain learners' sense of self-efficacy (Sulis, 2022).

### 3.2. Teachers' beliefs about speaking and spoken communication

Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning to speak constitute a cornerstone of the present thesis. Research outside the Scandinavian context has displayed various findings. For instance, in a study of Chilean and Brazilian English pre-service teachers, both interviews and observations were conducted. The participants expressed struggles with professional identity and with bridging the gap between being a student and learner, as well as being a proficient speaker of the target language. Both large classes and limited resources were pointed out as challenges that constrained communicative and interaction-based teaching (Archanjo et al., 2019). Another position, yet also problematic, was identified among Ethiopian teachers of English (Adem & Berkessa, 2022), who reported that speaking was the least developed skill among their students. Although the teachers considered speaking to be important, they did not regard it as their preferred teaching area, since it differs considerably from other language skills.

Three Scandinavian studies of ML teachers and teacher students have highlighted that teachers often struggle to apply a communicative approach in the

target language, especially when teaching grammar (Llovet Vilà, 2016; Nilsson et al., 2019; Nylén, 2014). A perceived dichotomy between grammatical competence and spoken communicative competence was identified among the teachers, where one of the main obstacles was their students' proficiency level (Nilsson et al., 2019; Nylén, 2014).

...the findings suggest that the FL teacher students struggle when it comes to integrating formal aspects and communicative competence. /.../ In sum, none of the students in the present study outright rejected the importance of developing oral proficiency, and none of them rejected the importance of a balanced focus on form. The problems arose in their thinking about how to combine the two.

(Nilsson et al., 2019, p. 127)

Related to teachers' challenges about language choice, Källkvist et al. (2022) investigated a Swedish multilingual English classroom. They found that the so-called *didactic contract* (Brousseau & Balacheff, 1997) was renegotiated when the teacher departed from an English-dominant approach to facilitate the students' language learning. The teacher spoke Swedish to prioritise the relationship with the students and to ensure that everyone understood, despite the students' belief that English should have been chosen.

Finally, an investigation by Llovet Vilà and Nyström (2023) showed that when it comes to teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning to speak, there is more research on the teachers' own language than on what they think about students' spoken output. Although the study only refers to the Scandinavian context, the situation may very well be similar in other countries. It is possible that teachers and teacher educators are too concerned about the (undisputed) need for language input that they overlook learners' need for language output.

### 3.2.1. Assessing spoken interaction

For teachers, assessment is an integral part of the profession, given that didactic aspects – teaching, learning and assessment – are inevitably interrelated (see e.g. Biggs & Tang, 2011). Although assessing language proficiency is not at the core, nor explicitly investigated in the present thesis, teachers' beliefs about assessing speaking are important. Various European studies have contributed relevant knowledge on this matter. For instance, teachers of French in Spain reflected on the “washback” effect of a new national spoken proficiency test (Milà Garcia, 2023). The test had a highly communicative approach, and teachers' answers were positioned along a continuum: at one end were those who refused to let the test dictate their teaching, while at the one end were teachers who emphasised a need for careful preparation, not only regarding linguistic skills but also to familiarise students with the testing

procedure. In addition, emotions were a central theme, as the teachers themselves felt stressed about the test and worried that it would affect their students.

Different positions regarding the assessment of speaking were also found among Swedish English teachers (Borger, 2019; Frisch, 2021), who struggled with the complexity of assessing spoken interaction. Depending on which aspect of spoken interaction they emphasised, the teachers were categorised into three different groups (Frisch, 2021). The first group focused primarily on linguistic accuracy, the second on interaction between students and the third focused on the content of the interaction. In addition, the teachers generally struggled to define the notion of “speaking” and often cited the syllabus in their references to spoken production and interaction.

Another important finding is the impact of interactional roles and how well students perform in relation to their peers (Borger, 2019; Frisch, 2021). Since students’ personal characteristics, linguistic proficiency, alongside their cooperative abilities all affect the outcomes of spoken interactional tests, the following suggestion was made:

However, although guidelines exist, it seems clear that more explicit information and directions are needed concerning the potential effects of personal interlocutor variables and how to address this issue when assigning scores, including advice on the matching of students.

(Borger, 2019, p. 166)

### 3.3. Speaking in the classroom

Two of the research questions in the present thesis focus on classroom processes, and the data include observations, as well as audio- and video-recordings, to address them. Previous research on this matter has had many foci and has been conducted from a range of theoretical areas, adopting a cognitive, linguistic, psychological or social perspective. Below, relevant findings are categorised into three subsections: 5.3.1. on the choice of language; 5.3.2. on student collaboration and 5.3.3. on explicit teaching methods.

#### 3.3.1. Target or majority language

When researching speaking in the ML classroom, the actual language used is an inevitable starting point, since the choice of language is observable as soon as someone says something. That being said, relevant research findings from both the Scandinavian educational context and elsewhere are outlined in the following section.

For example, best practices have proven to be diverse and context-dependent, but there is a consensus on one aspect, namely the need for L2 input

(Garbati & Mady, 2015). In studies conducted in the Scandinavian context, the amount of spoken Spanish and French has been measured and found to be considerably low (Llovet Vilà, 2016; Stoltz, 2011b; Vold & Brkan, 2020). Moreover, there are classrooms with a high level of the teacher's spoken target language, but without a high proficiency level for the students (Ponnert, 2014). Various investigations have found that the target language is not spoken sufficiently in a communicative setting – generally interpreted as being used as the medium of communication, in the ML classroom (Flyman Mattsson, 2003; Llovet Vilà, 2016; Stoltz, 2011a; Vold & Brkan, 2020). To address this, a small-scale study that included Task based language teaching (TBLT) in spoken interaction was carried out in lower secondary school, resulting in increased levels of both quantity and complexity of students' spoken target language Spanish (Nyström et al., 2019).

The existence and role of the majority language in FL education, and the ensuing alternation between them, have been discussed throughout the decades of the CLT paradigm. While evidence shows that overall target language use increases learners' spoken proficiency, other studies indicate that the amount of target language used by the teacher does not correlate with the amount of target language spoken by the students (Macaro, 2001). In other words, there is not automatically a direct correlation between the teacher's and the students' spoken target language. Macaro and Lee (2013) have also shown that a monolingual approach increased beginner learners' FL classroom anxiety, especially for young learners.

Nonetheless, there are also investigations where the target language French is used almost exclusively as the medium of communication between teacher and learners in the FL classroom (Crichton, 2009; Rouse-Malpat et al., 2024; Rouse-Malpat & Verspoor, 2012). In one study (Crichton, 2009), the teacher adapted their language to the beginners' level and repeatedly used the same expressions. Students were also rewarded, e.g. with points, when they spoke the target language in class, and the study showed that the students spoke a lot of target language in class (Crichton, 2009). Further examples of studies with teachers using exclusively the target language showed that activities oriented towards a focus on meaning were more beneficial for learning to speak than those oriented towards a focus on forms (Rouse-Malpat et al., 2024; Rouse-Malpat & Verspoor, 2012).

Another way of “simply” using the target language, in other words, as a means of communication, is through online-interaction activities. Kohn and Hoffstaedter (2017) showed how an e-twinning project among learners of German at the B1-level encouraged students to show agency and speak a lot of target language. In addition, the students explained that speaking was less anxiety-inducing with interlocutors at the same language level than with more proficient speakers (Kohn & Hoffstaedter, 2017).

### 3.3.2. Collaboration between learners

When it comes to spoken interaction between language learners, research has been carried out on interactional patterns in the classroom, showing how students adopt different roles and how spoken tasks are negotiated. Given that paper III investigates spoken peer interaction specifically, previous research in this area is outlined in this section. The findings are relevant, although none of the investigations were conducted in a Scandinavian school context.

To begin with, Mashayekh (2022) investigated how a spoken task was negotiated by language learners. She concluded that the same task can result in fundamentally different outcomes, since the educational context matters and the individuals are ‘agents rather than subjects’ (Mashayekh, 2022, p. 1). When comparing task types, learners adopted varying positions of novice and expert during peer interaction, while interactions with the teacher involved more fixed positions. Similarly, Storch and Sato (2020) highlighted the importance of the educational context when carrying out the same interactive task in two different classrooms. As above, they could establish that the teacher’s instructions were merely a starting point and that the learners’ actions were shaped by group dynamics and the use of mediation tools, for instance, the majority language.

Regarding the roles that speakers assume in spoken tasks, findings suggest that learners of varying proficiency levels benefit from group and pair work. For example, Fernández Dobao (2016) demonstrated that students benefit from small group work and learn, even though they adopt a more silent role in peer interaction. Moreover, Sato and Viveros (2016) showed that low proficiency students may benefit more than high-proficiency students from collaborative work in the FL classroom. Although aptitude clearly had an impact on language learning, a collaborative mindset, understood as learners’ approach towards a partner or the task, can constitute an even stronger mediating factor for language learning.

When it comes to social roles in interaction, Reichert and Liebscher (2012) showed that learning opportunities arise when participants position themselves as either a language expert or a novice in peer interaction. The authors emphasised that these roles are changeable in a class, and thus differ from a static notion of “being” proficient or not, especially when students co-construct knowledge without the involvement of the teacher. In addition, two studies showed that the roles of expert or novice can be characterised along a continuum in dyadic interaction, represented by the dimensions, passive–dominant and novice–expert (Donato, 1994; Storch, 2002).

### 3.3.3. Explicit teaching

In research on teaching speaking, such as in the present thesis, the immediate question would perhaps concern actual *methods*: how should teaching be carried out, and which are the best practices in this area? As shown in the previous sections, teaching and learning to speak a FL is undoubtedly more complex and multifaceted than simply answering the didactic *How*-question. Nonetheless, research on effective, research-based classroom practices will be outlined below, conducted in various, mainly non-Scandinavian, contexts.

In a literature review on L1 use in the FL classroom (Shin et al., 2020), it is established that the intentional and deliberate use of L1 can be beneficial for maximising L2 learning. However, workshops and training for teachers and teacher students are necessary to develop effective ways and methods for using L1 efficiently in the classroom.

In general, classroom activities that are effective in encouraging learners to speak the target language include, for example, role-play, scaffolding, authentic encounters, planned and spontaneous presentations, fluency activities, task planning and explicit teaching of spoken skills (Garbati & Mady, 2015).

One particularly effective way to teach speaking explicitly is to apply the *teaching speaking circle* systematically (Goh & Burns, 2012). This is an iterative method that alternates between explicit teaching, metacognition, feedback and task performance. This was done among students of English in Thailand's Royal Air Force (Inprom & Chalermnirundorn, 2020). The students showed general improvements in speaking skills, including vocabulary, grammar, fluency, comprehension, pronunciation and communicative strategies. Overall, the students were very satisfied with their own learning throughout the project.

Further findings show that repeating speaking tasks, as well as preparing them carefully through so-called *pre-task planning*, have proven to be efficient methods (Goh, 2017), as have the consistent use of formulaic expressions (Christie, 2016; Crichton, 2009; Selin, 2014). Comparable results were found by Konzett-Firth (2020) in an Austrian longitudinal study among French learners conducted over five school years. In the study, the task was to talk about a text: advanced learners answered questions more independently, while beginners used scaffolding structures and read sentences aloud from the book in their answers. The teacher pedagogically adapted her language and the type of questions according to the students' level at the time (Konzett-Firth, 2020).

Another effective strategy is the use of technology and online tools for teaching speaking, e.g. through games that improve pronunciation in the target language. This was the case among Hispanic learners of English in California (Tewari et al., 2010) and among young learners of French in Finland (Peura et al., 2023). In a project on so-called Vlogging, video-blogging, Ecuadorian high school learners of English created films and uploaded them to YouTube,

an activity that significantly improved both fluency and confidence in the target language (Lopez et al., 2021).

Computer-assisted learning has also shown to be successful among Swedish learners of German (Ericsson & Hashemi, 2024). In this study, students used a computer programme with avatars that could interact orally with humans. The learners then practised spoken language in everyday situations with a conversational agent. They explained that the method was fun and engaging and generally made them more proficient in the language and more confident in speaking German.

Various intervention studies on emotions and speaking anxiety have been carried out in Europe. One of them was a comparative study in English conducted in Poland and Norway. In Norway, the study also included a Spanish class (Horverak et al., 2022), in which group discussions and individual journal writing were applied to encourage students to reflect on their learning. After one month of intervention, students reported a reduction in FLCA, increased motivation for language learning and improved spoken skills. The effects differed somewhat between the countries, and the Polish English students were more affected than the Norwegian counterparts. Interestingly, the Norwegian Spanish students considered that reflecting and sharing stories was useful, but felt it had not helped them improve their speaking skills (Horverak et al., 2022).

Similar findings regarding reflection and meta-cognition were reported by Thompson and Mutton (2023) among students of French in the UK. After an intervention focusing on the explicit use of communicative strategies as a medium for reducing FLCA, the learners felt more confident and also spoke the target language more frequently in class (Thompson & Mutton, 2023).

To conclude, a recent overview from the Swedish Institute for Educational Research (Skolforskningsinstitutet, 2024) examined research on teaching speaking as a FL among learners aged 12–20 years old. The study comprised 16 studies, mainly from European countries. Given the specific status of English as a school subject, studies on teaching English were excluded; the languages included were French (mainly) and German (5). One study also included Spanish and one Chinese. Several of these investigations have already been described in the present section, but the authors of the report concluded that two general methods are particularly beneficial for developing spoken skills. The first is teacher feedback in the shape of recasts or prompts when students make mistakes in grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation. The second method concerns spontaneous talk between teachers and learners, which leads to a communicative use of the target language.

The present thesis will not, however, investigate teacher feedback specifically, but will instead explore if and how spontaneous talk occurs in the classroom. As has been presented in this chapter, there is research on the explicit teaching of speaking in the FL. In addition, previous research has established the prevalence of both the target and the majority language, and has shown

that the majority language is frequently spoken. This raises the question of when and how the target language is actually used in the Swedish ML classroom. Studies have also established that many students feel anxious about speaking a foreign language and that teachers struggle with both teaching and assessing spoken interaction.

In summary, previous research has established that students experience anxiety but desire to speak the target language. However, several gaps remain in the literature, for example, how speaking Spanish is performed in the Swedish ML classroom and how it is perceived by teachers and students. Since this requires further investigation, the present thesis will examine what is foregrounded when teachers and learners discuss speaking Spanish in lower secondary school. It will also explore when and how Spanish is spoken in the ML classroom.

## 4. Theoretical and conceptual frameworks

In the following chapter, theoretical and conceptual frameworks, central to understanding the teaching and learning of speaking in a FL, are presented. The study draws on a wide range of data, and the sections provide a comprehensive overview of the relevant concepts. This breadth of data aligns well with Goodland's (1979) framework, which explains different aspects of teaching and learning and is presented in section 4.1.1. below.

In many respects, the present thesis adopts a socio-cultural perspective on teaching and learning. This perspective is applied explicitly in paper I, but more implicitly in papers II and III. SCT, originating from Vygotsky (Lantolf et al., 2018; Van Compernelle, 2015), conceptualises learning as a socially situated process mediated through interaction, cultural tools and language itself. Teaching and learning to speak a FL emphasises dialogue and collaboration and views learning as something that happens through interaction, not only within the individual learner (Lightbown & Spada, 2015). This view also regards the classroom as a social space where meaning is jointly constructed, and scaffolding is a central concept (Gibbons, 2002; Säljö, 2014; Van Lier, 2004). In addition, language is both the object and the tool of learning, which means that language is simultaneously the content being taught (e.g. grammar or vocabulary), and the means through which learning takes place.

In sum, the present investigation is positioned within the fields of language teaching and learning as well as SCT. Therefore, section 4.1. describes the origins and present status of the field of *language didactics*. Section 4.1.2. outlines how the notion of *speaking* is understood in the present thesis, as well as how it connects to the didactic *what* question. In section 4.1.3., concepts related to teaching – the didactic *how* question, are described, followed by students' and teachers' perspectives – the didactic *who* question, in sections 4.2 and 4.3, respectively. Finally, section 4.4 explains important aspects of CLT that are relevant for understanding both teachers' perceptions and classroom processes.

### 4.1. Didaktik and didactics

The present investigation is positioned within the field of didactics, the Swedish *didaktik*, which can be interpreted as encompassing the processes and

conditions of formal teaching and learning. In the German and Scandinavian traditions, didaktik has been described as teachers' professional knowledge and is connected to both psychology and philosophy (Uljen, 1997; Wahlström, 2019). The academic discipline was developed from the broader field of pedagogy (Bengtsson, 1997).

The longer story began in 1632, when the Czech priest John Amos Comenius published the work *Didactica Magna*, which was a theory on the art of teaching, intended to comprise all aspects of education (Wahlström, 2019). Then, in 1806, in his *Allgemeine Pädagogik* (in Andrée & Bladh, 2021, pp. 79–80), the German philosopher Herbart developed an ethical and psychological perspective on pedagogy that has been influential in forming the discipline pedagogy. For example, he discussed the concept of *Pädagogischer Takt* and defined it as teachers' situated judgment – a competence that is highly relevant in contemporary teacher education.

In a Swedish context, the first didactic dissertation – although within the discipline of philosophy – was published in Uppsala in 1894 and investigated the school subject of the mother tongue (Dufvenberg, 1894). However, while pedagogy had been established as an academic discipline throughout the century (Bengtsson, 1997), didactics started to develop from a focus on teaching methods into a scientific field during the 1970s and was formalised in relation to a reformed teacher education in 1988 (Andrée & Bladh, 2021, pp. 74–76). Thereafter, research within didactics developed along two main directions. One is centred around phenomenography (Marton, 1983) and oriented towards subject education (see below in 5.3.), while the other is centred around curriculum studies and is more content-based (Englund, 1997). Currently, didactic research is labelled in a variety of ways, e.g. subject education, educational work, curricular studies or teaching or learning (Andrée & Bladh, 2021).

In didactics, the notion of the *didactic triangle* is well-established as a conceptualisation of the interplay between the components of education, generally placing the teacher, the student and the content at each angle. Teaching and learning are thus explained in terms of the relationships between these three parts. In the present thesis, however, the *didactic questions* are emphasised. The most frequent didactic questions are defined as follows: **What** is the learning aim or the content? **Why** should this content be learned? **Who** is the learner of this content? When summing up the answers to these questions, the teacher can decide **How** the content should best be taught? (Jank & Meyer, 1997; Wahlström, 2016).

Teachers make many sorts of *didactic decisions* (Oliynyk, 2021) in their daily practice, both those that are conscious and prepared and those that are spontaneous in the classroom. Almqvist et al. (2017) use the notion of *didactic dilemmas* to refer to didactic decisions made in situations without easy solutions, where one option often excludes another.

The concept of the *didactic contract* derives from French didactics and is a metaphor rather than an explicit contract, describing the implicit

understanding between teacher and students in the didactic situation in the classroom (Wahlström, 2019, pp. 32–33). This highly relational “contract” is not static but is regularly renegotiated depending on the educational situation. When the contract is “broken”, it is modified, which, in turn, can lead to learning (Brousseau & Balacheff, 1997).

One dimension of *Didaktik* concerns subject-specific teaching and learning, often referred to as *Subject education* or *Pedagogical content knowledge* (Klette, 2007; Shulman, 1987; Wahlström, 2019). Given that content and conditions differ between school subjects, teaching practices also differ. Consequently, teachers’ professional knowledge of how to transform subject knowledge into teachable matter must be subject-specific, to some extent.

The corresponding Swedish notion *ämnesdidaktik* may be translated as what Rothgangel and Vollmer (2020) call *Subject-matter didactics*. The authors problematise the lack of a common international term for scholarly communication on this topic. The notion of *Pedagogical content knowledge* (Shulman, 1987) comes closest to what they consider the core of subject didactics, namely the attempt to bring content, pedagogical considerations and teaching methods together as central knowledge within the teachers’ professional repertoire.

Nevertheless, it is not enough to capture the process of planning, teaching, learning and evaluation along with defined goals. It is important to find common European interpretations that encompass more than teaching methods and that do not oppose educational science and empirical educational research (Rothgangel & Vollmer, 2020). One suggestion is to continue theorising subject-matter didactics by letting the interplay between the didactic questions *What, Why, Who* and *How*, as explained above, to constitute the basis of new frameworks.

In the present thesis, the notion of *language didactics* is henceforth applied – in Swedish *Språkdidaktik* (Lindgren & Enever, 2015; Tornberg, 2020) – when referring to subject didactics and the teaching and learning of second and FLs. In Anglophone contexts, however, *language education* is the predominant term, given that “didactic” may suggest authoritative implications and a mere focus on methods (Lindgren & Enever, 2015, p. 13; Wahlström, 2019, p. 18). An additional rationale for applying the term *language didactics* in the present thesis is that the corresponding Spanish term is *didáctica de español como lengua extranjera* (didactics of Spanish as a FL).<sup>8</sup>

---

<sup>8</sup> Interestingly, the concept of *English didactics* is used in a Norwegian review of research on teaching and learning English (Rindal & Brevik, 2019).

#### 4.1.1. Understanding didactics through curriculum domains

One way of understanding all the dimensions of teaching and learning is to interpret different areas of teaching and learning. Goodlad (1979) refers to them as different *domains* in which curricula are understood and interpreted by different participants. Examples of the *formal curricula* include subject syllabuses and other legal steering documents, while the *perceived curricula* refer to teachers' planning and intentions, in other words, how teachers aim to enact education, called the "curricula of the mind" (Goodlad, 1979, p. 61).

The *operational curricula* concern how processes of teaching and learning are carried out in observed situations, while the *experiential curricula* refer to the students' own perceptions of teaching and learning. Behind, above or under (which is why Goodlad argues for the notion of "domain" instead of level), lies the *ideological curricula*, in other words, ideas, values, research or tacit knowledge that underpin the other curricula. One way to explain or interpret education is therefore to identify alignments and discrepancies between these different domains (Goodlad, 1979; Wahlström, 2016).

In other words, the present investigation can be understood in terms of experiential curricula (students' perceptions as expressed in interviews), the perceived curricula (teachers' beliefs as expressed in interviews) and the operational (speaking in the classroom, observations with fieldnotes, alongside audio and video recordings). The formal and ideological curricula of steering documents and underlying values and ideas were described in the previous chapter 2, *Background*.

Hence, this framework is particularly suitable for an investigation of this kind, given that the wide range of data includes perceptions and experiences as well as observations. The data enable us to identify alignments and discrepancies between perceptions, classrooms processes, steering documents and the underlying ideas and values about teaching and learning. This interpretation will be carried out in chapter 7, *discussion*, thereby contributing to knowledge of how speaking is perceived and approached in Spanish as a modern language class in Swedish lower secondary school. Given that the present investigation aims to explain how speaking is constructed, it is important to begin with the concept itself. The following section therefore outlines how *speaking* and *learning to speak* are understood in the present thesis.

#### 4.1.2. Speaking and learning to speak in the foreign language classroom: the didactic *what* question

To begin with the concept of *speaking*, it relates to the didactic what-question in the present thesis, given that it is the skill that should be taught and learned. When defining what is normally meant by speaking, it is closely linked to, and sometimes used interchangeably with, *communication*, as seen in section 4.2.1. Other related concepts include *oracy* and *orality*. However, the

following section aims to outline the notion of *speaking* as understood in terms of *spoken production* and *interaction*, as expressed in the Swedish syllabus for ML (Skolverket, 2017).

In the classroom, the four language skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking – are not always separable (Nation, 2011). Both in the classroom and outside of it, spoken interaction is more frequent than spoken production exclusively, which is why it is important to define it and separate the two:

Most often, speaking is an interactive activity. That is, we speak with others and take account of them in our speaking by suiting our output to them, and by acknowledging their input and seeking clarification of what they say.

(Nation, 2011, p. 446)

Levelt (1989); and Thornbury (2005) define the various phases of oral language production, starting with the conceptualisation phase, in which the speaker decides what to say, followed by the formulation phase, which concerns how to say it. This second phase is particularly difficult in a FL. The last stage is the articulation phase, the physiological process in which the speaker produces sounds through the organs of speech. Meanwhile, systems of self-monitoring and repair operate constantly on a meta-level, meaning that some degree of automaticity must develop in order to conserve cognitive resources. Speakers continuously monitor their own speech, given that they are their own listeners, which may lead to auto-correction (Levelt, 1989, p. 13).

In developing this speaking process model, De Bot (2004) argued that the monolingual model not only lacks explanations of “learning” per se but also describes cognitive and physiological processes exclusively among monolingual adults. A model of multilingual speaking must take both L1 and L2 into account and consider them either as two different systems or as totally integrated systems. Moreover, both cross-linguistic influences and the fact that speakers have varying proficiency in their languages need to be addressed in descriptions of spoken production and interaction, according to De Bot (2004). In other words, speaking is an overall multifaceted and complex skill in any language, highly demanding both cognitively and emotionally (Goh & Burns, 2012; Tornberg, 2020).

Speaking a second or FL can also be defined as a combination of three aspects, namely: Communication strategies, core speaking skills and knowledge of language and discourse (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 53). In this sense, core speaking skills are defined as pronunciation, speech function, interaction management and discourse organisation, while knowledge of language includes grammatical, lexical and phonological knowledge (Goh & Burns, 2012, pp. 59–60).

When it comes to second and FL learning, the *Input hypothesis* has been highly influential, explaining how substantial input of an L2 is necessary for language acquisition (Krashen, 1985). One aspect of this hypothesis concerns

the existence of a mental hinder – an *affective filter* – that has to be “lowered” in the learner’s mind if learning is to occur. Building on Krashen’s input hypothesis, Swain (1995) formulated the *Output hypothesis*, arguing that, in addition to comprehensible input, language learners need opportunities to produce language themselves, thereby noticing the gap between what they are able to express and what they want to express. A further development of the output hypothesis is the *Interaction hypothesis* (Long, 1996), explaining that not only pushed output but also meaningful interaction with others constitutes an indispensable parameter for language learning. The input hypothesis has had a major impact on language didactics, and most teachers are aware of the necessity of target language input, especially considering that the classroom is often the only place where Spanish and other modern languages can be heard (compare e.g. Bardel et al., 2019; Erickson et al., 2022).

Not only cognitive and socio-cultural factors but also emotional and affective aspects have recently been emphasised as essential aspects of language learning (Arnold, 2011; Dewaele et al., 2019; Swain, 2013). Krashen’s idea of an affective filter has been further investigated by others. Currently, the notions of *Foreign language anxiety* and correspondingly *Foreign language classroom anxiety* (Horwitz et al., 1986) are widely applied constructs that serve to describe negative emotions regarding the (primarily spoken) use of second and FLs in the classroom. Considering the learners’ emotions and psychological processes and the communicative purpose of language learning, Peter Macintyre (2007) developed the model for *Willingness to communicate* (WTC). This model involves all the complex and interdependent processes and conditions that determine whether an individual will choose to participate in spoken communication with others. This willingness may be conscious or unconscious and is always situational and contextual, depending on the communicative context and the speakers themselves. At the same time, the model attempts to describe the actual point of action at which the speaker makes the decision to communicate.

We have seen that speaking a FL is both cognitively and emotionally demanding, and that proficiency levels differ among learners, even though they may have studied the language within the same educational context. The assessment of proficiency constitutes an entirely inevitable part of teaching and learning, and quality in language production is often characterised and measured in terms of three parameters: *fluency*, *accuracy* and *complexity* (Michel, 2017; Skehan, 1998). There are, of course, several differences between written and spoken language production, one being that *fluency* is more prominent in speaking. Another crucial characteristic with regard to speaking is time pressure. This constraint limits the capacity to cognitively process meaning and linguistic knowledge simultaneously and leads speakers to prioritise meaning and to get the message through, over language accuracy (Skehan, 1998). While this section has outlined the main concepts regarding speaking and *learning to speak* a FL, the next section addresses the decisive concept of *teaching speaking*.

### 4.1.3. Aspects of communicative language teaching (CLT): the didactic *how* question

As outlined in section 2, *Background*, one defining characteristic of language didactics is its communicative approach. Theories and models of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972) have had a profound impact on language didactics and are commonly gathered under the umbrella term CLT, which emphasises a wider range of competences than mere linguistic ones. The core idea has been to move language teaching away from a primary focus on grammar and accuracy towards a focus on fluency, communicative interaction and comprehensible input. However, despite CLT having been the predominant doctrine for 40 years, there are still questions on how it should be interpreted and implemented in different educational contexts (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, pp. 2–4). In other words, the didactic *how* question, here understood as how CLT is best carried out, still does not have clearly defined answers.

One model for implementing CLT is the so-called TBLT (*Task Based Language teaching*) (Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Nunan, 2004). The fundamentals of TBLT are the establishment of a communicative need and the definition of a *task* as a meaning-focused activity with a gap, e.g. an information gap, where learners must use their own resources, both linguistic and non-linguistic, to complete the task. Activities categorised as *exercises* are different from *tasks*, since they include language practice instead of meaning-oriented language use. *Exercises* e.g. pronunciation or practicing linguistic forms, may well form the basis of pre-task activities, serving as preparations for task activities. A proper task needs a clearly defined outcome other than language use per se, which means that the language “only” functions as a medium, a tool, to accomplish something else, e.g. to solve a problem (Ellis & Shintani, 2014).

A similar model is provided by Littlewood (2004, 2018), establishing a continuum of *communicativeness* in language learning, going from a focus on form to a focus on meaning, and from explicit to implicit learning. The continuum provides a link between TBLT models and communicative language learning, given that both express aspects of CLT and are interrelated. Although the model basically describes language *learning*, it has been widely used to understand also language *teaching*. For example, Brito Engman and Aronsson (2022) developed an extended version of the communicative continuum with ten phases instead of five, in an investigation of Spanish task design in textbooks in Swedish secondary schools. Another possible development would be to identify fewer phases, for example three, thereby emphasising its continuous character even more strongly.

When it comes to analysing separate activities, the two dimensions of communicativeness and engagement have been combined in a framework for

activity design<sup>9</sup> (Littlewood, 2004, 2018). It allows for determining whether a learning activity includes communicative features, as well as whether it is engaging, and is thus particularly relevant for teaching speaking. According to this model, activities may be more or less engaging and/or more or less communicative, even though the aim of language teaching is to create activities that score high on both axes.

Within language didactics, an established method for teaching new content is the *Presentation-Practice-Production* (PPP) model (Anderson, 2017; Harmer, 2007). It has been considered a convenient way to teach grammar explicitly in the presentation and practice phases, and to also include communicative language production in the last phase, production. Moreover, it has the advantage of being easy for novice teachers to understand. However, the PPP-model has been questioned, partly for being teacher centred and not communicative, and partly because the last *P*, learners' own language production, does not occur to a sufficient extent in the language classroom (Svalberg, 2021).

When it comes to the explicit teaching of spoken skills, the *Teaching-speaking cycle* model (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 153) has gained ground. It comprises an iterative method that alternates between explicit teaching, metacognition, feedback and the performance of the actual speaking task. The Teaching-speaking cycle is underpinned by a triangular methodological framework (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 139) that identifies four key dimensions but puts the quality of spoken production; *complexity*, *accuracy* and *fluency*, at the core (compare section 5.1.1. above). The centre triangle is surrounded by the components *communication strategies*, *core speaking skills* and *knowledge of language and discourse*. At the base of the methodological triangle are the dimensions *The role of metacognition* and *Methods for organising learning activities*, which identify two additional considerations when designing speaking tasks (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 139).

With regard to teaching speaking, learners may have difficulties within one or all three phases: conceptualisation, formulation and articulation, which teachers must then address. Students may not know what to say about a topic, how to pronounce the words they plan to use or do not know the word(s) altogether. Although the formulation phase – figuring out how to say it – is most likely to cause problems for language learners, teachers need to establish what sort of support students need (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 39).

As shown in the prior paragraphs, there are various models to consider when it comes to planning teaching to promote communicative aims in language learning. In addition to these, one widespread framework is outlined by Nation (2007). He explains how language learning activities can and should be categorised into one of four different elements, so-called *strands*, which should be quantitatively balanced throughout a language course. These strands

---

<sup>9</sup> See appendix V.

are categorised as *meaning-focused input* and *meaning-focused output*, *fluency development* and *language focused learning*.

There are a number of prerequisites that must be met if an activity should be categorised within a strand. For example, in meaning-focused input (reading and listening), learners should be interested in the content and want to understand. They must also be able to use context and background knowledge to understand the content. In meaning-focused output (speaking and writing), the goal is to convey the message to others, and in order to do so, learners can use communication strategies, dictionaries or previous knowledge as supporting resources. Activities in this strand must provide a large quantity of input and plenty of opportunities for output. In both meaning-focused input and output, the content, as well as the majority of the language needed, must already be familiar to the learners.

In the strand for fluency development (reading, listening, writing and speaking), however, all language must be familiar to the learners so that understanding and meaning-making are in focus. There must also be a little pressure or encouragement to perform slightly faster than learners usually do. Activities in the strand language-focused learning, finally, correspond to the general concept of *focus on forms* (above) and include deliberate practice of language features, e.g. vocabulary, grammar, spelling and pronunciation (Nation, 2007).

## 4.2. Learner engagement and agency: the didactic *who* question

This section outlines two concepts that are similar but also distinct, namely *learner engagement* and *learner agency*. They are clearly connected to the didactic question of who the learner is. In addition, they can also be related to SCT, since they describe learning in relation to, and through the mediation of, others. Although learner engagement is more evident in the present thesis than agency, both are central to language learning and important for understanding both learning and learners.

Involvement is a prerequisite for all learning, and no less so when it comes to speaking and interacting in a FL. The present thesis investigates teaching and learning to speak also from a learner engagement perspective. This construct has been investigated systematically in relation to second language learning (Hiver et al., 2020; Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020) and, by its nature, like classroom learning, is both dynamic and contextual. It is characterised as the degree of involvement in a learning activity. Engagement is a useful approach in interpreting students' experiences, as well as their actual behaviour in the language classroom. Hiver et al. (2020) categorise engagement into various dimensions. Behavioural engagement defines how the learner engages in and

takes initiative, while cognitive engagement describes the mental effort in learning. Social engagement highlights the relational context and interaction with others, and affective engagement comprises students' feelings related to school and school activities. This affective dimension is considered a particularly powerful mechanism that can either foster or hinder engagement. The last dimension, task engagement, is understood as students' observable participation in specific tasks and is generally examined in terms of behavioural engagement, focusing on the actions a task provokes. In the present thesis, task engagement and behavioural engagement are identified in the classroom recording data, while cognitive, social and affective engagement are discernible in the interview data.

Closely related to engagement, *Learner agency* has been described as a complex dynamic system where emotions, motivation and self-regulation interact, and lead to the learner's experienced possibilities to act (Mercer, 2012). Ahearn (2001) defines it as the learner's 'sociocultural mediated capacity to act' (Ahearn, 2001, p. 112), and the original CEFR (2001) described the language learner as a social agent who needs to employ agency in the learning process. In other words, agency appears to be particularly important when learning to speak a new language. However, learner agency normally refers to a sense of capacity or possibility, whereas engagement is generally observable by teachers in the classroom. As explained above, the concept of *engagement* involves action in a way that is not necessary for the concept of *agency*. Lastly, engagement is highly relevant for the purpose of the present thesis: 'Engagement has immediate appeal, too, because it is a construct that looks at teaching and learning together' (Hiver et al., 2020, p. 2).

### 4.3. Language teacher cognition: the didactic *who* question

Like the frameworks on learner agency and engagement, the teacher's emotions, experiences and beliefs are connected to the didactic *who* question, but in this case, it concerns who the teacher in the classroom is. Given that the classroom is a social arena, teachers need to be socio-emotionally competent in their profession (Gkonou et al., 2018).

Research on language teacher beliefs, thoughts, knowledge, perceptions and assumptions is commonly gathered under the notion of *Language Teacher Cognition* (Borg, 2015; Burns et al., 2015), which identifies unobservable dimensions of teachers' minds. It comprises the interplay of schooling experiences, professional coursework, contextual factors and classroom practice, explained as the 'Unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching - what teachers know, think and believe' (Borg, 2003, p. 81). It is clear that

beliefs play a significant role in transforming teaching plans into learning activities and, subsequently, into learning outcomes (Krogager Andersen, 2021).

Although a FL may be considered unique to teach, given that the language itself is both the medium and the learning aim (Borg, 2006), comparisons with teaching other subjects show that the educational context, for example, national curricula, the student's age, and the status of the subject at school or national level, has a major impact on the way teachers perceive and reflect upon teaching (Haukås et al., 2022; Wesely et al., 2024). Beliefs about how best to teach speaking vary to a great extent, but research has emphasised that it is important to have a high level of language proficiency (Fernandez & Pozzo, 2021).

#### 4.4. Sociocultural theory and language didactics.

As described in the introduction of this chapter, language didactics and SCT are interrelated in several ways, and the present thesis adopts a socio-cultural perspective, given that speaking generally occurs with the purpose of interacting with others. The theory is applied explicitly in paper III, but it is relevant for addressing all three research questions. The following section briefly describes SCT and how it is linked to teaching and learning to speak a FL.

Vygotskian SCT is based on the idea that learning and development occur within a social context and are mediated through the use of tools (Vygotsky, 1978). Among these tools, language is considered the most powerful, mediating thinking, learning and communication. Thus, SCT has been developed and is now essential in all education. It is also important in research on second- and foreign language learning, given that language and communication play a central role in human psychological functions (Lantolf et al., 2018; Van Compernelle, 2015).

Given that learning is mediated by various means, SCT explains that the most efficient learning occurs within the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD). This hypothetical zone represents the developmental state that humans can achieve with the help of other mediating tools, typically other people, but cannot yet achieve on their own (Lantolf et al., 2018; Xi & Lantolf, 2021). In the context of learning to speak a FL, the ZPD encompasses language that a learner can produce with scaffolding from teachers, textbooks or peers, but cannot yet produce independently.

##### 4.4.1. The languages in the FL classroom

Considering that language itself is the most important tool for thinking, communication and mediation and given that the present thesis investigates speaking and interaction, it is necessary to address the different languages that are

actually spoken. The following section covers some important concepts in this matter.

The umbrella term *multilingual turn* (May, 2013), refers to the current paradigm that moves away from a monolingual approach, where the aim of learning additional languages is to become a native-like speaker of the target language. The multilingual turn suggests a more dynamic approach and stresses that both society and individuals benefit from overall language development, in school as well as outside of school (May, 2013). One example is the following text about the aims in the Swedish syllabus for modern languages:

The teaching shall give pupils the opportunity to develop multilingualism and confidence in their ability to use the language in different situations and for a variety of purposes

(Skolverket, 2022b, p. 67)

Currently, the notion of *translanguaging* (García et al., 2018) is gaining traction, focusing on speakers' linguistic resources at a personal level. In contrast to the established concept of *code-switching*, a translanguaging perspective views languages not as being mentally switched on or off, but as active, with all of a person's languages available simultaneously and serving as useful tools for learning new languages. A recent literature review highlights a trend in curricula and educational practice towards increased use of, and knowledge about, pedagogical translanguaging (Fuster & Bardel, 2024) as a medium for learning.

The present thesis does not explicitly address the function of the learners' full linguistic resources in the classroom, as it does not investigate the students' language backgrounds; instead, it focuses on the language classroom and the Spanish group as a whole. Thus, it centres on the target and majority languages (Spanish and Swedish), with the few examples of English identified in the data being categorised as part of the majority language.

The well-established notion of *code-switching* was used in the teacher interviews, referring to instances when speakers change languages. It was not necessary to define this term for the teachers, allowing the interviews to run smoothly without unnecessary interruptions. However, in the remaining parts of the thesis, the term *language alternation* (Musk & Cromdal, 2018) is applied to refer to instances when speakers change languages. This term is understood as an overarching concept and emphasises that a code does not necessarily mean a language, as codes can also be, e.g. dialects, sociolects or modalities.

In summary, and in alignment with the multilingual turn discussed above, a monolingual approach is currently problematised in second and FL education, which makes it particularly relevant for the present investigation:

Although researchers still disagree about how and whether optimal first language use can be defined, there is one point of agreement on which there remains no doubt: there is simply no evidence that a prescribed target-language only environment is beneficial to learners, and there is ample evidence that it may be detrimental. It is therefore essential for instructors and policy-makers to keep in mind that we need to begin envisioning learners not as ineffective and imperfect monolingual speakers of the target language, but as aspiring bilinguals.

(Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009, p. 186).

#### 4.4.1. Learner collaboration and scaffolding

A concept that aligns well with the principles of the zone of proximal development in SCT is that of *collaborative dialogues*, or knowledge-building dialogues (Swain, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2000), which emphasise that shared knowledge becomes more substantial and distinct from the sum of each individual's knowledge. In collaborative dialogues, learners work together to solve communicative or linguistic tasks, which, in the context of learning to speak a FL, could mean that more language is learned than if each student were working individually.

In addition, the notion of *scaffolding* stems from Vygotsky's theory and is inspired by the zone of proximal development, although the term itself was not used by Vygotsky. It is commonly interpreted as something learners can do with support now, but probably will be able to do on their own later (Gibbons, 2002; Säljö, 2014). Scaffolding is contextual by nature and can best be defined as assisted performance adapted to a specific educational situation (Stetsenko, 1999; Van Lier, 2004). In language learning, scaffolding is multifaceted; yet in relation to learning to speak a FL in the ML classroom, the use of learners' strongest language can serve a scaffolding function. This has been demonstrated, for example, by Macaro (2001) in the FL learning context and by Cummins (1979) in the L2 learning context. Another type of scaffolding can be found in the structure of a task, such as providing access to written language or repeated words, expressions or phrases (Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Goh, 2017).

Clearly, collaboration between learners constitutes a sort of scaffolding and is particularly relevant in spoken tasks, as is the case in the present investigation. For example, Donato (1994) introduced the concept of *collective scaffolding* to describe situations when both proficient and less proficient learners jointly perform beyond their existing capacity, showing how the roles of expert and novice may vary throughout the performance of a language task.

To conclude, this chapter has outlined theoretical and conceptual frameworks of significance for understanding the teaching and learning of speaking a FL in schools. The present investigation contributes to the field of language didactics and is inspired primarily by SCT, given that human behaviour and

relations impact learning and classroom processes, as well as teachers' didactic decisions.

## 5. Methodology

The following chapter outlines how the studies were designed and the data were analysed, explaining the decisions that were made during both the collection and analysis of the data.

### 5.1. Research design

The present thesis adopts a qualitative approach, although the analysis of classroom recordings includes quantitative features, considering that the time devoted to different classroom procedures is significant (Coe et al., 2017).

Initially, a pilot study was carried out in collaboration with Frida, a pseudonym for the teacher, where six lessons were audio- and video-recorded in a group of Spanish as a ML in school year nine. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the research design before the actual data collection. Frida was instructed not to change her teaching due to the research project, but to carry out as “normal” lessons as possible. After the pilot study, several methodological decisions were made regarding the design of the main study. To begin with, the camera at the back of the classroom was confirmed to capture both image and sound at an acceptable quality. Moreover, it was determined that six lessons were not necessary to get a picture of the educational pattern; rather, four to five lessons per group were enough, as also suggested by Klette et al. (2017, p. 10) Thus, four lesson observations per group were planned, including the possibility to observe a fifth lesson if needed, for example, if the teachers indicated that they had planned something considerably different from the others. To increase the sound quality, one dictaphone was attached to the teacher, in addition to five dictaphones placed on the students’ desks. In addition to these changes, the major difference between the pilot and main study was the decision to include interviews with teachers and students. This was scheduled to occur after the lesson observations, in order to minimise the interference and possible impact on teaching and learning.

For the main study, data were collected during 21 lessons in five Spanish groups in different Swedish lower secondary schools. The two criteria for participation in the study were: being certified as a Spanish teacher and currently teaching Spanish as a ML in year nine. The students were in their ninth year

of school (15–16-years-old) and had studied Spanish since their sixth school year. Each group consisted of 15 to 31 students.

## 5.2. Data collection

In the data collection, an effort was made to select schools from different socio-economic areas and schools that were not too small, given that the conditions for teaching and learning MLs can differ. Fortunately, this aim was achieved, and five teachers from lower secondary schools in and around two cities in mid-Sweden participated in the main study. In the transcriptions, they were assigned Spanish pseudonyms aligned with their gender: Ana, Beatriz, Claudia, Diana and Eduardo, in other words, one male and four female teachers.

All in all, the data collection resulted in the following amount of material, applied differently throughout the investigation, as presented in table 2:

Table 2

	<b>Total time</b>	<b>Number of files</b>	<b>Sources for RQ1:</b> <i>What is foregrounded when teachers and students discuss speaking Spanish as a ML?</i>	<b>Sources for RQ2:</b> <i>In which contexts do students use the target language in the classroom?</i>	<b>Sources for RQ3:</b> <i>How is students' spoken language realised in the classroom?</i>
<b>Video-recordings of 21 lessons</b>	18 hrs and 56 mins	21		x	x
<b>Audio-recordings of 21 lessons</b>	104 hrs and 18 mins	113		x	x
<b>5 teacher interviews</b>	3 hrs and 23 mins	5	x		
<b>15 student interviews in pairs (=30 students)</b>	4 hrs and 11 mins	15	x		

### 5.2.1. Teacher and student interviews

The interviews were conducted in Swedish, since Swedish was the language of communication outside the lessons. Quotations were translated into English by me. The five teachers participating in the main study had between 5 and 20 years of teaching experience.

During the classroom observations, particular attention was paid to spoken activities, in other words, situations when the target language, Spanish, was spoken – preferably by the students themselves. When such activities were found, three or four were highlighted in the interviews, and the informants were asked questions concerning the purpose of these activities and their perceived outcomes. The idea of the spoken activities was to conduct a retrospective reflection on classroom activities when Spanish had been spoken.

This retrospective part cannot be defined as proper *stimulated recall* (Gass & Mackey, 2017), a method where informants are shown recordings or transcripts of their own performance and then asked questions about it. This was rather an introspective method, and the interviewees were shown pictures of the activity from the board, textbooks or notebooks to help them recall the activity. In this study, the questions were asked without recordings or transcripts of the teachers and the students in action.

The interviews, conducted a few days after the last lesson, were semi-structured (Alvesson & Torhell, 2011), a common method in qualitative research that allows for follow-up questions and enables informants to elaborate on relevant themes. The duration of the teacher interviews was between 33 and 57 minutes. The 15 student interviews were conducted in pairs and were also audio-recorded. Each interview lasted between 7 and 24 minutes. Several students asked whether the interview had to be carried out in Spanish, and upon learning that the language choice was optional, only one student spoke some words in Spanish; the rest spoke entirely in Swedish.

The qualitative research interview is not a neutral medium, but rather a meeting point within a specific context, according to Kvale and Brinkmann (2014). The researcher is an unknown adult, and the interviewees are teenagers used to being assessed. To reduce any tension, pair-interviews were chosen instead of individual ones.

Regarding the selection of informants, each teacher, who was familiar with the students, was asked to choose six students of different linguistic proficiency levels and/or with different attitudes towards the school subject, ML. For reasons of representativeness, and in alignment with the research aim, this approach was a way to gather a range of different experiences and opinions.

#### **5.2.1.1. The interview guides<sup>10</sup>**

The teacher interview guide was arranged in four parts, where the first part covered questions about the educational context and the teachers' professional profile. The second part focused on teaching oral skills. The third part addressed the purpose and outcomes of the spoken activities, if any, and the fourth concerned the teachers' own language use and code-switching between the target and majority languages.

---

<sup>10</sup> See appendix II for the two guides.

The student interview guide was structured in three parts. The first part concerned speaking Spanish in general and speaking Spanish in class in particular. The second part covered questions about perception and learning in the spoken activities. The third part of the interview was intended to draw on the students' long experience as language learners and focused on the advice they would give to future language teachers when it comes to the teaching and learning of speaking.

### 5.2.2. Classroom observations and recordings

During the 21 lessons, the video camera was placed at the back of the classroom. Photos of the textbooks and the whiteboard were also taken. Two schools had long lessons twice a week, with an average time of 80 minutes per lesson, and three schools had lessons three times a week, with an average time of 50 minutes/lesson. The teachers were asked not to adapt their teaching for the research project but rather to proceed with "business as usual" and carry out what was already planned.

Fieldnotes were taken, recording the character and duration of each activity, with a special focus on the content and the skills that were practised. Activities that involved oral skills were highlighted and specifically addressed in the interviews.

### 5.3. Ethical considerations

In investigations with teenagers in authentic classrooms, several ethical issues arise. In the present thesis, the ethical guidelines of the Swedish Research Council were followed (Vetenskapsrådet, 2024). Neither the teacher in the pilot study nor the five teachers in the main study were previously known to me; they volunteered to participate via e-mail or through language teacher groups on social media. They were asked personally, rather than via their principal or manager, to avoid making them feel pressured. Since no personal or sensitive information was to be collected, it was decided that the project did not require explicit ethical approval from the Swedish Research Council.

When introducing the project, its purpose and setting were presented orally to each group by me. I particularly stressed the voluntary nature of the research, the participants' anonymity and their possibility to interrupt participation at any time. Furthermore, the information included the research purpose, plan and methods and emphasised that there were no risks related to participation. The oral information was accompanied by a written form that included the same information.

Written consent for the study was to be signed by the teachers and the principal of each school, as well as by the students themselves and both their

parents or guardians.<sup>11</sup> The student version was linguistically adapted to their age and proficiency level in Swedish.

At the end of the observation period, the teachers selected six students per group, of varying proficiency levels and attitudes towards Spanish, to participate in the interviews. At no point were the students' names, genders or any other personal information recorded. The decision to have teachers select the students was also made as a method of ensuring transparency (c.f. Alvesson & Torhell, 2011). A few students in each group did not participate in the investigation, and it was ensured that they were placed outside the reach of the cameras and dictaphones. Notes from the data collection were stored in a locked facility at the university, and the recorded material was stored on secure platforms inaccessible to unauthorised individuals.

## 5.4. Limitations

No information about the students' language background or gender was collected due to the ethical considerations described in section 5.3. The rationale is that the study focuses on teaching Spanish in ML groups, as well as on classroom procedures, rather than on individual learners and their personal prerequisites. Nevertheless, personal student background data could have enabled other interpretations of the interview answers or spoken language.

The teachers were requested to invite students with different linguistic proficiency levels and/or with different attitudes towards Spanish to participate in the interviews. This method was chosen to capture a wider spectrum of perspectives, ranging from less motivated to more motivated students. However, I cannot entirely confirm whether this selection was in fact representative. The interview answers did indicate, though, that not all students were fond of speaking Spanish or of Spanish as a school subject.

With regard to the classroom recordings, it is unlikely that the students completely forgot about the recording equipment throughout the lessons, which had been the original intention. Although activities generally appeared to proceed as usual, on a few occasions during the first lessons, admonitions, such as 'Remember, she [probably referring to me] is going to listen to this afterwards!', could be heard in the audio recordings.

Finally, it cannot be ruled out that the students were influenced, to some extent, by my presence. Although I stayed silent at the back of the classroom, the number of observed lessons was too limited for my presence to become normalised, which may have contributed to an observer effect.

---

<sup>11</sup> See appendix II.

## 5.5. Data analysis

The following section describes how the collected data were analysed and sorted, which led to the findings of the study. Section 5.5.1. outlines the interview data related to the first research question and also to the first paper. In 5.5.2, the analysis tied to the second and third research questions is described, and this analysis is applied in the second paper. The analysis described in section 5.5.3 is similarly tied to the second and third research questions, but is applied in the third paper.

### 5.5.1. Teacher and student interviews

The five teacher and fifteen student interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed and analysed following the procedures of qualitative content analysis according to Graneheim and Lundman (2004). The teacher interviews were analysed first during a very long and complex process. Once this analysis was complete, the student interviews were analysed. When initiating the student interviews, the decision was made to sort the data according to the didactic questions in search of categories and subcategories, as described below. In this sense, the analysis of the student interviews was more deductive and less inductive than that of the teacher interviews. The method of qualitative content analysis is a process of decision-making and interpretation (Elliott, 2018). Graneheim and Lundman (2004) and Lindgren et al. (2020) describe this abstraction procedure as going from the manifest to the latent content in the data, a process allowing interpretations at various levels in different phases of the investigation.

Elliott (2018) describes coding as a process of reducing data. The first step, according to Graneheim and Lundman (2004), is to select units of analysis, called *meaning units*, which can consist of words, sentences or more than one sentence. Each meaning unit has a specific, interrelated content and can consist of ‘words or statements that relate to the same central meaning’ (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004, p. 106), which is what distinguishes one unit from the next. The next step in reducing, or condensing, the data is to create *condensed meaning units* (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004), a procedure still close to the manifest content.

In the interview data of the present thesis, the transcribed material was first divided into *meaning units* and thereafter into *condensed meaning units*. The *condensed meaning units* had the advantage of being shorter and, thus, more visible and manageable during the analytic work.

The next analytic phase involved looking for commonalities in the utterances and creating *categories* and *subcategories* that shared these commonalities while distinguishing them from others (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Hence, the condensed meaning units were coded into groups with common features in order to define categories and subcategories. Since the interview

transcriptions were made in Excel, new columns could be created next to the original utterances, a method that allowed the analyst to keep a constant eye on the original utterances and remain close to the manifest content during the interpretation process.

Coding is always done for a purpose and within a specific context (Elliott, 2018). Since the data in this study concerns central aspects of didactics, it was suitable to apply the didactic questions to scaffold the analytic process towards abstraction. Thus, a procedure was used in which condensed meaning units were sorted under the didactic questions simultaneously with the creation of categories and subcategories. This method also turned out to be a useful tool in reducing overlaps in categorisation, as decisions had to be made about the core content of each meaning unit before creating categories under *Who?* *What?* and *How?* The question always to be asked was: what is foregrounded in a meaning unit? For example, when a student describes an activity as difficult, what is then in focus? Does it mainly deal with the student's personal abilities or emotions (*Who*), the content of the activity (*What*) or can the difficulty, in fact, be found in the educational setting (*How*)? This decision-making process was a recurring feature during the analysis and was carried out in collaboration with fellow researchers. Although some items were double-coded, the use of the didactic questions made the categorisation process more transparent. Tables 3 and 4 below present two examples of categories:

Example from a adjeteacher interview

Table 3

Meaning unit	Condensed meaning unit	Category and description - <i>Who?</i>
<i>But I think that's the hardest part, to involve those students who think it's scary.</i>	The most difficult is to engage anxious students	<b>Students' emotions and sense of security</b> – How instruction is perceived by the students, both the subject in general and spoken skills in particular.

Example from a student interview

Table 4

Meaning unit	Condensed meaning unit	Category and description - <i>What?</i>
Interviewer: – <i>Can you define what you think you learned through this activity?</i>	The students worked on expressing opinions and emotions and to use pronouns	<b>Thematic topics, vocabulary, linguistic structures</b> - The learning content per se; What the students learn/learned or were supposed to learn.

<p>-We learned to express how you think and feel and whether you like it or not. -And how you conjugate this, "me", "te", etc..</p>		<p>Generally related to specific classroom activities.</p>
---	--	--

In both the teacher and student interview data, the utterances in the interviews were mainly related to the questions *Who? What? and How?* The overarching question *Why?* did not correspond to specific meaning units or categories, but rather served as a justification for them, e.g. when students explained why a certain content was difficult.<sup>12</sup>

The last phase of the analytical process was to define *themes*, which are interpretations of the latent content within the categories, in alignment with the definition below:

We consider a theme to be a thread of an underlying meaning through, condensed meaning units, codes or categories, on an interpretative level. A theme can be seen as an expression of the latent content of the text.

(Graneheim & Lundman, 2004, p. 107)

In the teacher interviews, 534 meaning units were analysed, resulting in 16 categories and two subcategories. In the student interviews, 1,342 meaning units were analysed, and 10 categories and seven subcategories were created. Eventually, four themes were identified from the interview material.

### 5.5.2. Classroom observations

In order to analyse spoken target language and classroom processes that influence teaching and learning, an appropriate instrument was needed. The *Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Schemes* (COLT) (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995)<sup>13</sup> provides a method for observing and analysing FL classrooms. Part A of COLT is a tool for analysing whole-class activities, and part B is used for analysing transcribed interactions, either teacher-student/s or student-student/s. The COLT schemes are widely used and open for adjustments in alignment with specific research aims. One development of the COLT-scheme A is the *Speaking Observation Scheme* (SOS) (Llovet Vilà,

<sup>12</sup> In addition to the sorting under the three didactic questions above, four categories were created in the teacher interviews, sorted under *Contextual factors*. These categories fall beyond the scope of the present study and are: Collaboration between teachers and schools, conditions of assessment, professional development and other frame factors.

<sup>13</sup> See appendix III.

2016),<sup>14</sup> which has been used to investigate oral skill development in Norwegian Spanish classes and thus was a suitable basis for the aims of the present thesis.

The *Revised SOS* (see figure 3 below) was developed and included three dimensions: *Structure* (columns A-E), *Speaking* (columns F-I) and *Communicativeness in target language spoken activities* (columns J-N).

### Revised Speaking Observation Scheme

Dimensions													
Structure: A-E					Spoken language: F-I				Communicativeness J-N				
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
Structure - time, units		Structure - participant organisation			Spoken language - teacher		Spoken language - students		Communicativeness in target language spoken activities				
Unit duration approx. minutes	Unit	Class	Group/ pair	Individual	Teacher speaks majority language including language alternation	Teacher speaks target language including language alternation	Students speak majority language including language alternation	Students speak target language including language alternation, Borrowing or Production	Non-communicative learning	Pre-communicative language practice	Communicative language practice	Structured communication	Authentic communication

Figure 3

The events during the 21 lessons were described and divided into *Classroom Analytical Units* (CAUs). The analysis followed the guidelines of the original COLT A-scheme and did not code units shorter than one minute (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995).

To analyse classroom procedures in the ML classroom, a thematic analysis was conducted from the revised SOS, using the methodology of Braun and Clarke (2006). According to their model, the analytical work involves six phases: familiarising yourself with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and finally producing the report. The definition of a theme is that it captures something important, a pattern in the data, related to the research question. The early stages of familiarisation with the data were initiated already through the creation of the *Revised SOS*. In accordance with the thematic approach, tentative categories were created and refined in an iterative process to find commonalities and differences. These categories were eventually called *Activity types*.

Considering that the present thesis investigates spoken target language in classroom activities, the units were coded under the dimension *Spoken language*. In alignment with the pilot study, both teachers and students occasionally used the majority language within the target language, while the majority

<sup>14</sup> See appendix IV.

language also included words or expressions in the target language. Other languages did not seem to play a significant role in the classrooms.

Below in table 5, is a transcribed excerpt of a unit that was coded as *Target language including language alternation* from Diana's class. After the teacher's instructions, the students were asked to describe what they were wearing that day. The target language is underlined in the excerpt in table 5 below.

Table 5

Speaker	Utterance	Translation
T	<u>Vais a hablar en grupos...y la pregunta es: ¿Qué ropa llevas hoy? Yo llevo un jersey azul</u> /.../Hablar en grupos, 'hoy llevo...' ¿Qué llevas? Berätta för varandra vad ni har på er.	You are going to talk in groups... and the question is: What are you wearing today? I wear a blue sweater /.../Talk in groups 'today I'm wearing... What are you wearing? Tell each other what you are wearing
S1	Ok... Jag börjar. <u>Hoy llevo un...camiseta lila. Y... unos pantalones... blanco y negro...y...zapatillas, azul y blanco.. no blanca... sí, y tú?</u>	Ok. I start. Today I am wearing a purple t-shirt. And... white and black pants... and blue and white sneakers, no whitea... yes, ¿and you?
S2	<u>Hoy llevo un....camiseta blanca, y pantalones negros y zapatillas blanc... as</u>	I wear an white T-shirt, and black pants and whit....e sneakers.
S1	Yeah... [inaudible] det kanske är... <u>suéter?</u>	Yeah... [inaudible] Perhaps it is sweater?
S2	<u>Suéter... jag vet inte vad det är? Camiseta ?</u>	Sweater... I don't know what it is? T-shirt?

Thereafter, in alignment with the model proposed by Littlewood (2004, 2018), communicativeness in the spoken activities was coded across five phases The phase in the middle, *Communicative language practice*, includes new information or a gap to bridge, in other words, a need for communication. Thus, units in this phase, as well as those to the right of it, *structured communication* and *authentic communication*, were considered to focus on meaning and content, while the two phases on the left, *non-communicative* and *pre-communicative*, were considered to focus on form and structures. Moreover, progression towards unpredictability guided the classification, as did the verbs used to indicate whether the language was to be *practised* or *used*.

### 5.5.3. Interaction in peer activities

In three of the five Spanish groups, spoken peer activities were identified. From each of these classrooms, two activities from each group were selected for analysis. The six activities were selected on the criterion that at least two

different small groups engaged in spoken interactions without the teacher's participation. Interactions were excluded either because of teacher interference or because they were too short or had too poor audio quality. All interactions in the task that were audible were transcribed.

The selected 20 spoken peer interactions were then transcribed. During the process, the video-recordings were useful in identifying speakers in the audio recorded, partly noisy, classrooms. The amount and type of spoken output differed substantially between the interactions, depending on different factors, e.g. how many students participated and what, and how much, each student contributed.

The purpose of the investigation in paper III was to identify different functions in peer interaction and to examine whether, and how, these functions were related to the choice of either a target or a majority language. Hence, the first step was to identify when each language was spoken. The target language was highlighted in the transcripts, while the majority language, along with the few English words that occurred, was not marked.

The initial plan was to apply Conversational Analysis (CA) as the analytic tool throughout the analytic process. This appeared to be a rational approach, given that the collected data consisted of conversations, which have a purpose and are structured in a way that can be identified (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). A basic principle of CA is that speaking turns in interaction are interconnected and have a certain type of organisation, generally referred to as sequence organisation, where actions in conversation reflect what speakers do with language. In other words, actions are implemented through talk (Schegloff, 2007, p. 9).

However, only two methodological tools from CA were applied in the analysis, namely the identification of *adjacency pairs* (APs) and, subsequently, *sequences*. APs were suitable units of analysis, as they often occur without alternation between languages (Filipi & Markee, 2018; Sato & Ballinger, 2016). One adjacency pair, in its minimal form, is constructed through two related speaking turns, performed by two different speakers. Then, a sequence is formed by one or more adjacency pairs that are interrelated in a coherent way (Schegloff, 2007, p. 13).

In the search for specific language functions in student interaction, a more inductive approach was needed. Hence, from this point onwards, instead of applying CA, a thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was conducted and used as the method of analysis. In this iterative and reflective process of finding commonalities and differences between sequences, the first step was to determine the communicative role of the language in each sequence. The second step was to establish if, and how, the function in one sequence differed from the next one. The initial and common feature was that speakers either performed the assigned task without interruption or collaborated to solve problems in order to complete the task. These two categories also appeared to align with the choice of either target or majority language.

## 5.6. Reflections on methodological choices

To begin with, I am a language teacher myself, with 20 years of experience teaching Spanish as a ML in Swedish lower secondary schools. This position has advantages and disadvantages, which are important to consider. On the one hand, my profound knowledge of the educational context was beneficial. On the other hand, there was a risk that the data might be interpreted through the lens of my own experiences rather than from the participants' perspectives. Moreover, there was a risk that assumptions might be taken for granted instead of being critically problematised and analysed from a research perspective. Hence, throughout the processes of data collection and analysis, I maintained ongoing discussions with several fellow researchers concerning this unique, yet challenging, position. Their support, together with the diversity of their professional backgrounds, including both teaching and non-teaching experience in lower secondary schools, was particularly valuable.

During the data collection, several important choices were made, which is an unavoidable part of the research process. In order to strengthen the study's validity and reliability, the most important decisions are outlined in the following section, as well as the rationale for making them.

The first decision relates to the selection of schools and the ambition to include municipality-run schools in different socio-economic areas. Researchers do not always have the possibility to select exactly the informants they wish; but fortunately, teachers who were willing to participate were identified, although a significant number had to be contacted. A smaller sample of schools, or a more homogenous sample, might have made the didactic implications less credible.

After all, the aim is to contribute important knowledge that is useful for teachers and relevant for average schools—larger schools located in various areas. It matters because, in smaller or private schools, there could have been a different situation regarding student motivation and teacher's working conditions. For example, in schools where students travel to Spain together, motivation is probably different from that in schools where students lack this possibility.

The second decision is related to the teachers and the choice to include only certified Spanish teachers. This decision is grounded in the belief that teacher education matters. Although uncertified teachers can manage classroom challenges well, certification is proof that the government recognises the professional competence.

The third decision relates to comparisons, which could have been made explicitly among the five teachers and their classrooms. Nevertheless, the sample is small – with only five teachers and their respective groups – and such comparisons would therefore not have been generalisable. Another comparison could have been made between the students' proficiency levels, both in the interviews and in the recordings. Considering the aim of the present

thesis, however, teachers were instead asked during the interviews to provide a representative collection.

The final issue concerns methodology. The interviews were not conducted with “proper” stimulated recall methodology, although this would have been technically possible. Ethical considerations were key to this decision, as the recordings would have displayed not only the speaker but also their peers, which is particularly sensitive when working with teenagers. When participants gave their consent, they were not informed that they would later listen to recordings of themselves, which was a decisive reason for not replaying the recordings. A researcher is an invited guest in a classroom, a foreign person who must navigate respectfully in a workplace where teaching and learning occurs.

## 6. Results

The aim of the present thesis is to study how speaking is perceived and performed within the subject Spanish as a ML in Swedish lower secondary school. Three overarching research questions have formed the basis in the investigation. The study in paper I addresses the thesis' first research question: *what is foregrounded when teachers and students discuss speaking Spanish as a ML in Swedish lower secondary school?*

The second and third research questions – *In which contexts do students use the target language in the classroom?* and *How is students' spoken target language realised in the classroom?* are addressed in paper II. Paper III addresses the third research question more in depth and focused exclusively on the spoken language between students in the classroom.

### 6.1. Summary of the papers

In the following section, the main content of the three papers is summarised, highlighting how the findings and conclusions contribute to the research field of language didactics, in particular to the teaching and learning of speaking in a FL. In addition, the section outlines the bridges between the papers, explaining how they are linked together and how one is built upon the other.

#### Paper I

The first study, *Didactic dilemmas and possibilities: Teachers' and students' perceptions of speaking Spanish in foreign language education in Swedish lower secondary school* (Nyström, 2025a), investigates how both teachers and students experience the teaching and learning of speaking, thus addressing the first research question. In interviews with both teachers and students at five schools, participants were asked to reflect on actual spoken interactions that had been observed, as well as on their general perceptions of teaching and learning to speak Spanish.

The goal was to explore what is emphasised when teachers and students talk about speaking Spanish. In the interviews, participants were asked general questions about their perceptions of speaking; in addition, they were asked to recall specific spoken activities. The data were then analysed via qualitative

content analysis (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004) and structured around the three didactic questions: who, what, and how. In section 5.5.1, this analytical process is described in detail.

Four main *didactic dilemmas* (Almqvist et al., 2017) were identified, which are understood as choices that teachers make when planning and carrying out teaching. A dilemma, in this sense, is a complex educational decision in which one option often excludes another. In the study, the following dilemmas were identified in the context of teaching Spanish as a FL:

1. *Speaking as authentic or adapted practice*, which concerns whether speaking activities should aim for authentic language use, in other words, real-world Spanish communication, or more adapted and scaffolded practice tailored to students' language level. Teachers struggle with how realistic the speaking tasks can be versus how controlled they need to be in order to support learning.

2. *Accommodating each individual student or the whole group*. This tension relates to whether teaching speaking should consider both the students' individual differences, needs and confidence, as well as the class as a whole. Teachers express a challenge in differentiating for different learners, ensuring that all students have opportunities to speak, with the need to keep the class progressing together.

3. *Planning and conducting spoken activities in whole-class or small-group settings*. The third dilemma concerns how speaking should be organised. Should it be done in whole-class settings or in small groups? The choice has implications for participation, interaction and classroom dynamics. Small groups allow each student more opportunities to speak, but they reduce the teacher's ability to support and evaluate spoken performance.

4. *Speaking Swedish or speaking Spanish*. Lastly, a core didactic dilemma for teachers is the choice of language: Should they speak the target language or the majority language at different points in the lesson? Using the target language maximises exposure, although there is a risk of overload or anxiety for students. Conversely, the majority language supports comprehension and scaffolding but reduces exposure to the target language.

The study contributes to the field of *language teacher cognition* (Borg, 2015) and emphasises that didactic dilemmas are not necessarily problems to be eliminated, but tensions to be navigated and reflected upon. For example, the concept of authenticity in speaking tasks must be balanced with students' proficiency and confidence. The individual versus group dimension ties into inclusive teaching and differentiation, while the choice between whole-class or small-group settings affects opportunities for talk. The issue of language choice reflects the well-known debate around target and majority language use in the classroom (Vold & Brkan, 2020).

Teachers' and students' voices show that, while speaking is valued, practical constraints, such as time, teacher workload, class size, student anxiety and proficiency levels, influence teachers' decisions. For example, students

reported feeling more comfortable speaking Spanish in small groups rather than in front of the whole class, which aligns with previous research (e.g. Horwitz et al., 1986; Nilsson, 2020). Teachers noted that they often spoke Swedish for instructions or scaffolding to ensure understanding. The study underscores that speaking is frequently less emphasised in FL teaching than writing or grammar, and that providing meaningful speaking opportunities remains a challenge in the context of lower secondary schools in Sweden.

In summary, the study provides an analysis and interpretation of how teachers and students perceive and experience speaking Spanish in Swedish lower secondary schools. By identifying four key dilemmas, the article draws attention to the challenges and the possibilities involved in facilitating speaking in the FL classroom.

### **Link to paper II:**

During the observations, field notes were taken in addition to the recordings. When examining the recordings and the field notes, it was clear that the majority language was spoken to a large extent. However, it was also evident that the target language was indeed spoken, a proof of learned language, which then made it necessary to establish when it actually occurred. Moreover, exclusive use of the target language by the students did not persist for long periods; rather, it was often mixed with the majority language in different ways. It also appeared necessary to distinguish students' language and teachers' language, since in many activities, the teacher spoke the target language and the students the majority language.

These observations highlighted the need to develop an analytical tool to answer the questions about when and how the target language was spoken. The retrospective section of the interviews – when teachers and students were asked about some of the identified spoken activities – had an advantage: all of these activities had already been coded in the column “Students speak target language including language alternation” in the revised speaking observation scheme. It was interesting that students generally described the activities in positive terms (fun, educating), and it was somewhat surprising that teachers were not always aware of the “successful” (in terms of speaking) outcomes of the activities. This finding motivated further analysis of the spoken activities in relation to both their communicativeness and the amount of spoken output.

## **Paper II**

The second study, *Opportunities for speaking – the if, how and when of students' spoken target language in the second foreign classroom* (Nyström, 2025b), explores when and in what ways students speak the target language Spanish in Swedish lower secondary schools. The paper addresses RQ 2 and RQ 3 of the thesis.

The study aims to fill this gap by examining when, how, and under what conditions students actually speak Spanish during lessons. The focus is on the students' rather than on teachers' spoken language. Twenty-one Spanish lessons across five different classrooms were recorded and analysed. To analyse the data, a new observation tool was created, called the *Revised Speaking Observation Scheme*, based on the original version by Llovet Vilà (2016). Section 5.5.2. outlines the process in more detail. This tool was designed specifically for the study to first identify and categorise activity types in the classroom, and then to determine during which of these activities students spoke the target language. In addition, the observation scheme categorised spoken activities along a communicative continuum (Littlewood, 2004, 2018) to establish if they primarily focused on form and structure or on meaning and content.

The study categorises classroom speaking activities along a communicative continuum with two extremes, where the decisive factor is whether there is a communicative gap in the activity:

1. **Language practice** – predictable activities that focus on rehearsing forms and patterns, such as repeating words, reading aloud, or practising pronunciation.
2. **Language use** – non-predictable activities that involve more spontaneous, authentic communication, for example, discussions, role-plays, or problem-solving activities.

Most observed classroom speaking fell closer to the language practice end of the continuum, meaning that students were often practising the target language rather than using it as a means of communication.

The results show that students spoke the target language mainly when the teacher explicitly asked them to or when the classroom task clearly required it. Students did not initiate the target language themselves, which means that the majority language, Swedish, and not the target language, Spanish, was used as the general medium of communication among students.

When students did speak Spanish, they often relied on scaffolding, which had the shape of structured support provided by the teacher or materials, for example, prompts, words, sentences. Speaking Spanish without such scaffolding was rare, which was explained on a scale of independence, ranging from *reproduction* and *borrowing* to independent *production* of the target language (Prabhu, 1987). These findings highlight that, while students can produce spoken language, they may need structured support to do so.

The findings indicate a need for more explicit opportunities for spoken Spanish in the classroom. Both teachers and students may benefit from activities that encourage communication while provide scaffolding to support students' participation. For example, sentence starters, visual aids, or structured pair tasks can help students move gradually from reproduction and controlled language practice to more communicative and unpredictable language use.

### **Link to paper III:**

Study II addressed the second research question, concerning when students spoke the target language, while the study's overarching question, "how", was only partially addressed, by analysing the spoken target language. It was established that students' use of the target language was generally mixed with the majority language, and that their speech was often scaffolded by written words or phrases. However, the alternation between languages appeared to follow a systematic pattern, and scaffolding appeared to be more than just the written structures provided in the activity design.

The transcribed audio recordings made it possible to examine student interaction in greater detail. From the spoken activities identified in paper I, a decision was made to include only those carried out in small groups, and not whole-class activities. In the interviews, students described these spoken activities as fun and educational, adding that they allowed them to get to know their peers better and to provide and receive help from each other. Moreover, pair settings were reported to facilitate speaking, as they were less intimidating than whole-class settings. Teachers, however, expressed concern that students spoke "too little" target language in pair settings, in other words, that they were not always engaging as they were supposed to. Thus, in order to examine what students said outside of the teachers' earshot and if/how they scaffolded each other without teacher support, representative student interactions were selected for detailed analysis.

### **Paper III**

This study, *Learning possibilities in Spanish as a foreign language – the value of peer interaction tasks* (Nyström, 2026), investigates student interaction in the Modern Language classroom, focusing on what occurs when students work together in pairs or small groups. The research explores how students use the target language, Spanish, and the majority language, Swedish, to collaborate, solve problems and learn.

The theoretical foundation of the study is Sociocultural Theory (SCT), which views learning as a social process. According to this theory, which stems from Vygotsky (Lantolf et al., 2018; Wertsch, 1991), language is not just a tool for expressing what we already know; it is also a tool for thinking, negotiating meaning, and learning. From this view, collaboration between peers is central, as students provide scaffolding to each other through shared problem-solving and the co-construction of language knowledge (Sato & Viveros, 2016; Swain, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

To explore how language functions in collaboration between learners, audio and video recordings were collected while students in three classrooms completed peer interaction tasks in Spanish. These were classroom activities in which the teacher stepped back and students completed a spoken task. The

recordings were then transcribed and analysed using two complementary approaches: initially, by applying two tools from Conversation Analysis (CA), adjacency pairs and sequences (Schegloff, 2007), and finally, through thematic analysis, which identified key patterns and themes across the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This analytic process is described in detail in section 5.5.3.

The most common types of adjacency pairs were question-answer and suggestion-acceptance. Table 6 below presents an excerpt of three adjacency pairs that constitute one sequence. AP 1 and 2 are the question-answer type, while AP 3 is a suggestion-acceptance. This excerpt was taken from the beginning of an interaction when the students were organising the activity by clarifying the instructions. In the sequence, speakers S1, S2 and S3 organised the game before starting it. The translation also reflects the students' linguistic errors.

Table 6

Speaker	Utterance	Translation	Adjacency pairs	Sequence
S2	Jag ska välja en då?	Shall I choose one then?	1	1
S1	Ja...	Yes...		
S3	Ska vi gå så här, laget runt?	Are we going like this, around the team?	2	
S2	Ja...	Yes...		
S2	Jag har valt mitt	I have chosen mine	3	
S1	Ok	Ok		

Thereafter, instead of applying methodological tools from CA, an inductive approach was chosen, and a thematic analysis was conducted. In this iterative process, aimed at identifying commonalities within sequences and differences between them, the first step was to determine the communicative role of the language in each sequence. The second step was to examine if and how the function of one sequence differed from the next.

The thematic analysis revealed two main categories of language functions that students used during their interactions:

1. Language functions that continuously solve the task – This includes language directly related to completing the assignment itself, such as exchanging ideas, giving information, or negotiating the outcome. In these moments, students spoke to keep the activity moving forward.

2. Language functions that support solving the task – This second category includes language that helps students manage different types of problems. Within this category, the study identified two subcategories:
  - Clarifying procedural problems – when students talk about how to do the task, ask for clarification, or check the instructions.
  - Solving language problems – when students help each other find the right Spanish word, correct grammar, or check pronunciation.

Both Spanish and Swedish were used within the categories. Importantly, the study found that the choice between the two languages served a purpose, which aligns with previous research (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2000; Van Compernelle, 2015). The target language, Spanish, was generally used in the first category when tasks were being solved continuously. Conversely, the majority language, Swedish, was mostly used in the second category, which supported solving the task. Hence, this language alternation supported both task completion and learning.

The results of the study highlight that language in the classroom functions both as the object of learning and as the means through which learning happens. This study contributes important insights into collaborative learning and language alternation in FL education, demonstrating that peer interaction tasks can be an effective and meaningful part of learning to speak the target language.

## 7. Discussion

The present thesis has presented significant findings about the teaching and learning of a FL, and Spanish in particular. The voices of both teachers and students converge on this matter, and the study also investigates the nature of students' spoken target language in the classroom. Hence, the results, based on this comprehensive dataset, contribute unique knowledge to the field of language didactics.

The study reported in the first paper addressed the thesis' first research question: *What is foregrounded when teachers and students discuss speaking Spanish as a ML in Swedish lower secondary school?* The second paper addressed the second and third research questions: *In which contexts do students speak the target language in the classroom?* and *How is the students' spoken language enacted in the classroom?* This study included observation of classroom processes, understood as processes that influence teaching and learning. The third study, finally, addressed the third research question in greater depth by investigating spoken interaction between students.

In the following section, the findings of the present thesis will be discussed in terms of a curriculum studies framework, as outlined by Goodlad (1979). In this framework, various dimensions, called *domains of curricula*, are defined and used as an organising tool for understanding the different perspectives of teaching and learning. In alignment with this framework, the operational curricula were identified through classroom observations and peer interactions, the experiential curricula through student interviews and the perceived curricula through teacher interviews. The formal and ideological curricula were identified in steering documents and underlying ideas, as well as through the educational contexts, as outlined in section 2, *Background*.

Below, the findings will be discussed in terms of different aspects of teaching and learning, across the various domains of curricula, with a particular focus on identifying alignments and discrepancies between these domains.

### 7.1. Teachers' perceptions in relation to students' perceptions

To a large extent, alignments and discrepancies between teachers' and students' perceptions were analysed and interpreted in paper I, identified as four

didactic dilemmas from the teachers' point of view (Nyström, 2025a). In the following, additional insights are outlined and explained as interpretations of what teachers and students believe (the perceived and experiential curricula), when it comes to teaching and learning to speak.

The investigation showed one important alignment, namely the emotional aspects of speaking, since both teachers and students highlighted the pressure of speaking the target language in front of a surrounding audience of peers and the teacher in the classroom. This finding aligns well with a considerable body of research confirming how the context and situation in the classroom impacts learners' language anxiety (see e.g. Gallagher-Brett, 2007; Horverak et al., 2022; Nilsson, 2020; Sayehli et al., 2022; Thompson & Mutton, 2023). However, students, more than teachers, also emphasised the positive emotions associated with speaking. Given that they considered it fun and engaging to speak the FL, as long as not the whole class was listening, they suggested that speaking should mainly be carried out in pairs or small group settings. They explained, as also shown in previous research (Hiver et al., 2020; Horwitz et al., 1986; Kohn & Hoffstaedter, 2017), that it is less stressful and more engaging for learners to speak with peers at the same proficiency level than with native speakers or the teacher.

One discrepancy between perceptions, as outlined in detail in paper I, concerned the teachers' use of spoken language and their choice between the target and majority languages. In general, the teachers were concerned that they themselves spoke too little target language, believing that students need extensive and varied input (Krashen, 1985), whereas the students did not share this concern. The teachers' assertion that they chose majority language more often than intended can be interpreted in several ways in terms of language teacher cognition (Borg, 2015). One interpretation, as proposed by Källkvist et al. (2022), is that this reflects a mutually negotiated *didactic contract* (Brousseau & Balacheff, 1997), that is first broken and then renegotiated. The teachers prioritised the didactic relationship with the students over the norm, the contract in their case, to speak mainly the target language. In other words, the teachers adapted their practice to the students' needs in the actual educational context.

## 7.2. Teachers' perceptions in relation to classroom processes

Teachers' beliefs and experiences, as well as classroom processes, have been analysed in papers I, II and III, respectively. When the results now are discussed in terms of curriculum domains, the perceived and operational curricula correspond to these dimensions.

To begin with, one alignment concerns the teaching of speaking, namely how spoken activities are organised. Although teachers expressed a dilemma about small group settings – viewing them as more problematic and more difficult to support and evaluate, paper II showed that they actually organised the majority of spoken activities in small groups, probably to address students’ language anxiety. As has been described previously (see e.g. Horwitz et al., 1986; Nilsson, 2020), students tend to engage more easily in spoken activities within small groups than in whole-class settings.

As for the teachers’ expressed concern that students might speak “too much” majority language outside the teacher’s earshot, papers II and III showed both alignments and discrepancies between perceptions and classroom processes. On the one hand, students did indeed speak a considerable amount of the majority language. On the other hand, paper III showed that the majority language had specific functions, which has also been found in other studies (see e.g. DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Stoltz, 2011b; Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009; Vold & Brkan, 2020). Generally, the target language was used to perform the task, while the majority language was used to support performance in various ways. This means that students used both languages as resources to complete the task they were assigned. Most importantly, the students demonstrated agency and completed the tasks even though the teacher did not hear, aligning well with previous findings (see e.g. Mashayekh, 2022). This result indicates that students may benefit when teachers organise speaking activities in peer interaction tasks, as this can increase engagement (cf. Hiver et al., 2020; Sulis, 2022) and allow more students to participate and practise speaking, despite the lack of control it implies for the teachers.

### 7.3. Students’ perceptions in relation to classroom processes

When comparing students’ perceptions with classroom processes, the experiential and operational curricula, one clear alignment is that students generally considered the peer interaction tasks fun and engaging. Paper I showed that students perceived peers as having supportive functions, and paper III showed that they indeed tried to complete tasks and supported each other in doing so. This collaborative participation and mutual support are signs of engagement and lead to learning, as has been established in previous investigations emphasising that engagement is an essential condition for language learning (Hiver et al., 2020; Mashayekh, 2022; Sulis, 2022).

Another alignment is that students generally experienced that they rarely performed spoken activities without written support; in other words, they did not speak the target language independently. Paper II, as well as other investigations, has confirmed that written structures from textbooks, which students

often read aloud, provide support for beginner learners' spoken target language (Konzett-Firth, 2020). In paper III, peers supported each other during collaborative task work. These results suggest that scaffolding helps students speak the target language (compare e.g. Van Lier, 2004).

The students also expressed that it is fun to speak the target language, but that lessons generally included a lot of writing (too much writing in their opinion). These perceptions align with the classroom observations, as paper II displayed that more lesson time was devoted to writing than to speaking, which has also been established in previous research (Aronsson, 2023). Overall, the students suggested incorporating more speaking and less writing, alongside more activities focused on spoken practice and fewer dedicated to spoken assessment. There are various ways to teach speaking explicitly without also writing or assessing, for example, specific practice of pronunciation (Peura et al., 2023; Tewari et al., 2010), roleplays or computer-assisted activities under the label gamification (Ericsson & Hashemi, 2024), or applying the teaching speaking cycle systematically (Garbati & Mady, 2015; Goh & Burns, 2012).

As for language anxiety, further alignments were identified. Although students found speaking the target language fun and engaging in small groups, they also considered it both difficult and intimidating. The students expressed that their anxiety was, to a large extent, caused by a focus on linguistic accuracy and the fear of making mistakes. In paper III, there were in fact signs of expressed difficulties, both that they spoke the majority language and that they explicitly said that something was difficult. Students also auto-corrected themselves or asked their peers for help to say words or phrases correctly. Although the correction of errors is an inevitable part of language learning, language didactics should focus less on accuracy and more on fluency, as outlined by Nation (2007) in his influential framework on the four strands of language teaching. Planning and conducting lessons or courses according to his principles – allocating approximately 25% of lesson time to each strand: fluency development, language focused learning and meaning-focused input and output, respectively – would provide ample opportunities for students to speak the target language. It would also, most likely, mean a significant change to the didactic design of ML lessons in the Swedish educational system.

Hence, comparisons between students' perceptions and classroom processes indicate that learners may find more possibilities to speak the target language during lessons with less focus on linguistic accuracy.

#### 7.4. Perceptions and classroom processes in relation to underlying values and steering documents

The thesis has investigated teachers' and students' perceptions, as well as classroom processes, when it comes to speaking Spanish as a FL. In the

following section, the overall results are interpreted in relation to underlying values (ideological curricula), and steering documents (formal curricula), particularly when it comes to authenticity and communicativeness. In paper I, neither teachers nor students stressed the role of the steering documents, although they did articulate underlying ideas about the communicative and real-life purposes of language knowledge. In the following section, these findings are compared with the ideological and formal curricula.

As explained in section 4, *theoretical and conceptual frameworks*, the formal curricula in the study correspond to the Swedish syllabus for Modern languages (Skolverket, 2017), while the ideological curricula are exemplified in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020), and the underlying paradigm of CLT (CLT). Guiding ideas are also expressed in *Agenda 2030*, where quality education is explained as: ‘Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all’ (UN, 2025, goal 4). European language policies further stipulate that education shall emphasise multilingual competences, promote lifelong learning, increase mobility and intercultural skills (European commission, 2007). These policies may well resemble the didactic *Why* question (Jank & Meyer, 1997; Wahlström, 2016), a question that has not been emphasised in the present thesis. Nevertheless, these guiding policies provide an undeniable justification for why it is important to learn to speak FLs.

The first area concerns *authenticity*. Both teachers and students emphasised the ability to use and speak the target language outside the classroom, in real-life settings, as the central aspect of language learning. This aligns with both formal and ideological curricula and has also been identified as a key driver of engagement and language learning motivation (Hiver et al., 2020; Rocher Hahlin, 2021). Although the classroom processes were not analysed explicitly in terms of authenticity, the communicative continuum (Littlewood, 2004) was applied in paper II. This continuum labels activities on the right-hand side as authentic language use – unpredictable and meaning-focused – whereas the majority of classroom activities in the study were categorised towards the left, focusing on forms and language practice. These results indicate a discrepancy between the operational curricula, on the one hand, and formal and ideological, on the other. Speaking in the classroom needs to be perceived as authentic to some extent, and one way to achieve this is through online activities, for example, e-twinning projects and vlogging. Such activities, alongside reflective practices, have been shown to support both spoken target language and increase motivation through a sense of real language use (Gonzalez Guarro et al., 2025; Kohn & Hoffstaedter, 2017; Lopez et al., 2021).

The second, and arguably most important, area concerns the concept of *communicativeness* and whether the teaching of speaking can be described as CLT. In both the ideological and formal curricula, the purpose of language competence is clearly to serve as a tool for thinking and communication in all parts of life, not only in school. These writings can provide a second answer

to the didactic *Why* question and offer a justification for why it is important to learn to speak FLs, aligning closely with SCT.

To investigate this matter and to address criticism from the Swedish School Inspectorate (Skolinspektionen, 2010, 2022), paper II specifically investigated the spoken target language in relation to communicativeness.

Although the formal curricula do not stipulate how much, or in which contexts, the target language should be spoken by teachers or students, the teachers expressed concern that they spoke “too little” target language themselves. One way to increase its use could be to adapt their language and repeatedly use the same expressions, a method suggested by Crichton (2009) for supporting students’ target language production in the classroom.

Moreover, paper II showed that the target language was typically not the means of communication between students, nor generally when students answered the teachers’ questions. These results could indicate that teaching and learning to speak is not communicative in nature, thus representing a discrepancy between the formal and ideological curricula, on the one hand and the operational curricula, on the other, that is, between what should be happening and what is actually happening in the classroom.

On the other hand, although the majority of classroom activities were categorised on the left side of the continuum, reflecting a non-communicative focus on forms, the peer interaction tasks were categorised towards the middle and had communicative features. Although vocabulary and certain verb structures were practised, the language was also used to bridge gaps and convey new information. Interpreted in this way, the discrepancy between curricula can be nuanced, and teaching speaking can be understood as more communicative than has been claimed previously (Llovet Vilà, 2016; Skolinspektionen, 2010, 2022; Vold & Brkan, 2020).

One may then question why the majority of classroom activities are not inherently communicative and why teachers often choose form-focused activities. A key explanation can be found in paper I, where student interviews showed that even non-communicative spoken activities sparked engagement. It is highly interesting and worth noting that the peer interaction tasks were described as fun and engaging by the students, although they primarily focused on forms and were not categorised as particularly meaning-focused or communicative.

Another substantial discrepancy between the formal and operational curricula was that classroom processes in fact included much writing, which per se involves a focus on form and accuracy, given that writing allows learners more time to plan and process language (Ellis, 2003). Since the peer interaction tasks had communicative features, the main concern may be less about whether classroom language is communicative and more about the overall lack of spoken target language. One explanation for why teachers would prioritise written activities with a focus on form and accuracy can be found in students’ perceived engagement. In the classroom, engagement is a direct

response that teachers can identify when students are fully committed and occupied with a school task. The five teachers in the present thesis explained that evidence of a successful language lesson includes students speaking and writing, and asking questions with dedication and enthusiasm. These beliefs align well with the theoretical framework and research on learner engagement (Hiver et al., 2020; Sulis, 2022), which establishes that:

Engagement defines all learning. Learning requires learner action, and action is perhaps the defining characteristic of student engagement. Without engagement, meaningful learning is unlikely. An engaged learner is actively involved in and committed to their own learning. Specifically in language learning, the notion of learner action for learning is deeply embedded in the dominant pedagogical paradigms of communicative language teaching (e.g., TBLT).  
(Hiver et al., 2020, p. 3)

When teachers choose activities that they expect to work well in their classroom, they probably rely on the learners' perceived level of engagement or disengagement as an indicator. In this sense, their beliefs form the basis of their didactic decisions (Borg, 2015; Wesely et al., 2024). In activities with a focus on form and accuracy, there are right and wrong answers, which makes them predictable and secure. Activities with a focus on meaning, on the other hand, are more unpredictable in its nature. This unpredictability is not automatically engaging, even when meaning-focused activities have a gap to bridge or a problem to solve.

Interestingly, one model for understanding precisely the interplay between communicativeness and engagement was outlined in the above cited work of Littlewood (2018).<sup>15</sup> This model has two axes, one representing each concept, and activities can score high or low on both of them. In other words, activities with a high focus on form and accuracy can be either engaging or not, just as an activity with a high focus on meaning can be either engaging or not. If language learning activities are positioned along these axes, the model provides teachers with a useful tool for planning and evaluating teaching and learning throughout a lesson or an entire course.

This being said, and in alignment with both the formal and ideological curricula, it is worth striving to teach speaking through activities that are engaging as well as communicative, with an authentic approach. Previous research has also demonstrated that more meaning-focused activities are beneficial for language learning (Rousse-Malpat et al., 2024; Rousse-Malpat & Verspoor, 2012).

In sum, this discussion has shown that the perceived, experiential and operational curricula align to a great extent. In various ways, students' and teachers' perceptions correspond to what is actually occurring in the classroom. The essential exception concerns teachers' worries about the majority language,

---

<sup>15</sup> See appendix V.

both that they speak more majority language than intended themselves, and that students might speak “too much” majority language outside the teacher’s earshot or when fully engaged in a task. The students, however, did not consider any of these situations problematic.

The discrepancies were most evident between the ideological and formal curricula, on the one hand, and the remaining domains, on the other. Paper I showed that teachers strove to involve authentic elements and that they were concerned about not using the target language as the primary medium of communication. The students also highlighted authenticity and, to some extent, communicativeness by distinguishing between speaking in class and speaking in other contexts – “in reality” – as two fundamentally different things. Paper II addressed particularly the communicative approach and could likewise establish that the target language was not the medium of communication in class. But is this a necessary prerequisite for defining language teaching as communicative? No, not according to the syllabus for ML. Nonetheless, both students and teachers expressed a desire for students to speak more of the target language in the classroom, which is an important starting point.

## 8. Conclusions and further research

The present thesis has investigated what is foregrounded when teachers and students discuss speaking and learning to speak a new language. It has also demonstrated when and how the target language, Spanish, is spoken in the FL classroom. The findings have shown that teaching is inherently complex and context-dependent, and that language teachers face particular challenges when it comes to teaching speaking. Overall, the thesis both confirms and nuances what was previously known, namely that speaking and learning to speak a new language is by no means a simple process, but a complex and multifaceted one (De Bot, 2004; Goh & Burns, 2012; Tornberg, 2020).

The most important result is that, although speaking was considered to be fun, scary and difficult, the students did in fact speak the target language in the classroom. This occurred when the nature of the activities enabled it and when students had the linguistic, emotional and social resources required to speak and engage in the target language. In terms of CLT, the study found that classroom activities were more often focused on language forms than on language meaning. However, students considered spoken tasks overall as engaging and educational and also enjoyed the more form-focused, predictable, and less authentic activities.

The present thesis contributes theoretically to discussions of CLT by suggesting that the concept may need to be further nuanced in the context of young learners in lower secondary school. Considering the continuous character of communicativeness (Littlewood, 2004, 2018), real and authentic communication is a complex activity that requires substantial linguistic resources. A further contribution concerns SCT (Van Compernelle, 2015) and the role of the majority language in the classroom. The thesis has shown that the majority language has important functions at beginner levels of foreign language learning. It supports learners' access to participation and reduces barriers related to linguistic and emotional demands.

The findings of the thesis cannot be generalised or automatically interpreted or compared to other educational contexts, for example, teaching and learning of Spanish to older students or language courses in non-compulsory school settings. The investigation has also raised new questions and generated new areas of investigation within the field of language didactics. Some of these ideas will be described at the end of this section.

Based on the findings of the present thesis, teachers are encouraged to organise scaffolded spoken activities in small groups more frequently, preferably activities characterised by communicative, meaning-focused and authentic features. Those activities spark engagement and enable the development of target language learning.

Teachers are also encouraged to adopt a more systematic approach to inviting students to reflect on their own learning processes (c.f. Haukås, 2014), particularly regarding language anxiety. In practical terms, students' perspectives may be expressed through short written reflections, learning journals, informal interviews or guided classroom discussions focusing on their perceptions of speaking tasks. These reflective practices can function as an important source of information for teachers' didactic decisions. Similarly, teachers' own reflective practices are an invaluable resource. For example, teachers are encouraged to reflect on the inherent tension embedded in didactic dilemmas in the classroom, instead of intuitively searching for best practices or adopting new trendy methods.

In sum, the frustrated question asked by my colleagues and myself a few years back, *How do I get them to talk?* (Nyström et al., 2019), now has an answer, albeit not a simple one. Considering the findings of the present thesis, it is clear that teaching and learning to speak a FL is shaped by a complex interplay between internal and external factors. Internal relating to the students' linguistic competence, emotions and social relations, and external concerning the didactic design. In other words, teaching speaking is a complex interplay of the didactic questions of what, why, who and how.

This being said, the first suggestion for future research is to investigate the role of language didactics within the model of *Willingness to communicate* (WTC) (Henry & MacIntyre, 2023; Macintyre, 2007). This well-established model emphasises the complex interplay of psychological, cognitive and social factors which, at a given point, lead a speaker either to engage in communication or refrain from it. Just like communication in “real-life”, speaking in the FL classroom is also a complex interplay, but with more limited aspects. When making didactic decisions, each teacher must consider the learners individually alongside the class as a whole. Even so, many parts of WTC are important for understanding classroom processes.

Another possible research project could contribute knowledge to the field of curriculum studies by investigating the curriculum domains (Goodlad, 1979), together with researchers from other school subjects. This thesis has shown that interpretations of, and comparisons between, different dimensions of teaching and learning can nuance the understanding of empirical results. Comparing ML in this way with, for example, social studies subjects or Swedish would broaden the perspectives on teaching and learning processes and probably lead to new and different implications for professional development.

To conclude, in order to nuance the prevailing picture of ML classrooms as non-communicative, and to recognise teachers' expertise, one suggestion is to

apply the original or revised *Speaking Observations Schemes* (Llovet Vilà, 2016; Nyström, 2025b) within intervention research conducted together with language teachers. These schemes could be tested in other language classrooms to investigate how and how much students speak the target language, as well as the degree to which classroom activities are communicative and meaning-focused. It would certainly allow teachers to reflect on and discuss their didactic decisions with other professionals. This collaborative professional dialogue has been identified, not only by me, as one of the most efficient methods of professional development (Hattie, 2009; Timperley et al., 2008; Wiliam & Ashing, 2016).

## 9. Svensk sammanfattning

### 9.1. Inledning

Den här avhandlingen handlar om muntlighet i spanska som modernt språk i den svenska grundskolan. Den utgår ifrån att den muntliga förmågan är något av det viktigaste med att kunna ett nytt språk och vissa anser till och med att muntlighet är den allra viktigaste förmågan (Finndahl, 2023). Traditionellt har språklig förmåga delats in i de fyra delarna, tala, skriva, läsa och lyssna, medan nyare formuleringar tydligare poängterar språkets kommunikativa funktion och kategoriserar förmågorna som förståelse, produktion och interaktion (Council of Europe, 2020; Skolverket, 2022b). När det gäller såväl spanska som de övriga moderna språken, finns en oro över elevers bristande måluppfyllelse, men också över deras bristande motivation och minskande möjligheter att studera främmande språk i skolan (Bardel et al., 2019; Erickson et al., 2022). Det finns också en oro för att elever har alltför låg kunskapsnivå särskilt när det gäller spanska och särskilt när det gäller den muntliga förmågan (Aronsson, 2020; European Commission, 2012; Granfeldt et al., 2023; Skolverket, 2012). Emellertid så saknas grundlig kännedom om elevers faktiska kunskaper i moderna språk. Det saknas också kännedom om hur undervisningen i moderna språk ser ut, även om det har framhållits att undervisningen inte fullt ut överensstämmer med styrdokumentens kommunikativa språksyn (Aronsson, 2023; Skolinspektionen, 2022). Studier har kunnat fastställa att spanskan har större utmaningar än de övriga moderna språken på grund av stora elevgrupper och ett stort antal obehöriga lärare. Spansklärare ges också få möjligheter till ämnesspecifik fortbildning (Riis & Francia, 2013; Österberg, 2021). Det finns med andra ord flera problematiska områden i diskursen kring spanska som modernt språk och flera kunskapsluckor som behöver fyllas.

I kursplanens inledning betonas vikten av flerspråkighet för att skapa förståelse för andra sociala och kulturella sammanhang än elevernas eget. Dessutom betonas språkets kommunikativa syfte och funktion som verktyg för tänkande och lärande (Skolverket, 2022b). Detta bygger i sin tur på tankegods från underliggande idéer om språket som verktyg för tänkande, lärande och kommunikation samt utbildning som en demokratisk rättighet (Council of Europe, 2020; UN, 2025).

Avhandlingen undersöker inte explicit elevernas muntliga språknivå, utan istället själva muntligheten, att tala och samtala, ur olika perspektiv. Med hjälp

av tre övergripande forskningsfrågor utforskas hur muntlighet konstrueras i spanskundervisningen i grundskolan. Frågorna besvaras i tre olika delstudier, tillika artiklar, vilka utgör avhandlingens resultatdel.

- Vad ställs i förgrund när lärare och elever beskriver muntlighet i spanska som modernt språk i grundskolan? (artikel I)
- I vilka sammanhang talar eleverna målspråket i klassrummet? (artikel II)
- Hur ser elevernas talade målspråk i klassrummet ut? (artikel II och III)

De sammanlagda resultaten diskuteras sedan i termer av läroplansteori (Goodlad, 1979) där skillnader och likheter mellan olika dimensioner, så som domäner, av läroplaner, analyseras. Modellen passar väl i denna avhandling eftersom det empiriska underlaget är omfattande och speglar ett flertal dimensioner av undervisning och lärande. Underlaget motsvarar i huvudsak de domäner som på svenska har kallats *idéernas läroplan*, *den formella läroplanen*, *den uppfattande läroplanen*, *den verkställda läroplanen*, och *den upplevda läroplanen* (Gundem, 1997).

## 9.2. Metod

Före den huvudsakliga studien genomfördes en pilotstudie med en lärare då sex lektioner spelades in med ljud och bild. Pilotstudien blev vägledande för huvudstudiens design och jag beslöt att inkludera även intervjuer med lärare och elever i anslutning till de observerade lektionerna. Dessutom konstaterades att fyra eller fem lektioner per lärare och grupp skulle ge tillräckligt med information om undervisningen i den aktuella gruppen, något som också styrks metodologiskt av tidigare didaktisk forskning (Klette et al., 2017).

Data samlades in under 21 lektioner i 5 spanskgrupper i 5 olika svenska högstadieskolor i och omkring två mellansvenska städer. Skolorna låg i skiftande områden och elevunderlaget hade viss socioekonomisk spridning. De lärare som deltog behövde vara fullt behöriga, alltså legitimerade att undervisa spanska på högstadiet, samt ha en grupp i årskurs nio (14 -16 år) som de ville delta med. Varje grupp bestod av 15 - 31 elever. I tabell 7 nedan ses en sammanställning av hur det insamlade materialet användes för att besvara de olika forskningsfrågorna

Table 7

	<b>Sammanlagd tid</b>	<b>Antal inspelade filer</b>	<b>Empiri till forskningsfråga 1 (artikel I): <i>Vad ställs i förgrund när lärare och elever pratar om muntlighet i spanska som modernt språk i grundskolan?</i></b>	<b>Empiri till forskningsfråga 2 (artikel II): <i>I vilka sammanhang talar eleverna målspråket i klassrummet?</i></b>	<b>Empiri till forskningsfråga 3 (artikel II och III): <i>Hur ser elevernas talade målspråk i klassrummet ut?</i></b>
<b>Filmspelningar av 21 lektioner</b>	18 t. 56 min.	21		x	x
<b>Ljudinspelningar av 21 lektioner</b>	104 t. 18 min	113		x	x
<b>5 lärarintervjuer</b>	3 t. 23 min.	5	x		
<b>15 elevintervjuer i par (=30 elever sammanlag)</b>	4 t 11 min	15	x		

Intervjuerna med lärare och elever transkriberades och därefter gjordes en kvalitativ innehållsanalys enligt den modell som används av Graneheim and Lundman (2004). Lektionsinspelningarna kategoriserades i ett specifikt observationsschema där en central del utgörs av hur begreppet kommunikativitet definieras (Littlewood, 2004, 2018). Elevers interaktion analyserades med tematisk innehållsanalys (Braun & Clarke, 2006) och med verktyg från fältet konversationsanalys (Schegloff, 2007).

### 9.3. Resultat

I artikel I (Nyström, 2025a) beskrivs vad som sätts i förgrund när lärare och elever beskriver muntlighet i spanska. Intervjuerna innehöll generella frågor om undervisning i muntlighet samt om personliga uppfattningar och

erfarenheter av att lära sig tala spanska. Dessutom användes en retrospektiv metod, som påminner om *Stimulated recall* (Gass & Mackey, 2017), där lärare och elever tillfrågades specifikt om några muntliga aktiviteter observerats. Under dessa aktiviteter hade eleverna pratat spanska och både lärare och elever fick frågor om dem. Intervjumaterialet analyserades sedan med hjälp av kvalitativ innehållsanalys och sorterades under de didaktiska frågorna: vem, vad och hur? Undersökningen resulterade i fyra didaktiska dilemman utifrån lärares synpunkt om muntlighet, nämligen: *tala som autentisk eller anpassad aktivitet, anpassning till varje individ eller till hela gruppen, genomföra muntliga aktiviteter i helklass eller i smågrupper samt tala svenska eller tala spanska*. Det första dilemmat beskriver utmaningen att språket ska användas utanför klassrummet, men att både material och uppgiftsdesign ofta blir alltför komplext då. Komplexiteten får effekten att elever blir mindre engagerade och motiverade att delta och att lära sig. Genom det andra dilemmat synliggörs elevers olika förutsättningar och det problematiska i ämnets karaktär av ett ”mjukt obligatorium”, vilket kan leda till att elever som har svårigheter hoppar av ämnet. I dilemma tre, som rör ifall muntliga aktiviteter ska organiseras i helklass eller i smågrupper, identifieras elevers oro för att tala spanska när alla hör på. Å ena sidan ansåg lärarna att eleverna var mindre talängsliga i mindre grupper, men å andra sidan misstänkte de att eleverna pratade för mycket svenska. Dessutom kan lärarna varken stötta elevernas tal eller bedöma deras kunskaper när alla elever pratar samtidigt. Det sista dilemmat, tala svenska eller tala spanska, rör lärarnas oro över den egna målspråksanvändning som de tyckte var för låg. Eleverna ansåg inte att lärarens tal var problematiskt, men poängterade att de själva ville prata mer spanska på lektionerna.

Under observationerna hade aktiviteter observerats då eleverna pratade spanska och frågan uppstod när och hur eleverna talar målspråket på lektionerna. För att undersöka detta behövdes ett verktyg som kunde fånga allt tal i undervisningen. Som grund användes ett tidigare observationsschema (Llovet Vilà, 2016), vilket identifierar när majoritetsspråket eller målspråket talas, och också i hur stor utsträckning språket då talas fritt och självständigt eller är beroende av stödstrukturer. Observationsschemat fångar dessutom kommunikativitet genom att titta på olika uppgifters design och kategorisera dem som fokuserade på antingen språkets form eller på språkets innehåll. I avhandlingen förstås begreppet kommunikativitet som en placering längs ett kommunikativt kontinuum (Littlewood, 2004, 2018).

I artikel II (Nyström, 2025b) undersöks när och hur tal sker samt huruvida de muntliga aktiviteterna kan sägas vara kommunikativa eller inte. Ett utförligt observationsschema, baserat på det tidigare nämnda (Llovet Vilà, 2016) utvecklades, och användes för analysen av de 21 lektionerna. Detta kallades *The revised speaking observation scheme* (Nyström, 2025b). I analysen skiljdes tydligt mellan lärarnas och elevernas talade språk och resultaten visar att eleverna endast talade spanska i aktiviteter där de uppmuntrades eller ombads att göra det. När stödstrukturer fanns tillgängliga använde eleverna dem i sin

egen produktion, och det var sällsynt att de talade helt utan skriftligt stöd. Resultaten föreslår därför att muntliga aktiviteter genomförs oftare och med stöttning på ett sätt som gör det möjligt för eleverna att utföra dem. Delstudien visar också att tal på spanska förekom antingen i helklass eller smågrupper, och att det då var olika slags tal.

I smågrupper får varje elev mer talutrymme än i helklass, men eftersom läraren inte hör alla samtidigt, kan hen varken stötta eller bedöma elevernas tal. Uppdelningen i helklass eller smågrupper hade eleverna själva gjort under intervjuerna och då beskrivit dem som väsensskilda ur en känslomässig aspekt. Lärarna hade i intervjuerna beskrivit dilemmat med tal i smågrupper som att de inte kan höra varje elev och därför varken stötta eller bedöma eleverna. Lärarna hade också uttryckt en farhåga över att eleverna talade mer svenska än vad de borde. Med tanke på dessa uppfattningar så behövdes en undersökning av vad som faktiskt sker när elever talar spanska med varandra i mindre grupper.

I artikel III (Nyström, 2026) beskrivs följaktligen vad som sker språkligt när elever genomför interaktiva uppgifter i smågrupper. Studien utgår från sociokulturell teori (Lantolf et al., 2018; Van Compernelle, 2015; Vygotsky, 1978) och undersöker vilka funktioner språket har i elevsamtal samt vilken betydelse valet av språk har för hur funktionerna iscensätts. 20 elevsamtal, med sammanlagt 50 minuters tal, transkriberades och analyserades genom tematisk analys som avgränsades med verktyg från konversationsanalys (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Schegloff, 2007). Resultaten visar på två huvudkategorier, nämligen sekvenser där eleverna genomför uppgiften på ett sammanhängande och obrutet sätt, samt sekvenser som stödjer att uppgiften genomförs. I den första kategorin, då eleverna genomförde uppgiften på ett obrutet sätt, talades huvudsakligen spanska, och i den andra kategorin, den som stöttade uppgiftens genomförande, talades huvudsakligen svenska. De uppgiftsstödjande funktionerna var sedan av två sorter, dels procedurerna, som rör hur uppgiften ska lösas, och dels funktioner som löser språkliga problem. Eleverna samarbetade tydligt och stöttade varandra för att genomföra uppgifterna.

Resultaten visar på värdet av uppgifter med elevinteraktion och att lärande möjliggörs trots att läraren inte är delaktig eller kan höra varje elev. Studien visar att språket inte bara är ett lärandeobjekt utan också ett medel för kommunikation, tänkande och lärande. Studien bidrar därmed till forskning om interaktion, språkväxling och kollaborativt lärande i språkundervisning.

## 9.4 Diskussion

I avhandlingens sista del diskuteras en sammantagen syntes av resultaten i termer av läroplansteori och Goodlad's (1979) olika domäner i läroplaner, på svenska ofta kallade *idéernas läroplan*, *den formella läroplanen*, *den*

*uppfattande läroplanen, den verkställda läroplanen, och den upplevda läroplanen* (Gundem, 1997).

Den första jämförelsen görs mellan den uppfattade läroplanen och den upplevda läroplanen, alltså mellan lärares och elevers uppfattningar. I artikel I gjordes en liknande jämförelse, men här poängteras särskilt att eleverna tycker att tal i mindre grupper generellt är roligt och engagerande, medan tal i helklass och tal som ska bedömas av läraren är skrämmande.

Vidare diskuteras resultaten inom ramen för den uppfattade och den verkställda läroplanen, alltså kring lärares uppfattningar och de lektioner som observerats. Till stor del överensstämde dessa domäner, till exempel när det gäller organisationen av muntliga aktiviteter. Lärare organiserade oftare muntliga aktiviteter i smågrupper, trots deras uttryckta dilemma att de inte hörde varje elev. En tolkning är att detta didaktiska val gjordes för att bemöta elevernas talängslan (Horwitz et al., 1986). Angående lärarnas oro för att eleverna skulle prata mycket svenska under smågruppsaktiviteter så överensstämde domänerna i stora drag. Observationerna i artikel II visade att eleverna å ena sidan pratade både spanska och svenska, men å andra sidan visade analysen av interaktionerna i artikel III att valet av språk var kopplat till specifika funktioner i samtalet.

I jämförelser mellan den upplevda och den verkställda läroplanen, alltså mellan elevers uppfattningar och det som sker i klassrummet identifierades också flera överensstämmelser. En var att eleverna i intervjuerna beskrev hur både klasskamrater och lärarna var stöttande och hjälpte till att lösa svårigheter, något som bekräftades genom uppgiftsdesign och språkväxlingen i artikel II och i analysen av interaktionerna i artikel III. Under interaktionsaktiviteterna hjälptes eleverna åt att lösa uppgiften och stöttade varandra på flera sätt för att kunna komma vidare och slutföra det de blivit ålagda. Dessutom överensstämde elevernas beskrivning av att muntliga aktiviteter oftast genomförs med skriftligt stöd, att större del av lektionstiden upptas av skrivande och fokus på form än av muntlighet och fokus på innehåll och mening.

Slutligen jämförs idéernas läroplan och den formella läroplanen å ena sidan och avhandlingens sammantagna resultat å andra sidan. I denna jämförelse kan generella skillnader identifieras, nämligen kring två områden som är delvis sammanlänkande: begreppen autenticitet och kommunikativitet. Både lärare och elever beskrev en stor diskrepans mellan spanska i skolan och spanska i verkligheten, något som för lärarnas del också utgjorde ett reellt didaktiskt dilemma.

Den grundläggande idén i styrdokumentet är att språkkunskaper behövs och ska användas som redskap för kommunikation, tänkande och lärande (Council of Europe, 2020; Skolverket, 2022b). Observationerna i artikel II visade att målspråket spanska inte var det primära kommunikationsmedlet mellan eleverna eller när eleverna svarade läraren, vilket dock inte upplevdes som problematiskt av eleverna. De muntliga aktiviteterna som analyserades utifrån

det kommunikativa kontinuumet var oftare fokuserade på korrekthet och form än på mening och innehåll, men upplevdes ändå engagerande av eleverna.

Sammanfattningsvis är avhandlingens viktigaste resultat att eleverna de facto talar målspråket spanska när de inre och yttre faktorerna möjliggör det. De inre faktorerna utgörs av deras lingvistiska, emotionella och sociala förutsättningar och de yttre faktorerna utgörs av undervisningens utformning, till exempel möjligheten till olika slags stöttning eller det faktiska talutrymmet i klassrummet. Frågan som mina kollegor och jag ställde för några år sedan: *Hur får jag dem att prata?* (Nyström et al., 2019) har nu fått åtminstone ett svar, nämligen genom ett komplext samspel mellan de didaktiska frågorna: Vad, Varför, Vem och Hur? (Uljens, 1997; Wahlström, 2016).

Med utgångspunkt i avhandlingens resultat, kan en didaktisk implikation vara att lärare oftare kan iscensätta muntliga smågruppsaktiviteter, aktiviteter med kommunikativa, meningsfokuserade och autentiska inslag där eleverna får den stöttning de behöver. Sådana aktiviteter väcker engagemang och möjliggör för eleverna att tala målspråket. Lärare kan också explicit betona att syftet med aktiviteterna är att träna den muntliga förmågan, att tala och samtala, kring ett givet tema. Lärare skulle också kunna tillämpa det kommunikativa kontinuumet och avgöra om aktiviteter fokuserar på språkets form eller innehåll och följaktligen öppnar mer för övning eller mer för användning av målspråket. Vidare kan lärare reflektera över vilken funktion elevernas språk har i muntliga uppgifter och definiera huruvida språket används på ett obrutet sätt eller på ett uppgiftsstödande sätt. De kanske också kan undervisa explicit om stöttande språkliga strukturer och strategier som i sin tur möjligen hjälper elever att tala målspråket spanska oftare

En övergripande didaktisk implikation är att språklärare ofta och systematiskt kan hjälpa elever att reflektera över sitt eget lärande (Haukås, 2014). I praktiken kan elevernas perspektiv uttryckas genom korta skriftliga reflektioner, informella intervjuer eller klassrumsdiskussioner med fokus på muntlighet. Sådana reflektionsövningar kan utgöra en viktig informationskälla för lärares didaktiska val. På samma sätt är lärares egna reflektioner en ovärderlig resurs och språklärare kan till exempel diskutera den inneboende spänningen i didaktiska dilemman och inte intuitivt anta nya trendiga modeller och metoder.

Baserat på resultaten i avhandlingen föreslås vidare projekt för framtida forskning. Det första är en undersökning av hur språkidaktiken förhåller sig till de olika lagren i modellen *Willingness to communicate* (Macintyre, 2007). Modellen beskriver det komplexa samspelet mellan psykologiska, kognitiva och sociala faktorer som avgör huruvida en person kommer att engagera sig i muntlig interaktion eller ej.

Det andra förslaget är forskning som undersöker läroplansdomänerna på liknande sätt som i denna avhandling, men jämför med andra skolämnen. Hur ser till exempel skillnader och likheter ut mellan elevers uppfattningar och klassrumsaktiviteter i svenska eller samhällskunskap?

Slutligen uppmanas till forskning tillsammans med språklärare där något av de två observationsscheman som beskrivits i avhandlingen (Llovet Vilà, 2016; Nyström, 2025b) används för att reflektera kring didaktiska val i språkundervisningen. Sådan forskning skulle sannolikt öka den sammanlagda tiden som elever talar målspråk på spansklektionerna och vilket fall, vilken tidigare forskning tydliggjort (Hattie, 2009; Timperley et al., 2008; Wiliam & Ashing, 2016), skulle sådan forskning utgöra en mycket effektiv kompetensutveckling för språklärare.

## References

- Adem, H., & Berkessa, M. (2022). EFL Teachers' Cognitions about Teaching Speaking Skills. *Gist-Education and Learning Research Journal*, 24(24), 65–94. <https://doi.org/10.26817/16925777.1395>
- Ahearn, L. M. (2001). LANGUAGE AND AGENCY. *Annual review of anthropology*, 30(1), 109–137. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.anthro.30.1.109>
- Aijmer, K. (2001). Interaktivitet i samtal. In *Språkboken. En antologi om språkundervisning och språkinläring* (pp. 84–93).
- Almqvist, J., Hamza, K., & Olin, A. (2017). *Undersöka och utveckla undervisning: professionell utveckling för lärare* (Upplaga 1 ed.). Studentlitteratur.
- Alvesson, M., & Torhell, S.-E. (2011). *Intervjuer: genomförande, tolkning och reflexivitet* (1. uppl. ed.). Liber.
- Andered, B., & Lindblad, T. (1986). *Dagens språkundervisning och morgondagens : rapport från en SÖ-konferens om ungdomsskolans språkundervisning ... i Tällberg den 27-30 januari 1986* (Rapporter, planering, uppföljning, utvärdering, 86:40, Issue).
- Anderson, J. (2017). A potted history of PPP with the help of ELT Journal. *ELT Journal*, 71(2), 218–227.
- Andrée, M., & Bladh, G. (2021). Didaktik och didaktiska traditioner. In M. Andrée, G. Bladh, I. Carlgren, & M. Tväråna (Eds.), *Ämneslärares arbete - didaktiska perspektiv* (Första utgåvan ed., pp. 67–111). Natur & Kultur.
- Archanjo, R., Barahona, M., & Finardi, K. R. (2019). Identity of foreign language pre-service teachers to speakers of other languages: Insights from Brazil and Chile. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 21(1), 71–84.
- Arnold, J. (2011). Attention to Affect in Language Learning. *Anglistik: International Journal of English Studies.*, 22, 11–22.
- Aronsson, B. (2020). A Study of Learner Profiles in Spanish as a Second Language in a Swedish Instructional Setting: Writing versus Speaking. *Journal of Linguistics and Language Teaching* 11(1), 69–91.
- Aronsson, B. (2023). Language learning activities in the Spanish L2 classroom related to a task-based framework: What types are the most commonly occurring according to Swedish learners? *Language Teaching Research*, 0(0). <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221144282>
- Bardel, C., Erickson, G., & Österberg, R. (2019). Learning, teaching and assessment of second foreign languages in Swedish lower secondary school – dilemmas and prospects. *Apples – Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 13(1), 7–26. <https://doi.org/10.17011/apples/urn.201903011687>
- Bardel, C., Falk, Y., & Lindqvist, C. (2016). *Tredjespråksinläring* (1. uppl. ed.). Studentlitteratur.
- Bardel, C., Gyllstad, H., & Tholin, J. (2023). Research on foreign language learning, teaching, and assessment in Sweden 2012–2021. *Language Teaching*, 1–38.

- Barfod Lund, S., Jakobsen, A.-S., Skovgaard Andersen, M., & Wacher Kjærgaard, H. (2023). *Elevers perspektiver på fremmedsprog fra grundskole til gymnasium – En motivations- og barriereanalyse*. D. N. C. f. Fremmedsprog.
- Bengtsson, J. (1997). Didaktiska dimensioner. *Pedagogisk forskning*, 4, 241–261.
- Biggs, J. B., & Tang, C. S.-k. (2011). *Teaching for quality learning at university*. McGraw-Hill : Open University Press.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language teaching*, 36(2), 81–109. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903>
- Borg, S. (2006). The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers. *Language Teaching Research*, 10(1), 3–31. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168806lr182oa>
- Borg, S. (2015). *Teacher cognition and language education : research and practice*. Bloomsbury Academic.
- Borger, L. (2019). Assessing interactional skills in a paired speaking test. *Apples Apples - Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 13(1), 151–174.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Brousseau, G., & Balacheff, N. (1997). *Theory of didactical situations in mathematics: didactique des mathématiques, 1970-1990* (Vol. 19). Kluwer Academic Publishers. <https://doi.org/10.1007/0-306-47211-2>
- Burns, A., Freeman, D., & Edwards, E. (2015). Theorizing and Studying the Language-Teaching Mind: Mapping Research on Language Teacher Cognition. *The Modern language journal (Boulder, Colo.)*, 99(3), 585–601. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12245>
- Bygate, M., & Samuda, V. (2005). Integrative planning through the use of task repetition. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Planning and task performance in a second language* (pp. 37–74). John Benjamins.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). *Approaches to communicative competens*. Seameo Regional Language Centre.
- Cardelús, E. (2015). *Motivationer, attityder och moderna språk: En studie om elevers motivationsprocesser och attityder vid studier och lärande av moderna språk* (Publication Number Dissertation/Thesis) Stockholms Universitet]. Stockholm.
- Christie, C. (2016). Speaking spontaneously in the modern foreign languages classroom: Tools for supporting successful target language conversation. *The Language Learning Journal*, 44(1), 74–89.
- Coe, R., Waring, M., Hedges, L. V., & Arthur, J. (2017). *Research methods and methodologies in education* (Second ed.). SAGE.
- Commission, E. (2018). *Languages in secondary education: an overview of national tests in Europe–2014/15* (9292019538). (Eurydice report, Issue.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge University Press
- Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European framework of reference for language learning, teaching, assessment- Companion volume with new descriptors* (C. o. Europe, Ed.). Council of Europe Publishing.
- Crichton, H. (2009). ‘Value added’ modern languages teaching in the classroom: an investigation into how teachers' use of classroom target language can aid pupils' communication skills. *The Language Learning Journal*, 37(1), 19–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571730902717562>

- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of educational research*, 49(2), 222–251.
- De Bot, K. (2004). A bilingual production model: Levelt's speaking model adapted. In *The bilingualism reader* (pp. 384–404). Routledge.
- Dewaele, J. M., Magdalena, A. F., & Saito, K. (2019). The Effect of Perception of Teacher Characteristics on Spanish EFL Learners' Anxiety and Enjoyment. *The modern language journal*, 103(2), 412–427. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12555>
- DiCamilla, F. J., & Antón, M. (2012). Functions of L1 in the collaborative interaction of beginning and advanced second language learners. *International journal of applied linguistics*, 22(2), 160–188. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2011.00302.x>
- Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in a second language. In J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33–56). Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Dufvenberg, C. O. (1894). *Modersmålet som centralt läroämne*. Haegström.
- Ek, J. A. v., & Alexander, L. G. (1977). *The threshold level for modern language learning in schools*. Longman.
- Elliott, V. (2018). Thinking about the coding process in qualitative data analysis. *Qualitative report*, 23(11), 2850–2861. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2018.3560>
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford Univ. Pr.
- Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. Routledge.
- Englund, T. (1997). Undervisning som meningserbjudande. In M. Uljens (Ed.), *Didaktik* (pp. 120–145).
- Engman, C. B., & Aronsson, B. (2022). Learning activities in course books for Spanish as a foreign language produced for the Swedish context: Focus on forms or focus on meaning? *Språk i skola, på fritid och i arbetsliv: Aktuella arenor för svensk forskning inom tillämpad språkvetenskap [Language in school, leisure time, and working life: Current arenas for Swedish research in applied linguistics]*, Stockholm University.
- Erickson, G., Bardel, C., Österberg, R., & Rosén, M. (2022). Attitudes and ambiguities – teachers' views on second foreign language education in Swedish compulsory school. In C. Bardel, Hedman, C., Rejman, K., Zetterholm, E. (Ed.), *Exploring Language Education: Global and local perspectives* (pp. pp. 157–201). Stockholm University Press. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.16993/bbz.f>
- Ericsson, E., & Hashemi, S. S. (2024). (Dis) Engagement and Usefulness. *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 12(1), 43–69.
- European commission. (2003). *Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions—Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004–2006*. Retrieved from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX%3A52003DC0449%3AEN%3AHTML>
- European commission. (2007). *From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education: Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe*. Council of Europe
- European Commission. (2012). *First European survey on language competences*. E. BV.

- European Commission. (2023). *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe - 2023 Edition* (Eurydice report Issue).
- Ferm, R., Malmberg, P., & Rosander, B. (2001). *Språkboken : en antologi om språkundervisning och språkinläring*. myndigheten för skolutveckling.
- Fernández Dobao, A. (2016). Peer interaction and learning: A focus on the silent learner. . In M. Sato & S. Ballinger (Eds.), *Peer interaction and second language learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (pp. 33–61). John Benjamins publishing company. <https://doi.org/doi.10.1075/llt.45.02fer>
- Fernandez, S. S., & Pozzo, M. I. (2021). Un estudio sobre la cognición de profesoras de lenguas extranjeras en Argentina. *Alfa: Revista de Linguística (São José do Rio Preto)*, 65, e13706.
- Filipi, A., & Markee, N. (2018). *Conversation analysis and language alternation: capturing transitions in the classroom* (Vol. 295). John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.295>
- Finndahl, I. (2023). *Young students' language choice in Swedish compulsory school—Expectations, learning and assessment* [monograh, Gothenburg University]. Göteborg.
- Flyman Mattsson, A. (2003). *Teaching, learning, and student output: a study of French in the classroom* (Publication Number Dissertation/Thesis) Lund.
- Fredholm, K. (2021). *Genvägar, omvägar och irrvägar : Gymnasieelevers användning av maskinöversättning under uppsatsskrivande på spanska* (Publication Number 2021:8) [Doctoral thesis, comprehensive summary, Karlstads universitet]. DiVA. Karlstad.  
<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-437685>  
<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:kau:diva-83429>
- Frisch, M. (2021). Hur betygsätts muntlig språkfärdighet i engelska? En studie av lärares resonemang kring bedömning av det nationella provet för årskurs 9. In C. Bardel, G. Erickson, J. Granfeldt, & M. Rosén (Eds.), *Forskarskolan FRAM — lärare forskar i de främmande språkens didaktik* (pp. 157–175). Stockholm University Press. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.16993/bbg.h>. License: CC-BY 4.0.
- Fuster, C., & Bardel, C. (2024). Translanguaging in Sweden: A critical review from an international perspective. *System*, 121, 103241.
- Gallagher-Brett, A. (2007). What do learners' beliefs about speaking reveal about their awareness of learning strategies? *Language Learning Journal*, 35(1), 37–49.
- Garbati, J. F., & Mady, C. J. (2015). Oral skill development in second languages: A review in search of best practices. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(9), 9.
- García, O., Wei, L., & Palgrave, M. (2018). *Translanguaging : language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2017). *Stimulated recall methodology in applied linguistics and L2 research* (Routledge, Ed. second ed.). Taylor & Francis group.
- Gibbons, P. (2002). *Scaffolding language, scaffolding learning*. Heinemann Portsmouth, NH.
- Gkonou, C., Mercer, S., & Kostoulas, A. (2018). The Relational Beliefs and Practices of Highly Socio-emotionally Competent Language Teachers. In (pp. 158). Channel View Publications. <https://doi.org/10.21832/MERCER9450>
- Goh, C. (2017). Research into practice: Scaffolding learning processes to improve speaking performance. *Language Teaching*, 50(2), 247–260.  
<https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444816000483>

- Goh, C., & Burns, A. (2012). *Teaching speaking : a holistic approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Gonzalez Guarro, B., Hansson, K., Håkansson Ramberg, M., & Nyström, F. (2025). "Det blir liksom roligare" : Autentiskt material för motivation och delaktighet i grundskolans spanskundervisning. In A.-B. Constanze, H. Birgitta, & R. Maria Håkansson (Eds.), *Alla språk i skolan : språkundervisning i nordisk kontext* (pp. 71–87). Uppsala universitet. <https://doi.org/10.33063/vwfdz29>
- Goodlad, J. I. (1979). *Curriculum inquiry. The study of curriculum practice*. McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Graneheim, U. H., & Lundman, B. (2004). Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness. *Nurse education today*, 24(2), 105–112. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2003.10.001>
- Granfeldt, J., Erickson, G., Bardel, C., Sayehli, S., Ågren, M., & Österberg, R. (2023). Speaking French, German and Spanish in Swedish lower secondary school: A study on attained levels of proficiency. *Apples-Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 17(2), 91–121.
- Granfeldt, J., Sayehli, S., & Ågren, M. (2019). The context of second foreign languages in Swedish secondary schools. *Apples (Jyväskylä, Finland)*, 13(1), 27–48. <https://doi.org/10.17011/apples/urn.201903011688>
- Granfeldt, J., Sayehli, S., & Ågren, M. (2020). Trends in the study of Modern languages in Swedish lower secondary school (2000 - 2018) and the impact of grade point average enhancement credits. *Education Inquiry*, 12(2), 127–146. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20004508.2020.1790099>
- Gundem, B. B. (1997). Läroplansarbete som didaktisk verksamhet. In M. Uljens (Ed.), *Didaktik*. Studentlitteratur.
- Harmer, J. (2007). The practice of English language teaching 4th ed. *England: Pearson Education Limited*.
- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning : a synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. Routledge.
- Haukås, Å. (2014). Metakognisjon om språk og språklæring i et flerspråklighetsperspektiv. *Acta Didactica Norge*, 8(2), 7–16 sider.
- Haukås, Å., Mercer, S., & Svalberg, A. M.-L. (2022). School Teachers' Perceptions of Similarities and Differences between Teaching English and a Non-Language Subject. *TESOL quarterly*, 56(2), 474–498. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3062>
- Henry, A. (2011). Examining the impact of L2 English on L3 selves: A case study. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 8(3), 235–255. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2011.554983>
- Henry, A., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2023). *Willingness to communicate, multilingualism and interactions in community contexts* (Vol. 22). Channel View Publications.
- Henry, A., & Thorsen, C. (2018). The ideal multilingual self: validity, influences on motivation, and role in a multilingual education. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 15(4), 349–364. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2017.1411916>
- Hiver, P., Al-Hoorie, A. H., & Mercer, S. (2020). *Student engagement in the language classroom* (Vol. 11). Multilingual Matters.
- Horverak, M. O., Langeland, G. M., Løvik, A., Askland, S., Scheffler, P., & Wach, A. (2022). Systematic Work with Speaking Skills and Motivation in Second Language Classes. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 10(1), 33–52.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern language journal (Boulder, Colo.)*, 70(2), 125–132. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05256.x>

- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics : the ethnography of communication* (pp. 269–293). Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Håkansson, J., & Sundberg, D. (2020). *Utmärkt undervisning : framgångsfaktorer i svensk och internationell belysning* (Andra utgåvan ed.). Natur & Kultur.
- Inprom, K., & Chalermnirundorn, N. (2020). The Use of the Teaching-Speaking Cycle Model to Improve the English Speaking Skills of Wing 4 Officers, Royal Thai Air Force.
- Jank, W., & Meyer, H. (1997). *Didaktikens centrala frågor*.
- Kasper, G., & Wagner, J. (2011). A conversation-analytic approach to second language acquisition. In *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 117–142). Routledge.
- Klette, K. (2007). Trends in research on teaching and learning in schools: Didactics meets classroom studies. *European Educational Research Journal*, 6(2), 147–160.
- Klette, K., Blikstad-Balas, M., & Roe, A. (2017). Linking instruction and student achievement: Research design for a new generation of classroom studies. *Acta Didactica Norge-tidsskrift for fagdidaktisk forsknings-og utviklingsarbeid i Norge*, 11(3), 19.
- Kohn, K., & Hoffstaedter, P. (2017). Learner agency and non-native speaker identity in pedagogical lingua franca conversations: Insights from intercultural telecollaboration in foreign language education. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 30(5), 351–367.
- Konzett-Firth, C. (2020). Co-adaptation processes in plenary teacher-student talk and the development of L2 interactional competence. *Classroom Discourse*, 11(3), 209–228. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2019.1597744>
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: issues and implications*. Longman.
- Krigh, J. (2019). *Språkstudier som utbildningsstrategi hos grundskoleelever och deras familjer*. Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis.
- Krogager Andersen, L. (2021). Three perspectives on the role of teacher beliefs in the language classroom. *Apples: Journal of Applied Language Studies*(2).
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2014). *Den kvalitativa forskningsintervjun* (S.-E. Torhell, Trans.; Tr [reviderade] upplagan ed.). Studentlitteratur.
- Källermark Haya, L. (2015). *Agency in the Spanish language classroom [Elektronisk resurs] Student and teacher choices, actions and reports when students search for information online as part of a theme* Department of Language Education, Stockholm University]. Stockholm.
- Källkvist, M., Gyllstad, H., Sandlund, E., & Sundqvist, P. (2022). Språkpraktiker som didaktiskt kontrakt i skolämnet engelska. In A. Nordin & M. Uljens (Eds.), *Didaktikens språk* (pp. 103–120). Gleerups.
- Lantolf, J. P., Swain, M., & Poehner, M. E. (2018). *The Routledge Handbook of Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Development*. Taylor and Francis. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315624747>
- Lanvers, U. (2024). *Language learning beyond English : learner motivation in the twenty-first century* (1st ed. ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Levelt, W. J. M. (1989). *Speaking: from intention to articulation*. MIT Press.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2015). *How languages are learned* (4. ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Lindgren, B.-M., Lundman, B., & Graneheim, U. H. (2020). Abstraction and interpretation during the qualitative content analysis process. *International journal of nursing studies*, 108, 103632–103632. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2020.103632>

- Lindgren, E., & Enever, J. (2015). *Språkdiraktik : researching language teaching and learning*. Department of Language Studies, Umeå University.
- Littlewood, W. (2004). The Task-Based Approach: Some Questions and Suggestions. *ELT Journal*, 58(4), 319–326. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/58.4.319>
- Littlewood, W. (2018). Developing a personal approach to teaching language for communication. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, 15(4), 1222.
- Llovet Vilà, X. (2016). *Language teacher cognition and practice about a practical approach : the teaching of speaking in the Spanish as a foreign language classroom in Norwegian lower secondary school* University of Bergen]. Bergen.
- Llovet Vilà, X., & Nyström, F. (2023). Teacher cognition about oral skill development in the foreign language classroom: A literature review from Norway and Sweden. *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 11(1), 118–139.
- Long, M. H. (1996). The Role of the Linguistic Environment in Second Language Acquisition. 413–468.
- Lopez, J. I., Becerra, A. P., & Ramírez-Ávila, M. R. (2021). EFL speaking fluency through authentic oral production. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning*, 6(1), 37–55.
- Lärarnas Riksförbund. (2016). *Språk—så mycket mer än engelska. En rapport om moderna språk*.
- Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing Student Teachers' Codeswitching in Foreign Language Classrooms: Theories and Decision Making. *The Modern language journal (Boulder, Colo.)*, 85(4), 531–548. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00124>
- Macaro, E., & Lee, J. H. (2013). Teacher Language Background, Codeswitching, and English-Only Instruction: Does Age Make a Difference to Learners' Attitudes? *TESOL quarterly*, 47(4), 717–742. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.74>
- Macintyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to Communicate in the Second Language: Understanding the Decision to Speak as a Volitional Process. *The modern language journal*, 91(4), 564–576. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00623.x>
- Malmberg, P. (2001). Språksynen i dagens kursplaner. In M. f. skolutveckling (Ed.), *Språkboken. En antologi om språkundervisning och språkinlärning* (pp. 16–25).
- Malmberg, P., & Bergström, I. (2000). *I huvudet på en elev: projektet STRIMS : strategier vid inlärning av moderna språk* (1. uppl. ed.). Bonnier utbildning.
- Marton, F. (1983). *Från utbildningsmetodisk till fackdidaktisk forskning: försök till innehållslig bestämning av ett kunskapsområde*.
- Mashayekh, S. (2022). Agentic learners and task negotiation: How is task response constructed. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 73, 101149.
- May, S. (2013). *The Multilingual Turn : Implications for SLA, TESOL, and Bilingual Education*. Taylor & Francis Group.
- Méndez, C. R. (2010). Las creencias de los alumnos: posibles implicaciones para el aula de español como lengua extranjera. *Didáctica del Español como lengua extranjera. Monógrafos*, (10) ISSN, 2211.
- Mercer, S. (2012). The complexity of learner agency. *Apples-Journal of Applied Language Studies*.
- Mercer, S., & Dörnyei, Z. (2020). *Engaging Language Learners in Contemporary Classrooms*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/DOI: 10.1017/9781009024563>
- Michel, M. (2017). Complexity, accuracy, and fluency in L2 production. In *The Routledge handbook of instructed second language acquisition* (pp. 50–68). Routledge.

- Milà Garcia, A. (2023). Washback on speaking and spoken interaction: teachers' perceptions in the French as an additional language classroom.
- Musk, N., & Cromdal, J. (2018). Analysing bilingual talk - conversation analysis and language alternation. In A. Filipi, N. Markee, A. Filipi, & N. Markee (Eds.), *Conversation analysis and language alternation: capturing transitions in the classroom* (Vol. 295, pp. 15–34). John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.295>
- Nation, P. (2007). The four strands. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 2–13.
- Nation, P. (2011). Second language speaking. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 444–454). Routledge.
- Nilsson, M. (2020). *Young learners' perspectives on English classroom interaction : Foreign language anxiety and sense of agency in Swedish primary school* [Stockholms Universitet]. Stockholm.
- Nilsson, T., Harjanne, P., & Rosell Steuer, P. (2019). Between theory and practice. *Apples Apples - Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 13(1), 113–131.
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-Based Language Teaching* Cambridge University Press.
- Nylén, A. (2014). *Grammatisk kompetens och kommunikativ språkundervisning [Elektronisk resurs] Spansklärares värderingar, dilemman och förslag* [Stockholms universitets förlag]. Stockholm.
- Nyström, F. (2025a). Didactic dilemmas and possibilities: Teachers' and students' perceptions of speaking Spanish in foreign language education in Swedish lower secondary school. *Educare*(4), 163–198.
- Nyström, F. (2025b). Opportunities for speaking: the if, how and when of students' spoken target language in the second foreign language classroom. *Moderna Språk*, 119(2), 194–215.
- Nyström, F. (2026). Learning Possibilities in Spanish as a Foreign Language : The Value of Peer Interaction Tasks [article]. *Journal of Linguistics and Language Teaching*.
- Nyström, F., Säfström, S., & Söderblom, E. (2019). Hur får jag dem att prata? En klassrumsstudie i spanska. *Skolportens nummerade artikelserie för undervisning, lärande och ledarskap*, 9, 28.
- Oliynyk, I. (2021). *"Man vill ju ha med sig alla eleverna i undervisningen" : Didaktiska val och genuspönster i skolämnet idrott och hälsa* [Doctoral thesis, monograph, Linnaeus University Press]. Växjö.
- Peura, L., Mutta, M., & Johansson, M. (2023). Playing with Pronunciation: A study on robot-assisted French pronunciation in a learning game. *Nordic Journal of Digital Literacy*(2), 100–115.
- Ponnert, A. (2014). *La enseñanza del español en Suecia: enfoques y métodos empleados por cinco profesores* (Publication Number Dissertation/Thesis) Romanska institutionen, Lunds universitet]. Lund.
- Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second language pedagogy*. Oxford Univ. Press.
- Reichert, T., & Liebscher, G. (2012). Positioning the expert: Word searches, expertise, and learning opportunities in peer interaction. *The modern language journal*, 96(4), 599–609.
- Riis, U., & Francia, G. (2013). *Lärare, elever och spanska som modernt språk: styrkor och svagheter - möjligheter och hot*. Fortbildningsavdelningen för skolans internationalisering, Uppsala universitet.
- Rindal, U., & Brevik, L. M. (2019). State of the art: English didactics in Norway. *English Didactics in Norway: –30 years of doctoral research*, 418–440.

- Rocher-Hahlin, C. (2014). *Motivation pour apprendre une langue étrangère – une question de visualisation? : Les effets de trois activités en cours de français sur la motivation d'élèves suédois* (Publication Number Dissertation/Thesis) Lunds universitet]. Lund.
- Rocher Hahlin, C. (2021). Att skapa motivation för främmandespråksinläring. Effekter av tre aktiviteter i en interventionsstudie i franska klassrum [Elektronisk resurs]. In (Vol. 41-64). Forskarskolan FRAM.
- Rothgangel, M., & Vollmer, H. J. (2020). Towards a theory of subject-matter didactics. *Research in Subject-Matter Teaching and Learning (RISTAL)*, 3, 126–151.
- Rousse-Malpat, A., Koote, L., Steinkrauss, R., & Verspoor, M. (2024). Parlez-vous français? Effects of structure-based versus dynamic-usage-based approaches on oral proficiency. *Language Teaching Research*, 28(5), 1893–1917.
- Rousse-Malpat, A., & Verspoor, M. (2012). Measuring effectiveness in focus on form versus focus on meaning. *Dutch Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 263–276.
- Sato, M., & Ballinger, S. (2016). *Peer interaction and second language learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (L. I. L. teaching, Ed.). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Sato, M., & Viveros, P. (2016). Interaction or collaboration. Group dynamics in the foreign language classroom. In *Peer Interaction and Second Language Learning* (pp. 91–112). John Benjamins publishing company.
- Sayehli, S., Österberg, R., & Granfelt, J. (2022). Emotion and motivation in younger learners' second foreign language acquisition. In V. De Wilde & C. Goriot (Eds.), *Individual Differences in Young Second Language Learners* (Vol. 65, pp. 203–224). De Gruyter.
- Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction*. Cambridge University Press.
- Selin, P. (2014). *Developing strategic competence in oral interaction in English as a foreign language—A classroom study*
- Shin, J.-Y., Dixon, L. Q., & Choi, Y. (2020). An updated review on use of L1 in foreign language classrooms. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 41(5), 406–419.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2019.1684928>
- Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard educational review*, 57(1), 1–23.
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford University Press.
- Skolforskningsinstitutet. (2024). *Muntlig kommunikation i moderna språk - lärares undervisning*. Skolforskningsinstitutet.  
<https://www.skolfi.se/forskningssammanstallningar/systematiska-forskningssammanstallningar/muntlig-kommunikation-moderna-sprak/>
- Skolinspektionen. (2010). *Moderna språk. Kvalitetsgranskning*. . Skolinspektionen.  
<https://www.skolinspektionen.se/globalassets/02-beslut-rapporter-stat/granskningsrapporter/tkg/2010/moderna-sprak/slutrapport---moderna-sprak.pdf>
- Skolinspektionen. (2022). *Skolans arbete för kvalitet i undervisningen i moderna språk* (Undervisning för kommunikativ förmåga, Issue. Skolinspektionen.  
<https://www.skolinspektionen.se/beslut-rapporter-statistik/publikationer/kvalitetsgranskning/2022/skolans-arbete-for-kvalitet-i-undervisningen-i-moderna-sprak/>
- Skolverket. (2001). *Compulsory school : syllabuses [2000]*. (9138318121). Stockholm: National Agency for Education (Skolverket :

- Skolverket. (2012). *Internationella språkstudien 2011 : elevernas kunskaper i engelska och spanska*. Skolverket.
- Skolverket. (2013). *Att tala eller inte tala spanska : en fördjupning av resultaten i spanska från Internationella språkstudien 2011*. Skolverket : Loderio, J. & Matti, T.
- Skolverket. (2017). *Läroplan för grundskolan, förskoleklassen och fritidshemmet 2011: reviderad 2017*. Skolverket.
- Skolverket. (2022a). *Kommentarmaterial till kursplanen i moderna språk – grundskolan [Elektronisk resurs]*. Retrieved from <http://www.skolverket.se/publikationer>
- Skolverket. (2022b). *Läroplan för grundskolan, förskoleklassen och fritidshemmet 2022* (Upplaga 1 ed.). Skolverket.
- Skolverket. (2023). *Elever och skolenheter i grundskolan läsåret 2022/23 [Students and school units in compulsory school, academic year 2022/23]*.
- Skolöverstyrelsen. (1962). *Läroplan för grundskolan*.
- Skolöverstyrelsen. (1969). *Läroplan för grundskolan 1 Allmän del*. Utbildningsförl.
- Skolöverstyrelsen. (1980). *Läroplan för grundskolan : Lgr 80*. Stockholm: LiberLäromedel/Utbildningsförl.
- Spada, N., & Fröhlich, M. (1995). *COLT : communitative orientation of language teaching observation scheme*. Macquarie University. National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.
- Stetsenko, A. P. (1999). Social interaction, cultural tools and the zone of proximal development: In search of a synthesis. In S. Chaiklin, M. Hedegaard, & U. Juul Jensen (Eds.), *Activity Theory and Social Practice* (pp. 235–252). Aarhus university press
- Stoltz, J. (2011a). *L'alternance codique dans l'enseignement du FLE : Étude quantitative et qualitative de la production orale d'interlocuteurs suédophones en classe de lycée* (Publication Number 53) [Doctoral thesis, monograph, Linnaeus University Press]. DiVA. Växjö, Kalmar. <http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:lnu:diva-11480>
- Stoltz, J. (2011b). *L'alternance codique dans l'enseignement du FLE: Étude quantitative et qualitative de la production orale d'interlocuteurs suédophones en classe de lycée*
- Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language learning*, 52(1), 119–158.
- Storch, N., & Sato, M. (2020). Comparing the same task in ESL vs. EFL learning contexts: An activity theory perspective. *International journal of applied linguistics*, 30(1), 50–69.
- Sulis, G. (2022). Engagement in the foreign language classroom: Micro and macro perspectives. *System*, 110, 102902.
- Svalberg, A. M.-L. (2021). 3 Engagement with Language in Relation to Form-Focused Versus Meaning-Focused Teaching and Learning. In H. Phil, H. A.-H. Ali, & M. Sarah (Eds.), *Student engagement in the language classroom* (pp. 38–55). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/doi:10.21832/9781788923613-006>
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. *Principle and practice in applied linguistics : studies in honour of H.G. Widdowson / editors Guy Kook and Barbara Seidlhofer*.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (Vol. 97, pp. 97–114).

- Swain, M. (2013). The inseparability of cognition and emotion in second language learning. *Language Teaching*, 46(2), 195–207.  
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000486>
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *The modern language journal*, 82(3), 320–337.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: the uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 251–274.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688000400304>
- Säljö, R. (2014). *Lärande i praktiken: ett sociokulturellt perspektiv* (3. uppl. ed.). Studentlitteratur.
- Tewari, A., Goyal, N., Chan, M. K., Yau, T., Canny, J., & Schroeder, U. (2010). SPRING: speech and pronunciation improvement through games, for Hispanic children. Proceedings of the 4th ACM/IEEE International Conference on Information and Communication Technologies and Development,
- Tholin, J. (2017). State Control and Governance of Schooling and Their Effects on French, German, and Spanish Learning in Swedish Compulsory School, 1996–2011. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 63(3), 317–332.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2017.1375004>
- Tholin, J., & Lindqvist, A. (2009). *Språkval svenska/engelska på grundskolan : en genomlysning*. Institutionen för pedagogik, Högskolan i Borås.
- Thompson, N. P., & Mutton, T. (2023). ‘I worry about getting it wrong and looking like a silly billy’: does explicit classroom-based strategy intervention change pupils’ attitudes towards speaking in the modern foreign languages classroom? *The Language Learning Journal*, 51(3), 312–327.
- Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to teach speaking*. Longman.
- Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H., & Fung, I. (2008). *Teacher professional learning and development* (Vol. 18). International Adacemy of Education.
- Tornberg, U. (2000). *Om språkundervisning i mellanrummet - och talet om "kommunikation" och "kultur" i kursplaner och läromedel från 1962 till 2000* [Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis]. Uppsala.
- Tornberg, U. (2020). *Språkdiraktik* (6., [rev.] uppl. ed.). Gleerups Utbildning.
- Turnbull, M., & Dailey-O’Cain, J. (2009). *First language use in second and foreign language learning* (1st ed., Vol. 44). Multilingual Matters.
- Uljens, M. (1997). *Didaktik : teori, reflektion och praktik*. Studentlitteratur.
- UN. (2025). *Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Resolution Adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015*.
- Utbildningsdepartementet. (1994a). *Läroplan för det obligatoriska skolväsendet, förskoleklassen och fritidshemmet*. Stockholm, Utbildningsdepartementet
- Utbildningsdepartementet. (1994b). *Läroplaner för det obligatoriska skolväsendet och de frivilliga skolformerna*. Utbildningsdepartementet Stockholm
- Van Compernelle, R. A. (2015). *Interaction and second language development: A Vygotskian perspective* (Vol. 44). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Van Lier, L. (2004). *The Ecology and Semiotics of Language Learning A Sociocultural Perspective* (1st ed. 2004. ed.). Springer Netherlands.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-7912-5>
- Vetenskapsrådet. (2024). *God forskningsred 2024*. Vetenskapsrådet.
- Vold, E. T., & Brkan, A. (2020). Classroom discourse in lower secondary French-as-a-foreign-language classes in Norway: Amounts and contexts of first and target language use. *System (Linköping)*, 93, 102309.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102309>

- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Harvard University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvjf9vz4>
- Wahlström, N. (2016). *Läroplansteori och didaktik* (Andra upplagan ed.). Gleerup Utbildning AB.
- Wahlström, N. (2019). *Didaktik: ett professionsbegrepp* (Första upplagan ed.). Gleerups.
- Wertsch, J. V. (1991). *Voices of the mind: Sociocultural approach to mediated action*. Harvard University Press.
- Wesely, P. M., Vyn, R., & Neubauer, D. (2024). Teacher beliefs about instructional approaches: Interrogating the notion of teaching methods. *Language Teaching Research*, 28(1), 29–51.
- Wiliam, D. (2023). Mind the gap (No. Episode 555 (S3E11)) In *Mind the gap - designing teaching and understanding learners*
- Wiliam, D., & Ashing, K. (2016). *Att leda lärares lärande : formativ bedömning för skollära* (1. utg. ed.). Natur & kultur.
- Xi, J., & Lantolf, J. P. (2021). Scaffolding and the zone of proximal development: A problematic relationship. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 51(1), 25–48.
- Österberg, R. (2008). *Motivación, aptitud y desarrollo estructural: un estudio sobre la actuación lingüística en aprendientes suecos de español L2* (Publication Number Dissertation/Thesis) Department of Spanish, Portuguese and Latin American Studies, Stockholm University]. Stockholm.
- Österberg, R. (2021). Perfil laboral y formativo del profesorado de español como lengua extranjera o segunda (ELE/EL2) en Suecia. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, 8(1), 1–15.
- Österberg, R., & Bardel, C. (2016). Det andra främmande språket i svensk skola. In C. Bardel, Y. Falk, & C. Lindqvist (Eds.), *Tredjespråksinläring* (1 ed., pp. 13–28). Studentlitteratur.

# Appendices

## Appendix I

### Interview questions to the teacher

1. Background:
  - 1.1 How long have you been working as a SFL-teacher?
  - 1.2 What other languages do you teach?
  - 1.3 What's the difference between teaching the other language?
  - 1.4 How is the collaboration between the language teachers in your school?
  - 1.5 What do you think are the biggest challenges in teaching SFL at this level?
  - 1.6 How is a successful SFL-lesson in your opinion? And the opposite?
  - 1.7 What role does authentic material have in the SFL-education? And in your class?
2. The instruction of spoken production and interaction
  - 2.1 How do you define spoken production and interaction?
  - 2.1 What is difficult/easy in the teaching of oral interaction (and production?)
  - 2.2 Do you follow a certain model or theory in your teaching?
  - 2.3 What is your opinion on evaluating spoken interaction? How do you evaluate? How do the evaluation criteria in the curriculum affect you on a daily basis?
  - 2.4 Relating to the didactic material: can you give an example of an oral activity that you like?
  - 2.5 How do you use the didactical material as input of oral activities in your lesson planning?
  - 2.6 What support, help or training would do you need to increase your teaching?
3. Regarding one or several specific spoken activities
  - 3.1 Why did you choose it?
  - 3.2 What was your idea about it? What was the purpose? What were they supposed to learn from it?
  - 3.3 Did the activity result the way you planned? Why/why not?
  - 3.4 What kind of oral output did you notice from the students?
  - 3.5 Would you repeat this activity in another class? At the same level?
4. Reflections on the teacher's own code switching.
  - 4.1 Are you always aware of when you switch between the languages?
  - 4.2 Do you have a general idea about it?
  - 4.3 Would you like to give an example of when you spoke Swedish although your intention was to speak Spanish?

## Interview questions to students

### 1. General questions

- a) Do you like to speak Spanish?
- b) Why?/Why not?
- c) Is it important to be able to speak Spanish? Why?
- d) Do you like to speak other languages? Why/why not?
- e) Have you ever spoken Spanish outside of class?
- f) If yes: how did that differ from speaking Spanish in class?
- g) What do you think about speaking Spanish in class?

### 2. Related to one or more spoken activities in class:

- a) What did you think about this activity?
- b) What did you learn?
- c) Is this something you usually do in class?
- d) What was easy/difficult? Why?
- e) If it was difficult, what made/would have made it easier?
- f) Did you get the support you needed? If not, what would be better help?
- g) What's the difference in the activity compared to what you do in English?

### 3. Concluding remark

As I work with teacher training: what advice would you like to give to future teachers regarding how to get students to speak Spanish in class?

## Appendix II

### **Till elev som deltar i forskningsprojektet *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*.**

Hej!

Jag heter Fredrika och är doktorand på Uppsala Universitet. Just nu arbetar jag med ett projekt som jag kallar "Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet". Under några veckor på vårterminen kommer jag att komma på besök när din grupp har lektioner i spanska. Det jag vill veta mer om är hur arbetet med muntlig produktion och interaktion går till. För att få forskningsmaterial kommer jag att filma lektioner och spela in ljudfiler. Jag kommer också att intervjua några elever på svenska. Materialet kommer bara att användas för forskning och undervisning på universitetet. Ditt namn eller bilder och film på dig kommer inte att synas när jag berättar om min forskning. Inte heller kan man se vilken skola du går på. Ingen del av filmerna eller ljudupptagningarna kommer att vara tillgängliga eller sökbara online.

Det är frivilligt att vara med, och du kan säga ifrån under projektets gång om du inte vill fortsätta att vara med. Det som händer då är att jag undviker att filma dig och inte tar med det du säger när jag undersöker forskningsmaterialet. Om du vill vara med skriver du ditt namn på blanketten som följer med det här brevet och som heter Samtycke till att vara med. Det betyder att du visar att du förstått vad forskningsprojektet innebär för dig och att du vill delta.

Vänliga hälsningar,

Fredrika Nyström, doktorand i didaktik med inriktning spanska,  
Uppsala universitet (fredrika.nystrom@edu.uu.se)

### **Samtycke till att vara med i studien *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*.**

Jag har fått muntlig och skriftlig information om studien och har kunnat ställa frågor. Jag får behålla den skriftliga informationen.

- Jag tackar ja till att vara med i studien *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*.
- Jag går med på att uppgifter om mig behandlas på det sätt som beskrivs i den skriftliga informationen.]

Plats och datum	Underskrift

**Information till forskningspersonerna angående deltagande i forskningsprojektet *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet***

**Till skolhuvudmän och deltagande lärare**

Detta är en fråga om du vill delta i ett forskningsprojekt. I det här dokumentet får du information om projektet och om vad det innebär att delta.

**Vad är det för projekt?**

Under vårterminen 2020 kommer jag att i ett doktorandprojekt, *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*, samla in forskningsmaterial från lektioner i spanska i årskurs 9. Projektets syfte är att undersöka olika sätt att arbeta med muntlig produktion och interaktion på spanska; alltså hur det ser ut när eleverna talar spanska på spansklektionen. Eftersom du är lärare eller skolledare i aktuell skola och årskurs vore därför din/din skolas medverkan oerhört värdefull. I projektet kommer lektionerna att observeras och videofilmas, fokus i filmerna kommer att vara på det gemensamma arbetet i klassrummet och inte på enskilda elever. Lektionerna kommer även att spelas in på ljudfiler. Läraren i gruppen samt några elever kommer att intervjuas.

Forskningshuvudman för projektet är Uppsala universitet. Med forskningshuvudman avses den organisation som är ansvarig för studien.

**Hur går studien till?**

I projektet kommer jag att iaktta undervisningen i muntlig produktion och interaktion i spanska i åk 9. Under några veckors tid kommer spanskgruppen att filmas med ljud och bild utan någon inblandning av forskaren. Efteråt kommer läraren och några elever att intervjuas. Några delar av filmerna och ljudinspelningarna kommer att transkriberas för vidare analys.

**Vad innebär det att delta i studien?**

Projektet innebär inga risker för deltagarna. I de fall där exempelvis känslig personinformation framkommer, kommer det att tas bort ur materialet och inte användas i analyser, rapporter eller presentationer.

**Vad händer med mina uppgifter?**

Ditt arbete som lärare kommer att observeras och filmas. Allt forskningsmaterial kommer att behandlas så att inte obehöriga kan ta del av det. Ingen del av filmerna kommer att vara tillgängliga eller sökbara online. Ansvarig för dina personuppgifter är Uppsala universitet. Enligt EU's dataskyddsförordning har du rätt att kostnadsfritt få ta del av de uppgifter om dig som hanteras i studien, och vid behov få eventuella fel rättade. Du kan också begära att uppgifter om dig raderas samt att behandlingen av dina personuppgifter begränsas. Om du vill ta del av uppgifterna ska du kontakta ansvarig doktorand Fredrika Nyström, fredrika.nystrom@edu.uu.se eller huvudhandledare, professor Jenny W Folkeryd, jenny.folkeryd@edu.uu.se, tel; 018-4712494/0703383969.

Dataskyddsbud för UU Jakob Häkansson nås på dataskyddsbud.uu.se. Om du är missnöjd med hur dina personuppgifter behandlas har du rätt att lämna in klagomål till Datatilsynen, som är tillsynsmyndighet.

**Hur får jag information om resultatet av studien?**

Du kan ta del av resultatet av studien i de rapporter och artiklar som kommer att skrivas inom projektet. Om du vill komma åt det insamlade material där du finns med, kan du kontakta doktorand Fredrika Nyström (fredrika.nystrom@edu.uu.se).

**Deltagandet är frivilligt**

Ditt deltagande är frivilligt och du kan när som helst välja att avbryta deltagandet. Om du väljer att inte delta eller vill avbryta ditt deltagande behöver du inte uppge varför. Om du vill avbryta ditt deltagande ska du kontakta den ansvariga för studien (se nedan).

**Ansvariga för studien**

Ansvariga för studien är doktorand Fredrika Nyström samt huvudhandledare professor Jenny W Folkeryd, Institutionen för pedagogik, didaktik och utbildningsstudier, Box 2136, 750 02 Uppsala. Besöksadress: Blåsenhus, von Kraemers Allé 1, Telefonnummer: 018-4712494/0703383969. fredrika.nystrom@edu.uu.se, jenny.folkeryd@edu.uu.se

**Samtycke till att delta i studien *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet***

Jag har fått muntlig och skriftlig information om studien och har haft möjlighet att ställa frågor. Jag får behålla den skriftliga informationen.

- Jag samtycker till att delta i studien *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*
- Jag samtycker till att uppgifter om mig behandlas på det sätt som beskrivs i forskningspersonsinformationer.]

Plats och datum	Underskrift

## Information om att delta i forskningsprojektet *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*

### Till vårdnadshavare för elev i klass 9 på

Detta är en fråga om ditt/ert barn får delta i ett forskningsprojekt om muntlig språkfärdighet i spanska. I det här dokumentet får du/ni information om projektet och om vad det innebär att delta. Ditt/ert barn har fått samma information muntligt och skriftligt på lektionen.

### Vad är det för projekt?

Under vårterminen 2020 kommer jag att i ett doktorandprojekt, *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*, samla in forskningsmaterial från lektioner i spanska i årskurs 9. Projektets syfte är att undersöka olika sätt att arbeta med muntlig produktion och interaktion på spanska; alltså hur det går till när eleverna talar spanska på spansklektionen. Du är vårdnadshavare i den aktuella spanskgruppen och ditt/ert barns medverkan vore oerhördt värdefull. I projektet kommer lektionerna att observeras och videofilmas. Fokus i filmerna kommer att vara på det gemensamma arbetet i klassrummet och inte på enskilda elever. Lektionerna kommer även att spelas in på ljudfiler och efteråt kommer några elever att intervjuas på svenska.

Forskningshuvudman för projektet är Uppsala universitet. Med forskningshuvudman avses den organisation som är ansvarig för studien.

### Hur går studien till?

I projektet kommer jag att iakta undervisningen i muntlig produktion och interaktion i spanska i år 9. Under några veckors tid kommer spanskgruppen att filmas med ljud och bild utan någon inblandning av forskaren. Några elever kommer att intervjuas efteråt. Visa delar av filmerna och ljudfilerna kommer att transkriberas för vidare analys.

### Vad innebär det att delta i studien

Projektet innebär inga risker för deltagarna. I de fall där exempelvis känslig personinformation framkommer, kommer det att tas bort ur materialet och inte användas i analyser, rapporter eller presentationer.

### Vad händer med mitt barns uppgifter?

Texter, filmer och ljudupptagningar kommer att behandlas så att inte obehöriga kan ta del av det. Inga delar av filmerna eller ljudfilerna kommer att vara tillgängliga eller sökbara online.

Ansvarig för ditt/ert barns material är Uppsala universitet. Enligt EU:s dataskyddsförordning har du/ni rätt att kostnadsfritt få ta del av de uppgifter om ditt/ert barn som hanteras i studien, och vid behov få eventuella fel rättade. Du/ni kan också begära att uppgifter om barnet raderas samt att behandlingen av materialet begränsas. Om du/ni vill ta del av uppgifterna ska du/ni kontakta ansvarig doktorand Fredrika Nyström, fredrika.nystrom@edu.uu.se eller huvudhandledare professor Jenny W Folkeryd, jenny.folkeryd@edu.uu.se, tel: 018-471 2494.

Om du/ni är missnöjd/a med hur materialet behandlas har du/ni rätt att lämna in klagomål till Datatillsynskontrollen, som är tillsynsmyndighet.

### Hur får jag information om resultatet av studien?

Du/ni kan ta del av resultatet av studien i de rapporter och artiklar som kommer att skrivas inom projektet. Om du/ni vill komma åt det insamlade materialet där ditt barn finns med kan du/ni kontakta doktorand Fredrika Nyström (fredrika.nystrom@edu.uu.se).

### Deltagandet är frivilligt

Ditt/ert barns deltagande är frivilligt och barnet eller du/ni kan när som helst välja att avbryta deltagandet. Om barnet eller du/ni väljer att inte delta eller vill avbryta deltagandet behöver du/ni inte uppges varför. Om barnet eller du/ni vill avbryta deltagandet ska du/ni kontakta den ansvariga för studien (se nedan).

### Ansvariga för studien

Ansvarig för studien är: Doktorand Fredrika Nyström samt huvudhandledare Professor Jenny W Folkeryd, Institutionen för pedagogik, didaktik och utbildningsstudier, Box 2136, 750 02 Uppsala. Besöksadress: Blåsenhus, von Kraemers Allé 1, Telefonnummer: 018-4712494, fredrika.nystrom@edu.uu.se, jenny.folkeryd@edu.uu.se

### Samtycke till att delta i studien *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*

Barnets namn: \_\_\_\_\_

#### Vårdnadshavare 1.

Jag har fått skriftlig information om studien och har haft möjlighet att ställa frågor. Jag får behålla den skriftliga informationen.

- Jag samtycker till att mitt barn får delta i studien *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*
- Jag samtycker till att uppgifter om mitt barn behandlas på det sätt som beskrivs i informationen.

Plats och datum	Underskrift

- Jag är ensam vårdnadshavare

#### Vårdnadshavare 2

Jag har fått skriftlig informationen om studien och har haft möjlighet att ställa frågor. Jag får behålla den skriftliga informationen.

- Jag samtycker till att mitt barn får delta i studien *Muntlig produktion och interaktion i språkklassrummet*
- Jag samtycker till att uppgifter om mitt barn behandlas på det sätt som beskrivs i informationen.

Plats och datum	Underskrift



## Appendix IV

### *Speaking Observation Scheme (SOS)*

1.Planning				2.Content control			3.Materials				4.Speaking			5.Task dimension				
S	Time	Sequence	Activity	T/ Txt	T/ Txt/ St	St	Source				Skill Comb.		Language	F				M
							Sp	M	O	St	P	Int	Use	Nc	Pc	C	Sc	Ac
1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	2.1	2.2	2.3	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	4.1	4.2	4.3	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5

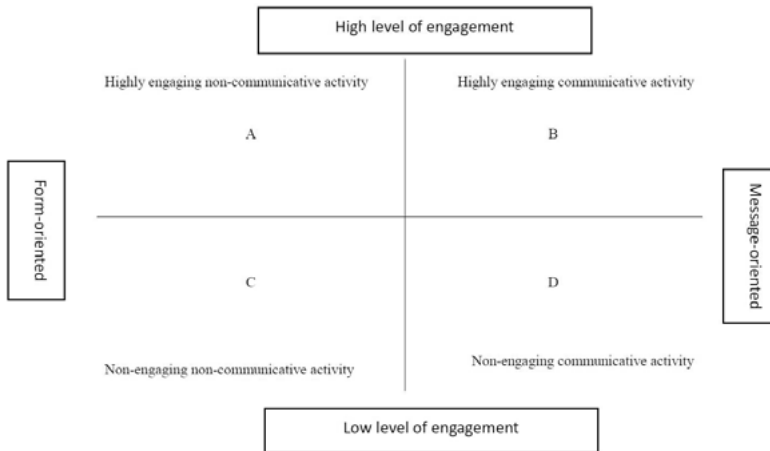
(Llovet Vilà, 2016, p. 106)

The *SOS* describes the nature of each activity under the section *planning*, also who selects the *content* and the teaching *materials*. Furthermore, it includes one section for *speaking*, identifying *production* and/or *interaction* and also classifies spoken *language use* as either *reproduction*, *production* and/or *borrowing*. *Reproduction* is understood as the use of an available sample of language, e.g. read aloud, while *production* is a self-initiated formulation. *Borrowing*, in this context, is the use an available formulation to express self-initiated content (Prabhu, 1987, pp. 61–62). Finally, the *SOS* includes a *task dimension*, which described communicativeness in alignment with Littlewood’s communicative continuum (above) from non-communicative learning to authentic communication.

# Appendix V

## Model for activity design of in Littlewood (2018, p. 1225)

We can represent the two dimensions of 'engagement' and 'communicativeness' in a matrix as below:





# Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis

*Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Educational Sciences 40*

Editor: The Dean of the Faculty of Educational Sciences

A doctoral dissertation from the Faculty of Educational Sciences, Uppsala University, is usually a summary of a number of papers. A few copies of the complete dissertation are kept at major Swedish research libraries, while the summary alone is distributed internationally through the series Digital Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Educational Sciences. (Prior to January, 2005, the series was published under the title “Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Educational Sciences”.)

Distribution: [publications.uu.se](http://publications.uu.se)  
urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-578775



ACTA UNIVERSITATIS  
UPSALIENSIS  
2026