Spannungsfelder: Fields of Tension When Teaching Grammar in German as a Third Language

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Contents

1. Introduction **4**

1.1 Aim and research gap 5

1.2 Research question 6

1.3 Outline of the thesis 7

1.4 The Swedish context: Languages in society and education 8

1.4.1 Foreign language education *8*

1.4.2 The school subject Modern Languages *10*

1.4.3 The conditions for L3 teaching *11*

2. Theoretical background **12**

2.1 Shaping the language teacher profession 12

2.1.1 Teacher knowledge forms *12*

2.1.2 Teacher cognition *17*

2.1.3 Pedagogical beliefs *20*

2.1.4 Cognitions in practice and the interplay with the social context *22*

2.1.5 Emotional and affective aspects of teaching *24*

2.2 Specifics of L3 education 28

2.2.1 Defining L3 and tertiary language didactics *28*

2.2.2 Crosslinguistic influences of background languages *30*

2.2.3 The example of verb-second (V2) constructions *32*

2.3 Teaching L3 grammar 33

2.3.1 Paradigms underpinning grammar teaching *33*

2.3.2 Teachers' approaches to grammar *35*

2.3.3 Raising metalinguistic awareness *36*

2.3.4 Crosslinguistic pedagogy (XLP) *38*

3. Previous research **41**

3.1 Pedagogical knowledge 41

3.2 Teachers' beliefs about grammar 42

3.3 Teacher emotions 44

3.4 L3 teaching and learning in Scandinavia 48

4. Methods **52**

4.1 Rationales for the methodological design 53

4.2 Participants 55

4.2.1 Teachers A–D *56*

4.2.2 School and classroom contexts ... *57*
4.3 Data collection ... 57
4.3.1 Interviews ... *58*
4.3.2 Observations ... *59*
4.3.3 Lesson materials and artefacts ... *61*
4.4 Analysis ... 63
4.4.1 Preparation of data ... *63*
4.4.2 Qualitative content analysis ... *65*
4.4.3 Thematic frame ... *67*
4.4.4 Validation and trustworthiness ... *71*
4.5 Ethical considerations and researcher positionality ... 72
5. Summary of Studies 1–2 ... 76
5.1 Summary of Study 1 ... 77
5.2 Summary of Study 2 ... 81
5.3 Conclusions from Study 1 and Study 2 ... 85
6. Discussion and conclusions ... 88
6.1 A subject didactics perspective ... 89
6.1.1 The specialized curriculum thinker ... *90*
6.1.2 GL3-specific pedagogical knowledge ... *91*
6.2 The role of the context ... 93
6.3 Fields of tension ... 95
6.4 Consequential validity: Usefulness, relevance and teacher-friendliness ... 97
6.5 Contribution, implications and limitations ... 98
Sammanfattning på svenska ... 102
References ... 106
Appendices ... 126

Study 1

Lacking bridges and apprehensive tensions: The impact of emotions and contextual factors on German L3 teachers' perceptions and grammar teaching practices (Beslagic, 2025)

Study 2

Minding the English trap: A crosslinguistic pedagogical approach to teaching the V2 rule to young German L3 learners in Sweden (Beslagic, 2024)

1. Introduction

An understanding of teaching and learning in formal educational settings should depart from a viewpoint of school subjects as sources of identity (Young, 2013) for the actors involved in the processes of shaping and enacting it. Therefore, at the heart of this thesis project is an interest to explore the interplay of relationships between teachers, learners, subject matter, instructional approaches and the immediate context (including material, social, political, sociolinguistic, cognitive and emotional factors) that define the teaching of German as a third language (henceforth, German L3 or GL3) at the lower secondary level of Swedish compulsory schools. Focusing on the relations between the *who*, the *what* and the *how* and how these entities interact has a long tradition in educational research, more specifically in the field of didactics (Klette, 2007), but has hitherto remained fairly unexplored when it comes to German as a second foreign language in a Swedish context. Moreover, German has in general been sparsely studied in research on foreign language teaching and learning in Sweden (Bardel et al., 2023). The present thesis therefore makes a contribution to filling that research gap by shedding light on the subject, its teaching content and, most importantly, the teachers' professional life-worlds and the role they play in bringing about grammar teaching to young beginners studying GL3 as a language choice (cf. 1.4.2).

As for specific instructional content within GL3 as a subject, this thesis project is set to investigate the teaching of grammar. The notion that grammar teaching in German as a school subject can be a challenging undertaking, given the discourse that surrounds it both in foreign language (Diehl, 1999; Diehl & Boss, 2017) and L1 (Eisenberg, 2004) educational contexts, makes it a particularly interesting area to study empirically. As Larsen-Freeman (2009) notes in a discussion on the variation in *where* languages are complex, teachers of German typically invest considerable time and effort in dealing with aspects of grammar (p. 522). It could therefore be assumed that empirical classroom research on grammar teaching in L3 contexts is intrinsically purposeful for both subject didactics[1] and for the profession.

Three viewpoints are central in the present thesis. The first one is the theoretical point of departure that "language teaching is first and foremost an educational enterprise, not a linguistic one" (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 439). This implies that teachers of language subjects have to "mediate successfully on a daily basis between content and institutional demands (object side) and personal constellations (subject side)" (Vollmer, 2014, p. 32) and give many careful considerations to the structure of the pedagogical planning of language instruction (Tschirner, 1996). The second central viewpoint is the underlying assumption that professional and subject-specific pedagogical knowledge, as well as personal perceptions of teaching contexts, have an influence on teachers' pedagogical actions and, as such, could have a determining beneficial impact on students' learning achievements (Lipowsky, 2006). The third viewpoint guiding this thesis is the need to promote the specific characteristics of teaching an L3, by describing the

[1] Acknowledging that this term is typically used in the educational discourse of continental Europe, and thus might be unusual in some areas of the broader educational research field, it is a central concept in this thesis and will be further explained in the following section.

subject-specific contexts and phenomena of L3 education and thereby "exploring the nuances within and between language subjects" (Kabel et al., 2022, p. 64). This latter perspective is approached by taking into consideration the fact that an L3 is taught after an L2 (in this case English) and exploring the specific crosslinguistic phenomena that become salient and thus relevant for the GL3 instructional setting, especially for explicit grammar teaching.

1.1 Aim and research gap

The overarching aim of this thesis project is to contribute empirical findings on how grammar instruction is carried out by experienced GL3 teachers and what shapes their perceptions, beliefs, instructional decisions and, last but not least, their teacher emotions about teaching grammar to young beginners. In doing so, the research will shed light on cognitive, social and emotional dimensions of the professional lifeworld of GL3 teachers. Furthermore, the aim is to gain an understanding of how these factors interact in shaping a pedagogical knowledge that is subject-specific for the domain of GL3 teaching, and more specifically, for the practice of teaching grammar in a GL3 course for young beginners. It is important to underscore the focus on the subject area (i.e., GL3) and a defined teaching content (i.e., grammar), since there is a need for these aspects in language education research fields (cf. Coffey, 2021; Myhill, 2021).

As Klette (2007) points out, the role of content has been underestimated in studies of teaching and learning. We also know little about how teachers' activities influence students' learning, since studies that link these are rare in Scandinavian educational research (cf. 3.4). Furthermore, it is believed that research findings on teachers' instructional repertoires in scarcely researched school subjects, such as German L3, can contribute useful knowledge relevant to both the field of subject didactics (Vollmer, 2014) as well as to the profession of foreign language teaching. Didactics[2] is here understood from a perspective of the German *Didaktik* tradition, conceived of as "systematic reflection about how to organise teaching in a way that brings about the individual growth of the student" (Hudson & Schneuwly, 2007, p. 106–107), where the teacher, with their professional knowledge base, beliefs and feelings, is ultimately the key player in the process. Teaching is, from the same perspective, understood as the interplay of activities, intentions, interaction between individuals and deliberately selected subject matter (Boström & Josefsson, 2006) that take place in classrooms as defined institutional arenas. Subject didactics is, hence, the discipline that defines and evaluates specific skills, competences and educational outcomes of teaching and learning of the respective subject (Vollmer, 2014, p. 25). Adding to this field, with regard to German L3 as a specific school subject in Sweden with all its characteristics, is the overarching aim of the present thesis.

Various branches of language education research put forth theoretical debate about grammar instruction and experimental studies, but few studies "acknowledge the realities of language teaching" (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 440) by looking at what practicing teachers actually do in authentic classrooms. This is an important aspect, since much research in teacher

[2] Interchangeably used with "pedagogy" and "teaching and learning" throughout the text.

cognition in language teaching is conducted on native speaker teachers working with small groups of motivated adults (Borg, 2003a). The Swedish context where German is taught as an L3 in compulsory school is, therefore, regarded as a fertile ground for gaining insights from a teaching setting that is not yet covered by present research findings. In the research literature on language teacher cognition (e.g., Borg, 2003a, 2003b, 2006) there is a call for studies that combine perspectives and methods, because "data based on and elicited in relation to observed classroom events may better capture teachers' cognitions in relation to actual practice" (Borg, 2006: p. 280). Seeking to answer the research questions, this project therefore employs a combination of data collection methods, including individual interviews, lesson observations, post-lesson oral reflection, as well as a collection of outlined lesson plans and designed artefacts used during the observed lessons.

The present thesis project seeks to develop an understanding about GL3 teachers' perceptions of the subject teaching context and pedagogical practices when it comes to teaching grammar to young beginners, with the further aim of unpacking possible pedagogical dilemmas and *Spannungsfelder* (fields of tension), i.e., competing demands between different factors in teaching (cf. Freeman, 1993). This is performed by building on theories of teacher knowledge that include dimensions of both thinking and action, such as pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986; 1987), teacher cognition, beliefs and practices (Borg, 2006, 2019; Basturkmen, 2012; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2009), teacher emotions (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018; Golombek & Doran, 2014; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and grammar teaching in L3 settings (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Larsen-Freeman, 1991, 2009, 2015; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Since L3 education is essentially defined by the existence of at least two previously learned languages in the background, this thesis also takes crosslinguistic pedagogy as a theoretical approach (Ballinger et al., 2017; 2020; Jessner, 2008; Séror & Gentil, 2020) into account when exploring how the participants plan and perform grammar teaching in GL3. Combining these background theories is a way to gain a closer understanding of the context-specific pedagogical content knowledge required in GL3 teaching, understood as "that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

In short summary, the field of German subject didactics leaves a research gap for the exploration of a subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge in a true L3 setting (i.e., an educational context with the presence of multiple background languages that all students in the classroom have previously studied through formal schooling) where the focus is exclusively set on the domain of teaching grammar by methodologically combining the study of stated beliefs and observed actions.

1.2 Research question

With the aim to make a contribution to filling the above-mentioned gap and gain a better understanding of GL3 teachers' thinking and practices regarding grammar teaching, the following overarching research question has been posed:

> How do the participating teachers perceive, plan for and perform grammar teaching in a context where German is taught as an L3 (i.e., after English) to young beginners?

Guiding the formulation of this research question is a sociocognitive perspective, which views language education through the prism of the inseparability of the individual mind and the surrounding ecosocial environment (cf. Atkinson et al., 2018). Therefore, apart from teacher cognition and the subject-specific factor of *grammar*, the question also includes social factors, here understood as the influence exerted by social actors in the teaching environment (e.g., students' attitudes and availability of colleagues) and the ecosocial context in a local (e.g., group sizes), as well as a in a broader sense (e.g., the social status of a language). It is assumed that taking all these factors into consideration can provide the building blocks for an understanding of how a subject- and content-specific teacher knowledge develops.

This thesis is article-based and consists of two studies/articles framed by the present extended introduction. Guided by the overarching research question above, the two constituent studies have their own research questions upon which each article is based, as presented in Table 1:

Table 1: Overview of research questions of the two constituent studies.

Study	**RQ**	
1	:1	What role do emotions and context have in shaping German L3 teachers' perceptions and practices when teaching grammar to young beginners in a Swedish school context?
2	:1	Which pedagogical views on the role of English and its influence on GL3 teaching do the participants display?
2	:2	How do the participants make explicit crosslinguistic references to English in their planned and performed GL3 teaching?

As can be seen, the three research questions laid out in Table 1 relate to the overarching RQ by addressing cognitive, social and emotional factors from various perspectives. Whereas Study 1 covers all three factor categories and is explicitly targeting the emotional aspects of GL3 teachers' professional knowledge, the two RQs of Study 2 mainly address the cognitive and social dimensions that arise when factoring in multiple background languages in the L3 teaching practice, i.e., when applying a crosslinguistic pedagogical approach. Taken as a whole, answering the three research questions of the two constituent studies should provide valuable empirical data for discussing the overarching research question of the thesis.

1.3 Outline of the thesis

The thesis is a compilation of two articles and an extended introduction providing a broader context and an integration of the results of the two individual studies into a synthesized discussion. The thesis text is organized in six chapters with a varying number of appertaining sub-sections, of which this introduction is the first chapter. It is followed by a theoretical background chapter and a chapter that reviews previous research relevant for the theoretical

fields and concepts drawn upon, as well as an overview of relevant educational research from the Scandinavian context. The methodological chapter explains the procedures of the conducted research project in detail and discusses the methodological and ethical considerations that were made over the course of the research. The results are presented in the fifth chapter, organized around two sub-sections laying out the findings of the two constituent articles and a third sub-section summarizing the conclusions of the two studies. Ultimately, the final chapter presents a thorough discussion about the findings and outcomes of the conducted research project, including an account of the suggested fields of tension (*Spannungsfelder*) identified in the process of addressing the research question of the thesis (1.2).

1.4 The Swedish context: Languages in society and education

The teaching and learning of foreign languages in Sweden should be understood in the broader sociolinguistic context of the country, where an act regulating the official status of languages was adopted in 2009. The Language Act (Regeringskansliet, 2009) stipulates that Swedish is the principal language of the country, whereas five other languages (Finnish, Yiddish, Tornedal Finnish, Romany Chib and Sami) have status as national minority languages. In addition, the act points out Swedish sign language as a particular concern for the public sector to protect and promote and it also mentions provisions on the right to use the other Nordic languages in domains where this is applicable. Due to a large amount of immigration in the past decades, a wide array of languages is spoken in the private domain. In the 1960s, mother tongue instruction was introduced in Sweden as part of public schooling (Institutet för språk och folkminnen, 2023). This, alongside the provision of Swedish as a Second Language as an option to the school subject Swedish for students with other L1 backgrounds, suggests the Swedish language policy might be one of the most radical ones in contemporary Europe (Lindgren & Enever, 2015, p. 12). Being the majority language in Sweden, the term L1 will in this thesis be used to refer to Swedish, although, self-evidently, it is not the L1 of all students in a typical Swedish classroom of today.

1.4.1 Foreign language education

The Swedish curricula for foreign languages (i.e., English and the subject Modern Languages) are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe/Skolverket, 2009; Council of Europe, 2020), which means that they stipulate a fostering of the communicative competences and strategies, as well as the action-oriented approach, promoted by the CEFR (Skolverket, 2024). Hence, teaching of the languages concerned at Swedish schools aims at developing not only linguistic, but also communicative, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and strategic skills needed to successfully communicate in various social contexts and domains. This is in line with the communicative turn in foreign language teaching (cf. Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Littlewood, 1981, Richards, 2006) and entails a focus on the language user as a social actor in authentic communicative settings (see also section 2.3.1).

Moreover, Sweden and the other Scandinavian countries (i.e., Denmark and Norway) have overall embraced plurilingualism in their national language curricula (Drachmann et al., 2023), which is another aspect of the alleged radicality of the Swedish language policy discussed by Lindgren and Enever (2015). This refers to, for instance, the positioning of English as a core curriculum subject introduced early in compulsory school and a comprehensive response to language policy recommendations by the European institutions, such as the call for an action plan to introduce teaching of two additional languages from an early age in the member states (European Commission, 2003). This policy is generally known as the *1+2 formula* and would ideally involve one foreign language with high international status in addition to a neighboring European language (cf. Jessner, 2008). The main rationale is to strengthen individual competences, increase mobility within the union, and promote intercultural skills, lifelong learning and a sense of European identity (European Commission, 2003, 2008; Council of Europe, 2007; Council of the European Union, 2019), although a discourse heavily focusing on economy, labor market and competitiveness also frames these policies (cf. Krzyżanowski & Wodak, 2011). Most European school systems today cater for the study of additional foreign languages besides the first foreign language, which is typically English (Eurydice, 2023). The policy efforts reflected by the European Union initiatives have enhanced the promotion of language education in Sweden and other countries, resulting in, for example, lowered start ages of foreign language learning (Lindgren & Enever, 2015).

However, in the Swedish context, there is a substantial status difference between the main foreign language English and other foreign languages, which in the same educational context can be claimed to "belong to different worlds" (Vold, 2022, p. 29; cf. Erickson et al., 2018). This might not be surprising, given the all-English approach as a dominant trend even in the EU at an institutional level (Barbier, 2018), where "EU linguistic diversity has also been seen as a hindrance to economic progress or political integration and real democracy" (Ammon, 2006, p. 322), which leads to a promotion of English at the cost of other spoken languages as lingua francas or foreign languages taught at schools. This might be the case in Sweden, where there is generally a high proficiency in English (EF Education First, 2022) but considerably lower achievement levels when it comes to additional foreign languages, which was clearly demonstrated in the large-scale First European Survey on Language Competence published in 2012 (Directorate-General for Education, 2012; European Commission, 2012). The results of the study revealed that Swedish students' proficiency level in English exceeds most other countries in the survey, whereas the results for the largest second foreign school language, Spanish, showed levels far below the European mean. This was particularly observed when it comes to written proficiency, where a majority of the students did not even reach a proper A1-level according to the CEFR scale (Erickson & Lodeiro, 2012; Österberg & Bardel, 2016; Skolverket, 2012). The high achievement rates in English are not surprising, given that this language, although not having any official status in Sweden, is so widely and frequently used across domains that it displays features more similar to an official second language than a foreign language (Bardel et al., 2023). In fact, English works as a lingua franca today, and even

more than a lingua franca, as the title of Hult's (2017)[3] article suggests, which is reflected in many language education contexts, such as national curricula and classroom practices, where English enjoys a prominent social status (cf. Jenkins, 2012; Phillipson, 2008; Seidlhofer, 2005).

1.4.2 The school subject Modern Languages

German, in contrast to the status of English, has L3-status in Sweden, since it is typically learned in a formal school setting and is introduced in compulsory school as a second foreign language (or tertiary language, L3) after a certain level of proficiency in English as an L2 is already attained (Bardel et al., 2019; Hufeisen, 2000; Hufeisen & Neuner, 2004; Jessner, 2008). The teaching of German has a long history in the Swedish educational system, but has gone through considerable shifts. Just like elsewhere in Europe, it has lost ground to English as the dominant foreign language, not the least in the years following the world wars of the previous century (cf. Ammon, 2006). Unlike English, which is mandatory and one of three main subjects Swedish students have to pass to be eligible for admission to the official upper-secondary programs, the second foreign languages are optional subjects and have been so since 1969 (Bardel et al., 2023; Tornberg, 2020). The official name of the school subject in Sweden is Modern Languages (*moderna språk*) and, since a curricular adjustment in 2018, it is introduced in year 6 of compulsory school (Skolverket, 2018b), which means that the students start with an L3 (i.e., a second foreign language) after having already formally studied English for 3–5 years (cf. Bardel et al., 2019). The most commonly studied third languages in compulsory schools after English are Spanish, German and French, where Spanish is by far the most common choice and has seen a dramatic increase in popularity after it was introduced with a curriculum reform in 1994.

According to official data from the Swedish National Agency for Education for the academic year 2021/2022 (Skolverket, 2021), there were nearly 400,000 pupils who studied a second foreign language, of which nearly every second had Spanish as their language choice. German was chosen by 88,000 students, whereas French was studied by some 76,500 students. Interestingly, the number of students who, for various reasons, did not study a second foreign language was slightly larger than the number of French students. According to recently published data for the academic year 2022/2023 (Skolverket, 2023), these figures have remained fairly stable over the past five years, including the distribution between the three main *moderna språk* languages. Another detail revealed by the national agency report is that there is a gender difference in the preference of German or French. Whereas Spanish is the most popular language choice in both groups, German is a more popular pick than French among boys, whereas the tables are turned in the case of girls. Furthermore, the NAE also presents a figure which clearly shows the dramatic drop-out rate between school years 6–9 (Skolverket, 2023, p. 19). If the school year 2022/2023 is taken as an example, 91% of the students in year 6 had initiated a study of a Modern Language, whereas that figure had sunk to only 74% among the students in year 9. The trend with high drop-out rates is not unheard of in the Swedish context (Erickson et al., 2022; Tholin, 2019) and the small number of pupils choosing German and

[3] Referring to terms previously introduced by Phillipson (2008), such as *lingua emotiva*, *lingua economica*, etc.

French is ultimately putting these languages at risk of not being offered at particular school units and even in entire municipalities (Granfeldt et al., 2019).

1.4.3 The conditions for L3 teaching

As Österberg and Bardel (2016) point out, the envisioned 1+2 formula (cf. 1.4.1) in reality is hard to achieve in the Swedish educational context, given the current situation with the high rate of dropouts from the non-mandatory school subject *moderna språk*. With regard to the optionality of the school subject, however, not all teachers of Modern Languages seem to be positive about the idea of making the study of a second foreign language mandatory (Erickson et al., 2022, p. 188–189). One of the key factors suggested to be related to the student dropout rates in Modern Languages is low motivation for learning other languages than English (Cardelús, 2015; Henry, 2012) and the self-perception of the students as speakers of foreign languages (Rocher Hahlin, 2020, 2021). Another suggestion is that the instructional methods are not fully aligned with the communicative approach for language teaching as it is described in the Common European Framework of Reference, CEFR (Council of Europe/Skolverket, 2009; Council of Europe, 2020), although the Swedish curricula for Modern Languages since the year 2000 (e.g., Skolverket, 2018a, 2022) are inspired by the viewpoints and proficiency levels set out in the CEFR (cf. Österberg & Bardel, 2016; Tornberg, 2020). A recently published report by the Swedish Schools Inspectorate gave support to this assumption, stating that two thirds of the compulsory schools reviewed must develop their Modern Languages instruction, including methods, reliance on textbooks and target language use (Skolinspektionen, 2022).

Overall, there seems to be an established discourse in Sweden, both among language teachers and in the public, hat other foreign languages than English are school subjects with a considerably low status (Erickson et al., 2018; Pihl, 2022). This might also be reflected by the fact that very little research in Sweden targets the teaching of Modern Languages such as German, French and Spanish (Granfeldt et al., 2019). A particularly weak spot when it comes to the status of Modern Languages in Sweden is the working conditions for teachers of foreign languages other than English. Shortcomings in training, support and provision of skilled and motivated foreign language teacher seems not to be a new nor Sweden-specific phenomenon, as the issue has been raised elsewhere, for example in a communication by the European Commission (2008) or in studies from countries such as Denmark (Bjerre & Kabel, 2023) and Norway (Haukås, 2016). It is, however, notable that the Swedish context has seen an array of surveys, studies and publications in the past years reporting professional dissatisfaction with the status, heavy workload and solitary working conditions among Modern Language teachers (e.g., Erickson et al, 2018, 2022; Lärarnas Riksförbund, 2016; Skolinspektionen, 2010; 2022). A clear pattern in the mentioned publications is the sense of solitude, since many teachers (particularly those teaching French and German) rarely have a colleague teaching the same subject in the school unit, and the lack of possibilities for in-service professional development. An additional aggravating factor in the Swedish context is a negative societal discourse over the last decades about the shortcomings of the Swedish school system and Swedish students poor performance in international surveys, which ultimately also involves the role of the teachers. As a result, this additionally adds to a discursive marginalization of the teaching profession from various angles, not the least from public agencies and academia representatives

(cf. Carlgren, 2020). As Erickson et al. point out with regard to the language teaching profession, "the picture conveyed is not a very positive one" (2022, p. 189), and could be part of the explanation to why Swedish universities struggle to attract language teacher students (Fredriksson & Rosén, 2020), which ultimately might result in the cutting of some language courses (cf. Bardel et al., 2023, p. 228–229).

2. Theoretical background

In this section, background theories relevant for the understanding of the aim and the research questions of this thesis will be presented and discussed. Underlying assumptions that guided the choice of a theoretical framework for understanding grammar teaching of German L3 in the Swedish context are that the teacher is a key player in what goes on in the classroom and that instructional design and applications of teaching procedures reflect the mental processes of the teachers, who are "much more than simply robotic purveyors of the curriculum" (Yero, 2010, p. 9).

2.1 Shaping the language teacher profession

This subsection focuses on the theories for understanding how mental processes and contextual frames interact in shaping foreign language teachers' perceptions of their work. They are essential for gaining insights that are relevant for understanding how cognitive, social and emotional factors interact and add to the building up of teachers' professional knowledge, which is essential for answering the overarching research question of the thesis (cf. 1.2).

2.1.1 Teacher knowledge forms

The idea of a knowledge base in subject didactics is essential for the conceptualization of a specific professional knowledge that can be ascribed to subject teachers. Indeed, there are various constructs that could be included in such a knowledge base. To mention a few examples, subject theory, theories about learning, curricula and syllabi, frame factors, textbooks, instructional strategies and assessment are all topics that concern teachers who are developing a didactic competence in order to expand their agency and instructional repertoire (Boström & Josefsson, 2006). This viewpoint represents an underlying belief that teaching as a profession has a knowledge base, i.e., "a codifiable aggregation of knowledge, understanding, skills and dispositions possessed by professional teachers" (Deng, 2018, p. 156). Understanding and defining teachers' knowledge, more specifically their transformation of subject knowledge into teachable matter for the classrooms, was a neglected aspect of educational research for a long time, until it picked up interest in the late 1980s and became a line of research that would later develop into the research field teacher cognition (Borg, 2006).

Probably no other researcher is as associated with this turn as Lee Shulman (1986, 1987) is. According to Shulman, the complexities of classroom teaching should not be ignored in educational research. Subject matter and its transformation into content of instruction is a main theme in Shulman's text from 1986, where he refers to the absence of such focus as "the missing paradigm problem" (p. 3). Referring to the education policy movements of the 1980s in the US, Shulman took a critical stance towards what he perceived as too strong a focus on mainly general teaching competence and pedagogical accomplishment. The term "missing paradigm" refers to the lack of a professional knowledge category that is exclusive for in-service teachers, where they in their everyday work combine general pedagogical skills with academic content knowledge of their subjects and develop a situated knowledge of how to bring about teaching and learning. In line with this reasoning, Shulman raised questions about what teachers know, what the sources of this knowledge are and how new knowledge is combined with previous knowledge and organized into a knowledge base of the teacher profession. In essence, his research interest could be summarized by the following question: "How do teachers take a piece of text and transform their understanding of it into instructions that their students can comprehend?" (Shulman, 1986, p. 6).

Based on his research group's results from inquiry on in-service teachers (e.g., Grossman et al., 1989; Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987), Shulman introduced the still to this day very well-known concept of *pedagogical content knowledge* (PCK), described in powerful metaphorical language as "the special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8). With the introduction of PCK, educational researchers' attention was drawn to the unique kind of knowledge of how to link content with pedagogy (Klette, 2007) that would help shed light on the missing paradigm. The notion of PCK also addressed and promoted a further exploration of Shulman's initial claim that "[m]ere content knowledge is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content-free skill" (Shulman, 1986, p. 5).

In his groundbreaking paper from 1986, Shulman emphasized different forms of knowledge of content, which he distinguished from knowledge about generic principles of classroom management and organization, which had been the main focus of research on teaching in those years. More precisely, he suggested the distinction between three categories of content knowledge: a) subject matter content knowledge; b) pedagogical content knowledge, and c) curricular knowledge. Content knowledge was here referred to as the internal organization of knowledge about the subject matter in the mind, out of which the teacher selects alternative forms of organizing instructional content. Pedagogical content knowledge, however, "goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge *for teaching*" and "embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability" (Shulman, 1986, p. 6). In the following year, a more comprehensive model of categories that make up the knowledge base of teachers was presented. There Shulman (1987, p. 8) suggested seven categories upon which teachers draw when organizing teaching, as summarized in Table 2:

Table 2: Teacher knowledge forms, adapted from Shulman (1987).

Knowledge form	Scope
Content knowledge	Concepts, topics and areas within a subject

General pedagogical knowledge	Principles and strategies to organize and manage classrooms
Curriculum knowledge	Materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers
Pedagogical content knowledge	The combination of content and pedagogy
Knowledge of learners and their characteristics	Interests, prior knowledge and aptitude of the learners
Knowledge of educational contexts	Settings and governance, contextual factors
Knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values	Aims and purposes of institutionalized education, including their philosophical and historical grounds

The model presented in Table 2 covers the sources of understanding that enable the process of pedagogical reasoning and action when adapting subject matter content to classrooms in which learners have diverse interests and abilities (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987). The missing paradigm in educational research that Shulman was referring to in his 1986 paper is addressed by the focus on pedagogical content knowledge and its interplay with the other knowledge forms. Pedagogical content knowledge is related to an idea of disciplinary content knowledge being important for successful teaching (Deng, 2018) and focuses the integration of key ideas of the subject matter content with possible ways for students to discern and apprehend these. It could as such be summarized as "the explicit knowledge of skill that is needed in order to teach it to students" (Ball et al., 2008, p. 393).

PCK is the knowledge category that distinguishes the understanding of the teacher from that of a content specialist who operates outside pedagogical domains (Shulman, 1987) and is found at "the intersection of subject-specific knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of the teaching context" (Watzke, 2007, p. 64). It is neither content knowledge nor general pedagogical knowledge, but rather a combination of both these. Together with knowledge about curriculum, students' characteristics and learning environments, it is a professional *understanding* by teachers of, for example, the students' conceptions and misconceptions about the topics they learn (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987). PCK as a concept can be used to explore teaching as a profession with its own knowledge base (Ball et al., 2008) and can be seen as "a means to explore the complexity of teaching and becoming a teacher" (Watzke, 2007, p. 64). Hence, it is highly relevant for areas of specialized subject didactics (Vollmer, 2014), not the least within the field of foreign language didactics, where its fruitful combination of language and pedagogy has a clear application potential in research on language teaching (e.g., Johnston & Goettsch, 2000).

Pedagogical content knowledge is a "complex construct" since it involves the integration of several knowledge types (Deng, 2018, p. 157). Along with the model of teachers' knowledge forms, Shulman (1987) also introduced a model of pedagogical reasoning and action (p. 15), in which he outlined how teachers apply their multifaceted knowledge when they go about planning and performing instruction. A keyword in this model is *transformation*, since that is

the main process that teachers are involved in when use their pedagogical content knowledge to make subject matter content teachable and understandable to their learners, given the teachers' knowledge and understanding of all other factors involved in the instructional context (see Table 3). In the transformation process, PCK is the most important source of knowledge, since it the "the way of knowing and understanding the subject matter that distinguishes the teacher from the subject matter specialist" (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987, p. 60). When transforming from other knowledge sources, teachers are involved with considering the aspects of their pedagogical knowledge listed in Table 3:

Table 3: Transformations in pedagogical reasoning and action (adapted from Shulman, 1987, p. 15).

Pedagogical skill	Examples
Preparation	Critical analysis of the content, development of a curricular repertoire, clarification of purposes
Representation	Using adequate analogies, metaphors, demonstrations, etc.
Selection	Choosing from instructional repertoire of modes of teaching, arranging, managing classrooms, etc.
Adaptation and tailoring to students	Considering possible misconceptions, difficulties, motivation, classroom culture, social class, etc.

In Shulman's understanding, teaching is constituted by comprehension, reasoning, the transformations described in Table 3 and reflection. Moving from personal comprehension to preparing for the comprehension of others is the very "essence of the act of pedagogical reasoning" (Shulman, 1987, p. 16) and he took a very critical stance towards the "resoluteness with which research and policy have so blatantly ignored those aspects of teaching in the past" (p. 13). What was new with Shulman's argumentation was the way in which he presented teacher knowledge as a kind of "third knowledge form" (cf. Zingerle, 2019, p. 26) at the intersection of content and general pedagogy, which combines theory with practice situated in and interacting with contextual factors in a well-defined professional setting.

Over the years, there have been calls for reconceptualization of Shulman's models of the knowledge base of teachers (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Based on their analyses of research on professional subject matter knowledge in the field of mathematics education, Ball et al., (2008) for example proposed an elaborated understanding of PCK as a construct by adding several subdomains to Shulman's original terms. Their suggested model of a professional knowledge base for mathematics teachers has a more subject matter-specific focus, as displayed in Figure 1 (Ball et al., 2008, p. 403):

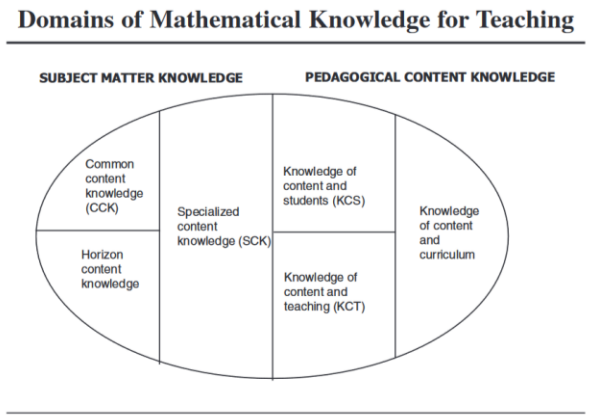


Figure 1: Model of mathematical knowledge for teaching. (Ball et al., 2008, p. 403). Copyright 2008 by Sage Publications.

As can be read from the model, Shulman's *content knowledge* (here called "subject matter knowledge") is subdivided into *common content knowledge* and *specialized content knowledge*. Similarly, in the domain of *pedagogical content knowledge*, a distinction is made between *knowledge of content and students* on the one hand, and *knowledge of content and teaching* on the other. The authors particularly discuss the articulation of the *specialized content knowledge* domain (SCK), which they do not view as a part of PCK, but rather ascribe to the content knowledge domain.

There has also been critique against PCK as a construct, particularly from educational philosophical positions based on the tradition of a *Bildung*-centered *Didaktik* (cf. Hopmann, 2007; Klafki, 1995). The critics aim at the underlying assumptions of PCK that academic content knowledge can be "possessed" and transformed by the teacher into efficient pedagogy without taking into consideration notions such as cultural values, normative orientations and the school subject's role in the frames of an institutional curriculum (Deng, 2018). As Deng points out, PCK endorses a transmissive view of teaching and is descriptive, empirical and research-oriented, whereas *Bildung*-centered *Didaktik* is more normative and institutionally-oriented (p. 157). In light of this distinction, PCK appears to be a feasible choice for research where teachers' pedagogical reasoning about specific content and how to best teach it (the immediate *how* dimension of didactics) rather than about the institutional curriculum is at the heart of the research interest.

It is worth noting that pedagogical content knowledge and the content-specific knowledge of teachers, as it was introduced by Shulman in the 1980s, has not been treated as a separate research subject or an autonomous area in teacher education, but rather as a competence that resides in the teachers and that comes to being in the teaching praxis, where the confluence of the different knowledge forms takes place (Carlgren, 2023). It is suggested that PCK develops "through a process of thinking, conflict, reflection, and resolution specific to the in-service classroom context" Watzke (2007, p. 63). It could also be understood as a tool for understanding implicit knowledge of professionals when they reflect upon their knowing in action (cf. Schön, 2003). It is therefore important to keep in mind the difference in pedagogical knowledge between novices and experienced subject teachers (cf. Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987) when doing research on teacher knowledge and discussing the implications of such research for both the in-service profession and for the teacher education that prepares for it.

Finally, it is also important to consider the fact that the general idea of PCK as a domain of teachers' unique professional knowledge contains several definitions and models that can be "broad enough to include nearly any package of teacher knowledge and beliefs" (Ball et al., 2008, p. 394). It is understood in the present thesis that a distinction between the constructs *knowledge* and *beliefs* is important to consider when doing research on teachers' pedagogical actions. Similarly, Shulman himself also referred to the "little concern for the organization of content in the minds of teachers" (1986, p. 3) that was notable in educational research in the 1980s. This leads us to the domain of teacher cognition, which gained prominence as a research field in the decades following Shulman's groundbreaking publications and will be further described in the following section.

2.1.2 Teacher cognition

Central to the social ontology of education is the assumption that it is intentional activities by reflexive agents (i.e., teachers and students), and not "mysterious (quasi-) causal powers", that move educational change towards improvement (Biesta, 2020, p. 42–43). This focus on the way teachers as reflexive agents make sense of their instructional contexts is at the very heart of the language education related research field that collectively refers to various psychological constructs (e.g., teachers' knowledge, beliefs and thinking) as teacher cognition (Borg, 2006). In a recent discussion on the development of the field and addressing the idea of maybe finding an alternative term that would suit teacher cognition research as it looks today, Borg states that teacher cognition still is a proper term, since it, in his summarizing words, still aims at:

> understanding, with reference to the personal, professional, sociocultural, and historical dimensions of teachers' lives, how becoming, being, and developing as a teacher is shaped by (and in turn shapes) what teachers (individually and collectively) think and feel about all aspects of their work (Borg, 2019, p. 1152).

There is an undisputed agreement in the research field that teacher cognitions originate both from the individual teacher and the social and institutional environment (Freeman, 2002; Zingerle, 2019) and that what teachers believe and know about aspects of language learning is "a complex nexus of interacting factors" (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 2). Studying teachers' knowing and thinking within a subject-specific field, for example, among teachers of German as an L3, can be a productive way to generate knowledge about shared elements of teacher knowledge (cf. Verloop et al., 2001). This is why the present thesis project is based on language teacher cognition as an overarching theoretical frame in understanding how German L3 teachers' central perceptions and pedagogical knowledge about grammar might be shaped in the given educational context (cf. 1.4.1).

As Shulman (1987, p. 7) pointed out, it is not easy for teachers to articulate their professional knowledge and provide accounts of how they know it. Teacher cognition can therefore be a useful lens through which researchers can take on an analysis of the underlying pedagogical systems of teachers (Borg, 1998), in that the research focus is set on what language teachers

think, know and believe and, most importantly, how this is related to the teachers' classroom practices (Borg, 2006). This approach is based on the recognition of teachers as "active, thinking decision-makers who play a central role in shaping classroom events" (Borg, 2006, p. 1) and is in line with ontological viewpoints of teachers as reflexive agents (Biesta, 2020) and reflective practitioners (Schön, 2003). Making a distinction between the public and "the hidden side" of teaching, including the mental work that makes teaching happen, Freeman (2016, p. 115) points out three particular processes that are worth inquiring into, namely: thinking, knowing and reflecting of teachers. All three areas are qualitatively studied in teacher cognition in its overarching aim of gaining in-depth contextualized understanding of teaching and the nature of formal instruction (Borg, 1999b) as it happens in contexts where teachers' cognitions have strong local relevance (Borg, 2012, p. 18).

More specifically, teacher cognition is interested in how teachers, as active decision-makers, draw on "complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs" (Borg, 2003a, p. 81). Those mental constructs have a strong practical orientation and are to the utmost dynamic, since they are personally defined and held, defined and refined "in the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers' lives" (Borg, 2006, p. 35). In short, the research focus of teacher cognition is to capture "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching" (Borg, 2003a, p. 81) and relate "the complexity of teachers' mental lives" (p. 86) to the decisions and actions performed in teaching situations in authentic language classrooms (Barnard & Burns, 2012; Basturkmen, 2012; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). Although the research field today contains a wide array of focal points and perspectives, some patterns can be discerned among the topics covered in the extensive research literature that has been produced to this day. Salient issues in teacher cognition research are, for example, the relationships between cognitions and practices, as well as the impact of contextual factors on both cognitions and classroom practices. This is another rationale for choosing teacher cognition as a central theoretical frame for a research project on GL3 teaching in Sweden. As Borg (2006) states, several geographical, educational and linguistic contexts within language education still remain unexplored from a teacher cognition perspective (p. 274), leaving much scope for studies such as the one presented and covered by the present thesis.

Historically, language teacher cognition has been a conceptually diverse field (Borg, 2003a) and what fits under the broad umbrella of teacher cognition has been referred to by many different terms over the decades. In its early days, research on teachers' perceptions and rationales for instructional decision-making was psychological rather than educational in nature (Borg, 2006). One term early used was *teacher thinking*, before the late 1980s brought a shift towards *teacher knowledge* (see previous section; e.g., Shulman 1986, 1987). The alternative term *BAK* (beliefs, assumptions, knowledge), was proposed by Woods (1996), used to refer to the system of mental processes that guide practically everything teachers do and say related to their language teaching. Borg himself also used other terms in his earlier texts from the 1990s, such as *teachers' pedagogical systems* (1998) and *teachers' theories* (1999) to refer to sets of understandings and beliefs that influence teachers' instructional decision-making. Just like in the case with *teacher cognition*, central to teachers' theories and pedagogical systems is that

they have a practical orientation, develop through professional and educational experience, and have strong bearing on teachers' classroom practices. Given the multitude of concepts used, Borg (2006) called for a rationalization of terminology in the field and, more recently, even problematized the use of the term he himself is so closely associated with (Borg, 2019). Nonetheless, he came to the conclusion that "teacher cognition" is still the best option to use, although acknowledging the need to mitigate the too heavy focus on mental aspects by also taking into consideration the broader contextual factors in which teachers' cognitions find their practical realization (Borg, 2019, p. 1166).

Teaching could be understood as a combination of thought and observable behavior, i.e., what teachers say and what they actually do. The most common operationalizations of teacher cognition in current research are, for example, assumptions, attitudes, beliefs and knowledge of something (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 3). Borg (2019) uses a similar exposition but also includes the terms feelings, perceptions and thoughts, to which he refers as teacher-internal and "unseen influences" (p. 1150). Applying teacher cognition to educational research, specifically to research on language teachers' perceptions of their instructional contexts from a subject didactics perspective, seems most useful if conceptualized as a "unique filter through which second language teachers make instructional decisions, choose instructional materials, and select certain instructional practices over others" (Johnson, 1994, p. 440). In order to understand those instructional decisions and the teachers' underlying rationales for these, reference must be made to personal, professional, social, cultural and historical contexts, as well as to teachers' minds and emotions (Borg, 2019). Teacher cognitions should therefore be understood as contextually situated and socially distributed (Barnard & Burns, 2012), playing a pivotal role in teachers' lives (Borg, 2003a).

Among the most important factors that shape and influence language teachers' cognitions, the research literature emphasizes prior learning experiences of the teachers and professional coursework (e.g., in-service professional education), as well as current classroom practices within and constrained by the local instructional contexts. These influence and co-adapt with each other in a constantly ongoing dynamic interplay and become deeply rooted in a teacher's personality (Borg, 2006), making them fairly stable and resistant to future change. Furthermore, Borg (2003a) specifically accentuates the role of teacher education, practice teaching and early classroom experiences of new teachers and suggests that these may exert a heavier influence on teachers' cognitions and practices than later professional in-service education. A model used to represent the sources of influence on teachers' cognitions, suggested by Borg (2006), is presented in a simplified form in Figure 2:

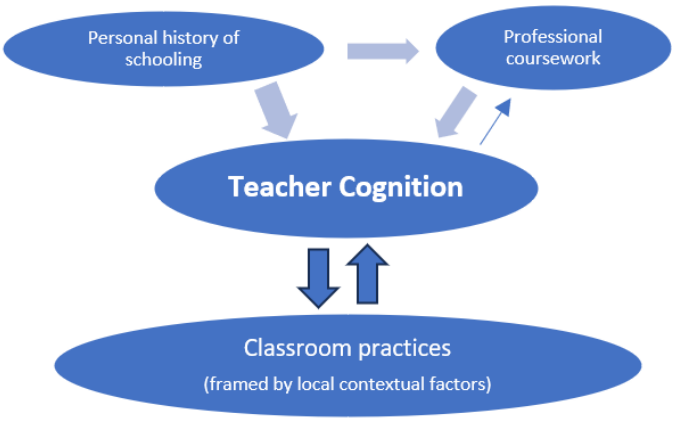


Figure 2: Dynamic interplay of factors in teacher cognition (simplified). Adapted from Borg, 2006, p. 283.

As can be seen, several factors, both teacher-internal and situated in the local context, constantly interplay with each other and feed back to the base of teachers' knowledge and cognitions. It is worth noting that in the original source, Borg stresses the encounter of cognitions and practice, where the context plays the role of a mediator. The interaction between cognitions and practice can lead to tensions between these, or to changes in cognitions, either implicitly or through conscious reflection. Also, in Borg's model, as summarized in Figure 2, the first sub-concept mentioned by the umbrella term teacher cognition is *beliefs*, and examples are provided as to what these beliefs could be about (such as teaching, learning, subject-matter, curricula, instructional activities and colleagues). Given the central role beliefs have in research on language teacher cognition, this term will be further discussed in the following sub-section.

2.1.3 Pedagogical beliefs

Research on teacher cognition holds that beliefs have a powerful impact on teachers' decision-making (Borg, 2013, p. 49). Teachers' beliefs could be defined as "propositions about aspects of their work which teachers hold to be true or false" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 381). Unlike teachers' knowledge, which has a more communal meaning, teachers' beliefs are in essence personal and not necessarily shared or accepted as facts among other members of the professional community (Barnard & Burns, 2012). Johnson (1994) proposed that the belief systems of individual teachers have a filtering effect on their thinking, information processing and shaping of perceptions and behaviors (p. 440). Acting as a filter, beliefs therefore have a powerful influence on language teachers' thinking and actual teaching carried out in the classrooms. It is suggested that educational beliefs are closely related to other beliefs in an internal belief system and that newly acquired beliefs are more vulnerable to change than beliefs that got incorporated early in a teachers' professional life (Pajares, 1992).

Beliefs can further be categorized as central or peripheral, where the former are more firmly held and more likely to resist change caused by influences in and around the pedagogical practice (cf. Borg, 2006; Green, 1971; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Another distinction can be made between espoused/explicit and implicit beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012), where the

former can easily be articulated by the teachers, whereas the latter are more unconscious and need to be inferred from observed actions. The literature on teachers' beliefs also suggests epistemological beliefs alongside more practically situated beliefs about students' learning and understanding. Epistemological beliefs concern teachers' view about the nature of knowledge acquisition (Luft & Roehrig, 2007) and are indicated by Pajares (1992) as key players in knowledge interpretation. Furthermore, teachers' beliefs are believed to influence perceptions and judgment and guide teachers in transferring their knowledge into classroom situations, or as Johnson (1994) proposed: "how [teachers] interpret new information about learning and teaching and how that information is translated into classroom practices" (p. 439). Using these terms, the suggestions that teachers' beliefs are entangled with pedagogical content knowledge (cf. Shulman, 1987) and provide a basis for action (Borg, 2003a; 2011; 2013) appear plausible.

An example of the impact that teachers' beliefs have on teaching practices is discussed by Farrell & Lim (2005), who suggest that teachers' beliefs was "the best indicators of the type of instructional decisions" (p. 8) the teachers in their case study made. The relationship between beliefs and practices in education is further discussed by Pajares, who also links these to students' outcomes (1992: p. 327). As shown in figure 2 in the previous section (cf. Borg, 2006, p. 283), teachers' beliefs have a bi-directional interaction with the practice and the context in which the practice is situated. Therefore, it is believed that instructional actions and practices can lead to changes in teachers' belief systems (Richardson, 1996) in the same way as it is shown that teachers' beliefs have a long-term impact on teachers' instructional practices and pedagogical decisions (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Although teachers' prior learning and teaching experiences are the main shaping forces of their beliefs, the educational context as such can also interact with and exert an influence on teachers' beliefs (Zheng, 2015). As suggested by Richards et al. (2001), changes in teachers' beliefs can trigger changes in teacher's practices and behavior, which is crucial for the process of professional development.

A valuable focus for both research and teacher development are the tensions between competing pedagogical beliefs that teachers may hold (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 380–381). Tensions could be understood as divergences between elements in teachers' understanding of the instructional context and actors in and around that context, which leads up to competing demands within their teaching and "discomforts or confusions which interfere with the teacher's translating intention into action in the classroom" (Johnson, 1994, p. 488). Instructional tensions, as competing demands within the teaching context, were identified in a study by Golombek (1998) as obstructions to teachers' "abilities to develop practice that is compatible with their intentions" (p. 452). In a sense, tensions have a somewhat negative undertone in both Johnson and Golombek's texts, where they appear as something that is impeding teaching as it is believed to be desired by the studied teachers. Phipps and Borg (2009), however, adopt a different approach and argue for a more positive view on tensions, not the least from a research perspective. In doing so, the authors acknowledge the value of teachers' accounts about how they hold a certain belief but teach differently due to their professional knowledge and experience about what students expect, learn easier from or respond with a higher level of motivation to (p. 387). This viewpoint on tensions is central for the underlying assumptions of teachers' perceptions of their instructional contexts in the present thesis project as well.

2.1.4 Cognitions in practice and the interplay with the social context

In Goodlad's (1979) curriculum framework, a distinction is made between *perceived curricula* or *curricula of the mind* (corresponding to teachers' stated or professed beliefs) and *operational curricula* (corresponding to teachers' actual classroom practice), since what teachers perceive of the curriculum and what they actually are teaching might be quite different things (p. 62). The distinction between beliefs and practices is also a central aspect in modern teacher cognition research. It has long been held that the relationship between cognition and classroom practices is not linear but rather circular or cyclical (Shavelson & Stern, 1981, p. 461), given the bi-directionality of influences pointed out in Table 3 (cf. section 2.1.2). Language teaching is a social process of dynamic interaction between cognitions, context and practices (cf. Freeman, 2002), and the practical realization of what teachers think, know and believe is constrained (Borg, 2006) by the local ecosocial context that might modify the cognition of language teachers as they go about teaching under conditions operating in a particular classroom environment (Barnard & Burns, 2012). Taking the local environments and how they interact with teaching practices into consideration is essential in research on teacher cognition (cf. the definition by Borg, 2019 in section 2.1.2). Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) suggest viewing teachers' sense- and meaning-making in instructional practices as interpretive activities where thought and practice should not be separated.

The local social, material and classroom context plays a key role in the understanding of teacher cognition and research therefore has to take both the internal and external factors that shape teachers' decision-making processes (Woods, 1996) into consideration. Typical and common themes in the study of in-service language teachers' cognitions and practices are, for example, how well professed beliefs match classroom practices (e.g., Ng & Farrell, 2003), which reasons teachers provide for their instructional decisions (e.g., Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richards, 1998; Woods, 1996) as well as how teachers plan instruction and modify their plans in the praxis as they come across unexpected situations (e.g., Bailey, 1996; Ulichny, 1996). Departures from lesson plans, as an example, can be studied from a teacher cognition perspective. On that topic, present research has shown that lesson plan departures are a result of constant interactions in teachers' minds between choices based on pedagogical knowledge and beliefs on the one hand, and of their perceptions of the instructional context on the other (Borg, 2006, p. 93).

In order to provide teacher cognition research with a more holistic and situated frame (cf. Borg, 2019), attention is also given to the professional contexts in which teachers work (Richards et al., 2001), contextual dimensions of teaching (Borg, 2006) and the relationship between instructional decisions, teachers' beliefs and contextual factors (Smith, 1996). The purpose is to understand language teaching as "a process which is defined by dynamic interactions among cognition, context and experience" (Borg, 2006, p. 275). Contextual factors could be understood as social, environmental, external or situational factors (Woods, 1996), which teachers might perceive as "external forces beyond their control" (Borg, 2006, p. 40). A general underlying assumption is that teaching situations are highly context-sensitive and that

discrepancies between teachers' stated beliefs and practices could be explained by the impact of these external forces on the teachers' work (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2014). In summary, the research field provides ample ground to suggest that contextual factors exert an influence on teachers' cognition, thinking and enactments of beliefs through instructional decisions (cf. Csernus, 2014; Freeman, 2016) and, hence, shape teachers' perceptions to the same extent as previous learning experiences and professional coursework do.

Schooling and teaching are institutionalized practices with set frames stipulating how teachers, sometimes seen as educational technocrats, should go about achieving the institutional aims of making the students meet academic standards (cf. Carlgren, 2023; Deng, 2018, p. 162). This implies relating to multiple contextual factors, of which teachers are aware and which shapes their perceptions of the practice, teacher cognition research suggests. Previous research reports on a wide range of contextual factors, of which some examples are: explicit school policies and prescribed curricula or syllabi, norms of the institution, examination pressures, large classes, heavy workload, constraints related to timing and pacing, unmotivated students and limited proficiency and aptitude levels in students, expectations from parents, students and the school administration, as well as a pressure to adapt to colleagues and their teaching (e.g., Borg, 1999b, 2019; Burns, 1996; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Nunan, 1992; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Richards et al., 2001; Smith, 1996; Woods, 1996; Watzke, 2007; Zingerle, 2019). With regard to colleagues as a contextual factor, the lack of teachers with whom to engage in collegial collaboration can be another state of affairs that poses a challenge for some teacher groups. This is the case for several L3 teachers in Scandinavia, as reported in previous research (cf. Granfeldt et al., 2019; Haukås, 2016).

Time factors are a common denominator in several teacher cognition studies where teachers report on performing teaching that is not always in line with their epistemological and instructional beliefs. Farrell and Lim (2005) point out time as "possibly one of the major external factors over which teachers have little or no control and that appears to affect the implementation of beliefs" (p. 9). The authors base this conclusion on empirical findings where teachers report choosing approaches to grammar teaching not because they primarily believe these are beneficial for teaching and learning, but merely because of a pressure to manage the demands posed upon them by the syllabi and the expectations from both the school administrations and the students' parents. Similarly, Ng and Farrell (2003) show in their study how teachers rejected an approach to error correction that would have been in line with their professed pedagogical beliefs, since they perceived it as too time-consuming and instead preferred an approach that was more practical and faster to perform in the classroom. Furthermore, Nishimuro and Borg (2013) report how time limitations and pressure to catch up with other classes and prepare for upcoming exams was the main rationale for the participants in their study to stick with a teacher-led grammar instruction for a vast majority of the time.

In a similar vein, both Doughty and Williams (1998) and van Rijt et al. (2022) bring up examples of how contextual factors such as time and classroom management requirements constrain choices of particular teaching approaches. Both reasons, along with an internalized concern for students' expectations on the teaching content, are discussed by Borg (1999b) as

contextual factors beyond teachers' control, which "preclude them from teaching in a manner they would prefer" (p. 163). The interplay of competing demands caused by the different contextual factors described in this section could position the teacher in dilemmatic situations, which could be conceptualized as fields of tension (German: *Spannungsfelder*, hence the title of this thesis) or hotspots (cf. Zingerle, 2019, p. 24). It is believed that these fields of tension give rise to emotional responses in teachers, which then form yet another internal contextual factor that adds to the mix and can exert further influence on teachers' thinking and beliefs. In light of the research base mentioned in this section, Watzke (2007) explains the changes in teachers' ways of making instructional decisions as a process of change in pedagogical knowledge that is "a result of dissonance created when teachers' beliefs conflict with realities of the school context" (p. 65). It is suggested that novice teachers are especially susceptible to the impact of contextual factors (Richards & Pennington, 1998), although there are ample research findings that show the same impacts on more experienced teachers as well.

2.1.5 Emotional and affective aspects of teaching

Emotions are an integral part of classrooms, teaching as a practice, and thereby of teachers' lives and worlds (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Zembylas, 2004). Emotional demands (Chen, 2016; Yin & Lee, 2016) are constantly placed on teachers from various stakeholders in and around education, such as students, colleagues, school management and the public. Therefore, "emotions hover like a shadow over the lives and work of teachers" (Chen & Cheng, 2022, p. 418) and they can have a constraining effect on teachers' pedagogical thinking and instructional decision-making. A common viewpoint in educational research is that emotions, as a psychological subsystem, influence and have a dynamical interaction with other systems such as cognitions, behavior and motivation (Dörnyei, 2009; Golombek & Doran, 2014; Oxford, 2021; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and that they are part of a web of teachers' practical knowing (Golombek, 1998). Zembylas (2004) further points out that emotions and teaching are "deeply interrelated in complex ways, both epistemologically and constitutively" (p. 198) whereas Borg (2019) discusses emotions as a powerful teacher-internal influence on pedagogical behavior in teachers (p. 1150).

However, emotions are a complex concept that has been difficult to define in the research literature on teachers and teaching (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018), due to a lack of theoretical agreement across disciplines (Chen & Cheng, 2022). Emotions have traditionally been viewed and explained through a set of discrete emotions (Frenzel, 2014) with verbal category labels, often in the form of dichotomies (e.g., Bahia et al, 2013; cf. Scherer & Moors, 2019; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). More recent views, however, such as the appraisal theory approach, treat emotions as processes rather than passive states and emphasize their feature as dynamic psychological responses to factors and events in the social context which can invoke action (cf. Barcelos & Aragão, 2018; Barcelos & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2018; Benesch, 2018; Jiang et al, 2021; Scherer & Moors, 2019; Sheppard & Levy, 2019; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). This thesis adheres to the definition proposed by Pekrun et al. (2023), in which emotions are seen as "multicomponent changes in an organism's psychophysical system that occur in response to events or situations important to the organism [where the changes] can comprise affective,

cognitive, physiological, motivational, and expressive-behavioral components" (p. 146). In this view, emotions form an interface that mediates between the organism and the environment as a social context to which the organism responds (Scherer & Moors, 2019).

The viewpoint of emotions as constructed in the interaction with the context, i.e., as responses to phenomena in the environment and, thus, as a potential basis for action (Her & De Costa, 2022; Borg, 2013; Zembylas, 2004), makes them a useful tool for understanding teachers' beliefs, identities and classroom practices (Song, 2016), as well as for empowering and encouraging them to attend to moral and existential aspects of teaching (cf. Cowie, 2011; Freire, 1985). As mentioned previously, the approach known as appraisal theory emphasizes both judgments or appraisals that precede emotions, as well as the emotional responses of various sorts that follow (Frenzel, 2014; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Scherer & Moors, 2019). Appraisal here refers to the evaluation process of the consistency between desired goals and observed or perceived occurrences, which precede action and behavior (cf. Frenzel, 2014, p. 506 for a comprehensive model). All in all, this implies that "emotions are not simply feelings per se" (Her & De Costa, 2022, p. 1), but rather powerful interpretations of the social context which can lead to actions and reactions. Related to this viewpoint is also the notion that emotions do not reside inclusively within individual, but are rather embedded in social phenomena and contexts (Oxford, 2021), such as classrooms and school institutions (Bahia et al, 2013). In this sense, emotions are cultural and relational practices produced in the interaction that unfolds between people and environment. They tell us something important about the participants and their life worlds, concerns and perception, and could thus be regarded as "world making" (Ahmed, 2014, p. 12). In summary, emotions are context-dependent, action-based, socio-historically grounded and, overall, characterized by a dynamic, interactive and reciprocal nature (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018; Reio, 2015). As such, emotions are an integral part of "the interpretation process that teachers go through in order to make sense of their experiences and practices" (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018, p. 510).

Working in teaching can be seen as an emotional practice (Hargreaves, 1998), in which affectivity plays an important role to teachers (Nias, 1996). The affectivity causes teachers to feel, "often passionately" (p. 293), not only about inanimate phenomena such as their own professional skills and the effects of educational policies or the very structure of schooling, but also about colleagues, parents, inspectors and, not the least, students (cf. Hargreaves, 2000). Hence, teaching is not merely a cognitive, but also a relational process (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018), in which an important goal for teachers is to increase positive and decrease negative emotions experienced during instruction (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). This conceptualizes classrooms as emotional spaces, where teachers attend to emotions and make instructional decisions based on emotional considerations (Sheppard & Levy, 2019, p. 197) in their pursuit of a sense of satisfaction and fulfillment (cf. Cowie, 2011). It is also suggested that teachers can be seen as "emotional workers whose emotions are under the control of a set of emotional rules" (Yin & Lee, 2016, p. 63). Due to the relational nature of the teaching practice, which involves a range of emotional rules and appraisals (see above), emotions have an influence on several cognitive functions in teachers, such as categorizing, problem-solving, goal setting, choice of teaching strategies, efficacy beliefs, and motivation in general (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003, p. 337–340).

Although all teaching is subject to work- and instruction-related emotions, it could be claimed that the language teaching profession has an "emotionally and situationally sensitive nature" (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018, p. 507) that is particularly vulnerable to the emotional demands posed by the instructional context of foreign language teaching. As an example, the title of Pérez Cavana's (2019) study of FL teacher identity, "When I Am Teaching German, I Put on a Persona", reveals that the language teacher has to respond to subject-specific emotional demands brought upon them by the very nature of the subject. This is, for instance, shown when a teacher reports feeling defensive if the students question features of the target language or the cultures where these languages are mainly used. Another clear example of subject-specific emotions for FL teachers is the anxiety and self-doubt related to being a non-native speaker of the target language, especially when facing students with a high proficiency in the language or returnees from a year abroad in an L1 country (e.g., Song, 2016).

The emotional and physical involvement of one's whole person in the teaching process is what makes language teaching different from other teaching subjects, Pérez Cavana suggests (2019, p. 3). Furthermore, the author also hints at the need for language teachers to apply enthusiastic teaching and teaching enjoyment (cf. Frenzel, 2014, p. 501) involving their bodies (for instance, when teaching pronunciation and articulation), to a higher degree than teachers of other school subjects, such as maths or geography, are required to do. Another example of an emotional response in language teachers could be the instructional decision to engage in grammar teaching, "not because they [the teachers] feel it enhances language acquisition but because they feel it is something their students expect" (Borg, 2006, p. 124). Similarly, Watson (2015) discusses the espoused negative views of grammar and language teachers' struggling with grammar teaching as "affective responses to grammar [that] may influence pedagogical practice" (p. 334), suggesting it could be interpreted as a subject teaching-specific pedagogical emotion. This kind of emotion, stemming from the classroom situation in which both teachers' and students' emotional stances to the teaching content meet, could be regarded as an instance of pedagogical emotions (cf. Sheppard & Levy, 2019, p. 197) based on the central position of subject matter when teachers' emotions are considered (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

Pedagogical emotions shape classroom practices, which in turn become environmental variables that cause the rise of both pleasant and undesirable new emotions in teachers (cf. Jiang et al., 2021). Teachers are parts of a network of social and power relations within the school context, which contains several sources of potential emotional tensions (cf. Zembylas, 2004). Previous research on teacher emotions mentions, for example, how limited teacher efficacy can leave teachers feeling helpless (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and how teachers feel negative emotions related to dissatisfactions with their institutions, working conditions, school change, political and cultural contexts, colleagues and a reported lack of institutional support (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018; Bress, 2006; Chen, 2016; Cowie, 2011; Nias, 1996).

Overall, colleagues seem to be substantially influential triggers of teacher emotions in various ways. Zembylas (2004), for example, reports on a teacher who felt dismissed and discouraged because of her colleagues not accepting her pedagogy, whereas Cowie (2011) and Nias (1999) show how healthy collegial relationships and a collaborative social environment at work can give teachers a sense of satisfaction and a reason to stay in the profession and, can, ultimately, protect them from burnout. It is therefore suggested in this thesis that the potential emotional

tensions embedded in the social environment of teaching should be viewed in the same light as the instructional tensions discussed in the section on teachers' beliefs (2.1.3), i.e., as powerful determiners of teachers' abilities to enact the teaching that is best compatible with their pedagogical beliefs (cf. Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

There are several rationales for including the study of teacher emotions in an explanatory framework of what shapes teachers' perceptions of their profession. Firstly, it is in line with the affective turn in second language acquisition (Pavlenko, 2013), and it is a way to expand notions of rationality by also taking emotional life into consideration in educational research and philosophy (Noddings, 2016). Furthermore, it broadens the social ontology of teaching by shifting the focus from teachers as mere providers of learning context towards a view of teachers as human beings with their own motives, goals and affective experience (Frenzel, 2014, p. 494). A viewpoint where emotions are an integral part of teachers' lives (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) and social relationships and systems of values rather than something private located in individuals (Zembylas, 2004, p. 186), acknowledges other dimensions of teaching than the technical ones (Chen, 2016). This is called upon not least from feminist thought, which is critical to the exclusion of emotional work, which is typically allocated to female-dominated professions, from the understanding of labor division through the two main categories material and mental (cf. Rose, 1983). Similarly, more recent research on teaching raises the importance of emotional factors in instructional contexts, which have been underplayed in comparison to rational factors such as teacher knowledge and skills (e.g., Chen, 2016) and is critical of the fixed oppositions between reason and emotion (Noddings, 2016, p. 151). Since teachers invest their selves heavily in the work, classrooms are arenas for personal and professional identities (Nias, 1999) where values are reflected through the expression and communication of teacher emotions (Zembylas, 2004). Therefore, as Zembylas concludes, an analysis of the emotional characteristics of teaching can help teachers cope with the emotional work embedded in the profession.

Furthermore, emotions correspond with beliefs, action and practice (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018; Lipowsky, 2006) and can thereby help research understand how external context and constraints sometimes make it difficult for teachers to put their stated pedagogical beliefs into practice (Basturkmen, 2012, p. 291). As an example, it is suggested that stronger efficacy beliefs can make teachers more enthusiastic and prone to commit to the profession and develop their teaching based on feedback received from the students (Lipowsky, 2006, p. 55; cf. Cowie 2011, p. 240). A focus on emotions could therefore contribute to a "shift of focus from isolated to situated conceptualizations of teachers' minds" (Borg, 2019, p. 1153), i.e., a shift from cognition to context, which can draw the attention from teachers as individuals towards structural problems in teachers' working conditions (Winograd, 2003, p. 1642). Based on notions that it is valuable to explore and acknowledge the possibilities an examination of emotions can have for teachers and teaching (Zembylas, 2004), as well as the development of the research field in the past decade, which now concludes that beliefs in line with actions can generate positive emotions and vice versa (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018), Borg (2019) also suggested a broadened view of the umbrella term teacher cognition (cf. 2.1.2) to also include an emotional component. Hence, a more holistic conception of the complexities studied in teacher cognition research would be:

> Inquiry which seeks, with reference to their personal, professional, social, cultural and historical contexts, to understand teachers' minds *and emotions* [emphasis added] and the role these play in the process of becoming, being and developing as a teacher (Borg, 2019, p. 1167).

In sum, this section adheres to the viewpoint that "[a]cknowledging the power of emotions enables teachers to better transform their relations to their students and to the subject-matter itself" (Zembylas, 2004: p. 199) and that teacher emotions, as such, are crucial for a comprehensive understanding of L3 teachers' perceptions of their teaching practices and, thereby, their professional selves.

2.2 Specifics of L3 education

The following subsections will lay out the conceptual understandings of L3 and perspectives, theories and components involved in the teaching and learning of third languages, which will interchangeably be referred to as L3 or tertiary language didactics. Seen together with section 2.3 on grammar teaching in L3 settings, these parts are essential for exploring and discussing the grammar dimension of the overarching research question (cf. 1.2).

2.2.1 Defining L3 and tertiary language didactics

In research on L3 teaching, it is important to clarify what defines a third language and how the term implies a clear distinction to other categories of learned languages. A third language (L3) is, as the very name suggests, the third language a speaker has contact with during their lifetime and, in educational contexts in Europe, the second foreign language a learner comes across in formal schooling (Jessner, 2008). It implies a differentiation of the notion second language, suggesting that L3 is a special case of L2 (second language) related to a specific situation, due to the different conditions between a monolingual person learning a first non-native language and a bi- or multilingual learning additional languages (Hammarberg, 2001, 2016). Hence, the term L3 refers to any non-native language acquired after an L2 (Falk & Bardel, 2010), which can include multiple languages and not only the chronologically third one. It is important to stress this, since the chronological order of languages learned does not always correspond to the frequency of use or level of competence in each language a multilingual speaker masters (Jessner & Cenoz, 2007). Although a long and impractical name, the term *third or additional languages* is therefore also suggested, with the aim not to exclude further languages learned beyond the L2 (De Angelis, 2007).

The rationale for a differentiation of L2 and L3 in foreign language teaching and learning is that "L3 learners bring more to the learning table, attributable to previous foreign language learning experience" (Gibson et al., 2001, p. 138), that L3 learning is "influenced by the degree of bilingualism already attained by the student" (Jessner, 2008, p. 34) and, ultimately, that this factor adds to the complexity of L3 learning, making it qualitatively different to the process of

L2 learning (Hufeisen, 2000; Jessner & Cenoz, 2007). The distinction builds upon a model introduced by Hufeisen (1998, 2000), suggesting different factors are involved in the acquisition of a first language (L1), a first foreign language (L2), a second foreign language (L3) and any additional languages thereafter (Lx). Since learners add new knowledge, strategies and experiences of language learning (Mißler, 2000) when they learn additional languages after the L1, this implies a qualitative jump in the learning process of the first and the second foreign language respectively (Hammarberg, 2016; Hufeisen, 1998; Hufeisen & Neuner, 2004). Furthermore, the system of language learning experience being added upon previously learned languages suggests a three-level cognitive hierarchy (Hammarberg, 2016), in which the L3 occupies a different position than the L2 (i.e., the first foreign language learned after the L1). The previous experience and learning strategies gained from learning an L2 is at the individual's disposal when learning a further L3 (Mißler, 2000), which is a factor not present in the learning process of an L2 (cf. Hufeisen, 1998, 2000). In L3 learning situations, learners also develop metalinguistic skills and metacognitive strategies thanks to the prior experience of learning an L2, which monolingual learners of a first foreign language (L2) do not have access to (Jessner & Cenoz, 2007; cf. Lindqvist & Falk, 2014).

These understandings of the specificities of L3 learning have broadened the research interest of scholars in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) and drawn researchers' attention to other background languages than the L1 in foreign language learning (Rast, 2010), where interest in languages beyond L2 were long time rarely mentioned and "mostly missing" (De Angelis, 2007, p. 4). Nowadays, third language acquisition (TLA) is a research area established in its own right and has as such "contributed to a better understanding of multilingual processes and use" (Jessner, 2008, p. 16). As the reader might notice, both the terms SLA and TLA seem to suggest a focus on acquisition as opposed to learning, where the former often refers to subconscious processes and the latter is assumed to be related to conscious processes for internalizing new learning involving conscious learning strategies (cf. Littlewood, 1984, p. 3). Also, the acronym SLA might imply a focus on acquisition in a naturalistic setting, whereas L3 learning, as part of foreign language learning (FLL), often takes place in formal classroom settings (cf. Nayar, 1997). A subfield of SLA is ISLA, instructed second language acquisition (Loewen, 2014), which focuses on exploring instructional benefits for L2 learning and how to optimize the effectiveness of instruction (cf. Spada, 2022). However, it still has a focus on L2 and does not take the specificities of L3 learning into account. As Vold (2022) showed in a Norwegian context, there are striking differences between L2 and L3 instruction, not the least due to the different status of a first foreign language, such as English, and additional second foreign languages. This accentuates the need to treat L3 learning and, even more importantly, third language *teaching* (Jessner, 2008), separately from L2 learning, acquisition and teaching.

In the Swedish context, German is taught as a tertiary language (Falk, 2016; Kjär, 2000; Österberg & Bardel, 2016) and learned by students in a situation where they already have previous experience of learning at least one non-native foreign language, i.e., English, in formal instructed classroom setting in addition to their L1 (whether the majority language Swedish or other first languages of each individual). Hence, all learners taking German as language choice at lower secondary schools already have the experience of being instructed in a first foreign

language and can draw on that knowledge as an added factor specific to the L3 learning process, qualitatively different to the process of learning an L2 (Hufeisen, 1998, 2000; Hufeisen & Neuner, 2004; Jessner & Cenoz, 2007; Mißler, 2000). This qualitative difference between L2 and L3 makes it relevant to distinguish a specific field of tertiary language didactics[4] (Hufeisen & Neuner, 2004, p. 9).

From this research lens, we could for example explore the role of the L3 teacher as, not necessarily a perfect speaker of the foreign language, but indeed an expert in activating the learning potential embedded in the experience of learning foreign languages beyond L2 and guiding their students to a conscious use of this resource. The field of L3 didactics within language education has developed considerably in the past decades and research on teaching and learning of second foreign languages in Sweden (i.e., the school subject *moderna språk*; cf. 1.4) has now also begun to refer to these languages as tertiary languages or L3s (Österberg & Bardel, 2016). However, many studies in the field of L3 pedagogy or L3 didactics focus on the learner perspective and call for more empirical research on what influences L3 learning (e.g., Mißler, 2000, p. 19). There seems to be an evident lack on exploring the area from a perspective where explicit teaching of third languages in a true L3 setting (as described in this section) is at the heart of the research interest. This is a gap that the present thesis aims to fill.

2.2.2 Crosslinguistic influences of background languages

Since the notion L3 logically requires at least one previously learned foreign language, it paves the way for several crosslinguistic influences (CLI) (Cenoz et al., 2001; Falk & Bardel, 2010; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2007; Kellerman & Sharwood-Smith, 1986; Odlin, 2003; Rast, 2010; Ringbom, 2007) from the L1 and L2 on the learning process of the third language. Although the L1, held as the language where the learner has the highest proficiency level, has traditionally been seen as the most likely source of crosslinguistic influence (Rast, 2010), CLI researchers nowadays also give considerable attention to influences and transfer from the L2 in L3 learning and show that L3 learners also transfer L2 features alongside features from the L1 (e.g., Bardel & Falk, 2007; Falk & Bardel, 2011). The role of previously learned languages in CLI research was, for example, acknowledged in a study on transfer in Swedish learners of German, where the author stated that the mandatory learning of English L2 in Sweden "opens up a scenario [where] an increasing amount of learners today have several languages as background, not only one L1" (Håkansson, 2001, p. 2). It was also noted in a study on Swedish L3 learners' use of language learning strategies (Malmberg et al., 2000) that many students report relying on the "help from other languages" as a commonly used L3 strategy (p. 27). These facts clearly suggest the usefulness of considering theories and findings from the CLI field in a conceptual framework for the specificities of L3 teaching and learning.

[4] Acknowledging that the definitions of "didactics" and "pedagogy" are slightly different in English than in the Swedish or German context (and that pedagogy, hence, might be a more relevant word choice to an English speaker), the term didactics is here used in the same sense as it occurs in the quoted reference.

When research on crosslinguistic influences takes Hufeisen's (1998, 2000) factor model into consideration and distinguishes between L1, L2 and L3, it appears that some L3 learners have an inclination to activate a previously acquired second language (Falk & Bardel, 2011) in the L3 learning process and transfer from the L2. This has been referred to as the *L2 status factor* (Hammarberg, 2001; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998) and can be defined as "a desire [in the learner] to suppress L1 as being 'non-foreign' and to rely rather on an orientation towards a prior L2 as a strategy to approach the L3" (Hammarberg, 2001, p. 37). It is a hypothesis based on the assumption that there are sociolinguistic and cognitive differences between early L1 and later L2 acquisition (Bardel, 2016; Falk & Bardel, 2011) and it is proposed that the L2 status of the second language alone can explain some transfer behavior in L3 learning (Lindqvist & Falk, 2014), making it an important factor per se in L3 acquisition (Falk & Bardel, 2010). The L2 status factor has been referred to in several transfer studies in Sweden where the different background languages are taken into consideration, and it has for example been described as "a filter, making the L1 inaccessible" (Bardel & Falk, 2007, p. 480) to L3 learners in certain situations. It is, however, a hotly-debated factor (Falk & Bardel, 2010) and an L2 can, furthermore, lose its L2 status if a learner reaches a high proficiency level in said language (Falk et al., 2015). Once the high proficiency level is attained, the learner no more perceives the language as foreign enough to resort to it as a source of transfer for the L3 learning process.

Transfer in language learning could be understood as "the whole business of how the possession of one language can influence the learning (or loss) of a second" (Kellerman, 1983, p. 112). Although the term might come with some negative connotations due to associations to behaviorist theorizing in the past (cf. Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2007), "transfer of prior linguistic knowledge and prior learning experiences is a strong force in human cognition" (De Angelis, 2007, p. 7) and can have an impact on a learner's success in the acquisition process of a foreign language (Ballinger et al., 2020). In this regard, language education and L3 pedagogy could regard previously learned L2s in formal situations as a likely source of transfer in the L3, since L2 and L3 share many cognitive and situational characteristics in learning situation (Falk et al., 2015), where the acquisition process of the L1 is too different to be an accessible transfer source for the L3 learner to turn to. This is related to two known interacting constraints that block transfer from L1 and rather favor influence from non-native L2s, namely perceptions of correctness and associations of foreignness (De Angelis, 2007, p. 29–30). In L3 research, these constraints are described in words of psychotypology and refer to the cognitively perceived differences in the learner between the target language and previously learned languages, rather than to structural differences between languages as they are traditionally described by linguists (cf. Hammarberg, 2001; Kellerman, 1983; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998).

Hence, a learner's subjective notion of similarity might become a "trigger of transfer" (Kellerman, 1983, p. 113) and can be used as a deliberate strategy in L3 learning rather than as a non-controllable constraint (Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). This phenomenon was, for example, noted and discussed in a study on German L3 learners' production of prepositional verbs, where Gibson et al. (2001) hypothesized that the structural similarity of the L1 and German would make a difference in the comparison between learners of different background L1s. However, the results instead indicated that the similarity of some background languages,

such as English and Swedish, and the target language German instead caused a "confusion effect" and was "providing fodder for linguistic interference in the task" (p. 146). This could clearly be attributed to the psychotypological effect (Kellerman, 1983) and is a seemingly a deliberate strategy. The authors of the study thus provide the following observation:

> Knowledge of English may even be acting as a hindrance by providing a negative source of interference, such that learners are deliberately avoiding any English-sounding preposition, knowing that the similarity of German and English can lead to interference. The result of such a strategy would be an over-correction away from English, leading to errors. (Gibson et al., 2001, p. 144)

These findings and what we today know about crosslinguistic influences, transfer and the interplay of background languages are clear examples of how L3 research can inform L3 didactics, i.e., the teaching and learning of third languages in formal educational contexts. For example, the knowledge that learners are more likely to employ transfer from a background language if they are aware of the crosslinguistic similarities, suggests that "offering students guidance and support through explicit linguistic comparisons and strategy instruction would improve their ability to use transfer as a resource for learning" (Ballinger et al., 2020, p. 268). In summary, knowledge of crosslinguistic influences is an essential part of L3 pedagogy and is important subject area-specific professional knowledge of L3 teachers.

2.2.3 The example of verb-second (V2) constructions

Although early research on crosslinguistic influences held that lexical transfer from L2 to L3 is more probable than the transfer of syntactic features (cf. Kjär, 2000), more recent studies have pointed out that syntax is also an area of linguistic transfer between structurally related Germanic background languages, especially at the initial stage of L3 acquisition (e.g., Bardel & Falk, 2007). One syntactic feature that has received considerable interest in L3 research is the acquisition of the verb-second (V2) rule, requiring that the verb element be the second element in declarative clauses, regardless of which other element occupies the clause-initial position. Departing from the canonical word order (subject-verb-object), a need for verb inversion therefore appears if another clause element than the subject (e.g., an adverbial) initiates a clause. The V2 feature is very uncommon in languages around the world, but is typical for Germanic languages such as German, Dutch and the Scandinavian languages. From a CLI perspective, the consideration of another Germanic background language therefore becomes particularly interesting. Although typologically a part of the Germanic family of languages, English could be viewed as a "special case among languages" (Falk & Bardel, 2010, p. 188), since it, except for some isolated expressions (cf. Jordens, 1988), shares relatively few morphosyntactic similarities with the other Germanic languages. Since the verb-second feature is not found in modern English, and this language is the most common first foreign language (i.e., L2) with a strong L2 status (cf. 2.2.2) in many L3 learning situations, it becomes a potential source of transfer from the L2 to the L3 (cf. Bardel & Falk, 2007; Bohnacker, 2006; Falk, 2016; Falk & Bardel, 2010; Lindqvist & Falk, 2014).

An interesting outcome of previous studies' dealing with the application of V2 by Swedish learners of German L3 (Håkansson, 2001; Håkansson et al., 2002; cf. section 3.4), is that they brought to the fore an interesting discussion relevant for the teaching and learning of German as an L3 in Sweden. This discussion relates to the notion referred to by many GL3 teachers as "the English illness", i.e., the tendency to ascribe non-application of the V2 rule to transfer from English (cf. Falk & Lindqvist, 2022). Interestingly, references to "the English illness" are mainly found in studies reporting on V2 *learning*, which sheds light on the need to investigate the role of background languages in the *teaching* of German as a third language (cf. Hufeisen & Lindemann, 1998). This suggestion implies that more explicit attention could be paid to the learners' L2 (i.e., typically English; cf. 2.3.3) instead of only taking L1 into consideration, which has traditionally been the case in L3 teaching settings and approaches (cf. Falk, 2016, p. 99).

2.3 Teaching L3 grammar

Grammar teaching is a term with many connotations. Regardless of which perception one has of grammar, research on language education provides ample evidence that grammar teaching is beneficial for learning and acquisition of languages (Doughty, 1991; Ellis, 1989; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Tammenga-Helmantel et al., 2014). In this thesis, teaching is conceived of as activities, intentions, interaction between individuals and deliberately selected subject matter (cf. Boström & Josefsson, 2006, p. 66), whereas grammar is understood as "a lexicogrammatical resource for making meaning" (Larsen-Freeman, 2015, p. 274). Grammar teaching is, hence, the deliberately selected lexicogrammatical themes and items that the language teacher enacts in the classroom, with the intention of bringing about interaction between the individuals and the subject matter with an ultimate aim of attaining learning. From another perspective, grammar can be defined as knowledge about how languages work, which can be considered as a form of "powerful knowledge" (van Rijt et al., 2022, p. 2; cf. Young, 2013). Grammar teaching may also arouse connotations to traditional teaching methods, explanations of rules, drills and language-learning textbooks (Liu, 2012), whereas more contemporary viewpoints on grammar might rather define it using notions similar to that of Celce-Murcia (1991), who defined grammar as "a tool or resource to be used in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse rather than something to be learned as an end" (p. 466). In the next section, this will be discussed in some more detail.

2.3.1 Paradigms underpinning grammar teaching

Historically, the role of grammar teaching within foreign language education has shifted and different paradigms have guided the views on grammar instruction (cf. Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). Due to this development, there are many terms and theories in the field. This makes it hard to establish a single conceptual basis of grammar education (van Rijt & Coppen, 2017, p. 363). Different proposals have been advanced, such as input-/output-based approaches, prescriptive/descriptive grammar, explicit/implicit instruction, inductive/deductive teaching or

focus on meaning/form/forms (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2006, 2016; Graus & Coppen, 2016; Larsen-Freeman, 2009, 2015; Liu, 2012; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004; Spada & Tomita, 2010; VanPatten, 1996). There seems to be, however, consensus that dimensions such as form, meaning and function interact and that going beyond the above-mentioned dichotomies is beneficial for language teaching and learning (e.g., Celce-Murcia, 1991; Glaser, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Nassaji, 2016). Still, the discourse around grammar teaching is characterized by debates of the usefulness of grammar, as well as a divide between two clear strands, namely (what is colloquially referred to as) traditional grammar teaching on the one hand, and approaches oriented towards functional communication on the other (cf. Derewianka & Jones, 2010; Fontich & Camps, 2014; Myhill & Watson, 2014; Strandberg, 2023; Tornberg, 2020).

The latter is a consequence of the communicative turn that has characterized foreign language education at least since the 1980s (cf. Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Littlewood, 1981; Richards, 2006). At the heart of the communicative approach to language teaching is the conceptualization of a communicative competence (Hymes, 1972), which also involves grammar knowledge to be used in strategic and pragmatical ways in authentic situations. This perspective has had a profound impact on grammar pedagogy in both first and foreign language education and has entailed a shift away from prescriptive views of grammar towards a more descriptive interest in how grammar is used in the process of meaning-making in social contexts (Myhill, 2021; Tornberg, 2020). This action-oriented paradigm is a cornerstone of the comprehensive work known as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe/Skolverket, 2009; Council of Europe, 2020) and has as such influenced the language curricula of many countries, including Sweden (Skolverket, 2024). Concrete implications of the communicative approach for grammar teaching practices are, for example, a focus on the authenticity of the situations in which the foreign language will be used. In this regard, certain approaches and methodological principles are particularly suggested in the research literature, such as task-based language teaching (Ellis et al., 2020), the use of grammar as a tool for meaning-making rather than a set of rules and structures (Myhill 2021; Myhill et al., 2012), and a *focus on form* approach (e.g., Ellis, 2006), also conceptualized as "a set of procedures for attracting attention to form while learners are engaged in meaning making" (Ellis, 2016, p. 423). However, it should also be noted that there has been a criticism against a too heavy influence of the communicative paradigm in language teaching (e.g., Bax, 2003), which among other consequences might results in a depletion or, as perceived by some teachers, a complete vanishment of explicit grammar instruction from language teaching in schools (cf. Falk et al., 2015).

Literature on language education also reports issues and perceptions of grammar teaching as a controversial topic (e.g., Askland, 2019; Celce-Murcia, 1991) and a potential source of confusion (Graus & Coppen, 2016) or even anxiety for teachers (Giovanelli, 2015; van Rijt et al., 2022), where "rumors have it that neither students nor teachers enjoy it or appreciate it much" (Askland, 2019, preface). Borg (1999b) referred to grammar teaching as an "ill-defined domain" in ELT contexts (p. 157), whereas Nylén (2014) reported L3 teachers' dissatisfaction with the absence of clear guidelines for grammar teaching in the national syllabi. In addition,

Larsen-Freeman (2015) holds that there is a chasm between research on grammar teaching and the practice of language teachers, where little research on SLA or applied linguistics has found its way into language classrooms, although the field has seen a number of classroom-based studies providing evidence for the benefits of teaching grammar (e.g., Myhill et al., 2012). Altogether, research on grammar teaching can contribute useful insights to language education and the following sub-sections will shed light on some theoretical aspects of grammar teaching that are particularly relevant for the teaching of third languages.

2.3.2 Teachers' approaches to grammar

Language teachers' perceptions of grammar teaching comprise several components, such as professional knowledge (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Shulman, 1986, 1987), preferences for certain teaching approaches (Brown, 2009), beliefs and attitudes that might come from previous learning experiences and guide and motivate current teaching actions (Graus & Coppen, 2016; Liviero, 2017; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richardson, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997) and epistemological beliefs, i.e., "subjective conceptions about the acquisition, structure, and validation of knowledge" (Elsner, 2021, p. 116). The knowledge base of language teachers when it comes to grammar teaching can either be conceived of as a repository of inert facts and propositions or, as Johnston & Goettsch (2000) showed, can instead be process-oriented, where teachers introduce grammar gradually and through a series of processes in which they engage their students in a dialogical analysis of the grammar items needed to acquire understanding of the instructed language. As discussed by van Rijt et al. (2022), teachers' beliefs about the attractiveness of certain methods for grammar teaching might at first appear firm, but can be challenged and changed if the teachers are provided with alternative options under the right circumstances.

Previous research also reports different stances towards grammar expressed by language teachers. These stances are often retraceable to the teachers' own previous experience as language learners. As an example, Borg (1999b) quotes a teacher reminiscing about their experience of learning French grammar:

> I remember the past historic, but I don't even know what it means, and apparently you can only use it for stories, so why the hell were we taught it in the first place cause we would never use it? We never spoke the language. So, it was just grammar grammar grammar, which I couldn't relate to anything cause I didn't even know my own grammar. (Borg 1999b, p. 105)

A reluctant stance is also found in one of the Spanish L3 teachers in Askland's (2018) study, who called for caution with grammar teaching and expressed a thought that it is possible to "kill students with grammar" (p. 69). By contrast, Johnston & Goettsch (2000) stress the fact that several teachers explicitly report that they enjoy working with grammar and language analysis in their classes, adding however that one of the teachers "also wonders whether her memory for grammar facts from school is 'weird'" (p. 447). There are also several studies from foreign language teaching at American universities that show clear discrepancies between students' and teachers' perceptions of grammar and preferred teaching approaches (Brown, 2009; Schulz, 1996). These studies show that teachers tend to underestimate how much their students enjoy

grammar work and raises the need for language teachers to explore the potential tensions between their stated beliefs and practices, especially in the area of grammar teaching (cf. Phipps & Borg, 2009). One study, however, reports an opposite experience, where the teacher's positive feelings about teaching grammar are aligned with, what he perceives as, a mutual enjoyment in his students for the matter:

> I think the students actually enjoy an intellectual spot in the lesson where they can reflect about language and consider language, and where they can actually talk about grammar … if there is an opportunity to do so and the majority of the people are included in the discussion, and nobody feels alienated by it in any way, I think I would take opportunities to do that. (Borg, 1998, p. 20)

A recurrent theme in previous research on language teacher cognition and practices is that the rationales for grammar teaching, as stated by teachers themselves, often relate to contextual factors that frame the teaching situation (Borg, 1998, 2006; Sanchez & Borg, 2014; Uysal & Bardakci, 2014; Watzke, 2007). It is, for example, suggested that teachers engage in grammar teaching "not because they feel it enhances language acquisition but because they feel it is something their students expect" (Borg, 2006, p. 124), and that they select grammar work based on perceptions of the students' expectations and motivational needs (Borg, 1998). In this regard, Uysal & Bardakci (2014) report on one teacher who wanted to implement a communicative approach and therefore stopped teaching grammar topics and rules, but soon noticed that the students "did not seem to learn English any better" (p. 8–9). Using grammar in language teaching is also seen as a means of maintaining control and exercising classroom management, especially by novice teachers (Watzke, 2007), since "[w]ithin the context of high-energy interactive learning, grammar analysis work provides opportunities for some quiet reflective time in the classroom" (Borg, 2006, p. 125). Apart from classroom management issues, crowded classes and low student motivation are other contextual factors reported to have an impact on language teachers' pedagogical selection of grammar teaching approaches (Uysal & Bardakci, 2014). Being economical (in terms of using time-efficient strategies, such as translating) and motivating learners are two salient rationales that language teachers can articulate when asked to explain their pedagogical concerns and decision-making processes related to grammar teaching, as Sanchez and Borg (2014, p. 52) point out.

2.3.3 Raising metalinguistic awareness

Regardless of preferred teaching approach, an important aim with any explicit grammar teaching is to draw the learners' attention "to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them […] to understand it metalinguistically" (Ellis, 2006, p. 84). This involves helping students to conceptually grasp the form and meaning of grammatical constructions (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 456) and achieve conceptual understanding of how languages work, which is "one of the biggest challenges teachers face" when teaching grammar (van Rijt et al., 2019, p. 78). As an example, a Swedish study on language learners' use of learning strategies (Malmberg et al., 2000) showed that many L3 pupils have difficulties in assessing and analyzing their errors, which was attributed to their unfamiliarity with using grammatical

terminology (p. 33). Understanding how languages work and being able to put words to the differences and similarities identified between the new language and previously learned ones is an important feature in L3 learning, believed to increase the probability for successful language learning (cf. Bardel, 2016). Conceptual understanding of the grammatical system and finding a language to describe language (i.e., a metalanguage) is a common notion reported in research on language teaching and language teachers' rationales for and practices in grammar teaching (cf. Borg, 2006; Phipps & Borg, 2009). There are also classroom-based research findings that clearly link successful implementations of certain grammar teaching approaches to improvement in students' metalinguistic understanding (e.g., Myhill et al., 2012), suggesting it is an important area to take into consideration in L3 grammar teaching, especially if we consider the fact that metalinguistic awareness develops particularly quickly in children who are exposed to multiple languages (Kellerman, 1983, p. 116).

As the reader might note, a variety of terms is used in the field to refer to seemingly the same construct, which might cause a terminological confusion. De Angelis (2007), for example, mentions both *metalinguistic awareness* and *metalinguistic thinking* being used in a broad sense to refer to "learners' ability to separate meanings and forms, discriminate language components, identify ambiguity and understand the use of grammatical forms and structures" (p. 121). Metalinguistic awareness is also used by Jessner (1999) and by Thomas (1992), who defines it as "an individual's ability to focus attention on language as an object in and of itself, to reflect upon language, and to evaluate it" (p. 531), whereas Falk et al. (2015) refer to the same term as "the capacity to reflect upon and manipulate linguistic features, rules or data" (p. 229). In Hufeisen's (1998, 2000) factor model, metalinguistic awareness is one of the cognitive factors derived from previous language learning that are involved in the process of learning an L3. A similar cognitive term comprised in the factor model is *language awareness* (cf. Hawkins, 1999; Schmidt, 2001), i.e., explicit knowledge about language or "a mental attribute which develops through paying motivated attention" that can also be used as a pedagogical approach that aims to help learners gain insights into how languages work (Bolitho et al., 2003, p. 251). Similar to this definition is *explicit metalinguistic knowledge* (MLK) which is conceived of as "the conscious knowledge of the linguistic rules of a particular language" (Falk et al., 2015, p. 227), where the quoted authors could show a correlation between levels of MLK in the L1 and correctness rates on a test on adjective placement in an early encounter with a new L3. These findings suggest that metalinguistic knowledge, awareness and thinking are useful for approaches to L3 grammar teaching.

Indeed, previous research on language teachers' grammar teaching beliefs provides examples of how central metalinguistic perspectives are in L2/L3 teaching context. Johnston and Goettsch (2000), for example, pointed out that teachers' opinions on the appropriate degree of metalanguage use vary but that the teachers in their study generally held beliefs about the importance of having the students analyze the language, since "they need to be able to pick apart a sentence they've produced" (p. 452). Furthermore, four participants in Nylén's study (2014) mention the importance of the students being acquainted with their L1 grammar and having developed metalinguistics skills when they come to take a course in an L3, since this would help them analyze and grasp the structures in the new language and thus facilitate the L3

learning process. Since grammar is, however, not always treated in Swedish L1 courses (cf. Falk et al., 2015, p. 228) and the L3 teachers identify this gap in their students' knowledge, the teachers interviewed by Nylén (2014) report using two opposing strategies. Whereas some teachers simplify the grammatical terminology used and leave out certain structures, ignoring thereby the metalinguistic perspective, others instead run a mini course in general grammar knowledge within the frames of their Spanish L3 courses (Nylén, 2014, p. 66–67). In addition, Nylén notes that the latter category of teachers also express desires for teaming up with the Swedish L1 teachers at their schools in a joint effort to teach more grammar in both language subjects, with the ultimate aim of elevating the students' metalinguistic skills. This resonates with suggestions to promote collaborations of L1, L2 and L3 teachers in order to strengthen language education in Sweden, accentuated by Erickson et al. (2022, p. 190).

Furthermore, previous research has dealt with grammar teaching approaches based on the notion of awareness or consciousness raising, defined as "the deliberate attempt to draw the learners' attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" (Rutherford & Sharwood-Smith, 1985, p. 274; cf. Angelovska & Hahn, 2014; Fotos, 1993, 1994). Grammar consciousness-raising tasks aiming at word order were used in a study by Fotos (1994), whose findings suggest the approach being successful in integrating formal language instruction with a communicative framework. As was shown in section 1.4, this has been identified by the Swedish School Inspectorate on two occasions as an area for improvement of L3 teaching in compulsory school (Skolinspektionen 2010, 2022). Consciousness-raising as a pedagogical procedure for grammar teaching is, however, not solely restricted to metalinguistic awareness. Another area involved in overall language awareness is crosslinguistic awareness, where the consciousness of both students and language teachers could be raised (Otwinowska, 2014), by e.g., exploring the relatedness and similarities of background languages or having students compare examples of sentence structures in different languages and trying to infer the rules in the unknown language (Ballinger et al., 2017). This now brings us to the last sub-section of this theoretical background chapter, namely one on crosslinguistic pedagogy (XLP).

2.3.4 Crosslinguistic pedagogy (XLP)

In this thesis, crosslinguistic pedagogy (abbreviated XLP) is conceptualized as a teaching approach that takes into consideration the theoretical distinction of background languages (as L1/L2/L3 and further; cf. 2.1.1) and the crosslinguistic influences between these, such as the L2 status factor (cf. 2.2.2). In addition, it embraces a multilingual viewpoint on the beneficial use of multiple languages in teaching and learning as a means to raise learners' linguistic awareness (cf. 2.3.2), especially related to the awareness of crosslinguistic structural similarities and differences, given that crosslinguistic and metalinguistic dimensions in L3 learning are closely intertwined (Bono, 2011; Cenoz & Jessner, 2009; Thomas, 1988, 1992). This is believed to be a particularly useful approach in L3 grammar teaching. As was discussed in the previous section, raising students' metalinguistic awareness is a way to teach them how to learn new languages and discern rules in the system of each. With a crosslinguistic perspective added, the comparisons of languages are brought to the forefront:

> This will mean far more attention to cross language comparisons and more talk about language than has been the fashion, and tests which do not only assess performance in the foreign language but also assess, and encourage, pupils' growing awareness of how the foreign language compares with the mother tongue and how foreign languages are learned. (Hawkins, 1999, p. 140).

Involving crosslinguistic connections and contrasts in L3 grammar teaching could be seen as an awareness-raising technique that bridges languages, creates synergies and exploits resources (Jessner, 2008, p. 38) that sets the aim to foster "positively curious learner[s] paying conscious attention to instances of language in an attempt to discover and articulate patterns of language use" (Bolitho et al., 2003, p. 252). This can be conceptualized as crosslinguistic awareness (CLA), defined as "the learner's tacit and explicit awareness of the links between their language systems" (Cenoz & Jessner, 2009, p. 127), or more precisely, "a mental ability which develops through focusing attention on and reflecting upon language(s) in use and through establishing similarities and differences among the languages in one's multilingual mind" (Angelovska & Hahn, 2013, p. 187).

The case for applying crosslinguistic pedagogy is informed by previous research on L3 learners' conscious use of background languages as a common strategy, involving transfer from other languages than the L1 (e.g., Malmberg et al., 2000; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998) and by viewpoints that neither the L1 (cf. Cook, 2001; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2007), nor previously learned L2s (cf. Hufeisen & Lindemann, 1998), should be ignored in the L3 classroom. On the contrary, it seems reasonable to view a previously learned L2 as an additional resource for enhancing the learning of an L3. Thereby, the traditional teaching approach to only point out contrasts between L1 and L3 (cf. Falk, 2016) could be replaced with one that explicitly involves L2 knowledge to bring about trilingual contrasts as well. This approach is aligned with the shift in viewpoints on multilingualism over the past decades, moving from a view of learners' languages as compartmentalized separate cognitive systems towards a perspective of multiple dynamic interrelationships where additional languages are seen as advantageous for the overall linguistic development of a language user (Ballinger et al., 2017; Cenoz & Jessner, 2009; Cummins, 2007, 2014; De Angelis, 2007; García, 2011; García & Wei, 2014; Hammarberg, 2016; Jessner, 2008; Jessner & Cenoz, 2007; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Mißler, 2000; Paradis, 2004; Séror & Gentil, 2020; Swain & Lapkin, 2013). The latter viewpoint could be summarized in the following quote: "All foreign language learning leads to the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and experience of this task, and this knowledge and experience are at the individual's disposal when learning a further foreign language" (Mißler, 2000, p. 7).

Although it has previously been claimed that teachers are rarely taught about the cognitive and linguistic benefits of multilingualism (cf. De Angelis, 2011), the increased research interest in multilingualism has led to the promotion of ideas of multilingual education (Jessner, 2008) and pluralistic approaches in language education (Séror & Gentil, 2020). This interest has also found its way into the field of L3 didactics. A common theme in this line of research is language teachers' beliefs about multilingualism, their experiences and perceptions of crosslinguistic

influences and the role played by other languages in their teaching (De Angelis, 2011; Haukås, 2016; Jakisch, 2014; Otwinowska, 2014; Portolés & Martí, 2020). In this regard, Jakisch (2014) discusses not only the implications of multilingualism for language teaching and learning, but also as an aim for *Bildung* (cf. Hopmann, 2007; Klafki, 1995), summarized in the English version of the abstract as the way practitioners feel about using their teaching as "a vehicle for achieving the educational goal of plurilingualism" (Jakisch, 2014, p. 202). Although it presents differing views from different geographical and educational contexts, the research mentioned overall points to beliefs held by teachers about "the learning potential of cross-linguistic synergies" (Séror & Gentil, 2020, p. 359), which is a cornerstone in crosslinguistic pedagogy.

Crosslinguistic or plurilingual approaches in teaching can include alternations of languages in which literature is read (e.g., Lyster et al., 2009), integrating an L2 in content teaching and allowing for the co-activation of two languages to enhance students' learning in non-language subjects (i.e., CLIL; e.g., Berger, 2015) or, simply, encouraging code switches and supporting students' making use of their full linguistic repertoires at school. The latter practice is often referred to colloquially by Swedish teachers as *translanguaging*, although this term has a somewhat ambiguous meaning and implies some conceptual issues (cf. Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, 2020, 2022). With the aim of going beyond "an idealized notion of bilingualism as two parallel, rigidly separate monolingual competencies" (Séror & Gentil, 2020, p. 370), translanguaging is suggested as a term for spontaneous multilingual practices in social and cultural domains (García, 2011; García & Wei, 2014). Hence, it is not necessarily concerned with educational contexts, wherefore the term *pedagogical translanguaging* (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020, 2022) is suggested, referring to the "intentional instructional strategies that integrate two or more languages and aim at the development of the multilingual repertoire as well as metalinguistic and language awareness" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020, p. 300). In this sense, L3 instruction with deliberately included elements of metalinguistic awareness-raising (cf. 2.3.2) could be regarded a pedagogical translanguaging approach. However, it is suggested that "expanding the translanguaging toolkit beyond 'code-switching' is crucial to improving bilingual and L2 education" (Ballinger et al., 2020, p. 271). Therefore, the authors prefer the term XLP in language and literacy teaching, although acknowledging that notions such as plurilingual pedagogies, translanguaging and XLP are branches of the same tree.

XLP is a flexible approach that "may be implemented in different ways depending on the language-learning context and on students' needs and backgrounds" (Ballinger et al., 2017, p. 37). Furthermore, it takes into consideration the crosslinguistic interplays between languages and how they can be both a source of tension and of access to specific linguistic forms found across languages (Séror & Gentil, 2020), which is particularly useful in L3 grammar teaching. It is also a "pedagogy that supports bridges between languages studied or known by learners" (Ballinger et al., 2020, p. 265) and, hence, impacts both teaching and learning, as well as the promotion of pedagogical interventions that make a conscious use of CLI and *didaktischer Transfer* (Meißner, 2004; cf. De Angelis, 2007) of knowledge from the L2 (often English) or other L3s (cf. Hufeisen, 1994; Jakisch, 2014; Janovsky, 2000; Jessner, 2008; Terrasi, 2000). In the present thesis project, crosslinguistic pedagogy (XLP), as defined by Ballinger et al. (2017, 2020), is therefore understood as the most appropriate term to refer to a pedagogical approach in the specific instructional context where German L3 is taught and the teachers involve background languages in their explicit teaching of grammar. Implementing an XLP approach

in German L3 teaching, for example by making explicit references to grammatical features of both L1 Swedish and L2 English, could be seen as German L3 teachers' professional response to the call for a better understanding of CLI among language teachers (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2007) and an example of a "deeper understanding of how to use crosslinguistic influences in the classroom" (Otwinowska, 2014, p. 118).

3. Previous research

This section will give a literature overview of the areas covered in the previous section on theoretical background and relevant for addressing the research question of the thesis (cf. 1.1). The section is organized in three thematic sub-section, followed by a fourth sub-section outlining research on L3 education from Scandinavia, believed to be relevant for this thesis.

3.1 Pedagogical knowledge

Shulman's (1987) models and concepts, such as pedagogical content knowledge (cf. 2.1.1), have been a useful tool reported on in previous research from various contexts. In a study on foreign language teachers in Sweden, Erickson et al. (2022) list both general and subject specific theories on PCK as indispensable parts of the analytical frame they used to study teachers' views on Second Foreign Language (i.e., L3) teaching in Sweden. Furthermore, in a licentiate thesis on teachers' perceptions and dilemmas in Spanish L3 grammar teaching, Nylén (2014) used Shulman's model on pedagogical reasoning and action (see Table 3) for the categorization of comprehension and transformations that guided the teachers' decision-making when planning their grammar teaching. In this regard, it should be noted that Nylén only used interview data in her study to map the participant teachers' reasoning and thinking. In the discussion, Nylén further suggests that classroom observations of actual grammar teaching would be useful for further research on FL teachers' transformations of their pedagogical content knowledge, which is precisely what the present thesis aims to explore.

The fact that Shulman's models and, particularly the construct PCK, have been and still are referred to and used in educational research, suggests that they have high relevance as a theoretical framework for understanding teachers' professional identities, decision-making and practical approaches in research on subject didactics in various school subjects. The earliest examples came from Shulman's own research group. Gudmundsdottir and Shulman (1987), as an example, studied teachers of social science and suggested that "a solid body of pedagogical content knowledge distinguishes the veteran from the novice in teaching" (p. 61), since the latter to a higher degree than the former drew on content knowledge acquired at college to justify his pedagogical approaches. The implication of such research is that higher pedagogical content knowledge enables teachers to "do more things in the classroom" (p. 59). Evidently, Shulman's framework and models have found their ways to other lines of inquiry on teachers and teacher knowledge over the years and they have clearly inspired and been useful to educational researchers, not the least in the field of language education. One example is

Golombek (1998) and her article on teachers' personal practice knowledge. Without explicitly mentioning Shulman anywhere in the text, the analytical categories used to interpret interview data with language teachers (i.e., knowledge of self, knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of instruction and knowledge of context) are clearly similar to Shulman's framework from 1987.

Three categories from Shulman's framework (namely, content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and knowledge of learners) were also used as the theoretical frame by Johnston and Goettsch (2000) in their study on experienced language teachers' grammar teaching practices. The authors found that the three categories of teacher knowledge are fundamentally process-oriented and "intertwined in complex ways as they are played out in the classroom and in teacher thinking" (p. 437). The article points out specific examples of how teachers' PCK can be traced in their decisions on what teaching material to choose for highlighting specific grammatical features or their accounts of which area they aim to raise their students' consciousness about when selecting specific instructional activities and contents. Johnston and Goettsch further pointed out how the teachers' assumptions and beliefs about students' learning guided their application of pedagogical strategies, which enabled them to, for example, break down complex sentences into "cognitively more manageable propositions until [the students] are able to grasp the overall meaning" (p. 460). Referring to Shulman's framework, these observations were referred to as "pedagogical content knowledge par excellence" in which the content knowledge "finds its pedagogical realization" (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 449). In a similar vein, PCK was used as an exploratory frame by Watzke (2007) to map changes in novice teachers' knowledge about the instructional contexts in their first two years of foreign language teaching.

3.2 Teachers' beliefs about grammar

As was shown in sections 2.1.2–2.1.4, language teacher cognition is now a broad field with a considerable base of previous research spanning over decades and geographical contexts, not the least studies from Asia, often cited in various reviews (e.g., Farrell & Lim; 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Richards et al., 2001; cf. Barnard & Burns, 2012). Given the interrelatedness of the terms used across the field, this sub-section will treat teachers' cognitions and beliefs regarding language teaching (including grammar instruction) as a whole and discuss a selected number of previous studies that are relevant for, and in part similar to, the research project covered in the present thesis.

An integrative review of previous research on language teacher beliefs was presented by Basturkmen (2012), who focused on the interface of beliefs and actions and concluded that a majority of the studies showed limited correspondence between teachers' stated beliefs and manifested practices (p. 291). A similar take was used by Phipps & Borg (2009), who focused on the tensions between teachers' beliefs and practice in grammar teaching and stressed the point that even beliefs that are seemingly incongruent with observed teaching action, in fact are consistent with "deeper, more general beliefs about learning" (p. 387). As an example of such deeper-level beliefs, the authors bring up the belief that learning is enhanced when students are

engaged cognitively, which influenced the teachers' grammar teaching practices to a higher extent than beliefs about specific grammar teaching methods or approaches (cf. section 2.3). A similar discussion about the importance of belief systems on different levels that influence language teachers' decisions in grammar teaching is found in a study from Singapore (Farrell & Lim, 2005), where both convergences and divergences between teachers' stated beliefs and actual classroom practices are examined. In contrast to the reported divergences elsewhere, Canh and Maley (2012) concluded a high level of convergence between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding grammar teaching in their study, which employed a combination of interview types and classroom observations.

Research on teacher beliefs has also provided findings in other areas covered in the theoretical background section of this thesis. Experienced teachers' provisions for the application of certain grammar teaching approaches or activities (cf. 2.3) are found in Johnston and Goettsch (2000), where teachers for example articulate their preference for inductive approaches and beliefs in handing over the responsibility for concluding grammatical rules to the students (p. 450). In terms of beliefs about cognitive and metalinguistic perspectives (cf. 2.3.2), Borg's (1999a) study with four teachers revealed a variety of views on which grammatical terminology and metalanguage to use in the language classroom. When it comes to teachers' beliefs about plurilingual or crosslinguistic approaches involving other background languages (cf. 2.3.3), Jakisch (2014) reports on three cases covered in an interview study with English teachers in Germany, revealing for instance their focus on grammatical and morphosyntactic features when considering potential crosslinguistic transfer. Several studies informing the theoretical background of this thesis also have a research focus on language teachers' beliefs and conceptualizations of grammar, grammar teaching and the role of grammar within the curriculum of the respective educational system (e.g., Liviero, 2017; Watson, 2015), whereas others are case studies focusing more on how teachers modify their intended teaching as the lessons unfold (e.g., Richards, 1998; Ulichny, 1996). The latter category of previous studies was important background reading in the preparations for the lesson observations in the present project (cf. 4.3.2).

Context is also reported as an important factor influencing what Borg (1998) defined as the *pedagogical system* (i.e.,, a group name for mental representations such as beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions and attitudes) of the only participant in an interpretative case study on grammar teaching, namely an experienced English teacher in Malta. In the introduction, Borg the author discusses various sources of influence on teachers' pedagogical systems, such as self-perceptions and beliefs about students, subject matter, classroom management and teaching and learning in general (p. 28). Ascertaining the role of educational and professional experience on the one hand, Borg also makes a strong case for the context, suggesting a distinction between internal and external factors, and showing how the teacher was sensitive to the demands of the students and could alternate his instructional style when needed. As Borg notes, the teacher "seemed to have built into his personal pedagogical system ways of responding to these factors and even preempting potential complications they could cause" (1998, p. 31). Furthermore, another recurrent feature observed in the teachers' grammar instruction was the use of grammatical terminology and the explicit discussions of grammatical issues, "suggesting that the teacher had positive feelings about the role grammatical metalanguage played in L2

learning" (1998, p. 19). Borg's word choice in the quoted passage is particularly interesting in regard to the interpretation of the findings found in Study 1 within this thesis project.

One final study to mention in this section is a case study with two secondary school EFL teachers in Argentina (Sanchez & Borg, 2014), where the researchers employed multiple methods in three stages, consisting of interviews, classroom observations and post-lesson stimulated recall interviews (i.e., a design with certain similarities to the one of the present thesis project, as described in section 4.3). Furthermore, the study by Sanchez and Borg builds on the previous work by Shulman (1987), which in turn inspired Johnston and Goettsch (2000) to specifically explore the knowledge base of grammar teaching. Sanchez and Borg conceptualize this subject-specific knowledge form as GPCK, *grammar-related pedagogical content knowledge* (2014, p. 46), explained as language teachers' knowledge of specific instructional techniques when teaching grammar, such as metaphors, analogies and examples, with the aim of making the content more accessible and thus learnable for their students. In doing so, Sanchez and Borg also examined the interactions between cognitions and context, and they found that external contextual factors have an influence on the teachers' pedagogical decision-making when planning for and carrying out grammar teaching. The analysis rendered a list of nine rationales that the two teachers could easily articulate (p. 52–53). The first rationale presented in the list is *Being economical* and refers to how the teachers are constantly aware of the lesson time they have at their disposal. Hence, the time factor is an important contextual factor that mediates their pedagogical decision-making when selecting lesson activities for grammar work (translation tasks being mentioned as an example of a time-efficient activity).

3.3 Teacher emotions

Research on teacher emotions gained attention in the late 1990s and has in the recent years developed to cover ever more subject areas and geographical contexts. In fact, findings on teacher emotions suggest cultural and contextual differences (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018: p. 516) and a recent overview of studies in the field reported that most published research comes from the USA, Australia and Germany and that the top 10 countries cover nearly two thirds of the publications on the topic (Chen & Cheng, 2022). Typically, studies treat teachers' well-being and emotions that teachers feel in relation to teaching and students, as well as the relation between emotions and, for example, instructional effectiveness and classroom management (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018; Frenzel, 2014). Questionnaires and interviews are common data production instruments, although the field allows for a variety of other narrative elicitation techniques to be used.

One example is the self-study with elements of autoethnography used by Winograd (2003) during a sabbatical year working as an elementary teacher. Winograd's study was set out to study the notions of *feeling rules* and *emotional labor* and relied on sociological and feminist perspectives (cf. Benhabib; 1993; Boler, 1999; Noddings, 2016; Rose, 1983) of public schools as a gendered institution. The findings suggest functional and dysfunctional uses of emotions in teachers' work, referring to the action outcomes that would result from Winograd's emotional experiences. This sheds light upon the self-accusatory stance many teachers might take due to

emotions caused by dissatisfaction with the context, system and their working conditions. The self-blaming of the individual teacher, the author suggests, divert teachers' attention from these structural problems and, hence, impede the potential of emotions to lead to collective social action that would change and improve schooling as a system. The following excerpt summarizes Winograd's conclusions. These are chosen because, as the present thesis will argue, they are still relevant and applicable to the current teaching context in Sweden (cf. Study 1):

> My emotional life as a teacher can be characterized as functional or dysfunctional. It was functional when my emotions alerted me to teaching problems. I was also fairly skilled at using strategies to modify my emotional display or experience as feeling rules of the situation suggested. My emotions were dysfunctional when I appeared to psychologize my emotions, by experiencing them as individual phenomenon and not as an expression of the sociopolitical context. The emotions described in this paper often were expressions of self-flagellation, blaming of students and families, or resignation regarding the nature of teachers' work. (Winograd, 2003, p. 1651).

The emotions of an elementary school teacher, although not a self-study, were also the main theme in a study by Zembylas (2004), who followed a science teacher over three years and combined observations of the teacher's classroom actions with open-ended interviews. Also, the teacher recorded an "emotion diary", which the researcher used to explore the roles emotions play in teaching, i.e., how the teacher constructs emotions about pedagogy and how these emotions influence her teaching. Zembylas identified three major roles of emotions in teaching, namely: 1) evaluative (emotions guide the teachers' evaluations of what is going on in the classroom and the school context); 2) relational (many emotions stem from the social interactions that occur and change over time in the classroom), and; 3) political (how power relations in the school organization mediate beliefs, values and discourse). It is suggested that particularly the political role of emotions lead to self-evaluations that influence the emotional experiences the teacher reports, since they are based on accepted social rules regarding which emotions should be displayed in certain school contexts (cf. Chang, 2020; Hochschild, 1979).

The importance of the results of Zembylas' study for the present thesis project is twofold. Firstly, it points out how school organization and the working conditions, in their role as contextual factors, clearly influence and shape teachers' emotions and emotional responses to the demands set out by the context (cf. Barcelos & Aragão, 2018; Her & De Costa, 2022; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Scherer & Moors, 2019). Secondly, it touches upon teacher emotions in relation to the teaching of a subject-matter and its constituting parts. As an example, Zembylas elucidates the teachers' emotions of excitement about science teaching and pedagogical approaches to teaching the subject. and how "her need to share her feelings with others helped her enjoy science and articulate her pedagogy" (2004: p. 191). Furthermore, the study also points out how emotions mediate the context and guide teachers in their choices of what subject content will be taught, which in sum "indicates how emotions set the context for how teaching will take place" (Zembylas, 2004: p. 198).

The three major roles of teacher emotions suggested by Zembylas can be identified in various following studies in the field. The relational role, for example, was a central finding in an

interview study with experienced EFL teachers in Japan, where the teachers' positive feelings towards their students shaped their professional identities as carers and moral guides (Cowie, 2011). It was reported that seeing students make progress and become confident and fluent in the target language gave the teachers a sense of satisfaction. However, Cowie also reported emotional tensions in the teachers' interactions with colleagues and the school institution. The negative feelings generated from these interactions outweighed the positive feelings the teachers got from working with students. Similar findings are reported from a quantitative study on primary teachers' emotions from China (Chen, 2016), where positive emotions are related to interactions with students and colleagues, whereas negative emotions (e.g., sadness, anger and fear) stem mainly from imbalance in the working life, externa pressure and unfair treatment and competition among colleagues. This partly relates to the political role of emotion (Zembylas, 2004), since it highlights the impact of the institutional context on teachers' beliefs and instructional actions. The socially constructed nature of teacher emotions is also elaborated on by Yin and Lee (2012), who discuss the expectations, regulated by unspoken social norms and discourse in the teaching context (cf. Her & De Costa, 2022; Song, 2016), on teachers to commit to teaching with passion and display only positive emotion in the teaching, neglecting thereby the negative feelings that arouse from a dissatisfaction with, e.g., working conditions and other contextual factors (cf. Chen, 2016).

The source of emotional responses in teachers could be analyzed by a closer look at the different levels in which their professional lives unfold. In their study on Iranian teachers of English for young learners, Nazari et al. (2023) use a figure with three ecologies (p. 6), namely: a) the classroom ecology, b) the institutional ecology, and c) the sociocultural ecology, which refers to societal views on schooling and teachers. Hence, the emotional features discerned from their study were labeled as: a) pedagogical; b) institutional, and c) sociopolitical, and assigned to the three corresponding ecologies (also referred to as *micro*, *meso* and *macro* level ecologies). Nazari et al. (2023) further discuss how these three levels "carried differential implications for the teachers' professional practice" (p. 8). A similar framework was used in an interview study with eight Portuguese teachers a decade earlier (Bahia et al., 2013), where the authors suggest that positive teacher emotions are mainly experienced in the micro context (i.e., the classrooms in which the teaching takes place), whereas negative emotions relate more to the meso and macro context (i.e., to factors located at the institutional level or in the surrounding society). An example of how the meso and macro level give rise to teachers' emotions is presented by Her and Costa (2022), who conducted a study on a teacher in California during the implementation of a new language policy that affected the school level at which the teacher was currently working. The researchers focused not only on the feelings reported (i.e., *what* the teachers feel), but also how feelings "become normalized discourse through institutional practices" (p. 2) and how teachers develop emotional strategies while dealing with curricular change brought upon them by external stakeholders.

Regarding teachers of foreign languages in particular, a number of studies on teacher emotions and identity formation have been published in recent years. Among the most relevant for the research context of the present thesis is Pérez Cavana's (2019)'s teacher identity study based on in-depth interviews with two teachers of German and French as additional languages in the UK. An array of emotional experiences and responses related to the languages as school subjects were displayed by the two teachers, such as putting on a persona (as contained in the

very title of the study: “When I Am Teaching German, I put on a Persona”) and feeling the need to defend the target language from reluctant comments and questions raised by the students. In the text, the author argues that teaching foreign languages is a particularly complex undertaking that involves the teachers’ whole person, including body, emotions and cognition. She further argues that:

> As a matter of fact, this *whole* person involvement makes languages stand out from other teaching subjects, such as Geography or Maths where physical, emotional or cultural aspects might play a minor role, if any at all. In a similar way as learning a language, teaching a language presents specific challenges to teachers (Pérez Cavana, 2019, p. 3).

Noteworthy is that both teachers in the mentioned study were non-native speakers of the target language they were teaching. Hence, one of the specific challenges mentioned in the previous quote is to respond to the students’ expectations of a teacher’s competence level in a language that is not their mother tongue and how to enact and embody that language. A similar theme is central in a study on the teacher emotions of five secondary English teachers in South Korea (Song, 2016), where the author shows how the vulnerable position of teaching a foreign language shapes teachers’ views of their professional themselves and their pedagogy. An example brought up is the shame teachers in Korea might feel when they are faced with students who return from a stay-abroad experience in an English-speaking country, where they have developed a proficiency in the target language that exceeds the level taught in the current course by the teacher. Song also shows how the emotional response in the same teacher shifts to a more positive tone once they find a strategy to deal with the returnee students: “I felt good once the student accepted the lesson by acknowledging me as a teacher although my English-speaking skills were lower than those of the student” (2016, p. 642). It is further suggested that the discourses and sociocultural conditions of the teaching context for language teachers give rise to rational and emotional responses, which in combination with the teachers’ professional knowledge and training (cf. Borg, 2006, 2013, 2019; Shulman, 1986, 1987) shape their professional identity and self-perception through a subjective and context-dependent process that is closely intertwined with the teaching practice.

To the author’s knowledge, there are no published studies in a Swedish research context that explicitly target the construct teacher emotions. This might come across as a bit peculiar, since the neighboring country Finland had seen more than 20 published studies in the years 2000–2019 (cf. Chen & Cheng, 2022, p. 424–425). Only one study related to Sweden is listed in an overview by Uitto et al. (2015). The study mentioned (Wittmann, 2011), however, treats teacher students and uses Swedish students as a comparison group for teacher trainees in a German context, where the study is mainly situated. Therefore, the study is not relevant for discussing in-service teachers’ work-related emotions. Interestingly, however, teacher emotions are implicitly mentioned elsewhere in research literature from the Swedish context. As an example, the articles by Erickson et al. (2018, 2022) on teachers’ views on second foreign language education in Sweden contain emotional keywords such as “passion” and “joy”. In a thesis on secondary teachers of Spanish, Nylén (2014) implicitly described teacher emotions as a factor shaping FL teachers’ perception of grammar teaching. In a similarly implicit vein, Haukås (2016) reports how teachers of foreign languages in Norway express *desires* in relation to their

students' (allegedly lacking) knowledge of grammar, which could be seen as a clear subject-specific pedagogical emotions (cf. Sheppard & Levy, 2019; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). An emotional feature is also found in an inspection report by the Swedish Schools Inspectorate, where it was noted that teachers express feelings of relief when certain students dropped out of their FL classes (Skolinpektionen, 2010, p. 7). Altogether, an overview of previous studies on teacher emotions shows a growing and broad-ranging body of research internationally, suggesting there is an empirical need for adding to the field with findings from a Swedish teaching context as well.

3.4 L3 teaching and learning in Scandinavia

In the research field commonly known in Sweden as *språkdidaktik* ('language didactics'), the term third language was introduced fairly recently (cf. Österberg & Bardel, 2016). There is still a scarcity in studies on teaching and learning of the second foreign language in the Swedish school context (Granfeldt et al., 2019), especially on German L3 in comparison with French and Italian (cf. Bardel et al., 2023). Therefore, this section will also mention some recent works from the neighboring country Norway, as well as a research project on grammar teaching conducted in Denmark. This is relevant since the three countries have strong historical bonds and share several characteristics, such as fairly small populations, official Germanic majority languages and high proficiency rates in English. Furthermore, all three countries have a geographic, linguistic and cultural proximity to the German-speaking world and the German language.

The rationale for including research mainly from Norway is the fact that the educational contexts of Norway and Sweden are rather similar when it comes to foreign language education (cf. Drachmann et al., 2023). Examples of these similarities are the introduction of a modern language (after English) at a similar school age, alignment of the curricula with the CEFR (Council of Europe/Skolverket, 2009; Council of Europe, 2020), similar requirements for becoming a qualified language teacher and the fact that students are given the choice between Spanish, German and French as foreign languages after English. In this respect, the Danish curriculum is a bit different and gives German a stronger position as a school subject than is the case in the two forementioned countries (cf. Bjerre & Kabel, 2023). Hence, the context, findings and implications from studies conducted in Norway are quite relevant in Sweden as well, not the least studies that discuss the specificities of the L3s as school subjects, mark out differences to other non-L3 school languages and call for specific L3-appropriate teaching approaches and goals (e.g., Vold & Brkan, 2020; Vold, 2022). There are also several studies conducted in both countries, such as an examination of grammar content in Norwegian and Swedish textbooks for young learners of German L3 (Haukås et al., 2016), which for instance showed that the number of explicit grammar descriptions was higher in the Norwegian than in the Swedish textbooks.

Zooming in on the Swedish context, studies on the school subject Modern Languages (cf. 1.4), covering the three most common second foreign languages (L3s), French, German and Spanish, have been conducted over the years. One early study (Malmberg et al., 2000) resulted from the

STRIMS[5] project, and yielded some findings on language learning strategies used by L3 students. As for learners of German specifically, the results showed, for example, that the students were aware of several grammatical terms typically used in German grammar, but that they did not always have a clear conceptual understanding of what those terms meant (p. 74). Another finding was that students indicated using knowledge of other languages as a common strategy in vocabulary learning and in spoken communication. Although some transfer from other background languages was noted as well, the most common source, at least in the case of oral interaction, was the L1 (p. 149).

Another project targeting the teaching conditions for the three most common school L3s was the TAL[6] project, which resulted in several publications of the findings of surveys with students, teachers and school managers (Erickson et al., 2018, 2022; Granfeldt, 2019). To mention a few examples, these findings contributed useful information about L3 teachers' satisfaction with their working conditions, learners' attitudes towards the school subject, and some general societal trends for the three individual languages, one such being that German and French are at risk of not being offered anymore in several municipalities, especially in the north of the country (Granfeldt et al., 2019, p. 42). Regarding the choice of language and the high drop-out rates reported in Sweden (cf. 1.4 and 1.5), an interview study with 16 teachers of the three L3s (Tholin, 2019) revealed a clear incongruence between policy reforms put forward by the government and research explanations as to why students drop out, as well as the teachers' perceptions of the national policies. Furthermore, Tholin's study also gave some insights into L3 teachers' attitudes towards the matter.

In recent years, an array of studies and theses based on doctoral projects on L3 education has been published in Sweden. This pool of research includes studies in a variety of fields, from computer-assisted information search (Källermark Haya, 2015) and the use of online translation strategies (Fredholm, 2021) in Spanish L3, to motivation in teaching and learning and self-perception of both students and teachers in French L3 (Rocher Hahlin, 2020) and crosslinguistic inter-comprehension and guessing strategies in upper secondary students of Italian L3 (Smidfelt, 2019). Worth mentioning is also a recently published dissertation by Finndahl (2023), which investigates young learners' attitudes, perceptions and experiences in choosing one of the three L3s typically offered at Swedish schools (cf. 1.4), comparing the year prior to making their language choice and the learners' first year of learning the language at compulsory school. Dissertations on GL3 education in Sweden are very scarce, where a few exceptions are Knospe's (2017) intervention study on fostering metacognitive reflections in writing instruction at upper secondary schools and Håkansson Ramberg's two theses (2016, 2021; also below) on the validity of the assessment of students' written language proficiency in German.

None of the above-mentioned dissertations and theses treat grammar teaching specifically. One exception, however, is an interview study with 13 upper secondary school teachers of Spanish L3 (Nylén, 2014) that explored the teachers held beliefs and expressed attitudes towards

[5] Acronym for *Strategier vid inlärning av moderna språk* [Strategies in learning modern languages].
[6] Shortened form of the official project name "Learning, teaching and assessment of second foreign languages – an alignment study on oral language proficiency in the Swedish school context"

grammatical competence, unpacking thereby possible dilemmas at the interface of grammar teaching and notions of communicative language teaching. With Shulman's (1987) knowledge forms (cf. 2.1.1) as a central theoretical point of departure, Nylén's thesis sheds light on the role of grammatical competence in communication-oriented language teaching and how this might inform the L3 field, both from a teaching and from a subject pedagogy perspective. The analysis of the interviews yields various teacher profiles, where viewpoints on language, the role of grammar and grammar teaching approaches appear. A notable theme among these viewpoints, sometimes expressed implicitly, is that several teachers refer to notions of raising the students' metalinguistic, crosslinguistic or language awareness as an important aspect of grammar teaching in all language subjects (cf. section 2.3.2 in this thesis). Some general conclusions put forward by Nylén (2014) are that the teachers base their beliefs and attitudes on their personal learning histories and experiences of being language learners themselves (cf. 2.3.1), and that grammar as a teaching content is valued by the teachers and seen as a facilitator for developing communicative competence.

Turning to Denmark, one will find a research project focusing exclusively on grammar teaching practices in secondary schools, namely the Gramma3 project, conducted in 2018–2019 and reported in several publications (e.g., Bjerre & Kabel, 2023; Christensen et al., 2020; Kabel et al., 2022). Since grammar is a content taught across the language subjects in school, one of the aims of the project was to explore the crosslinguistic potentials of grammar teaching (Christensen et al., 2020). This was done by first conducting an ethnographic study involving structured lesson observations, audio recordings, and interviews with teachers and students, as well as artefacts used in the teaching, followed by two sub-studies, in which language teachers participated in preparatory workshops for an intervention experiment. In this second phase, language teachers and the research team jointly designed pedagogical interventions for a contextualized grammar teaching, addressing the choice of clause elements for sentence openers (Bjerre & Kabel, 2023). The reported results of the project show a domination of explicit grammar teaching (referred to as traditional school grammar) with predominantly *focus on forms* (cf. 2.3.1), which was observed in all three language subjects examined (i.e., Danish, English and German).

Interestingly, the findings of the Gramma3 project point to some clear differences across the three subjects (Christensen et al., 2020) and are, as such, results relevant for the present thesis. For example, Danish L1 was characterized by the domination of formal, traditional, textbook-based and rule-focused grammar teaching practices, mainly focusing on the word and clause levels and with a limited use of metalanguage to discuss the functional domains of grammar. Especially in the subject Danish, it was noted that grammar work (closed exercises, such as filling out endings to words in textbooks) was often used as a filler for remaining lesson time. Furthermore, as the authors noted, the traditional approaches to grammar teaching seemed to play a role as a management strategy for filling out for absent language teachers, since letting students work with closed grammar drills in textbooks (to name one example) is a useful strategy for substitute teachers. In English L2, no explicit grammar teaching was observed to take place at a majority of the seven schools in the Gramma3 project. Unlike both Danish and English, German L3 was the language subject where the most contextualized grammar teaching

(i.e., focus on the communicative functions and the meaning of the linguistic forms in certain situations and contexts) took place, including the use of metalanguage and varied activity forms, such as group work, individual work and full-class discussions about grammar. Furthermore, the research conducted in the project showed that the collaboration across the languages was nearly non-existent and that the teachers from all three language subjects expressed a desire to conduct meaning-oriented and contextualized grammar teaching, as well as a need to get inspiration and concrete ideas for such grammar pedagogy (Bjerre & Kabel, 2023). This result has an implication for the conceptualization of grammar teaching as a context that goes beyond the individual school language subjects, which thus "opens up the potential for collaboration between first and foreign language teachers, highlighting the importance of a greater mutual knowledge of practices in each of the […] language subjects" (Kabel et al, 2022, p. 64).

From a learner perspective, there are several published studies conducted in Sweden that address features of German grammar. An overview shows that the syntactic V2 rule and its theorization from a CLI perspective has been a common research object, albeit hardly discussed from an L3 *teaching* perspective (cf. section 2.2.3). The V2 phenomenon was for example particularly considered in a study on V2 learning with a group of elderly Swedish ab initio learners (Bohnacker, 2006), rendering a rather unusual composition of learners, since half of the participants (n=3) had no previous knowledge of English, thus making German a true L2 to them. Unlike a control group, who knew English from previous formal instruction and therefore learned German as an L3, the three controls had no interfering background L2 to which potential negative transfer could be ascribed. Given the differences observed in the two groups, Bohnacker's (2006) study suggests that the role of English L2 is a factor to take into consideration in teaching and learning of grammar, particularly syntax, in German L3 (cf. Bardel & Falk, 2007). An array of other studies in Sweden have also reported findings on German L3 learners' production of V2 structures, such as Håkansson (2001), whose cross-sectional transfer study included data from 143 lower secondary students, and Sayehli (2013), who involved 74 learners from the same school level. A considerably smaller sample size (n=20) was used in another study (Håkansson et al., 2002) that discussed the (non-)transfer of the V2 structure between Swedish and German. However, the mentioned study drew its conclusions based on a conceptualization of Swedish as an L1 and German as an L2, ignoring thereby the potential influence of English as a background L2 and what L3 research informs us about the differences of learning a first and a second foreign language, i.e., L2 vs. L3, which was noted by Bardel and Falk (2007). Håkansson et al.'s study (2002) was also criticized for its research design, which according to Bohnacker and Rosén (2008, p. 525) does not enable us to draw strong conclusions about V2. In more recent years, the V2 phenomenon also appeared in Håkansson Ramberg's thesis (2016), where the author, among other features, analyzed the application and accuracy rates of verb inversion in GL3 teachers' assessments of students' written texts. The results suggest that most upper secondary students do not have major problems with the verb inversion in German.

Turning back to Norway, one will find another couple of studies that either address German L3 teaching specifically or aspects of grammar teaching in the school L3s, of which some have been cited in the theoretical background section of this thesis. One of them is the study on

teachers' (of all three school L3s in Norway/Sweden) beliefs about multilingual approaches by Haukås (2016). The study involved interviews with four focus groups and rendered some interesting narratives from the participants concerning grammar and crosslinguistic links, as illustrated in the following excerpt from one of the interviews:

> I remember clearly from the two most recent Spanish classes that I used some examples with grammar that you can link to English. They don't remember Norwegian grammar very well, but they know, for example, about I am, you are, he/she/it is, and then they can … 'Oh yes, that's how it is in Spanish as well!' Or there are words that are quite similar. (Haukås, 2016, p. 9)

The teachers' in Haukås' study expressed mainly positive beliefs about using L2 English beside L1 Norwegian in the teaching of an L3, although the two German teachers were a bit hesitant towards using English and rather opted for transfer from Norwegian, since "[t]hings just get more right if they think in Norwegian" (p. 10), as one of them put it. Other themes among the findings regard the importance of previous linguistic knowledge and strategy learning, as well as the teachers' expressed desire that the students would know more grammar from previous language learning (which resonates with some of the findings in Nylén, 2014). Grammar teaching from a teacher cognition point of view was the research interest also of Askland (2018, 2019). The title of their 2018 publication quotes a catchy line comprised in the teacher data, namely: "Too much grammar will kill you!". The findings, stemming from Spanish L3 teachers, further highlight the theme of teachers' expressed beliefs about the necessity for metalinguistic awareness when learning the grammar of a foreign language (cf. 2.3.2). Meta- and crosslinguistic awareness was also treated by Nielsen (2021), whose study involves German L3 teacher students enrolled in universities in both Norway and Denmark, and by Hansejordet (2009), who interviewed three Spanish L3 teachers about their views on the role of grammar within their language teaching practice (yet again, very similar to the research aim of Nylén, 2014).

4. Methods

This section presents the research context, participants, methods and materials used in the research project described in this thesis. It also provides discussions of methodological and ethical considerations that guided the project, since "accounts of classroom research should be sufficiently transparent and honest to enable the reader to judge the trustworthiness of the reports and, where appropriate, relate the findings to his or her own context" (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 4). As is typical of research on teachers' beliefs and practices (Basturkmen, 2012), the conducted study is a qualitative multiple-case study, set to explore phenomena in specific contexts, individuals and groups. The advantage of case knowledge and case studies is that they can provide rich contextualizations and well-documented accounts of described events from authentic classrooms (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 224; Shulman, 1986; p. 8). This is believed to be a particularly fruitful methodological path in studying the interaction of teachers' knowledge and experiences (Golombek, 1998) or practices and beliefs (Borg, 1999b). In addition, the study also displays some collaborative and co-design features involved in the preparations of the

lessons to be observed and the production of teaching artefacts to be used during those lessons. These procedures which will be laid out in more detail in section 4.3.3.

4.1 Rationales for the methodological design

The blueprint for the research project reported in this thesis is based on the theoretical framework and previous research, as well as methodological considerations that require critical thinking and careful planning as to how to integrate underlying theories in a wise way for the dissertation project (cf. Grant & Osanloo, 2014). A first consideration regards the impacts of the shared professional background of the teacher participants and the researcher. The theme of mutual interest (cf. Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015) for this study is the teaching of German L3 to young beginners, given that both the researcher and the participants have a shared professional identity and background as GL3 teachers at the lower-secondary level in Sweden. It allows for the researcher to be an "insider-outsider in the interview process", which is believed to facilitate the process of "understanding teachers' complex emotions and identity in their different stories" (Song 2016, p. 639). This was reflected upon by Pérez Cavana (2019), who stated that, "as I am a language teacher it is impossible to put aside my experience and knowledge [in the research process]" (p. 9–10). It might be of particular importance when exploring the pedagogical content knowledge of subject-matter teachers (cf. Shulman, 1987; Ball et al. 2003), since PCK also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of some specific items particularly difficult for students (Deng, 2018), which then requires professional experience of subject-matter teaching on the researcher's side.

Methodological literature suggests that it is an advantage to share particular category memberships and culture with the interviewees, since the researcher might then be better able to elicit narratives in the first instance (Roulston 2014) and the shared background is "likely to make participants feel more comfortable and relaxed, which is a key factor in the success of semi-structured interviews with teachers" (Canh & Maley, 2012, p. 98). However, since the researcher is a research instrument in qualitative interviews, Pezalla et al. (2012) also discuss how "unique researcher attributes have the potential to influence the collection of empirical materials" (p. 166). On that note, Trost (2010) suggests there should be no "air" between the interviewer and the interviewees, the interviewee should be the only interesting person in the interview context and the interview guide should do its work. Epistemologically, this would imply a neo-positivist conception of the interview, where the interviewer could be metaphorically understood as a miner collecting knowledge that is already there, in contrast to a constructionist conception, where the researcher is understood as a traveler discerning the terrain together with the interviewee (cf. chapter 8 in Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). In interviews between teachers, as is the case in the present thesis project, the latter metaphor of the traveler seems more relevant, since the practice of the teaching profession does not occur in a discursive vacuum where a miner could simply just pick up the knowledge that is believed to just be there. Instead, it is suggested here, a constructionist conception is more suitable in a research context where a qualitative interview unfolds between two social actors with a shared professional background and subject-matter teaching experience.

Related to the topic of influencing the data collection (cf. Pezalla et al., 2012) is also the decision to employ selected teaching materials in the research design and have all four participants to make use of it while performing their designed lessons. As will be shown in 4.3.3, the researcher selected some textbook and (co-)designed multimedia materials that specifically address the V2 rule and inversion required in consecutive accounts of morning routines. The rationale for steering the participants in this direction, and thus to a certain degree influencing their planned and performed teaching, is a belief that focusing on a specific object of teaching can better help unpack teachers' thinking and instructional practices (cf. discussion by Kullberg et al., 2016, p. 320). This was believed to be crucial for the present project given the specificity of the stated aim and overarching research question (cf. 1.1 and 1.2). It is worth noting, however, that regardless of this partial limitation of the scope of the lessons to be observed, the participants were given space and agency to use the materials in any preferred fashion when targeting the content of the lesson cycle (i.e., morning routines and inversion due to the V2 rule). They were also explicitly invited to involve any additional material they would find purposeful when planning for the lesson cycle (cf. 4.3.3).

A second methodological consideration is to include classroom observations in the qualitative study of language teachers' perceptions of grammar teaching, since it allows for "in-depth, contextualized understandings of cognition which have strong local relevance" (Borg, 2012, p. 18). In teacher cognition research, a distinction is suggested between ideal-oriented and reality-oriented cognitions (Borg, 2006, p. 280), since teachers' cognitions cannot be fully accessible only through language. Hence, data elicited from and in relation to observed classroom practices should be included when the pedagogical thinking and practical knowledge of language teachers is at the heart of the research interest (cf. Borg, 1999b). A focus on classroom-based studies is called upon by other teacher cognition researchers, such as Basturkmen (2012), who emphasizes the need for studies that compare language teachers' planned and incidental practices (p. 292). This is related to a discussion of the methodological challenge of studying teachers' stated beliefs, since these are tacit and unobservable and, therefore, might be difficult to articulate for the teachers themselves (Canh & Maley, 2012, p. 91). As Borg (2003a, p. 98) points out, teachers' accounts of their instructional decisions, even when elicited after teaching has taken place, might be retrospective ad hoc rationalizations of unconscious rationales, provided in a manner dependent on the researcher's framing of the elicitation techniques. This holds particularly true in teacher cognition studies that rely heavily on questionnaire data (Borg, 2006). For these and similar reasons, the research study reported in this thesis is carried out as an in-depth (multiple) case study focusing on a small number of participants and classrooms.

Encouragement for more classroom-based studies is also found in research works on third language education in the Swedish context (cf. Bardel et al., 2023; Granfeldt et al., 2019). When conducting research in authentic classrooms, however, it is important to keep in mind that the research design must not only be concerned with methodological regards, "but also with an awareness of what is practically feasible, acceptable and permissible in the particular context under study" (Borg, 2006, p. 280). Keeping in mind "that the classroom must function smoothly as a learning environment before we can study anything other than the myriad possible ways

that things can go wrong" (Brown, 1992, p. 141), it is of utmost importance for the research process that it is conducted in the least intrusive way possible and that it respects the classroom setting as the authentic ecology that it is. In alignment with this conviction, the number of lessons to be "borrowed" from the participants was kept to a minimum and the researcher stayed flexible to any practical wishes or suggestions from the participants' side over the course of the data collection phase. This could be regarded as a methodological problem, especially by researchers used to strictly controlled experimental classroom studies, since the local conditions might vary considerably across different classrooms, which was indeed the case in the present study. Although this is not regarded as an issue in a qualitative multiple-case study, it is important to acknowledge such methodological concerns here as it is part of the justification for the claims to be made further on in the text (cf. Barnard & Burns, 2012; Borg, 2006).

4.2 Participants

With regard to the feasibility aspect when planning classroom-based research (cf. Borg, 2006; Brown, 1992), a purposeful non-random convenience sampling was used where the participants were recruited based on the context addressed by the research interest (Borg, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2016; Ramrathan et al., 2017; Rowley, 2012; Silverman, 2010). Established local networks for professional development of in-service L3 teachers were the primary arena for recruiting experienced teachers of German L3 currently teaching at lower secondary schools. Those who responded were also asked to suggest former colleagues or acquaintances that they think would be interested in taking part in the research project, leading to a snowball sampling process until four participants teaching a group of year 7 students in GL3 were recruited. The number of participants is in line with methodological suggestions of not including too many subjects in qualitative research of this kind (e.g., Trost, 2010) but still granting enough appropriate and information-rich cases for understanding the phenomena under consideration in the research process (Ramrathan et al., 2017).

The specificity of criteria is important when selecting samples purposively (cf. Borg, 2012, p. 17). For the present research project, two inclusion criteria were considered specific enough to grant a purposeful sampling. These criteria include having an official national qualification for teaching German (as a foreign language) and having experience of teaching GL3 at lower secondary schools for at least five years. The rationale for only recruiting experienced teachers, i.e., for excluding novices from the sample, is based on assumptions that teaching experience shapes language teachers' grammar teaching practices to a higher extent than merely teacher education does (cf. Borg & Burns, 2008). Furthermore, previous research in the field of teacher cognition suggests that inexperienced language teachers experience more difficulty in articulating their beliefs and are less familiar with the professional discourse and, ultimately, that their stated beliefs correspond with their pedagogical actions to a lesser extent than in the case of experienced language teachers (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Basturkmen, 2012; Feryok, 2004; Sinprajakpol, 2004; Tucker, 2001).

4.2.1 Teachers A–D

As can be seen in Table 4, the four participants have similar amounts of experience, ranging from 21 to 27 years teaching at lower secondary schools in Sweden. Furthermore, they are of a similar age and none of them has changed workplaces in the last couple of years. All but one are women and the majority are native speakers of Swedish. The teacher with a different L1 than Swedish moved to Sweden from a German-speaking country some decades ago, where she had her teacher training and worked five years teaching several school subjects. Given the more than 20 years spent teaching GL3 at compulsory schools in Sweden, she fits well into the sampling criteria described in 4.2.

Table 4. *Participant overview.*

Teacher	Gender	Mother language	Teaching experience	Interview length	Online interview
Teacher A	F	Swedish	21 years	36:00	
Teacher B	F	German	22 years (+ 5 years in home country)	52:00	x
Teacher C	F	Swedish	27 years	43:30	x
Teacher D	M	Swedish	27 years	42:00	

The similarities between the four participants are also apparent when considering their instructional context for GL3 with particular regard to year 7 student groups. Table 5 shows that they all teach other language subjects alongside German and use the same textbook for the course (Karnland et al., 2014). They have a similar number of relatively few students in their teaching groups (only Teacher D stands out in this regard, having 27 students) and all schools but one (Teacher C's) distribute the total teaching time for L3s over three weekly lessons. A self-estimation of how much teaching time they spend in total across the four years (6–9) on grammar teaching reveals a range of 15–35% (cf. Appendix 1).

Table 5. *Teaching context of participants.*

Teacher	Subjects taught beside German L3	Self-estimated share of grammar teaching	GL3 pupils year 7	Lessons per week year 7	Textbook used
Teacher A	Swedish	20 %	17	3	*Alles Deutsch*
Teacher B	English, German as mother tongue	15–20 %	11	3	*Alles Deutsch*
Teacher C	English	25 %	14	2	*Alles Deutsch*
Teacher D	English (+ holds qualification for Swedish)	35 %	27	3	*Alles Deutsch*

4.2.2 School and classroom contexts

Referring to the school contexts in which the local conditions can facilitate or hinder teachers' pedagogical decisions is important in research on teacher cognition (Borg, 2003a, p. 98) and when conducting interviews for research purposes in general (Roulston, 2014). The schools where the participants in the present study teach are located in a metropolitan area and are located in areas that could be considered fairly privileged. One of the schools offers an aesthetic profile and attracts students from all over the region. The teachers are generally positive toward their current workplaces, especially those who make comparisons to previous schools where they have worked during their careers. It is also worth mentioning that the principals at the schools were contacted by the researcher to inform them about the study and the participation of their co-workers (cf. Appendix 6). Those who responded did so positively and expressed their encouragement for classroom-based research and the potential benefits for their teachers.

The classroom observations were carried out in four groups with GL3 beginner students during their second semester of year 7 at Swedish lower secondary schools. A contextual aspect is the fact that GL3 classes in Sweden, depending on the size of the individual school, tend to have relatively few students, which indeed was the case in three of four groups in this study (cf. Table 5). At this level, equivalent to A1.2 of the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe/Skolverket, 2009; Council of Europe, 2020), the pupils were in their second year of instructed German L3 learning. Nevertheless, they can still be considered beginners, having received only around 75 minutes of instruction a week during year 6 according to the syllabus of Modern Languages (Skolverket, 2018b). This means that the teaching of the new language is mostly aligned with reference points from the CEFR based on familiar and basic everyday phrases and domains. Worth keeping in mind is that the study was conducted in a time still partly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, which was manifested by a higher number of absent students than what is normally the case. Also, one of the observed lessons was interrupted by a chaotic situation happening in the corridor outside the classroom since many staff members were absent on that particular day and classes were cancelled, leaving large groups of students unattended who then came to interrupt the lessons that were going on. This was, however, an unusual week and not typical for the school as such.

4.3 Data collection

There are various techniques for collecting data suitable for a study on what goes on in and around foreign language classrooms. Whereas teachers' beliefs are traditionally elicited through questionnaires and interviews, it is suggested that other aspects of language teachers' cognition can better be examined by looking at what actually goes in their practice in actual classrooms and how they talk about and articulate these practices (Borg, 2003a; Canh & Maley, 2012). In order to explore and understand teachers' professional actions and not only their accounts of or beliefs about foreign language teaching, the research project reported in this thesis employs a mix of data elicited mainly through interviews and classroom observations. The rationale for this research design is to employ "a judicious blend of methods of data collection in order that

the information that emerges can be compared, contrasted and triangulated to provide thick descriptions of the context" (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 4). These methods and the data and materials produced in the project will be presented and discussed in the following sub-sections.

4.3.1 Interviews

Semi-structured qualitative interviews (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Mackey & Gass, 2016) were chosen as data collection method, since interviewing is "undoubtedly the most widely used technique for conducting systematic social inquiry" (Holstein & Gubrium, 2003, p. 2). Interviews in teacher cognition research can have various focal points and the four individual interviews conducted within this thesis project were mainly background interviews, in which teachers are encouraged to talk about their professional histories and viewpoints on teaching (Borg, 2012). As an interactive practice (Vähäsantanen & Saarinen, 2012), interviews allow for the interviewee and interviewer to jointly construct knowledge, narratives and a meaning-making view of reality, as well as to explore the thoughts, feelings and experiences of the interviewees and their life-worlds (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Trost, 2010). In this project, qualitative interviews are understood as a social action and a collaborative enterprise (Pezalla et al., 2012; Roulston, 2014, 2016), that aims at "an inter-change of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest" (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015, p. 4).

Based on the theoretical background and the personal teaching experience of the researcher as a "blueprint" for the design of the research project (cf. Grant & Osanloo, 2014), an interview guide containing 16 items clustered in thematic sections was designed for the individual interviews (cf. Appendix 1). The thematic sections comprised the areas: a) professional background and general experience of teaching GL3 at lower secondary schools; b) grammar teaching practice in general; c) experience of and observations when teaching syntax in particular, and; d) thoughts and ideas for the design of an upcoming teaching unit. Much inspiration for the interview guide was found in previous literature on teacher cognition, as shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6: Inspiration for design of the interview guide. Adapted from Borg (1999b) and Canh & Maley (2012).

Examples of questions about grammar teaching (from Borg, 1999b, p. 165)	**Examples of how to word questions** (from Canh & Maley, 2012, p. 94–99)
• How do you teach grammar? • What language points do you focus on in grammar work? • How much time do you dedicate to grammar teaching? • Do you sequence grammar teaching activities in any particular ways?	- Some say X and some say Y. Could you tell me your opinion of this issue? - There must be some reason for X. Do you have any idea about this? - Could you give me one example of how you present X in context?

Certain issues were considered in the design of the interview guide, such as choosing and framing the topics in a way that would increase their relevance to the participants' working lives or personal goals and, ideally, make it rewarding and meaningful for them to share their

viewpoints and experiences with the researcher (cf. Allmark et al., 2009; Breen, 2006). The opening questions invited the interviewees to freely present a narrative framing of their professional context, whereas the more technical key questions about e.g., syntax teaching were deliberately placed in the middle of the interview guide, following thereby recommendations found in methodological literature (e.g., Mackey & Gass, 2016; Rowley, 2012; Trost, 2010). Attention was also paid to the wording to avoid questions that could be perceived as too long, complicated, leading, vague, general or intrusive, as well as an overuse of technical terms (cf. Canh & Maley, 2012; Pezalla et al., 2012; Rowley, 2012). A flexibility for the questions to appear in other orders than the ones stated in the interview guide and the readiness of the interviewer to respond to opportunities that would appear in the interview situations were considered. The guiding principle was, therefore, rather to include too few interview questions than too many. One pilot interview was conducted with a colleague of the research to check for the practical feasibility of the interview guide, in which no particular need to modify the questions was detected.

The four individual interviews took place 2–4 weeks before the classroom observation with each participant. Three interviews were carried out at the teacher's workplace, whereas one was conducted online due to practical reasons. The format of the online interview is not assumed to have had any considerable impact on the quality or the dynamic of the conversation, since the interview overall followed the same patterns as the three in situ interviews. The interviews lasted 36–52 minutes and were audio recorded with two devices. In some instances, where it was hard to hear what the interviewee had said, the other recording was used to finalize the transcription and fill in the gaps that had appeared.

4.3.2 Observations

Whereas interviews are used to gain insights into teachers' beliefs and perceptions of their teaching, observations are an additional means of inquiry for gathering in-depth information about teachers' professional actions in particular classroom contexts (Humphries & Gebhard, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2016). It is suggested that data produced in relation to observed classroom events is particularly useful in teacher cognition research, since it better captures teachers' cognitions in relation to actual practice than most other elicitation techniques (Borg, 2006, p. 280). The usefulness of observations lies with its possibility to collect large amounts of rich data about the participants' behavior (Mackey & Gass, 2016), although an abundance of collected data can also lead to a problem of selecting data for the research purpose, i.e., the so-called Bartlett Effect (cf. Brown, 1992, p. 162). To avoid this issue, the number of lessons to be observed with each teacher in the present thesis project was set to three. This number is fairly well in line with the methodological recommendations from the field, where four consecutive lessons are believed to produce sufficient information for an overall understanding of a teacher's classroom practice (cf. Klette et al., 2017).

Hence, a total of 12 lessons were observed (3 consecutive lessons * 4 teachers). The duration of the lessons spanned between 40–65 minutes, depending on scheduling policy of each school. Three schools scheduled three shorter German lessons weekly, whereas the forth school

allocated two longer sessions per week. That said, the observations of each cycle of three lessons took place within two weeks. Also, all twelve lessons were observed during the same month. The aim of the observations was to provide careful descriptions of the classroom activities without being intrusive or unduly influencing the events in the classroom ecology (Mackey & Gass, 2016). The researcher took a "one down position", which means genuinely feeling privileged to be invited to the classroom, expressing the appreciation for the opportunity to learn from the actors observed and "trying sincerely to build trust and acceptance as an observer within the classroom culture" (Humphries & Gebhard, 2012, p. 121).

The observed lessons were documented systematically in a form resembling ethnographic fieldnotes (Walford, 2009). No coding scheme was used and the lessons were not recorded, although both are common practice in classroom observations (e.g., Mackey & Gass, 2016). The dismissal of recording in the classroom was due to practical and ethical reasons and the overall striving to avoid intrusion and influencing subjects or events (cf. Vetenskapsrådet, 2017). A basis for the fieldnote document of each lesson was made up by the outlined lesson plans that the teachers shared with the researcher shortly before the onset of the lesson cycle (cf. 4.3.3). Departing from the preliminary structure for the lesson outlined by each teacher, the researcher took notes simultaneously, mainly in bullet points, from a position at the very back of the classroom. The main focal points of the observation were how the teachers provided grammar explanations, especially in relation to topics such as clause elements and word order. The students' reactions to the teachers' explanations and their engagement with the designed lesson activities were also documented, insofar as this was audible for the researcher. Where it was possible, the elapsed time of particular lesson activities were also indicated in the fieldnote documents. During the lessons, photos were taken of the whiteboard and of artefacts designed by the teachers and used in the lesson activities. These photos were later added to the fieldnote documents in a chronological order, next to the notes of the respective activity.

After each lesson, the teacher and the researcher engaged in a brief post-observational oral reflection about the enacted session. Although not in the form of a structured interview with a previously prepared interview guide, these debriefings could be seen as an informal post-lesson interview in which teachers are invited to comment on teaching and their thinking behind it (cf. Borg, 2012, p. 21). The debriefings were rather short and lasted 3–10 minutes, as the teachers generally had a very short time to prepare for an ensuing lesson of theirs. The teachers were invited to share their general initial impressions of and feelings about the performed lesson. Also, the researcher had an opportunity to prompt some events from the lessons which were highlighted during the course of the observation, and ask the teacher for further thoughts, explanations and clarifications about the respective teaching episodes. A typical question in this respect was whether an observed teaching action was planned ahead or had occurred rather spontaneously or subconsciously as the lesson unfolded. This proceeding rendered additional information for a rich description of the teaching practices and the teacher thinking behind the practice, and had at the same time the function of a non-delayed member checking means of verification of the produced data (cf. Creswell, 1998). The discussions of the post-observational reflections were also documented and immediately written down by the researcher and added at the end of the fieldnote document of each lesson.

Since the researcher had recently engaged in an open-ended and documented observation of a colleague's class as part of an in-service training project and no particular coding scheme that had to be previously tested was designed for this study, no pilot study was conducted. However, an awareness of methodological issues that come with observational studies was present in the planning and performance of the classroom observations described above. The main threats identified to the validity of observational data, as suggested by methodological literature, are the observer's intrusive presence, the misrepresentation of what the participants might experience themselves by too heavy a focus on custom-made coding scheme, and the impacts of the observer's paradox and the Hawthorne effect (Brown, 1992; Humphries & Gebhard, 2012; Labov, 1973; Mackey & Gass, 2016), where the latter two refer to the positive motivational effects the mere presence of a researcher might have on the subjects who receive the researcher's attention (cf. Brown, 1992, p. 163–167). To mitigate the tendency for classroom participants to alter their behavior in front of an observer, it is suggested to spend time and familiarize oneself with both teachers and students of a classroom, ideally several days before the start of the observational study (Mackey & Gass, 2016; Spada, 2022). This was done in the present study, given that the researcher visited the respective student groups on two occasions before the first observed lesson took place and, furthermore, met with the teachers on two additional occasions when planning the study and conducting the individual interview. Another methodological issue is the concentration of the observer in an open-coded study as the present, since two contradictory tasks are to be achieved simultaneously, namely paying full attention to certain foci while at the same time keeping an open mind to avoid missing new developments (Humphries & Gebhard, 2012; Walford, 2009).

4.3.3 Lesson materials and artefacts

As discussed in section 4.1, a set of teaching materials and a designed artefact selected by the researcher, as well as other materials and artefacts selected by the participants, were used in the project. Examples of the latter were included in the qualitative content analysis (cf. 4.4.2) upon which the writing up of the two article-based studies was based. In addition, the participants were also asked to outline an initial lesson plan ahead of the lesson cycle, which is also included in the category lesson materials described in this section. Furthermore, it is worth noting that the textbook excerpts and the artefact brought to the project by the researcher were mainly used as common prompts for teaching and are as such not subjects to a closer analysis within this thesis project. In the following, the materials and artefacts used in the project will be described.

At the end of the individual interviews, the four teachers were shown a text material from the textbook *Genau! 7* (Gustafsson et al., 2010), which is available on the Swedish textbook market and used for the teaching of German L3 in year 7. None of the four participants, however, use that book in their teaching, although one of the four teachers reported having come across it at a previous workplace. The chapter in question (Chapter 4) treats morning routines of a German family and was chosen for the research project since it requires the inversion of the verb

(application of the V2 rule) when sequentially retelling the textbook characters' morning routines with the help of temporal adverbials at the onset of sentences or clauses. The material was sent to the teachers after the interviews, and they were asked to design a teaching unit of three consecutive lessons (the lesson cycle that would be observed) in any preferred fashion based on the material. The teachers thus submitted their plans at least a couple of days before the lesson cycle was about to begin and the researcher used the outlined structure of those documents as a starting point for the lesson observation fieldnotes (cf. 4.3.2). The lesson plans varied in length and depth, but all four submitted documents contained a clear structure for the three lessons and which activities the teachers originally intended to enact during each individual lesson. In the qualitative content analysis process (cf. 4.4.2), the lesson plans submitted were used as additional data to triangulate the findings from the analysis of the interviews and the observations and to map some evident on-the-spot modifications of the initial lesson plans in the actual classroom situations (cf. Richards, 1988; Ulichny, 1996).

Apart from the lesson plans, a couple of other materials were also created as part of the research project. One such material was a PowerPoint presentation on four clause elements (subject, verb, object and temporal adverbial) and an animated visualization of their placement with examples in Swedish, German and English. This multimedia presentation was iteratively designed by the researcher to specifically address and highlight the V2 rule in such a fashion (e.g., by explicitly naming the clause elements involved) that it would give the participants multiple opportunities to demonstrate aspects of their grammar teaching repertoires when using it in class. For this purpose, a co-design was employed involving seven teacher colleagues of the researcher, of which all are teaching Swedish (as an L1) in combination with another language subject (i.e., English, German and Spanish) at the lower-secondary level. The rationale for this was to have a large-enough reference group of experts from various language subjects to help improve the PowerPoint presentation in the steps of the iterative design process. The inspiration for the design of the material comes from cognitive grammar and concept-based approaches to grammar and FL grammar teaching (cf. Fehrmann, 2016; Goschler & Niemeier 2016; Roche & Suñer, 2016; Suñer & Roche, 2021) and some example sentences were taken from a grammar book used in teaching of Swedish as a second language for adults (Fasth & Kannermark, 2016). The purpose was to produce an artefact that could be employed as a short input enhancement activity (cf. Swain & Lapkin, 2001, p. 101), based on the notion that foreign language learning[7] "is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and notice in target language input" (Schmidt, 2001, p. 3–4). This artefact was given to the four participating teachers in the project together with the textbook material around which they would plan a lesson cycle, and was hence included in their lesson plans in various fashions. The teachers themselves also produced artefacts to be used as lesson activities during the observed cycles, of which some are reported in the two articles comprised in this thesis. These materials were either documented through photos during or immediately after the observed lessons and in some instances, where it was practically possible, the teachers e-mailed the files with a printable version of their designed lesson activity artefacts.

[7] In the original source the term SLA is used. For the sake of a better coherence with the rest of the text, the term *foreign language learning* is used here.

4.4 Analysis

Transcribing, analyzing and verifying the data produced are the central phase of the research project seen as a whole (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015) and it is, therefore, particularly important to regard the modes of analysis applied to a rich body of qualitative data where both the collection and analysis tend to be "always messy" (Breen, 2006, p. 463). As Rowley (2012) points out in regard to interview studies, it is common to combine inductive (based on previous theories) and deductive (deriving theory from present data) approaches across the whole research process. This combination, i.e., an abductive approach (cf. Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2017; Dörnyei, 2007), was applied in the present research project. The research and interview questions were indeed informed and inspired by previous research and theory, but a guiding principle for the analysis was that data should mainly drive the coding, "bearing in mind that new insights and observations not derived from the research question or literature review may be important" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 138). The data analysis consisted of three phases (preparation/transcription, reduction/coding and interpretation/thematization), each of which will be described in the following sub-sections.

A few words should also be mentioned about the choice of method of analysis (which is explained in more detail in 4.4.2). As for method, a combination of qualitative content analysis (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Mayring, 2022) and thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) has been used, since there are clear overlaps and evidently more similarities than differences between the two (cf. Delve & Limpaecher, 2023). In a strict sense, both methods have been applied since the data analysis was an iterative process where the practicality of the study (cf. Elliot, 2018) guided the analytical process and required a pragmatic approach (cf. White & Marsh, 2006) to the data, resulting in both a systematical categorization of mentioned phenomena and an intuitive interpretation of data content as overarching "themes" in the coding and categorization process. Thus, a combination of the two analytical approaches adds to the accurateness of the analysis and increases the probability of valuable patterns in the data sets not getting overlooked (i.e., a type of triangulation technique). However, qualitative content analysis has been the primary method used, following the steps and terms used in method literature about QCA, such as Downe-Wamboldt (1992), Graneheim and Lundman (2004) and Mayring (2022). As mentioned in 4.4.2, these steps are very similar to the process of conducting TA. Whereas QCA is described in this thesis and in the published Study 2, thematic analysis (referring to Braun & Clarke, 2006) is used in Study 1. This has to do with the fact that the analytical results written up in Study 1 have a more thematic, interpretative and narrative character, and stem from a thematic reinterpretation of the initial codes and categories initially yielded from the qualitative content analysis, of which some codes already had the character of a "theme" (see Appendix 3).

4.4.1 Preparation of data

The preparation of the collected data was carried out by, as a first step, transcribing the recorded interviews, which gave rise to an initial development of categories, and then elaborating the

observational fieldnotes into contextualized narrative summaries, building on and developing the categories further. This transcription process was carried out in two steps.

Initially, the interviews were transcribed verbatim with the inclusion of shorter pauses (marked as [.]), longer pauses (marked as [x seconds thinking]) and hesitations (marked as "ehm"). Stressed words came in italics whereas strong emphasis was marked by underlining words or syllables. Quotes that were later used in the writing up of the articles were translated into English and adapted to a readable fashion without omitting any significant information. An example of an interview excerpt in Swedish, as it was initially transcribed, and in English, as it was adapted to one of the articles, is presented below:

> **Transcript in Swedish:**
> Åå, det gör jag hela tiden. Nej, men jag tänker bara att det-det är ju translanguaging. Vi *måste* ju använda <u>*alla*</u> språkresurser vi har. [omitted utterance, includes inaudible part] nej men, även *alla* språk. Jag tror att det är *super*-viktigt [.] att jämföra språket, hela tiden.
>
> **English adaption:**
> Oh no, I do that all the time. I mean, I just think that is translanguaging. We *have to* use *all* the linguistic resources we have. […] Even all languages. I think it is *super* important to compare languages, all the time. (Teacher C, individual interview)

In the second step, as a means of adapting the articles for publication standards (i.e., adhering to transcription convention acceptable for the journals chosen), the quoted passages were written up using a set of transcription labels inspired by the HIAT conventions (Schmidt, 2008). The transcription labels, as well as some examples from Study 2, are presented in Appendix 2.

Translating the data required some methodological considerations (cf. Nikander, 2008), given that the interviews and the observed classroom events took place in Swedish, whereas the completed research (including this extended introduction) is written up for publication in English. Providing voices of a non-English-speaking population is an important contribution of the present project to the broader research field but does, however, not come without methodological challenges. This is particularly the case with the many instances of everyday and metaphorical language (cf. Yunus et al., 2022), as well as some local context-specific phrases, used in the interviews. Such utterances are not necessarily complete sentences nor grammatically correct in the original language, but nonetheless intelligible for the interlocutor in the data collection situation. However, it becomes difficult to translate some of these passages into English sentences for the research report and determine the level of detail needed for the end-product, since practical compromises must be made between "faithfulness to the original, the readability and accessibility of the final transcript, as well as time and space issues" (Nikander, 2008, p. 226). The overarching purpose in the translation process has been to keep the translations as literal as possible and using modifications where needed in order to preserve the conversational style of the utterances (cf. Aronsson & Cederborg, 1997). Guided by the principle that transcriptions and translations in qualitative research cannot seek or claim perfection (Nikander, 2008), the aim has been to produce good enough translations (while still acknowledging the many dilemmas in the translating process that might have an impact on the

quality and intelligibility of the final product). In order to check the intelligibility of the translated passages directly quoted in written up text, a native speaker of English with a solid understanding of a colloquial Swedish conversational style was asked to read the translations, check for formal correctness and suggest native-like phrases that could to some extent help preserve the colloquial conversational style of the original transcript (cf. Yunus, et al., 2022).

As for the fieldnote observation documents from each individual lesson observed, including the documented post-observational reflection interview added to the document (cf. 4.3.2), the notes were elaborated into a narrative interpretive summary of the lesson, i.e., a kind of analytical memo that provided the context and information about the environment and situation in which the observation was done (cf. Downe-Wamboldt, 1992). These summaries were written as a coherent running text that includes an account of the observed event and the researcher's reflections. Where this applied, photos and comments from the teacher during the post-observational oral reflection was also added to the interpretive summaries. In order to minimize the risk of elaborating on shorter ethnographic fieldnotes too long after the observations (cf. Walford, 2009), this process took place 2–10 days after each lesson (depending on the practical possibilities due to workload). An example of the elaboration of the observational fieldnotes is presented in Table 7:

Table 7. *Example of preparation of observational data.*

Unit of analysis	Lesson 3 with Teacher D
Observational fieldnote document compiled on site	• Teacher projects a document with four sentences on the whiteboard (see photo). Asks students to decide which sentences are correct. Work in pairs. • Two students discussing the sentences. One exclaims: "You're riiiight, it's always the verb that comes second!" • Teacher asks the whole group about the four sentences and which errors they spot. Many hands up. One of the students in the previous bullet point raises their hand very eagerly. Another student gets to answer and provides the correct answer.
Expanded interpretive summary in narrative form (running text with reflections and context provided)	*Teacher D successfully reviewed the previous lesson's grammar explanations about the V2 rule and the students responded by becoming very engaged in discussing the four sentences, of which one was written with incorrect word order. One student, whose explanation was overheard during the pair work phase, clearly referred to the need for the verb to come in the second position, just like they were instructed in the lesson two days earlier. It is interesting to see how such a short and seemingly basic activity provided so much input enhancement and opportunity for the students to notice, analyze and put words to a grammatical rule in a smooth and efficient way with minimal loss of lesson time (generally observed feature of Teacher D's instructional practice).*

4.4.2 Qualitative content analysis

Qualitative analysis of data could be regarded as a rather subjective enterprise (cf. Breen, 2006). Nonetheless, qualitative content analysis (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Mayring, 2022) was chosen as the most practical method of analysis with regard to the research questions and the data collected, since content analysis is determined by pragmatism (White & Marsh, 2006) and considered "a mechanism to yield interesting and theoretically useful generalizations with minimal loss of information from the original data" (Downe-

Wamboldt, 1992, p. 320). Hence, the interview transcripts, the interpretive summaries of the observational fieldnotes and the other documents collected, such as the lesson plans prepared by the four teachers, all underwent a process of reduction, coding and categorizing following the steps typically associated with qualitative content analysis and similar to the six phases of thematic analysis suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006; cf. explanation in 4.4). In its most basic form, the process of analyzing data qualitatively is about coding the data with regard to the research question, research design and practicalities of the study (Elliot, 2018), identifying patterns and relationships among the findings and, ultimately, relating these findings to those in other situations or studies (White & Marsh, 2006). The findings of the qualitative content analysis of the present study rendered a thematic frame (cf. section 4.4.3) that was later used for discussing the two research questions and writing up the two articles comprised in this compilation thesis.

The first step of the analysis was to select units of analysis. As for the interview data, the 16 interview questions and the follow-up questions clustered around them (cf. Appendix 1) were set as units of analysis, which means that answers from all four participants' transcripts were aggregated into said units. The reason for this cross-subject aggregation is that it is not the individual teachers, but rather the variety of teacher accounts about a certain phenomenon that is at the heart of the analysis. With the observational data, however, each individual lesson (n=12) was considered a unit of analysis. The data sets were analyzed one at a time, starting with the units of analysis from the interview data, moving on to the observational data and finally scanning the remaining documents for content that could help triangulate the findings yielded from the two main data sets.

In the further reduction of the data, condensed meaning units (phrases, sentences or longer utterances referring to one and the same phenomenon or situation) were identified across the units of analysis. These were labeled with one or more codes, which were then arranged in a preliminary structure of overarching categories, i.e., an analytical frame, that was used as a point of departure for the analytical process. Although the analysis was open and bottom-up, three distinguishable teacher knowledge forms suggested by Shulman (1987; cf. section 2.1.1) guided the initial categorization of the codes given to the condensed meaning units, namely:

Table 8. *Initial analytical frame guiding the content analysis.*

	Analytical category	**Equivalent to Shulman's:**
1)	Pedagogical understanding and beliefs about teaching and the teaching environment	General pedagogical knowledge
2)	Pedagogical knowledge about practical approaches to teaching the subject GL3	Pedagogical content knowledge
3)	Linguistic content knowledge (of German or other languages)	Subject-matter content knowledge

Within these three categories, codes were arranged into sub-categories in a process of constant sorting and re-sorting as new codes added to the structure after the assessment of every new unit of analysis. When working with the units of analysis from the observational data, the appropriateness of the coding of the interpretive summaries was also checked against the original data produced during the observations, i.e., the fieldnote document consisting of bullet point notes. This helped ensuring consistency and some instances of erroneous coding were detected and corrected. As new codes and sub-categories emerged throughout the process, the previously analyzed units were looked at again through the lens of the updated structure of sub-categories. In this way, the analysis was a constant back-and-forth movement between the parts (codes and units of analysis) and the whole (the rendered structure of the sub-categories), suggesting it was conducted in a "hermeneutic spirit" (Noddings, 2016, p. 49), where we cannot know the part until we understand the whole of which it is a part (cf. Benton & Craib, 2011).

An example of a code found in two units of analysis stemming from two different data sets is presented in Table 9 (the examples are also reported in Study 2):

Table 9. *Example with code "contrasting languages".*

Unit of analysis	**Interview question 11**	**Observation, lesson B:3**
Condensed meaning unit	[Teacher D gives an example of how he would instruct students]: "Do you understand, look, it's like in Swedish, it's *not* like in English".	Teacher B instructs students to explicitly translate the sentence into Swedish, *not* English.
Code assigned	"contrasting languages"	
Overarching category	GL3 teachers' methods for grammar teaching (cf. 4.4.3)	
Sub-category	crosslinguistic approaches	

Patterns similar to those identified in Table 8 guided the final step of the qualitative analysis process, namely the interpretation of the analysis through a thematization of the findings into a theoretical framework, which will now be discussed in the following sub-section.

4.4.3 Thematic frame

The process of thematizing the findings from the qualitative content analysis was a cyclical interpretive process in which the structure of categories, to which the given codes were allocated, was constantly revisited. As already pointed out, the starting point for the categorization of codes was inspired by Shulman's (1987) teacher knowledge forms framework (cf. Table 2 in section 2.1.1). Working with the coding and categorization, it became evident that the teachers also made various references to situational and contextual factors that influence their GL3 teaching, such as students, colleagues and time constrains. In fact, these aspects are very similar to those presented by Borg (1999b), in which a teacher referred to contextual factors such as time and students' expectations as important influences on her grammar teaching (p. 159), and resonate well with Borg's (2006) general model of sources of influences on

teachers' cognitions (cf. Figure 2 in section 2.1.2). Another salient aspect not covered in the works mentioned above were the affective or emotional values expressed by the participants across the data, which gave rise to the creation of a particular thematic category for these instances.

Following Borg's (1999, p. 162) suggestions to construct a schematic representation of underlying influence of different factors on language teachers' practices, the initial analytical frame building on teacher knowledge forms was expanded throughout the coding process of the interview data into a thematic frame covering initially five categories of underlying factors that influence the teaching practices and shape the perceptions of German L3 teachers at Swedish lower secondary schools. These are presented in Table 10:

Table 10. *Thematic frame with five categories.*

	Category	Content	Corresponding to
1	**Contextual aspects**	Factors inside and outside the classroom that mediate the teachers' cognition and instructional practices	Teacher cognition and practices
2	**Affective aspects**	Teachers' subjective and emotional responses to their work, teaching and students	Teacher emotions
3	**Teaching-related aspects**	Instructional styles, curricular knowledge, techniques for lesson and classroom management in general	General pedagogical knowledge
4	**Linguistic content aspects**	Formal knowledge of language as an academic discipline	Content knowledge
5	**Subject-specific teaching aspects**	Specific techniques and approaches in foreign language teaching (especially grammar)	Pedagogical content knowledge

However, it soon turned out that these five categories were not entirely mutually exclusive and thus not satisfactory for a schematic representation of the richness in the data collected. As Ball et al. (2008, p. 394) point out, the boundaries between pedagogical content knowledge and other forms of teacher knowledge are not always clearly distinguishable, which became evident in the qualitative content analysis. It appeared, for example, that the categories 3 and 5 sometimes caused difficulties in allocating coded meaning units to the one or the other. Also, an early realization in the coding process was that the teachers' mentioning of different teaching methods was so salient and specific, that those codes did not really fit into the category "(5) subject-specific teaching aspects". Therefore, a sixth category for teaching methods was created and the remaining categories were reconceptualized and given more specific names. This process was repeated in several cycles, since meaning units across the data sets made new ambiguities visible throughout the coding process and the initial teaching-related categories proved not to be useful or clear enough for all codes. Throughout the process, some of the codes were initially allocated to two categories and later reviewed for a final decision as to which category they better correspond to.

Furthermore, three overarching themes from different meaning units, seemingly at a higher level of abstraction than the existing codes, were identified. Although these new themes could have been attributed to the existing categories, they proved to be so specific and different to the

other codes clustered in a category that it seemed unsuitable to have them there. A common denominator for these themes was that they treated very subject-specific (German L3) teaching content, and so an additional seventh category, initially called "specific cognitions of GL3 teachers", was also created. This category was understood as an in-depth composition of various correlating aspects of the teachers' reflections and actions that would not make sense if they were to describe the teaching context of any other language subject than German L3. Hence, the interpretative process in which the qualitative content analysis was conducted gave rise to a realization that the notion of pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) is not specific enough to capture the subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge situated in a specific teaching context (e.g., German L3 teachers' knowledge about how to organize grammar teaching to young beginners at compulsory schools in Sweden). The additional seventh category to the thematic framework discussed in this sub-section should therefore be seen as a suggestion to promote the cognitions, knowledge and reflections that are so specific to GL3 teachers and their contexts, that they are not even generalizable or transferable to contexts of other second foreign languages taught at the same school level (i.e., L3 French and Spanish).

Altogether, the final outcome of the interpretational thematization of the qualitative content analysis rendered the following thematic frame, comprising seven categories for understanding the perceptions and pedagogical knowledge of German L3 teachers, as displayed in Figure 3.



Figure 3. *Thematic frame for GL3 teachers' perceptions and pedagogical knowledge.*

The thematic frame illustrated in Figure 3 shows a structure of the aspects identified in the analyzed data (interview transcripts, observational summaries and other documents) as influences on the professional self-perception and, ultimately, the teaching practices of the German L3 teacher participants in the present study. It is an elaboration of the initial three

categories (cf. Table 8 in section 4.4.2) used as a starting point to facilitate the analysis, which were later expanded into five (Table 10) and which, finally, resulted in the above presented schematic representation with seven aspects (Figure 3). The two red circles in the figure indicate that these categories are specific and exclusive to German L3 teachers, whereas the remaining five categories could as well be used as a thematic frame in research contexts with teachers of other L3s. In order to provide an overview of the content comprised in the seven categories, a rough representation of examples from each category is given in Table 11:

Table 11. *Thematic frame with examples from each category.*

	Thematic category	**Examples of content and topics**
1	Contextual aspects related to L3 teaching	• Working conditions, colleagues and local school culture • Group composition and students' backgrounds and interests • Students' motivation (especially in year 6)
2	Affective aspects related to L3 teaching	• Positive emotions, excitement and satisfaction with work • Negative emotions, tensions and potential stress and anxiousness • Caring for students and sensitivity to their needs • Grammatical items that are fun/hard to teach • Passionate feelings and hesitation about grammar teaching • Reflective modesty about the instructional content
3	General instruction-related aspects	• Classroom and time management • Connections to other language subjects (especially Swedish) • Curricula and assessment culture • Textbooks and teaching materials • Transformation of content knowledge into teaching • Changes of instructional styles over the years
4	Linguistic and content-related aspects	• Subject curriculum and the history of the subject • Grammar, language structure, typology and sociolinguistics • Morphology, syntax, clause elements • Crosslinguistic influences • Multilingualism
5	Content and approaches in L3 teaching	• Raising metalinguistic awareness in students • Pedagogical translanguaging • Attitudes towards errors and transfer (native-speaker norms) • Attitudes towards multilingualism and using English • Teachers' personal/internal grammar curriculum • Students' rights to be taught grammar at school
6	GL3 teachers' methods for grammar teaching	• Teaching methods/techniques mentioned in the interviews • Teaching methods/techniques deployed during the lesson cycles • Teaching methods/techniques with crosslinguistic approaches
7	GL3-exclusive teacher knowledge and reflections	• Conceptualization of the internal/personal grammar curriculum (scoping and sequencing the content) • Students' difficulties at certain levels

This thematic frame was later used in the writing up of the two articles and their method sections correspond to this overarching schematic representation, although on some occasions, modified names for the seven categories have been used (cf. Study 1 and Study 2).

4.4.4 Validation and trustworthiness

Validity is a multidimensional concept that includes both internal, external and ecological aspects (Hirsh et al., 2022, p. 16). As Mackey and Gass (2016) mention in a section on teacher-led research (e.g., action research), ”it is often easy to lose sight of concerns of validity or reliability” (p. 271) in such research projects, since they typically do not utilize control groups. Although the present study is not a typical action research project, the lack of control groups and the fact that it is conducted by a single researcher calls for a careful consideration of possible efforts to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings obtained. The specific classroom ecology in which the present study was conducted, and the fact that it is based on a small number of individual cases, also pose difficulties in generalizing the findings to other classroom contexts (Larsson, 2009). The possibility to generalize the results of a study is an important aspect of judging its external validity, which can be seen as a shared responsibility of the researcher and those reading the written-up report (cf. Bernstein, 2018; Hirsh et al, 2022). Therefore, this method chapter in its entirety has aimed at providing the readers with detailed information on how the inquiry has been conducted.

In order to attain a level of trustworthiness (Elo et al., 2014) of the qualitative content analysis in particular, three measures of validation have been taken. The first measure consists of accounting for the steps of the process in detail, with the overall aim to enable the reader to clearly follow the analytical and abstractional processes (cf. Schreier, 2012). This has been done in the previous sections. The other two measures are deliberations with a researcher colleague, as well as member-checking with the teacher participants themselves (see below). Given that qualitative analysis and research always involves degrees of subjective interpretations that are not static but dynamic (cf. Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Larsson, 2009), it has been important to check the face validity and the internal validity (cf. Mackey & Gass, 2016; Schreier, 2012) of the yielded codes, categories and interpretive narratives with others.

Hence, a colleague who is both a practicing teacher and a doctoral student has been involved in a deliberation with the researcher on the analytical frame yielded with the seven categories (cf. 4.4.3), as well as the list of codes assigned to each category (cf. Appendix 3). This was employed as an alternative follow-up measure of the analysis process, as suggested by Elo et al. (2014, p. 5) for projects conducted by a group of researchers. A discussion took place with a colleague, who was asked to cast a critical eye at the proposed categories and codes (Appendix 3) and particularly focus on their level of mutual exclusivity (cf. Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). As a result, it was concluded that the suggested frame and the categories were organized in a logical fashion, given the nature of the yielded data, although two codes were found to better represent other categories than those to which the researcher had initially assigned them, namely the code “comparing German-Swedish” (moved to category 7 from category 6) and the code “reflective modesty about the instructional content” that was found to be an affective aspect and hence better belong to category 2 than to category 7 (cf. Table 11 in 4.4.3), to which it was initially assigned. Furthermore, the critical peer initially also questioned the necessity of the seventh category, which initially had the working title “specific teacher cognitions of GL3 teachers” (in Swedish) and asked if it should not be merged to the sixth category (“GL3 teachers’ methods for grammar teaching”). After an examination of the codes and textual examples from the raw data files (i.e., interview transcripts), it was concluded that the content

of the two categories were mutually exclusive and that category 7 should remain as a category within the thematic frame, although a suggestion was to rename it to the more specific label "GL3-exclusive teacher knowledge and reflections".

In addition to asking a colleague for help with the validation, the four teacher participants were presented early drafts of the article manuscripts (cf. section 4.5 on ethical considerations) and invited to indicate potential misinterpretations and misrepresentations by the researcher in the writing up of the interpretive findings. This proceeding resulted in the identification of a couple of problematic instances where the researcher had to return to and consult the raw data files and eventually adjust the initial interpretation or correct minor factual errors. In one case, the researcher's attention was drawn to a clear misrepresentation that changed the sense of a particular passage in the manuscript, which resulted in a rewriting of the passage mentioned. More precisely, it was a passage in which one of the participants commented on their colleagues' grammar teaching in Swedish L1. The researcher had initially written up that the participant had said that the colleagues do not teach grammar at all nowadays, whereas the correct utterance of the participant was that they teach less grammar today than they did in the past (i.e., a significant difference). Thanks to the careful reading of the participant, this error could be corrected in the manuscript before it was sent to the publisher for a review. In retrospect, the reason for this error to occur was that the researcher had an utterance from another participant (uttered in a different context) in mind and wrote this out without consulting the raw data file (i.e., the interview transcript with the correct participant in question). A consequence of this realization was that all other instances of interpretations (i.e., not direct quotes) in the mentioned manuscript were double-checked against the interview transcript to ensure that similar misinterpretations had not possibly occurred.

In conclusion, it is suggested in the thesis that the three measures laid out in this sub-section together help ensuring the validity and trustworthiness of the results of the qualitative content analysis accounted for in 4.4.2.

4.5 Ethical considerations and researcher positionality

Since the present research project involves studies of human subjects and entails an intrusion into their everyday routines, it was decided that it should undergo a research ethics committee review. This was particularly important since a part of the data collection could possibly disclose sensitive personal information about the participants, which *Good Research Practice* (Vetenskapsrådet, 2017) clearly states as grounds for ethical vetting. The project was reviewed and approved by the Swedish Ethical Review Authority in October 2021[8]. When accounting for the risks of participating in the study, possible benefits for the subjects, such as increased self-knowledge (Recuber, 2016) and a possibility to in-service professional development, were also brought up to balance the possible negative impacts. Furthermore, the application to the authority explained which types of data would be needed for the research purposes and how anonymity and confidentiality would be granted. Also, a plan for how the data would be stored and managed in a safe way, only accessible to the researcher and the supervisors, was provided.

[8] Case ID: 2021-03939

All instruments and documents intended to be used and distributed in the study, such as interview guides and consent letters, were also reviewed by the ethics committee and a few adjustments in wording were done according to the feedback received, before the final decision was taken by the authority to approve the project.

Interpreting what others are saying and in order to transform it into public knowledge, which is what the present research project aims to do (cf. 1.1), involves moral-political commitments (Schwandt, 2000). Research ethics are a central issue in educational research and it is important to continuously assess the decisions made throughout the research project, in order to spot possible risks of doing harm in some way (Ramrathan et al., 2017). The most fundamental guiding principle for this thesis project is to build relationships of care and trust with the actors involved in the research process and to keep in mind that the work should ideally serve the interests not only of the researcher but also of the participants (cf. Noddings, 2016). Taking the participants' interests into sincere consideration is an essential strategy for a research agenda that aims to foster a relationship of reciprocity between the actors involved in the research process (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). A way to keep the participants' best interests at heart is to consider the quality of the learning experience that participating in the research project could bring the participants (cf. Breen, 2006). Hence, apart from the multiple opportunities to sit down and discuss language pedagogy with a visiting external colleague (i.e., the researcher), the participants were also invited to a focus group interview[9] one evening a couple of months after the observed lessons took place. This was part of the intended learning experience of taking part in the project. During the focus group session, the participants could exchange ideas and share their experience on the textbook materials used and the lesson design on a common grammatical feature (cf. 4.3.3). The overall feedback from the participants after the session was that it was rewarding to get to discuss teaching with other GL3 teachers, especially since one might not always have time during busy work weeks to do that at the local school, nor a GL3 teacher colleague to start with (cf. 1.4.3). Integrating this potential learning experience in the research design was a deliberately chosen means of taking the participants' interest into sincere consideration, addressing thereby an ethical question equally important as merely technical issues of design and procedures in research projects (Burgess, 2005).

Informed consent, confidentiality, consequences and the researcher's role in the research process are fields of uncertainty (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015) that are addressed by keeping with the guidelines, *Good Research Practice*, stipulated by the Swedish Research Council (Vetenskapsrådet, 2017). Apart from general rules such as telling the truth about one's research, openly accounting for the methods and results, as well as keeping the documentation organized and striving to conduct the research without doing harm to people, animals or the environment, *Good Research Practice* encompasses guidelines for safeguarding the participants' anonymity and confidentiality through secure data management and raising questions about the usefulness of the intended research, the balance between risks and benefits of the methods, the quality of the work and the integrity of the researcher (p. 11). In essence, the relationship between the researcher and the researched upon is a power relation, especially in some research approaches, such as interview studies (Vähäsantanen & Saarinen, 2012), which gives rise to ethical

[9] The data produced in the focus group interview are not part of the present thesis project and remain to be written up and reported elsewhere.

dilemmas and concerns that the researcher should continuously reflect on in educational research (Ramrathan et al., 2017).

One ethical dilemma concerns researchers' responsibility to their research institution and research community on the one hand and towards the actors of the research site on the other, which brings about an "imbalance between the academic versus social purposes and values of the research" (Ushioda, 2023, p. 197). It is not unreasonable to assume goal conflicts when an educational researcher comes to an authentic classroom to collect data and feels a stronger responsibility towards the research community than a sincere interest in understanding and contributing to the development of the teaching profession and the specific subject pedagogical context in which the data collection takes place. This phenomenon can be discussed in the terms of professional ethics (Vetenskapsrådet, 2017).

In the case of the present project, there is a double dimension of professionality, since the researcher is also a subject-teacher at the same educational level as the participants and, hence, feels a strong identification and affiliation with these and the classroom ecology in which the data collection takes place. The risks of sidestepping the participants' professional interests in the research process is, therefore, believed to be smaller than in a situation where the researcher lacks personal experience and understanding of the classroom ecology and is mainly concerned with building their personal academic career. In other words, a practicing teacher performing educational research in the classroom of a subject colleague is believed to reduce the risk of a phenomenon similar to the one playfully described by Kerekes (2001) when discussing "the nerve some 'experts' have, to go waltzing into teachers' classrooms with their PhDs, having never been public school teachers themselves, and tell these seasoned professionals […] what they should do in their classes" (p. 18). This risk is considerably reduced if the researcher also has the promotion of the interests of the teacher profession at heart and has a personal incentive to understand and gain deeper knowledge about the educational communities under study (McNamee, 2001).

An ethical aspect that arose early was the power issue related to seeking permission from so-called gatekeepers (Malone, 2003; McNamee, 2001). In the present project, there were two levels of possible gatekeepers: a) headmasters and immediate superiors of the teachers; and b) the teachers themselves who exerted the role of a possible gatekeeper that facilitated the way for the researcher to gain consent from the students who also were involved in the study. Whereas the former were informed by means of a letter (see Appendix 6) only after the teachers had already accepted the participation, and as such were not in the position to exert any subconscious pressure on their teachers, the latter could be seen as somewhat problematic in relation to the students of the groups to which the researcher needed access, since the teachers' requesting the students' participation "may constitute undue influence" (Mackey & Gass, 2016, p. 40). To mitigate this power asymmetry, the information given to the students by the researcher, both orally and in writing, stressed the fact that the students' participation and consent was highly voluntary and that their (non)-participation in the research project would by no means affect their teacher's assessment of their ordinary classwork or their grading.

Two sets of written information about the research project and consent letters, based on the suggested templates of the Swedish Research Ethical Review Authority and referring to the

requirements by the Swedish Research Council, were distributed to the teachers (Appendix 4) and the students (Appendix 5)[10]. Although it follows the guidelines of *Good Research Practice*, the very construct of informed consent, as it is used in those letters, could be problematized from an ethical point of view. As Malone (2003) points out, it is for example not really possible to offer full confidentiality and anonymity when conducting research in educational settings. Similarly, from a philosophical point of view, Comstock (2012) asks whether consent given by participants who think that authoritative figures (e.g., class teachers) want them to do it really counts as true consent. Even if the consent forms clearly state that participants are guaranteed the right to withdraw at any time without having to provide an explanation to such decision, it is questionable whether that option really is an option to all participants. This holds particularly true for the students, who might feel coerced by their teacher's commitment in the research project (Malone, 2003).

As previously mentioned, the power relation that the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee constitutes (Vähäsantanen & Saarinen, 2012), is another ethically delicate topic that was carefully considered in the data collection phase of the present research project. The positioning as the expert is central in this concern, and it was of uttermost importance during the interview to not only underscore the collaborative nature of the conversation (Roulston, 2014), but also to grant the interviewees the position of the expert, not the least thanks to their professional background and experience, which by far exceeds the teaching experience of the researcher. This vantage point, together with self-disclosure and expressions of feelings during the interview, were all strategies deliberately used in all interactions with the teacher participants in order to overcome power inequalities (Vähäsantanen & Saarinen, 2012) that were identified as possible ethical threats to the data collection process.

Classroom observations as means of data collection raise a number of ethical problems (Vetenskapsrådet, 2017) and could be seen as a "parasitic activity" (Allwright, 2005, p. 358) that intrudes and disturbs the ecology of the instructional situation. In accordance with the recommendations of the Swedish Research Council, video recordings were dismissed as a data collection method during the observational part of the project, since it was assessed that the results interesting for the study could just as well be achieved by writing fieldnotes. Considering this, the possible harm done to the actors in the studied classrooms could be reduced and a higher degree of confidentiality and anonymity could be achieved since there were no data from the classroom in which individual students could be identified. Where photos were taken of artefacts used in the classrooms, no students appeared in these.

Yet another ethical issue associated with qualitative research arises during the stage when the data collected were analyzed and interpreted by the researcher, since the interpreter never remains unaffected and external to the interpretive process (Schwandt, 2000) and there is a risk of the interpreter's perspective overriding the perspective of the subjects who enabled the data production by sharing their stories and practices with the researcher. An ethical challenge is how to accurately present the participants and their narratives in the writing up of the results (Ramrathan et al., 2017). Although the participants are co-constructors of the data, they do not

[10] The students only received a specially adapted information letter (Appendix 5). Since they are minors, the consent form to be signed was distributed to their legal guardians. This form contained roughly the same information as the form distributed to the teacher participants (Appendix 4).

have much power to challenge the decisions regarding which results to write up and which to leave out (Howe & Moses, 1999). It is the researcher who interprets the results and decides which narratives and questions to frame in the produced texts (McNamee, 2001).

In addition, the use of quotes poses a potential threat to the privacy and confidentiality of the participants (Allmark et al., 2009). In order to offer the participating teachers a position in the interpretative process (cf. Vähäsantanen & Saarinen, 2012), member-checking was used as a strategy to mitigate the potential misrepresentation of participants by the researcher (Ramrathan et al., 2017). In this project, member-checking was carried out by sending the participating teachers the preliminary manuscripts of the articles before they were submitted to journals. This way, a couple of problematic interpretive passages were brought to the fore and the participants were given a position to draw the researcher's attention to the fact that they had meant something different in a given situation, which helped achieve higher balance and fairness in the final presentations of results and conclusions (Vetenskapsrådet, 2017).

One final ethical consideration is the hardship to fulfil expectations of benefits that the participants might have on the participation in the project. This could become problematic if a teacher has underlying assumptions that education can be "made to 'work'" more effectively (Biesta, 2020, p. 26) and if this becomes an expected immediate outcome of the participation in the research project. Since immediate and revolutionary improvements of the educational practice are not something the research project can bring to the table, it was important to communicate this to the participants in an honest way, although without repelling their interest in participating in the project. A strategy to make the participation feel worthwhile for the teachers was to conduct a continuous dialogue where benefits for both sides of the observed teaching could be discussed in a collaborative spirit (cf. Ramrathan et al., 2017). In these dialogues, it is important for the researcher to be generous in sharing thoughts about, for example, the lessons observed (i.e., not to withhold these first impressions by referring to future publications or the scientific process), since this is what many participants expect and it would be unethical to deprive them of that benefit.

5. Summary of Studies 1–2

Addressing the aim of the thesis project, i.e., contributing knowledge about GL3 teachers' thinking and practices regarding grammar teaching, as well as uncovering the subject- and content-specific teacher knowledge involved in those processes (cf. 1.2), this chapter provides a summary of the two published article-based studies 1–2. Whereas the two first sections summarize the content and findings of each article, a third section concludes the main findings of both studies and relates them to the overarching research question stated in 1.2.

5.1 Summary of Study 1

Study 1 sets out to gain a better understanding of what shapes the instructional decision-making of L3 teachers by exploring the participants' beliefs and emotions concerning German L3 as a subject and the contextual factors that frame the teaching of GL3 at the lower-secondary level in Sweden. With a specific focus on grammar teaching in GL3, the single research question of Study 1 is formulated as follows:

> What role do emotions and context have in shaping German L3 teachers' perceptions and practices when teaching grammar to young beginners in a Swedish school context?

This specific research question thus relates to the overarching research question of this thesis (cf. 1.2) by tapping into emotional, social and cognitive factors that shape the participants' perceptions and beliefs about grammar teaching in the local context. By focusing on teacher emotions from an ecological (cf. Bronfenbrenner, 2005; van Lier, 2011) and a subject-matter perspective, which is an under-researched area in Sweden and elsewhere (cf. Chen & Cheng, 2022; Uitto et al., 2015), Study 1 explores how the interplay of contextual factors, pedagogical beliefs and teachers' emotional responses to events in the instructional environment adds to the shaping of their pedagogical perceptions of the school subject (cf. 2.1.5 and 3.3). Whereas the interview data mainly address the teachers' perceptions, examples from observational data reported in the study further inform the performance part of the overarching RQ (cf. 1.2).

Two central keywords in Study 1 are emotions and contextual factors. Emotions are conceptualized as a change with affective, cognitive, physiological, motivational or behavioral components, that occurs in an organism as a reaction to events or situations in the social, political or cultural environment (Benesch 2018, 2019; Pekrun et al., 2023; Scherer & Moors, 2018). It is furthermore suggested that these emotional responses influence teachers' thinking and pedagogical behavior (i.e., instructional practices). Contextual factors are in this study defined as a set of sources that exert influence on the organization of teaching. These include both the frame factors (cf. Lundgren, 1972, 1999; Persson, 2015) decided outside the classroom, such as time, group sizes and curricular demands, as well as the factors stemming from inside the classroom, such as the students' motivation, skill levels and attitudes towards the subject and teaching content (cf. Erickson et al., 2022). The starting point of the study is thus that all the above-mentioned factors have an impact on the shaping of language teachers' pedagogical and professional knowledge and that they mediate the teachers' perceptions, planning processes and actual teaching practices. This view thereby relates to the overarching research question of the thesis (cf. 1.2). Furthermore, the impact of emotions on teachers' cognition and instructional decision-making is brought to the fore, acknowledging the affective turn in the SLA field (Pavlenko, 2013) and the recent reconceptualization of the field of teacher cognition where Borg (2019), unlike in previous publications, explicitly mentions the affective components of language teaching. This updated view on language teacher cognition, well in line with the viewpoint that the language teaching profession has an "emotionally and situationally sensitive nature" (Barcelos & Aragão, 2018, p, 506), thus forms the theoretical basis of the study.

The article reporting Study 1 starts with an introduction to the Swedish FL teaching context, where some basic facts and numbers about the school subject Modern Languages and GL3 in particular are presented. The challenge that teachers of German and French may experience when it comes to popularity of the languages, as opposed to the considerably more attractive language choice Spanish (cf. Granfeldt et al., 2019) is considered to be an example of a contextual factor at the macro level. It is suggested that this and similar contextual factors open up a space for certain affective and emotional reactions to the instructional context in GL3 teachers, especially given the emotionally vulnerable position of foreign language teachers (cf. Pérez Cavana, 2019). To support the research interest of the study, an array of emotional keywords in the findings from previous research on L3 teachers, both in Sweden and internationally (e.g., Erickson et al., 2018, 2022; Pérez Cavana, 2019; Song, 2016), are mentioned.

In regard to grammar teaching in particular, Study 1 points out tensions between teachers' beliefs and actual practices mentioned in previous research (cf. Phipps & Borg, 2009). It also reports on previous studies from Scandinavia (Askland, 2018; Haukås, 2014; Nylén 2014) where L3 teachers' express beliefs about grammar instruction that could be interpreted as containing emotional components, although these are not explicitly labeled as such in the cited works. The article also refers to previous research that shows how L3 teachers select approaches to grammar teaching based on their perceptions of what students expect (cf. Borg, 2006) and their beliefs about students' perceptions of grammar work (cf. Brown, 2009; Schulz, 1996). Combined with works reporting on language teachers' own reported enjoyment of, or reluctant stances towards, working with grammar (e.g., Borg, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Liviero, 2017; Watson, 2015), the theory section of Study 1 altogether makes a case for applying teacher emotions as a theoretical lens when unpacking pedagogical emotions in a defined subject matter context (cf. Sheppard & Levy, 2019; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), focusing specifically on grammar teaching in GL3.

To render a rich description of the role teacher emotions might play in the shaping of the participants' perceptions and practices, the study uses the data sets collected within the present research project (cf. 4.3). The data were analyzed using a qualitative approach with narrative features, employing thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2012; cf. 4.4 for a detailed explanation of why TA was used for this specific study). In this proceeding, the analytical frame described in the present thesis, rendered from the initial qualitative content analysis (cf. 4.4.3) formed the basis for the thematic analysis. Relating to the first two categories presented in Table 11 (section 4.4.3), namely contextual and affective aspects related to GL3 teaching, Study 1 identifies common patterns pertaining to these two overarching categories in the interview transcripts and the narratively elaborated fieldnote documents (cf. 4.4.1). The category covering contextual factors consists of two sub-categories, where the first one (instructional settings) largely corresponds to the frame factors decided outside the classroom and the second sub-category (students) is related to the characteristics of the students in the classroom. As for the category emotions and affective components, three sub-categories are listed. These encompass teachers' emotional expressions towards: a) students; b) the teaching content (i.e., subject-specific for

GL3) and, c) teaching procedures in general and the specificities of the profession. Table 12 shows a simplified overview of the codes presented in the data analysis section of Study 1:

Table 12. *Overview of the data analysis from Study 1.*

Category	**Sub-category**	**Codes**
Contextual factors	Instructional settings	group sizes, other subjects, colleagues, local school culture, scheduling policy by school management, assessment
	Students	students with special needs, students' motivation, students' backgrounds, students' attitudes towards grammar
Emotions and affective components	Related to students	sensitivity towards students, pride in being the provider of students' knowledge
	Related to teaching content	distress about curricular demands, appreciating the space for creativity, advocating for grammar work
	Related to teaching procedures and the profession	avoiding teaching contents that cause too much workload, gratitude for the freedom to decide sequencing and pacing, anxiety about grading

The results of the thematic analysis show that the two rendered categories presented in Table 12 form examples of material, social, emotional, and to some extent also cognitive, contextual factors that constitute sources of emotional responses in teachers towards language instruction. These categories thus provide examples of aspects that can all be individual parts of a GL3-specific pedagogical knowledge for grammar teaching to young beginners.

The contextual factors brought up are, similarly to those mentioned in previous research, group sizes, time, scheduling and availability of textbooks. Colleagues appear as a particularly important factor, since several participants refer to the grammar teaching of their colleagues who teach the subject Swedish (L1), which is a theme also discussed in other studies on L3 teachers in Sweden (e.g., Nylén. 2014). Examples of this theme brought up in Study 1 are the pacing of grammar components in GL3 in order to await the Swedish teacher's introduction of the clause elements, or the willingness of "getting that job done" oneself, referring to some L3 teachers' perceived absence of explicit grammar teaching by teachers of Swedish L1 (cf. Falk et al., 2015, p. 228). Altogether, this small-scale multiple-case study paints a positive picture of the perceptions of the profession in the four individual participants, which is mainly due to their satisfaction with the relatively small student groups, the space for creativity that the profession offers and the fact that they experience pride in being the provider of the knowledge their students attain. In the light of previous research reporting on deficient conditions for L3 teachers

in Sweden (cf. 1.4.3), the study (although with a very limited participant sample) provides a contribution to the overall understanding of the complexity of the profession.

Regarding the influence of emotions on grammar teaching, three interpretations from the category "emotions" in Table 12 are provided in narrative form. The first one states that the participants hold positive views about teaching grammar and that they report finding it enjoyable. Examples illustrating this point is the participating teachers' excitement noted in one post-observational interview and during two observed lesson activities. The second interpretation, in line with results from some previous research (cf. Brown, 2009; Schulz, 1996), suggests that some participants hold the belief that their students do not enjoy grammar, wherefore they sometimes tend to be cautious about not teaching it too much (cf. Askland, 2018). Hence, these two themes combined pave the way for the occurrence of tensions at the interface of the positive and apprehensive tensions towards grammar teaching, which also is the third and final narrative interpretation. These tensions consist in the (perceived) expectations from the other social actors in the classroom (i.e., the students) and are interpreted as a source of incertitude regarding whether one's teaching is efficient and purposeful or not. On this note, the participants' perceptions of the attitude towards grammar that the students, colleagues and the national curricula express might add to the array of factors and phenomena that are involved in the process of mediating GL3 teachers' perceptions of their craft and, ultimately, their instructional decision-making when teaching grammar in GL3. It should also be noted that the interview data show that most participants explicitly refute the notion of grammar being a threat to a communicative language teaching approach (cf. 2.3.1), which could have been identified as another instructional field of tension had they expressed it differently.

Shedding light on the role teacher emotions may play in the conceptualization of teaching a specific subject matter in a given educational context is one of the major implications of the findings presented in Study 1, as discussed in the final sections of the study. Whereas teacher emotions as a field have gained increasing research interest in the past years, the subject matter perspective remains a fairly under-researched area (cf. Uitto et al., 2015). Study 1 therefore contributes to filling an existing research gap. By promoting the subject matter and subject didactics perspective (cf. 2.2.1), the study discusses the role of both teachers, students and subject matter. It also includes the social context of education and schooling in a comprehensive understanding of teachers' pedagogical emotions. An example are the participants' accounts of how they sometimes avoid certain contents or certain teaching strategies (cf. Uysal & Bardakci, 2014). This is related to the notions of fields of tension (i.e., *Spannungsfelder*), which is another substantial finding with implications for the profession and for the teacher education of future (G)L3 teachers. These tensions are conceptualized as competing demands or "divergences among different forces or elements in the teacher's understanding of the school context, the subject matter, or the students" (Freeman, 1993, p. 488), and show the possible links between subject pedagogy, language teachers' pedagogical knowledge and the emotional responses in teachers to instructional content and classrooms as ecosocial environments. Regarding the notion of pedagogical knowledge, an implication discussed in Study 1 is the relevance of conceptualizing subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge forms (cf. Ball et al., 2008). In the specific case of grammar teaching in GL3, one such knowledge form would for example be grammar-related pedagogical content knowledge, GPCK (cf. Sanchez & Borg, 2014).

Since emotions are often discursively framed in the domain of the irrational (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), adding the component of professional knowledge to the discussion, as is done in Study 1, could help reposition teacher emotions as a notion belonging to the realm of the logical and rational, the study further suggests. Another contribution of Study 1 is that it may serve as a basis for discussions in the profession about the role of grammar instruction in L3 teaching, especially with students of younger school ages. The findings of the study could hence inform a reconceptualization of grammar as a troublesome content area for language teachers, especially in the case of German grammar (Diehl 1999; Diehl & Boss, 2017; Eisenberg, 2004; Pihl, 2022), by shedding light on the possibility that it could be mutually enjoyed by both teachers and learners (cf. Borg, 1998). A reconceptualization like this can be facilitated if teachers' emotional stances and experiences towards the subject content are considered, highlighting the relationship between instruction and emotions (cf. Jiang et al., 2021). Another relationship discussed in Study 1 are the bridges that could be built between (teachers of) different language subjects at school. As the findings of the study indicate, colleagues are an important contextual factor that has an impact on GL3 teachers' instructional decisions in terms of, for example, pedagogical choices as to when certain grammar content should be included in the GL3 course. Hence, there is a space to establish pedagogical bridges across the various languages that are taught, including Swedish L1. This is a topic referred to in previous studies as well (e.g., Kabel et al., 2022; Nylén, 2014). Moreover, these pedagogical bridges between teachers of GL3 and other languages highlight the potential for fruitful crosslinguistic collaborations in, for example, grammar teaching, which is a topic further addressed in the following section on Study 2.

5.2 Summary of Study 2

Study 2 is set to explore the role English L2 can play in a crosslinguistic pedagogical (XLP) approach in L3 teaching by tapping into: a) the participants' view on the role of English in GL3 teaching, and b) their applications of crosslinguistic instructional proceedings during the observed lessons that includes references to English. It presents findings from the qualitative content analysis (cf. 4.4.2), findings that reflect pedagogical views and held beliefs about crosslinguistic influences, as well as examples of practical procedures in which the participating teachers refer to both the L1 (Swedish) and the L2 (English) when pointing out the V2 rule and its application in German L3. The study is based on two research questions, namely:

> **RQ1:** Which pedagogical views on the role of English and its influence on GL3 teaching do the participants display?
>
> **RQ2:** How do the participants make explicit crosslinguistic references to English in their planned and performed GL3 teaching?

These two questions thus address the pedagogical beliefs of the participating GL3 teachers and the way they apply their pedagogical knowledge when teaching German grammar with explicit crosslinguistic references to more than one background language. Hence, the two research questions in Study 2 directly relate to the overarching research question of the thesis project (cf. 1.2), by highlighting the factor of German being studied as an L3 after English in the

Swedish school context. With its clearly stated sociocognitive perspective (cf. Atkinson, 2014; Atkinson et al., 2018), the study takes both cognitive aspects and the social context (e.g., the social status of the languages involved and the attitudes of various actors in educational contexts towards these) into consideration, relating thereby to the stated research aim of letting both social and cognitive aspects of grammar teaching in GL3 guide the understanding of the subject (cf. 1.1).

The focus of Study 2 is the use of English L2 as a resource and point of reference in addition to the L1 (Swedish) when teaching GL3, suggesting thereby the term *bridging language*. To embed this notion in a relevant theoretical context, the text outlines three areas relevant for the aim and the scope of the study conducted. Firstly, a description is provided as to what distinguishes an L2 from an L3 in language teaching and learning domains. References are made to the factor model (Hufeisen, 1998; 2000) and the cognitive differences between L2 and L3 learning situations are stressed. A second sub-section discusses previous research on teachers' beliefs and attitudes when it comes to involving other foreign languages in the teaching of an L3 and is introduced by an acknowledgement of the links between teachers' thinking and practices, as a central core idea underlying the study. Although the multilingual turn in language education is brought to the fore in the first passage, this sub-section also refers to reluctant stances towards English as a potential inhibitor of the promotion of other languages (cf. Philipson, 2008) and introduces the notion of *the English illness*, discussed in previous research from Sweden (cf. Falk & Lindqvist, 2022, p. 166; Håkansson et al., 2002, p. 269). Supplemented by a relevant study from Norway (Haukås, 2016), the sub-section further discusses the differences that seem to be present between teachers of German L3 on the one hand, and teachers of other L3s on the other, in the Scandinavian context. The third part of the theory section discusses multilingual approaches to language teaching, such as pedagogical translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020), and applies the notion of crosslinguistic pedagogy, abbreviated XLP (Ballinger et al. 2017; 2020). It is stated that XLP has an explicit focus on supporting bridges between languages in formal teaching and is therefore relevant for discussing the use of English as a bridging language in L3 classrooms.

The qualitative content analysis (cf. 4.4.2) of the data and the analytical frame described in section 4.4.3 form the empirical basis of the study. More precisely, codes with crosslinguistic characteristics (e.g., "multilingual approaches", "attitudes to English", "trilingual contrasts" and "English word order") from the analysis are drawn upon in the findings section. As stated in the appendix of the study, the interview data used mainly stem from questions about syntax and word order (cf. interview guide in Appendix 1), since the crosslinguistic themes were by and large identified in those sections of the transcripts. Furthermore, the method section of the text indicates that references to English, and its role in GL3 teaching, were made by the participants both in questions that directly target the topic (English and/or other languages) and in interview questions without an explicit focus on crosslinguistic features (e.g., the participants' beliefs about the source of word order errors in their students' German). The observational data consist of the fieldnote documents produced during the 12 observed lessons (cf. 4.3.2), including photos and the documented oral post-observational reflections conducted with the participants immediately after each lesson and later added to the documents. A third data set used in the study comprises the participants' lesson plans, as well as photos or copies of the artefacts designed and employed by the participants during the lessons.

The findings section of the study reports the beliefs and practices found in the data that are considered relevant for discussing the research questions. These findings are organized in two thematic sub-sections: 1) *Pedagogical views on English as a bridging language in GL3 teaching*, and 2) *Applications of crosslinguistic pedagogy in GL3 teaching practices*. Under the umbrella of the first theme, which contains data from both interviews and observations, the first sub-section initially discusses the participants' attitudes and stances towards multilingual approaches and the influence of English. It then moves on to presenting the participants' reported experience of their students transferring from English to German, as well as the teachers' stated beliefs about English transfer being an important reason for some students' non-inversion of the verb (i.e., violation of the V2 rule) in German. The second theme (sub-section on applications of XLP) is introduced by an example from one of the participant's submitted lesson plans and a photo of an artefact she had prepared as a lesson activity. Later in the sub-section, documented events (including photos) which include crosslinguistic references to all three languages involved, as well as episodes from the observed lessons, are presented.

As the first part of the findings section suggests, the participants display overall positive views of multilingual pedagogies in general and the use of English as a bridging language when teaching GL3. One of the teachers explicitly mentions the term *translanguaging* and states a clear pedagogical belief that it is important to encourage the students to use all linguistic resources they have at hand. In this regard, English L2 is not an exception, which the teacher participant mentioned accentuates with examples from her own teaching practice. This could be interpreted as an expression of a pedagogical belief that there is a learning potential in taking advantage of crosslinguistic synergies, which is a cornerstone of XLP (cf. Séror & Gentil, 2020, p. 359) and which foreign language teaching could fruitfully draw on. In sum, the findings of Study 2 show no examples of notions of *the English illness*, nor beliefs about the alleged risk of "bad German" caused by the influence of English, which was reported in previous research with GL3 teachers in Scandinavia (cf. Haukås, 2016, p. 10). Given the lack of negative stances towards English, crosslinguistic synergies in teaching and multilingual approaches in teaching in general, it does not come as a surprise that the teachers also make frequent crosslinguistic references between Swedish, German and English in the observed lessons reported in the study.

A central teaching content of the observed lessons in the study was the grammatical V2 rule for verb inversion, where there is a crucial structural difference between Swedish/German on the one hand and English on the other (cf. Bohnacker, 2006). As this article has shown, the clearly marked difference in word order in adverbial-fronted clauses between V2 languages such as German and Swedish and non-V2 languages such as English (cf. 2.2.3), is a relevant teaching item where a crosslinguistic pedagogical approach can be fruitfully employed. In the interview questions that address transfer and teaching of verb order in GL3, the participants make clear references to English, whereby ungrammatical V3 word order in German is understood as transfer from English. This is particularly elaborated on by one of the teachers in the study, which is reported in the first sub-section of the findings. Furthermore, the findings indicate that several teachers in the study express a certain wondrousness about why Swedish students take an L2 detour from English instead of simply transferring the V2 rule from their L1 (i.e., Swedish). However, none of the participants express beliefs that the occurring verb placement errors in German have a negative impact on the general understandability of their students'

production in GL3, suggesting a rather functional and communicative approach to language teaching (cf. 2.3.1).

The second part of the findings section, addressing the second research question about crosslinguistic references in the practice, shows various examples of how the participants apply and operationalize their positive viewpoints on multilingual approaches in actual teaching. This is shown on the examples where the participants make trilingual comparisons of word order when highlighting the V2 rule. In doing so, they comment on or visualize the fact that English does not have the V2 order and thus draw their students' attention to possible crosslinguistic influences from English L2 when producing sentences in German. This approach was employed by all four teachers in the study, although with individual differences, suggesting a strong case for including English as a bridging language when pointing out the V2 similarity that is a mutual feature of Swedish and German. Another instructional technique presented as a finding is when the teachers provide a couple of sentences in German, of which one has an ungrammatical V3 order (that would be correct in English) and make an explicit comment on the crosslinguistic difference. In this regard, one of the teachers is quoted when she during an observed lesson pointed to an incorrect German V3 sentence on the whiteboard and uttered: "and here you can clearly _*feel*_ the English". This example provides further evidence for how a crosslinguistic pedagogy, aiming at building bridges between known languages, can be utilized in GL3 teaching in contexts where the majority L1 is also a V2 language.

The final section of the article (named Concluding discussion) highlights the fact that an XLP approach is in line with modern viewpoints resulting from the multilingual turn in language education (cf. Aronin & Jessner, 2015; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2019; Ortega, 2013) and the idea of softening boundaries between languages in educational contexts (cf. Cenoz & Gorter, 2015). Furthermore, it is concluded that the qualitative analysis of both interview and observational data suggests an alignment of stated beliefs and actual observed practices when it comes to the participants' viewpoints on and applications of XLP in their GL3 teaching, which previous research on language teacher cognition and beliefs (cf. 3.2) has pointed out as an area where tensions can arise (cf. Phipps & Borg, 2009). This alignment is discussed in terms of the participants' displayed positive beliefs and attitudes towards multilingualism and the use of English as a pedagogical tool when teaching GL3. These positive attitudes, as well as the observed practices of actual crosslinguistic references to English, is thereby conceived of as a dismissal of the notion of the English illness (cf. Håkansson et al., 2002, p. 269) present amongst some GL3 teachers in Scandinavia, possibly to a higher extent than amongst teachers of French or Spanish L3 (cf. Falk & Lindqvist, 2022; Haukås, 2016). In this regard, the quote "falling into the English trap" (uttered by one of the participants and contained in the very title of the article that reports Study 2) is explained and problematized, stating that it is a conscious affirmation of the awareness-raising potential the use of English as a bridging language can have in a GL3 teaching context.

Awareness-raising as a means of developing metalinguistic understanding (cf. 2.3.1) is a central notion discussed in the conclusion of Study 2. By acknowledging the presence of a background L2 (English) and pointing out important differences between the L2 and L3, the teacher can also help raising the students' crosslinguistic awareness about how languages and grammars are structured and how they relate to each other. The study further suggests that this raised

crosslinguistic awareness, resulting from the comparison of three languages, involving thereby references to transfer from the bridging language (English), also serves the function of raising L3 students' overall metalinguistic awareness and knowledge (cf. De Angelis, 2007; Falk et al., 2015). This purpose can be achieved by, for example, instructing the students *not* to use English word order in German sentences and instead favor Swedish L1 as a transfer source, which two of the participants (Teacher B and D) did in the study. As concluded in Study 2, this raised awareness is not restricted to the target L3 and the understanding of its grammar system, but rather applies to a deeper and more global understanding of grammar as a system.

5.3 Conclusions from Study 1 and Study 2

The two studies summarized in sections 5.1 and 5.2 both explore the participants' professional and pedagogical knowledge as GL3 teachers, by building on the analytical frame laid out in section 4.4.3 (see also Appendix 3). They thus address questions about how GL3 teachers perceive their instructional context and subject-matter content, as well as how they go about when teaching this content in the given contest. Hence, the two studies altogether inform the overarching research question of the thesis about how the participating teachers perceive, plan for and perform grammar teaching when teaching GL3 to young beginners (cf. 1.2).

Taken as a whole, the findings reported in the two studies give an insight into how the participants view the instructional context of teaching GL3 to young beginners at the lower-secondary level and unpack an array of perceptions related to grammar teaching in this context, namely: a) of grammar as a teaching context; b) of multilingual approaches in general; c) of the influence of English as an L2 when learning German as an L3, and d) of instructional approaches and aspects thought of as being purposeful and desired. Furthermore, the two studies also provide concrete examples of how the participants plan for and perform grammar teaching based on a defined grammatical content (i.e., the V2 rule). Grammar learning requires comprehensible explanatory models (Malmberg et al., 2000) and grammar teaching, hence, requires specific pedagogical teacher knowledge. The interplay of the participants' perceptions about and applications of grammar teaching in GL3, reported in the two studies, could form a basis for GL3 teachers' professional knowledge in the given educational context. This highlights the role of the teaching content, which tends to be underestimated in studies on teaching and learning (Klette, 2007, p. 148) and sheds light on the fact that the way experienced teachers teach grammar points is "pedagogical content knowledge par excellence" and that teachers' grammar explanations "represent a clear example of what it means to 'apply' knowledge of language in whatever way" (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 449).

In combining constructs such as cognition and beliefs, knowledge and emotions and material and social factors, the studies provide a clear sociocognitive frame to understanding education (cf. Atkinson, 2014; Atkinson et al., 2018), as laid out in the aim section (1.1) and the introduction to the overarching research question (1.2). Although the sociocognitive perspective is mentioned explicitly only in Study 2, it is nonetheless present in Study 1 as well, where the interactions between the participants' cognitions and content knowledge and the ecosocial context (e.g., the group sizes and the students' attitudes or aptitudes) is an evident

finding. Both studies also have a clear subject didactics perspective, since they are drawing attention to instructional repertoires, methods and formats of the subject matter (Klette, 2007), i.e., "not only the school content, but also the academic content and what is around it" (Caillot, 2007, p. 127). Furthermore, the focus on professional knowledge in both studies, as well as the highlighting of social, affective and emotional factors, sheds additional light to the notion of a subject teacher as a professional social agent with their own goals and experiences, rather than as mere providers of learning content (cf. Frenzel, 2014).

Study 1 suggests that the factors that have an important influence on GL3 teachers' perceptions about their instructional context are mainly group sizes, time, textbooks, students' proficiency level and metalinguistic awareness, as well as their relations to colleagues teaching other languages. Largely the same factors are also pointed out in previous studies on L3 teachers in Sweden (e.g., Erickson et al., 2022) and official reports from Swedish school authorities (Skolinspektionen, 2010, 2022). As previous research has stated, these contextual factors should not be left disregarded in analyses of language teachers' beliefs and practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Study 1 has also shown that teachers' emotional responses to these factors, as well as their own emotionally grounded stances towards the subject and the teaching content (i.e., grammar), additionally shape both their professional perceptions and identity (cf. Golombek & Doran, 2014) and their pedagogical content knowledge and instructional strategies (cf. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Watzke, 2007). Furthermore, the results from Study 2 about teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards multilingualism and crosslinguistic elements, as well as the social status of the background languages, could be interpreted as cognitive and social factors shaping GL3 teachers' cognitions and instructional practices. As such, these factors also add to the shaping of GL3 teachers' subject-specific pedagogical knowledge, which guides and mediates their perceptions, planning and performed teaching of subject-specific contents such as grammar.

According to the results of the two studies, the participants hold positive beliefs about grammar and they enjoy teaching it, which could be identified both in interview statements and in actual observed teaching. In line with previous research that points out possible discrepancies between students' attitudes towards grammar and teachers' *perceptions of* students' attitudes (Brown, 2009; Schulz, 1996), the findings of Study 1 indicate that the participants in this research project also tend to have preconceptions about their students disliking grammar work. As a consequence, the teachers reflect hesitant feelings and are cautious about focusing too much on grammar when teaching. This is identified and understood as a *Spannungsfeld* (cf. 6.3) related to the content area grammar (as anticipated in 1.1) and is interpreted as another factor exerting influence on GL3 teacher's pedagogical perceptions (cf. 2.1.4). Similar to the positive teacher emotions towards grammar shown in Study 1, the findings presented in Study 2 indicate that the participants are equally positive towards multilingual and crosslinguistic approaches in education (cf. 2.3.3). None of them hold negative beliefs or attitudes towards using English L2 as a bridging language in L3 teaching, showing thereby no signs of the so-called English illness. On the contrary, at least one teacher talks very passionately about providing for the use of other languages, to which she refers using the term "translanguaging" (although this might not be the most appropriate term to use in this context, as discussed in section 2.3.4).

As for the performance part of the overarching research question (cf. 1.2), it is mainly Study 2 that shows how the participants perform grammar teaching by employing their teacher knowledge, i.e., by "choosing powerful ways of representing the subject so that it is understandable to students" (Ball et al., 2008, p. 404). This is done when the participants explain the V2 rule for verb inversion by making crosslinguistic references to both Swedish and English, highlighting the uniqueness in the instructional context pertaining to languages that are taught and learnt as a proper L3 (i.e., after an L2). The variety of crosslinguistic interplays strategically being planned for and used by the participants to enrich their students' language learning (cf. Séror & Gentil, 2020), such as arranging trilingual comparisons of sentences and letting the students draw their own conclusions about word order similarities and differences among the three languages involved, are practical examples of GL3 teachers' professional pedagogical knowledge being applied in authentic grammar teaching. Furthermore, Study 2 clearly shows that the participants indeed have a certain awareness of cross-linguistic influences among their students' previously learned languages (cf. Ballinger et al, 2020), suggesting this is yet another cognitive factor that shapes GL3 teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. This thesis therefore suggests that this awareness, pedagogical knowledge and the participants' positive beliefs, attitudes and emotions observed in both studies, is a solid ground for the better understanding of how to use crosslinguistic influences in language teaching that previous research has called for (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2007; Otwinowska, 2014; cf. 2.2.2).

There are also two partly interconnected themes that occur both in both Study 1 and Study 2, which add to a broadened understanding of the participants' perceptions and practices in GL3 teaching. These are: a) the teachers' awareness and knowledge about their students' and their characteristics (cf. Shulman, 1987; Table 3 in 2.1.1), and b) the teachers' concerns with helping the students make progress by raising their metalinguistic awareness (cf. 2.3.3). Seeing students become more fluent and confident in the target language is a strong source of satisfaction for language teachers (Cowie, 2011), which was expressed by several of the participants and reported in Study 1. However, besides mere satisfaction, the desire to see their students progress in the foreign language can also bring the teacher a sense of hardship and challenge if the students for various reasons do not attain this goal, which one of the participating teachers in the project explicitly mentioned. An example mentioned in Study 1 is how the participants find it hard to help some students to produce more elaborated and complex sentences in German even though their language proficiency is not sufficient enough yet. Similarly, the teachers report dropping some intended creative lesson activities due to some students' lacking precision in the target language, which would require a great deal of instant feedback and corrections from the teacher's side. A common theme in the interviews for this project is that the participants often refer to students' difficulties to understand grammar and how languages work on a structural level by using terms like metalinguistic awareness. This reference was also recorded during one of the observed lessons and is described in the findings section of Study 2. It is also contained in the following discussion chapter, where the suggestion is made that a deliberate use of crosslinguistic teaching activities (like the ones documented in Study 2) can help raise students' metalinguistic awareness, not only of the target language but of grammar as a system in general.

Finally, based on interpretation of the various data sets used in the two studies (particularly the interviews), both studies suggest a strong alignment of the teachers' espoused beliefs (cf. 2.1.3)

and observed instructional actions (cf. Basturkmen, 2012). The participants' statements about enjoying grammar teaching (Study 1) and being positive toward crosslinguistic references that include English (Study 2), as well as their hesitation to use too much (traditional) grammar teaching focusing on form (cf. 2.3.1), can be identified in the examples from the lesson cycles reported in the results section of Study 2. Manifestations of enjoyment in grammar teaching are for example noted in some of the participants' spontaneously enacted introductions to grammar activities and spellbinding teaching about the V2 rule in seemingly convincing, personal and even humoristic ways, in which instances of both enthusiastic teaching and teacher enjoyment (cf. Frenzel, 2014, p. 501) are demonstrated. In this regard, it is suggested in Study 2 that the V2 rule for verb placement (cf. 2.2.3) is a particularly useful teaching content to which a crosslinguistic pedagogical approach could be applied. Furthermore, the two studies of this thesis uniformly suggest bridges to be built between: a) teachers across language subjects (cf. Kabel et al., 2022; Nylén, 2014); and b) between languages in instruction and education (cf. Ballinger et al., 2020).

6. Discussion and conclusions

As was shown in the chapter 5, this thesis projects contributes findings about how GL3 teachers in Sweden perceive and perform grammar teaching in an L3 context, where notions such as teacher emotions and crosslinguistic pedagogy are important theoretical approaches at the heart of the research interest. Two guiding ideas or perspectives are central throughout this thesis and form a basis for the discussion of the contribution of the conducted research, namely the role of the subject matter and the conception of didactics[11]. With its two studies, the present thesis makes a contribution to the field of subject didactics by exploring how the participating GL3 teachers employ their subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge and how they shape and are shaped by the instructional context. The content of this chapter is organized around three sub-sections in which the project's implications for didactics, the specifics of GL3 as a school content and some identified fields of tension (relating to the title of the thesis) are discussed. These are followed by a discussion on the gap between practice and research and the intended relevance of the present thesis for teachers/practitioners (i.e., a discussion of the possible usefulness of the research). Finally, a concluding section summarizes the contribution and implications of the conducted research, discusses some limitations of the thesis project (e.g., the non-inclusion of students' perspectives) and lines out several suggestions for future research.

In short summary, this final chapter highlights the role of GL3 teachers as professional agents with a subject-specific knowledge base of pedagogical knowledge accumulated with experience which they use for content selection and pacing of the instructional content, to mention a few examples. GL3 teachers' perceptions of the instructional context are shaped by the interplays

[11] As stated in previous footnotes and elsewhere, the term "didactics" is here used to specifically address subject didactics as a field in its own right. The term is common in the European context and used in various European countries (cf. Hudson & Schneuwly, 2007). However, the author is aware of the fact that this word might come across as unusual to some English speakers, where the word "pedagogy" would be a more preferred choice.

of and with several factors in the instructional context, such as their students, the teaching of colleagues of other subjects, their perceived curricula (curricula of the mind), personal professional life stories as teachers, sociolinguistic aspects (e.g., language status and societal attitudes towards languages of teaching), and emotional aspects that arise as responses to phenomena and events present in and around the instructional environment. There is a subject-specific element in the mix of these factors which can give rise to pedagogical *Spannungsfelder* (fields of tension), specific to the GL3 teaching content, suggesting therefore a claim for a GL3-specific knowledge base of pedagogical content knowledge, separated from a broader collective knowledge base of foreign language teachers in general. Although the results of the thesis accentuate to specificities of the GL3 teacher profession, a clear and recurring theme discussed is the suggested need to build bridges to the other language subjects in school.

6.1 A subject didactics perspective

The research focus of the present project acknowledges both the epistemology of German as an academic discipline, providing a knowledge base from which teachers draw when designing teaching for learning of the subject, and the history and tradition of German FL as a school discipline, which forms a distinct subset of the academic discipline (Mitchell & Lamberg, 2015). Hence, the content of the thesis clearly belongs to the field of interest of disciplinary didacticians (Caillot, 2007). Didactics is here understood as the scientifical study of actions taken by teachers with the aim of transmitting a body of knowledge in formal and institutionalized education (Chevallard, 2007). Moreover, by placing the subject matter and various dimensions of teaching German L3 at the center of research interest, this thesis and its constituent studies make an empirical contribution to the field of subject didactics (Caillot, 2007). This contribution is important since studies of subject-specific didactics, to a larger extent than general didactics, focus on the classroom level and concrete pedagogical practices carried out by subject teachers (Klette, 2007). Such studies thereby shed light on instructional formats and teaching methods, which is of particular importance to subject areas that have received relatively little research interest in particular educational contexts, which is the case of L3 teaching in Sweden (cf. Bardel et al., 2023).

While the interplay of teachers, content and students, i.e., the so-called didactic triad (cf. Klette, 2007), is a cornerstone of didactics, this thesis has focused merely on teachers, by exploring their perceptions both of the content and of their students' interactions with the mentioned content. This choice of research interest, which thus leaves out the perspective of students as actors in the didactic triad, is based on a viewpoint that teachers' thinking is fundamental in understanding both classroom ecologies and the formation of the very tradition of a school discipline. As Burns (1996) points out, "the teacher is a crucial and important starting point for considering alternative routes and pedagogical insights" (p. 154), which has been a central guiding principle in the outlining and design of the thesis project (cf. 1.1 and 4.3). Furthermore, a focus on the voices of teachers themselves and their role in the generation of knowledge about teaching (cf. Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1990) is a way to deliberately address the needs of the profession when generating a research-based knowledge base about teaching, where there has

traditionally been an evident lack of teachers' viewpoints in the top-down approaches of pedagogical research (Carlgren, 2020, p. 105). It is worth noting, however, that although this thesis does not explore students' perspectives on GL3 teaching, they are nonetheless implicitly present in the texts. As shown in the results sections of the individual studies and in the overarching thematic frame (cf. Table 11 in section 4.4.3 and Appendix 3), the participating teachers recurringly refer to their students' characteristics, needs and life stories on several occasions. This suggests that students as social actors are a central factor that shapes teachers' perceptions of both teaching in general and of subject teaching in particular, confirming thereby the interrelatedness of the strands forming the didactic triad.

6.1.1 The specialized curriculum thinker

Teacher knowledge is a central term in this thesis project and a specific knowledge form relevant in a research study involving teachers is curricular knowledge, which includes familiarity with topics in the subject area and materials that embody them (Shulman, 1986, p. 10). In answering the overarching research question (i.e., how the participants perceive and perform grammar teaching), notions such as teachers' curricula and curriculum thinking elaborated in teachers' minds (cf. Deng, 2018; Goodlad, 1979) appear relevant and therefore merit a further discussion in this chapter. Becoming and being shaped into an experienced professional who can navigate the waters of the craft of teaching is subject to the ability of interpreting and transforming contents of curricula into situated instructional procedures (cf. Deng, 2018). The results of the research described in this thesis direct attention to different notions of curriculum, such as curricula of the personal and the societal or institutional domains respectively (Goodlad, 1979). With the methodological design of the research project, the focus of the scrutiny has been on the perceived curricula (i.e., curricula of the mind) of the participants, which may or may not overlap with the formal curricula of the educational context. The notion of a personally perceived curriculum by teachers is a construct that fits well into the field of teacher cognition (cf. 2.1.2) and is particularly interesting to study from a subject matter perspective. As the results of the qualitative content analysis in this thesis (see Appendix 3) suggest, teachers have both personal and shared subject teacher category-specific bases of accumulated knowledge and ideas about how to best organize instruction in a certain educational context, for example, ideas about how to pace and present the subject matter content to the students. Unpacking this knowledge base can render useful insights into the conditions for developing a craftmanship in the profession and for engaging in curricular thinking, which is important not the least for pre-service teachers (Deng, 2018).

Teachers' curricular thinking as described above, involving both formal curricula and notions such as curricula of the mind and perceived or performed curricula, is closely related to the concept of didactic transposition, which builds on anthropological dimensions of didactics and views of knowledge as a changing reality, i.e., an "ecological approach to the social dynamic of knowledge" (Chevallard, 2007, p. 132). It holds that knowledge does not reside within individuals, nor is it defined by their inner properties. Instead, knowledge is encapsulated in the environment, in so-called didactic situations, and is built up and transformed (or transposed)

within the frames of school as an institution. The concept of transposition of knowledge further promotes the role of subject teachers in enabling and shaping those didactic situations, thanks to their capacity for skilled performance and professional knowledge of what, how and why to teach (Shulman, 1986), i.e., their knowledge of how to transform content knowledge into teachable units (Shulman, 1987). According to Shulman's model of pedagogical reasoning and action (1987, p. 15), this professional knowledge includes processes of preparation, representation and selection of curricular content, as well as the adaption and tailoring of the subject content to fit the students' characteristics. What the results in the present thesis have shown is that the participants perform all these processes, displaying thereby examples of curricular thinking and didactic transpositioning in which they transform curriculum into instructional activities (Deng, 2018) and content knowledge into subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987).

Furthermore, the thesis and its constituent studies shed light on the extensive professionality of the participants, departing from Shulman's definition of a professional as "capable not only of practicing and understanding his or her craft, but of communicating the reasons for professional decisions and actions to others" (1986: p. 10). Mapping the accounts of such professional beliefs, actions and decisions of a group of subject teachers in relation to a defined teaching content, which is precisely what the present thesis project has done, is a way to gain an understanding of common elements in the knowledge base of teaching shared by a group of teachers (Verloop et al., 2001). In contrast to individual teacher cognitions and knowledge, the shared and generalized collective cognitions of teacher groups is a research area that has received less empirical attention in the field (Borg, 2006). This thesis argues that a focus on teachers' knowledge and perceptions of teaching that goes beyond the individual teacher and rather takes a group of subject teachers within a specific educational context as a starting point has a role to play as a specialization both in the field of teacher cognition, as well as in subject didactics.

6.1.2 GL3-specific pedagogical knowledge

Combining a didactic framework (Klette, 2007) with the methodologies typically used in studies on teacher cognition and similar constructs, could be perceived of as a way of addressing what Shulman (1986) labeled "the missing paradigm", i.e., the combination of pedagogy and content in studies on teachers and teaching. This missing paradigm deserves to be addressed from the perspective of individual school subjects as well, the present thesis argues. Hence, an interesting finding is the rendered thematic frame specified in 4.4.3 and in Appendix 3, where two categories are identified as being specific and exclusive for GL3 teachers, namely "GL3 teachers' methods for grammar teaching" and "GL3-specific teacher knowledge and reflections" (see Figure 3 in 4.4.3). Based on this categorization, it is suggested that there is a domain of professional teacher knowledge that is specific for the teaching of a certain subject. In the case of the Swedish context, we should also discuss the specificity of languages, given the fact that the official school subject typically consists of three language (cf. 1.4). Although there are many overlaps between them and previous research on L3 education in Sweden tends

to treat the teaching of French, German and Spanish jointly, this thesis argues that it is useful to distinguish those aspects of teacher knowledge that are specific to GL3 teachers only.

The rationale for the identification of a subject-specific knowledge base of GL3 teachers at the upper-secondary level is threefold. Firstly, the very idea of a knowledge base of subject teachers, based on accounts of actual practice (cf. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 441), is still a fairly new idea in language teaching. Secondly, a scope narrowed down to a single language subject and teaching area enables a clearer research focus aimed at mapping the changes over time of in-service teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, which is "an important question for understanding the why, how and when of the professional development of in-service FL teachers" (Watzke, 2007, p. 63). Thirdly, this knowledge base can be made up of various interacting components, such as teachers' actions, reasoning and beliefs, between which the distinctions are sometimes obscured (Ball et al., 2008, p. 394). From the perspective of a narrow subject teaching context, there ought to be a greater openness to include novel constructs as areas of research interest, including those of social rather than merely cognitive dimensions. The present thesis argues that teachers' emotions is an example of such component, suggesting that they can add to a richer understanding of the professional knowledge (e.g., pedagogical content knowledge) and instructional perceptions that are shared by groups of subject teachers.

The research conducted as part of the present thesis project provides various examples of what could be conceived of as a subject-specific knowledge base of GL3 teaching in the Swedish context. One clearly identified theme (cf. Appendix 3) is, for instance, the experience-based knowledge about how to sequence the introduction of German grammar units, of which several of the participants give detailed and well-elaborated accounts during the individual interviews. An example of this is found in a passage where one of the participants describes the introduction of the German accusative and dative prepositions to her student groups. She reports introducing this grammar content much earlier than she did in her first teacher years, because with time she has understood how tricky these concepts are for young Swedish beginners and she has developed a pedagogical belief that an earlier introduction of the content might be beneficial for the students' learning. This belief could be characterized as a subject-specific language teacher belief that is exclusive for GL3 teachers operating in the mentioned educational context, which when shared with the profession becomes part of a subject-specific knowledge base of and for GL3 teachers. Furthermore, the episode accentuates the developmental process of foreign language teachers' pedagogical content knowledge and how this process has implications for content selection and pedagogical decisions (Watzke, 2007).

Other examples from the data of what could be characterized as GL3-specific pedagogical content knowledge are the participants' detailed accounts of which grammatical constructions GL3 students typically find difficult in the school years 6–9, suggestions of a broad array of teaching activities to target verb placement and recurring pedagogical reflections on the potentials and shortcomings of instructional approaches, based on the participants' own teaching experience and professional life stories. As can be seen, the knowledge and beliefs of the participants builds on a combination of linguistic content knowledge about the German language, pedagogical knowledge about what works in authentic classrooms situations and how students are responding to instruction under specific circumstances, as well as an element of

subject-specific instructional knowledge about how to best adapt the academic matter (e.g., German grammar) to the students in the situated learning context. In short, the latter knowledge represents "the special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers" (Shulman, 1987, p. 8), i.e., pedagogical content knowledge as a specific knowledge form of teacher knowledge. Apart from pedagogical content knowledge in a general sense, propositions are also made for more specific forms of "professionally oriented subject matter knowledge" (Ball et al., 2008, p. 389) and subdomains within PCK, such as *knowledge of content and teaching* (cf. 2.1.1) The results found in the present research project are clear examples of such knowledge forms, this thesis suggests.

A stronger focus on the subject-specific dimensions of pedagogical content knowledge could be beneficial for the promotion of the subject-didactics element (Caillot, 2007) in teacher education. More specifically, on the example of GL3 teacher education in Sweden, this stronger focus would consist in providing pre-service teachers a more comprehensive understanding of the history, traditions and thinking surrounding the school subject (cf. Mitchell & Lamberg, 2015), as well as placing more emphasis on training the student teachers to think about how to transform their content knowledge of the German language and its grammar into teachable units and make these available for their students in an efficient way (cf. Chevallard, 2007; Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987). In order to achieve that objective successfully, a body of knowledge to draw on, stemming from the profession itself, is much needed. Therefore, a subject-specific knowledge base containing professional knowledge, documented experience and professed beliefs of GL3 teachers in the Swedish context, to which the present thesis makes a contribution, is a way to promote both the role of the subject and the field of subject didactics as a natural cornerstone in teachers' professional lives.

6.2 The role of the context

Contextual factors, situated in the social and material environment surrounding teaching, affect teachers' decision-making on a daily basis and are thus a natural component of research on all types of teachers' perceptions, beliefs and practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009; Thorsten et al., 2021). Therefore, it is important to relate the generated knowledge about subject teachers' pedagogical thinking to the social context in which their professional knowledge is enacted. Considering the social environment is also important from a didactics perspective, which is highlighted by the anthropological and ecological perspectives drawn upon in the didactic transpositioning theory (Chevallard, 2007; cf. 6.1.1). Moreover, these perspectives are well in line with the sociocognitive approach to language teaching and learning (cf. Atkinson, 2014; Atkinson et al., 2018) guiding the thesis, where cognition and the social context are seen as intertwined in the processes of shaping the educational environment and promoting learning. With its focus on contextual factors and the participating teachers' perceptions of and dealing with these, as well as an exploration of the emotional and affective aspects of teachers' thinking about the instructional content and context, the thesis highlights GL3 teachers' role as professional agents making sense of the didactic situations and the activities going on inside those situations (cf. Biesta, 2020). This viewpoint is a way to shed light on the characteristics

of the subject[12] and, by implication, to promote improvements of the educational context in which the subject is taught and, consequently, also the working conditions of subject teachers. This brings the discussion to the specificities of Modern Languages as a school subject in the Swedish context (cf. 1.4.1), and German L3 as a specific sub-context within that official subject.

When discussing language education, it is important to take the sociolinguistic and educational contexts into consideration (Fuster & Bardel, 2024) and to acknowledge the differences that exist between language subjects within the same educational context (Vold, 2022), not the least because different languages have different societal statuses. From this perspective, there is a clear difference between German as an L3 and English as an L2, as pointed out in Study 2. The main difference is that L3 students in lower secondary schools in Sweden are true beginners and that they are learning a language that they hardly encounter in authentic everyday situations, whereas English, as a special case among languages (Falk & Bardel, 2010) has a fundamentally different societal status and functions as a de facto unofficial second language in Sweden (cf. Bardel et al., 2023). It is, therefore, useful to also regard the impacts of the sociolinguistic context (e.g., the attitudes in society towards the languages taught as L3s/Modern Languages) on GL3 teachers in a different light than the context framing the school subject English. Learning English as an L2 in Sweden takes place in a situation where the target language surrounds the learner also outside the classroom. In the case of German as a foreign language in Sweden however, this is, with a few individual exceptions (e.g., students with German-speaking parents and German as a heritage language at home), not the case. From a sociolinguistic point of view, the pseudo-mandatory learning of an L3 in Swedish classrooms (cf. 1.4.2) usually is a decontextualized enterprise and most of the students do not come in touch with the target language in naturalistic situations.

Given this artificial setting, teaching and learning of L3s at Swedish schools have their own set of rationales and teaching principles that must be taken into consideration by L3 teachers. One such defining principle is the presence of English as a background language, which all pupils have had as a core subject from their first school year. Regardless of proficiency level in English, all L3 learners in Swedish school come to the L3 classroom with a shared experience of learning a language that is not their L1 through formal instruction. This is a specificity of the instructional context of L3s, making it essentially different to both L1 and L2 language subjects. Consequently, this is another reason for promoting the notion of a subject-specific knowledge base exclusive for the craft of L3 teaching (and GL3 teaching as a further specialization within it). Hence, this L3-specific knowledge base should be separated from a collective knowledge base of foreign language teachers in general, which is typically what research literature in the field (e.g., Johnston & Goettsch, 2000) refers to. In actual fact, such research is often based on studies with teachers of English as a second language, which, given the discussion in this section, is not necessarily applicable to L3 contexts educational context like Sweden or other Scandinavian countries (cf. 3.4). Acknowledging these differences and opening up for more research on the specific contexts and needs of GL3 (as well as of other L3s) in language education can further improve the teacher education of pre- and in-service language teachers (Vold, 2022, p. 30).

[12] In the case of GL3, rather a language choice within an official school subject (Modern Languages). However, this language choice also has its own "subject" characteristics, differentiating it from the other languages also included in the mentioned school subject (cf. 1.4.2).

From a sociocognitive perspective, highlighting and making the emotional aspects of language teachers' thinking explicit is a fairly novel take in the teacher cognition research (cf. Borg, 2019). This thesis contributes to the updated notion of teacher cognition by further accentuating the role of the instructional environment and the social agents (such as colleagues, school managers, students and parents) shaping the tradition of a school subject, which is in line with suggestions advanced by previous research (e.g., Yin & Lee, 2016). The present thesis, especially Study 1, also suggests subject matter-related contextual phenomena from the social environment as sources of emotions and, consequently, of potential pedagogical tensions (cf. 6.3). According to this viewpoint, both the school subject in its entirety and specific aspects of each instructed language contribute a new perspective to the study of teacher emotions as a contextual factor, where the significance of the subject (or a specific subject-matter content for that matter) can have a rather central position (cf. Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Uitto et al., 2015).

From a teacher perspective, one of the specifics of GL3 at lower secondary schools in Sweden is that it is often a single-teacher enterprise. Working as a teacher of German at small or medium-sized schools often means being the single teacher of the subject and not having immediate colleagues to collaborate with. Such environments could be assumed to give rise to negative emotions in the teachers. However, examples reported in this thesis rather suggest that GL3 teachers see the upsides of being the single subject teacher in charge. One such upside is the sense of harvesting the fruit of their labor when seeing the students reach a higher proficiency level in the final years and knowing that it is a result of their personal teaching efforts. To mitigate the disadvantages of not having GL3 colleagues, the studies in the thesis suggest building bridges in terms of collaboration and collegial discussions with teachers of the other language subjects, including Swedish L1 and English L2 (cf. Kabel et al. 2022; Nylén, 2014). These collaborations across language subjects would be well in line with the multilingual turn in language education of the past decades (cf. Aronin & Jessner, 2015; Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Conteh & Meier, 2014), where language teaching is oriented towards multilingual norms and "[t]eaching across languages presents a promising didactic tool" (Jessner, 2008, p. 40), as well as with the European Commission's (2008) vision of a language-friendly school.

6.3 Fields of tension

Based on the discussion on competing demands between various factors in teaching (cf. Freeman, 1993) laid out in 1.1, the thesis project has demonstrated that teaching GL3 in the Swedish context encompasses some potential fields of tension for the teachers. This is explicitly suggested as a theme in the findings of Study 1, but also present as an implicit background theme in Study 2, given the close pedagogical considerations that have to be made with regard to the possible crosslinguistic influence of English. Pedagogical tensions should not necessarily be seen in a negative light, but rather as phenomena that can inform a better understanding of the processes of teaching, which can be beneficial for teachers, researchers and teacher educators (cf. Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 380). Such tensions could, for example, be found when teachers choose grammar teaching approaches not because they are convinced about the superiority of the instructional strategy, but because they feel that their students expect a certain type of instruction (cf. Borg, 1999b; Brown, 2009; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Schulz, 1996).

A recurring example of tensions identified in the present project is related to the students' alleged lack of metalinguistic knowledge, which, according to the teachers, results in a lack of a basic conceptual understanding of fundamental grammatical concepts (cf. van Rijt et al., 2019). At least one of the participants explicitly referred to raising students' metalinguistic understanding of the verb and its placement in her submitted lesson plan that was part of the data collected, suggesting that the notion of metalinguistic knowledge and awareness (cf. 2.3.3) is an important factor for a successful grammar teaching in a GL3 course. Developing and fostering the ability to use a specific language to refer to language structure and grammar is particularly important for crosslinguistic pedagogical approaches, where linguistic typology, transfer and contrasts in grammar structures across languages are central ideas used in the process of instruction (cf. Borg, 1999; Cenoz & Jessner, 2009; Hawkins, 1999).

Displaying a readiness to select instructional content and activities to enhance their students' metalinguistic understanding should be seen as representations of GL3 teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, i.e., ability of "choosing powerful ways of representing the subject so that it is understandable to students" (Ball et al., 2008, p. 404). A clear outcome of the present research project is that the participants largely draw on this knowledge when planning for and performing grammar teaching. However, as one participant in the project explained, GL3 teachers do not always have time to prioritize working with metalinguistic awareness in class. Although teachers might clearly identify the need for their students to learn more basic grammatical terminology and develop an understanding of how a language works, there are other curricular demands requiring the limited lesson time appointed for L3 teaching. As a consequence, GL3 teachers might simply leave that part out of their own teaching and hope that the teachers of L1 will teach the pupils enough grammatical metalanguage. This could represent a pedagogical dilemma and a potential field of tension where the teacher's pedagogical beliefs about good language teaching and the material reality, mediated by frame factors (cf. 5.1) such as lesson time, schedule, group sizes and access to textbooks and other supporting materials, might result in a misalignment of professed beliefs and actuals instructional practices.

Instructional tensions, defined as divergences among different forces in teachers' understanding of the school context, subject matter or their students, i.e., "competing demands within their teaching" (Freeman, 1993, p. 488), can at times block out teachers' pedagogical content knowledge which is based on their beliefs and assumptions about pedagogical strategies that can enhance students' learning (cf. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 455). The tensions occur when teachers try to balance different instructional objectives and can result in emotionally and morally charged consequences (Golombek, 1998). An example of this phenomenon was recorded in the present project when one of the participants was sharing his beliefs about giving feedback to students. He expressed clear beliefs about the role of instant individual feedback after oral exercises and the importance of giving students additional chances to show that they have improved after the previous round of received feedback. Due to time restrictions, however, when teaching large student groups, these beliefs are nearly impossible to pursue in the practice. An implication of these finding is that fields of tension (or *Spannungsfelder*; cf. 5.3) are embedded both in the social environment of education and in teachers' cognitions related to

instruction, not least of the subject matter in which the teacher is an expert. As such, these subject-specific fields of tension merit further research.

6.4 Consequential validity: Usefulness, relevance and teacher-friendliness

The research reported in the present thesis has been guided by some fundamental points of departure concerning the role of teachers in educational research, of which the most central one is the "recognition of the fact that teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who play a central role in shaping classroom events" (Borg, 2006, p. 1). Another fundamental assumption underlying this thesis traces back to a position laid out decades ago by Stenhouse (1981, p. 113), who advocated that teachers must be involved in the research process and that researchers are the ones who must justify themselves to practitioners (hence, not the opposite). Moreover, the thesis draws on the viewpoint that educational research is not automatically beneficial for the practice of education (Biesta, 2020), i.e., for teaching and learning, and must hence be interpreted critically by practitioners, whose judgements should be based on notions of relevance, usefulness and meaning for their own teaching practice. Therefore, a main rationale of the conducted research project has been to involve the participating teachers in defining what is important to them in the data produced, rather than having the researcher in an exclusive expert position. Furthermore, the writing up of the results has been guided by a wish to keep the text teacher-friendly, i.e., relevant, trustworthy, interesting, readable and worth the while reading for practitioners (language teachers) as the most important potential audience. This is a deliberate aim, since literature in the field recurrently refers to a reported mistrust of language teachers towards educational researchers and their implications for practical teaching, suggesting an evident gap between academia and the practice (cf. Borg, 2013; Erlam, 2008; Medgyes, 2017; Ortega, 2005). This gap was pointedly addressed by Kerekes (2001, p. 18), referring to a school teacher with a critical stance towards alleged experts in education talking to teachers from their academic position, although lacking experience of actually having worked in schools themselves.

On this note, the gap is also thoroughly problematized by Borg (2019), who names it a "tension between practical relevance and intellectual progress" (p. 1158). As main threats to the relevance of much published research on teacher cognition, Borg identifies a limited target audience and limited potential for practical impact for practicing language teachers. These issues raise the question of trustworthiness of the research and are in turn related to the notion of its meaningfulness, which is typically judged by the readers of the work (Larsson, 2009). Moreover, an assessment of the meaningfulness of educational research also has a component of normative validity, i.e., whether the phenomena investigated correspond to the reader's conceptions of good education (Biesta, 2020). This is of particular importance in classroom-based research, where the objects researched and the findings should ideally be applicable to teaching and learning from a practitioner teacher's perspective (cf. Anderhag et al., 2024). For this to happen, the results of the research need to be disseminated and find their way to those language teachers who will consider them relevant and useful for their practice.

By considering some aspects of teacher-friendliness (as defined above) and relevance for the profession as a potential audience, classroom-based research like the project reported in the

present thesis can hopefully contribute to bridging the gap between researchers and teachers. More precisely, this type of research and results that have teachers' perceptions of teaching and education as a point of departure has a potential to inform teacher development work and can enable teachers to "examine the many experiential, psychological, and contextual factors which shape their practices" (Borg, 1999b, p. 163). Data collected from authentic classroom ecologies further raise the probability that the published research, particularly those parts describing what teachers actually do on the floor, will find its way and migrate to other classrooms where it could potentially produce more effective instructional practices and contribute to school development (Borg, 2013; Brown, 1992; Littlewood, 1984). In short, research on teaching and learning that gives voice to authentic teachers by inviting them to "contribute much of the 'data' for philosophical analysis" (Noddings, 2016, p. 41), as opposed to requiring of them to passively consume published results that researchers define as valuable, is a fruitful way to promote a vision of making educational practice more theoretical but also theory more practical (cf. Andersson, 2011). This is essentially what the present thesis has aimed to do, addressing thereby a particularly important topic in educational research where there is a perceived gap between researchers and educational practitioners (as discussed above), given the fact that "[t]he problem of the theoretician is to stay sufficiently close to practice to avoid assuming his own, probably preferred, world of action" (Goodlad, 1979, p. 19).

6.5 Contribution, implications and limitations

In accordance with the stated research aim (see 1.1) to unpack possible pedagogical dilemmas and competing demands between various factors in teaching (i.e., fields of tension), this project has identified several *Spannungsfelder* concerning GL3 teachers' perceptions, planning processes and performances of grammar teaching in their specific instructional contexts. The identification of these fields of tension (further discussed in 5.3 and 6.3) is an important contribution of the conducted research project and is the reason why its German name has been chosen as the title of the present thesis. Examples of salient fields of tension discussed in this text are the material frame factors (most notably group sizes and allocated lesson time) and the students' lack of metalinguistic skills, which altogether constrain the teachers in their desire to plan for and carry out the teaching they believe is best aligned with their perceptions of purposeful, creative and inspiring foreign language instruction. As this extended introduction has pointed out, the *Spannungsfelder* can be traced both in the external social environment and in teachers' internal cognitions, thus reiterating and accentuating the usefulness of a sociocognitive perspective in research on teaching and learning.

In summary, the present thesis and its focus on teachers' perceptions and accounts has shed light on the fact that language teaching is first and foremost an educational enterprise, where teaching is more important than the language as such (Johston & Goettsch, 2000, p. 439). A similar viewpoint that the thesis promotes is that research on teachers' thinking is not only for the academic audience, but also needs to be relevant for practitioners by speaking "in transparent and concrete ways about the connections between what teachers do, how they learn and change, and their mental lives" (Borg, 2019, p. 1157). Adhering to these viewpoints, the results presented in the thesis and its two constituent studies also contribute knowledge about what happens in authentic GL3 classrooms, which can pave the way for pedagogical discussions

among L3 teachers about potential new teaching contents, principles and approaches (cf. Andersson, 2011). Suggestions for instructional strategies could also be a possible outcome of the focus placed on the role of emotions in teachers' sense-making processes (Golombek, 1998). The emphasizing of the emotional component in analyses of teachers' professional life stories is a result of the thesis project that can have implications for the teacher education, where future language teachers should be trained and mentally prepared for the emotional responses that might arise in their future work life.

Exploring the role of teachers' pedagogical emotions is a novel take in research on teachers' cognition and comes with implications for both classroom practice and teacher education (cf. Uitto et al., 2015). This is an important area for teachers as a profession, since emotions are key to developing knowledge and evaluations about teaching and learning (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Zembylas, 2004), as well as for fostering virtues in teachers (Freire, 1985) and promoting a holistic understanding of teachers' life-worlds which draws on aspects of biology, sociology, psychology and history (cf. Benton & Craib, 2011, p. 112–113). For example, we know that an understanding of teachers' emotions in teaching can help research gain a better understanding of underlying reasons for the selection or avoidance of certain teaching strategies (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The research design used in the present project, in particular Study 1, has yielded an array of (what has been interpreted as) emotional manifestations enacted or expressed by the participants. Some are general accounts, such as expressions of joy, passion, excitement and satisfaction when a planned lesson works out well and the students seem to grasp the content and are making progress (cf. Cowie, 2011). Other manifestations of emotions identified were found in a more content-specific context of grammar teaching, such as a teacher reporting that she "got a feeling" on the floor when introducing a grammar unit to the class, or when another teacher playfully walked around and displayed both confidence and energy (according to the observer's perception) while helping the students who were invested in a grammar exercise. These examples represent notions of both enthusiastic teaching and of teacher enjoyment (Frenzel, 2014) and could be interpreted as a clear link between teachers' emotions, cognitions and behavior (Borg, 2019; Zembylas, 2004). Consequently, those emotions that stem from a subject matter-specific teaching content domain deserve more scrutiny in research on teaching and learning, the present text suggests.

Furthermore, the present thesis should be viewed as "a source of insights and ideas about learning which we can add to our present understanding and experience, to help us in our constant search for better ways of teaching" (Littlewood, 1984, p. 90). It contributes empirical data for discussing theories about teaching and sheds additional light on methodological principles in classroom-based research (cf. 4.1), such as the challenges to drawing generalizations from case studies (Basturkmen, 2012). It also confirms the need to supplement interviews with observational data from authentic classrooms when exploring teachers' cognitions (cf. Borg, 2003a). Ultimately, the triangulation with different types of data used in the present project (cf. 4.3) provided possibilities for an enhanced analysis of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge and the unpacking of the notion of a subject-specific form of PCK (cf. Ball et al., 2008; Sanchez & Borg, 2014). This process was strongly facilitated by the fact that findings from interview data could be corroborated with observational data from actual teaching.

As shown in the two studies, the participants displayed their PCK by two different approaches. On the one hand, they showed in the interviews that they can, for example, thoroughly and in detail lay out the hardships of specific grammatical categories in GL3 for their students in school years 6–9. This represents a form of a subject-specific pedagogical knowledge par excellence (to paraphrase Johnston & Goettsch, 2000: p. 449) and is a requirement for possessing the teacher knowledge form of specific instructional techniques for making grammar content accessible to learners, which Borg and Sanchez (2014) name grammar-related pedagogical content knowledge (GPCK). Moreover, the participants also displayed this particular pedagogical content knowledge, needed in the specific instructional situation of teaching GL3 grammar to the mentioned age group, by enacting a seemingly convincing grammar teaching practice in the observed classroom situations as well. Although it probably appears rather self-evident, an implication of these results is to stress the fact that teachers' pedagogical content knowledge has both a declarative and a practical dimension and that the one dimension does not necessarily entail the other. Thus, it is possible that there are cases where a language teacher can declaratively account for how grammar in a foreign language should best be instructed, in such a convincing way that it suggests them possessing a high level of (G)PCK, but in an authentic classroom situation fails to reenact an efficient grammar teaching that is in line with the displayed declarative knowledge. This raises the ontological question whether there can exist any pedagogical content knowledge (in the original Shulmanian sense of the word) and whether it can be documented in research, unless it can first be "spotted" by an external observer in an authentic instructional situation and in the very moment when a teacher is transforming a certain subject-matter content to the students in a seemingly successful way (according to the observer's impression). The question raised here thus comes with methodological implications for future research set out to explore subject-matter teachers' (e.g., language or, more specifically, (G)L3 teachers') professional knowledge and practical knowing, regardless of which of the many terms for the construct found in the field (cf. 2.1.1) said future research might adhere to.

Related to the results of the present thesis are also other fruitful areas for future research on L3 teachers' cognition and professional knowledge, such as the collective rather than individual cognitions of groups of teachers (cf. Shulman & Shulman, 2004), the strategies (G)L3 teachers use to avoid potentially unpleasant situations where they might not always feel confident to teach grammar in or of a foreign language (cf. Borg, 1999b; Song, 2016), and the mediating impact of schools as sociocultural arenas on L3 teachers' cognitions and individual or collective processes of making sense of their unique instructional settings (cf. Freeman, 2002). Similarly, the impact of social factors in and around the (G)L3 classroom, such as the grammar teaching of colleagues of other language subjects (not least the L1) and the pressure of a perceived assessment culture of the school system, are other research areas that could be addressed by future research, as the results of the qualitative analyses conducted within the present thesis project imply. Furthermore, based on the narratives of changes in the participants' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices over the years, another suggestion for future research is to try to map and further explore the development of GL3 teachers' teaching approaches (cf. Kubanyiova, 2012) departing from well-defined subject-matter contents, for example a specific grammatical construction of the target language.

A limitation of the present study is the absence of students' perspectives on the objectives of teaching, which is typically desired in the European tradition of subject didactics (cf. Hudson & Schneuwly, 2007, p. 107). Hence, future research is called upon when it comes to GL3 students' perceptions of the interpreted themes suggested in this article, such as the lacking bridges between the L1 and L3 subjects, as well as to their overall perceptions of grammar teaching in (G)L3 contexts. As Sutton and Wheatley (2003) point out, students are often aware of and influenced by their teachers' emotions, wherefore inquiry into students' perceptions of the tensions discussed in this thesis (cf. 6.3) could also be a natural object for future research. The notion of fields of tension when teaching German L3 to young beginners are here discussed in terms of grammar teaching. Due to the limited scope of the present text, however, the focus here is only limited to some aspects of GL3 teaching (such as the V2 rule and crosslinguistic approaches). This said, there are many other curricular aspects of GL3 and German grammar where teachers' perceived and ideal personal curricula (cf. 2.1.4 and 6.1.1) could be examined by future research. An expanded research focus that includes students' perceptions and other structural or lexico-grammatical features of German L3 could draw additional attention to the essential and perennial question of how much grammar students (and teachers for that matter) should need to deal with in school (cf. Eisenberg, 2004).

Sammanfattning på svenska

Denna licentiatuppsats, skriven inom ramen för den Ämnesdidaktiska forskarskolan, är en sammanläggningsuppsats med två ingående artiklar (Studie 1 och Studie 2) som avhandlar ett forskningsprojekt om grammatikundervisning i tyska i årskurs 7. Det övergripande syftet är att utifrån en sociokognitiv ansats undersöka hur de fyra deltagande lärarna uppfattar, planerar för och undervisar grammatik i den specifika kontexten där tyska är ett tredjespråk som lärs in mot bakgrund av engelskan som det första främmande språket i svensk skola. Studien har genomförts utifrån en vidare bakgrund där det finns väldokumenterade generella uppfattningar om att tyskans grammatik är särskilt utmanande (jfr Diehl, 1999; Diehl & Boss, 2017; Eisenberg, 2004; Pihl, 2022) och att tyska av den anledningen idag är ett relativt litet och betydligt mindre populärt språkval än spanska (jfr Skolverket, 2023).

Undervisningen i moderna språk sker i ett sammanhang där flera yttre faktorer påverkar klassrumskontexten. Tidigare forskning har exempelvis visat på tydliga utmaningar kopplade till språkens status och hotade ställning, särskilt i mindre kommuner och i norra Sverige (Granfeldt m.fl., 2019). Enkätstudier ger även tämligen samstämmiga bilder av språklärares upplevelser av för stora undervisningsgrupper, hög arbetsbelastning, låga löner och brist på tid och resurser för fortbildning inom ämnet (Erickson m.fl., 2018, 2022; Lärarnas Riksförbund, 2016), varför flertalet respondenter rentav har övervägt att lämna yrket. Även Skolinspektionens två granskningar (2010 och 2022) av undervisningen i moderna språk bekräftar dessa problemområden och slår fast att ämnet är nedprioriterat, att moderna språk har sämre förutsättningar än andra skolämnen och att skolledare sällan är insatta i undervisningens förutsättningar, vilket sammantaget har en negativ inverkan på undervisningskvaliteten och förstärker ojämlikheten i skolan (2022, s. 5–6). En del av uppsatsens syfte har därför varit att fånga in lärarnas upplevelser av dessa sakernas tillstånd och undersöka vilken inverkan den sociala kontexten har på deras tyskundervisning.

Syftet har vidare varit att bidra med ämnesdidaktisk förståelse av den unika erfarenheten i att undervisa just tyska som ett främmande språk i en tredjespråkskontext genom att fokusera på grammatik som ett avgränsat undervisningsinnehåll. På så sätt har sökljuset kunnat riktas mot ämnes- och språkspecifika aspekter av lärares pedagogiska ämneskunskap (Shulman, 1986, 1987) och det som Johnston och Goettsch (2000) benämnde som ”pedagogical content knowledge par excellence” (s. 449) i en artikel om just språklärares grammatikundervisning. I detta sökande efter det kontextspecifika i grammatikundervisningen i tyska på högstadiet har ett fokus varit möjliga pedagogiska dilemman och spänningsfält som kan uppstå och omge undervisningskontexten i vilken läraren kan behöva mediera mellan olika faktorers påverkan i sitt pedagogiska beslutsfattande (jfr Freeman, 1993). Dessa spänningsfält (tyska: *Spannungsfelder*) i och kring grammatikundervisning i tyska framträdde som ett tydligt tema i resultaten och har av den anledningen givit uppsatsen dess titel.

Datainsamlingen har bestått av semistrukturerade lärarintervjuer, lektionsobservationer och insamling av lektionsplaneringar, undervisningsmaterial och andra artefakter från de observerade lektionerna. Inför de observerade lektionerna fick de fyra deltagarna ett textboksmaterial, ett utdrag ur läromedlet *Genau! 2* med ett kapitel om morgonrutiner, och ombads att planera för en lektionsserie (tre sammanhängande lektioner) i vilket ett ofrånkomligt

grammatiskt inslag blir V2-regeln och inversion av verbet då man ska återberätta ett händelseförlopp (t.ex. i vilken ordning man utför sina morgonrutiner) med hjälp av tidsadverbial som satsinledare. De observerade lektionerna har dokumenterats genom fältanteckningar och kompletterats med bilder tagna av tavlan eller av material som lärarna designat till lektionstillfällena. Efter varje lektionstillfälle genomfördes också korta muntliga reflektionsintervjuer med deltagarna som också tillfogades fältanteckningarna. De tre insamlade datatyperna ger alltså sammantaget en inblick i hur deltagarna såväl uppfattar som planerar och praktiskt genomför undervisning kring det aktuella läromedelsuppslaget. Data analyserades med en kombination av kvalitativ innehållsanalys (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Mayring, 2022) och tematisk analys (Braun & Clarke, 2006) med utgångspunkt i en modell över former för lärarkunskap formulerade av Shulman (1987). Den iterativa analysprocessen utmynnade dock i en utvidgning av denna modell till en analysram bestående av totalt sju kategorier, där två av dessa (”tysklärares unika lärarkunskap och reflektioner” samt ”tysklärares metoder och tekniker för grammatikundervisning”) fångar in den lärarkunskap och erfarenhet som är unik för tysklärare och alltså inte går att generalisera till undervisningen av andra moderna språk. Den andra av dessa kategorier berör, precis som namnet antyder, just lärarnas hantverk vid grammatikundervisning i tyska. Kategorierna med en lista över samtliga i analysen identifierade koder återfinns i Appendix 3 i denna uppsats.

Resultaten av analysen presenteras i form av två delstudier i form av artiklar med specifika forskningsfrågor. I Studie 1 rör forskningsfrågan den roll läraremotioner och kontexten (d.v.s. de yttre ramfaktorer samt de klassrumsinterna faktorerna så som elevernas attityder, förväntningar och bakgrunder) spelar för tysklärares uppfattningar och praktiker vid grammatikundervisning på högstadiet. Resultatet ger vid handen att båda faktorerna samspelar i formandet av deltagarnas uppfattningar och att dessa kan ha en inverkan på lärares träffande av pedagogiska val i undervisningssituationen. De identifierade kontextuella faktorer som antas ha en inverkan på en tysklärares grammatikundervisning på högstadiet delas upp i två underkategorier: 1) undervisningsrelaterade, och 2) elevrelaterade faktorer. Till den första underkategorin hör gruppstorlekar, kollegor, tid och schemaläggning, läromedlens utformning samt kollegornas (eventuella) grammatikundervisning inom svenskämnet. I den andra gruppen återfinns faktorer som elevernas bakgrunder, attityder, mognadsnivå, inlärningsförmågor samt deras nivå av metaspråklig förståelse av språket eller grammatiken som ett sammanhängande system med specifika termer. Generellt är deltagarna nöjda med sina nuvarande arbetsplatser och de lokala undervisningskontexterna där de flesta har relativt små grupper och är ensamma tysklärare. Lärarna uttrycker även uppskattning för friheten och möjligheten att vara kreativa som språklärare. Just gruppstorlekar tycks här framträda som en särskilt viktig faktor för lärares känsla av tillfredsställelse med arbetet. Ett annat särskilt framträdande resultat är den roll svensklärarna på skolan spelar för deltagarnas val kring hur de lägger upp grammatikundervisningen i tyska.

När det gäller läraremotioner, som är ett relativt nytt fält utan tidigare publicerade studier genomförda på praktiserande lärare i en svensk kontext, presenterar Studie 1 ett förslag på tre identifierade teman genom vilka deltagarnas inställning till grammatikens roll i ämnet skulle kunna förstås. Det första identifierade temat är att deltagarna ger uttryck för att de själva gillar grammatik och inte ser någon motsättning mellan explicit grammatikundervisning och en kommunikativt inriktad språkundervisning, varför de gärna undervisar grammatik. Ett andra

tema identifieras å andra sidan i de utsagor som kan tolkas som att deltagarna hyser en medvetenhet om att grammatiken har rykte om sig som ett svårt och tråkigt undervisningsinnehåll, varför möjliga didaktiska spänningsfält mellan glädjen inför att undervisa och månheten om att inte tråka ut eller tappa eleverna uppstår. Dessa spänningsfält och deras påverkan på lärarnas didaktiska val förklaras som ett tredje temat i denna delstudie. Sammanfattningsvis föreslår Studie 1 att det finns urskiljbara emotionella och affektiva faktorer kring språkundervisningen som formar tysklärarnas uppfattningar i minst lika hög grad som andra mer greppbara materiella faktorer.

Studie 2 består av två forskningsfrågor, nämligen: a) hur deltagarna ser på engelskans inflytande på tyskundervisningen, samt b) hur de i sin planerade och genomförda undervisning gör tvärspråkliga referenser till engelska. Studien fokuserar således på den tvärspråkliga faktorn som följer av att tyska undervisas som ett tredjespråk (L3) i Sverige och därmed kan kontrasteras mot engelskan som ett L2, vilket alla elever som läser ett modernt språk på högstadiet i regel har erfarenhet av formell undervisning inom. I det sammanhanget uppstår frågor om vilken roll detta bakgrundsspråk med stark samhällelig status kan ha för tredjespråksundervisning och hur tysklärare i synnerhet förhåller sig till möjlig tvärspråklig transfer som kan antas vara kopplad till just engelskan. Här blir den grammatiska V2-regeln särskilt intressant, då såväl svenska som tyska, till skillnad från engelska, är V2-språk och kräver inversion om någon annan satsdel än subjektet står i fundamentet. Att elever med svenska som förstaspråk bryter mot V2-regel i tyska kan antas vara just transfer från engelska (jfr Bardel & Falk, 2007; Bohnacker, 2006; Falk, 2016; Falk & Bardel, 2010; Lindqvist & Falk, 2014). Tidigare forskning från Sverige och Norge (t.ex. Falk & Lindqvist, 2022; Haukås, 2016) har visat att tysklärare i högre utsträckning än fransk- och spansklärare ser engelskans inflytande som problematiskt och uttrycker sig i termer av ”den engelska sjukan”. Resultaten av Studie 2 visar dock att de deltagande lärarna ger uttryck för positiva uppfattningar om såväl flerspråkighet i allmänhet som explicita referenser till engelska i tyskundervisningen i synnerhet. Detta synsätt kommer även till uttryck i den planerade och observerade undervisningen, i vilken deltagarna genomgående bejakar potentialen i att ha tre språk att kunna jämföra och hänvisa till. Denna potential utnyttjar deltagarna för att bland annat förklara V2-regeln för sina elever och därigenom medvetandegöra dem om språkliga strukturer som kan skilja sig mellan språk samt uppmana eleverna att ”inte gå i den engelska fällan” utan att hellre överföra satsstrukturen direkt från svenska. I Studie 2 förklaras detta som ett praktiskt exempel på *crosslinguistic pedagogy*, XLP (Ballinger m.fl., 2017, 2020) och engelskan framhålls i sammanhanget som ett så kallat *bridging language* i undervisningen (jfr Otwinowska, 2014).

Sammanfattningsvis bidrar resultaten från de båda delstudierna till att besvara forskningsfrågan om hur de deltagande lärarna uppfattar, planerar och genomför grammatikundervisning inom den givna kontexten. Mot bakgrund av forskningsresultaten som presenterats ovan avslutas uppsatsen med en sammanfattande diskussion som sätter arbetet i ett ämnesdidaktiskt perspektiv där den ämnesspecifika kunskapen hos tysklärare lyfts fram. Begrepp som didaktisk transposition (Chevallard, 2007) och *curriculum thinking* (Deng, 2018; Goodlad, 1979) kopplas ihop med det för forskningsprojektet centrala konceptet pedagogisk ämneskunskap (Shulman, 1986, 1987) för att belysa tysklärarens roll som en specialiserad yrkeskunnig med en uppsättning unika pedagogiska kunskaper, tanker och erfarenheter, vilka har en bäring på grammatikundervisningen denna ämnesspecialist åstadkommer i sin yrkesutövning. Detta leder

vidare in på diskussionen om det ens är relevant att tala om *en* pedagogisk ämneskunskap, så som den shulmanianska termen ofta framhålls i litteraturen, eller om varje ämnesfält snarare har en egen ämnesuppsättning lärarkunskapsformer (jfr Ball m.fl., 2008) som är tillämpbara vid särskilda undervisningsinnehåll, exempelvis grammatik (jfr Sanchez & Borg, 2014).

De didaktiska spänningsfälten (som alltså har gett uppsatsen sitt namn) diskuteras också i det avslutande kapitlet. Sådana spänningsfält, som kan vara ämnesspecifika och unika för tysklärardomänen, kan vara att lärare tenderar att välja eller välja bort undervisningsinnehåll och metoder – inte för att de själva inte tror på dessa, utan för att de kontextuella faktorerna samt lärarnas uppfattningar om *elevernas* uppfattningar, har en tydlig påverkan på lärarnas beslutsfattande (jfr Phipps & Borg, 2009). I detta hänseende är tysklärares dubbla inställning till att undervisa grammatik (tema 3 identifierat i Studie 1) ett talande exempel på ett potentiellt spänningsfält. Ett annat sådant *Spannungsfeld* som ofta kommer till uttryck i studiens insamlade datamaterial är talet om elevernas metaspråkliga förmåga att förstå språk och grammatik. Denna förmåga lyfts fram som en viktig faktor för att få till en fungerande tyskundervisning, särskilt när det kommer till det grammatiska innehållet. De deltagande lärarna uttrycker vid flera tillfällen vikten av detta och medvetenheten om att det är något eleverna skulle behöva undervisas mer om. Ramfaktorerna däremot (t.ex. begränsad undervisningstid, stora grupper, pressen från en upplevd bedömningskultur eller en hög arbetsbelastning generellt) skapar dock ett behov av att prioritera (bort) något i undervisningen, vilket ofta leder till att just arbetet med att ”stärka upp det metaspråkliga” (som en av deltagarna benämnde det) ofta får stryka på foten.

Sammantaget är både de föreslagna spänningsfälten, känslomässiga inställningarna till undervisningsinnehållet samt avgränsningen av (språk)ämnesspecifik pedagogisk kunskap potentiella ämnen för vidare forskning. Detsamma gäller elevers uppfattningar om områden som tyskämnets grammatikundervisning, referenser till fler än ett bakgrundsspråk eller, varför inte, elevers uppfattningar om sina lärares uppfattningar om ett givet ämnesinnehåll såsom grammatik. I uppsatsen framhålls även vikten av att inom lärarutbildningen förbereda blivande lärare i moderna språk på språkundervisningens särskilda förutsättningar som kan leda till emotionella eller affektiva svar på stimuli i didaktiska situationer. Sådana yttringar kan vara respons på såväl de kontextuella faktorerna som på ett särskilt ämnesinnehåll. Följaktligen bör vikten av att introspektivt undersöka sina egna uppfattningar som blivande eller praktiserande lärare inte underskattas inom professionen som helhet. Avslutningsvis, när det gäller skolans grammatikundervisning, föreslår uppsatsen att fler broar och samarbeten byggs mellan de olika språkämnena på högstadiet, främst mellan svensklärare och lärare i moderna språk.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Interview guide for the individual interviews

(Note: The questions were originally written and asked in Swedish.)

Thematic section 1: Professional background and general experience of teaching GL3 at lower secondary schools

Q1: What is your teacher background? (Years in the profession, other subjects you teach, type of schools you have worked at previously, years at the current school)

Q2: Please tell me briefly about your GL3 teaching conditions at your current school?

- How long are the lessons?
- How big are the student groups?
- From your point of view, how motivated are your students to learn German?
- Are you the only German teacher at the school?
- Which textbooks and other resources do you use in your teaching?
- Are you or somebody else in charge of the textbook purchases?

Q3: What is, according to you, the most enjoyable about teaching German L3 at the lower secondary level?

Q4: Which content do you find most challenging to teach in German L3 at the lower secondary level?

Thematic section 2: Grammar teaching practice in general

Q5: Some language teachers spend a great deal of the lesson time teaching grammar. Others think that the role of grammar should be downplayed in favor of communicative activities during the lessons. What is your opinion about this divide between grammar on the one hand and communication on the other?

Q6: On average, what share of your total lesson time (percentage-wise) do you dedicate to grammar teaching?

Q7: Imagine you are about to introduce a new grammatical content to your students. How do you mostly go about with the planning and design of the lessons?

Q8: Based on your experience, please try to rank the grammatical items you personally think that lower-secondary students find particularly hard.

Thematic section 3: Experience of and observations when teaching syntax in particular

Q9: What about syntax? Do you include that explicitly in your grammar teaching?
Follow-up question: Do you usually teach about the clause elements and word order?

Q10: Have you noticed that your students make syntax errors in German?
Follow-up question: prompting the ungrammatical sentence **und dann ich spiele Fußball* and ask for a reaction.
Follow-up question: What do you think of this type of errors?
Follow-up question: What do you think is the main reason for it to occur?

Q11: One theory is that it is the English sentence structure that has an impact on our students. What do you think about this theory?
Follow-up question: Do you think our German teacher colleagues might have a different viewpoint on this?

Q12: How do you think we could adapt our teaching to make our students more aware of the verb order in German?

Q13: Anecdote about a teacher who had an oral exam with beginner students where several students failed because of an inability to conjugate and invert verbs correctly. What are your thoughts on this type of assessment practice based on grammar errors?

Thematic section 4: Thoughts and ideas for the design of an upcoming teaching unit

Q14: We will now design a lesson cycle that will aim at introducing elementary syntax and try to raise the students' awareness of the V2 rule and word order in German. What are your first spontaneous thoughts about this teaching focus?
Follow-up question: If someone from the outside would question why we are going to spend three lessons working with syntax, how would you suggest we formulate an answer that would justify that particular focus of the lessons?
Follow-up question: Do you already now have any spontaneous suggestions as to specific teaching activities that should be employed when teaching about these grammatical areas?

Q15: Do you think we can raise our students' awareness of the V2 phenomenon if we also show them examples from other languages?

Q16: Briefly introduce and show the textbook chapter that will be used for the design of the lesson cycle. Do you have any spontaneous thoughts about how the topic of the text could be related to the design of grammar teaching?

Appendix 2: Transcription labels used when writing up for publication

[…]	omitted utterance
[within square brackets]	added clarification or replacement by word referred to in the context
… /	indicates the boundary between aborted and new utterance
*Stressed words*	in italics and surrounded by underscores
Italics	used for word mentioned in foreign language
((3 sec))	Measured pauses within double brackets. (Micro-pauses are not included)
((non-phonological phenomena)) within double brackets	

Examples from Study 2:

((smiling)) Oh yes, it is this, a bit of this English, English word order. That they… /Ah, you know what I mean.

Yes, that's it. _*Exactly*_ what I meant. _*Ex-act-ly*_ that word order. It is very common.

No way. I doubt that. I think everybody understands what is going on here. Also, we *do know* that translanguaging, that, there is nothing negative about mentioning: *I am, you are, he/she/it is* [when teaching German grammar]. We do have _*some*_ verb conjugations in English, but German has _*even more*_ forms.

Inspired by guidelines provided by Schmidt (2008): https://www.exmaralda.org/pdf/HIAT_EN.pdf

Appendix 3: Categorization of codes from the content analysis

Thematic frame of categories (cf. 4.4.3)	
1	Contextual aspects related to L3 teaching
2	Affective aspects related to L3 teaching
3	General instruction-related aspects
4	Linguistic and content-related aspects
5	Contents and approaches in L3 teaching
6	GL3 teachers' methods for grammar teaching
7	GL3-exclusive teacher knowledge and reflections

(1) Contextual aspects related to L3 teaching:

colleagues [Q02]
difficulties finding time for all students [Q14]
difficulties to zoom in on details when teaching [Q16]
difficulties when giving feedback [Q14]
dyslexic students [Q10; Q13]
group sizes [Q02]
groups that have had many substitute teachers [Q14]
having a troublesome student group [Q14]
local school culture [Q02]
not having time to develop one's teaching [Q14]
other school subjects [Q02]
scheduling technicalities [Q02]
school-refusals / students not attending school [Q16]
stressed-out students [Q04]
students find grammar boring [Q15]
students with special needs / low achievers [Q02; Q08; Q09]
students' backgrounds [Q02; Q15; Q16]
students' motivation (especially in year 6) [Q02; Q05; Q06; Q09]
teacher's personality [Q16]
that the students dare to speak German [Q03]

(2) Affective aspects related to L3 teaching:

"deliberating humbleness regarding teaching contents" [Q05; Q10; Q13; Q14; Q15]
attitudes/expectations [Q05]
avoiding teaching activities since the workload might become too heavy [Q13]

compassion with those students not feeling well or coming from less fortunate homes [Q16]
distress stemming from finding curricular content difficult [Q14]
feeling sorry for students who do not get a passing grade [Q14]
feeling that grammar is fun / joy in grammar [Q04; Q05; Q06]
feelings of satisfaction and pleasure [Q02; Q03]
gratefulness for the freedom as a language teacher [Q15]
great sensibility to students' oral performances in year 6 [Q14]
nervousness before first grading in year 6 [Q14]
pride in being a reason for the knowledge students possess at the end of compulsory school (if one was their only German teacher) [Q03]
regretting that something is left out from the teaching [Q09]
space for creativity in language subjects [Q15]
space for deciding the pacing of teaching content on one's own [Q4]
stress when taking over a group previously taught by another teacher [Q06]

(3) General instruction-related aspects:

adaptations stemming from teachers' PCK [Q05; Q15]
approaching language errors [Q14]
arouse students' enthusiasm [Q03]
assessment [Q02; Q14]
attitudes towards English [Q12; Q15]
attitudes towards multilingualism [Q12; Q14]
being cautious about the teaching time [Q13; Q15]
continuity [Q02; Q03]
correcting students' texts [Q15]
criticism against too much grammar in compulsory school [Q07]
criticism against the Swedish L1 subject [Q05]
desire not to tire out students [Q07]
deviating from the textbook [Q15]
difficulties to "get it right" [Q03; Q04]
discrepancy between students' implicit and explicit knowledge [Q07; Q08]
distortive errors [Q14; Q15]
English word order [Q11; Q12]
familiarity with textbooks [Q16]
feedback to students [Q14]
flexibility [Q08]
focusing on what the students know rather than what they don't know [Q14]
good timing for corrections [Q05]
grammar in the L1 subject [Q05; Q09]
grammar in the syllabi [Q05]
impetus from Swedish L1 teaching [Q04; Q09]
influence by one's previous teachers and teaching traditions one was taught by [Q14]
lacking vocabulary [Q08]

lesson packages [Q03; Q05]
longitudinal changes of teachers' PCK [Q06; Q15]
materials [Q02; Q04; Q07]
native speakers as a norm [Q14]
progression [Q06]
relevance [Q03]
Rinkeby Swedish [Q14]
sequencing [Q09]
stimulate students who like to see systems [Q13]
students' susceptibility and maturity level [Q03; Q04; Q09]
teachers' internal/personal grammar curricula [Q05; Q06; Q09; Q15]
teachers' subjective opinions about grammar [Q05]
textbooks [Q02; Q05; Q06; Q07; Q16]
traditional grammar teaching [Q05]
transfer from English [Q12; Q15]
variation [Q03; Q04; Q13; Q15]
vocabulary quizzes [Q02]
working more as in [the subject] English [Q03; Q08]

(4) Linguistic and content-related aspects:

"RIA/BEDA" [= token to remember rule for two-way prepositions] [Q05; Q07; Q08; Q09]
adjective endings [Q04; Q15]
cases [Q09]
clause elements (subject, predicate, object) [Q04; Q08; Q09; Q15]
connecting words [Q16]
dative prepositions [Q06; Q09]
definite/indefinite articles [Q05]
English word order [Q11; Q12]
German versus the other languages [Q02]
grammar [Q03; Q04]
history of the subject German [Q14]
irregular verbs [F08]
modal auxiliary verbs [Q05]
overgeneralization of the past participle [Q08]
perfect tense constructions [Q04]
perfect with *sein* [Q06]
precision [F04; F15]
prepositions (with cases) [Q15]
pronouns (accusative and dative) [Q04; Q08]
regular verbs [Q16]
sentence structure [Q04; Q15]
structure of the language [Q04]
syllabus [Q14]

temporal adverbial clauses [Q13]
temporal adverbials [Q09; Q15]
tenses [Q05]
two-verb constructions [Q08; Q13]
V2 constructions [Q11]
verb conjugations [Q03; Q06; Q08]
word order [Q08, Q09]
word order in dependent clauses [Q08; Q10; Q11]
word order in questions [Q15]
word order with modal auxiliary verbs [Q11; Q13]
word order with the perfect tense [Q08; Q10; Q11; Q13]

(5) Contents and approaches in L3 teaching:

”words as sets with grammatical aspects” [Q05]
activity forms (podcasts, role plays, interviews, talk-shows, charades) [Q03; Q15]
fluency [Q15]
frequent words [Q03]
grammar in contrast to oral activities [Q03; Q05]
language accuracy [Q15]
lesson cycles concluded with a creative activity [Q03]
metalanguage / ”enhancing the metalinguistic ability” [Q04; Q05; Q06; Q08; Q09; Q13; Q15]
oral activities (conversation, discussion, argumentation) [Q03]
pattern drills with each other and with the teacher [F03]
reading fiction on the side [Q03]
sentence structure [Q15]
structured grammar teaching [Q03]
students’ areas of interest [Q03]
syntax [Q09; Q15]
Theme: a weekend in Berlin [Q03]
Theme: describing one’s school and school day [Q03; Q16]
Theme: food and restaurants [Q03]
Theme: history [Q03]
Theme: hometown [Q03]
Theme: morning routines [Q16]
Theme: pocket money [Q03]
Theme: work-life [Q03]
Theme: youth life [Q03]
translanguaging [Q12]
TV chef performance [Q04]
using anecdotes [Q05]
verb conjugations [Q03]
vocabulary [Q03]
vocabulary quizzes [Q02]

wordlists + tests [Q03]
Youtube genre ”*Mein Morgen*” [my morning] [Q16]

(6) GL3 teachers’ methods for grammar teaching:

charades [Q15]
communicative exercises [Q07]
comparing a correct and an incorrect sentence [Q13]
contrasting all three languages [Q15]
contrasting sentences in different languages on the whiteboard [Q11; Q13]
copying out [Q13]
cut puzzle cards [Q10; Q13; Q15]
example sentences [Q06; Q07; Q10]
explanations in the workbook [Q07]
flipped classroom [Q07]
focused/isolated writing exercises [Q13]
giving students handouts [Q13]
grammar lecture on Youtube [Q07]
grammar quizzes [Q07]
identifying clause elements [Q09]
marking comments in the page margin [Q13]
oral exercise: adding another word [Q15]
oral exercises following given patterns [Q13]
pair work [Q07]
recycling previously introduced grammar [Q07]
sentences to translate [Q07]
students analyzing rules and identifying patterns [Q07, Q10]
students on detective mission = searching for grammatical forms in texts [Q07; Q13]
traditional teacher-led grammar lecture [Q07]
transforming a sentence into an array of verb phrase constructions [Q13]
whole-class tutorial [Q07]
word by word translations between the languages [Q13]
workbook exercises [Q07]

(7) GL3-exclusive teacher knowledge and reflections:

”conceptualizations of grammar teaching: (stairs to climb vs. helicopter with rotating blades)” [Q04; Q05; Q06; Q07; Q08; Q09; Q13; Q15; Q16]
”subject-specific knowledge of teaching” [Q11; Q12; Q13; Q15]
comparing German and Swedish [Q07; Q10; Q13]

Appendix 4: Information and consent form distributed to participating teachers

Till deltagande lärare på [X]-skolan

Detta är en fråga om du vill delta i ett forskningsprojekt om nybörjarundervisning i tyska som språkval i årskurs 7. I det här dokumentet får du information om projektet och vad det innebär att delta.

Vad är det för ett projekt?
Under höstterminen 2021 kommer jag inom ramen för min forskarutbildning att genomföra ett lektionsprojekt med fyra lärare som undervisar tyska som språkval i årskurs 7. Projektets syfte är att tillsammans med erfarna tysklärare utforma en serie lektioner för att studera hur undervisning kan utformas för att bättre stödja elevernas lärande av ett specifikt grammatiskt lärobjekt. Forskningshuvudman för projektet är Stockholms universitet. Ansökan är godkänd av Etikprövningsmyndigheten och diarienummer för prövningen är [2021-03929].

Hur går projektet till?
Projektet går ut på att du och jag tillsammans planerar en serie om fyra lektioner och att jag observerar lektionsförloppet samt utvärderar det tillsammans med dig efteråt. Dokumentation sker endast genom mina fältanteckningar där fokus ligger på lektionsplaneringen och själva lektionsförloppet. Inom ramen för projektet kommer eleverna i din grupp att få fylla i två enkäter. Enkäterna handlar om elevernas språkkunskaper och syn på språklärande. Du kommer inte att ta få se elevernas enkätsvar. Jag kommer även att samla in resultatet av ett skriftligt test som eleverna kommer att göra under en vanlig lektion efter den sista lektionen inom projektet, förutsatt att elevernas vårdnadshavare har lämnat samtycke till sina barns deltagande i projektet. Testresultaten anonymiseras och analyseras sedan på gruppnivå och jämförs med undervisningsgrupper från andra skolor som också deltar i projektet. Lärarna som deltar i projektet intervjuas före och efter lektionsserien. Den första intervjun är individuell och den avslutande intervjun sker i grupp med de andra tre lärarna som deltar i projektet. Röstinspelning görs under intervjuerna men så fort transkriberingen är färdig förstörs ljudfilerna. Resultaten av forskningsprojekten kommer att tillgängliggöras i form av artiklar, konferenspresentationer och i min framtida avhandling. Delar av materialet kan komma att användas i utbildningssyfte för lärare, i föreläsningar eller seminarier.

Vad innebär det att delta i studien?
Du och jag träffas vid två intervjutillfällen (en gång innan och en gång efter lektionsserien). Vi träffas och designar tillsammans en lektionsplan för fyra lektionstillfällen. Därefter genomför du lektionerna och jag finns med i klassrummet och observerar förloppet. Efter varje lektion gör vi en kort muntlig utvärdering av hur det gick. Forskningslektionerna sker under elevernas ordinarie lektionstid och innebär inga risker eller obehag för dig eller eleverna. Jag meddelar din rektor om ditt deltagande i projektet och att du kan behöva ägna ett par timmar av din arbetstid till projektet och föreslår att du får schemamässiga förutsättningar för det. Dina personuppgifter kommer inte att förekomma i material som produceras inom projektet och det kommer inte att gå att identifiera att du eller din skola har deltagit.

Vad händer med dina uppgifter?
Ditt arbete som lärare kommer att observeras och dokumenteras i fältanteckningar och intervjuerna där du deltar kommer att transkriberas. Inga videoinspelningar görs under projektet och röstinspelningar av intervjutillfällena raderas så fort intervjuerna har transkriberats. Inga personliga uppgifter samlas in och skulle något namn nämnas kommer detta att ersättas av ett fingerat namn. Det kommer inte att gå att härleda informationen till dig som individ eller skolenheten du arbetar på. Allt insamlat material kommer att förvaras på externa diskar i låsta säkerhetsskåp på universitetet. Obehöriga kommer inte att ha tillgång till det insamlade materialet. Datamaterialet kommer att sparas enligt arkivlagen och Riksarkivets föreskrifter i 10 år efter att projektet har avslutats.

Ansvarig för materialet är Stockholms universitet. Enligt EU:s dataskyddsförordning har du rätt att kostnadsfritt få ta del av de uppgifter om dig barn som hanteras i projektet, och vid behov få eventuella fel rättade. Du kan också begära att uppgifter om dig raderas samt att behandlingen av materialet begränsas. Om du vill ta del av uppgifterna ska du kontakta Deni Beslagic (deni.beslagic@isd.su.se) eller handledarna (se nedan). Du kan även kontakta Stockholms universitets dataskyddsombud Björn Gustavsson (bjorn.gustavsson@su.se eller 08-674 73 28). Om du är missnöjd med hur materialet behandlas har du rätt att lämna in klagomål till Integritetsskyddsmyndigheten, som är tillsynsmyndighet.
Deltagandet är frivilligt

Ditt deltagande i forskningsstudien är helt frivilligt och du kan när som helst välja att avbryta det. Om du väljer att inte delta eller avbryta deltagandet behöver du inte uppge varför. Om du vill avbryta deltagandet ska du kontakta någon av de ansvariga för studien (se nedan).

Ansvariga för projektet
Ansvarig för projektet är doktorand Deni Beslagic (07xxxxxxxx, deni.beslagic@isd.su.se) samt handledarna professor Camilla Bardel (08 - 120 767 23, camilla.bardel@isd.su.se) och universitetslektor Pernilla Rosell Steuer (08 – 120 767 28, pernilla.rosell-steuer@isd.su.se).

Post till samtliga ansvariga kan även skickas till följande adress: Institutionen för språkdidaktik, Stockholms universitet, 106 91 Stockholm.

Samtycke till att delta i forskningsprojekt om tyskundervisning
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 forskningsprojektet om tyskundervisning
☐ Jag samtycker till att uppgifter om mig behandlas på det sätt som beskrivs i forskningspersonsinformationen ovan.

Namnunderskrift: _____

Namnförtydligande: _____

Ort & datum: _____

Appendix 5: Information letter distributed to students

Hej elever i [undervisningsgrupp],

Detta är en skriftlig sammanfattning av informationen ni elever fick på dagens lektion i tyska [datum]. När du läst detta bestämmer du om du vill delta som forskningsperson i projektet.

Vem är jag som skriver detta brev?

Jag heter Deni och jobbar själv som språklärare på högstadiet och känner er lärare [namn]. Jag går också på universitetet för att lära mig forska om undervisning i klassrum med elever som lär sig språk. Nu ska jag göra ett litet forskningsprojekt med er lärare och ska därför besöka er tyskgrupp under cirka två veckor i höst.

Varför gör vi forskning om språkundervisning?

Det är viktigt för oss lärare att förstå hur ni elever tänker om hur undervisningen fungerar. Vi behöver också testa olika sätt att undervisa och diskutera med våra kollegor vad vi ser när vi tittar på varandras lektioner. Då kan vi lärare göra ett bättre jobb när vi undervisar och ni elever får förhoppningsvis en bättre undervisning när ni kommer till en språklektion.

Hur ska jag göra för att lära mig mer om undervisning i tyska?

Er lärare [namn] kommer att hjälpa mig mycket. Jag ska intervjua [hen] och få vara med när [hen] planerar ett par av era lektioner. Sedan får jag vara med i klassrummet och se hur lektionerna går till. Efter lektionen pratar jag med [namn] och vi diskuterar hur lektionen gick jämfört med planeringen. [Namn] kommer då att berätta för mig om [hen] tycker att något i planeringen behöver ändras till nästa lektion. Därför behöver jag vara med på era lektioner under ett par veckor och göra lite anteckningar för mig själv om jag ser något intressant.

Är det bara vår skola som deltar?

Nej, jag gör samma sak på tre andra skolor i Stockholm. Då får jag se hur fler lärare undervisar om samma innehåll. När jag har varit hos er och de andra tre skolorna träffar jag sedan alla fyra lärare i ett gruppsamtal. Då pratar vi om vad vi lärde oss av lektionerna och kanske just din lärare får en ny idé för något [hen] kan göra med era lektioner i fortsättningen.

Vad ska jag titta på när jag besöker era lektioner?

Jag kommer framför allt titta på vad er lärare [namn] gör. Jag kommer inte att titta på eller skriva ner vad ni elever gör under lektionerna. Därför skriver jag aldrig ner era namn eller vem av er som säger något under lektionen. Jag gör bara anteckningar för mig själv och kommer inte att fota eller filma något under era lektioner.

Vad kan jag lära mig av att besöka era lektioner?

För att jag ska få mycket information och lyckas lära mig något om tyskundervisning behöver jag även lite hjälp av er elever för att förstå vad ni tycker och tänker om tyska i skolan. Om ni vill får ni därför gärna hjälpa mig och svara på två enkäter som ni får under lektionerna. En enkät är några frågor på ett papper där ni får svara precis vad ni vill. Att fylla i en enkät brukar ta mellan 10 och 15 minuter och det får ni möjlighet att göra under lektionstid. Ni ska inte skriva era namn på enkäterna innan ni lämnar in dem. Enkäterna lämnar ni in bara till mig så er lärare kommer inte att få se vad ni har svarat.

Efter att vi har haft några lektioner får ni elever som vill vara med i forskningen också fylla i ett litet skriftligt test med frågor om det ni har haft under de senaste lektionerna. Bara jag kommer att få titta på och rätta era test. Då kan jag fundera över vilka frågor på testet som verkade lätta och svåra för er som grupp. Er lärare kommer inte att få veta hur var och en av er elever svarade på testet.

Vad behöver du tänka på om du vill delta?

Om man ska forska om lektioner och undervisning måste man alltid fråga eleverna om deras tillåtelse att vara med. Därför fick du muntlig information och även detta brev nu. Det är helt frivilligt att delta och du behöver inte tacka ja. Om du gärna vill vara med ska du ta med blanketten du fick på dagens lektion och be att dina vårdnadshavare skriver under. Sedan tar du

med blanketten med underskrifter tillbaka till skolan så att jag kan samla in dem. Om du inte vill vara med i projektet behöver du inte göra någonting. Jag kommer bara att samla in och forska på enkäter och test från er som vill vara med i projektet och som har fått tillåtelse till det av era vårdnadshavare.

Kommer det att påverka ditt betyg i tyska om du väljer att vara med eller inte?

Nej, det kommer det inte. Under de cirka fyra lektioner då jag besöker er kommer ni inte göra något som er lärare samlar in och använder som bedömningsunderlag inför era betyg.

Måste du vara med? Och får du ångra dig senare?

Nej, du måste naturligtvis inte vara med. Om du inte vill vara med i projektet låter du helt enkelt bli att fylla i enkäter och test i samband med lektionerna då jag hälsar på er. Under dessa tillfällen har du lektion med din lärare och andra elever som inte vill delta i projektet. Om du först tackar ja till att delta får du självklart ångra dig närsomhelst. Då meddelar du bara detta till mig så ser jag till att dina svar på enkäter och test inte räknas med när jag ska skriva något om forskningen på era lektioner. Du behöver i så fall inte berätta varför du vill hoppa av. Du behöver inte heller ha tillåtelse från dina vårdnadshavare utan det är du som elev som alltid väljer om du vill vara med i ett forskningsprojekt eller inte.

Kommer någon att kunna veta att just du varit med i detta projekt?

Nej, ingen kommer att kunna få reda på att jag varit på just din skola och studerat just din grupp och din tysklärare. Ingen kommer att kunna känna igen att just du har varit med i elevgruppen eller svarat på mina enkätfrågor.

En sista repetition – vad behöver jag göra om jag vill vara med?

Då behöver du ta hem blanketten för samtycke som du fick under lektionen, visa den för dina vårdnadshavare och be att alla vårdnadshavare du har skriver under. Du får med dig två blanketter hem. Om dina vårdnadshavare vill skriva under en blankett var går det också bra. Sedan tar du med dig de ifyllda blanketterna och lämnar till mig under lektionerna då jag är med. På blanketten finns också en e-postadress till mig. Om dina vårdnadshavare vill scanna in och skicka in blanketten med sin underskrift till mig via mail går det också bra. Förutom det behöver du inte göra någonting.

Om du inte vill vara med i projektet behöver du inte göra någonting.

Stort tack för att du lyssnade på min information och att du läste detta brev. Vi ses förhoppningsvis på någon lektion snart!

Om du har några frågor får du gärna maila mig: deni.beslagic@isd.su.se

Mvh Deni

Appendix 6: Mail sent to the participants' immediate school managers

Bästa [skolledare],

Med detta brev önskar jag hos dig förankra min förfrågan till [namn], anställd hos er, om deltagande i ett klassrumsforskningsprojekt under HT21.

Jag heter Deni Beslagic och arbetar som lärare på Rålambshovsskolan och känner därför till [namn] genom vårt språklärarnätverk. Sedan hösten 2020 är jag även antagen till den ämnesdidaktiska forskarskolan som staden har tillsammans med Stockholms universitet. Jag studerar vid Institutionen för språkdidaktik och mina handledare är professor Camilla Bardel och universitetslektor Pernilla Rosell Steuer. Inom ramen för denna utbildning ska jag genomföra ett forskningsprojekt som handlar om hur tysklärare designar lektionsinnehåll vid undervisning av ett specifikt lärobjekt för nybörjarelever i åk 7.

För detta ändamål behöver jag samarbeta med fyra erfarna tysklärare som har visat intresse för att utveckla ämnesundervisningen genom att delta i kollegiala samarbeten med språklärare från andra skolenheter inom staden. [namn] är en kunnig och mycket uppskattad tysklärare bland ämneskollegor, varför jag tror att [namn] skulle ha mycket att bidra med till forskningsprojektet. Därför hoppas jag att du också ser positivt på att låta [namn] delta i projektet och i möjligaste mån kan säkerställa praktiska förutsättningar för deltagandet (till exempel avsättning av konferenstid eller vissa schematekniska lösningar).

Rent praktiskt går deltagandet ut på att [namn] och jag under hösten träffas och tillsammans designar fyra lektioner för en undervisningsgrupp. Jag följer sedan med och observerar dessa lektioner och utvärderar tillsammans med [namn] lektionsförloppet samt genomför eventuella justeringar inför nästa lektionstillfälle. I stort handlar det alltså om våra vanliga arbetsuppgifter som lärare men i det här projektet kommer [namn] att systematiskt få diskutera och utvärdera lektionsplaneringen för den berörda gruppen tillsammans med mig som doktorand. Därför är det viktigt att det schemamässigt finns ett visst utrymme för att [namn] ska hinna träffa mig och prata en stund i direkt anslutning till de berörda lektionerna. Beroende på er schemaläggning och hur många lektionstillfällen i moderna språk ni har per vecka kommer jag att samarbeta med [namn] under en begränsad period av 2–3 veckor i oktober/november. Därutöver kommer jag även att behöva intervjua [namn] vid 1-2 tillfällen.

Jag hoppas att denna information har gett en tillräckligt utförlig bild av det tänkta projektet och varför jag gärna skulle vilja se [namn] som en av fyra deltagande lärare. Det är också min förhoppning att ni från skolans synvinkel ser klassrumsforskning och samverkan med universitetet som ett viktigt inslag i verksamheten. Det aktuella samarbetet kan bidra till ömsesidig nytta för både er lokala verksamhet och skolutveckling, för Stockholms universitet och lärarutbildningen. Att som ämneslärare få möjlighet att delta i projekt kring den egna praktiken är dessutom väldigt stärkande för yrkesstoltheten och utvecklande för den egna undervisningen. Därför är det min förhoppning att du kommer att se positivt på [namn]s deltagande i projektet och att ni från skolledningen kan hitta lösningar för [namn] så att projektet ska kunna genomföras inom ramen för den ordinarie arbetstiden.

Jag svarar förstås gärna på frågor om projektets syfte eller det tänkta praktiska genomförandet och du når mig enklast på deni.beslagic@edu.stockholm.se eller på telefon 07xxxxxxxx.

Stort tack på förhand!

Med vänliga hälsningar,

Deni Beslagic