



The Faculty of Arts and Education

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Abstract

This study aims to examine the beliefs and the reported practices in the teaching of L2 English vocabulary in first grade in Norway. The research project applies a teacher cognition framework to study beliefs about vocabulary learning and reported vocabulary teaching practices. It is a qualitative study based on semi-structured interviews carried out with six English teachers.

This study addresses the following research questions: “What beliefs do the teachers have about first grade L2 vocabulary learning?” “What are the teacher’s reported practices about the teaching of L2 vocabulary in first grade?” “To what extent do the reported practices promote incidental vocabulary learning and to what extent do they promote deliberate learning?” “What are the teachers' reported knowledge about the pupils’ vocabulary knowledge before they start school and how the teachers build on that knowledge?” “What are the challenges, the contextual factors that may face teachers, and what teaching materials are used to teach vocabulary to first grade?”

The study revealed many findings. Firstly, the main finding concerning beliefs about teaching and learning vocabulary displayed that most of the teachers believed in using songs because of their many benefits in acquiring a new language. Furthermore, most of the teachers believed that pupils best learn vocabulary through using and practicing them. In addition to that, some teachers believed that vocabulary is best taught through using and playing games. Moreover, two teachers believed that vocabulary is best taught and learned by using visual aids and pictures to teach the new words. Further, only one teacher reported that she believes that vocabulary is best taught in a meaningful context with a lot of repetition. Additionally, only one teacher emphasized the importance of motivation. She believed that vocabulary is best taught by making pupils like the English subject. Finally, only one teacher believed that pupils best learn vocabulary through listening. Ultimately, by exploring the teachers’ beliefs, the study concluded that the teachers’ beliefs were in line with theories and recent researches on teaching and learning vocabulary to young learners.

Secondly, Concerning the teachers’ reported practices, the study concluded that all teachers reported that they use songs, games, attached context, films, digital tools, flashcards, translate to L1. Further, most of the teacher reported that they use picturebooks, and only three teachers reported that they use oral storytelling. Ultimately, their practices seem to be in line with theories

and recent research on teaching and learning vocabulary to young learners. Furthermore, their practices are determined by curriculum aims. Additionally, after examining their reported practices it was clear that they mainly used digital tools and most of the classroom activities were carried through the use of these.

Thirdly, the findings indicate that teachers promote incidental learning to large extent, this is seen as incongruent with recent theory on the subject.

Fourthly, all teachers reported that most of the pupils come with a lot of prior knowledge of the English vocabulary, and some of them can communicate using these words. In addition to that, all teachers reported that they take the pupils' existing vocabulary knowledge into consideration when they teach, and they build on that knowledge by trying to know or figure out what the pupils already know in order to start from there.

Fifthly, the study concluded that there are some challenges that the teachers face, for example, all teachers said that one of the challenges is that they do not have enough time. Further, only two teachers think that it is challenging to teach pupils in first grade how to read or write. On the other hand, only one teacher thinks that one of the most noteworthy challenges in vocabulary teaching is that some pupils have prior knowledge of the English vocabulary and some pupils never heard an English word. This situation creates a challenge for her to choose suitable text and vocabularies for everyone because it is easy for someone and it is difficult for someone else.

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1 Introduction

1.1 The present study and its aims

The present study aims to examine the beliefs and the reported practices in the teaching of L2 English vocabulary in first grade in Norway and to what extent it reflects current literature about how to teach vocabulary to young learners. It is a qualitative study based on semi-structured interviews. Generally, the project aims to examine the extent to which the reported practices promote incidental vocabulary learning and the extent to which they promote deliberate learning in first grade pupils in Norway. The research project applies a teacher cognition framework to study beliefs about vocabulary learning and reported vocabulary teaching practices.

Teacher cognition can be defined as “what language teachers think, know and believe and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom” (Borg 2003, p. 81). Understanding into teachers' beliefs and practices will reveal how much teachers' cognitions and work represent good practice as outlined in the literature (Borg:2017: 78). Therefore, one goal of this thesis is to contribute to the research field of teacher cognition and L2 teaching in general, and to L2 vocabulary teaching to young learners in particular, but also to second language acquisition, by researching the relationship between teacher cognition and vocabulary teaching from an L2 perspective. A further aspiration of this paper is to examine the contextual factors and the potential challenges that may face teachers as Borg (2003:82) argues that the contextual factors may cause a discrepancy between cognition and practice. One additional aim of this study is to examine the reported (prior) vocabulary knowledge of pupils before they start at first grade, as observed and reported by the teachers, to explore how the teachers build on that knowledge (Lefever 2012).

According to Lefever (2012), because of the exposure to English media, many students in Iceland from all age groups have proficiency in English language before they start at schools. The same situation is reflected in Norway “as in Norway, competence in English is taken for granted” Lefever (2012:98). This presents a range of difficulties for teachers, such as the need to build on the pupils' prior knowledge of English and retain their desire to learn the language at school, thus to gain a comprehensive insight into teacher cognition (beliefs and reported practice) concerning vocabulary teaching in English as L2 classrooms in first grade in Norway.

A qualitative method in form of semi-structured interviews with six first grade English teachers of varying levels of experience from different schools in Norway will be conducted about how teachers report that they teach vocabulary in first grade and how they believe the first-grade pupils learn vocabulary, and how these beliefs and reported practices reflect current literature about how to teach L2 English vocabulary to young learners. Therefore, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do the teachers have about first grade L2 English vocabulary learning?
2. What are the teacher's reported practices about the teaching of L2 English vocabulary in first grade?
3. To what extent do the reported practices promote incidental vocabulary learning and to what extent do they promote deliberate learning?
4. What are the teachers' reported knowledge about the pupils' English vocabulary knowledge before they start school and how do the teachers build on that knowledge?
5. What are the challenges, the contextual factors that may face teachers, and what teaching materials are used to teach vocabulary to first grade?

1.2 Research context and relevance

A very extensive research literature on vocabulary learning is now available (Schmitt2008:330). However, the L2 research on young learners is rare and limited. Although there are some studies of YLL vocabulary such as studies by (Oroz2009, Kuppens 2010, Mourao2014, Lefever 2012) Most vocabulary research is about older learners such as secondary school learners. (Hestetraet, 2018: 221. Ellis, 2014).

The concept *young learners* is defined as “those at pre-primary and primary level, roughly from the age of 3 up to 11 or 12 years old” (Copland and Garton 2014, p. 224). Due to the following factors, it is appropriate and significant to concentrate on these younger age groups (Ellis, 2014). First, there is a common tendency over Europe to reduce the age of foreign language teaching in schools, due to the changing of Europe which has become more multicultural and multilingual, along with the increase of preschool English (Lefever, 2012: 87). Additionally,

“the importance of age-appropriate teaching has come to the fore” (Copland and Carton,2014: 225). Furthermore, in order to teach successfully teachers, have to understand well theories of second language acquisition and they need a “a strong understanding of children’s social and cognitive development” (Copland and Carton,2014: 225). All these factors mean that it is important to concentrate on the young age group. (Copland and Garton, 2014: 224).

Much recent research in the field of young language learners YLL has been conducted to see what vocabulary knowledge young learners have and how it is taught. For example, a research study by (Lefever 2012) was conducted 2009-2010 that examined the English skills such as reading, listening, and oral communications skills of seven and eight-year-old pupils in Iceland before they started learning English formally at age nine. The study was done through “three tests of the pupils’ English skills and interviews with the parents” (Lefever 2012:89). The data which were collected from interviewing parents depict how the children use English and how they learned it for example: “all the parents said their children watched English programs on television, DVD or films. Most of this material was neither subtitled nor dubbed in Icelandic” Lefever (2012:96).

The result of the study shows that “children of this age group are strongest in understanding spoken language” (2012:96). While the findings of the reading test show that children begin to understand written English. On the other hand, the results of oral communication “part of the study show that just over half of the children could successfully participate in a simple conversation in English” (Lefever 2012:97). Eventually, the result of the study revealed and proved that the children had acquired English vocabulary prior to starting school. Furthermore, the children were able to understand vocabulary and take part in conversation.

The exposure to English media appeared to be one of the most significant factors affecting early incidental learning. Due to this exposure, all students in Iceland from all age groups “report a high self-assessment of English proficiency and, as in Norway, competence in English is taken for granted” Lefever (2012:98). This presents a range of difficulties and challenges for English teachers, such as the need to build on the pupils’ prior knowledge of English and retain their desire to learn the language at school. Further, it is crucial that teachers fill the gap between the pupils’ incidental learning of English and their school-based learning by stressing the communicative and productive use of English in lessons. Lefever (2012: 98).

Accordingly, this research seeks to explore teaching vocabulary in first grade and examine if the teachers build on the pupil's prior knowledge, Furthermore, the study aims to examine the extent to which the reported practices promote incidental vocabulary learning and the extent to which they promote deliberate learning in first grades pupils in Norway. Additionally, the study seeks to explore teacher cognition (the beliefs and reported practices) concerning vocabulary teaching in English as (L2) classrooms in first grade in Norway.

Teacher cognition research can be defined as “what language teachers think, know and believe and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom” (Borg 2003, p. 81). An important reason for the increase of teacher cognition research, has been the awareness that we cannot accurately understand teachers and teaching without understanding “the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs” that affect the teachers’ practices in the classrooms Borg (2009:163). A significant number of teacher cognition studies has been done in Norway, to study teacher cognition about a range of topics in L2 English language teaching. These teacher cognition research concerning literacy and English language teaching such as teacher cognition research in relation to vocabulary instruction (Hestetraet, 2015). A study of teacher cognition in relation to literature teaching (Hjorteland, 2017). teacher cognition in relation to teaching L2 grammar (Uthus, 2014). Teacher cognition in relation to writing instruction and writing strategies (Bunting, 2019). Finally, teacher cognition in relation to teaching of L1 writing and young language learners in England, however it was done in Norwegian university (Gusevik, 2020).

Some teacher cognition researches international studies have been conducted in relation to vocabulary teaching of YLL. The first example is a qualitative study conducted by Lau and Rao (2013) of the vocabulary instruction for young children from three kindergartens in Hong Kong. The data were collected through observations and interviewing participating teachers. The study found that teachers have implemented restricted variety of teaching practices in teaching vocabulary. Teachers primarily used methods to promote the memorization and recognition of words. This research suggests that teachers “may need to include more in-depth discussions of words used in sentences and include more teaching in the context of storytelling and conversations that can enhance children’s understanding of the meaning of words in stories and in conversations” (Lau and Rao,2013: 1378). Similar findings were reported in another qualitative study which examined vocabulary teaching in seventh grade in Norwegian schools. The main findings of the

study were that teachers used vocabulary out of context. Additionally, they did not use a variety of teaching methods and strategies. The study suggests that teachers should teach vocabulary in a meaningful context such as in storytelling. Further, teachers should use a variety of instructional methods when teaching vocabulary (Hestetræet, 2015).

This teacher cognition research project aims to contribute to research on the relationship between teacher cognition and vocabulary teaching to YLL in particular, as well as to that of literacy teaching and English as (L2). It has also aimed to provide an insight into the current situation of vocabulary teaching at Norwegian primary level schools.

1.3 Outline of the thesis

Following this chapter, Chapter two, 'Teaching Context', first explains the status of English in Norway, Secondly, it explores and considers the English subject curriculum.

Chapter 3, "Theory", presents the theoretical structure for the study. The first section is the introduction, the second section of the chapter discusses teacher cognition. The definition of teacher cognition and the constructs of teacher cognition that is: *Cognition and prior language learning experience. Teacher cognition and the impact of teacher education. Teacher cognition and classroom practice.* And finally, *In-Service language teachers and reported practice.* Thereafter, a section has been included about the vocabulary due to its importance in acquiring a second language, followed by subsections about the nature of vocabulary which explains high-frequency words, mid-frequency words, low-frequency words that are seen as necessary to gain an overview of the most important words that encounter the pupils repeatedly or rarely. Furthermore, in order to be familiar with the vocabulary which has the greatest value for learners. The fourth section is about young learners. The term is explained because it is very general. Additionally, the factors that help young learners to acquire a second language are presented. The fifth section is about Vygotsky's theory. Followed by a section about the incidental learning. In addition to a section about deliberate learning, both the incidental and deliberate learning are introduced, in order to explore the advantages of using the two methods and to explore the key to develop L2 vocabulary. Finally, the last section is about the use of ICT in vocabulary teaching since the ICT tools and programmes are widely used in teaching. Further, to know how these programmes can help young learners acquire a second language.

Chapter four, the first section, gives an account of the nature of qualitative data collection, whereas the next focuses on the semi-structured interview. Then, the subsequent sections elaborate on how the interviews were planned and conducted, present the selection of informants, as well as how the interviews were transcribed. Finally, research ethics, validity and reliability are presented.

Chapter 5, “Results”, presents the data collected from the interview.

Chapter 6, “Discussion”, provides a discussion of the findings.

Chapter 7, “Conclusion”, presents a brief summary of the findings, and suggests directions for further research.

2. Teaching context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter briefly describes the teaching context in which the current research project is situated. The first part presents the status of English in Norway and the new teaching approach that has been evolved due to new needs among learners. Secondly, a description of the English subject curriculum such as the core element, the basic skills and the competence aim.

2.2 The status of English in Norway

There are several aspects about English in Norway, English is taught from first grade and it is a compulsory school subject for eleven years, this indicates that English literacy is built and advanced alongside Norwegian literacy (Rindal,2020:28). Further, “competence in English is taken for granted” in Norway (Lefever,2012: 98). Some research (Hellekjær, 2012) demonstrates an increased use of English in Norway within and outside educational setting. As a result English in Norway is “neither a foreign language nor a second language the status of English in Norway, including in the English school subject, seems to be *in transition*” (Rindal, 2013) cited in (Rindal,2020: 31). Norway is ‘in transition from EFL to L2 status’ (Graddol, 2000: 11). Therefore, “English remains in between” (Rindal,2020: 31) because of this transitional situation, the term “L2 English” will be used to refer to English as “an additional language” (Rindal,2020: 32). In this thesis, the term “L2” will be used also which refer to the status of English in Norway.

A new teaching approach has evolved, as a reaction to the new needs among learners whom EFL and ESL pedagogy may no longer be a good choice, such the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, “emphasizing communicative competence and cultural pragmatic knowledge” (Rindal,2020: 34). In language teaching the communicative approach begins from a theory of “language as communication” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 69). The term communicative competence was invented by (Hymes ,1972) which requires the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of language with the skill to use this knowledge. The basic goal of the CLT approach is that learners learn to communicate in English, which requires the competence to select suitable language forms depending on the context, as well as the “skills to

strengthen intelligibility (i.e. make oneself understood)” (Rindal,2020:34). CLT has had a significant influence on the English school subject in Norway, taken into consideration teaching students to speak in English (Simensen, 2011).

2.3 Teaching vocabulary in the old English subject curriculum

At the time of conducting the interview all teachers in the present study were following the aims of the old curriculum (LK06/13) and they looked at the new curriculum (LK20) or partly started following the aims of the new curriculum. Therefore it was necessary to include both the old curriculum and the new one.

The importance of the English language is considered in the old curriculum as a “universal language” (LK06/13, 2006/2013 English version: 2). This language is necessary for communication. The curriculum emphasized learning this subject in different contexts. Therefore, there was a need to “develop a vocabulary and skills in using the systems of the English language, its phonology, orthography, grammar and principles for sentence and text construction and to be able to adapt the language to different topics and communication situations” (LK06/13, 2006/2013 English version: 2). Here the curriculum sheds light on the role of learning English vocabulary and skills in order to adjust the language into different communication contexts at the same time it reflects communicative language teaching. Additionally, the English subject according to the old curriculum “will enable the pupils to communicate with others on personal, social, literary and interdisciplinary topics. The subject shall help build up general language proficiency through listening, speaking, reading and writing, and provide the opportunity to acquire information and specialized knowledge through the English language”. (LK06/13, 2006/2013, English version: 2).

The main subject areas of the English subject “language learning, oral communication, written communication, and culture, society and literature” (LK06/13, 2006/2013, English version: 3-4).

Furthermore, developing vocabulary is mentioned clearly with regards to the following two main subject areas:

“Oral communication”

“The main subject area involves developing a vocabulary and using idiomatic structures and grammatical patterns when speaking and conversing. It also covers learning to speak clearly and to use the correct intonation” (LK06/13, 2006/2013, English version: 3).

“Written communication”

“The main subject area involves developing a vocabulary and using orthography, idiomatic structures and grammatical patterns when writing. It also covers creating structure, coherence and concise meaning in texts” (LK06/13, 2006/2013, English version: 4).

On other hand, the curriculum put special emphasis on the “the use of different media and resources and the development of a linguistic repertoire across subjects and topics are also key elements of the main subject area”. (LK06/13, 2006/2013, English version: 3-4).

In the competence aims after year two, the pupils are expected to:

“give examples of situations where it might be useful to have some English language skills. find words and phrases that are common to English and one’s native language. use digital resources in experiencing the language” (LK06/13, 2006/2013 English version: 5).

In other words, the pupils after year two should have some English language skills and should be able to use the digital tools in practicing the language.

In the competence aims of oral communication after year two, the notion of listening is emphasized, and the pupils are expected to:

“listen for and use English phonemes through practical-aesthetic forms of expression. listen to and understand basic instructions in English. listen to and understand words and expressions in English nursery rhymes, word games, songs, fairy tales and stories”. (LK06/13, 2006/2013 , English version: 6).

Additionally, the concept of incidental learning is implied here through the use of “nursery rhymes, word games, songs, fairy tales and stories”.

The pupils after year two are expected to be able to understand the language and to use the language at the same time:

understand and use some English words, expressions and sentence patterns related to local surroundings and own interests · greet people, ask and respond to simple questions and use some polite expressions · participate in simple rehearsed dialogues and spontaneous conversations related to local surroundings and own experiences · use figures in conversation about local surroundings and own experiences (LK06/13, 2006/2013, English version: 6).

The notion of using pictures, music, nursery rhymes, word games, songs, fairy tales and stories is reflected in the competence aims after year two in order for the pupils to be able to experience the language and the culture of English-speaking countries at the same time using them will promote incidental learning for pupils and make the learning experience fun and interesting for them.

converse about aspects of the day-to-day life of children in English-speaking countries · participate in and experience children's culture from English-speaking countries through words, pictures, music and movement · express own experiences from English nursery rhymes, word games, songs, fairy tales and stories. (LK06/13, 2006/2013, English version: 6).

2.4 Teaching vocabulary in the new English subject curriculum

The recent English curriculum (LK20), part of the Norwegian National Curriculum is to be “valid from 01.08.2020” (LK20, 2019, English version :1). The relevance and the central value of English is reflected in the English subject curriculum. The curriculum states “English is an important subject when it comes to cultural understanding, communication, [...]. The subject shall give the pupils the foundation for communicating with others, both locally and globally”, (LK20, 2019, English version: 2) According to (Rindal,2020, p:23), English is an international language for communication, therefore it is essential that the school subject concentrates on this role when teaching both school subject and when improving students' language skills.

The core elements of the English subject curriculum are “communication, language learning, and working with text in English” (LK20, 2019, English version: 2-3). Again, the importance of “communication” is mentioned as one of the core elements of English subject, additionally in the element of “language learning” the notion of “learning vocabulary and word structure” are mentioned in the sense that it gives the pupils more options to interact and help them to communicate, reflecting this statement, “learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language”. Schmitt (2008: 329).

According to the English curriculum, the pupils are expected to have competences after year two such as, “listen to and explore the English alphabet and pronunciation patterns through play and singing” (LK20, 2019, English version:1). This clearly implies that the pupils will have this competence incidentally through play and singing. The use of songs is generally considered a valuable teaching method in EFL classrooms (Murphey 1992; Fonseca-Mora 2000). Moreover, the use of songs is considered as one of the “resources which can engage children’s attention and highlight the target lexis or language patterns to be learnt” (Coyle and Gracia, 2014:277). The sounds, rhythm, and intonation in songs are considered to be essential to the development of pronunciation skills for children, whereas the melody and repetitive structure help promote the memorization of key vocabulary and language patterns (Forster 2006). Further, according to the English subject curriculum the pupils are expected to “listen to and recognize phonemes and syllables in words” and to “associate phonemes with letters and spelling patterns and combine letter sounds into words” (LK20, 2019, English version:5). Webb argues, (2020:228) If words are heard frequently in aural input, learners are likely to learn their various spoken forms and at least acquire some knowledge of their written forms. In addition, pupils are expected to “listen to, read and talk about the content of simple texts, including picture books” (LK20, 2019, English version:5). Mourao explains that with “picturebook young learners are given a multitude of opportunities to use language that represents the picture and the words and interpretations created from the two modes coming together” (Mourao, 2015, p. 214). The repetitive content of the picturebooks helps the learners to be acquainted with authentic language. Furthermore, the stories in picture books are rich with chunks. (Kersten 2015, p. 138). Additionally, the English subject curriculum emphasizes that learners themselves must “use digital aids to experience the language through authentic language models and interlocutors” (LK20, 2019, English version:5). According to (Hestetræet, 2018, 229), ICT can be used to promote both deliberate and incidental vocabulary learning. A study by Schmid and Whyte (2015: 252) explored the use of the whiteboard and videoconferencing between young learners in primary schools in Germany and France. They illustrate how the use of ICT enhanced the meaning focused output. One more aim according to the English subject curriculum is that pupils are expected to “learn words and acquire cultural knowledge through English-language literature for children” (LK20, 2019, English version:5). English-language literature for children includes using children’s story According to Hestetræet (2018:228) “oral stories contain short sentences and are rich in repetitive vocabulary and formulaic language and therefore offer plentiful exposures and recycling of vocabulary”. This

implies learning a lot of vocabulary and reflects the importance of learning vocabulary in language learning. Furthermore, it is stated that pupils are expected to be able to “find high frequency words and phrases in different types of texts” (LK20, 2019, English version:5). Distinguishing several levels of vocabulary through the use of “frequency and range of occurrence” is helpful to ensure that students learn vocabulary in the most appropriate order and in this way, they get the utmost advantage from the vocabulary they learn. Nation (2013: 9) Moreover, "different words have different values for learners; these values are typically indicated by their frequency in the language [...] More frequent words tend to have greater value than less frequent words, because they are more likely to be needed for communication". Webb and Nation (2017: 6).

Finally, the fourth basic skills according to the English subject curriculum are “oral skills, writing, reading and digital skills” (LK20, 2019, English version:4).

Ultimately, the English subject curriculum puts special emphasis on learning vocabulary and phrases from authentic language models and promote to a large extent incidental way of learning and teaching such as learning vocabulary from using (play, singing, picturebook, English language literature for children and digital aids to meet authentic language and communicate with English language speakers). The importance of the aural input is also emphasized in the English subject curriculum the phrase *listen to is* mentioned several times, reflecting research as, Nagy and Herman (1987:24) claim that “Written context will, therefore, generally not be as rich or helpful as oral context in providing information about the meanings of new words”. Moreover, Webb argues, (2020:228) If words are heard frequently in aural input, learners are likely to learn their various spoken forms and at least acquire some knowledge of their written forms. Ellis (1999) states, “inferencing may be a more effective mechanism of acquisition when the input is oral than when it is written [...] In addition to the cues provided by the verbal text itself, there are other cues available from the intonation and gestures used by the speaker and from the situational context.”. (Ellis 1999: 37).

3 Theory

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical framework of this study about English teachers' beliefs and reported practices concerning vocabulary teaching to young learners. Theory about teaching and learning vocabulary and teacher cognition were included. After the first section which is the introduction, the second section explains teacher cognition. The definition of teacher cognition and the constructs of teacher cognition is: *Cognition and prior language learning experience. Teacher cognition and the impact of teacher education. Teacher cognition and classroom practice.* And finally, *In-Service language teachers and reported practice.* The third section is about the vocabulary and its importance in acquiring a second language, followed by subsections about high-frequency words, mid-frequency words, low-frequency words that are seen as necessary to gain an overview of the most important words that the pupils encounter repeatedly or rarely. Furthermore, the vocabulary, that is of the greatest value to young learners will be discussed. The fourth section is about young learners, the term will be explained, moreover the factors and the suitable activities that help young learners to acquire a second language are presented. This is followed by a section about Vygotsky's theory. In addition, theories about incidental and deliberate learning and teaching will be discussed in the following section, in order to explore the advantages of using the two methods and to explore the strategy to develop L2 vocabulary. Finally, the last section is about the use of ICT in vocabulary teaching since the ICT tools and programs are widely used in teaching, further, to know how these programs can help young learners acquire a second language.

3.2 Teacher cognition

3.2.1 The definition of teacher cognition and the reasons for exploring teacher cognition

In order to introduce what teacher cognition is about, a definition is useful. The following definition by Borg (2009:163) is frequently used to explain teacher cognition. According to Borg (2009:163), the study of teacher cognition focuses on what the teachers "think, know, and believe" concerning their practices in classrooms. He states that second and foreign (L2) language

teacher cognition research is a new event that arose in the mid-1990s and has developed quickly. Borg (2009:163) argues that an important reason for the increase of teacher cognition research, has been the awareness that we cannot accurately understand teachers and teaching without understanding “the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs” that affect the teachers’ practices in the classrooms. Furthermore, Borg (2003:81) indicates that the current educational research in the last 25 years realized the effect of teacher cognition on teachers’ career and this has brought into existence a fundamental body of research.

Within teacher cognition research the relationship between beliefs and practices is often studied. The justifications for exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices according to (Borg:2017: 78) are: (1) Assisting teachers in recognizing discrepancies between their beliefs and practices stimulates cognitive inconsistency that can motivate teacher change. (2) Understanding into teachers' beliefs and practices will reveal how much teachers' cognitions and work represent good practice as outlined in the literature. (3) Exploring beliefs and practices (as well as the factors that may cause gaps between them) as part of educational innovation gives insight into the extent to which the innovation is having the expected effect. Borg (2017) presents an example that is relevant for vocabulary teaching about this situation; if a new curriculum emphasizes explicit knowledge of word formation for learners but this is not reflected in what teachers do, an examination of their beliefs about learning vocabulary may be beneficial.(4) In cases where teachers' practices are found inefficient, examining their beliefs will aid in understanding the reasons for these practices.(5) Understanding the relationship between beliefs and practices has consequences for pre-service teacher education program design. (6) The relationship between beliefs and practices is important in itself, and it needs to be better understood. (7) Another argument that may support the study of beliefs and practices is that when the two are coherent, teaching becomes more efficient, thus finding inconsistency allows for it to be corrected. The justifications for examining the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices are seen and discussed in terms of advantages for classroom practice, teacher education and improvement, and educational development and the curriculum development. Furthermore, research into beliefs and practices may be justified in more theoretical terms (Borg:2017: 78).

Studying beliefs helps us to gain a better understanding of teachers and their practices, as well as aiding educational reform (Skott, 2014). Insights into teachers' beliefs is also beneficial to

the process of promoting teacher learning. (Borg:2017: 75). The study of beliefs in social psychology has shown that they are not always good predictors of behaviour (Stainton Rogers, 2011). One clear reason for this is that beliefs are just one of many factors that influence behaviour. Critical social psychologists go even further, rejecting the idea that beliefs and behaviours should be coherent and instead seeing inconsistency as a more natural state of affairs (Gross, 2015).

According to Borg (2009), Teachers' beliefs may be affected by teachers' own experiences as learners and are well developed by the time teachers enter university. Furthermore, beliefs act as a lens through which teachers explain new information and experience. In addition, beliefs may exceed the impacts of teacher education in shaping what teachers do in the classroom. Beliefs have the potential to have a long-term impact on teachers' classroom practice. Moreover, beliefs affect practices and practices can also cause changes in beliefs. Finally, beliefs “are, at the same time, not always reflected in what teachers do in the classroom” (Borg:2017: 75).

There are different ways of defining beliefs. First, beliefs are defined as “all that one accepts or wants to be true” Murphy and Mason (2006: 306) cited in (Borg:2017: 76). Sigel (1985) defined beliefs as "mental constructions of experience-often condensed and integrated into schemata or concepts" (p. 351) cited in Pajares' (1992: 313). Skott (2014) suggests that different definitions of beliefs emphasize four core components based on an analysis of multiple perspectives: (1) they refer to ideas that people hold to be true, (2) they have mental and affective dimensions, (3) they are firm and are the result of significant social experiences, (4) They have an impact on practice.

There are some previous studies into teacher cognition about vocabulary. For example, a study by (Gao and Ma 2011) explores pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs about vocabulary learning and teaching in Hong Kong and on the Chinese mainland since the cognition of language teachers in terms of learning and teaching is crucial in shaping their actual behaviour and decisions during the process of learning and teaching, (Borg 2003 in Gao and Ma, 2011). And in order for the teacher education programmes can better prepare teachers for the essential role of vocabulary teaching. (Borg 2006 in Gao and Ma 2011).

The questionnaire; open-ended questions into the essence of vocabulary learning and teaching, as well as in-depth narrative interviews, were used as a mixed approach for the study.

Two hundred and fifty participants took part in the study. The researchers found considerable variation between Hong Kong and mainland Chinese participants' beliefs, reflecting the contextual value of their beliefs. The quantitative analysis showed that Hong Kong participants put a greater emphasis on memorizing vocabulary than their mainland Chinese peers, while mainland Chinese participants placed a greater emphasis on learning vocabulary through use. The majority of the participants explained this finding as a reaction to observed unavailability of linguistic sources and opportunities in their individual learning contexts. In this study the contextual situations shaped the participants' beliefs, for example, the significance of lexical knowledge in vocabulary learning was stressed by Hong Kong pre-service participants, which could be explained by the fact that their previous vocabulary learning experiences had been controlled by repetitive "dictation" activities. They were discontented with their dictation exercises, to which they had dedicated a great deal of time and effort, and which had provided them with little vocabulary knowledge. Their discontent also explained why they were more concerned about the teacher's vocabulary teaching method. The mainland Chinese pre-service participants were dissatisfied with the scarcity of chances to experience and use their newly learned vocabulary. As a result, they requested more effective methods to aid their vocabulary learning efforts.

Obviously, both Hong Kong and Chinese mainland participants tended to have focused on their own experiences and were bent on figuring out their own ways to learn or teach vocabulary more effectively. In response to some of the pre-service participants' expectations found in the study, one potential approach is to work on improving their vocabulary learning strategies and regulating their vocabulary learning efforts.

The basic questions in teacher cognition research according to Borg (2003) include the following: "what do teachers have cognitions about? How do these cognitions develop? How do they interact with teacher learning? How do they interact with classroom practice?" (Borg 2003:81). Borg (2003:81) explains some answers to these questions in figure 1. The figure shows that teachers' cognitions are formed by constructs such as schooling (extensive experience of classrooms), professional coursework, classroom practice, and contextual factors that may cause a discrepancy between cognition and practice. It is within this framework the language teacher cognition research has appeared.

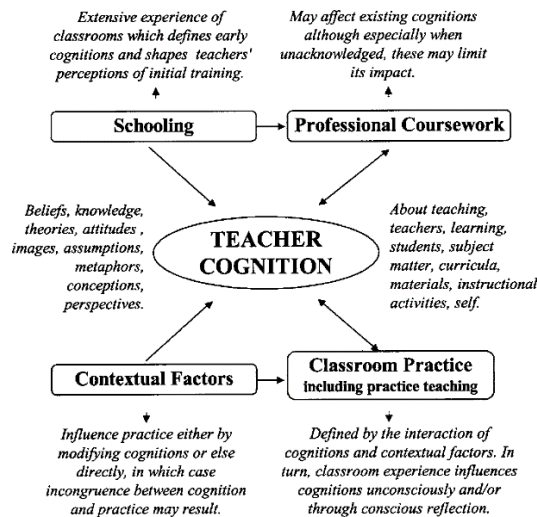


Figure 1 Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice (Borg 2003:82).

3.2. 2 Constructs of teacher cognition

In this section the constructs are explained considering previous research. Even though, the first and the second construct are not a main focus in this study. They are included here since they are central to understand areas in teacher cognition. Borg (2003:86) discusses language teacher cognition with reference to three main themes: (1) cognition and prior language learning experience, (2) cognition and teacher education, and (3) cognition and classroom practice. (4) (Borg, 2015) in service language teacher’s cognition and reported practices.

1. *Cognition and prior language learning experience*

According to Borg (2003:87), there is an influence on teachers’ cognition that results from their experience as learners. During this stage they learn a lot about teaching, and this is according to Lortie (1975) in Borg (2003) called their “apprenticeship of observation”. The research with language teacher demonstrates this impact. For example, Baily (1996) illustrates how the role of language learning history influences the present teaching philosophies and practices of seven MA candidates and a teacher educator through examining their autobiographical writing and reflection on it. Therefore, many aspects were specified related to teaching and learning situations which had made their own language learning experiences positive, for

example, 1. The methodology used by the teacher is not as important as the teacher personality and style. 2. Teachers were devoted and paid attention to the students. 3. Both the teachers and the students respected each other. 4. The reason that enables the students to overcome the inadequacy and deficiency in the teaching was their motivation to learn. 5. The positive classroom environment makes learning easier for the students. By analyzing their experience in this way, the author of this study felt that they recognize their theories of teaching and this is similar to a study by Freeman (1992) that the memories of instruction acquired through the learning stage work as a guide for the teachers in the classrooms.

On the other hand, Johnson (1994) and Numrich (1996) clarify how previous experience relates to classroom practice. Johnson found that preservice teachers' pedagogical decisions during a practicum were based on images of teachers, materials, activities, and classroom organization originated by their own experiences as second language (L2) learners. She concludes that "preservice ESL teachers' beliefs may be based largely on images from their formal language learning experiences, and in all likelihood, will represent their dominant model of action during the practicum teaching experience" (Johnson 1994:450). When working with junior teachers, Numrich (1996) in Borg (2003) found that teachers determined to encourage or to avert specific pedagogical strategies on the basis of their positive or negative experiences of these particular strategies as learners. For instance, 27 percent of the teachers have recorded in their journals that they tried to incorporate a cultural aspect into their classroom instructions since their L2 learning experience was interesting when the cultural aspect was part of their past learning experiences. On the other hand, teachers said that they avert teaching grammar and correcting errors as a result of their unpleasant experience with these forms of L2 instructions.

On the other hand, according to Borg (2003:88), studies of practicing teachers give more support for the belief that prior learning experiences shape teachers' cognitions and instructional decisions. For instance, Woods (1996) in Borg(2003) states about a teacher whose beliefs about L2 learning were affected by her experience, thus after years of formal education in French she was not able to use the language for communication while after six months in the company of French speakers she was able to do so. Thus, this teacher has established convictions about the supremacy of communication methods in the promotion of L2 learning over grammar-based methods. The general idea here according to Borg "is that teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their

initial conceptualisations of L2 teaching during teacher education, and which may continue to be influential throughout their professional lives” Borg(2003: 88).

2. Teacher cognition and the impact of teacher education

According to Brookhart and Freeman (1992) in Borg (2003), educational research has demonstrated that at the beginning of teacher education programs students may have unsuitable, impractical or simple understandings of teaching and learning. Studies by Cumming (1989) and Brown & McGannon (1998) demonstrate this point in the field of language teaching. Cumming examined student teachers’ conceptions of curriculum and he asked them to produce a representational diagram to outline the curriculum decisions they would consider to be most important in teaching an ESL course. He concluded that the diagrams produced by the student teachers were generally inappropriate in terms of the relationships they placed between theoretical and practical issues, the way different elements of the curriculum were linked and arranged, and the relative emphasis they placed on specific elements.

Regarding the impact of teacher education on teacher cognition an example, is a qualitative study conducted by Richards, Ho & Giblin (1996) in Hong Kong which explores five pre-service teachers and illustrates how the trainees' thinking, beliefs, and knowledge do change during their initial training concerning issues such as their understanding of their function in the classroom and their knowledge of academic communication. Moreover, he found that this change of cognition varied among the trainees with each explaining the course in personal ways based on their experiences, beliefs, and presumptions about themselves, teachers, teaching, and learning.

Other studies that illustrate how cognition changes in language teacher education, are, two questionnaire-based studies by MacDonald, Badger & White (2001) which explored the impact on students’ beliefs of courses in second language acquisition (SLA). When they analyze the responses to the same questionnaire before and after the course, the authors discovered evidence of change in participants' beliefs about second language acquisition. However, according to Borg (2009:166), this change in the pre and post-course questionnaire responses is not evidential of any actual cognitive change because it is probable that students at the end of the course answer these questions in a way that matches up

with their course and their tutors would agree on. As a result, according to Borg (2009:166) “pre- and post-course belief questionnaires should be interpreted cautiously if they are the sole source of evidence about the impact of preservice teacher education on trainees' cognitions”.

According to Borg (2003:91), individual trainees have various and unusual ways of making sense of and being influenced by training programs. Therefore, more longitudinal research of the development of individual trainees in teacher education programs should be encouraged. Moreover, he states that differentiating behavioral change from cognitive change during or as a result of teacher education, and the relationships between the two, is crucial to continuing research on this topic. Behavioral change does not mean cognitive change, and the latter does not guarantee behavioral changes either. Finally, Borg (2003: 91), mentions that these studies vary in what is considered to be evidence of cognition and cognitive change. Questionnaire responses, repertory grids, and in-depth interview responses, for example, are very different forms of data, and the extent to which these and other forms of data can capture the content, structure, and change processes of cognitive phenomena is clearly an issue for continuing methodological discussion.

3. Teacher cognition and classroom practice

According to Borg (2009:166), There is a common interest to understand “the beliefs, knowledge, and thoughts” that shape the instructional practices of teachers. Moreover, the purpose of the research on practicing teachers is to find out what language teachers do and recognize what cognition - “beliefs, knowledge, thoughts”- promotes these practices. Moreover, Borg (2003:91), states that the findings from mainstream research generally indicate that the classroom activities of language teachers are influenced by a broad variety of interacting and sometimes contradictory influences. Nevertheless, the cognitions of teachers often emerge as a powerful influence on their practices, although in the end, these practices do not necessarily represent the specific beliefs, personal theories, and pedagogical principles of teachers.

Furthermore, Borg (1998) in Borg (2003:94) indicates that many studies show that teachers' practices are also influenced by school and classroom social, psychological and environmental realities (this fact is also illustrated in the context set out in figure 1).

Such elements include the requirements of parents, teachers, school, culture, curriculum standards, classroom and school arrangements, school policy, colleagues, standardized testing, and resource

availability. These factors can also restrict the ability of language teachers to follow practices that represent their beliefs. Additionally, not having enough time also considered as one of the contextual factors that may contradict with teacher cognition (Borg, 2003:94). A study by Crookes & Arakaki (1999) in Borg (2003) found clear proof that stressful working environments had an influence on what language teachers did; in their research, teachers had to deal with intense workloads (about 50 hours per week), which restricted their time for preparing suitable activity for learners. This had a strong influence on the pedagogical choices of teachers.

4. In-Service language teachers' cognitions and reported practices.

According to Borg (2015:94), a group of studies (Richard (1992), Flores (2001)) aims to illustrate the cognitions of experienced language teachers without, however, examining observed practice in the classroom. The questionnaire is the main tool for collecting data in these studies. An example is a study by Richard (1992) which examined the beliefs and reported practices of 249 secondary school teachers of English in Hong Kong using a research tradition on teaching culture.

Their experience was almost seven years. The findings represent a range of issues that language teachers believe in such as views of the ESL curriculum, views of language and language teaching, views of classroom practices, views of the teacher's role and views of the profession. The examination of the questionnaire responses concentrated on the relationships between the experience and training of teachers on the one hand, and their beliefs and practices on the other. Many experienced and qualified teachers varied from those with less in three fields: Their views on the goals and methodology of language teaching in Hong Kong; several aspects of their practice in the classroom and their views on professional support and professional development; For example, novice and untrained teachers reported being more likely to think that grammatical language theories are beneficial to language teaching than experienced and trained teachers and that writing is the most important skill in both elementary and secondary schools. Experienced teachers also thought that training and in-service support are most important to their teaching; novice teachers said their personal teaching philosophy is most significant. Concerning classroom practices, teachers' reports of what they do or prefer indicated the presence of two distinct language teaching orientations: functional and grammar based. For example, the former group reported using audiotapes and pair and group work more frequently, while the latter reported using written grammar exercises more

frequently. Generally, the study identified a relationship between the goals, values, and beliefs of the teachers and their teaching experience, training and reported language teaching approaches. Such results are therefore also important for the comparison of novices and expert language teachers.

Another example is a study by Flores (2001) who examined 176 bilingual educators' beliefs and asked them to report on their practices through interviews. However, he did not conduct any direct observations in classrooms. Still, the relationships between beliefs and practices have been examined. Flores used an instrument called the Survey of Epistemology and Teaching Practices for Bilingual Teachers (SBTETP) Based on Schommer's work (1990) on the dimensions of epistemological beliefs. Most bilingual education teachers' results indicate that they realized the significance of language and culture in knowledge acquisition. Moreover, their beliefs seem to be socially formed. If bilingual teachers have conscious, mutual ethnic identity, they are likely to understand their bilingual learners' needs instinctively. Therefore, it is important to have bilingual teachers, particularly those with conscious, and mutual ethnic identity as an example for language minority children. Other findings show that there was proof that beliefs are not static, but dynamic. Furthermore, the beliefs were subject to adjustment and change because they were affected by teacher education programs. These programs shaped bilingual teachers' belief that learning is gradual and that language, culture, and cognition are connected processes in knowledge development. Finally, this research reported an important correspondence between the stated beliefs and the reported practices of bilingual teachers.

According to Borg (2015:100), both Richards (1992) and Flores (2001) propose a relationship between the stated beliefs of the teachers and their reported practices. Nevertheless, this does not mean that teachers have properly reported their practices, or that their actual practices are compatible with their beliefs. Especially in the Hong Kong context, many studies indicate that contextual factors can affect what teachers do, generating discrepancies between their beliefs and real practices (e.g. Pennington and Richards, 1997; Tsui, 1996).

On the other hand, as Borg (2015: 101) states, several factors affect the teachers' beliefs in the studies discussed here. Previous language learning experience, the period of experience on teaching, type of formal education, and participation in professional associations were four

that were illustrated (Flores, 2001; Richards et al., 1992). However, there is not any obvious tendency regarding the effect of experience and qualification on teachers' cognition in the studies discussed here, a variety of aspects have been proposed in terms of possible impacts on teachers' beliefs. No specific patterns were apparent in the studies (e.g. regarding the effect on teachers' cognition of experience and qualifications). The effect of teachers' associations is not a factor that has been emphasized in language teacher cognition research and may provide an important subject for further research.

3.3. Vocabulary

According to Lin & Morrison (2010), vocabulary knowledge is an important part of language learning. One essential requirement for successful language learning is the acquisition of certain levels and qualities of lexical knowledge, which is a strong indicator of language proficiency and even academic achievement for learners. Thus, "learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language". Schmitt (2008: 329). However, it is impossible to teach or learn all the words in a language because there is a large amount of them. Therefore, some vocabulary needs to be emphasized and given priority (Lozdiene and Schmitt, 2020:81).

3.3.1 Relative value of vocabulary

According to Nation (2013: 9) distinguishing several levels of vocabulary through the use of "frequency and range of occurrence" is helpful to ensure that students learn vocabulary in the most appropriate order and in this way, they get the utmost advantage from the vocabulary they learn. Moreover, "different words have different values for learners; these values are typically indicated by their frequency in the language [...] More frequent words tend to have greater value than less frequent words, because they are more likely to be needed for communication" Webb and Nation (2017: 6).

3.3.2 Counting words

Nation (2013:9) states that there are many ways of counting words, that is, determining what will be counted for example, tokens, types, lemmas, and word families. According to Lozdiene and Schmitt (2020:83), at present, most studies and frequency lists depend on the word family as a unit of counting. “A word family consists of a headword (for example, *assume*), its inflections (*assumes, assumed, assuming*), and its derivations (*unassuming, unassumingly*)” Webb and Nation (2017: 7). Furthermore, Ward and Chuenjundaeng (2009) state that we need to be careful in thinking that learners know the family members of word families. Their study of Thai university students with a low competence demonstrated that the ability of students to see the relationship between stems and derived forms was very restricted. Moreover, Lozdiene and Norbert Schmitt (2020: 84), point out that there are also two more problems concerning word families. The first is technical: word family lists are harder to automatically compute than lists dependent on lemmas or word forms. The second is more didactic. Teachers and learners (and even researchers) may misunderstand figures dependent on word families when using research outcomes (e.g., word lists, learning targets), and merely comprehend them as "individual words" (Lozdiene and Schmitt 2020: 84) this may bring about a confusing sense of the necessary vocabulary learning desired and needed. However, Nation (2013:11), points out that the key issue, when counting using word families as the unit, is determining what should and should not be included in a word family. The concept of prefixes and suffixes grows for the learners as they acquire more language experience. What may be a reasonable word family for one learner will go beyond the current level of competence of another learner. Because of all these factors and problems, word families tend to be a useful counting unit when dealing with responsive knowledge and experienced learners or even native speakers. But they do not adequately work with all the different language learners in all the cases. Thus, as Kremmel (2016) states lately there have been proposals to shift from word families to lemmas as counting units.

Lemmas can be described as “words with a common stem related by inflection only and coming from the same part of speech” (Gardner & Davies, 2014, p. 4) For example, *accept* and its inflections *accepts, accepted, accepting*. The reason behind the use of lemma as the unit of counting is the concept of “learning burden” by (Swenson and West, 1934) in Nation (2013:10). “The learning burden of an item is the amount of effort required to learn it” Nation (2013:10). When learners can use the inflectional system the learning burden is insignificant. One

issue to be dealt with when forming lemmas is determining what will be done with irregular forms, whether they should be included as an element of the same lemma as their base word, or should they be set into separate lemmas? Moreover, according to Sinclair, 1999; 41-2) another problem with lemma is to determine how to choose the headword of the lemma, is it the base form or the most frequent form? On the other hand, according to Nation (2013: 10), “using the lemma greatly reduces the number of units in a corpus”. Finally, as Lozdienė and Norbert Schmitt (2020: 85) state “Overall, it is obvious that both lemmas and word families have limitations, so at the moment there is no way to strongly favor one or the other.” Further, Nation (2013: 11), points out that choosing the unit when counting depends on the purpose of counting, and thus it must be the most appropriate for that purpose.

3.3.3 High frequency words

According to Webb and Nation (2017: 10), there is a rich history of study aimed at defining the most frequent English words (Carroll, Davis, & Richman, 1971; Francis & Kucera, 1982; Leech, Rayson, & Wilson, 2001; Swenson & West, 1934; Thordike & Lorge, 1944, West, 1953) these are studies listed by Webb & Nation (2017:10). Although the frequency is not the only criteria for determining the most valuable words to learn (the learner's needs and motivation are also important), it may be the most significant. High frequency words are defined as “vocabulary that is frequent across a range of spoken and written text types. The 2,000 highest-frequency word families typically account for about 70-90% of the words in a text and represent an important learning target” (Webb and Nation 2017: 278). Webb and Nation (2017: 10), point out that Michael West's General Service List (GSL) (1953) is the best-known study of high-frequency words. West established a word list of almost 2,000-word families, mainly by calculating each word's occurrence in a five-million-word corpus of written texts. Even though West was not the first to make a frequency list in this way, his was the most comprehensive and enduring. His accomplishment is also especially remarkable, as it was achieved without electronic assistance. His goal as an English language teacher was to list the words that would be most useful for learners, so different criteria such as “ease of learning” and “necessity” were also used to choose items. According to Webb and Nation (2017: 10) “Studies have since shown that these 2,000-word families account for 71.5-89.6% of the vocabulary in a wide range of discourse types

(Brezina & Gablasova, 2015; Coxhead & Hirsh, 2007; Hyland & Tse, 2007; Nation & Hwang, 1995; Nation 2004a)". Due to the large degree of lexical coverage that GSL offers, it has been broadly used as a preliminary step for vocabulary learning. Lexical coverage can be defined as "the percentage of known words. Usually referred to in relation to learners with varying vocabulary sizes" Webb and Nation (2017:280). Depending on vocabulary found in the 1930s texts, it contains words that are much less common today such as "telegraph" and omits more prevalent words like "computer" and "internet."

Webb and Nation (2017: 10) point out that three important lists of high-frequency vocabulary have been published in recent years. The first is the British National Corpus (BNC) lists (Nation, 2006), that may best be defined as being descriptive of vocabulary used mainly in formal written texts in the UK. The second is the British National Corpus / Corpus of Contemporary American English (BNC / COCA) lists (Nation, 2012), which are reflective of the words used in both spoken and written English in the UK and the USA. The third is the new-General Service List (new-GSL) (Brezina and Gablasova, 2015). Because of the corpora that it was taken from, it is maybe a more direct representation of written English than spoken English. Though there is a significant degree of similarity between the three lists, there is a reasonable degree of differences as well. Among the three lists, Thi Ngoc Yen Dang and Stuart Webb (2016) found that the 2,000 most frequently used words in the BNC / COCA lists (Nation, 2012a) seemed to represent the largest proportion of English. That implies that if one of the three were to be used as a whole, that one would give learners the highest value. Nevertheless, they also noticed that each of the lists contained items that might not have deserved being considered high frequency. Besides, when the items in the lists were classified according to their frequency in nine corpora of spoken English and nine corpora of written English, it was concluded that the new-GSL included the highest number of very frequent items. They also noticed, however, that each of the lists contained items that might not have deserved being considered high frequency. Also, when the item in the lists was classified in nine corpora of spoken English and nine corpora of written English according to their frequency, it was found that the new-GSL included the highest number of very frequent items. Therefore, if only a part of a list were to be used, then the new-GSL will have the highest value. Therefore, as Webb and Nation (2017:14) state,

“High-frequency words have the greatest value for language learning, so they deserve attention in the classroom. Knowledge of high- frequency words should then be expanded

and strengthened during the language learning process, because they will be repeatedly encountered in input.”

3.3.4 Mid-frequency words

According to Nation (2013: 18), mid-frequency words usually contain useful, relatively frequent words, many of them put on the high-frequency word list. this group consists of words like “*zoned, pastoral, and pioneering*”. The mid-frequency words are different from the low-frequency words because along with high-frequency words they reflect the amount of vocabulary needed to handle English without requiring external help. Additionally, “Mid-frequency words consist of 7,000-word families from the third to the ninth 1,000.” Nation (2013: 25-26)

3.3.5 Low-frequency words

According to Webb and Nation (2017: 14), the English language contains tens of thousands of low-frequency words. Low-frequency words are defined as “those beyond the most frequent 9,000 words of English.” Nation (2013:28). Further, he states that “any words that are not high frequency are considered to be low frequency.” Webb and Nation (2017: 14). On the other hand, as Webb and Nation (2017:14) argue, making a distinction between high frequency and low frequency is quite beneficial for foreign language learners, who mostly make slight progress in lexical advancement, mainly due to insufficient exposure to L2. With increased exposure to L2, such as in Norway, “as in Norway, competence in English is taken for granted” Lefever (2012:98). Low frequency words become more important.

3.4 Young learners

According to (Ellis 2014: 75) the term young learner is very general and ambiguous because it refers to any child who is under the age of eighteen. Within this age range children go through different psychological stages that affect their intellectual development so, it is important to make a distinction between pre- and post-11- or 12-year-old because every age stage requires different

approaches to teaching. Young learners (YLS) “are those at the pre-primary level, roughly from the age of 3 up to 11 or 12 years old” (Copland & Garton, 2014, p. 224).

Reasons for the focus on the young learners who are under the 12-year-old in the current study include that first: Young children today receive a great degree of media exposure in the English language (Lefever 2012). Additionally, as Copland and Garton (2014:224) point out, several countries have decreased the age at which English is introduced to children along with the spread of English in pre-schools.

There are many factors that play a significant role in making the child acquire a second language such as the social attitudes, individual factors, and the quality of teaching but the most important factor as Copland and Garton point out (2014:225) is the “age-appropriate teaching”. According to Webb and Nation (2017:138), young learners are primarily motivated to acquire and learn new vocabulary through listening rather than reading. While the adults as Krashen (1989) states tend to learn and develop a new vocabulary through reading. Therefore, an important part of the teacher role is to choose age-appropriate methods that support vocabulary learning among the different age groups. Philips, S (1993) proposed that teachers should choose an activity that will sustain a high level of motivation and make English class a fun and promoting experience for the pupils. The activities should be easy, and the task should be within their capabilities. Additionally, she suggests that the activities should be to a large extent oral and a large amount of class time should be devoted to listening activities. For younger children, written tasks should be used rarely because children as young as six or seven years old are often not skilled yet in the mechanics of writing in their native tongue. The types of activities that are suitable for young learners are games, songs, stories, as well as speaking activities, and “total physical response activities, tasks that involve coloring, cutting, and sticking.” Philips, s (1993: 7).

Many English learners have considerable experience using the language outside the classroom by using online games and social media. This kind of using the English language outside of the classroom is referred to as “extramural” English”. (Brevik, Garvoll. Ahmadian,2020:190). As a result, many of pupils start school with prior knowledge of English vocabulary, because of the exposure to English media, for example, many students in Ice land from different age groups have proficiency in the English language before they start at schools. The same situation is reflected in Norway “as in Norway, competence in English is taken for granted” Lefever (2012:98).

It is important for teachers to know what the learners' prior knowledge of English vocabulary is before they start school. Prior Knowledge is defined as "the knowledge, skills, or ability that students bring to the learning process" (Jonassen & Grabowski, 1993, p. 417). Within the scope of cognitive load theory, prior knowledge has an effect on the amount of cognitive resources that learners can use to process information in their working memory (Cook, 2006). The type of prior knowledge may also play a significant role for its impacts on learning. If a learner's prior knowledge is correct, new learning will be promoted and developed upon previous beliefs (Shapiro, 2004). Furthermore, a learner's prior knowledge level influences how much they can gain from teaching (Joseph & Dwyer, 1984).

Learning requires verifying and expanding one's background knowledge which develops "through interaction with people, places, experiences, Internet sources, texts, and content formally taught". (Fisher, Frey and Lapp, 2012: 23). Additionally, Marshall (1996) claims that, "Learning is controlled as much by experiences students bring to the learning situation as it is by the way the information is presented" (Marshall, 1996:81). Teachers would be more accurate in their teaching by starting with what learners already know. Furthermore, fast evaluations of background knowledge warn students about their misunderstandings and may make the content a bit more relevant. The use of background knowledge means getting into the minds of learners (Fisher, Frey and Lapp, 2012: 23).

According to Cameron (2001: 1) "knowledge about children's learning is seen as central to effective teaching. Successful lessons and activities are those that are tuned to the learning needs of pupils rather than to the demands of the next text-book unit, to the interests of the teacher." She differentiates a "learning-centred" perspective from "learner-centred" teaching. Learner-centred teaching, the child becomes the focus of the teacher thinking and the curriculum plan this consider to be an advancement over focusing on the subject or curriculum. Therefore, presenting theories on Children's Language Learning and children's language acquisition is relevant and necessary to effective teaching and learning.

3.5 Vygotsky's Theory

Vygotsky's theory emphasizes the significance of social interaction in cognitive development (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Barton (1994: 132) Vygotsky ideas on how to connect individuals and society have created a whole tradition of socio-cultural studies on learning. Vygotsky argued that "learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human psychological function" (1978, p. 90). This means that, social learning appears to come before development. The theories of Vygotsky highlight the crucial role of social interaction in cognition development (Vygotsky, 1978).

for Vygotsky the child is an active learner in a world full of other people. Those people play important roles in helping children to learn, bringing objects and ideas to their attention, talking while playing and about playing, reading stories, asking questions. In a whole range of ways, adults *mediate* the world for children and make it accessible to them. The ability to learn through instruction and mediation is characteristic of human intelligence. With the help of adults, children can do and understand much more than they can on their own. (Cameron: 2001:6).

Vygotsky introduces the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), that is defined by him as the "difference between the child's developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky's, 1978, p. 85). In other words, Barton (1994: 135) defined the concept as being "the gap between what a child can do unaided and abilities exhibited when supported by social scaffolding. When supported, children can do much more, socially supported activities are learned when they become internalized". This means that there is a difference between what the child can do without support and what the child can do with help and guidance from an experienced partner. Vygotsky also thinks that engaging with peers is a beneficial way to learn new skills and techniques. Within the zone of proximal development, he recommends that teachers use cooperative learning activities in which less capable children develop with the aid of more skilled peers. Vygotsky (1978). According to Barton (1994:134), this is linked to the notion of scaffolding where a more

experienced adult, such as a parent, teachers, may provide assistance and skills to a less experienced person, such as a young child. This assistance encourages a less experienced person to accomplish a mission that is beyond their current capabilities. This is a type of assistance that is withdrawn step by step as the child grows older. As a result, the degree of scaffolding must be continuously adjusted in response to a learner's skills. Adult mediation increasingly decreases, and children become more independent by internalizing the social contact mechanisms.

Vygotsky (1978: 131) argues that learning is fundamentally social process, therefore he affirms communication and the multiple roles that language plays in instruction and in mediated cognitive development. The simple introduction of new material to students through oral lectures does not allow for adult guidance or peer collaboration. To apply the concept of the zone of proximal development in teaching, psychologists and teachers must cooperate in the analysis of the inner ("subterranean") developmental processes which are motivated by teaching and which are required for subsequent learning. "In this theory, then, teaching represents the means through which development is advanced; that is, the socially elaborated contents of human knowledge and the cognitive strategies necessary for their internalization are evoked in the learners-according to their "actual developmental levels" Vygotsky (1978: 131). Furthermore, according to Cameron, Vygotsky's theory can be used in teaching foreign language to children. She stated:

Many of Vygotsky's ideas will help in constructing a theoretical frame-work for teaching foreign languages to children. In deciding what a teacher can do to support learning, we can use the idea that the adult tries to mediate *what next it is the child can learn*; this has applications in both lesson planning and in how teachers talk to pupils minute by minute. (Cameron: 2001:7-8).

3.6 Incidental learning and teaching

According to Ellis (1999:35), research into second language acquisition (SLA) provides a distinction between incidental and deliberate acquisition. On the one side learners have the competence to pick up L2 items and rules even when their primary focus is on seeking to comprehend and convey messages and without any deliberate intent to do that. On the other side, several learners have the capacity to focus their main attention on the language code to be able to learn intentionally new L2 vocabulary and grammar.

However, Ellis argues that the two forms of learning cannot be differentiated purely in terms of 'attention' the difference lies, somewhat, in a secondary difference between 'focal' and 'peripheral' attention; while deliberate learning needs focal attention to be intentionally put on the linguistic code (i.e. on form), incidental learning needs focal attention to be placed on meaning “but allows peripheral attention to be directed at form”. Ellis (1999:36).

On the other hand, Hulstijn, (2001: 267) argues that the term incidental and deliberate learning in the psychological literature returns to the beginning of the 20th century and the two terms can be differentiated simply regarding pre-learning instructions which either warn or do not warn learners that a test will follow. On the other side, Hulstijn, (2001) states that in applied linguistic most vocabulary items are acquired either incidentally that is by-product of the learner being involved in an activity such as listening, reading, speaking, or writing activity, or intentionally “referring to any activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory” (Hulstijn, 2001.270).

3.6.1 Learning from context

The first example of learning vocabulary incidentally is from the context. According to Nation (2013: 348), “incidental learning from context is the most important of all the sources of vocabulary learning”. Moreover, Nation (2013:349) argues that learning vocabulary from context is considered primarily incidental learning. However, there should be an explicit, intentional focus on improving the skills and strategies required to fulfil such learning. Guessing strategies deserve focus among teachers and learners because of their advantages. Accordingly, as Nation (2013: 348) argues, some examples of learning from context are extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversations, and learning from listening to stories, films, television, or the radio. Various studies have shown that incidental vocabulary acquisition can occur through extensive reading. For example, Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985: p. 234) in their study on L1 stated that “Incidental learning from context during free reading is the major mode of vocabulary acquisition during the school years, and the volume of experience with written language, interacting with reading comprehension ability, is the major determinant of vocabulary growth”. However, young learners in first grade cannot read, therefore, the teachers should focus on aural input rather than written input. Moreover, as Ellis (1999) states, “inferencing may be a more effective mechanism of acquisition when the input is oral than when it is written [...] In

addition to the cues provided by the verbal text itself, there are other cues available from the intonation and gestures used by the speaker and from the situational context”(Ellis 1999: 37).

Furthermore, Nagy and Herman (1987:24) claim that “written context will, therefore, generally not be as rich or helpful as oral context in providing information about the meanings of new words”. Moreover, Webb argues, (2020:228) If words are heard frequently in aural input, learners are likely to learn their various spoken forms and at least acquire some knowledge of their written forms. Nevertheless, the knowledge acquired incidentally by the exposure to words in spoken and written input is more likely to be receptive than productive.

On the other side, according to Webb (2020:230), research show that it is more probable for learners to come across L2 spoken input than written input outside of the classroom (Kuppens, 2010; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Peters, 2018). Lindgren and Muñoz (2013) explored the various forms of input being provided to foreign language learners outside the classroom. They reported that young learners listened more frequently to English language songs and watched English-speaking movies with L1 subtitles than reading L2 books. Additionally, Peters (2018) has similar findings that is only 1 % of the EFL learners surveyed replied that they read L2 books in their free time, while over 40 % of the learners answered that they watched English-language television programs and movies many times a week in their free time. However, according to Schmitt (2008: 349), a few studies have examined which listening circumstances are more beneficial to vocabulary learning. Joe (1998) found that just listening effectively to a group conversation could contribute to vocabulary learning. Barcroft, 2001; Barcroft & Sommers, 2005, recommend that writers of materials should integrate enough acoustic variation when introducing L2 vocabulary on audiotapes, videotapes, and computer-based presentation programs because the incidental learning from listening often appears to be better when there are a diversity of speakers and voice types.

3.6.2 Picturebooks

One way to teach vocabulary implicitly is by using picturebooks. “Picturebooks combine text and pictures, and the pictures provide a context that facilitates the comprehension of unfamiliar vocabulary” (Hesteraet, 2018:228). According to Bland (2013), “the visual images in picturebooks are regarded and acknowledged as an effective scaffolding context, supporting comprehension” (Bland, 2013, p. 31). Mourao describes that with “picturebooks young learners are

given a multitude of opportunities to use language that represents the picture and the words and interpretations created from the two modes coming together” (Mourao, 2015, p. 214). The repetitive content of the picturebooks help the learners to be acquainted with authentic language. Furthermore, the stories in picture books are rich with chunks. (Kersten 2015, p. 138).

3.6.3 Oral storytelling

Another example of how to teach vocabulary incidentally through listening is oral storytelling. Bland (2015) states that “oral stories have traditionally been told by word of mouth, with these days, many retellings in written form and remediations in digital form or film” (Bland, 2015, p. 185). According to Hestetraet (2018:228), “oral stories contain short sentences and are rich in repetitive vocabulary and formulaic language and therefore offer plentiful exposures and recycling of vocabulary”. Moreover, as Bland (2015:184) argues, “if children have unlimited access to English language out-of- school environments, narrative can play an enormous role in their L2 acquisition.”

3.6.4 Songs

Yet another example of how to teach vocabulary incidentally through listening is using songs. The use of songs is generally considered a valuable teaching method in EFL classrooms (Murphey 1992; Fonseca-Mora 2000). Moreover, the use of songs is considered as one of the “resources which can engage children’s attention and highlight the target lexis or language patterns to be learnt” (Coyle and Gracia, 2014:277). The sounds, rhythm, and intonation in songs are considered to be essential to the development of pronunciation skills for children, whereas the melody and repetitive structure help promote the memorization of key vocabulary and language patterns Forster (2006). However, very little research has evaluated the real influence of songs on children’s language learning. A study by (Coyle and Gracia, 2014:276) examines the impact of a teaching sequence of song-based activities on the L2 vocabulary acquisition of 25 children between the ages of five and six years old, from a semi-private school in Spain. Vocabulary picture tests were conducted instantly to each child before and after the class lessons followed by a postponed test five weeks later. The result of this research shows that “teaching new language through a song can lead to the development of children’s receptive knowledge of vocabulary.

However, exposure to the song input was insufficient to develop productive knowledge in the majority of the children”. (Coyle and Gracia, 2014:276).

However, another study shows that using song can promote the productive knowledge of vocabulary. a study by Davis and Fan (2016) cited in Davis (2017) used an empirical design to compare Chinese kindergarten pupils' learning of texts by song or choral repetition over a seven-week timeframe of instruction in order to investigate the acquisition of productive vocabulary through songs. After examining the two method Davis and Fan concluded that both methods resulted in considerable productive vocabulary acquisition in comparison to control item that were not in the timeframe of instruction, however none of the method was more efficient than the other. Songs usually includes images, illustration, writings to support the meanings of words in the song. A study by Medina (1990) examined the effects of music on the acquisition of English vocabulary to 48 pupils at second grade who have restricted proficiency in English. The aim of the study was to see if music could promote language acquisition to the same extent as other non-musical methods and to find out if illustrations and images included in the songs had an effect on vocabulary acquisition. Despite the fact that the differences did not achieve statistical indication. However, the raw data showed that, using songs that contain illustrations achieved higher levels of vocabulary acquisition than no illustration. When using songs “Illustrations or other forms of visual reference may also be important in facilitating understanding and acquisition” (Davis, 2017: 453).

The significance of repetition in promoting receptive vocabulary acquisition was also studied by Leniewska and Pichette (2016), who discovered that one of the most significant aspects for vocabulary acquisition was the amount of exposures to the word, with their preschool learners needing more than 60 exposures to a word in order to achieve 50% recall.

A study by Peretz, Radeau, and Arguin (2004) has demonstrated that when language and music are incorporated cognitively, music can be a useful strategy in language learning as well as for saving and recalling verbal input. As a result, music can aid language learning process by helping to retain information in long-term memory. It also has a motivational role as it offers language input in simple, easy and repeated structures. “Songs are often recommended for use in young learner classrooms because of their motivational effects”. Davis (2017: 450). A collection of studies by (Fisher 2001, Gan and Chong 1998, Coyle and Gómez Gracia 2014, listed in Davis

2017) revealed how the effects of songs on learner motivation as a group are mostly positive, however the findings for singular learners are mixed.

3.6.5 Films

The fifth example of teaching vocabulary incidentally is through using films. One of the issues that L2 English language learners face is a lack of communication in language at the community they live in such as at home, at school, which is widely considered to improve language learning by providing the necessary language input for spoken language learning (Bahrani & Tam, 2011; Bahrani & Tam, 2012). Regarding this problem different audio-visual technologies may be used in non-native ESL classes to provide opportunities for communicative English through a variety of authentic resources that were not originally created or used for language learning (Yuksel, 2009). Therefore, films are beneficial technology for students to hear authentic spoken language and be introduced to different aspects of it, such as vocabulary, grammar, accent (Sherman, 2003; Webb, 2010). In other words, films provide learners with example of English used in real world context (Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003).

Furthermore, “Films can enhance the language learning process by designing a series of activities that can develop linguistic, cultural and intercultural skills, as well as developing the practices of New Media Literacies that students need for the 21st century”(Chan and Herrero, 2010:13). Due to the fact that many films focused on a wide range of subjects and themes, teachers could use them to promote or encourage conversations about a specific subject field. Films also provide an excellent opportunity for English language teachers to incorporate concepts, natural dialogue, and cultural knowledge (Curtis, 2007). Short films and films can assist in the following areas: “■ improve language skills (for example by building vocabulary, increasing attainment in writing, and improving the aural and oral competences); ■ foster visual and media literacies; ■ nurture critical thinking and creativity; ■ promote cultural understanding and communication across cultures; and ■ support lifelong language learning.” (Herrero, 2016: 192). Furthermore, according to Chan and Herrero (2010:11), the use of film in the classroom can promote learner motivation because of its enjoyable aspect. Research has demonstrated a proof of the direct positive impact of media and film literacy on children's and young learners' print literacy, as well as students' and teachers' motivation and interest in literacy (Bazalgette 2009; Brooks, Cooper, and Penke 2012).

3.6.6 You Tube videos

The sixth example of teaching and learning vocabulary incidentally is by using YouTube videos. YouTube videos is considered as one of the most efficient methods for accomplishing success in English classes. It can be used in an ESL classroom to help students improve their listening, speaking, pronunciation, and vocabulary skills. YouTube is a type of tool that can be used to learn a language both within and outside of the classroom. (Jalaluddin, 2016: 1). There are many advantages for using YouTube in the classroom “The two primary benefits to using YouTube in the classroom are the exposure to authentic English as well as the promotion of a learning style that is more autonomous and student- centred” (Watkins & Wilkins 2011:113-114). The majority of the research on the use of YouTube in language classrooms has found that it facilitates student-centred learning, increased the peer engagement with each other (Jones & Cuthrell, 2011; Dieu, Campbell & Ammann, 2006), increased motive (Alm, 2006), and increased task validity (Mayora, 2009; Pong, 2010; Kelsen, 2009). Additionally, “Videos may also be used in order to prompt language learning activities with a focus on specific skills, concepts, or cultural aspects to be reinforced or explored” (Brook, 2011: 40). According to the action research studies, the use of different YouTube videos has reportedly enhanced students' oral, aural, and writing skills (Warschauer & Grimes, 2007; Kelsen, 2009; Pong, 2010; Mayora, 2009; Alm, 2006).

3.6.7 Games

The seventh example of teaching vocabulary incidentally is through using games, According to The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1995), games are described as “an organized activity that usually has the following properties: a particular task or objective, a set of rules, competition between players, and communication between players by spoken or written language” (1995:89). Hadfield (1984) defines games as “an activity with rules, a goal and an element of fun” (1984: 4). He distinguishes between two types of games competitive game, in which players or teams compete to be the first to achieve the target, and cooperative games, in which players or teams work together to achieve a shared goal.

Piaget (1962) considers play as fundamental to the development of intellectual capacity in children. His theory of play asserts that when a child grows older, their environment and play can allow them to improve their cognitive and language skills. Piaget also emphasizes the significance of play because it relates to the advancement of problem solving, imagination, and communication, all of which occur naturally when

playing games. Vygotsky argues that the child advances and develops primarily through play activity explaining that “play creates a zone of proximal development of the child. In play a child always behaves beyond his average age, above his daily behaviour; in play it is as though he were a head taller than himself” (Vygotsky, 1978:102). The affective filter hypothesis of the natural approach which was introduced by Krashen suggests that the role of the language teacher is to offer understandable input in a “low anxiety situation” (Krashen, 1982: 32). Using games implies applying this concept in teaching English to raise children motivation and at the same time decreasing their anxiety during the English lesson this can then stimulate higher levels of English learning.

The findings of a research study by (Wang, Shang, Briody, 2011: 131-140) indicate that using games can enhance children's motivation, vocabulary development, and decrease anxiety caused by peer pressure. Mixed methods were used to collect data by using a questionnaire survey and a semi-structured interview technique. The participant were 50 six-grade students 23 boys and 27 girls from a primary school. The findings suggest that by playing games during the English lesson the students' interest and confidence in English learning can be increased, and their anxiety can be minimized, because of the aspects of fun and interest implied in games. Furthermore, playing games is an important way to encourage students' vocabulary learning because it allows students to acquire words in a natural manner. Ultimately, playing games is useful in teaching English to young learners.

3.7 Deliberate learning and teaching

The main reason for the deliberate focus on vocabulary is that “it is effective [...] almost always leads to greater and faster gains, with a better chance of retention and of reaching productive levels of mastery” Schmitt (2008:341). Moreover, Hulstijn (2001: 270) states, “intentional vocabulary learning refers to any activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory”. One example of deliberate teaching is choosing high-frequency words because according to Nation (2013)

They are so important that considerable time should be spent on these words by both teachers and learners [...] they need to be met across the four strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and fluency development. This attention thus should be in the form of incidental learning, direct teaching, and direct learning, and there should be planned meetings with the words. The time spent on them is well justified by their frequency, coverage, and range, and by the relative smallness of the group of words. Nation (2013: 24).

3.7.1. Flashcards

Another example of deliberate teaching is to use word cards. According to Nation (2013: 437) “the term learning from word card will be used to describe the formation of associations between a foreign language word form (written or spoken) and its meaning (often in the form of a first language translation, although it could be a second language definition or picture or a real object, for example)” The aim of the flashcard activity is to enhance learners' understanding of word form-meaning relationships. This is done by frequent retrieval (Webb and Nation, 2017:113).

Furthermore, “learning from word card is a way of quickly increasing vocabulary size through focused intentional learning.” Nation (2013:445). “using flashcards certainly contributes to growth in vocabulary knowledge but this knowledge needs to be further expanded through meaning-focused learning approaches” (Webb and Nation, 2017:174). Ultimately, flashcards facilitate recalling of the words because the vocabulary is on one side of the card and its meaning is on the other; consequently, seeing one side stimulates the learner to recall the other (Webb and Nation, 2017:114).

3.7. 2 L1 translation

L1 translation is another example of deliberate teaching that may be beneficial for vocabulary learning. Webb and Nation (2017) refer to several studies when they argue that the pupils will learn the form-meaning correlation of new words more efficiently when they are given L1 translations rather than L2 definitions (Lado, Baldwin, & Lobo, 1967; Laufer & Shmueli, 1997 referred to in Webb and Nation 2017). Further, Webb and Nation (2017) explain that L1 translations express existing L1 information, while understanding L2 definitions is dependent on both the learner's knowledge of L2 and the type and the quality of the definition. Both Webb and Nation (2017) and Nation (2013) emphasize that the benefits of using translation include that it is a quick and easily understandable way of explaining the meaning of words. One additional advantage is then that is timesaving, leaving time for other learning activities. Nation (2013) explains that there are also disadvantages concerning the use of L1 translation. One of these is that L1 translation may result in more L1 use and therefore less L2 use. Another one disadvantage is that there may not be exact L1 translation of L2 word meaning (Nation, 2013: 121-122). In a similar way, Webb and Nation (2013) criticise using L1 translation because the L2 word and the L1 translation may be slightly different in meaning. The solution for that is that the teacher could

provide the learners with synonyms or use pictures, real objects or gestures Webb and Nation (2017: 240). In this connection, it is relevant to point out that young learners do not know a lot of L1 words, so some L2 words concept may unfamiliar to them, and these concepts should then be explained in other age-appropriate ways(Webb and Nation 2017).

According to Littlewood and Yu (2011), using the LI will help learners feel less anxious. Similarly, Auerbach (1993) states that using L1 "reduces anxiety, enhances the affective environment for learning, takes into account sociocultural factors, facilitates incorporation of learners life experiences and allows for learner centred curriculum development" Auerbach (1993: 20). Young learners, for example, were less relaxed in an L2 only classroom than adult students in a South Korean study (Macaro and Lee 2013). However, In English language instruction, there is still an L2 dominance. (Copland and Ni, 2019). Accordingly, Ellis and Shintani (2013), explain that teachers should "maximise the use of L2 inside the classroom. Ideally this means that the L2 needs to become the medium as well as the object of instruction, especially in a foreign language setting" (Ellis and Shintani 2013: 24). translation into the native language has some characteristics that the teacher can use to the learners' benefit. Nation (1978:173) suggests some teaching techniques to utilize these benefits (1) the translation should be done rapidly, this can be beneficial If the teacher wants to give the meaning of unimportant word while reading a text, in this way the teacher satisfied the learners and avoided wasting time on an unimportant word. However, this can be drawback if the teacher wants to focus on the word and give it more time so the student will remember it. (2) translation is not restricted; it can be used to illustrate broad types of words. (3) The teacher may ask the students to answer using L1 translation in order to know if they have comprehended something he introduced in different way

Finally, after evaluating the two methods of teaching and learning as Webb and Nation (2017:58) argue, it seems that the key to develop L2 vocabulary is mainly by raising the amount of L2 input. Furthermore, according to Webb and Nation (2017:49), "both incidental and deliberate learning provide benefits and should therefore be included together in a vocabulary learning programme". In addition to that, according to Hestetræet, (2019: 226) "The main recommendations for practice include having a varied and balanced approach to teaching YLL vocabulary. This means that it should allow for both explicit and implicit teaching and learning, which are processes that complement one another" (Nation 2013, p. 348 in Hestetræet, 2019).

Further, Nation (2013) suggests that there should be four strands in a well-balanced language course. In The first strand, the focus will be on understanding the meaning from input while listening or reading where that occurs incidentally while the learner focuses primarily on the information he listens to or read. However, this type of learning cannot happen if several new words are available in the input. “The meaning-focused output strand” is the second strand. Learners should have the opportunity to improve their language skills by speaking and writing exercises in which their primary emphasis is on the information they are attempting to communicate. The third strand is the strand of “language-focused learning” this implies that a course should include both direct vocabulary instruction and direct vocabulary learning. The fourth strand is “the fluency development strand” while implementing this strand the learners should practice the words they already know until they become eloquent. These four strands should be given approximately equal time in a language course (Nation2013:2-3).

3.8 The use of ICT and digital tools in vocabulary teaching

It is important to have a specific definition for the term classroom technology, however that is difficult especially when deciding which technologies can be categorized under this term. Whyte and Schmid (2019). Mama and Hennessy (2013) cited in Whyte and Schmid (2019:338) state that “PowerPoint, educational software, web-based video and display of images on the interactive whiteboard (IWB) as examples of somewhat conservative use of classroom technology” Whyte and Schmid (2019:338). While, Blake (2013) uses the inclusive term “digital classroom” to cover a broad variety of resources along with “web pages, CALL programmes (computer assisted language learning) and applications, computer-mediated communication (CMC), distance learning, social networks and games, thus encompassing technology use both in and outside the traditional physical classroom” Blake in Whyte and Schmid (2019:338).

A considerable amount of research regarding CALL has resulted from the growing use of technology for second language learning and teaching. The majority of research indicate that teaching by using technology is good with regard to SLA (second language acquisition), nevertheless, there is a scarcity of research concerning young learners. (Whyte and Schmid, 2019: 345). For instance, Lin (2015), examined 59 studies in the field, found that only 5 studies

concentrated on young learners between (9 and 15) years old. Whereas, there were not any studies concerning very young learners.

According to (Hestetraet, 2018: 229), ICT (Information and Communication technology) can be used to promote both deliberate and incidental vocabulary learning. Moreover, Nakata states that such programmes (ICT), “have been developed in a way that maximizes vocabulary learning” (Nakata, 2011, p. 17). An example of the previous is to use an electronic flashcards programme. According to (Hestetraet, 2018, 229), the main advantages of using electronic flashcards include the effectiveness with which many words can be learned in a short time, and the learners continue to use such words for normal, meaningful uses. Nakata (2011.p:22) explains how most flashcard programs are adjustable, allowing children to make their own cards, select between L2 definitions / synonyms or L1 translations based on the learner's needs and include chunks and words. Moreover, sound files, images or video clips can be used to connect the programme to vocabulary database and to allow receptive and productive use. While, when using ordinary flash cards, the learner is “asked to associate the L2 word form with its meaning, usually in the form of a first language (L1) translation, L2 synonym, or L2 definition” (Nakata 2011, p. 17). Another example of ICT in vocabulary teaching is to use whiteboard and videoconferencing to facilitate cooperation and communication between young learners. A study by Schmid and Whyte (2015: 252) explored the use of the whiteboard and videoconferencing between young learners in primary schools in Germany and France. They illustrate how the use of ICT enhance the meaning focused output.

4. Methods

4.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodology employed in the thesis which seeks to explore six teachers' beliefs and reported practices concerning vocabulary teaching and learning, therefore a qualitative approach for data collection was chosen for this research. The first part explains why the qualitative research was chosen for this research and gives a description for its nature. The second part describes the semi-structured interview. Thereafter, the subsequent parts explain how the interviews were planned and conducted, and how the informants were chosen, additionally how the interviews were transcribed. The last section discusses research ethics, validity and reliability.

4.2 Qualitative research

The qualitative approach is employed in the present study due to its several advantages and merits. First, according to (Dörnyei 2007:37), “the qualitative study is kept open and fluid so that it can respond in a flexible way to new details or openings that may emerge during the process of investigation. This flexibility even applies to the research questions, which may evolve, change, or be refined during the study”. Moreover, as Dörnyei (2007:38) states, that the qualitative research occurs in the “natural setting”. In addition, it focuses on the participants' personal opinions, their trends, and their experiences “and thus the explicit goal of research is to explore the participants' views of the situation being studied” (Dörnyei 2007:38). Further, as Dörnyei (2007) points out by using the qualitative approach the researcher will be able to interpret the research outcome subjectively. On the other hand, as Dörnyei (2007:38) argues, through the qualitative research extensive variety of data can be included such as recorded interviews, field notes, journals, diary documents, and photos or videos. Lastly, Dörnyei (2007:38), claims that unlike quantitative research which employs many participants the qualitative research employs “smaller samples of participants”.

4.3 Data collection method: interview

According to Dörnyei (2007:134), the most common method for collecting data in qualitative approach is the interview. The purpose of the interview as Kvale (1996: 5-6) states is “to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena”.

In order to examine how the teachers, teach vocabulary in the classroom and to acquire knowledge of what beliefs do the teacher have about first grade EFL vocabulary learning a Semi-structured interview with six teachers will be employed in this study because it is a flexible kind and it “offers a compromise between the two extremes”: the structured and the unstructured types of interviews. Dörnyei (2007:136). Moreover, this type has open –ended format “and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner” Dörnyei (2007:136).

4.4 Planning and conducting the interviews

Before interviewing the teachers, some arrangements had to be made. First, an interview guide was created (see appendix 1). According to Dörnyei (2011:137), an interview guide assists the researcher in several ways: “(a) by ensuring that the domain is properly covered and nothing important is left out by accident;(b) by suggesting appropriate question wordings;(c) by offering a list of useful probe questions to be used if needed; (d) by offering a template for the opening statement; and (e) by listing some comments to bear in mind” Dörnyei (2011:137).

One pilot interview was conducted before interviewing the six chosen teachers. As recommended by Dörnyei (2007: 75), “a research study also needs a dress rehearsal to ensure the high quality (in term of reliability and validity) o the outcomes in the specific context”. Thus, it was carried out to find out an approximate time span for the interview as well as to check the audio-recorder and see how it can be used. Furthermore, it was conducted to “ensure that the questions elicit rich data and do not dominate the flow of the conversation” (Dörnyei 2007:137). The pilot interview took place in an office-environment in the teacher’s school.

All interviews were supposed to be conducted at the teachers' workplace. However, all the school were closed at that time due to Coronavirus situation therefore, all of the six interviews were conducted via online video call services such as Skype this was according to NSD guidelines and, only sound was recorded by audio recorder for this study, moreover, some factors were taken into consideration during the interview such as "it flows naturally, [...] it is rich in detail, [...] use of various probes can make a real difference" (Dörnyei 2007:140). The language used during the sessions was English and the interview guide was thus made in English, although, all the teachers are native Norwegians and they use the Norwegian language to describe their work situation and pedagogical implications, it was not possible to use the Norwegian language because of the possible language barriers from my side. Furthermore, English was the only language that we all had in common and that was one of the reasons for using it. Another reason is that since both the thesis and the research literature are written in English, it was natural to use English. Each interview lasted almost 30 minutes.

4.5 Interview structure

The interview guide was inspired by Siri Hjorteland's interview guide, and it includes six sections which cover the main themes of this research. However, these sections were neither employed in the Result chapter (5) nor the Discussion chapter (6). Some clarification questions and probes were used to enhance the interview and make it richer as suggested by Dörnyei (2007:138). The paragraphs below present and describe each of the sections, with related examples.

The first section focused on the teachers' background, qualifications and experience with teaching English. According to Dörnyei (2007) the first questions are very significant in an interview because "they set the tone and create initial rapport" (137). Moreover, "when answering these initial questions, this will make them feel competent, help them to relax and consequently encourage them to open up" Dörnyei (2007:137). The questions included:

- How long have you been teaching?
- What are your formal teaching qualifications?

The second section pays particular attention to the teaching of vocabulary. The second section inquired about the teachers' beliefs, and their reported practice concerning vocabulary teaching in first grade. The questions in this section included:

- How do you believe English vocabulary is best taught in first grade?
- How do you teach English vocabulary in first grade?

The third section focused on vocabulary learning. The goal of these questions was to shed the light on what the pupils have learned during first grade and to explore the teacher's beliefs about vocabulary learning. The questions in this section included:

- Can the pupils make conversations using the new English vocabulary they have learned in first grade?
- How do you believe the pupils best learn vocabulary?

The fourth section was concerned with the learning material and see to what extent the materials chosen by the teacher promote incidental vocabulary learning and to what extent promote deliberate learning. The questions in this section included:

- What materials do you use for vocabulary teaching?
- Do you use picturebooks? How do you use them?

The fifth section focused on the learning aims. This focus was important to gain an insight into the teachers' beliefs about teaching vocabulary. The questions in this section included:

- How important would you say vocabulary is in the teaching of English in first grade?
- When you teach vocabulary, what do you think are the most important aims to focus on?

The last section was about challenges, resources and contextual factors. According to Borg (2009:165), the contextual factor is significant to understand the teachers' beliefs and practices thus, they were included in order to understand the beliefs about the curriculum and its influence, and about the different materials and traditions at their school that may affect how they plan and perform their teaching. The questions in this section included:

- Are there any traditions at your school that may influence your vocabulary teaching?

- To what extent do you think the time given to the syllabus assigned is enough?

4.6 Processing and presenting the findings

The audio-recordings were transcribed digitally in Word while listening to the interview through using the dictate on the home bar. However, the transcript does not perfectly reflect the recorded audio accurately. Therefore, some edits were done manually to correct the mistakes. This done by using ‘intelligent verbatim transcript’ style as suggested by (Eppich, Gormley & Teunissen, 2019: 91). This kind of transcription involve that “the transcriptionist will omit fillers like ‘um’, laughter and pauses from the transcript while preserving the participants’ meaning. Some light editing may also be done to correct sentences and delete irrelevant words” Eppich, Gormley & Teunissen (2019: 92). These transcripts are not included in the appendix for privacy reasons. However, some quotes from the teachers have been included.

The results are to be presented thematically. According to Dörnyei (2007),

it might add to the clarity of the presentation of the findings if we divide the Results and Discussion into thematic chapters in which the various phases of the data analysis are described together. It also adds to the accessibility of the discussion [...] if we break down the text into subsections with their own subheadings. These subheadings act as reader-friendly signposts (Dörnyei 2007:297).

Consequently, the findings are presented and summarized through the use of six categories and subcategories which emerged during the process of content analysis, these categories were organized and based on a way that addresses the research questions. The categories are: (1) the teachers’ educational background, (2) Teachers’ beliefs and learning aims/objectives, (3) reported practices, (4) reported vocabulary knowledge, (5) materials, challenges and contextual factors. Firstly, the category *Teachers’ beliefs and learning aims/objectives* presents the teachers’ beliefs about vocabulary learning and teaching. The category *reported practices* presents the teachers’ reported practices about teaching vocabulary moreover it gives an insight to what extent these reported practices promote the deliberate learning and to what extent promote incidental learning. *The reported vocabulary knowledge* category sheds light on the pupils’ prior knowledge of vocabulary and investigates if teachers build on that knowledge, furthermore, inquiries about the pupils’

existing vocabulary knowledge. Lastly, *materials, challenges and contextual factors* aims to explore the factors and challenges that may influence and affect the vocabulary teaching and the material used to enhance learning. These categories were employed in the result chapter as well as in the discussion chapter.

4.7 Selection of informants

The primary aim of the current study was to examine teachers' beliefs and reported practices concerning vocabulary teaching in English as L2 in first grade in Norway. The basic requirement, therefore, was that the participants of the study should have had previous or current experience of teaching English in first grade. Furthermore, the teachers were required to work in primary schools in Norway and accordingly follow the Norwegian Curriculum. Therefore, teacher informants were selected for this study by way of "*purposive sampling*" as suggested by Dörnyei (2007), "the researcher selects participants who meet some specific predetermined criteria" Dörnyei (2007: 128). An attempt was made to find teacher informants from six different schools who have different levels of experience of teaching thus, e-mail requests were sent to primary school leaders including brief information about the project.

4.8 Validity and reliability

According to Brink (1993: 35), the main aspects of all research are validity and reliability. These two aspects can help differentiate between good and poor research. Further, they can help ensure that the results are recognized by scientists as reliable and valid. Thus, A valid study, according to Le Compe and Goetz (1982) "is concerned with the accuracy and truthfulness of scientific findings" (32). Further as Merriam and Tisdell (2015) argue, validity and reliability are issues that can be handled by carefully examining the "study's conceptualization and the way in which the data are collected, analyzed, and interpreted, and the way in which the findings are presented" (238). However, according to Maxwell (2013: 121), validity cannot be confirmed because it is something relative further, validity must be evaluated in relation to the aims and circumstances of the study.

On the other hand, reliability as Merriam and Tisdell (2015: 250-251) argue, refers to the degree to which the research results “can be replicated” this means if the study is repeated will it provide the same result? (250). However, the same data can be interpreted in numerous ways therefore, for qualitative research the most critical issue is whether the findings are consistent with the data obtained. Moreover, according to Gibbs (2007:91), the reliability means whether the results remain consistent when tested many times or by multiple researchers.

In the present study, reliability was considered as Gibbs (2007) suggests by ‘transcription checking’ (98). The transcripts were reviewed for errors made during transcription.

Concerning the validity of this study, the use of a rich description in discussing the findings as suggested by Creswell (2007: 177). Further, the use of detailed questions in the interview guide, moreover, exploring not only the teachers’ beliefs but also their reported practices, all these were employed in order to increase the validity of this study. Another way to ensure validity and reliability in qualitative research as Merriam and Tisdell (2015) argue is by “conducting the investigation in an ethical manner” (237) which were taken into consideration during this study and will be discussed in detail in the next section.

4.9 Research ethics

According to Dörnyei (2007: 64), the ethical issue should be considered and addressed especially in qualitative research since it is fundamentally concerned with the personal opinions of individuals and frequently focuses on sensitive or private matters. Thus, as Creswell (2007) states “the researcher has an obligation to respect the rights, needs, values, and desires of the informant” (p. 183). Therefore, various ethical issues of the study had to be considered. Firstly, before collecting any data, the study was reported to NSD, The Norwegian Centre for Research Data which evaluated that the processing of personal data in this project was in accordance with data protection legislation. This approval can be found in the Appendix. In addition, an information letter (see appendix) was sent to the teachers about the project’s purpose, aims and research questions. Further the participants of the study were informed about their rights as participants that participation is voluntary and that they can withdraw at any time. Moreover, they were told that their names and the names of the school in which they work would be

anonymous. Finally, all the teachers were informed that the interview will be recorded using an audio recorder. The consent form is to be found in the appendix.

5. Results

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data collected from six teacher interviews. The findings have been categorized across the interviews. Therefore, the findings have been divided into categories and subcategories which emerged during the process of content analysis of the collected data. Further, these categories are related to the research aims of the present thesis.

The research questions are:

1. What beliefs do the teachers have about first grade L2 English vocabulary learning?
2. What are the teacher's reported practices about the teaching of L2 English vocabulary in first grade?
3. To what extent do the reported practices promote incidental vocabulary learning and to what extent do they promote deliberate learning?
4. What are the teachers' reported knowledge about the pupils' English vocabulary knowledge before they start school and how do the teachers build on that knowledge?
5. What are the challenges, the contextual factors that may face teachers, and what teaching materials are used to teach vocabulary to first grade?

Thus the categories and subcategories are:(1) the teachers' educational background, (2) teachers' beliefs and learning aims/ objectives, (3) reported practices which are divided into the subcategories: songs, games, attach a context, picturebook, films, ICT programmes, flash cards, and finally L1 translation, (4) the reported vocabulary knowledge category which is divided into three subcategories: the pupils' prior knowledge, the teacher building on the pupils' prior knowledge, and the pupils' existing knowledge during first grade, (5) materials, contextual factors, and challenges. The teachers and schools have been anonymized. Furthermore, some of the teachers' quotes have been included.

5.2 Teachers' educational background

Participants	Age	Educational degree	Educational experience
Teacher 1	51 years old. Female.	bachelor's degree in teaching. One year of full-time study in English.	27 years. 1-4 (also 1-7) grade.
Teacher 2	42 years old. Female.	She studied as a preschool teacher. To become a school teacher she has taken an extra year. She studied English at high school.	8 years. 1-3 grade.
Teacher 3	40 years old. Female.	bachelor's degree in teaching.	12 years. years. She has taught English from 1-7 grade.
Teacher 4	47 years old. Female.	bachelor's degree in teaching where she took three subjects: math, gymnastic and art. Her formal qualification in English comes from high school.	She has been teaching for twenty-one years. - 4 grade.
Teacher 5	33 years old. Female.	bachelor's degree in teaching. One year of English as part of her teaching education.	4 years. 1-2 grade.
Teacher 6	33 years old. Female.	She had a bachelor's degree in teaching and learning from an English-speaking university and then she also has taken English 1 to 7 at a Norwegian University.	12 years. 1-3 (also 8-9) grade.

5.3 Teachers' Beliefs and learning aims/ objectives

5.3.1 Beliefs

When asked about how they best think that vocabulary can be learned, five of the six teachers (not teacher 2) mentioned that they believe in using songs. Teacher 4 explained that she believes that the pupils best learn vocabulary “through singing a lot of songs because they really learn fast when they are singing songs about lots of words”. Teacher 6 explained that she believed in using songs and rhymes because it helps them remember.

Four teachers (teachers 1, 3, 4, 5) expressed that they believed that pupils best learn vocabulary through using and practicing it. For example, teacher 1 believed that the pupils need to practice the new vocabulary and she reported that it is important to give them opportunities to speak. Additionally, she believed it is important to make a safe environment, so the pupils dare to speak even if they do not know so many words. Teacher 3 believed that pupils will learn by repeating the new vocabulary and by encouraging them to speak as much as possible. Further, she believed that pupils best learn vocabulary by using it. Teacher 4 mentioned that she believed that pupils learn the new words by talking to each other. Teacher 5 emphasized the importance of using the language in learning new words when she stated the following:

Through listening and experiencing and not being afraid to try to talk. Because I think that is the most common mistake in school that they do not make them practice enough so they are kind of scared of talking English and a lot of teachers are scared to talk English so I think you just need to start right away forcing them to talk it is okay it doesn't matter if you do not say it right, they will still understand.

In addition, there were some beliefs that only one teacher reported, for example, (teacher 1) believed that English vocabulary is best taught in a meaningful context with a lot of repetition.

Secondly, (teacher 2) believed that vocabulary is best taught by making pupils like the English subject since she herself likes the subject and by making the learning experience funny, interesting, and exciting.

Thirdly, (teacher 2) believed that vocabulary should be taught by using different teaching methods.

Fourthly, three teachers (teachers 3, 4, and 6) mentioned that they believe in using and playing games to teach the vocabulary.

Fifthly, two teachers (teacher 5-6) expressed that they believe in using visual aids and picture to teach the new words.

Sixthly, (teacher 4) stated that she thinks that pupils best learn vocabulary through listening to stories.

5.3.2 Learning aims/ objectives

All teachers (1, 2, 3,4, 5, and 6) considered teaching vocabulary in first grade very important because pupils need vocabulary in order to be able to speak and communicate. Teacher 4 emphasized the importance of teaching high frequency words such as vocabulary about family, colors, animals, and the days of the week, in order for the pupils to be able to use the language and to communicate. Teacher 6 reported that teaching vocabulary in first grade is very important especially if pupils learn the high frequency words and sight words which help them make sense of the whole text when they get older and start reading.

When asked what they think are the most important aims to focus on when teaching vocabulary, four teachers (Teachers 1, 2, 3, and 5) focused on making the pupils able to use the new words and able to communicate. Teacher 1 explained:

I think it is important to give them enough words, so they can use them for conversations. That is the most important thing to focus on, to give them enough words, so they can describe what they see around them.

Teacher 2 explained that her main goal is to encourage them to speak and practice speaking English. In a similar way, teacher 3 reported that her main aim is to make the pupils able to use the new words correctly and to show her that they understand them. Teacher 5 explained: “I think it is experiencing the language, as I have said, kind of seeing other English people talking”.

Two teachers (teacher 5-6) reported that one of their aims which they focus on when teaching vocabulary is linking the new words to a context. Teacher 5 explained: “kind of seeing the whole picture not just hearing the words, but kind of seeing them in a context”.

Furthermore, there were some learning aims that only one teacher mentioned for example, teacher 2 explained that one of her main goals while teaching vocabulary is to make pupils love the subject. Only teacher 6 mentioned that one of her aims is to focus on the pronunciation of the new words. Furthermore, only teacher 6 stated that it was her aim to make pupils remember the new words by using visual aids. Additionally, only teacher 4 reported that her goal is to make pupils understand the new words.

5.4 Reported practices

5.4.1 Songs

All teachers reported that they use songs to teach and to practice the new words. Additionally, all teachers except one (teacher 2) stated that singing and using songs is the activity they use the most. Teacher 1 often starts with songs to teach new words, further she uses songs to practice the new vocabulary with the pupils. She reported that she uses a lot of songs such as the counting songs, the colour songs, and the head and shoulder song. She uses a webpage called dreamenglish.com where the pupils can listen to different fun educational songs suitable for young learners. Further, those songs are very simple songs with videos that help pupils to understand the meaning of the new vocabulary because it is full of pictures and body language that help the pupils to acquire new words. Furthermore, she perceived her students to enjoy those songs. Additionally, when asked what vocabulary activities she uses the most when teaching first grade pupils, she said that singing is the activity she uses the most, because through singing the pupils practice until the language becomes automatic.

Teacher 2 said that she tries to find songs about the topic that they are working with, so if she is giving them new words about animals and farms then they will listen to the Old McDonald song. Moreover, she used songs and rhymes to have the pupils practice the new vocabulary orally and develop their speaking and listening skills. She reported that songs are interesting and funny for pupils, and through repeating the songs pupils will remember the new vocabulary.

Teacher 3 reported that she uses lots of singing and nursery rhymes to introduce and practice the new vocabulary with pupils, and she considers singing a good way to get the pupils involved and to make the learning experience more engaging. She described how songs are used:

Oh, they love singing. They absolutely love singing. So, I use YouTube a lot. I find that you find so many channels that offer good songs, for example, Songs about colors, numbers and they are really catchy, and you see the songs involves the kids. And they want to get up and dance and sing along and you can hear them when you are outside in recess after an English lesson. You can hear some of the girls sing the songs that we sang previously that day. So, it is really nice.

When asked what the activity she uses the most and why, she stated that songs are the activity she uses the most due to several reason:

I would say singing because when they start, most of them cannot read or write. And it's really difficult to learn English because of how the words are spelt when you compare to how you actually pronounce them. So just singing because in a big group it's easier to talk to say something instead of if you are on your own.

When teacher 4 was asked how she teaches English vocabulary, she reported that it is through using lots of songs and rhymes. Further, every day they start with an English song, but not only during the English lesson, which is one hour a week. Teacher four mentioned that she chose songs about the related topic, for example if she is teaching the vocabulary about the body, then they will listen to the body song. These songs present pictures along with writing, which help the pupils to recognize the meaning of the vocabulary and learn the writing as well. She mentioned that whenever she wants to present the new vocabulary through visual stimuli, she will do that by using websites: YouTube, Quest, and Walrus, which present fun educational songs about the related topics. Additionally, when asked what activity she uses the most, she stated: "I think it is using songs. We sing a lot in first grade".

When teacher 5 asked if she uses songs and how she uses them, she explained:

Teacher 5: Yes, we use a lot of songs, and we use it during the whole week. So, they kind of listen to it all the time and it helps them learn a lot of English.

Interviewer: can you give me examples of songs?

Teacher 5: While we have songs, they count to one hundred, and we use it in math class even though they talk in English. They also see the numbers, so it helps us with the math as well. And we have songs when the day is over, they sing goodbye song and good morning song, so we have kind of all kind of songs where they just listen to English and try to understand and after a while they usually do.

In this example, she described how they use English songs throughout the whole week as well as during the day at the beginning of the school day and at the end of the school day, not only during the English lesson, which is one hour a week.

She mentioned that there are various methods and practices to teach the new vocabulary. However, using songs and singing are the activities she uses most due to several reasons:

Interviewer: What is the activity you use the most and why?

Teacher 5: I guess it is singing.

Interviewer: Why?

Teacher5: to experience the language and it is easy for them to repeat and they are kind of I think they learn it faster.

Furthermore, she reported that using songs will promote and improve the oral skill and listening skill for pupils, and through singing and repeating songs they will experience the language which in turn will encourage them to talk. So, they mainly practice the new vocabulary orally through singing. One additional reason for using songs is that pupils will learn the vocabulary in context. Therefore, when she wants to attach a context to the new vocabulary, she reported that she uses songs. Finally, she uses songs when she wants to present new words through visual stimuli.

Teacher 6 reported that she uses a lot of songs to teach the new vocabulary. She described:

Teacher 6: I use the YouTube channel Super Simple Song, and they have songs on all the topics that we go through during the year. And I also put on the music in other lessons like in art lessons if they are drawing or painting, so I usually put the English songs on in the background and then they learn the songs throughout the year, so it kind of tricks them into learning new vocabulary.

Interviewer: Could you give me examples about some songs?

Teacher 6: when I teach colors, we listen to the song *I Can Sing a Rainbow* for example and then when we learn about different types of food, they have songs that are called *Do you like* and then they say different types of food and then it is *yummy* or *yucky*.

In this example she described how she uses songs not only in the English lesson, but also during other lessons in order to promote acquiring new words. Additionally, she mentioned that singing is the activity she uses the most because, through singing and repeating songs pupils will remember and memorize the new vocabulary when they connect it to songs.

5.4.2 Games

All teachers reported that they use games. Teacher 1 explained that she uses a lot of vocabulary games, especially games using flash cards. She described that she lets the pupils work in groups and they have to find the specific word “I say a word and the pupils have to hurry up and find it”. Furthermore, she uses games when she wants the pupils to practice the new vocabulary orally. Mostly, she used these two games *Let's Be Dating* and *Learning body* through them, she tried to have the pupils speak as much as possible and usually in pairs she gave them something to ask for or to answer. She explained:

I used so called *speed dating* or we use a *learning body* games. So sometimes I have I hand out flash cards so each pupil have a flash card with a word on one side and a picture on the other side, and they can see the word and the other kids can see the picture and they walk around in the classroom, and when they meet another pupil they have to stop, and say what the other person had in the card, and when both have said the word they switched cards and then they have to find a new person to talk to. Or they can stand in tow circles and two pupils standing against each other and one of them have to ask a question and the other one answer and then they turn around so all of them can talk to the other students.

Teacher 2 explained that she uses games to practice the new vocabulary with pupils.

Teacher 3 described that she uses “games just anything to get them involved”.

Teacher 4 stated:

We play lots of games and we use the flash cards, and when we play *Simon says* we try to say and do the same things Simon says, which is a game where one player takes the role of "Simon" and issues instructions to the other players, which should be followed only when prefaced with the phrase "Simon says". We also play *Onion rings* which is a good game for practicing vocabulary, and we play together two and two and they tell each other the same things and ask each other questions. Sometimes we have a game maybe I told you that we have a game with a picture on one card and a word on another card like a memory game. And there are games on their website too, on the iPad they can do it. They can practice the word.

In this example, she describes different kinds of games, one of them by using flashcards, the other by using digital tools. In addition to two different games *Simon says* and *Onion ring*.

Teacher 5 reported that she uses different games to teach the new vocabulary, because pupils need to practice saying these new words. Furthermore, she described:

We have different kinds of games like *Charades* and the other one called *Boom* and that you kind of have to step on the flash card and say the word and then the other students pick one that is the bomb and when they step on that one, they all say boom.

Teacher 6 mentioned that she uses lots of games, one of them by using flash cards. She described:

We play lots of different games like *I spy*, and *Bingo* and *Kim's leg* do you know what Kim's leg is? It is a game where I have flash cards, and I teach them the vocabulary, and then I take one away, and they have to guess which one was taken away. And *Alias* where they have to describe the word or mime a word that they know.

5.4.3 Attach a context

All the teachers reported that they attached a context to the new words. When teacher 1 asked if she attaches a context to the vocabulary and how she does that, she explained "Yes, I could say like, if we talk about colours, I could say that my T-shirt is grey. Liza's T-shirt is red, so I always try to use the words in context". Additionally, she mentioned that when she repeats the new

vocabulary from the previous lesson, she used the same words again in a new context. And she always repeats words that they have previously learned, and she uses the words again and again in different ways.

Teacher 2 reported that she uses different ways to attach a context to the new vocabulary such as by telling them a story or reading a book about the topic and by watching videos as well, in order to make sense to the words. Teacher 3 mentioned that she always attaches the new vocabulary into a context. She explained:

Yes, always because the word cannot just be there on its own. You cannot just say chair, chair. They need to be involved in a sentence. They need to say this is a chair, my chair, so I always put it into context.

Teacher 4 reported that she always tries to attach a context into the new words, and she does that through using different methods such as reading from the book, which she thinks a good way to do that. Further, she tries to tell the pupils a story and sings a song or by talking about the new words. When teacher 5 asked if she attaches a context to the new vocabulary, she reported that she usually does that by using songs or by talking about the new words. When teacher 6 asked if she attaches a context to the new vocabulary, she stated:

Yes, so when I teach them new words, I find a book or an online book or a picture book and then I read them a story and I usually read it in one page in English and then we talk about the words that they already know and then I translate it back to Norwegian so they can understand the whole meaning of the book.

Further, she gave an example about how she does that, she explained: “like when I teach them the colors for example, they have to be able to say my favorite color is, so I teach them the sentence and then they have to say the words in a context”.

5.4.4 Picturebook

Five teachers (teacher 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6) reported that they use picturebooks. Teacher 1 reported that she uses picture books because she likes to read aloud for the pupils, and she thinks that this type of books will engage the pupils. Further, she asks the pupils to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from context by using picturebooks. She stated: “I always try to have them guess the meaning of new words, so we look at the pictures and try to find out what they could be”. Teacher 2 reported that she did not use a picturebook in first grade. She stated: “We start in second grade with some easy picture books with only one or two words so next year they will have more books”. However, she mentioned that she uses pictures to teach the new vocabulary she explained: “I show them pictures from a book or something and then I will hang them in the classroom as long as we have that topic”.

When teacher 3 asked if she uses picturebooks, she stated: “Yes, I actually just give it to them, and they can look at words and try pick up words, but we do not use it very often”.

However, she reported that she uses lots of pictures she explained that she presents the new words by using pictures. Teacher 4 reported that she uses picturebooks and she often reads for pupils and shows them the pictures and after that she asks them what they see in the pictures. Further she described:

We have lots of nice picturebooks and some of them have only three words on every page and there is a picture and under it standing what it means in Norwegian and in the end of the book there is always standing the new words. That is quite nice, so they start to read small books at the end of first grade.

When teacher 5 asked if she uses picturebooks, and how she uses them, she stated:

Not as much picture books as movies, like they have seen short movie like the very hungry Caterpillar and stuff like that, but we don't use books that much I think we had one or two books during the year.

Teacher 6 when asked if she uses picturebook and how she uses them. She explained:

Yes, I collect English picture books, so I now have like one for each new theme that we teach, and I use them like I said. I read both in Norwegian and English then I translate them into Norwegian and then I usually have like an arts activity for the book and try to do a lot of activities around one picture book that helps them remember.

Additionally, she mentioned that when she reads a picturebook, she scans the book, so they have all the words and the pictures on a big screen.

5.4.5 Films

All teachers mentioned that they use films. Teacher 1 reported that they have watched some films for example, when they talked about the very hungry Caterpillar, they watch the film to the book. However, she stated that she does not use films a lot. Teacher 5 mentioned that she uses movies she said: “they have seen short movie like the very hungry Caterpillar”.

5.4.6 Digital tools and ICT programs

When asked if they use ICT technology to teach vocabulary, all teachers reported that they do this. Teacher 1 explained that all the pupils have their own Chromebook, and they have access to a lot of educational websites such

<https://www.raz-kids.com/>

<https://bookcreator.com/>

<https://stairs1-4-nynorsk.cappelendamm.no/>

<https://skole.salaby.no/>

<https://web.creaza.com/en/>

Moreover, teacher 1 used the digital tools to develop the pupils’ listening, reading and writing skills. However, she used games to develop the oral skills and encourage them to talk. When asked how she teaches English vocabulary through listening, she explained that she gives them something to listen for by using Raz kids. It is a website which contains levelled eBooks where the

pupils can read and listen to stories, and she said that she uses Raz kids with very simple texts, so they listen to different eBooks about the topics that they work with. Moreover, she used a webpage called dreamenglish.com which contains a variety of fun educational songs for pupils where pupils can listen to songs about related topics. Additionally, Teacher 1 also used ICT programmes to develop pupils' reading skills and teach them reading. She stated:

As I said we use Raz-kids, so all the students have access to that webpage they have their own username and if we talk or we are working with the colours then I will give them an assignment or assign an eBook that is about colours or animals or whatever we work with, or I ask them to look for words in the text I also use web page called ESL kids. That is more for me to get ideas and it is a very good page for young students.

Further, teacher 1 used ICT programmes to teach pupils writing however, she said “we do write also but maybe not as much as the oral English”. She mainly used two websites: Book Creator and Creaza to let the pupils make digital books where they write simple texts. She described how she uses these websites. For example, when she taught them vocabulary about animals and insects, she asked them to make a digital book about an insect, and then they wrote simple sentences and they had to add colours since that is something they had worked with, and numbers how many legs do the insects have, what colour is it, such as the ladybug is red and black. The ladybug has six legs. And they added pictures to the text.

Teacher 2 reported that she uses her own computer, and the pupils use their own Chromebook where they have access to different educational websites such as Stairs where they do lots of different tasks. Additionally, she mentioned that she uses the YouTube website the most and each lesson she finds good educational videos about the related topics. Furthermore, she mentioned that using You Tube video is the activity she uses the most. Teacher 3 stated that she uses lots of online sites where she can find lots of activities and worksheets for pupils. Further, Pupils used the interactive website Salaby where they can practice the new vocabulary and they also used Raz kids where they can read some words and make books. Additionally, she reported: “We use a lot of YouTube videos where other people speak and read or introduce new vocabulary as well as me, so they get used to hearing someone else's voice”.

Teacher 4 reported that each pupil has their own iPad, and they have access to different websites such as Quest, Salaby, Stairs where they can listen to the new words and do lots of tasks, as well as Showbie which is a website for communication. Also, pupils used the Book Creator in order to write some words and a simple sentence and create a book, in addition to The Singing Walrus website where they can listen to different songs along with YouTube where they listen to songs and short fairy tales.

Teacher 5 stated that they use some programs on Chromebook.

Teacher 6 described:

Teacher 6: So, at this school they all have chrome book and then we use a program called Raz kids which is levelled reading books and we can have them on the big screen so they can read, and we also use Salaby and a website called Starfall.com which also is quite good

Interviewer: but what is the Salaby?

Teacher 6: It is a Norwegian website that has different games and activities for each subject, so they have an English a part of the website is in English and then also we use the Stairs book they have a website also so they can practice vocabulary.

Additionally, she reported that she uses Super Simple Song channel on YouTube where she can find different songs for related topics.

5.4.7 Flash cards

All teachers mentioned that they use flash cards. When asked how she practices the new vocabulary with the pupils, teacher 1 reported many practices and one of them is by games using the flash cards. She described:

If I have flash cards, I may put them on the floor or on the wall, and first they just look at them and talk about them and when they start to recognise the words, I may take some of them away and they have to find out which ones are missing.

Additionally, she sometimes handed out flash cards, so the pupils can play two games such as speed dating and learning body. (this is mentioned earlier under games category with elaborated details). Teacher 2 reported that she uses flashcards to present the new words and she hangs them on the whiteboard so the pupils will be able to see how these words are spelt. Teacher 3 mentioned that she uses flashcards, but she did not explain how she uses them. Teacher 4 described that they sit in a circle and she gives each pupil a flashcard after that she asks them to give her the flashcard with the dog for example and the one who have it should come and give it to the teacher. Teacher 5 reported that they play a game by using flash cards, she described: “we have different kinds of games like *Charades* and the other one called *Boom Boom* and that you kind of you have to step on the flash card and say the word and then the other students pick one that is the bomb and when they step on that one they all say boom”.

Teacher 6 stated: “I use a lot of flash cards with pictures on the front and then the word on the back. Every time we learn new vocabulary, they have to say the words when I show them flash cards”.

5. 4.8 L1 translation

All teachers reported that they translate to L1. When asked if she uses L1 translation and how she does that, teacher 1 reported that she tries to speak English as much as she can. Nevertheless, she uses L1 translation only if she needed to let them understand, so she would sometimes say what it is in Norwegian, but she often asks them first to see if they can find out what it means.

Teacher 2 described:

I will speak English and they shall try to understand as much as they can, and I know that they understand a lot of English, and then I translate some of it to Norwegian and then I'm on to English again so that they learn to listen to English and check out what they understand.

Teacher 3 reported that she speaks too much Norwegian during the English lesson.

Teacher 4 said that first she speaks English or read from the book and after that she will ask the pupils to tell her what it means in Norwegian.

Teacher 5 described:

I usually only talk English during English class and they listen to songs and they get used to listening to me talking English and then I get a student to translate usually so the ones who do not understand they understand when the other students translate.

Teacher 6 when asked if she translates into Norwegian, she described: “Yes, so like I said I read in English first and then I translate and then when I give them instructions as well, I say it first in English and then quickly translate them to Norwegian”.

5.4.9 Oral storytelling

Three teachers (teachers 2, 4, and 6) reported that they use oral storytelling. Teacher 2 mentioned that she tells them a story when she wants to attach a context to the vocabulary. Similarly, teacher 4 reported that she tells them a story when she wants to attach a context to the vocabulary. Furthermore, she used oral storytelling when she wants to focus on teaching the new words through listening. She reported that sometimes she uses stories from You Tube where she finds nice stories with pictures and short fairy tales. Additionally, the schoolbook that they use *Quest*, has a website for teachers and short stories for children, where they can listen to different stories. Teacher 6 likewise said that she read a story for the pupils in order to teach them the new vocabulary in context.

5.5 Reported vocabulary knowledge

5.5.1 The pupils' prior knowledge

All teachers reported that most of the pupils have prior vocabulary knowledge. They know lots of words when they start school. However, only few pupils can make conversation using English vocabulary they are familiar from before. Teacher 1 reported that many of the pupils start school with prior vocabulary knowledge, but this knowledge is limited for example, most of them know how to count in English and know the colors before they start first grade. However, she mentioned

that there are few pupils who can speak very well because they have watched TV or YouTube. Teacher 2 reported that “Yes, they have. They can a lot of words such as colours, numbers, animals. They are very good with words about animals and in gaming words, so yes, I think they can a lot of English when they start”.

Teacher 3 reported that most of the pupils have prior vocabulary knowledge when they start school. Most of them know only words and some of them can make short sentences. Teacher 4 reported that most of the pupils have prior knowledge when they start school, however only a few can make conversation using English vocabulary they are familiar from before. Teacher 5 said that a lot of pupils have vocabulary knowledge when they start school, and they can communicate a little bit. Teacher 6 reported that most of the pupils come with a lot of prior knowledge she said, “they are the YouTube generation” and some of them can communicate using these words.

5.5.2 The teacher building on the pupils’ prior knowledge

All teachers reported that they take the pupils’ existing vocabulary knowledge into consideration when they teach, and they build on that knowledge. Teacher 1 explained: “I always try to build on what they already know, and when they started in first grade many of them knew how to count and they knew a few colours so that is where we started”.

Teacher 2 explained:

I tried to. We often have kind of brainstorming at the start, and I ask them what you know about for example, clothes or farm and they often know, so well I think that is funny to show me what they can in advance.

Teacher 3 reported that she always tries to check if the pupils have any vocabulary prior knowledge before she presents the new words to them, in order to know what vocabulary she should present to them, therefore, if she wants to present vocabulary about fruits for example, she will try to challenge them and ask them “what fruits do you know?” and “can you give me two fruits?”.

Teacher 4 mentioned that she always tries to take the pupils’ existing vocabulary knowledge into consideration when she teaches. For example, she tries to make them guess the meaning of the words to figure out if they know them from before. Teacher 5 explained:

We have a lot of students who know a lot of English, so we tried to speak more English so they can translate. When you have someone that understands it is easier for them to try to talk English themselves when the other students are the one translating so does not take you long until you figure out who is already know the words. It helps a lot.

Teacher 6 explained:

Yes, so I always check for prior knowledge by showing pictures and asking them if they know the words before I tell them what the word is and when we read books, I ask them if they understand any of the words and if they can tell the class what the word means and then we kind of they learn together.

5.5.3 The pupils' existing knowledge during first grade

All teachers reported that most pupils in first grade can make simple conversation and communicate using the new words that they have learned. Teacher 1 mentioned that pupils in first grade can make simple conversations using the vocabulary that they have learned, such as, *I like, I don't like*, and they can ask simple questions. Further, they can talk about insects, fruit, clothes and make simple conversations about how they feel about things. Teacher 2 reported that pupils have a limited ability to make conversations using the new English vocabulary they have learnt in first grade. Teacher 3 said that most of the pupils can make conversation using the new words. Teacher 4 mentioned that pupils can speak simple sentences. Teacher 5 said that the pupils can make conversation and communicate. Teacher 6 mentioned that some of the pupils can communicate using the new English vocabulary.

Only three teachers (teacher1-3-6) reported that some pupils can read some words. Teacher 2 reported that pupils cannot read. While two teachers (teacher 5, and 4) stated that pupils can only recognize some words and read it. Teacher 1 said that pupils listen to book and read simple books using Raz-kids which is an educational website. Teacher 3 reported that only some of the pupils can read some words. Teacher 4 mentioned that pupils can read the words that they recognize. Teacher 6 mentioned that some of them can read the new words.

Five teachers (teacher 1, 2, 3,4, 6) reported that pupils can write or learn to write some word. Teacher 5 said that they do not learn to write. Teacher 1 stated that pupils practice writing, and they write simple sentences using the website Book Creator in order to make the writing experience interesting for them. Teacher 2 said that pupils can write only some words. Teacher 3 mentioned that, pupils practice writing. Teacher 4 expressed that pupils can write some words. For example, they can write a card to someone such as Christmas card or happy birthday card and she writes first and then the pupils do the same. Teacher 6 mentioned that pupils learn to write some words.

All six teachers said that pupils do not learn or practice spelling.

5.6 Materials, contextual factors, and Challenges

5.6.1 Materials

Five Teachers (teacher 1-2-3-5-6) reported that they have lots of different materials available at the school such as Chromebooks, or iPad, books, picturebook, flashcards, games, CDs. Only teacher 4: reported that there are not so many materials at her school for vocabulary teaching the pupils mainly use their iPad and online books such as Quest. However, there are Some other schoolbooks, picturebooks and flash cards available at the school as well. Teacher 1 she said that they have an English room with a lot of different things that can be used for vocabulary teaching such as, games, books, picture books, films, Chromebook, flashcards, spin cards. Additionally, she uses the book called stairs.

5.6.2 Contextual factors

All the six teachers reported that they have the freedom to decide and choose what materials to use. Teacher 1 expressed that she has the freedom to use additional books relevant to the topic and to decide what type of materials to use. Teacher 2 stated that she can use only the materials which are available at her school. Teacher 3 mentioned that she brings and buys a lot of useful materials for vocabulary teaching. Teacher 4 said that the teachers and the school principal decide what type

of materials can be used for vocabulary teaching. Teacher 5 stated that she uses the materials which are already available at the school, and if she needs additional materials, she asks the school for them. Teacher 6 reported that she has the freedom to decide and choose the suitable materials for the topic she wants to teach.

when asked to what degree the current curriculum and the new curriculum influence their vocabulary teaching all teachers said that they follow the goals of the curriculum. Teacher 1 reported that the curriculum is the base of her practices and influences her vocabulary teaching. Teacher 2 mentioned that the curriculum influences her vocabulary teaching to a large extent at the same time she teaches them what she thinks they should learn. Teacher 3 explained “it gives me the pointer on what to do what they want us to teach by the end of year two”. Teacher 4 said that they follow the goals of the curriculum, but they did not start with new curriculum they will start in August. Teacher 5 she explained that the curriculum influences her teaching to a large extent, and it is her main focus, because according to her it is what they need to teach the pupils. Teacher 6 described:

I like the way the new curriculum encourages us to kind of stray from the textbook a little bit and also try to incorporate many subjects into one plan so I can use English in other subjects as well because I only have one hour a week and it is not a lot so I think that is.

When asked if there are any tradition at the school that may influence their vocabulary teaching, four teachers (teachers 3-4-5-6) reported that there are not any traditions at their schools that may influence their vocabulary teaching. Two teachers only said that they have tradition at their schools that influences their vocabulary teaching. Teacher 1 stated:

I think it is a tradition that we want to teach vocabulary in a meaningful context not word for word so, I think it is a tradition at my school that the vocabulary should be taught in a meaningful context so all the plans we have should be coloured by that.

Teacher 2 described: “Yes, we have our own Språk Stasjon (language station) and we have our own classes for bilingual students, and we get influenced by them and learn some words so yes”.

When asked if they cooperate with other English teachers about vocabulary teaching, five teachers reported that they cooperate with other English teachers about vocabulary teaching. Only teacher 3 reported that she does not cooperate with other teachers, because she is the only English teacher at the school for first grade. Teacher 1 explained that usually there were two

teachers teaching English for first grade but this year she is the only English teacher for year one. Nevertheless, they have an English expert group at her school so when they make the new plans with the new curriculum, they work together with teachers from all the different grades. Teacher 2 and teacher 4 said that they cooperate with other English teachers a little bit only. Teacher 5 stated that there are three English teachers for first grade at the school and they cooperate together. Teacher 6 reported that she cooperates with other teachers for vocabulary teaching, and they have made all the plans together, so they know the progression in the vocabulary and the plans for all the grades at the school.

5.6.3 Challenges

All teachers said that one of the challenges that they face is that they do not have enough time and all of them reported that one hour a week for English subject is not enough and they need more time. Teacher 1 stated:

We always want more time, but I think this is what we have, and it is more about how we spend the time that is given, but if you split one hour and have a little English every day for the youngest, I think that is okay.

Therefore, she thinks starting every day with little English is a good idea. Teacher 6 thinks one hour a week to teach English is too little, but she tries to implement the language as much as possible so when they have the morning meeting, they usually listen to and sing an English song and she tries to use English in other subjects as well.

Additionally, teacher1 believes that the biggest challenge with regards to vocabulary teaching is that pupils at first grade know very little English at the same time they are very eager to learn, and she is afraid of overwhelming them. Teacher 2 thinks that it is challenging to teach pupils in first grade writing as well as she considers some of the books to be very difficult for them. Teacher 3 not having enough time is the only challenge about teaching vocabulary in first grade. Teacher 4 thinks that one of the most noteworthy challenges in vocabulary teaching is that some pupils have a prior knowledge for the English vocabulary and some pupils never heard an English word. This situation creates a challenge for her to choose suitable text and vocabularies for

everyone because it is easy for someone and thus, they will lose their desire to learn the language and get bored and it is difficult for someone else, she explained:

Maybe it is difficult for me to find something good for everyone, because some of them know a lot before they start the school and they have good vocabulary, but some of them have never heard an English word and never have seen a word in English so they are quite different and so the vocabulary will be easy for someone and difficult for someone else. It is difficult for me sometimes to find text which is ok for them because you start quite easy and maybe it will be boring for the other one, but we try to find little bit more difficult for them and the best pupils they know a lot and they are working very fast, so we find a new page for them, so we have more things to do and a little bit more difficult. Sometimes I use Concrete it is an app, and they have a lot of English work that they can do, so I print out and give them.

Teacher 5 described:

What is the challenging part, I actually think we should have more time to teach it because it is sixty minutes per week too little. There is also the part where you have to use English in all your classes not just in English class but you can use it in your math or your science or gym or anything so if you have different teachers teaching and the other teachers are not the English teacher then they do not use it as much but it is important for the students like now we are talking about bugs in science you can also say it in English because we have had it in English.

Teacher 6 expressed:

I think like six-year-olds they are like sponges they pick up words very quickly, but I find it hard to have them read and write because they are still learning the letters in Norwegian and I do not want to confuse them yeah because if they try to read in English they read it in Norwegian like the different sounds, so I usually wait until second and third grade before having them read.

6. Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion of the findings collected from the interviews with teachers to examine their beliefs and reported practices about teaching L2 English vocabulary. The findings are discussed and seen through the lens of theory and previous research from chapter three. The findings address the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do the teachers have about first grade L2 English vocabulary learning?
2. What are the teacher's reported practices about the teaching of L2 English vocabulary in first grade?
3. To what extent do the reported practices promote incidental vocabulary learning and to what extent do they promote deliberate learning?
4. What are the teachers' reported knowledge about the pupils' English vocabulary knowledge before they start school and how do the teachers build on that knowledge?
5. What are the challenges, the contextual factors that may face teachers, and what teaching materials are used to teach vocabulary to first grade?

This chapter consists of sections which are related to the research aims of the present thesis. After the introduction, the second section is: teachers' beliefs and reported practices which is divided into the subsections: songs, games, attach a context, picturebook, films, digital tools, flash cards, and finally L1 translation. The beliefs and the reported practices are presented and discussed at the same time. The third section is: the reported vocabulary knowledge category which is divided into two subsections: the pupils' prior knowledge, and the teacher building on the pupils' prior knowledge. The fourth section is: materials, contextual factors, and challenges.

6.2 Teachers' beliefs and reported practices

The results from chapter 5 will be discussed in light of recent theory and research on the teaching and learning vocabulary, and the teacher cognition research. According to Borg (2009:163), the

study of teacher cognition focuses on what the teachers “think, know, and believe” about teaching a subject, and how these beliefs relate to their practices in classroom.

6. 2.1 Songs

When asked about how they think that vocabulary can be best learned, five of the six teachers mentioned that they believe in using songs. Similarly, when asked about their reported practices, all teachers reported that they use songs to teach the new words. Additionally, all teachers except one stated that singing and using songs is the activity they use the most. Thus, all of the teachers put special emphasis on using songs to promote vocabulary learning. This reflects the importance of using songs in teaching vocabulary to first grade for those teachers. In line with this, using songs is generally considered a valuable teaching method in EFL/ESL classrooms (Murphey 1992; Fonseca-Mora 2000). For example, teacher 1, teacher 5 and teacher 6 reported that they use the English songs not only in the English lesson, but also during other lesson in order to promote acquiring new words. Teacher 1 stated that she started the school day with using song, while, teacher 5 mentioned that she uses songs during the whole week and during different lessons such as in math class. Teacher 6 expressed “I also put on the music in other lessons like in art lessons if they are drawing or painting, so I usually put the English songs on in the background and then they learn the songs throughout the year, so it kind of tricks them into learning new vocabulary”. Obviously, the use of songs by these teachers reflects promotion of vocabulary learning and develop competence and fluency while using the new words. In line with this, the significance of repetition in promoting receptive vocabulary acquisition was studied by Leniewska and Pichette (2016), who discovered that one of the most significant aspects for vocabulary acquisition was the amount of exposures to the word, with their preschool learners needing more than 60 exposures to a word in order to achieve 50% recall. This shows how important repetition is.

Furthermore, teacher 1 and teacher 4 mentioned that they use songs with videos that contain pictures, or body language and writing, to facilitate understanding of new words at the same time as acquiring those words. Teacher 1 stated that she uses songs that are very simple with videos that help pupils to understand the meaning of the new vocabulary because it is full of pictures and body language that help the pupils to acquire new words. Teacher 4 mentioned that she uses songs that present pictures along with writing, which help the pupils to recognize the meaning of the vocabulary and learn the writing as well. This reflects the role of those two teachers as facilitators

who use suitable methods for the pupils to help them to learn. Accordingly, when using songs “illustrations or other forms of visual reference may also be important in facilitating understanding and acquisition” (Davis, 2017: 453). The use of songs to support learning and understanding of vocabulary is reflected in a study by Medina (1990). The raw data showed that using songs that contain illustrations achieved higher levels of vocabulary acquisition than no illustration.

In contrast, teacher 1, 2 and 3 used songs because of their motivational effects. Teacher 1 reported that she perceived her students to enjoy songs. Teacher 2 stated that she used songs because they are interesting and funny. Teacher 3 considers singing a good way to make the learning experience more engaging and she reported that her pupils love singing. Accordingly, by using songs these three teachers are trying to stimulate the desire in pupils to learn the new vocabulary, which reflects that “songs are often recommended for use in young learner classrooms because of their motivational effects”. Davis (2017: 450). Furthermore, the use of songs is considered as one of the “resources which can engage children’s attention and highlight the target lexis or language patterns to be learnt” (Coyle and Gracia, 2014:277). A collection of studies by (Fisher 2001, Gan and Chong 1998, Coyle and Gómez Gracia 2014, listed in Davis 2017) revealed how the effects of songs on learner motivation as a group were mostly positive, however the findings for singular learners were mixed.

Another belief supporting the use of songs was expressed by teachers 1, 2 and 5 who reported that singing helps the pupils to practice the language. Teacher 1 said that through singing “they will practice until the language become automatic”. Teacher 2 used songs and rhymes to have the pupils practice the new vocabulary orally and develop their speaking and listening skills. Teacher 5 reported that using songs will promote and improve the oral skill and listening skill for pupils, and through singing and repeating songs they will experience the language which in turn will encourage them to talk. Clearly, teachers may be seen as trying to develop the oral and listening skills. A study by Davis and Fan (2016) cited in Davis (2017) shows that using song can promote the productive knowledge of vocabulary.

Only teacher 6 mentioned that through singing and repeating songs pupils will remember and memorize the new vocabulary when they connect it to songs. Research by Peretz, Radeau, and Arguin (2004) has demonstrated that when language and music are incorporated cognitively, music can be a useful strategy in language learning as well as for saving and recalling verbal input. As a result, music can aid language learning process by helping to retain information in long-term

memory. The sounds, rhythm, and intonation in songs are considered to be essential to the development of pronunciation skills for children, whereas the melody and repetitive structure help promote the memorization of key vocabulary and language patterns (Forster 2006).

Only teacher 5 stated that one additional reason for using songs is that pupils will learn the vocabulary in context. Therefore, when she wants to attach a context to the new vocabulary, she uses songs. By doing that teacher 5 teaches the pupils how to use the words in different situations. According to Nation (2013: 348), “incidental learning from context is the most important of all the sources of vocabulary learning”. Finally, all of the teachers in the present study held beliefs that using song is beneficial teaching method.

6.2.2 Games

When asked about their beliefs about teaching vocabulary, three teachers (teachers 3, 4, and 6) mentioned that they believe in using and playing games to teach the vocabulary. However, when asked about their reported practices, all teachers reported that they use games. Four teachers (teacher 1, 4, 5, 6) stated that they play games by using flashcards in addition to different types of games. Teacher 3 said that she uses games “to get the pupils involved”. According to this teacher this indicates that playing games can raise the pupil’s motivation, whereas teacher (Teacher 1, 2, and 5) explain that they use games in order to make pupils practice saying the new words. For these teachers this implies that playing games may help develop the speaking skills particularly and vocabulary acquisition generally.

In line with this Piaget (1962) considers play as fundamental to the development of intellectual capacity in children. His theory of play asserts that when a child grows older, their environment and play can allow them to improve their cognitive and language skills. Piaget also emphasizes the significance of play because it relates to the advancement of problem solving, imagination, and communication, all of which occur naturally when playing games. Vygotsky argues that the child advances and develops primarily through play activity, explaining that “play creates a zone of proximal development of the child. In play a child always behaves beyond his average age, above his daily behaviour; in play it is as though he were a head taller than himself” (Vygotsky, 1978:102). The affective filter hypothesis of the natural approach which was introduced by Krashen suggests that the role of the language teacher is to offer understandable input in a “low anxiety

situation” (Krashen, 1982: 32). Using games implies applying this concept in teaching English to raise children motivation and at the same time decreasing their anxiety during the English lesson this can then stimulate higher levels of English learning.

The findings of a research study by (Wang, Shang, Briody, 2011: 131-140) indicate that using games can enhance children's motivation, vocabulary development, and decrease anxiety caused by peer pressure.

6.2.3 Attach context

When asked about their beliefs about teaching vocabulary only one teacher, (teacher 1) believes that English vocabulary is best taught in a meaningful context with a lot of repetition. However, when asked about their reported practices, all the teachers reported that they attach a context to the new words. Five teachers (Teacher 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6) reported that they attach context by talking about the new words and by putting the new words in a sentence, while teacher (2, 4, and 6) they attach a context to the new words by telling the pupils a story or reading a book, eBook, and picturebook . On the other hand, only teacher 2 mentioned that attaching a context to the new words can be through watching videos. Only two teachers stated that they use songs in order for the pupils to hear the new words in a context. Obviously, each teacher has her own way in putting the new words in context which is “considered primarily incidental learning” (Nation, 2013:349). According to Nation (2013: 348), “incidental learning from context is the most important of all the sources of vocabulary learning”. Nation (2013: 348) argues that some examples of learning from context are extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversations, and learning from listening to stories, films, television, or the radio. Various studies have shown that incidental vocabulary acquisition can occur through extensive reading. For example, Nagy, Herman, and Anderson (1985: p. 234) in their study on L1 stated that “Incidental learning from context during free reading is the major mode of vocabulary acquisition during the school years, and the volume of experience with written language, interacting with reading comprehension ability, is the major determinant of vocabulary growth”. However, young learners in first grade cannot read, therefore, teachers should focus on aural input rather than written input. Moreover, as Ellis (1999) states, “inferencing may be a more effective mechanism of acquisition when the input is oral than when it is written [...] In addition to the cues provided by the verbal text itself, there are

other cues available from the intonation and gestures used by the speaker and from the situational context.”. (Ellis 1999: 37).

6.2.4 Picturebooks

When asked about their beliefs about teaching vocabulary, none of the teachers mentioned using picturebooks, however, when asked about their reported practices five teachers (teacher 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6) reported that they use picturebooks. Teacher 1 reported that she uses picture books because she thinks that this type of books will engage the pupils. Further, by using picturebooks. she asks the pupils to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from context She stated: “I always try to have them guess the meaning of new words, so we look at the pictures and try to find out what they could be”. In line with this “Picturebooks combine text and pictures, and the pictures provide a context that facilitates the comprehension of unfamiliar vocabulary” (Hestetraet, 2018:228). On the other hand, Teacher 6 reported that she uses picturebooks with each new theme of vocabulary in order to present the new words, because “the visual images in picturebooks are regarded and acknowledged as an effective scaffolding context, supporting comprehension” (Bland, 2013, p. 31). Mourao describes that with “picturebooks young learners are given a multitude of opportunities to use language that represents the picture and the words and interpretations created from the two modes coming together” (Mourao, 2015, p. 214). The repetitive content of the picturebooks helps the learners to be acquainted with authentic language. Furthermore, the stories in picture books are rich with chunks (Kersten 2015, p. 138).

6.2.5 Films

None of the teachers mentioned using films when they were asked about their beliefs.

However, all teachers reported that they use films. Teacher 1 reported that they have watched some films for example, when they talked about the very hungry Caterpillar, they watch the film to the book. However, she stated that she does not use films a lot. Teacher 5 mentioned that she uses movies. She said: “they have seen short movie like the very hungry Caterpillar”. As explained by Sherman (2003) and Webb (2010) films are beneficial technology for students to hear authentic spoken language and be introduced to different aspects of it, such as vocabulary, grammar, accent.

In other words, films provide learners with example of English used in real world context (Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003). Furthermore, “[f]ilms can enhance the language learning process by designing a series of activities that can develop linguistic, cultural and intercultural skills, as well as developing the practices of New Media Literacies that students need for the 21st century”(Chan and Herrero, 2010:13).

6.2.6 Digital tools and ICT programs

When asked about their beliefs about how they think vocabulary is best taught in first grade, none of the teachers mentioned using ICT programs or digital tools. However, when asked if they use ICT technology to teach vocabulary, all teachers reported that all the pupils have their own Chromebook, only teacher 4 said that pupils use iPad and all teachers said that pupils have access to a lot of educational websites. Five Teachers (teacher 1, 2, 3, 4 ,6) mentioned that they use *You tube*. Three teachers (teacher 1, 4 and 6) use YouTube channels in order to make the pupils listen to songs about the related topics, while Teacher 4 used it also to make pupils listen to short fairy tale. Moreover, teacher 2 used it to find good educational videos about the related topics. Only Teacher 2 mentioned that using You Tube video is the activity she uses the most. In line with this, YouTube videos is considered as one of the most efficient methods for accomplishing success in English classes. It can be used in an ESL classroom to help students improve their listening, speaking, pronunciation, and vocabulary skills. YouTube is a type of tool that can be used to learn a language both within and outside of the classroom (Jalaluddin, 2016: 1). There are many advantages to using YouTube in the classroom “The two primary benefits to using YouTube in the classroom are the exposure to authentic English as well as the promotion of a learning style that is more autonomous and student- centred” (Watkins & Wilkins 2011:113-114). The majority of the research on the use of YouTube in language classrooms has found that it facilitates student-centred learning, increased the peer engagement with each other (Jones & Cuthrell, 2011; Dieu, Campbell & Ammann, 2006), increased motive (Alm, 2006), and increased task validity (Mayora, 2009; Pong, 2010; Kelsen, 2009). Additionally, “[v]ideos may also be used in order to prompt language learning activities with a focus on specific skills, concepts, or cultural aspects to be reinforced or explored” (Brook, 2011: 40). According to the action research studies, the use of different YouTube videos has

reportedly enhanced students' oral, aural, and writing skills (Warschauer & Grimes, 2007; Kelsen, 2009; Pong, 2010; Mayora, 2009; Alm, 2006)

In a similar way, three teachers (teacher1, 3, and 6) stated that they use the website *Raz kids* which contains levelled eBooks where the pupils can read and listen to stories about the related topics. While both teachers (teacher1 and 4) use the website *Book Creator* in order to teach pupils writing, however, teacher 1 said “we do write also but maybe not as much as the oral English”. She mainly uses two websites *Book Creator* and *Creaza* to let the pupils make digital books where they write simple texts. Similarly, three teachers (teacher 2, 4, and 6) reported that they use website *Stairs* where pupils can do lots of different tasks, while two Teachers (teacher 3, and 4) stated that Pupils use the interactive website *Salaby* where they can practice the new vocabulary. Only Teacher 4 stated that she uses the website *Quest* where they can listen to the new words and do lots of tasks, whereas, teacher 4 mentioned that they use *Showbie* which is a website for communication.

The findings indicate that most of the activities that used to practice the new vocabulary in the classroom are done through the use of different educational websites. Additionally, all the teachers try to develop listening, writing, reading and speaking skills through using different websites and many online tasks to practice the new vocabulary. Furthermore, the findings indicate that the teachers incorporated the use of educational technology to a large extent in the young learner English classrooms. This use of the technology and digital tools provides widespread access to education. A considerable amount of research regarding CALL (computer assisted language learning) has resulted from the growing use of technology for second language learning and teaching. The majority of research indicate that teaching by using technology is good with regard to SLA (second language acquisition), nevertheless, there is a scarcity of research concerning young learners. (Whyte and Schmid, 2019: 345). On the other hand, ICT (Information and Communication technology) can be used to promote both deliberate and incidental vocabulary learning (Hestetræet, 2018: 229). Moreover, Nakata states that such programmes (ICT), “have been developed in a way that maximizes vocabulary learning” (Nakata, 2011, p. 17).

6.2.7 Flashcards

When asked about their beliefs, none of the teachers mentioned flashcards, however, all teachers mentioned that they use flash cards. teacher 1 reported that pupils play games using the flash cards. She mentioned two games such as *speed dating* and *learning body*. Additionally, she uses the flashcard in a way to make the pupils memorize the new words she explained that she puts the flashcards on the floor or on the wall, and first they just look at them and talk about them and when the pupils start to recognise the words, she may takes some of them away and they have to find out which ones are missing, while, Teacher 2 reported that she presents the new words by using the flashcards, then she hangs them on the whiteboard so the pupils will be able to see how these words are spelt. Teacher 4 mentioned that she presents the new words by using flash cards, then they sit in a circle and she gives each pupil a flashcard after that she asks them to give her the flashcard with the words she asks and the one who have it should come and give it to the teacher. Teacher 5 reported that they play a game by using flash cards, such as *Charades* and *Boom Boom*. Teacher 6 stated that she presents the new vocabulary by using flashcards and the pupils will see and practice the new vocabulary, after that, they have to say the words when she shows them flashcards.

Obviously, each teacher has its own way in using flashcards, some of the teacher try to make the pupils practice the new words and memorize them, while other teachers use the flashcards by playing vocabulary games. Thus, the use of flashcards is a combination of deliberate and incidental learning.

In line with this, the aim of the flashcard activity is to enhance learners' understanding of word form-meaning relationships. This is done by frequent retrieval (Webb and Nation, 2017:113). Furthermore, “learning from word card is a way of quickly increasing vocabulary size through focused intentional learning.” Nation (2013:445). Additionally, “using flashcards certainly contributes to growth in vocabulary knowledge but this knowledge needs to be further expanded through meaning-focused learning approaches” (Webb and Nation, 2017:174). Ultimately, flashcards facilitate recalling of the words because the vocabulary is on one side of the card and its meaning is on the other; consequently, seeing one side stimulates the learner to recall the other (Webb and Nation, 2017:114).

6.2.8 L1 translation

All teachers reported that they translate to L1. Teacher 1 reported that she tries to speak English as much as she can. Nevertheless, she used L1 translation only when she needed to let them understand, and she asked them first to see if they can find out what it means, while both teacher 2 and teacher 6 said that they speak English first, and then they will translate it to Norwegian. In similar way, both teacher 4 and 5 said that they speak English or read from the book and after that they will ask the pupils to tell them what it means in Norwegian. The ways that the teachers use L1 translation in the classroom can be seen congruent with Nation's (1978:173) suggestion about using L1 translation in a way that has benefits for both the teachers and the learners. Nation (1978:173) suggests some teaching techniques to utilize these benefits (1) the translation should be done rapidly. This can be beneficial if the teacher wants to give the meaning of unimportant word while reading a text, in this way the teacher satisfied the learners and avoided wasting time on an unimportant word. However, this can be drawback if the teacher wants to focus on the word and give it more time so the student will remember it. (2) translation is not restricted; it can be used to illustrate broad types of words. (3) The teacher may ask the students to answer using L1 translation in order to know if they have comprehended something, he or she introduced in different way.

In contrast, only teacher 3 reported that she speaks too much Norwegian during the English lesson and this is incongruent with literature about using translation. Ellis and Shintani (2013), explain that teachers should "maximise the use of L2 inside the classroom. Ideally this means that the L2 needs to become the medium as well as the object of instruction, especially in a foreign language setting" (Ellis and Shintani 2013: 24).

On the other hand, according to Littlewood and Yu (2011), using the LI will help learners feel less anxious. Similarly, Auerbach (1993) states that using L1 "reduces anxiety, enhances the affective environment for learning, takes into account sociocultural factors, facilitates incorporation of learners life experiences and allows for learner centred curriculum development" Auerbach (1993: 20). Young learners, for example, were less relaxed in an L2 only classroom than adult students in a South Korean study (Macaro and Lee 2013). However, in English language instruction, there is still an L2 dominance. (Copland and Ni, 2019).

Both Webb and Nation (2017) and Nation (2013) emphasize that the benefits of using translation include that it is a quick and easily understandable way of explaining the meaning of words. One additional advantage is then that is timesaving, leaving time for other learning activities. Nation (2013) explains that there are also disadvantages concerning the use of L1

translation. One of these is that L1 translation may result in more L1 use and therefore less L2 use. Another one disadvantage is that there may not be exact L1 translation of L2 word meaning (Nation, 2013: 121-122). In a similar way, Webb and Nation (2013) criticise using L1 translation because the L2 word and the L1 translation may be slightly different in meaning. The solution for that is that the teacher could provide the learners with synonyms or use pictures, real objects or gestures Webb and Nation (2017: 240). In this connection, it is relevant to point out that young learners do not know a lot of L1 words, so some L2 words concept may unfamiliar to them, and these concepts should then be explained in other age-appropriate ways (Webb and Nation 2017).

6.2.9 Oral storytelling

When asked about their beliefs, only one teacher (teacher 4) mentioned that she thinks that pupils best learn vocabulary through listening to stories. However, when asked about their reported practices, three teachers (teachers 2, 4, and 6) reported that they use oral storytelling. Three teachers (teacher 2, 4, 6) mentioned that when they want to attach a context to the new vocabulary, they will tell the pupils a story. In line with this, “incidental learning from context is the most important of all the sources of vocabulary learning” Nation (2013: 348). Accordingly, as Nation (2013: 348) states, some examples of learning from context are extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversations, and learning from listening to stories, films, television, or the radio.

Teacher 4 reported that sometimes she uses stories from You Tube where she finds nice stories with pictures and short fairy tales. Additionally, the schoolbook that they use *Quest*, has a website for teachers and short stories for the pupils where they can listen to different stories. She mentioned that she uses oral storytelling when she wants to develop the pupils’ listening skill. In line with this, “oral stories contain short sentences and are rich in repetitive vocabulary and formulaic language and therefore offer plentiful exposures and recycling of vocabulary” Hestetræet (2018:228). Moreover, as Bland (2015:184) argues, “if children have unlimited access to English language out-of- school environments, narrative can play an enormous role in their L2 acquisition.”

6.2. 10 Using and practicing the English vocabulary

Four teachers (teacher 1, 3, 4, 5) expressed that they believe that pupils best learn vocabulary through using and practicing it. For example, teacher 1 mentioned that she believes that the pupils need to practice the new vocabulary and she thinks it is important to give them opportunities to speak. Additionally, she reported that she believes that it is important to make a safe environment, so the pupils dare to speak even if they do not know so many words. Teacher 3 stated that she believes that pupils will learn by repeating the new vocabulary and by encouraging them to speak as much as possible. Further, she believes that pupils best learn vocabulary by using it. Teacher 4 said that she thinks that pupils learn the new words by talking to each other. Teacher 5 emphasized the importance of using the language in learning new words she stated that pupils best learn vocabulary through listening and experiencing and not being afraid to try to talk. This is seen congruent with Nation's "fluency development strand" (2013) Nation suggests that while implementing this strand the learners should practice the words they already know until they become eloquent (Nation 2013:3).

6.2.11 Motivation

Only (teacher 2) believes that vocabulary is best taught by making pupils like the English subject since she herself likes the subject and by making the learning experience funny, interesting, and exciting. This mean that this teacher focusses on the motivation. In line with this, Philips, S (1993) proposed that teachers should choose an activity that will sustain a high level of motivation and make English class a fun and promoting experience for the pupils. The activities should be easy, and the task should be within their capabilities. Additionally, Philips suggests that the activities should be to a large extent oral and a large amount of class time should be devoted to listening activities. For younger children, written tasks should be used rarely because children as young as six or seven years old are often not skilled yet in the mechanics of writing in their native tongue. The types of activities that are suitable for young learners are games, songs, stories, as well as speaking activities, and "total physical response activities, tasks that involve coloring, cutting, and sticking" Philips, s (1993: 7).

6.2.12 Using different teaching method

Only teacher 2 mentioned this. In line with this, Cameron (2001: 1) states, “knowledge about children's learning is seen as central to effective teaching. Successful lessons and activities are those that are tuned to the learning needs of pupils rather than to the demands of the next text-book unit, to the interests of the teacher.” She differentiates a “learning-centred” perspective from “learner-centred” teaching. Learner-centred teaching, the child becomes the focus of the teacher thinking and the curriculum plan this consider to be an advancement over focusing on the subject or curriculum. Therefore, presenting theories on Children’s Language Learning and children’s language acquisition is relevant and necessary to effective teaching and learning.

6.2.13 Visual aids and pictures

On the other hand, two teachers (teacher 5-6) expressed that they believe in using visual aids and this can be done through watching songs, video and films. Additionally, they believe in using picture to teach the new words.

Ultimately, all the teachers reported that they use songs, games, attach a context to the new vocabulary, picturebooks, films, digital tools, flashcards, and L1 translation.

Using songs, games, attach a context to the new vocabulary, picturebooks, and films are examples of incidental vocabulary teaching. At the same time these practices promote the incidental learning. According to Ellis (1999:35), research into second language acquisition (SLA) provides a distinction between incidental and deliberate acquisition. On the one side learners have the competence to pick up L2 items and rules even when their primary focus is on seeking to comprehend and convey messages and without any deliberate intent to do that. On the other side, several learners have the capacity to focus their main attention on the language code to be able to learn intentionally new L2 vocabulary and grammar. However, Ellis argues that the two forms of learning cannot be differentiated purely in terms of 'attention' the difference lies, somewhat, in a secondary difference between 'focal' and 'peripheral' attention; while deliberate learning needs focal attention to be intentionally put on the linguistic code (i.e. on form), incidental learning needs focal attention to be placed on meaning “but allows peripheral attention to be directed at form”. Ellis (1999:36). On the other hand, Hulstijn, (2001: 267) argues that the term incidental and deliberate learning in the psychological literature returns to

the beginning of the 20th century and the two terms can be differentiated simply regarding pre-learning instructions which either warn or do not warn learners that a test will follow. On the other side, Hulstijn, (2001) states that in applied linguistics most vocabulary items are acquired either incidentally that is by-product of the learner being involved in an activity such as listening, reading, speaking, or writing activity, or intentionally “referring to any activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory” (Hulstijn, 2001:270).

On the other hand, L1 translation and flashcards are examples of deliberate teaching, at the same time they promote deliberate learning. However, the flashcards are used by teachers in two different ways one of them is incidental such as when the pupils play games using flashcards, while the other way was deliberate way such as when the teachers try to make the pupils practice the new word and memorize them, in doing that teachers promote deliberate way of learning. In line with this, the main reason for the deliberate focus on vocabulary is that “it is effective [...] almost always leads to greater and faster gains, with a better chance of retention and of reaching productive levels of mastery” Schmitt (2008:341). Moreover, Hulstijn (2001: 270) states, “intentional vocabulary learning refers to any activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory”.

By examining the reported practices, the findings indicate that teachers promote incidental learning to large extent, this is seen incongruent with what Hestetræet, (2019: 226) states that “[t]he main recommendations for practice include having a varied and balanced approach to teaching YLL vocabulary. This means that it should allow for both explicit and implicit teaching and learning, which are processes that complement one another (Nation 2013, p. 348 in Hestetræet, 2019). Additionally, according to Webb and Nation (2017:49), “both incidental and deliberate learning provide benefits and should therefore be included together in a vocabulary learning programme”.

Finally, within teacher cognition research the relationship between beliefs and practices is often studied. The justifications for exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices according to (Borg:2017: 78) are: (1) Assisting teachers in recognizing discrepancies between their beliefs and practices stimulates cognitive inconsistency that can motivate teacher change. (2) Understanding into teachers' beliefs and practices will reveal how much teachers' cognitions and work represent good practice as outlined in the literature. There are several reasons for studying teacher cognition. First, one main reason is to explore the beliefs and practices of YLL

teachers, as well as to develop teacher education and teachers' professional knowledge. (Borg 2009; Gao and Ma 2011, Hestetræet 2018). In addition, similar reasons are outlined by (Li, 2019: 335) when she also adds the implications for classroom "studying teacher cognition is important in understanding teachers' perceptions and decisions, teaching and learning, the dynamics of the classroom, effective pedagogy and teacher learning". "More accurately, teacher cognition heavily influences the way teachers plan their lessons, the decisions they make in the teaching process and what kind of learning they promote in the classroom" (Pajares, 1992; Li, 2012).

6.3 Reported vocabulary knowledge

6.3.1 The pupils' prior knowledge

All teachers reported that most of the pupils come with a lot of prior knowledge of the English vocabulary, and some of them can communicate using these words. Teacher 1 justified that by explaining that the pupils have watched TV or YouTube. Teacher 6 stated "they are the YouTube generation". Similar findings are reflected in a research study by (Lefever 2012) which was conducted 2009-2010 and that examined the English skills such as reading, listening, and oral communications skills of seven and eight-year-old pupils in Iceland before they started learning English formally at age nine. Eventually, the result of the study revealed and proved that the children had acquired English vocabulary prior to starting school. Furthermore, the children were able to understand vocabulary and take part in conversation. The exposure to English media appeared to be one of the most significant factors affecting early incidental learning. Due to this exposure, all students in Iceland from all age groups "report a high self-assessment of English proficiency and, as in Norway, competence in English is taken for granted" Lefever (2012:98). Obviously, the same situation is reflected in Norway where the pupils start school with prior English vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, according to Brevik, Garvoll, and Ahmadian (2020) many English learners have considerable experience using the language outside the classroom by using online games and social media. This kind of using the English language outside of the classroom is referred to as "extramural English" (Brevik, Garvoll, and Ahmadian, 2020:190). Additionally, Marshall (1996) claims that, "Learning is controlled as much by experiences students bring to the learning situation as it is by the way the information is presented" (Marshall, 1996:81).

6.3.2 The teacher building on the pupils' prior knowledge

All teachers reported that they take the pupils' existing vocabulary knowledge into consideration when they teach, and they build on that knowledge by trying to know or figure out what the pupils already know in order to start from there. This seem congruent with what Lefever (2012) suggests when he referred to the role of exposure to media in making the learners acquire English language which in turn presents a range of difficulties and challenges for English teachers, such as the need to build on the pupils' prior knowledge of English and retain the pupils' desire to learn the language at school. Further, it is crucial that teachers fill the gap between the pupils' incidental learning of English and their school-based learning by stressing the communicative and productive use of English in lessons (Lefever 2012: 98).

All the teachers reported that they try to check the pupils' prior knowledge in order to build on that knowledge. Teacher 1 explained that she always tries to build on what they already know, and she starts from there. Teacher 2, 3, and 4 reported that they try to make them guess the meaning of the new vocabulary in order to find out who know them from before, while both teachers (teacher 4, 5) explained that they ask the pupils to translate the meaning of the new words to Norwegian before presenting their meaning, to figure out if the pupils know them from before, whereas, teacher 6 stated that she always checks their prior knowledge by showing the pupils pictures and asking them if they know the words before she tells them what the word is, and when she reads a book, she asks them if they understand any of the words and if they can tell the class what the word means. This can be seen as congruent with what Fisher, Frey and Lapp (2012: 23) suggest that teachers would be more accurate in their teaching by starting with what learners already know. Furthermore, fast evaluations of background knowledge warn students about their misunderstandings and may make the content a bit more relevant. The use of background knowledge means getting into the minds of learners (Fisher, Frey and Lapp, 2012: 23). Additionally, learning requires verifying and expanding one's background knowledge which develops "through interaction with people, places, experiences, Internet sources, texts, and content formally taught" (Fisher, Frey and Lapp, 2012: 23).

Obviously, all the teachers were trying to bridge the gap between the pupils' prior knowledge of English vocabulary which where learned incidentally and the new vocabulary, thus

the teacher role can be seen through the lens of the theory of Vygotsky. According to Cameron, Vygotsky's theory can be used in teaching foreign language to children. She stated:

Many of Vygotsky's ideas will help in constructing a theoretical frame-work for teaching foreign languages to children. In deciding what a teacher can do to support learning, we can use the idea that the adult tries to mediate *what next it is the child can learn*; this has applications in both lesson planning and in how teachers talk to pupils minute by minute. (Cameron: 2001:7-8).

Vygotsky introduces the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), that is defined by him as the “difference between the child’s developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky’s, 1978, p. 85). In other words, Barton (1994: 135) defined the concept as being “the gap between what a child can do unaided and abilities exhibited when supported by social scaffolding. When supported, children can do much more, socially supported activities are learned when they become internalized”. This means that there is a difference between what the child can do without support and what the child can do with help and guidance from an experienced partner.

6.4 Materials, contextual factors, and Challenges

When asked about the materials they use for vocabulary teaching, five Teachers (teachers 1-2-3-5-6) reported that they have lots of different materials available at the school such as Chromebooks for each pupil, or iPad, books, picturebook, flashcards, games, CDs. Only teacher 4 reported that there are not so many materials at her school for vocabulary teaching, and the pupils mainly use their iPad and online books such as Quest. However, there are Some other schoolbooks, picturebooks and flash cards available at the school as well, while teacher 1 she said that they have an English room with a lot of different things that can be used for vocabulary teaching such as, games, books, picture books, films, Chromebook, flashcards, spin cards. Additionally, she uses the book called stairs.

On the other hand, when asked about their reported practices, all teachers reported that they use different materials such as, games, picturebooks, digital tools, songs, films flashcards. Generally, the teachers used different materials, however, after examining their reported practices it was clear that they mainly used the digital tools and most of the classroom activity was done through the use of the digital tools, for example when the teachers want the pupils to practice

listening they will use songs from You Tube and when they want them to practice reading they will use website where they can find levelled eBook. They listen to the text, then they read it. And some teachers reported that pupils practice writing using the website in addition to doing a lot of different task by using the websites. This suggests that the most important materials used in first grade classroom during the English lesson are the digital tools; Chromebook and the websites. This reflects the importance of using the digital tools in the Norwegian modern classroom. A considerable amount of research regarding CALL (computer assisted language learning) has resulted from the growing use of technology for second language learning and teaching. The majority of research indicate that teaching by using technology is good with regard to SLA (second language acquisition), nevertheless, there is a scarcity of research concerning young learners. (Whyte and Schmid, 2019: 345). For instance, Lin (2015), examined 59 studies in the field, found that only 5 studies concentrated on young learners between (9 and 15) years old, whereas, there were not any studies concerning very young learners.

When examining the contextual factors, all the six teachers reported that they have the freedom to decide and choose what materials to use. This implies that there are not any factors that prevent the teachers from using any materials suitable for teaching the new English vocabulary. Additionally, this indicates that they are autonomous in this respect and they can select materials based on their own beliefs.

Four teachers (teachers 3-4-5-6) reported that there are not any traditions at their schools that may influence their vocabulary teaching. This suggests that there are not any factors that may affect their beliefs or restrict the practices. In contrast teacher 1 explains that it is a tradition at her school that they want to teach vocabulary in a meaningful context not word for word. In line with this, “incidental learning from context is the most important of all the sources of vocabulary learning” Nation (2013: 348). Additionally, teacher 2 described that they have a language station at her school for bilingual students where they get extra help. Thus, these traditions have a positive effect on their practice.

Five teachers reported that they cooperate with other English teachers about vocabulary teaching. Only teacher 3 reported that she does not cooperate with other teachers, because she is the only English teacher at the school for first grade. Teacher 1 explained that they have an English expert group at her school so when they make the new plans with the new curriculum, they work

together with teachers from all the different grades, while teacher 2 and teacher 4 said that they cooperate with other English teachers only to a small degree. Teacher 5 stated that there are three English teachers for first grade at the school and they cooperate together. Teacher 6 reported that she cooperates with other teachers for vocabulary teaching, and they have made all the plans together, so they know the progression in the vocabulary and the plans for all the grades at the school. It could be suggested that this kind of collaborative work between teachers may affect the teachers beliefs and practices concerning vocabulary teaching as mentioned by Borg (2003:94) that colleagues as one of the factors that can also restrict the ability of language teachers to follow practices that represent their beliefs.

All teachers said that one of the challenges that they face is that they do not have enough time and all of them reported that one hour a week for English subject is not enough and they therefore need more time. In line with this not having enough time is considered as one of the contextual factors that may contradict with teacher cognition (Borg, 2003:94). A study by Crookes & Arakaki (1999) in Borg (2003) found clear proof that stressful working environments had an influence on what language teachers did; in their research, teachers had to deal with intense workloads (about 50 hours per week), which restricted their time for preparing suitable activity for learners. This had a strong influence on the pedagogical choices of teachers. On the other hand, teacher 2 in the current study thinks that it is challenging to teach pupils in first grade writing, while teacher 6 reported that she finds it hard to have them read and write because they are still learning the letters in Norwegian. In line with this, Philips, (1993) proposed that teachers should choose an activity that will sustain a high level of motivation and make English class a fun and promoting experience for the pupils. The activities should be easy, and the task should be within their capabilities. Additionally, she suggests that the activities should be to a large extent oral and a large amount of class time should be devoted to listening activities. For younger children, written tasks should be used rarely because children as young as six or seven years old are often not skilled yet in the mechanics of writing in their native tongue. The types of activities that are suitable for young learners are games, songs, stories, as well as speaking activities, and “total physical response activities, tasks that involve coloring, cutting, and sticking.” Philips, s (1993: 7).

Teacher 4 thinks that one of the most noteworthy challenges in vocabulary teaching is that some pupils have a prior knowledge for the English vocabulary and some pupils never heard an English word. This situation creates a challenge for her to choose suitable text and vocabularies for

everyone because it is easy for someone and thus, they will lose their desire to learn the language and get bored and it is difficult for someone else, however she tries to find suitable tasks for everyone. This particular challenge was mentioned by Lefever (2012) when he talked about the role of exposure to media in making the learners acquire English language before they start school, which in turn presents a range of difficulties and challenges for English teachers, such as the need to build on the pupils' prior knowledge of English and retain the pupils' desire to learn the language at school. Further, it is crucial that teachers fill the gap between the pupils' incidental learning of English and their school-based learning by stressing the communicative and productive use of English in lessons (Lefever 2012: 98).

There is another contextual factor reported by teacher 5. She explained that they have to implement and use some English vocabulary in other classes not just in English class for example, in math, science and gym however teacher 5 reported that it is challenging to do that because there are different teachers for the other lessons and they are not English teachers and they do not use it as much. In line with this Borg (2003:81) indicates that contextual factors may cause a discrepancy between cognition and practice.

When asked to what degree the current curriculum and the new curriculum influence their vocabulary teaching, all teachers said that they follow the goals of the curriculum and stated that the curriculum influences their vocabulary teaching to a large extent. In line with this finding, Borg (2003:94) indicates that many studies show that teachers' practices are influenced by many factors and one of them is the curriculum standards. These factors can also restrict the ability of language teachers to follow practices that represent their beliefs.

6.5 Contribution, limitation and implications for further research and teaching

The present study contributes to the research field of teacher cognition and L2 Vocabulary teaching to young learners by researching L2 English vocabulary teaching within a teacher cognition perspective.

The main limitation of the present study is the low number of the participants. Therefore, the result cannot be generalized to the entire population of teachers. A large number of participants may have yielded different outcomes and the picture could have been more obvious. The second limitation of the study is seen in not conducting a classroom observation. A classroom observation

will help have a better understanding of the teachers' beliefs and practices. The third limitation is that the reported practices may not reflect the teachers' actual practices. The fourth limitation is seen in not conducting a vocabulary test for the pupils in order to examine their prior vocabulary knowledge when they start first grade. A vocabulary test for pupils would have increase the validity of the present study.

Further research about the use of digital tools and ICT programs in the YLL classroom is recommended because of its importance in the modern classroom and due to the scarcity of the research concerning the use of this technology on the YLL classrooms as mentioned by Lin (2015) who examined 59 studies in the field of CALL, found that only 5 studies concentrated on young learners between (9 and 15) years old, whereas, there were not any studies concerning very young learners. Another possible research could be conducted about the vocabulary size of young learners in first grade to examine their prior vocabulary knowledge acquired outside the classrooms. Additionally, more research about teaching and learning vocabulary concerning young learners L2 vocabulary is considered necessary, because there is a little research done in the field of young learners as referred to by (Hestetræet, 2019 and Oroz 2009).

Lastly, one implication for future teachers can be figured out from the findings. The implication is that all teachers tend to teach vocabulary mainly in incidental way, at the same time they promote incidental learning to a large extent. Therefore, there is a need for balance in using the incidental and deliberate method in teaching as suggested by (Hestetræet 2019, Schmitt 2008, and Nation 2013).

7. Conclusion

The current study has explored the teachers' beliefs and reported practices concerning the teaching of L2 vocabulary in first grade in Norway. The research project has implemented a teacher cognition framework to examine beliefs about vocabulary learning and reported vocabulary teaching practices. Therefore, this project has focused specifically on theory in relation to teacher cognition (Borg, 1998; 2003; 2006; 2009; 2015, 2017), teaching and learning vocabulary (Nation 2013, Webb and Nation 2017, Webb 2020), sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978).

Essentially, the study aimed to answer the following research questions: "What beliefs do the teachers have about first grade L2 vocabulary learning?" "What are the teacher's reported practices about the teaching of L2 vocabulary in first grade?" "To what extent do the reported practices promote incidental vocabulary learning and to what extent do they promote deliberate learning?" "What are the teachers' reported knowledge about the pupils' vocabulary knowledge before they start school and how do the teachers build on that knowledge?" "What are the challenges, the contextual factors that may face teachers, and what are the teaching materials used to teach vocabulary to first grade?".

In order to answer the questions, A qualitative method in form of semi-structured interviews with six first grade English teachers of varying levels of experience from different schools in Norway were conducted.

Firstly, what beliefs do the teachers have about first grade L2 vocabulary learning? The main finding concerning beliefs displayed that most of the teachers believed in using songs because of their many benefits in acquiring new language (Murphey 1992; Fonseca-Mora 2000), such as helping pupils to memorize the new words, through song pupils practice the language and because of their motivational effects.

Furthermore, most of the teachers believe that pupils best learn vocabulary through using and practicing them which is seen as congruent with Nation's fluency development strand (2013). On the other hand, three teachers believe that vocabulary is best taught through using and playing games because games imply comprehensible input and interaction which is seen in line with theories of (Piaget 1962, Vygotsky 1987, Krashen 1982). Further, two teachers believe that

vocabulary is best taught and learned by using visual aids and picture to teach the new words. Additionally, there were some beliefs that only one teacher reported, for example, teacher 1 reported that she believes that English vocabulary is best taught in a meaningful context with a lot of repetition, this is congruent with what Nation (2013) states: “incidental learning from context is the most important of all the sources of vocabulary learning” (Nation 2013: 348). In addition one teacher only believes that vocabulary is best taught by making pupils like the English subject since she herself likes the subject and by making the learning experience funny, interesting, and exciting thus, she emphasized the importance of the motivation in making pupils learn new vocabulary as suggested by Philips (1993). Moreover, only one teacher mentioned that she believes that vocabulary should be taught by using different teaching methods in line with Cameron (2001: 1). Finally, only one teacher thinks that pupils best learn vocabulary through listening. By exploring the teachers’ beliefs, the study concluded that their beliefs were in line with theories and recent research on teaching and learning vocabulary to young learners.

Secondly, what are the teacher’s reported practices about the teaching of L2 vocabulary in first grade? The study concluded that all the teachers reported that they use use songs, games, attached a context, films, digital tools, flashcards, translate to L. Further, most of the teacher reported that they use picturebooks, and only three teachers reported that they use oral storytelling. Ultimately, their practices seem to be in line with theories and recent research on the field. Furthermore, their practices are determined by curriculum aims.

Thirdly, by examining the teachers’ reported practices, the findings indicate that teachers promote incidental learning to a large extent. This is seen as incongruent with recent theory on the subject “[t]he main recommendations for practice include having a varied and balanced approach to teaching YLL vocabulary. This means that it should allow for both explicit and implicit teaching and learning, which are processes that complement one another” (Nation 2013: 348 in Hestetraet, 2019: 226). Additionally, according to Webb and Nation (2017:49), “both incidental and deliberate learning provide benefits and should therefore be included together in a vocabulary learning programme”.

Fourthly, what are the teachers' reported knowledge about the pupils’ vocabulary knowledge before they start school and how the teachers build on that knowledge? All teachers reported that most of the pupils come with a lot of prior knowledge of English vocabulary, and some of them can communicate using these words. In line with this finding Similar findings are

reflected in a research study by (Lefever 2012). All teachers reported that they take the pupils' existing vocabulary knowledge into consideration when they teach, and they build on that knowledge by trying to know or figure out what the pupils already know in order to start from there. In line with what Fisher, Frey and Lapp (2012: 23) suggest, (Cameron: 2001) and sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978).

Fifthly, what are the challenges, the contextual factors that may face teachers, and what are the teaching materials used to teach vocabulary to first grade? The study concluded that there are some challenges that the teachers face. For example, all teachers said they do not have enough time and all of them reported that one hour a week for English subject is not enough. In line with this, not having enough time is considered as one of the contextual factors that may contradict with teacher cognition (Borg, 2003:94). Only two teachers believed that it is challenging to teach pupils in first grade how to read or write. Further, only one teacher believed that one of the most noteworthy challenges in vocabulary teaching is that some pupils have a prior knowledge for the English vocabulary and some pupils never heard an English word. This situation creates a challenge when choosing suitable texts and vocabulary for everyone. This particular challenge was mentioned by Lefever (2012). Another challenge mentioned by one teacher is that they have to implement and use some English vocabulary in other classes, not just in English class, for example, in math. In line with this Borg (2003:81) indicates that contextual factors may cause a discrepancy between cognition and practice.

Further, all the six teachers reported that they have the freedom to decide and choose what materials to use. Additionally, they reported that there are not any traditions at their schools that may influence their vocabulary teaching. While five teachers reported that they cooperate with other English teachers about vocabulary teaching. It could be suggested that this kind of collaborative work between teachers may affect the teachers' beliefs and practices concerning vocabulary teaching as mentioned by Borg (2003:94).

When examining the materials used for vocabulary teaching, the study concluded that all the teachers use different materials available at their schools such as books, picturebook, flashcards, games, CDs, Chromebooks for each pupil and teacher, or iPad. Generally, the teachers used different materials, however, after examining their reported practices it was clear that they mainly used the digital tools and most of the classroom activities were carried through the use of these.

Ultimately, by examining the teachers' beliefs and reported practices in addition to exploring the challenges and the contextual factors, the study implements a teacher cognition framework and the findings were in line with theory and recent research on the teaching and learning vocabulary to young learners and teacher cognition. The reasons behind investigating the beliefs and the reported practices of YLL is referred to by Li (2019: 335) "studying teacher cognition is important in understanding teachers' perceptions and decisions, teaching and learning, the dynamics of the classroom, effective pedagogy and teacher learning" (Li 2019: 335). "More accurately, teacher cognition heavily influences the way teachers plan their lessons, the decisions they make in the teaching process and what kind of learning they promote in the classroom" (Pajares, 1992; Li, 2012). Further, understanding into teachers' beliefs and practices will reveal how much teachers' cognitions and work represent good practice as outlined in the literature (Borg:2017: 78).

More importantly, the result of the study was in line with theory and recent research on teaching and learning vocabulary to young learners. Thus, the study seeks to contribute to the research field of Learning and teaching L2 vocabulary. Moreover, it seeks to contribute to teacher cognition research.

The validity of the present study can be increased by using a large number of participants, a classroom observation and a vocabulary test for pupils in order to examine their prior vocabulary knowledge.

Because of the scarcity of research about using the digital tools in YLL classrooms and due to its important in modern classroom, further research in this field is recommended. Another possible research topic could be conducted about Young learners' vocabulary size to examine their prior knowledge which they acquire outside classrooms.

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9 Appendices

Appendix A: Information Letter

a template for informed consent

Are you interested in taking part in the research project?

”(A study of teacher cognition and EFL vocabulary teaching at the first grade)”?

This is an inquiry about participation in a research project where the main purpose is to [explore teacher cognition (the reported practices and beliefs) concerning vocabulary teaching in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in first grade in Norway]. In this letter we will give you information about the purpose of the project and what your participation will involve.

Purpose of the project

In this project (Master thesis), I will explore teacher cognition (the reported practices and beliefs) concerning vocabulary teaching in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in first grade in Norway.

A qualitative method such as semi-structured interviews will be conducted about how teachers teach vocabulary in first grade and how they believe the first grades learn vocabulary.

The following research questions will be addressed:

1. What beliefs do the teacher have about first grade EFL vocabulary learning?
2. What are the teacher’s reported practices about the teaching of EFL vocabulary in first grade?
3. To what extent does the reported practice promote incidental vocabulary learning and to what extent does it promote deliberate learning?

Who is responsible for the research project?

University of Stavanger.

Why are you being asked to participate?

I will ask six English teachers to participate.

What does participation involve for you?

If you choose to take part in the project, this will involve that you participate in an interview. It will take approx. 45 minutes. The interview includes questions about:

- 1. The teachers' background,
- 2. Methods in vocabulary teaching,
- 3. Learning vocabulary,
- 4. The learning material,
- 5. Learning aims/objectives,
- 6. Resources, challenges and contextual factors.

Participation is voluntary

Participation in the project is voluntary. If you chose to participate, you can withdraw your consent at any time without giving a reason. All information about you will then be made anonymous. There will be no negative consequences for you if you chose not to participate or later decide to withdraw.

Your personal privacy – how we will store and use your personal data

We will only use your personal data for the purpose(s) specified in this information letter. We will process your personal data confidentially and in accordance with data protection legislation (the General Data Protection Regulation and Personal Data Act).

- The university of Stavanger and my supervisor Torill Hestetraet will have access to the personal data.
- «I will replace your name and contact details with a code. The list of names, contact details and respective codes will be stored separately from the rest of the collected data», you will store the data on a research server, locked away/encrypted, etc.

I will store and work with data on my laptop and an audio recorder.

Your personal information such as your age, and occupation will be published.

What will happen to your personal data at the end of the research project?

The project is scheduled to end [01/06/2021]. The collected data will be anonymised at the end of the project, and the digital recordings will be deleted.

Your rights

So long as you can be identified in the collected data, you have the right to:

- access the personal data that is being processed about you
- request that your personal data is deleted
- request that incorrect personal data about you is corrected/rectified
- receive a copy of your personal data (data portability), and
- send a complaint to the Data Protection Officer or The Norwegian Data Protection Authority regarding the processing of your personal data

What gives us the right to process your personal data?

We will process your personal data based on your consent.

Based on an agreement with *[University of Stavanger]*, NSD – The Norwegian Centre for Research Data AS has assessed that the processing of personal data in this project is in accordance with data protection legislation.

Where can I find out more?

If you have questions about the project, or want to exercise your rights, contact:

- *[University of Stavanger]* via *[supervisor: Torill Irene Hestetræet]* by email: (torill.Hestetreet@uis.no) or by telephone: 51831358. Student: Asmaa Alsayed by email:(a.alsayed@stud.uis.no) or by telephone: 45663778.
- Our Data Protection Officer: *[insert name of the data protection officer at the institution responsible for the project]*
- NSD – The Norwegian Centre for Research Data AS, by email: (personverntjenester@nsd.no) or by telephone: +47 55 58 21 17.

Yours sincerely,

Project Leader
(Researcher/supervisor)

Student (if applicable)

Appendix B: Consent form

I have received and understood information about the project *[insert project title]* and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I give consent:

- to participate in an interview
- to participate in *(insert other methods, e.g. an online survey) – if applicable*
- for my/my child's teacher to give information about me/my child to this project (include the type of information)– if applicable*
- for my personal data to be processed outside the EU – if applicable*
- for information about me/myself to be published in a way that I can be recognised (describe in more detail)– if applicable*
- for my personal data to be stored after the end of the project for (insert purpose of storage e.g. follow-up studies) – if applicable*

I give consent for my personal data to be processed until the end date of the project, approx. *[insert date]*

(Signed by participant, date)

Appendix C: Interview Guide:

1. The teachers' background

1. How old are you?
2. How long have you been teaching?
3. How long have you been teaching English?
4. What are your formal teaching qualifications?
5. What are your formal qualifications in English?
6. What grades have you taught English in?

2. Teaching of vocabulary:

1. How do you believe English vocabulary is best taught in first grade?
2. How do you teach English vocabulary in first grade?
3. What vocabulary activities do you use when teaching first grade pupils?
4. What is the activity you use the most and why?
5. What vocabulary do you teach them? Please give examples of topics and word.
6. How do you choose vocabulary that you teach?
7. Do you teach them word phrases (chunks)? Please give examples.
8. How much hours of English per week do the pupils have in first grade?
9. How many words do you teach each week?
10. How many new words do you usually teach in a lesson?
11. How do you teach the new words?
12. How do you practice the new vocabulary with the pupils?

13. How do you present new words with visual stimuli?
14. Do you attach a context to vocabulary? How?
15. Do you use L1 translation? How?
16. Do you take into consideration the four major skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) when teaching vocabulary?
17. How do you teach English vocabulary through listening?
18. How do you teach English vocabulary through speaking?
19. How do you teach English vocabulary through reading?
20. How do you teach English vocabulary through writing?
21. Do the pupils practice the new vocabulary orally? How?
22. Do you use songs? And how are songs used? Could you give examples.
23. Do you recycle the new vocabulary from the previous lesson?
24. What ICT technology do you use to teach vocabulary and how?
25. Do you take the pupil's existing vocabulary knowledge into consideration when you teach? How?
26. What do you think is challenging about teaching vocabulary to first grade?
27. Do you teach the pupils how to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from context, e.g. from pictures and picture books?

3. Learning vocabulary

1. Do the children have any English vocabulary knowledge when they start school?
2. Can the pupils make conversations in English, using English vocabulary they are familiar from before when they start school?
3. How do you believe the pupils best learn vocabulary?
4. Can the pupils make conversations using the new English vocabulary they have learned in first grade?
3. Do the pupils learn to write English vocabulary in first grade?

4. Do the pupils learn to spell the new words?
5. Can the pupils read some English?

4.The learning material

1. What materials do you use for vocabulary teaching?
2. Who decides what material you can have/use in your vocabulary teaching?
3. Do you use picture books? How do you use them?
4. Do you use films, flashcards, vocabulary games, ICT programs?

Learning aims/objectives

1. How important would say vocabulary is in the teaching of English in first grade?
2. When you teach vocabulary, what do you think are the most important aims to focus on?

6.Resources, and contextual factors

- 1.Do you cooperate with other English teachers about vocabulary teaching and English teaching?
2. To what degree does the current curriculum and the new curriculum influence your vocabulary teaching?
3. Are there any traditions at your school that may influence your vocabulary teaching?
4. What types of materials are available at your school for the teaching of vocabulary?
5. To what extent do you think the time given to the syllabus assigned is enough? Why?

Appendix D: Approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data

PERSONAL DATA HANDLING PERSONAL REGISTER

NSD's assessment

Project title

A Teacher Cognition Study of Teachers' Beliefs and Reported Practices about EFL Vocabulary Teaching in First Grade

Reference number

859322

Registered

25.02.2020 av Asmaa Alsayed - a.alsayed@stud.uis.no

Data controller (institution responsible for the project)

Universitetet i Stavanger / Fakultet for utdanningsvitenskap og humaniora / Institutt for kultur- og språkvitenskap

Project leader (academic employee/supervisor or PhD candidate)

Torill Hestetret, Torill.hestetreet@uis.no, tlf: 51831358

Type of project

Student project, Master's thesis

Contact information, student

Asmaa Alsayed, a.alsayed@stud.uis.no, tlf: 45663778

Project period

01.09.2019 - 01.06.2021

Status

09.03.2020 - Assessed

Assessment (2)

09.03.2020 - Assessed

NSD has assessed the change registered on 06.03.2020. We find that the processing of personal data in this project will comply with data protection legislation, so long as it is

carried out in accordance with what is documented in the Notification Form and attachments, dated 09.03.2020, as well as in correspondence with NSD. Everything is in place for the processing to continue. Please note that the end date in the previous assessment was set to 01.06.2020. End date is now set to 01.06.2021 FOLLOW-UP OF THE PROJECT NSD will follow-up the project at the planned end date in order to determine whether the processing of personal data has been concluded. Good luck with the project! Contact person at NSD: Data Protection Services for Research: +47 55 58 21 17 (press 1)

25.02.2020 – Assessed

Our assessment is that the processing of personal data in this project will comply with data protection legislation, so long as it is carried out in accordance with what is documented in the Notification Form and attachments, dated 25.02.2020, as well as in correspondence with NSD. Everything is in place for the processing to begin. NOTIFY CHANGES If you intend to make changes to the processing of personal data in this project it may be necessary to notify NSD. This is done by updating the information registered in the Notification Form. On our website we explain which changes must be notified. Wait until you receive an answer from us before you carry out the changes. TYPE OF DATA AND DURATION The project will be processing general categories of personal data until 01.06.2020. LEGAL BASIS The project will gain consent from data subjects to process their personal data. We find that consent will meet the necessary requirements under art. 4 (11) and 7, in that it will be a freely given, specific, informed and unambiguous statement or action, which will be documented and can be withdrawn. The legal basis for processing personal data is therefore consent given by the data subject, cf. the General Data Protection Regulation art. 6.1 a). CONFIDENTIALITY Your informants are bound to professional secrecy. It is important that the interviews are conducted in such a way that there will be no collecting of information that could possibly identify individuals or disclose confidential information. PRINCIPLES RELATING TO PROCESSING PERSONAL DATA NSD finds that the planned processing of personal data will be in accordance with the principles under the General Data Protection Regulation regarding: - lawfulness, fairness and transparency (art. 5.1 a), in that data subjects will receive sufficient information about the processing and will give their consent - purpose limitation (art. 5.1 b), in that personal data will be collected for specified, explicit and legitimate purposes, and will not be processed for new, incompatible purposes - data minimisation (art. 5.1 c), in that only personal data which are adequate, relevant and necessary for the purpose of the project will be processed - storage limitation (art. 5.1 e), in that personal data will not be stored for longer than is necessary to fulfil the project's purpose THE RIGHTS OF DATA SUBJECTS Data subjects will have the following rights in this project: transparency (art. 12), information (art. 13), access (art. 15), rectification (art. 16), erasure (art. 17), restriction of processing (art. 18), notification (art. 19), data portability (art. 20). These rights apply so long as the data subject can be identified in the collected data. NSD finds that the

information that will be given to data subjects about the processing of their personal data will meet the legal requirements for form and content, cf. art. 12.1 and art. 13. We remind you that if a data subject contacts you about their rights, the data controller has a duty to reply within a month. FOLLOW YOUR INSTITUTION'S GUIDELINES NSD presupposes that the project will meet the requirements of accuracy (art. 5.1 d), integrity and confidentiality (art. 5.1 f) and security (art. 32) when processing personal data. To ensure that these requirements are met you must follow your institution's internal guidelines and/or consult with your institution (i.e. the institution responsible for the project). FOLLOW-UP OF THE PROJECT NSD will follow up the progress of the project at the planned end date in order to determine whether the processing of personal data has been concluded. Good luck with the project! Data Protection Services for Research: +47 55 58 21 17 (press 1)

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