"Everything I read on the Internet is in English"

On the impact of extramural English on

Swedish 16-year-old pupils' writing proficiency

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6. Ulla Sundemo och Monica Nilsson (2004) *Barnboksfiguren – en tillgång på olika plan.*
7. Inger Lindberg och Karin Sandwall (red) (2006) *Språket och kunskapen – att lära på sitt andraspråk i skola och högskola.*
8. Inger Lindberg och Sofie Johansson Kokkinakis (red) (2007) *OrdiL – en kartläggning av ordförrådet i läromedel för grundskolans senare år.*
9. Qarin Franker (2007) *Bildval i alfabetiseringsundervisning – en fråga om synsätt.*
10. Inga-Lena Rydén (2007) *Litteracitet och sociala nätverk ur ett andraspråksperspektiv.*
11. Marie Carlson (2007) *Språk och gräns/er – Om språk och identitetsskapande i några skönlitterära verk.*
12. Julia Prentice (2010) *Käppen i hjulen. Behärskning av svenska konventionaliserade uttryck bland gymnasieelever med varierande språklig bakgrund.*
13. Ninni Sirén(2012) *Språk och samspel med Alternativ och Kompletterande Kommunikation (AKK). En interventionsstudie i gymnasiesärskolan.*
14. Anna-Lena Godhe (2012) *Creating multimodal texts in language education.*

Sammanfattning

I denna licentiatuppsats undersöks vilken inverkan som exponering för engelska på fritiden kan ha på svenska grundskoleelevers förmåga att skriva på engelska. I uppsatsen analyseras brev och nyhetsartiklar skrivna av 37 elever i årskurs 9. Text-, menings- och ordlängd samt ordvariation undersöks med hjälp av korpusbaserade metoder. Också användningen av olika värderande och graderande uttryck i elevernas texter analyseras utifrån appraisal-teorin. Undersökningen visar att omfattningen av kontakten med engelska på fritiden samvarierar med meningslängd och ordvariation i elevernas brev, vilket indikerar att en stor exponering för engelska framför allt har en inverkan på det informella, vardagliga språket. Å andra sidan visar undersökningen också att frekvensen av exponering samvarierar med användningen av mer ovanliga ord och med ordlängd i nyhetsartiklarna. Detta tyder på att exponeringen har en positiv inverkan på ordförrådet även när det gäller ord utanför den vardagliga vokabulären. Undersökningen visar vidare att elever som har mycket kontakt med engelska på sin fritid använder fler och mer varierande språkliga verktyg för att uttrycka värderingar och för att nyansera dessa. Exempelvis använder dessa elever interpersonella satsadverbial i större omfattning än elever som har mindre kontakt med engelska på sin fritid. Sammanfattningsvis visar undersökningen att elever med stor exponering för engelska på sin fritid tycks anpassa sitt språk till de olika kontexterna i större utsträckning än elever med liten exponering för engelska; de uppvisar större registervariation.

Keywords: writing proficiency, extramural English, vocabulary range, register variation, appraisal theory, EFL, SLA, Swedish pupils

Acknowledgements

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Preface

As a teacher, I often feel stunned by the miracle of learning; 12-year-old pupils arrive at lesson one in a French course with almost no prior knowledge of the language and then, after a few months, they are able to understand texts and to communicate with others to some extent. Sometimes I wonder how it happened. Since most pupils come across very little French outside of school, I conclude that they learn the greatest part of the French they know at school and at home, doing their homework.

Teaching English is different since the pupils have studied the language for several years when I meet them, at the age of 13, and since they are surrounded by English outside of school, watching TV, listening to music or playing computer games, for instance. The miracle of learning that I experience when teaching English is of a different kind; sometimes I am amazed by the fluency and range of vocabulary some pupils demonstrate when they leave school at the age of 16. The two hours of English provided by school every week could hardly explain the level of some pupils' proficiency; it seems likely that they have also benefitted from contacts with the language outside of school. This group of pupils sometimes seem slightly bored at school; it is not always easy to create challenging English lessons in heterogeneous classrooms.

Quite often pupils who are not very interested in schoolwork, and who may have problems passing school subjects, somehow manage quite well in English, even if they forget to bring their books home to study before tests and do not seem to work very hard during lessons. When asked where they have come across unusual words that they know, they often tell me that they have learnt them playing computer games or that they remember the words from a song or a film. Some of these pupils obtain poor results when tested on texts and grammar that we have studied at school, but good results when they are tested on proficiency, especially listening and reading comprehension.

In my experience, most pupils seem to be better at understanding than writing, which I do not find strange at all. When we learn a language, we are often able to understand more complex language than we are able to produce ourselves, especially in writing, where gestures cannot accompany our attempts, and we often experience a greater need for correctness. Still, I sometimes feel displeased with my own teaching when I notice that pupils do not succeed well in written production, asking myself why the potential I see in the pupils is not

always realised in written production. Writing proficiency in English is vital for further studies and in many careers. Since it takes time to develop writing proficiency for different contexts, a stronger focus on writing proficiency in English at school might be needed. The importance of proficiency in writing is emphansised in the Swedish curriculum for compulsory education of 2011, where there is a stronger focus on writing in comparison to earlier curricula, such as the previous curriculum of 1994 (National Agency of Education 2011).

When I got the opportunity to carry out research, I wanted to focus on writing proficiency and examine to what extent contacts in English outside of school, *extramural English*[1], might have an impact on writing proficiency, and the degree to which pupils adapted their language use according to text types. When a language is present in everyday life, as English is in many young people's lives today, it seems necessary to include information about their learning outside of school when planning a course in order to enhance learning for all pupils. Thus, knowledge about the impact of extramural English would be valuable. It is my hope that his study will contribute further knowledge and insight regarding learners' writing that will be useful in planning English education.

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[1] Definition by Sundqvist (2009:25).

1 Introduction

1.1 General background

Section 1.1 outlines the background of the research objectives that are presented in 1.2. The role of the English language in a global and in a Swedish context is described in sections 1.1.1 and 1.1.2. Swedish teenagers' media contacts are mapped in section 1.1.3 and results of some earlier studies of the impact of extramural English are reported in section 1.1.4.

1.1.1 English on the global scene

On the global scene, the English language holds a leading position as the dominant language for communication across borders of different kinds, both cultural and political. The Internet has made information accessible and facilitated communication between people, at least in the richer part of the world where computers are available and the Internet affordable. Not only is information accessible and contacts possible; the abundance of information and the number of arenas for contacts through the Internet keep growing. English is often used when people with different native languages communicate on the Internet since English is the most widely learned foreign language in the world (Phillipson 2009:335). In academic, business and diplomatic contexts, English dominates. Globalisation means that ownership of companies crosses national borders and that cooperation between countries and institutions increases.

There are several reasons why the English language has obtained this dominant status: historical, political, cultural and finanical. In the 20ᵗʰ century, the USA succeeded Great Britain as the world's political and economic superpower, both having English as their main language, consequently, the status of the language is high. What is sometimes referred to as linguistic imperialism goes hand in hand with economic and political imperialism, which makes the status of the English language contentious (Phillipson 2009:336-338). However, discussion of political, historical and economic dimensions of the English language dominance is beyond the scope of the present study. What is relevant for the present study is that English is the dominant language in the world today.

1.1.2 English in Sweden

In Sweden, proficiency in English is generally regarded as highly valuable, and this is noticeable within the school system and in society (Hyltenstam 2004:51-52). At school, English is the only language apart from Swedish that is compulsory; all children are expected to study English from the age of 8 or 9[2] until they finish compulsory school at the age of 16. Since almost all pupils go on to upper secondary school, a majority of students continue to study English until the age of 19 (Swedish National Agency for Education 2000). International tests have shown that Swedish teenagers' level of proficiency in English is high in comparison to other countries (National Agency for School Improvement 2008:14; Hyltenstam 2004:52-54). In an evaluation of English as a school subject that included 7000 pupils, more than 85% of them regarded English as an important language to learn and therefore an important school subject[3]. Pupils generally believed that they would need English in their future careers and in communication with people from other countries, stressing the status of English as a global language (Oscarson & Apelgren 2005:87).

In higher education, an increasing number of courses are given in English and large parts of the literature are in English; thus good proficiency in English is necessary (Melander 2010:11). Some secondary schools provide content and language integrated instruction, where various subjects are taught in English, to prepare the students for further studies, international or in Sweden. Oral as well as writing proficiency in English is also required in professional careers. Further, many spare-time activities involve the use of English, not least on the Internet (see 1.1.3).

English has traditionally been regarded as a *foreign language* rather than a *second language* in Sweden, a second language being defined as a language which is not the speaker's mother tongue but is used in the society in which the speaker lives, for instance an immigrant learning Swedish in Sweden, whereas a foreign language is not normally used in the surrounding society or country, for instance a Swedish pupil studying Spanish, German or French at school (Hyltenstam 2004:52; Oscarson & Apelgren 2005:18). Some people, however, claim that English should be regarded as a second language in Sweden, based, among other things, on the fact that many people, especially young people, are surrounded by English in their everyday life, using it frequently for everyday contacts (Hyltenstam 2004:51-52).

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[2] The time of introduction is flexible and varies between 1st and 4th grade. (Oscarson & Apelgren 2005:29-30).

[3] 7000 pupils in grade 9 from 120 Swedish schools were included in the evaluation that was carried out in the spring of 2003 for the National Agency of Education (Oscarson & Apelgren 2005).

1.1.3 Media contacts among young people in Sweden

When starting school at the age of six, most Swedish children have come across a great deal of English already, watching TV and films, playing computer games or listening to music. The use of different media continues throughout the school years, often more intensely during the teenage years according to a report from the Swedish Media Council (2010:9).

Accessing English on the Internet requires a computer. In the investigation carried out by the Swedish Media Council, 74% of Swedish teenagers (12-16 years of age) reported that they had access to a computer in their own room and 62% that they used the Internet every day. TV also provides ample opportunity for exposure to English. Watching TV is an activity that teenagers engaged in less frequently in 2010 than in earlier investigations, but it was still the most frequent media activity: 64% of the 9-16-year-olds reported that they watched TV every day (Swedish Media Council 2010:9).

The Swedish Media Council also investigated the extent to which young people were frequent users of media, setting the limit at three hours a day. For teenagers, they found that 29% used the Internet, 21% watched TV and 18% played computer or video games for three hours or more every day. There were differences in habits between boys and girls among those who used media for at least three hours a day: boys were reported to use the Internet more often than girls, who used their mobile phones to a larger extent. The investigation also showed that those who spent a lot of time on one type of media activity were often engaged in other activities as well (Swedish Media Council 2010:9-10, 38).

When asked about their priorities in spare-time activities, 12-16-year-olds reported that the Internet was their first priority, followed by homework and seeing friends (in real life). Girls were engaged in homework more often than boys and they also used the Internet for social contacts more often, using blogs and Facebook, for instance. Boys played computer or video games and watched video clips to a larger extent. Compared to similar investigations carried out in 2005, the differences between boys and girls had diminished; their habits and access to media were more similar in 2010 than in 2005, even if a larger part of the boys still used their computers more often. Chatting and e-mailing were activities that teenagers were involved in more rarely in 2010 than in earlier studies; instead they kept in touch through other kinds of social networks, such as Facebook. In comparison to earlier studies, an increasing number of teenagers reported that they sometimes watched or read news on the Internet (Swedish Media Council 2010:10-15, 44-48).

1.1.4 *The impact of extramural English in a Swedish school context*

The survey of the Swedish Media Council (2010) mentioned in 1.1.3 did not report what languages the teenagers used in their media contacts. The evaluation of English as a school subject carried out by Oscarson and Apelgren (2005) among 7000 pupils in grade 9 included questions about extramural contacts in English. In the report, extramural contacts among pupils who passed English were contrasted with those who did not pass.

   The results showed that pupils who did not pass English generally had fewer extramural contacts than pupils who passed; fewer of them chatted, used the Internet and played computer games compared to the average pupil. Among the pupils who passed English, 80% or more watched English language TV programmes and listened to music with English texts, compared to 50% or less among those who did not pass. Half of the pupils who passed played computer games in English, compared to one third of those who did not pass. More than half of the pupils who passed reported that they read texts in English on the Internet, compared to one third of those who did not pass.

   Oscarson and Apelgren concluded that English did not have the same function in everyday life for pupils who did not pass English at school; extramural contacts seemed to be important for success at school. A comparison of tests for different proficiencies, reading comprehension, listening comprehension and writing, showed, however, that pupils who did not pass in writing were almost as active in English in their spare time as those who passed (Oscarson & Apelgren 2005:80-82, 91). The results may indicate that extramural contacts are not as important for writing proficiency as for comprehension. They may also indicate that schools should teach writing in a different way since some pupils seem not to succeed in spite of their exposure to the language. The results are somewhat difficult to interpret since the evaluation did not measure how often or for how long pupils had extramural contacts, only that contacts were reported, and therefore, it is of relevance to further investigate the impact of extramural exposure on pupils' writing proficiency in English.

   In a longitudinal study of vocabulary size among 363 Swedish secondary school students, Sylvén (2010) found that the amount of input of English had a major effect on vocabulary size. She compared vocabulary test results in classes where content and language instruction was integrated and many school subjects taught in English, with results in classes where English was normally used during English lessons only and other subjects were taught in Swedish. Some students with low exposure to English at school but frequent out-of-school contacts in English performed better than some of the students who were taught most subjects in English but with few contacts in English outside of school. Sylvén concludes that the total amount of contact in English seems to be decisive; it does not seem to matter whether the exposure to English occurs inside or outside of school (Sylvén 2010:219-220). However, she also found the

greatest improvement of vocabulary test results in a class where students were taught school subjects in English but only during part of the school day. Sylvén argues that the quality of the input is also relevant for improvement, not only quantity (Sylvén 2010:219-220). She refers to Cummins and Swain (1986) who point out that, for learning to occur, pupils must understand the academic input they are exposed to; a great amount of input is not enough if not understood. Further, Sylvén found a difference in exposure to English and test results between male and female students; male students had a larger number of contacts in English, playing computer games for instance, and also scored higher on the vocabulary tests on average. Reading in English seemed to be an activity that particularly helped to develop vocabulary (Sylvén 2010:220).

A strong correlation between vocabulary size and extramural English was one of the main findings in Sundqvist's study of the impact of out-of-school English on oral proficiency and vocabulary size (Sundqvist 2009:204). Sundqvist's informants were 80 pupils in grade 9, the same age group as in the present study. Sundqvist shows that Swedish learners of English who played video games or surfed the Internet had a larger vocabulary size than other pupils. Her results show that reading in English in spare time seemed to be of less importance for vocabulary size (Sundqvist 2009:156). Sundqvist also found a correlation between extramural English and oral proficiency, but the correlation was not as strong as for vocabulary size.

1.2   Aims and research questions

As described in section 1.1.4, the results of some earlier studies and reports show that extramural contacts correlate with success in English as a school subject. Extramural contacts correlate strongly with vocabulary size in two earlier studies. The results indicate that pupils increase their vocabulary when they also come into contact with English outside of school (Sylvén 2010; Sundqvist 2009). However, further studies are needed to establish the extent to which extramural contacts have an impact on proficiency in writing.

The objective of the present study is to investigate whether extramural contacts in English have an impact on 16-year-old pupils' proficiency in writing, and if so, what kind of impact. Since different text types may demand different registers, two different text types, letters and newspaper articles, are analysed to find out whether pupils vary their register according to text type and whether register variation correlates in any way with the frequency of extramural contacts (see 2.3.2). The informants, the tasks and methods used are described in chapter 3.

Thus, the two main research questions are:

- What impact does extramural English have on 16-year-old pupils' writing proficiency?
- What differences are manifested in two different text types, letters and newspaper articles, between pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs?

In order to answer the main research questions, the pupils' extramural contacts in English and their grades were investigated. The mapping of contacts was necessary to find out whether there were any substantial differences between the pupils' extramural contacts (see chapter 4). Texts, i.e. letters and articles, written by the pupils were collected and analysed. The analyses of the texts are of two different kinds: the first part provides quantifiable data about the texts, using corpus-based methods (see chapter 5). The second part analyses expressions of appraisal in a selection of texts by pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs (see chapter 6).

In addition, more specific questions were formulated for each part of the analysis.

Analysis of extramural English and grades:

- What kinds of extramural contacts do pupils have in English? How frequent are their contacts? Are there any differences between boys and girls regarding frequency of extramural English?
- Is there any correlation between frequency of extramural English and grades in English, especially grades on the written part of the National Test?

Corpus-based analysis of the pupils' texts:

- Are there any differences in text length, sentence length, word length, variation of vocabulary, and the use of infrequent words between text types and between pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs?

Analysis of expressions of appraisal in the pupils' texts:

- What kinds of linguistic resources do pupils with different frequency of extramural English and different grades in English use when expressing attitude and graduation in two different text types, a letter and a newspaper article?

1.3   Outline of study

Chapter 2 defines the theoretical framework of the study, including theories of language learning, of motivation and of text analysis. Chapter 3 describes the material, introduces the informants and briefly outlines the methods used. Chapter 4, 5 and 6 account for the methods and background of the analyses in greater detail and also report and discuss the results of the analyses. Chapter 4 focuses on extramural contacts, chapter 5 on the corpus-based analysis of the pupils' texts, and chapter 6 on the analysis of expressions of appraisal in the pupils' texts. Chapter 7 summarises the main results and indicate some pedagogical implications of the study. Some areas where further research is needed are also suggested.

2 Theoretical framework

The objective of this study is to find out whether pupils' contacts with English outside of school are of relevance for their writing proficiency in school and, if so, in what way. This implies, as do results from earlier studies, that pupils learn English not only in school but also outside of school (see Sylvén 2010; Sundqvist 2009). When researching how a language is learnt and how it is used in writing, a combination of perspectives in the analyses is valuable, paving the way for a richer description.

The theoretical framework of the present study is based on three interlinked perspectives: theories of foreign and second language learning[4], theories of motivation and theories about texts and text analyses. The three perspectives are all relevant for the main research questions. The first part of the framework, section 2.1, presents some second and foreign language learning theories that focus on the role of communication and on the role of exposure to language in learning, since the aim is to investigate what kind of learning might take place out of school with regard to writing proficiency. Krashen (1982) emphasises the importance of exposure to the target language; when exposed to comprehensible input, language development will occur. When English is used outside of school, it is often used for communication, and some theories, such as Vygotsky's (1978), emphasise learning as a social act; learning takes place in interaction with others. Since writing proficiency involves using vocabulary, learning theories addressing writing and vocabulary, such as Ellis' (1990) and Cobb's (2007), are of particular interest.

The second part of the framework, section 2.2, describes central theories about motivation and language learning. Motivation is an important factor for any kind of learning, not least language learning inside and outside of school. For Swedish teenagers, extramural English is often used for pleasure. Pupils engage in activities of their own choice, playing computer games or listening to music, for instance, which would suggest that they are highly motivated for the activity, and even if the purpose of the activity is not to learn English, they may still learn. The second part of the framework defines and describes motivational factors that are relevant for the present study.

As the main focus is on writing proficiency, there is also a focus on texts. Texts were collected from the pupils in order to study their writing proficiency,

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[4] For definitions of foreign and second language, see 1.1.2.

and a framework for analyses was outlined. The third part of the theoretical framework, section 2.3, defines the concept of text as used in the present study, outlining a framework for the analyses of the texts.

2.1 Foreign and second language learning theories

Figuring out how pupils learn and how to teach are issues that have always preoccupied, and probably always will preoccupy, teachers and researchers of learning. Depending on perspectives and aims, different studies come to different conclusions, each contributing to our knowledge of factors that influence learning in different ways, since different theories focus on learning from different points of view. There are sometimes clashes between perspectives that may be seen as incompatible, building on fundamentally different ideas about language learning. Some learning theories referred to in the present study focus on acquisition, where ample input of comprehensible language is more or less all that is needed for learning, whereas other theories claim that learners need support from teachers or other well-informed people in order for learning to take place - two quite different approaches to learning. Building on Habermas (1981/1984), Dunn and Lantolf call for discussions of incompatible theories; they argue that it is when we contest different claims that we come to reflect upon them, and potentially reinterpret our views of things (Dunn & Lantolf 1998:431). In the present study, the different positions of the theories open up a space where a discussion of the results from different points of view can take place, thus illuminating both the results and perhaps also, to some extent, the theories as well.

2.1.1 Language learning through acquisition

Building on Chomsky's well-known theory (e.g. Chomsky 1981) that we are born, or pre-programmed, with an ability to learn languages, Krashen (1982/2009) claims that only a great amount of comprehensible *input* of language is needed for learning to take place, or rather acquisition to take place, since he makes a sharp distinction between the concepts of *learning* and *acquisition*. The way children learn their mother tongue without conscious effort is acquisition; they acquire competence subconsciously. When using acquired language, the user is normally not aware of grammatical rules; instead he or she knows intuitively what is grammatical. The concept of learning, according to Krashen, means conscious knowledge of the language including explicit learning of grammar rules, for instance (Krashen 2009:10).

Krashen's *input hypothesis* claims that a necessary condition for a pupil to move to a higher language level, from i to $i + 1$, is that the pupil understands the

meaning of the input; if the level of the input is just above the present level of the pupil, understanding of the context will make the new input comprehensible. According to this hypothesis, with a focus on meaning, language structures are acquired subconsciously (Krashen 2009:21). Input could be provided at school as well as outside of school, depending on the situation. A learner of English in Britian or the USA would more easily access ample input of the language there than in a non-English speaking country, but TV and the Internet are examples of media that know no borders and allow for ample language input anywhere.

Through acquisition, the learner will develop what Krashen calls a *monitor*, an inner language editor, which helps to produce spoken or written *output*. The monitor works subconsciously. Krashen claims that formal rules or conscious learning can only be used in learners' language production if the learner has time enough to stop and think, which might be easier in writing than speech. The learner must focus on form, not on the content of the utterance, and the grammatical rule must also be known to the learner (Krashen 2009:16). If these conditions are met, Krashen claims that a learner might use the monitor consciously for formal learning to improve speech or writing, but not otherwise (Krashen 2009:20).

Krashen points out that even if most pupils do not have a genuine interest in grammar, they often feel extremely satisfied when the teacher has explained a rule that they already knew by means of acquisition; subconscious knowledge becomes conscious knowledge (Krashen 2009:119). It is, however, impossible to know exactly what each pupil has acquired and plan teaching according to that; the point is rather to make the pupils understand that they learn through acquisition (Krashen 2009:119-120).

Krashen believes that the teaching of foreign or second languages in classrooms is particularly valuable for beginners since their level is very low; outside of the classroom they would not access much comprehensible input. At a later stage, classroom teaching is less important, according to Krashen, provided of course that comprehensible input can be accessed in other ways (Krashen 2009:33).

Krashen strongly believes in the necessity of communication in language teaching. He claims that "the best methods might also be the most pleasant, and that, strange as it seems, language acquisition occurs when language is used for what it was designed for, communication" (Krashen 2009:1). The statement implies that learning occurs under pleasant circumstances when language is used for communication, which makes Krashen's theories particularly relevant for the present study that focuses on the impact of extramural English; if pupils engage in English activities outside of school, they often do so for pleasure and in order to communicate.

2.1.2 Language learning enhanced by teaching

Vygotsky (1978) views learning as a sociocultural act: through interaction with others children learn and develop, cognitively and culturally, at the same time, especially when guided by teachers or other well-informed people since he claims that instruction at the right level will enhance learning. Vygotsky found that if the level of instruction was too advanced compared to the learner's level, the instruction would not lead to development; for instruction to be efficient it had to be within *the zone of proximal development (ZPD),* within reach for the student but still above his or her current level (Vygotsky 1978). The activities a teacher initiates in order to assist the pupil's development within the zone of proximal development are sometimes called *scaffolding* (Bruner 1983:60). In teacher-initiated classroom discussions, new concepts and vocabulary are introduced. Joint activities are followed by pair or group work before individual tasks are introduced. Scaffolded in this way, pupils will be able to accomplish tasks they would not have been able to perform on their own (see, e.g., Gibbons 2001; Walqui 2007). Thus, input alone will not lead to development; interaction is necessary.

   It might be possible to see connections between Vygotsky's (1978) theory of a zone of proximal development (ZPD) and Krashen's input theory; they share the idea that the learner needs to be in contact with language on a slightly higher level than his or her current level. However, on a more profound level, the theories are often regarded as fundamentally different and therefore not possible to combine; they conceive of language, the learner and the learning process in completely different ways (Dunn & Lantolf 1998: 424). Others, like Ellis (1990) and Swain (2001), have tried to combine Krashen's theories with Vygotsky's, often, it appears, basing their theories on school practice, to work out teaching methods.

2.1.3 Learning to write

Building on Krashen's monitor theory and combining it with Vygotsky's theories on instruction, Ellis (1990) assumes that explicit teaching can be useful under certain conditions for developing writing proficiency. According to him, explicit teaching of a text type in combination with the reading of such texts will promote competence in writing that text type (see, e.g., Herzberg 2001:103). For instructions given about text types to be effective, the written task that the pupils are involved in must create a need to learn about form. Otherwise learning will not take place. Ellis points out that pupils learn in different ways; some pupils may learn more than others from instruction.

   Carrasquillo, Kucer and Abrams (2004) also describe different ways teachers can support pupils' writing development. Building on Vygotsky (1962, 1972),

they present mediational structures that link reading and writing. They underline the importance of providing models, and a model text is often the starting point for a series of activities they suggest in order to lead pupils to higher levels of competence. The teacher and the pupils may look at the model texts together and talk about text components and typical features of certain genres before they go on to write texts together in the class or in pairs. These important steps of development will prepare pupils for more independent writing, according to Carrasquillo, Kucer and Abrams. As pupils later move on to more complex tasks, they will not only need to focus on writing conventions but also to develop their ability to generate and organize major ideas.

Schleppegrell (2004) focuses on the function of language when learning at school, illustrating her point by citing Halliday (1993): "Language is the essential condition of learning, the process by which experience becomes knowledge" (in Schleppegrell 2004:1). Schleppegrell argues that it is necessary for pupils to master certain linguistic competencies in order to succeed at school and to understand content in school subjects. Thus, if Swedish pupils are expected to master the academic texts in English that they will come across at university level, they must be prepared for it. Schleppegrell finds it necessary to teach academic language explicitly at school since she can see a "hidden curriculum" in school practice where pupils are expected know how to express their knowledge in different subjects and to understand academic texts without really being taught how to do this. Schleppegrell's perspective on language is based on functional linguistics, demonstrating "how each clause presents experience and enacts a social relationship, at the same time that it links with a previous clause and builds up information that is then carried forward in subsequent clauses" (Schleppegrell 2004:3). According to Schleppegrell, the system of functional linguistics may provide "tools for linguistic analysis and for talking about the way language construes disciplinary content in functional ways", something that teachers, in her opinion, seem to need (Schleppegrell 2004:17). The present study uses a framework of this kind for text analysis (see 2.3.2).

Schleppegrell comments on Krashen whose position can be viewed as quite different from hers since he finds rather limited value in instruction. She comments on his theories in the light of pedagogic history and sees his ideas as a reaction against old-fashioned ideas focused on rules of grammar. She agrees with Krashen that ample input leads to acquisition but she points out that pupils rarely come across academic language to the extent that they will grasp it without explicit teaching. Therefore, for deeper understanding of school subjects taught in a second language and for academic registers, she sees Krashen's theories as insufficient (Schleppegrell, 2004:151). She finds support in Cummins (1980), who noted that pupils that were fluent in spoken English might still lack the ability to read and write in academic registers. Both

Cummins and Schleppegrell conclude that instruction is needed to develop academic registers.

There are several theories that emphasise the importance of instruction in witing various text types. The present study does not assume that instruction is unnecessary even though it focuses on the impact of extramural contacts. If pupils spend more time in contact with English outside of school than in school, activities during lessons could be crucial, enhancing and speeding up their language development.

2.1.4 Learning vocabulary

Learning to write also means learning the vocabulary necessary in different contexts. Knowledge of more infrequently used words is of interest in the present study in connection with the possible impact of exposure to English outside of school. As is well.known, the most commonly used words in the English language are of Anglo-Saxon origin while academic words are more often Graeco-Latin (Corson 1997:672, 677). Academic Graeco-Latin words are found more frequently in literary than spoken contexts and are, therefore, less easily accessed; exposure to academic vocabulary is more likely to occur during reading than watching TV, for instance (Corson 1997:677). Children's books and popular magazines contain more than twice as many rare words as prime-time TV-programmes, for instance (Hayes and Ahrens 1988 in Corson 1997:677). Corson, thus, concludes that students' success in learning academic registers largely depends on their life experiences outside of school. Depending on their sociocultural background, they are more or less prepared when they come to school to understand and use the academic vocabulary used in teaching (Corson 1997: 674). Teachers must, therefore, adopt teaching strategies that compensate for differences in sociocultural background; Corson's view is in line with Schleppegrell's (see 2.1.3).

Cobb also argues that building a functional second language lexicon for reading from reading alone, which Krashen and McQuillan (2008) advocate, is not possible for the majority of second language learners within the normal time frame of second language instruction at school (Cobb 2007, 2008). In order to come across and acquire infrequently used vocabulary, pupils would have to spend more time reading than school can normally offer. According to Cobb, second language learners need instruction as well: "an adequate second lexicon will not happen by itself; it will be provisioned through well-designed instruction including but not limited to reading" (Cobb 2008:113). Alongside of reading, he suggests targeted activities that practise vocabulary for a quicker way to learn vocabulary.

2.2 Motivation and learning

Motivation, the second perspective of the theoretical framework, is important for any kind of learning, not least for learning foreign or second languages. Motivation is a complex concept that can be defined and explained in many different ways. According to Dörnyei, motivation explains *why* people decide to do something (choice of activity), *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity (persistence) and *how hard* they are going to pursue it (effort) (Dörnyei 2001:8). Most, if not all, activities that humans take part in are the result of various factors having to do with motivation.

The learning of a second or foreign language does not happen just because you decide at one moment in time that you want to learn it; you must be motivated again and again. Dörnyei and Otto (1998) describe motivation to learn a second language as a "dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates and evaluates cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (in Dörnyei 2001:9). *Arousal* is a key concept in second language learning, according to them. Schumann (1997) argues that second language learning is above all emotionally driven and that emotion is behind most cognition (in Dörnyei 2001:11).

Expectancy-value theories focus on two key factors for motivation; "the individual's *expectancy of success* in a given task " and "the *value* the individual attaches to success on that task"(Dörnyei 2001:20, author's italics). According to Dörnyei some factors seem to determine the expectancy of success: past experiences, judging one's own competence and maintaining one's self-esteem. Experiences of failure or success are processed by learners and the experiences may affect future achievements (Dörnyei 2001:57). According to Walker and Symons (1997), five themes emerge from leading theories of motivation: "Human motivation is at its highest when people are competent, have sufficient autonomy, set worthwhile goals, get feedback and are affirmed by others" (in Dörnyei 2001:18).

The distinction between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation is relevant for the present study. When engaging in English activities outside of school, such as watching films or listening to music, motivation is most likely intrinsic; the motive is perhaps to experience pleasure or satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation may be more common in school situations, according to Dörnyei; you perform in order to gain something (Dörnyei 2001:33). At school, there are goals that have to be obtained in school subjects and pupils are told what they have to achieve in order to pass a test or get good grades. Many pupils are highly motivated to strive for the goals that school or parents set up since motivation may be aroused (or diminished) through external sources, for example parents or teachers.

Krashen also draws attention to affective variables that might influence language acquisition. According to him, motivation and self-confidence are important factors for success: highly motivated pupils perform better as do pupils who believe in themselves. A low anxiety level in the individual or in the classroom is the third affective variable that Krashen discusses (Krashen 2009:31).

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) pay attention to motivation on different levels of the educational situation: the micro-level is concerned with motivational effects on the cognitive processing of second language stimuli, the classroom level covers motivational activities and techniques, the syllabus/curriculum level looks at content decisions based on needs analysis and the extracurricular level is concerned with informal out-of-school and long-term factors (in Dörnyei 2001:109). This multi-layer perspective is particularly valuable for the present study since it includes not only school situations but also out-of-school factors. When language development takes place, motivation may be activated in any or all of those layers.

2.3 Theories about text and text analysis

The third perspective of the theoretical framework defines the concept of text in the present study and outlines a framework for text analysis.

2.3.1 The concept of text

Building on Bakthin's concept of *double dialogues*, Evensen sees a text as a dialogue between reader and writer "here and now" and also as an interaction that bridges the past and the future since the text carries traces of past interactions into future ones (Bakthin 1981; Evensen 2002:385). Bakthin's concept of *intertextuality* is further developed by Fairclough (1992) who distinguished two types of intertextuality: *manifest intertextuality* where quotations or paraphrases incorporate or respond to earlier texts and *interdiscursivity* where the writer uses conventions from recognizable text types (in Hyland 2009:33).

Evensen describes this double dialogue as a lens that singles out different aspects of the text. This framework allows us to analyse immediate interaction interpreted "through the lens of more stable resources for meaning making" (Evensen 2002: 403). Evensen continues: "Hence, what appears in immediate discourse, its here and now, is never taken strictly out of the blue. We simply do not invent anew all our resources for meaning each time we interact" (Evensen 2002:403). At the same time, conventions are not fixed; with this approach, strict rules for genres or language communities cannot be defined once and for

all since the boundaries are flexible, blurred and continuously changing (Evensen 2002:404). Still, it is impossible to disregard existing norms since they colour the texts that are being written. Thus, a combination of perspectives is necessary and possible. The text functions as a lens, through which the writer and his or her use of language are accessed as well as conventions interpreted by the writer.

As Nystrand (1989) points out, a good writer is a writer who manages to convince the reader, a writer who elaborates the text according to his or her assumptions about the reader's knowledge and expectations (in Hyland 2002:34). Kramsch (1997) supports this view of how texts can be interpreted. With her rhetorical approach, she believes that texts refer to a reality beyond them but also represent a relationship to their readers where the text attempts to position the reader in a specific way by evoking assumed shared schemata (in Hyland 2002:13). Thus, in the present study, the texts written by the pupils will reflect aspects of their own proficiency, their interpretations of the tasks, their ideas about the text types, and their approach to potential readers.

2.3.2 Framework for text analysis

Systemic Functional Language, SFL, is a theoretical framework that focuses on the functions of language in different contexts (Halliday 2004). Martin and White claim that "[a]t heart SFL is a multi-perspectival model, designed to provide analysts with complementary lenses for interpreting language in use" (Martin & White 2005:7), which would make SFL applicable to Evensen's model for text analyses. Reading a text, it is often possible to guess the situation in which it was written and, inversely, in different situations, we make specific linguistic choices when writing. We recognise different text types such as bedtime stories, letters, newspaper articles and recipes, and we have a notion of the kind of language we could use or find in different text types.[5] Linguistic choices applicable in certain situations are called registers: "A register is a functional variety of language – the patterns of instantiation[6] of the overall system associated with a given type of context " (Halliday 2004:27). Thus, registers can be regarded as text types or as resources for making meaning in texts (Halliday 2004:26-28). The instructions for the written tasks in the present

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[5] Halliday (2004) sees spoken language as text alongside written text (Halliday 2004:26-27). Since only written text was used in the present study, the term *text* will here be used for written text.

[6] Halliday explains that language system and text are related through a cline of instantiation, as climate and weather are related, only the perspectives vary from generalised to more specific (Halliday 2004:26-27).

study invited the pupils to write a letter and a newspaper article, i.e to use two different registers (see 3.1.1).

Schleppegrell sees register as a key feature in functional analysis of language use. She defines register in the following way, rephrasing Halliday (1978): "Register is the term for the configuration of lexical and grammatical resources which realizes a particular set of meanings" (Schleppegrell 2004:45-46). One could thus speak of a mathematical register, for instance. A register includes not only certain lexical choices but also ways to express oneself in that particular context in terms of grammar or structure. In the present study, the term *register* is used when the system of grammatical and lexical resources is discussed; the terms *text* and *text type* are otherwise used.

Register variation can be regarded as responses to differences in the context of situation, where *field* (what is talked about), *tenor* (the relationship between writer and reader or speaker and hearer) and *mode* (expectations how text types should be organized) influence lexical and grammatical choices (Schleppegrell 2004:46). Grammatical and discourse features can be examined in texts by analysing how field, tenor and mode are realised linguistically in different contexts through the use of different *metafunctions*.

There are three kinds of metafunctions: the *ideational* metafunction that realises field, the *interpersonal* metafunction that realises tenor and the *textual* metafunction that realises mode (Schleppegrell 2004:47). Ideational resources provide expressions for experiences, for instance describing what is going on where, when and why. Interpersonal resources are concerned with social relations and express interaction between persons. They are also used to express feelings. Textual resources make information flow; the textual metafunction is concerned with the organisation of expressions (Martin & White 2005: 7-8; Holmberg & Karlsson 2006:20-24). These connections between context and language make it possible for us to guess the context when reading a text out of context, as mentioned above, and they also influence our writing; we make different linguistic choices depending on text type. We would, for instance, make different linguistic choices when we write a formal letter to a company director as opposed to an e-mail to a close friend, realising field, tenor and mode differently.

Metafunctions can be realised at different levels, or strata, within the language system. The first level, *discourse semantics,* is concerned with the organisation of texts, for instance how events are linked, whereas the second level, *lexicogrammar*, is concerned with words and structures. The next level, *graphology*, which includes punctuation and layout, is the most concrete of these levels for written language (Martin & White 2005:8-9).

In their modelling of resources for *appraisal*, building on Halliday's framework, Martin and White have extended and developed the interpersonal metafunction at the level of discourse semantics. In comparison to Halliday, Martin and White's attention is focused to a greater extent on written discourse,

rather than spoken, since they recognised a need for "a richer understanding of interpersonal meaning in monologic texts" (Martin & White 2005:8). The appraisal system is concerned with "how writers/speakers approve and disapprove, enthuse and abhor… and with how they position their readers/listeners to do likewise" (Martin & White 2005:1), thus functioning on the interpersonal level, depicting attitudes and engagement in the interpersonal exchange.

Martin and White bring attention to the complementarity between meaning within the clause (lexicogrammar) and meaning beyond the clause (discourse semantics) (Martin & White 2005:12). The appraisal system allows for an analysis of resources expressing attitude even though these resources may belong to different parts of the lexicogrammar; the appraisal system is therefore placed at a level above lexicogrammar, at the level of discourse semantics (Holmberg & Karlsson 2006:207).

There are three domains within the appraisal system that operate at the level of discourse semantics: *attitude, engagement and graduation.* Expressions for *attitude*, such as feelings, emotional reactions, judgement and evaluation are the focus of the first category. *Engagement* is concerned with the sources of attitudes and different voices in discourse, while *graduation* focuses on the grading of phenomena. On the level of lexicogrammar, expressions for attitude, engagement and graduation can be realised in different forms, such as modal verbs, modal adjuncts, repetition and intensification (Martin & White 2005:35).

The appraisal system is used in the present study to identify register variation in texts written by pupils differing in their exposure to extramural English. A more detailed description of attitude and graduation in the appraisal system and the use of the system in the present study is given in section 6.1.

Corpus-based methods have also been used to identify register variation and differences between writers with frequent or infrequent extramural contacts. Pupils' texts have been analysed with regard to text length, sentence length, word length, word variation and the use of words that are infrequent in English. The framework of the corpus-based analysis is described in section 5.1.

3 Design and methods

This chapter outlines the design of the study. The material collected is described and the reasons for the choice of material are discussed in sections 3.1.1 - 3.1.5. Section 3.2 introduces the school and the informant group. The implementation of the study is described in section 3.2.3. Finally, in section 3.3, the methods used for analyses are outlined.

3.1 Design of the study

This section describes and discusses the choice of material. Basically, three kinds of material were needed to study the possible impact of exposure to English outside of school on pupils' writing:

> 1. Texts written by the pupils
> 2. Information about pupils' extramural contacts with English
> 3. Other kinds of relevant background information, such as information about English lessons, grades in English as well as other languages, and socio-economic background

The following material was therefore collected from each pupil (time spent for each activity in parentheses):

- Two texts; a letter/e-mail and a newspaper article (2x60 minutes)
- A questionnaire (40 minutes)
- A language diary (7x15 minutes)

Additional data and information were collected from the following sources:

- Interviews with the English/Swedish teachers[7] of the classes (2x15 minutes)
- Interviews with groups of three pupils from the classes (2x15 minutes)

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[7] Each of the teachers taught English and Swedish in their class.

- Grades in all subjects (from accessible official documents)
- Results on National Tests in English and Swedish (from school records)

3.1.1 The video clip and the tasks

All 37 pupils produced two texts each, a letter and a newspaper article, based on a video clip from the BBC[8] about the miraculous landing of a plane on the Hudson River in January 2009. Finding a suitable video clip was a challenge since it had to be about something that would catch the pupils' interest, both boys' and girls', without being too violent or terrifying. The accident on the Hudson River was dramatic but ended happily without casualties.

The accident took place in the USA but was reported by the BBC in this clip; therefore, both British and American English were used. The clip shows the plane landing on the river and the rescue operation. There are interviews with passengers and eyewitnesses of different ages and sex, but more males than females appear in the clip. The clip also includes maps showing where the plane took off and where the problem occurred, with indications of time. The captain is described as a hero but there is no interview with him, only a photo and witnesses describing his heroic action. There is a short statement from the captain's wife, expressing her pride and gratitude that everything ended well.

In the first task (App. 1), the pupils were encouraged to imagine that they were on the plane they had seen in the video clip or near the Hudson River, and they were asked to write a letter or an e-mail to a friend, telling him or her about the experience. In the second task (App. 1), the pupils were asked to imagine that they were newspaper reporters writing an article about the accident. Both texts were to contain 150-200 words each. The pupils were told not to use spelling or grammar control provided by the computer since that would have brought in an additional factor to consider in the analysis. If spelling/grammar control had been allowed, some pupils might have used it and others not, which would have made the analysis more difficult and not as relevant. The implementation of the tasks is described in section 3.2.3.

The use of the video clip allowed all pupils to write about the same topic, facilitating a comparison of the texts. The tasks were designed to cover two different text types: a personal letter/e-mail, which would require an informal, everyday use of language, and a newspaper article, which would normally demand a more advanced or, at least, a somewhat different register in comparison to the letter. The text types were chosen because it was likely that the pupils had come across them before and because they allowed for different solutions; informal letters or e-mails could be written in many different ways

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[8] Video clip from the BBC (January 2009):<http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/americas/7832301.stm>

and still be identified as such. Newspaper articles could be more or less formal but still be identified as articles. The tasks were designed to make it possible for most pupils to write two texts even if they found writing in English a struggle. These text types were also suitable with regard to the content of the video clip. The video clip and the tasks were tested on five pupils in grade nine in February 2009. Their positive evaluation of the tasks and my own analysis of the relevance of the texts they produced for the research objective settled my decision to use the video clip and the tasks.

3.1.2 The questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to provide information regarding a number of background factors that were deemed relevant with regard to the pupils' ability to write, and, most of all, to provide information about extramural contacts in English according to the focus of the study. In the questionnaire, the pupils reported what kind of contacts they had in English and how often they had such contacts. They were asked whether and how often they wrote in English outside of school: if they chatted, sent e-mails, sent text messages (mobile phone), wrote letters or other things. They were also asked questions about reading in English in their spare time: if they read books, newspapers, comics, blogs/other websites, or manuals/magazines. They were asked how often they spoke English outside of school and how often they listened to music with English lyrics or watched English-speaking TV programmes or films, with or without subtitles. The pupils marked alternatives showing the frequency of every activity: every day, once or a few times a week, once or a few times a month and never or almost never. A scale was used to calculate and summarise their contacts (see 4.1.1). Other questions covered the pupils' attitudes towards the English language and English as a school subject as well as their views on their own capacity. There were also questions about the pupils' cultural and language background, and about their parents' education and occupation.

The questionnaire used in the present study was based on a questionnaire used by Sylvén (2010), but included fewer questions since the pupils in the present study were younger than the informants in Sylvén's study and therefore likely not to have the same patience; it was important to keep the pupils focused when they answered the questionnaire. The questionnaire used in the present study focused on spare time activities involving English, addressing the objective of the study, including fewer questions dealing with self-assessment and attitudes.

The pupils answered the questionnaire online at school, using Websurvey. The questionnaire was tested on four pupils in grade nine. They were asked whether they found the questions and alternatives clear, and only minor changes were made.

3.1.3 The language diary

The purpose of the language diary (App. 2) was to survey the pupils' exposure to English in a detailed manner, covering not only the time factor but also different kinds of exposure or language use. Using two sources, the questionnaire and the language diary, strengthened the validity of the information provided about the pupils' extramural contacts in English. Active use of English and passive exposure might have a different impact on writing; different kinds of activities were therefore covered.

In the diary the pupils marked how and for how long they had used English the day before. The following activities were suggested:

- reading books
- reading newspapers or magazines
- watching TV- programmes
- watching films
- surfing the Internet
- chatting (computer)
- mailing (computer)
- playing games (computer)
- speaking
- listening to music with English lyrics
- other activities

The language diary used in this study was based on a language diary initially created by Sylvén (2006) and further developed by Sundqvist (2009). The diary used by Sylvén and Sundqvist was more extensive, covering exposure to English, Swedish and other languages at school and in spare time. In the present study, the language diary focused on extramural English. As there was a risk that the pupils might grow tired of writing the diary if it was too long, it was shortened to one page per day instead of two. It would also have been very difficult to find the time during lessons for the pupils to fill in the diary seven times if it had been longer.

Three activities that were not in Sylvén's and Sundqvist's diary were added: chatting (via computer), e-mailing and speaking in English. The language diary was tested on the same five pupils that were tested on the written tasks. They suggested some of the additions regarding computer activities that were added.

3.1.4 The interviews

Even if the focus of the study is on English outside of school, it was relevant to find out how the teaching of writing in English had been organised in the classes. For the analysis of the pupils' texts, it was necessary to know whether they had practised writing letters or newspaper articles, for instance. Interviews with the two English teachers were thus carried out separately, and groups of three pupils from each class were also interviewed on two separate occasions. The pupils were chosen at random. I had arranged with the teachers to come and see the classes about the diary and then asked for three volunteers who could come with me to the library for a short, informal interview. They were asked questions about how they had practised writing in English and in Swedish. I did not record the interviews but I made notes. The pupils were asked questions about how they practised writing and what kind of texts they had been writing. They were also asked questions about teaching methods when being taught to write. They were asked specifically whether they had written letters or newspaper articles, or talked about how such text types could be written, in Swedish or English. The teachers were asked the same questions as the pupils, but from a pedagogical point of view.

3.1.5 Leaving certificates and National Test results

When pupils leave compulsory school at the age of 16, they obtain leaving certificates for all subjects that they have passed. The pupils' grades in English and Swedish are of particular interest for the objective of the present study, and also their total sum of grades since other factors than extramural contacts may contribute to a pupil's writing proficiency in English: if a pupil is successful in many subjects, he or she would be expected to be successful in English as well, in contrast to a pupil who has to struggle to pass many subjects.

The merit rating system is calculated in the following way:

> The merit rating is composed of the sum of the grade values for the 16 best grades on the pupil's leaving certificate Pass [G]=10, Pass with distinction [VG]=15 and Pass with special distinction [MVG]=20). The possible maximum value is 320 points. The average merit rating is calculated for those pupils attaining grades in at least one subject. The pupils' total points are divided by the number of pupils attaining grades in at least one subject under the goal and knowledge-related grading system. The grades are measured prior to any examination on appeal. (Swedish National Agency for Education, Report 311, 2008: Educational Results National Level. Part 1)

For the present study, the individual pupil's grades in English and Swedish, and the total sum of points for each pupil, were used, as were results in National Tests in English provided by the Swedish National Agency for Education. In the tests, reading comprehension, listening comprehension, and written and oral proficiency are tested. Each part is rated: Did not pass, Pass, Pass with distinction, or Pass with special distinction. To sum up the test results, the different parts are weighted and the pupils obtain an average merit rating of the test.

   Results on the National Tests in English, and to some extent also in Swedish, were used as background information since these tests cover many different aspects of language proficiency of relevance to the present study: ability to read and understand, ability to listen and understand, ability to speak and ability to write. Leaving certificates and results on National Tests were accessible in school files.

3.2   The informants and their school

This section introduces the informants, focusing on their school and their classes (sections 3.2.1-3.2.2). The implementation of the study is described in section 3.2.3.

3.2.1 The school

The informants all came from the same school, situated in the central parts of a town in south-western Sweden with approximately 50 000 inhabitants. It is a municipal secondary school with pupils aged 13-16, covering the last three school years, the seventh to ninth grades, of the nine compulsory school years. There were 475 pupils at the school and 142 of them were in their 9th year. The leaving certificates that the pupils in grade 9 received when they left school in June 2009 showed that they performed better than the average for Sweden.[9] The average merit rating for grade 9 at the school was 217 and the average for the whole of Sweden was 210 (see section 3.1.5 for a description of merit ratings). Only 5 % of the pupils in grade 9 at the school were born in another country and 8% were born in Sweden to parents from another country (statistics from the Swedish National Agency for Education). These figures are slightly lower for this school than the average figures for Sweden. As many as 85 % of the pupils in grade 9 at the school received grades in all subjects they studied, compared to

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[9] All statistics in section 3.2.1 are from The Swedish National Agency for Education (November 2010): <http://salsa.artisan.se/>

77% of all the pupils in grade 9 in Sweden. Statistics also show that the level of education of the parents of children at this school was higher than the national average.

Since 2004, the school has organised classes for pupils with a special interest in Maths and Science. Pupils from other schools can apply for these classes and change schools. So far the popularity of the Maths/Science classes has resulted in three new classes each year. The Maths/Science classes have an additional Maths/Science lesson every week compared to other classes. Each autumn they participate in an international robot project but otherwise follow the curriculum of ordinary classes. The pupils in the Maths/Science classes often achieve higher grades than other classes.

3.2.2 The informants

The informant group was made up of 37 pupils, 15 girls and 22 boys, from two different classes, a Maths/Science class and a regular class. The average grades of the two classes show that the Maths/Science class received an average of 238 and the other class 207.7 when they left school in June 2009.[10] As regards grades in English, the average for the Maths/Science class was 16.1 and for the other class 12.1.[11] There were pupils in both classes who obtained G (pass), VG (pass with distinction) and MVG (pass with special distinction) in English, but, as the averages indicate, there were differences between the classes: a greater proportion of pupils in the Maths/Science class obtained VG or MVG. In the class with the lower average, two pupils did not pass English.

26 out of 27 pupils in the Maths/Science class agreed to take part in the study and 21 out of 24[12] in the other class. It was not possible for all of them to take part in all the activities, however, since some of them fell ill or were absent from school for other reasons during the weeks when the study was carried out. Thus only 37 pupils completed all the parts of the study. Since both background information and two texts were needed from each of the informants, for calculation of correlations, for instance, only pupils who completed all parts of the study could be included. All of the informants passed English when leaving school.

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[10] Statistics from official local school files.

[11] Statistics from official local school files. Pass [G]=10, Pass with distinction [VG]=15 and Pass with special distinction [MVG]=20

[12] Two pupils on the class register were not present in class at the time of the study since there were special arrangements concerning their education. The number of pupils who were contacted was therefore 22.

3.2.3 Implementation of the study

After receiving permission to carry out the study from the local school authorities and the headmaster of the school, the classes received verbal information about the study and an information sheet was distributed for the pupils to study and to take home. Since the pupils were over 15 years of age, they were asked to sign a form themselves that they agreed to take part in the study.[13] They were informed about their right to withdraw from the study whenever they wanted to.

The study was carried out in May 2009. Two lessons of 60 minutes per class were needed for the written tasks. These activities took place in the computer room of the school. Since pupils could be expected to find it more challenging to write an article than a personal letter or an e-mail, they started with the letter/e-mail as their first task. Before writing the article, they had watched the video-clip three times and written a letter about the accident already, which would facilitate the task.

For the first written task, the class gathered for some verbal information to start with. I told them that we would watch a short video clip on the screen and that they would be asked to write something in connection with the clip afterwards. After watching the clip, I handed out the written instruction for task 1 (App. 1). I read it aloud and asked if they understood everything or if they had any questions. We watched the clip again and then the pupils went on to write their texts on the computers. I showed them how to take away the spelling and grammar control and how to count words if they did not already know how to do this. Some pupils asked if their regular English teachers would read their texts and I told them that they would not. Both English and Swedish were used for the verbal instructions.

On the second occasion, a few days later, I handed out task 2 (App 1) and gave the instructions verbally as well. We watched the clip again and the pupils then started writing. As expected, it seemed to be a more difficult task for some of the pupils to write a newspaper article. A few pupils asked me if they had to do it or if they could quit. I told them that they could quit if they wanted to, as agreed in the contract, but I also told them that I thought they were doing fine. They went on writing and when I asked them later if they still wanted to quit, they told me that they did not and that I could include their texts in the study.

For the questionnaire, the classes gathered in the computer room and I showed them how to open Websurvey and how to fill in answers. There was a

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[13] The ethical principles for research in humanities and culture, issued by the Swedish Research Council, state that parents should be asked to sign a form of agreement if the informants are under the age of 15 and the study is of an ethically sensitive character. <www.vr.se > (March 2009).

technical problem in the first class but they were, nevertheless, able to finish the survey the same day.

Writing the language diary turned out to be a greater problem. I introduced the diary to the classes and the teachers who met the classes then helped out on days when I was not present. Filling in the diary took 10-15 minutes per day. The diary was collected by the teacher or me each time and handed out the next time. The pupils filled in the diary for seven days, but not for seven days in a row, for practical reasons. There were different school excursions and a few holidays during the month of May when the study was carried out, which limited opportunities to meet the classes. I tried to make sure that both weekdays and weekends were included in the diary since the pupils' exposure to English might differ during these times, but if pupils were ill, I asked them to fill in the diary when I met them again, regardless of what day it was.

After testing the diary before carrying out the study, I added a column where the pupils were asked to write down the total time spent at the computer or in front of the TV, including time when they watched or read Swedish programmes, websites, etc. I thought that it might be relevant to compare time spent on Swedish and English, respectively. The language diary did not cause any problems in the pilot study, but the additional column turned out to be problematic since it meant that the pupils had to think about two different aspects and some of them seemed to find it difficult to count minutes and hours. Since I could not intrude on lessons for more than 15 minutes, I realised very quickly that it would take longer to do all the counting and that many pupils would give up. Therefore I told the pupils that the English column was the most important one and that they could disregard the last column if they wanted to. This meant that I could not use the last column and that I have not been able to compare time spent on English and Swedish. While this might have been an interesting comparison, it was not of strict relevance to the research questions.

Some pupils who were ill or absent for other reasons on one occasion wrote the missing task on another occasion. They might have heard what the task was about from other pupils but that probably did not change the way their texts were written since they did not know in advance that there would be a new opportunity for those who were absent. May is a very busy month for pupils in grade 9 when they have to finish and hand in different tasks in order to achieve the best possible grades. It was difficult to find opportunities to write the tasks for pupils who had been absent from lessons, since they had to catch up on what they had missed at school. There had to be individual solutions where I talked to the teacher about the situation for the pupils I needed to get hold of and then, with the teacher's permission, I would go to the lesson and see if the pupils were willing to write the missing task right away. Most of them were but sometimes I had to try again later on. It is not likely that the pupils who wrote the texts after the rest of the class took time to prepare for the task since it would not give them any personal benefits, except perhaps the satisfaction of writing a good text.

Pupils who were ill or absent for several weeks, and therefore missed both occasions, decided not to take part in the study since it might jeopardise their school performance if they missed more lessons.

The pupils and their teachers were very cooperative and they seemed to understand the importance of their participation; without their cooperation there would be no study.

3.3 Outline of methods of analysis and reports of results

As outlined in section 1.2, the main objective of the analysis was to address the main reseach questions:

- What impact does extramural English have on 16-year-old pupils' writing proficiency?
- What differences are manifested in two different text types, letters and newspaper articles, between pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs?

In order to address these research questions, several methods of analysis were required. Statistical methods were needed for the mapping of extramural contacts in English. For the analyses of the pupils' texts, different methods were used: corpus-based analyses providing quantifiable data about the texts and analysis of appraisal in the texts, providing both quantivative and qualitative data. Each analysis is presented in a separate chapter followed by a concluding chapter:

4 Analysis of extramural English and grades
5 Corpus-based analysis of pupils' texts
6 Analysis of appraisal in the texts
7 Summary and concluding remarks

I have chosen to focus on each of the analyses in three different chapters, including relevant background for the analysis, detailed description of the method of analysis, results and discussion of results in each of the chapters. This choice was made to facilitate the reading and understanding of the analyses. The background found in chapters 1, 2 and 3 is of a general nature, applicable to the study at large, whereas the background in chapters 4, 5 and 6 is specific to the analysis reported in the chapter.

Chapter 4 descibes the statistical analysis of the pupils' extramural contacts in English and their grades in English, and reports the results of the analysis, addressing the following questions:

- What kinds of extramural contacts do pupils have in English? How frequent are their contacts? Are there any differences between boys and girls regarding frequency of extramural English?
- Is there any correlation between frequency of extramural English and grades in English, especially grades on the written part of the National Test?

The analyses of the pupils' texts are of two different kinds: for the first part corpus-based and statistical methods, described in chapter 5, were used, addressing the following question:

- Are there any differences in text length, sentence length, word length, variation of vocabulary and the use of infrequent words between text types and between pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs?

For the second part of the analysis of the pupls' texts, expressions of appraisal were studied, using a model outlined by Martin and White (2005). In chapter 6, the method is described and the following question is addressed:

- What kinds of linguistic resources do pupils with different frequency of extramural English and different grades in English use when expressing attitude and graduation in two different text types, a letter and a newspaper article?

In chapter 7, the study is summarised and concluded.

3.3.1 Statistical methods

Statistical methods have been used in the analyses, for instance to find out how different factors correlate. Spearman's correlation test has been used to measure the strength of the association between variables. The value of the correlation coefficient is between +1 and -1. If the correlation coefficient is 0, there is no correlation between the two variables; if the correlation coefficient is +1 or -1 the correlation is perfect. Thus, a correlation coefficient closer to 1 indicates a stronger correlation than a coefficient closer to 0 (Moore 1996:306-311).

Spearman's correlation is non-parametric and does not assume normal distribution, which makes the test suitable for the present study where no assumptions about distributions could be made. In a limited material such as the

present, atypical scores would cause problems if a parametric test had been used (<www.statsoft.com> January 2011).[14]

The significance level shows how likely it is that the finding is true and not just caused by chance. Two levels are normally used, 0.05 or 0.01. The lower level, 0.01, means that the finding is more likely to be true than the higher level; at the 0.01 level there is a 99% chance that the finding is true, whereas the 0.05 level means that the chance is 95% (Moore 1996:504-507).

The design of the study and the methods of analyses have been carefully chosen to attain high validity and reliability; the choice to use several sources of information, to use different kinds of material and different methods of analyses are examples of such measures. Even if the study is limited in size, the results may nevertheless indicate areas of interest, not least for further study, when correlation tests indicate that the findings are statistically significant.

The software PASW Statistics 18.0 was used when processing the material collected, for calculations of means, correlations and for tables and graphs that illustrate results (<www.spss.com> May 2010).

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[14] In scatterdot Graphs, used in the report of results, a line indicating the direction and strength of a linear relationship is shown in order to facilitate the reading of the Graphs. For the calculation of correlations described in the text, however, Spearmans non-parametric correlation test was used.

4 Analysis of extramural English and grades

This chapter describes the methods used for the analysis of the pupils' extramural English and their grades, and reports the results of the analysis. Section 4.1 accounts for the method used to calculate extramural English, section 4.2 gives the results of the analysis of different kinds of extramural contacts, and section 4.3 reports the results of the analysis of correlation between extramural English and grades in English. For description of the material, see section 3.1.

The following questions are addressed in this chapter:

- What kinds of extramural contacts do pupils have in English? How frequent are their contacts? Are there any differences between boys and girls regarding frequency of extramural English?
- Is there any correlation between frequency of extramural English and grades in English, especially grades on the written part of the National Test?

4.1 Calculation of extramural English

In the questionnaire, the pupils marked what kinds of extramural contacts they had in English and how often they engaged in such activities. The questionnaire covered different activities where English was used, activities that required reading, listening, writing or speaking in English, such as reading books or blogs, listening to music with English lyrics, watching English films or playing computer games (for full details, see App. 3). Different kinds of activities were listed and the pupils marked how often they were engaged in a certain activity: every day, once or a few times a week, once or a few times a month, or never or almost never. Section 4.1.1 describes how scores for extramural contacts in English were calculated.

In the language diary (App. 2) that was kept for a week, the pupils marked what kinds of extramural contacts they had in English and for how long, in hours and minutes (see section 3.1.3). Data from the language diary have been used to validate the results from the questionnaire, i.e. to verify that pupils who reported a high frequency of extramural contacts in the questionnaire also reported that they spent a great amount of time using English (see section 4.2.3).

4.1.1 The scale

A scale from 0 to 10 was used to sum up the contacts in English outside of school that the pupils reported in the questionnaire:

10 every day
4 once or a few times a week
1 once or a few times a month
0 never or almost never

This scale wad based on the following calculation: with 30 days in a month, a pupil who has marked that he or she chats every day could be expected to chat 30 times a month. A pupil who has marked that she or he has some kind of contact once or a few times a week could be expected to have such a contact about three times a week, which gives 12 contacts a month. Once or a few times a month was calculated as three times a month. The relationship between 30-12-3 is the same as that between 10-4-1; therefore, this scale was used. Similar scales were used for computer games and travels, only slightly adjusted to the fact that the proportion of English/Swedish language use might vary when playing computer games and that travel does not normally occur every week or month. [15]

A total score was calculated for each pupil, where the scores for different activities were summed up. A pupil who reported that he or she watched TV in English every day, listened to music with texts in English every day, read a book once or a few times a week and wrote e-mails once or a few times a month would get the sum of 25 (10+10+4+1).

The score is a blunt but practical tool that facilitates the comparison of pupils. The score does not say how long the activities went on, if, for instance, a pupil who marked that he or she watched TV every day normally watched for 15 minutes or three hours. Self-reporting could also mean that informants exaggerate or try to fulfil what they see as expectations (Dörnyei 2000:207). There could be difficulties remembering correctly how often activities were carried out. However, even if the score is only a blunt tool, it nevertheless indicates whether a pupil has frequent or infrequent contacts in English through many or few activities. The results of the pupils' reports in the questionnaire of extramural contacts in English are presented in 4.2 and in Appendix 3.

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15 For computer games the scores 0, 1, 2, 4, 7 and 10 were used. If, for instance, a pupil reported playing every day using Swedish and English but mostly English, the score was 7. If he or she played every day using both languages but mostly Swedish, the score was 4. For travels, the length of the stay in an English-speaking country decided the score from 1 (less than a month) to 8 (more than 12 months). The number of travels where English had been used decided the score from 1 (a few times) to 4 (more than 10 times).

4.2 Results of the analysis of extramural English

This section presents the results of the analysis of the pupils' reported extramural contacts in English. In section 4.2.1, the pupils' reported contacts with different kinds of extramural English are analysed and in section 4.2.2, their total exposure to or use of extramural English is summed up. Based on the calculations of the total frequency of extramural contacts in English, the pupils were divided into three groups to facilitate comparison between groups of pupils. This division into groups is presented in section 4.2.2.1. Section 4.2.3 compares the analysis of the questionnaire with the analysis of the language diary to validate the use of the calculated score for frequency of extramural contacts as a basis for comparison.

4.2.1 Different kinds of extramural English

To find out to what extent extramural English has an impact on writing proficiency, the pupils' extramural contacts had to be mapped. This section summarises the results of the analysis of the questionnaire (see 3.1). Tables with results for each activity are provided in Appendix 3.

Among the 37 pupils, 15 were girls and 22 boys. All pupils reported that they listened to music with English lyrics regularly, 86% of them every day. The second most popular activity involving English was watching TV programmes or films with Swedish subtitles: all of the pupils reported that they watched such programmes or films, half of them every day. Watching TV or films in English without subtitles was a rarer activity: 27% of the pupils reported that they never or almost never did.

Almost half of the pupils, 41%, reported that they regularly spoke English outside of school, girls to a larger extent than boys. Three pupils (8%) spoke English outside of school on a daily basis and six (16%) once or a few times a week. Four boys but no girls, 10% of all pupils, reported that they chatted online in English every day and five pupils (14%) that they did on a weekly basis.

The pupils e-mail and sent text messages (mobile phone) very rarely in English. No one read or wrote letters in English but 61% of the boys and 13% of the girls reported that they had other written contacts in English without specifying what kind.

Reading books in English is more popular among the girls than the boys: 72% of the boys reported that they never read books in English outside of school. More than half of the girls reported that they read books in English on a weekly or monthly basis. Six boys and two girls, 22% of all pupils, read newspapers in English, most of them once or a few times a month, and the number of pupils who read comics every month is the same. A majority of the pupils, 59% of the boys and 73% of the girls, read blogs or visited other websites in English

regularly. Many of the boys who reported reading blogs or websites reported doing so every day.

Only 18% of the boys reported that they never played computer games, compared to 73% of the girls; thus, there is a great gender difference. The boys reported using English more often than the girls when playing: nine boys reported that they used both Swedish and English but mostly English when playing computer games and eight boys reported that they always used English. The four girls that played computer games reported that they used both languages.

A majority of the pupils, 76%, claimed that they surfed the Internet every day, boys to a larger extent than girls. 22% of the pupils reported that they did it once or a few times a week. When answering this question, the language was not specified; when surfing, pupils might come across both English and Swedish, and perhaps other languages as well.

Fifteen pupils, 41%, had visited an English-speaking country; a majority of the pupils had not.

4.2.2 Total scores for extramural English

The analysis of the questionnaire clearly shows that the boys at group level have a greater number of extramural contacts in English, and more frequent ones, than the girls, but that there are individual differences within both groups. To get a full picture of pupils' extramural contacts and enable comparison between pupils with few or many contacts, a total score was calculated for each pupil, as described in section 4.1.1. As Graph 1 shows, the boys' scores are more scattered than the girls'.
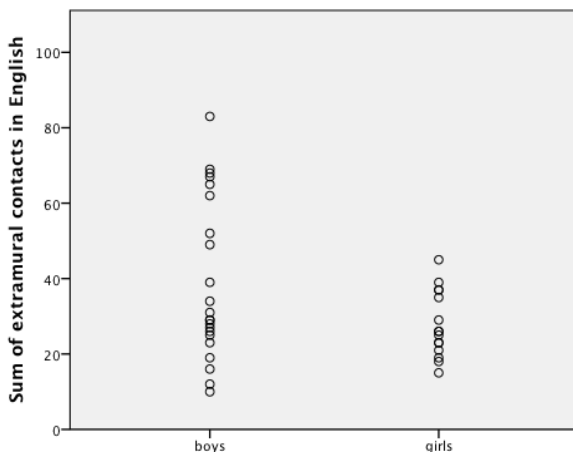
Graph 1. Boys' and girls' total scores for extramural contacts in English. Each dot represents the score of one pupil.

Table 1. Mean scores for frequency of extramural English for boys and girls.

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Boys	39.2	22	21.4	10	83
Girls	27.9	15	8.8	15	45
Total	34.6	37	18.1	10	83

Table 1 and Graph 1 show that the boys' reported contacts in English in their spare time vary to a great extent. However, at group level, their contacts are more frequent than the girls'. The boys' scores range from 10 to 83, with a mean of 39.2, whereas the girls' scores are more centred, from 15 to 45, with a mean of 27.9. Scores over 45 are found among the boys only, an indication that in the total group of pupils, boys have the most frequent contacts.

4.2.2.1 Division of pupils into groups

For practical reasons, to simplify descriptions and comparisons between pupils with frequent or infrequent extramural contacts, the pupils were divided into three groups according to their total scores for extramural contacts in English.

The range of scores in each group is approximately the same: low contact 1-25, medium contact 26-55 and high contact 56-85.

Table 2. Division of pupils into three groups according to reported frequency of extramural English in questionnaire.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English	Mean contact score	N	Std. Deviation	Minimum contact score	Maximum contact score
Low contact (1-25)	19.2	13	4.8	10	25
Medium contact (26-55)	34.3	18	8.0	26	52
High contact (56-85)	69.0	6	7.3	62	83
Total	34.6	37	18.1	10	83

As Table 2 shows, the groups are not of equal size. With this choice of division, 13 pupils reported a low frequency of contacts in English with an average score of 19.2 and 18 pupils reported a medium frequency with an average score of 34.3. Only 6 pupils reported a high frequency of contacts with an average score of 69.0. The six pupils with a very high frequency of extramural contacts are all boys. In the other two groups, with low or medium frequency of contact, the distribution between girls and boys is more equal (low: 6 boys/7 girls, medium: 10 boys/8 girls).

The three groups are not equal in size as few pupils reported a very high frequency of contacts in English. This group, however, is of particular interest for the study since the focus of the study is the impact of extramural contacts in English on written language. Graph 1 also shows that there is a natural gap between scores, where the six boys stand out, showing a higher frequency of extramural contacts than the rest of the pupils.

A division of pupils into two equally-sized groups would not have allowed comparison of the impact of very high or very low exposure. Calculations for correlations were not made at group level; individual results were used for such calculations, and, consequently, the differences in groupsize were irrelevant. When comparing means, however, the small size of the group with the highest scores should be kept in mind.

4.2.3 Analysis of the language diary

In the language diary the pupils noted how long they were in contact with English every day in their spare time (see section 3.1.3 and App. 2). The total time reported was divided by the number of days that the diary was kept,

providing the average time spent in contact with English per day for each pupil. The average time spent per day was then calculated at group level, using the three groups based on reported frequency of extramural English in the questionnaire (see Table 2). The division of pupils into three groups could thus be validated.

Table 3. Mean time of extramural English (hours per day) as given in language diary for pupils reporting low, medium and high frequency of extramural English in the questionnaire.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English (reported in questionnaire)	Mean h/day (reported in language diary)	N	Std. Deviation	Mini- mum h/day	Maxi- mum h/day
Low contact (1-25)	1.6	13	1.0	0.6	3.5
Medium contact (26-55)	3.4	18	1.9	0.3	6.9
High contact (56-85)	4.4	6	2.1	1.7	7.4
Total	2.9	37	1.9	0.3	7.4

Table 3 shows that the group of pupils who reported low frequency of contacts in their questionnaire also reported that they spent less time in contact with the English language in their language diary: 1.6 hours per day on average. Pupils who reported that they had many contacts also reported that they spent more time engaged in English activities: 4.4 hours per day on average. The minimum and maximum scores show that there are variations within the groups; the match between reported frequency and time is not perfect at an individual level, which is not surprising.

Some pupils did not fill in the diary every day and some forgot to fill in how much time they spent; consequently some calculations were based on very few days. Only reported time was used in the calculations; if a pupil reported that he or she had been involved in an activity without reporting for how long, the activity could not be included in the calcuation of how much time the pupil had spent in contact with English during the week. Some pupils stated that they were exposed to English more than usual or less than usual. The frequency and duration of contacts may also differ since you may be involved in a single activity for a long time or have many different kinds of very brief contacts. Nevertheless, the two sources indicate similar results: there are great differences among the informants regarding their exposure to English in their spare time.

The differences in exposure to English between girls and boys are confirmed in the analysis of the diary: the average time spent in contact with English is 3.3 hours per day for the boys and 2.5 hours for the girls.

4.3 Results of the analysis of grades

In investigating the extent to which extramural exposure to English has an impact on writing proficiency, success in English as a school subject is also of interest, since pupils' writing proficiency is assessed at school. The correlation between reported frequency of extramural contacts and grades in English and on the written part of the National Tests was thus analysed. The results are reported in sections 4.3.1-2. Section 4.3.2.1 analyses the possible impact of different kinds of extramural contacts in English on writing proficiency (results on the National Test). Some other factors that might be of relevance for writing proficiency were also taken into account: English writing practice at school as reported in the questionnaires and in interviews, the sums of grades in all subjects, grades in Swedish as a school subject and the level of parents' education. Section 4.3.2.2 reports the results of the analyses of some other background factors than extramural English.

4.3.1 Grades in English and extramural English

As described in section 3.1.5, there are three grade levels that pupils can obtain: G (pass), VG (pass with distinction) and MVG (pass with special distinction). The same grade levels are used in all subjects as well as in the assessment of the National Tests (see section 3.1.5). It is also possible not to pass at all; no grade is given. The grade obtained in English in the leaving certificate includes not only writing proficiency but also oral proficiency, listening and reading comprehension as well as other specified criteria, such as knowledge about life in English-speaking countries.

Table 4. Grades in English for pupils with low, medium and
high frequency of extramural English.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English	Grades in English			N
	G (Pass)	VG (Pass with distinction)	MVG (Pass with special distinction)	
Low contact (1-25)	4	9	0	13
Medium contact (26-55)	3	10	5	18
High contact (56-85)	0	3	3	6
Total N	7	22	8	37

In this group of 37 informants, 7 were given G, 22 obtained VG and 8 the highest grade, MVG, in English when leaving school in the 9th grade. Among those who obtained the highest grade, no pupil reported that he or she had very few extramural contacts: all pupils who were given MVG in English reported medium or high frequency of extramural contacts. Table 4 also shows that all pupils with very frequent extramural contacts obtained VG or MVG.

More boys than girls obtained the highest grade, MVG; only one girl was given MVG. No pupil with a score for contacts in English over 40 obtained a lower grade than VG; all pupils with such frequent contacts in English in their spare time were given either VG or MVG.

Spearman's correlation test confirms that there is a statistically significant correlation between grades in English and frequency of extramural contacts in English, with a correlation coefficient of 0.4 at the 0.01 level of significance. Pupils with many contacts in English in their spare time obtained higher grades in English than pupils with few extramural contacts.

4.3.2 National Test results of writing proficiency

Since the main purpose of the study is to find out whether, and if so, to what extent extramural contacts in English have an impact on Swedish pupils' written language, it is of relevance to investigate the correlation between results on the written part of the National Test in English and contacts in English outside of school.
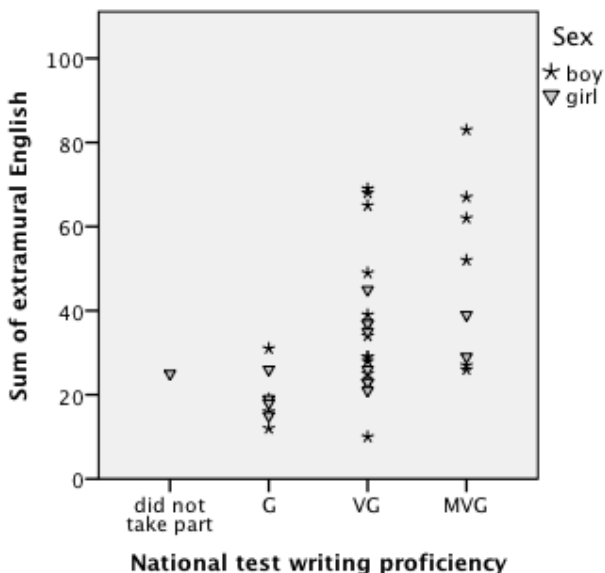
Graph 2. Relationship between reported frequency of extramural English and grades on the written part of the National Test in English for boys and girls.

Table 5. Mean scores for frequency of extramural English for pupils who obtained G, VG and MVG on the written part of the National Test in English.

Groups based on grades on National Test, writing proficiency:	Mean score for extramural contacts	N	Std. Deviation	Mini-mum contact score	Maxi-mum contact score
G (Pass)	19.5	8	6.2	12	31
VG (Pass with distinction)	35.8	20	16.2	10	69
MVG (Pass with special distinction)	48.1	8	21.3	26	83
Total	34.9	36	18.3	10	83

Graph 2 and Table 5 indicate that there is a correlation between writing proficiency and frequency of extramural contacts. The difference in average scores for contacts in English between the groups of pupils who obtained G, VG and MVG on their writing proficiency test is evident. The average contact score for pupils who obtained MVG is more than twice as high as the average contact

score for pupils who obtained the lowest grade, G: 48.1 compared to 19.5. The highest score for a pupil who obtained G, 31, is not much higher than the lowest score for a pupil who obtained MVG, 26. The average score for pupils who obtained VG is 35.8. Within the groups of pupils that obtained VG or MVG, the scores for contacts vary to a large extent between individuals. Graph 2 also shows that more boys than girls obtained the highest grade; six boys and two girls obtained MVG. One pupil whose final grade in English was VG did not take part in the National Test.

The statistically significant correlation between frequency of extramural contacts in English and grades in English writing proficiency is even stronger than the correlation between contacts and final grades in English (see 4.3.1). Spearman's correlation test shows that the correlation coefficient is 0.6 at the 0.01 level of significance. Pupils with frequent extramural contacts in English tended to perform better than pupils with few such contacts on the writing proficiency test, which would seem to indicate that extramural contacts have an impact on writing proficiency.

4.3.2.1 Different activities in English and writing proficiency

It is somewhat complicated to analyse the impact of different kinds of extramural activities on writing proficiency since the number of pupils involved in a certain activity may be very small; there are only 37 informants and, as reported in section 4.2.1, they were engaged in many different activities. Tables showing the number of boys and girls reporting certain activities and their frequency of contact are provided in Appendix 3. In this section, correlations between engagement in different activities and results on the National English writing proficiency test are analysed.

Table 6 shows the mean frequency scores for different activities for groups of pupils who obtained G, VG or MVG on the written part of the National Test (see also 4.1.1 and 4.3.2). The minimum and maximum scores show the variation within each group. Different kinds of reading have been summed up: reading of books, newspapers and websites, for instance. Other activities have been summed up in the same manner.

Table 6: Mean scores for different kinds of extramural contacts in English for pupils who obtained G, VG or MVG on the written part of the National Test in English.

Extramural activities in English							
Groups based on grades on National Test, writing proficiency	Read	Travel	Speak	Write	TV	Computer games	Music
G Mean	0.4	1.4	0.5	0.1	5.9	0.1	9.3
N	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Std. Dev	0.5	0.9	1.4	0.4	3.0	0.4	2.1
Min	0	0	0	0	2	0	4
Max	1	3	4	1	10	1	10
V Mean	1.9	3.2	1.2	3.7	10.0	2.9	9.1
G N	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
Std. Dev	2.3	3.9	2.5	5.7	5,5	3.5	2.2
Min	0	0	0	0	1	0	4
Max	8	13	10	21	20	10	10
M Mean	4.0	3.3	3.3	6.8	12.5	3.1	10.0
V N	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
G Std. Dev	5.5	2.3	4.4	7.7	3.9	4.2	0.0
Min	0	1	0	0	8	0	10
Max	15	8	10	21	20	10	10

Table 6 shows that, on average, pupils who obtained higher grades on the writing proficiency test engaged in all the activities more frequently than pupils with lower grades; on average, pupils who were given VG engaged more often in reading, travelling, speaking, writing, watching TV and playing computer games than pupils who obtained G, but still less frequently than pupils with MVG. Listening to music with English lyrics, one of the most common activities, wass slightly more popular among pupils who obtained G than among those with VG.

The minimum score for most activities is 0, regardless of group, showing that for each individual activity, there were some pupils that never or almost never engaged in the activity at all, according to their report. Watching TV and listening to music with English lyrics were the only activities that all pupils engaged in at least sometimes. All pupils watched English-speaking programmes or films on TV, which is difficult to avoid if you watch TV at all. The pupils who obtained MVG watched English speaking programmes or films more than twice as often on average as the group of pupils with G. Watching TV is an activity where boys and girls reach almost the same scores; boys scored

higher in most other activities. For details about differences between boys and girls, see 4.2.1.2.

Spearman's correlation test, using the individual scores for each pupil and each activity, shows that frequency for three activities correlate with results of the written part of the National Test in English: reading, writing and watching TV. The correlation coefficient for writing is 0.4 at the 0.01 level of significance. As could be expected, pupils who frequently wrote in English in their spare time obtained higher grades on the writing proficiency test, at least to some extent. The correlation coefficient for watching TV is 0.5 at the 0.05 level of significance and for reading 0.4, also at the 0.05 level of significance. Thus the results indicate that watching English programmes or films and reading in English may also be beneficial for writing proficiency, even if writing in one's spare time seems to be of greater significance. The results also show, however, that it is possible to obtain the highest grade on the writing proficiency test without reading or writing anything in English in spare time.

Other activities where English is used do not significantly correlate with writing proficiency grades. When comparing the means in the table, it is worth noting that the groups are not equal in size. There were only 8 pupils with G (pass) and 8 with MVG (pass with distinction), and the means were thus based on few results.

4.3.2.2 Other background factors and writing proficiency

As shown in the analysis above, frequent contacts in English seem to be of importance for some pupils' success in English as a school subject and for writing proficiency. However, there are naturally a number of other factors that may influence writing proficiency as well and the analysis showed that a number of pupils obtained high grades in English without frequent contacts in English in their spare time.

Since the pupils study English at school, their English lessons are obviously of great relevance for their writing proficiency. The questionnaire showed that most of the pupils remembered practising writing letters to a friend (90%), retelling an event in writing (81%), writing about a hobby (76%), writing a summary (76%) and writing a book or film review (76%). Fewer pupils, but still a majority, claimed that they had written a newspaper article (68%), but when asked during the interviews, they claimed that they had read newspaper articles in English at school and that they had studied and written articles in Swedish class. Appendix 4 shows what text types the pupils indicated that they had practised writing in English class.

The interviews with the teachers confirmed the pupils' account. The pupils normally wrote one or two longer essays each school term and some shorter texts, often in connection with a specific theme, such as *music* or *Canada*. The

teachers did not report that they focused on teaching how to write certain text types in English; they more often focused on text types when they taught Swedish. In English class, the tasks were often based on content but different text types were still covered since different kinds of content generate different kinds of texts. The teachers' instructions for written tasks were often both verbal and written; before starting to write, the teachers talked about the content and form of the text. Feedback was normally given verbally during work, mostly when pupils asked for it, and final comments were given verbally or in writing. Both teachers reported that the classes had written letters in English in grade 7 or 8 and read newspaper articles in grade 9. According to the teachers, some pupils had written articles in English. During Swedish lessons, both classes had studied newspaper articles as a text type, analysing form and practising writing.

The two teachers and the pupils' accounts of how they normally practised writing were quite similar. A deeper analysis would require classroom visits and more elaborated interviews, beyond the scope of the present study. The interviews did not, however, give any reason to believe that one class had practised writing to a substantially larger extent or in a different manner than the other class.

The pupils' grades in other subjects, particularly their writing proficiency in Swedish, could also be of relevance for their writing proficiency in English. Pupils who have great difficulty writing a text in Swedish could be expected to find it more difficult to write a text in English than pupils who are accomplished writers in Swedish.

A rather strong correlation was found between results on the written part of the National Test in Swedish and the written part of the National Test in English. Spearman's correlations coefficient is 0.5 at the 0.01 level of significance. As expected, a high proficiency level in Swedish seems to be an important factor for writing proficiency in English; more generally writing proficiency in Swedish may facilitate writing in another language.

On the other hand, the ability to write an article in Swedish does not ensure ability to write one in English, since vocabulary or grammar knowledge would most likely be more limited in a foreign language. Many different factors decide what registers a pupil has access to in a foreign language. Competence in Swedish seems to be one such factor and extramural contacts in English another.

The total sum of grade values in all subjects might also be of relevance since pupils who are successful, or struggle, in many subjects might be expected to be successful, or to struggle, in English as well. (For calculations of sum of grade values, see 3.1.5.) However, no correlation was found between results on the written part of the National Test in English and the total sum of all grade values, which would support the assumption expressed in the preface: pupils who are not successful in other subjects may be successful in English.

Parents' level of education could be of interest since earlier studies have shown this to be an important factor for success in school (see, e.g., Corson

1997), but no correlation was found between parents' level of education and results on the written part of the National Test in English. Most of the pupils reported that at least one of their parents had studied at university level[16], which could partly explain why no correlation was found; the group was rather homogeneous in this respect.

Since the focus of the present study is on the possible impact of extramural contacts on writing proficiency, the analysis of other background factors has not been taken any further. This does not imply that other factors are less important than extramural contacts for writing proficiency, only that that they are less important for the focus of the present study.

4.4 Summary and discussion of analysis of extramural English and grades

The analyses accounted for above showed that the frequency of extramural contacts in English varies to a great extent: some pupils have very few contacts in English outside of school while others have several contacts in English every day in their spare time. The boys reported more frequent contacts or exposure to English than the girls. As was found in a survey by the Swedish Media Council (2010), the present study also shows that boys have more contacts through different media.

Boys obtained the highest grade, MVG, to a larger extent than girls and pupils with many contacts generally turned out to be successful in English as a school subject. All pupils who reported that they had many contacts in English[17] obtained VG or MVG in English and on the national English writing proficiency test. Statistically significant correlations were found between frequency of extramural contacts and results on the national English writing proficiency test (0.6 at the 0.01 level of significance) and between extramural contacts and grades in English (0.4 at the 0.01 level).

The results of the present study confirm the results of an investigation carried out by the Swedish National Agency for Education (Oscarson & Apelgren 2005), where pupils with low results reported fewer extramural contacts than pupils with high results. However, when the numbers of extramural contacts for pupils who failed the writing proficiency test were analysed, the results in 2005 showed that those pupils had an average number of extramural contacts, which would indicate that the impact of extramural contacts on writing proficiency is limited. The results of the present study, however, show that extramural contacts also seem to be of importance for writing proficiency. The previous

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[16] 25 pupils reported that at least one of their parents had studied at university level, 7 that none of them had; 5 pupils did not know.

[17] All pupils with scores over 40 on a scale up to 85 obtained VG or MVG. For a description of the scale, see 4.1.1.

investigation did not measure the frequency of pupils' contacts, which may explain the difference in the results.

The analysis of the impact of different kinds of extramural contacts in English on writing proficiency showed, as could be expected, that activities involving reading and writing seemed to be beneficial for writing proficiency; frequency of reading and writing in English in spare time correlated with results on the national English writing proficiency test, as did frequency of watching English-speaking programmes or films on TV. Sylvén (2010) and Sundqvist (2009) also found that reading was an activity that enhanced the learning of English.

Results in the national Swedish writing proficiency test correlated with results in the national English writing proficiency test: if you know how to write a text in your first language, it will facilitate learning to write in a foreign language.

The results indicate that frequent contacts in English enhance proficiency in English, as could be expected. However, pupils with few extramural contacts also obtained VG. Thus, frequent extramural contacts in English are not necessary for the development of a high level of writing proficiency or for a high grade in English, but they do seem to be beneficial for pupils who engage in such contacts, according to the results of the analyses of the pupils' frequency of extramural contacts, their grades in English and their results on the national English writing proficiency test.

The fact that two pupils obtained the same grades in English or the same results on the national English writing proficiency test does not, however, mean that their proficiency is exactly equal. There can be great variations in proficiency within each grade level and different teachers could assess the same text differently (see The Swedish National Agency for Education 2010). Still, grades in English and results on the national English writing proficiency test constitute data on the pupils' proficiency that are not based on the texts collected specifically for the present study. This could strengthen the validity of the results since different sources have been used.

The next chapter presents the results of the corpus-based analysis of the pupils' texts, which provided quantifiable data about the texts regarding sentence and word length as well as variation of vocabulary.

5 Corpus-based analysis of pupils' texts

This chapter describes the corpus-based methods and tools used in the present study. It also accounts for the results of the corpus-based analysis of the pupils' letters and newspaper articles, focusing on differences between text types and differences between texts written by pupils with many or few extramural contacts in English. Some other factors that may also have an impact on writing proficiency, such as grades in Swedish and English, are included in the analysis.

The following question is addressed in this chapter:

- Are there any differences in text length, sentence length, word length, variation of vocabulary and the use of infrequent words between text types and between pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs?

Section 5.1 gives definitions of some concepts of corpus linguistics used in the present study, oulines the significance of some corpus-based measurements in text corpora and introduces the software tools used for the analysis. Section 5.2 reports the results of the corpus-based analyses. In section 5.3, the results of the analyses are summarised and discussed.

5.1 Corpus-based analyses

Corpus-based approaches to text and language studies can be organised in many different ways depending on the purpose of the study. The concept of corpus linguistics, however, is not uncontentious. In her discussion of corpus linguistics, Taylor (2008) presents a survey of various definitions of the concept that have been put forward: "*corpus linguistics* is a *tool*, a *method*, a *methodology*, a *methodological approach*, a *discipline*, a *theory*, a *theoretical approach*, a *paradigm* (theoretical or methodological), or a combination of these" (Taylor 2008:180, italics in the original). Thus, corpus linguistics has not only been defined as a new methodology; it is sometimes defined as a framework including new philosophical and theoretical approaches to linguistic studies (see, e.g., Leech 1992; Stubbs 1993). McEnery, Xiao and Tono regard corpus linguistics as a methodology, which offers "a whole system of methods

and principles of how to apply corpora in language studies" (McEnery et al. 2006:7-8).

The present study adopted the approach suggested by McEnery et al (2006). Corpus linguistic methods have been used alongside other methods to get a comprehensive overview of the possible impact of exposure to English on writing proficiency. Corpus-based methods and tools provide quantifiable data about the texts that strengthen the quality and reliability of the analysis.

Section 5.1.1 outlines the significance of some corpus-based measurements. Sections 5.1.2-3 define what a learner corpus is and describe the learner corpus created for the present study. Section 5.1.4 introduces the software used for the analyses and section 5.1.5 accounts for the grouping of pupils according to their reported frequency of extramural contacts.

5.1.1 The significance of text length, word length, variation of vocabulary and use of infrequent words

Language studies using corpora exploit the computer's ability to count and sort words and sentences, even in large amounts of texts. Software, for instance from WordSmith Tools and LexTutor (used in the present study), can perform different kinds of analyses; average length of words or sentences can be calculated, as well as variation of vocabulary (see section 5.1.4). The results of such analyses could indicate levels of proficiency, as the following survey of relevant findings in some earlier studies shows.

The use of long words and great diversity of vocabulary could be regarded as signs of a more developed language. Reid (1986) and Frase et al. (1999) found that text length and average word length correlated with quality judgements of the texts; longer texts and longer average word length were typical features of highly rated texts (Frase et al. 1999:24; see Grant & Ginther 2000:125-27). Grant and Ginther found that type/token ratio[18], average word length and text length were good indicators of quality in second language learners' texts. They argue that students, as they develop as writers, become "more precise about using words that best express their ideas, and this precision often results in more sophisticated vocabulary use" (Grant & Ginther 2000:131).

The use of relatively long and diverse words could also indicate a shift from an oral style to a more formal, written style (Reppen 1994 in Grant and Ginther 2000:124-125). Second language writers also seem to move from an oral style to a more formal, written style over time, including, for instance, a greater number of passives (Shaw & Liu 1998:233).

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[18] The type/token ratio measures variation of vocabulary by dividing the number of different words in a text (types) with the total number of words in the text (tokens). A high ratio is considered a sign of greater variation than a low ratio. See 5.1.4.

Different text types may display differences in vocabulary use. Biber (1988) found that texts classified as academic prose, with subject content covering natural sciences or humanities, had a diverse vocabulary, including relatively long words in comparison to less academic text types (Biber 1988:192-95). Frase et al. also noted that academic texts often include passives and complex sentence structures (Frase et al. 1999:24). Nyström (2000) studied word variation in school texts of different genres (in Swedish), finding that texts including many facts and quotations would get a higher value for word variation than letters or narratives. She also found that the average word length varied between genres in the same way; for instance, on average, factual texts include longer words than do letters (Nyström 2000:178-79, see also Dalqvist & Nordenfors 2008:68).

For the present study, analyses of text length, word length, variation of vocabulary and use of words that are infrequent in English have been carried out in order to find out whether frequency of extramural contacts correlates with such indicators of quality, and also to find out what differences are displayed in a change of text type, from letter to newspaper article.

5.1.2 Learner corpora

Collections of texts written by learners of a foreign language are called *learner corpora*:

"Computer learner corpora are electronic collections of authentic FL/SL[19] textual data assembled according to explicit design criteria for a particular SLA/FLT[20] purpose. They are encoded in a standardised and homogeneous way and documented as to their origin and provenance" (Granger 2002:7).

The concept of *authenticity* must be defined by the context, since foreign language learners' texts are often created and collected in a school situation. When writing a text in a classroom, the text cannot be regarded as absolutely natural, since learning a language in a classroom "usually involves some degree of 'artificiality'" (Granger 2002:8). When pupils write texts at school, the tasks are often decided by the teacher and pupils know that the teacher will most likely read their texts even if sometimes other readers are also addressed. Therefore, an authentic learner corpus could include texts collected from genuine communication or texts collected from authentic classroom activities, according to Granger. To qualify as a corpus, the data must not consist of isolated sentences or words: "Learner corpora are made up of continuous stretches of discourse which contain both erroneous and correct use of the language" (Granger 2002:9). Design criteria, such as task setting (time limit, for

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[19] FL: foreign language, SL: second language

[20] SLA: second language acquisition, FLT: foreign language teaching

instance) and background information about the learner (mother tongue, learning context, for instance) must also be specified in a learner corpus, according to Granger.

There are different approaches to learner corpora analyses; *Contrastive Interlanguage Analyses* and *Computer-aided Error Analyses* are two of the most common methodological approaches (Granger 2002:11). The contrastive analyses compare native and non-native data or different varieties of non-native data. The contrastive analyses could be quantitative and qualitative. The second type of analysis focuses on errors made by language learners (Granger 2002: 12). According to Granger, corpus linguistic tools and methods applied to learner corpora can provide better descriptions of learner language in foreign language acquisition research and for improvement of language teaching (2002:4).

In the present study, the corpus-based analysis is contrastive, comparing different varieties of non-native data in the learner corpus created for the study, as suggested by Granger (2002:11). Since the objective of the study is to find out what impact extramural contacts have on writing proficiency in two different contexts, comparisons have been made between pupils with few and many contacts in English in their spare time and between letters and newspaper articles. The learner corpus created for the study is described in the next section.

5.1.3 The corpus

For the present study, a corpus of 74 collected texts was created. It would have been difficult to find an existing corpus of texts in English by Swedish pupils that provided the exact background information needed to address the research questions (see 1.2). Not only text samples were needed but also different kinds of background information about the pupils, such as grades in various subjects, extramural exposure to English and social background (see section 3.1).

McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2008:73) point out the importance of creating a corpus that is balanced and representative. Since the present study focuses on two text types, letters and articles, only these text types were collected for the corpus. Only texts by pupils in the 9th grade were collected since texts by pupils of different ages would have complicated the analyses, adding age-related factors to other background factors that had to be considered. All texts were collected from two classes at the same school during a period of three weeks. The learner corpus thus created is small but the results of the analyses may, nevertheless, indicate areas of interest, not least for further, larger studies.

Since all pupils received the same tasks and saw the same video clip before writing, the problem of comparing different kinds of texts was avoided; all the letters and articles dealt with the same event and all pupils received the same instructions. (For tasks, see Appendix 1.)

5.1.4 Software and tools

Software from WordSmith tools, version 5.0, and Vocabprofile from Lextutor were used for the corpus-based analysis (www.lexically.net/wordsmith and www.lextutor.ca/vp/bnc/).

WordSmith tools were used for calculation of the average length of the texts in running words, average sentence length in words, and average word length in characters in the pupils' texts, in order to find out whether there were any differences between text types and between texts written by pupils with different frequency of exposure to English in their spare time. Variation of vocabulary in the texts was analysed, using a type/token ratio. The type/token ratio calculates the number of different words, types, used in a text divided by the total number of words in the text. Mike Scott, the creator of WordSmith Tools, argues that comparison of conventional type/token ratio in texts is meaningless if the texts are not equally long, since longer texts tend to get a lower ratio than shorter texts. Instead, he recommends the Standardised Type/Token ratio, which computes the type/token ratio after a set number of words and then repeats the calculation after the same number of words again and again throughout the text file, thus enabling comparison of texts of various lengths. Since some of the texts included in the present study were very short, the type/token ratio was computed on every 50 words (www.lexically.net and personal communication with Mike Scott).

VocabProfile from Lextutor, a computer program which performs lexical text analyses, was used to study the extent to which the pupils used frequent or infrequent words in their texts. VocabProfile categorises words according to their frequency in the British National Corpus, where 100 million words have been collected from samples of a wide range of sources of written and spoken language from the latter part of the 20th century (www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk).

In VocabProfile, words are divided into 20 categories based on frequency levels:

> K1 – the most frequent 1000 words of English
> K2 – the second most frequent thousand words of English (1001-2000)
> K3 – the third most frequent thousand words of English (2001-3000)
> etc. up to K 20.
> (www.lextutor.ca/vp/bnc/)

For the present study, categories K4 or higher were merged into one category in order to enable statistical calculations; there were very few cases of words categorized as K4 or higher. The use of words belonging to categories K4-K20 is of particular interest since it may indicate a great vocabulary range.

VocabProfile does not recognize misspelled words; these are categorized as "*off list*" by the program and are not included in the categories K1-K20.

With VocabProfile, it is possible to calculate both the total number of words, *tokens*, in each category and the number of *types*, different words, in a category. A pupil using, for instance, the same unusual word five times in a text would score 5 if number of tokens were counted, but only 1 if number of types were counted. A pupil using five different, unusual words would score 5 in both cases. For the present study, the number of types was used for comparisons between text types and between texts written by pupils with different exposure to English. It was more relevant to compare the number of types per category than the total number of words per category since there was a focus on vocabulary range and variation in this part of the analysis. The use of several different, infrequent words would indicate higher quality in a text than the use of the same unusual word.

5.1.5 Grouping of pupils

In the analysis of correlations between variables, such as frequency of extramural contacts and sentence length, individual scores for the 37 pupils and their texts have been used in the calculations.

To enable comparison of texts written by pupils with different frequency of extramural contacts in English, the pupils were divided into three groups depending on their scores when their reported contacts were summed up, as described in 4.2.2.1.

Table 7. Division of pupils into three groups based on reported frequency of extramural English.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English	Mean contact score	N	Std. Deviation	Minimum contact score	Maximum contact score
Low contact (1-25)	19.2	13	4.8	10	25
Medium contact (26-55)	34.3	18	8.0	26	52
High contact (56-85)	69.0	6	7.3	62	83
Total	34.6	37	18.1	10	83

When correlation tests indicate that there is a correlation between two variables, comparisons of means at group level describe the finding from another perspective, focusing on average scores for pupils with high, medium or low

frequency of extramural contacts. Tables showing means, standard deviation maximum and minimum scores are therefore used for comparisons at group level. As explained in 4.2.2.1, group sizes are unequal. The group of pupils that reported very frequent extramural contacts is made up of only six boys, which is worth bearing in mind when studying the tables that compare means. Comparisons at group level may nevertheless support and illuminate the analysis, especially in cases where a statistically significant correlation exists between variables, using individual scores for calculations.

5.2 Results of the corpus-based analysis of the texts

This section accounts for the results of the corpus-based analysis. Section 5.2.1 presents the results of the analysis of text length, section 5.2.2 the analysis of sentence length, section 5.2.3 the analysis of word length, section 5.2.4 the analysis of vocabulary variation, and section 5.2.5 the analysis of use of infrequent words. The focus is on the possible impact of frequent extramural exposure to and use of English on the variables and on differences between text types (letters and articles).

5.2.1 Text length

The pupils were asked to write letters and articles that were 150-200 words long. Nevertheless, the texts varied in length, from 32 to 249 words.

Analyses of correlation between text length in running words and reported frequency of extramural contacts in English were carried out, but no significant correlation was found. As Graphs 3A and 3B show, texts written by pupils with many contacts in English did not include a larger number of words than texts written by pupils with fewer contacts.

A correlation was found between grades in English and length of letters and articles: Spearman's correlation coefficient is 0.6 for the letters and 0.5 for the articles at the 0.01 level of significance. Pupils with high grades in English tended to write longer texts than pupils with lower grades. Among the pupils with VG, pass with distinction, or MVG, pass with special distinction, we find all the pupils with a high frequency of contacts in English, but also pupils with fewer contacts. There is a correlation between grades in Swedish and text length as well: the correlation coefficient is 0.5 for both text types at the 0.01 level of significance. The results indicate that pupils with a high proficiency in Swedish may benefit from it when writing in English.
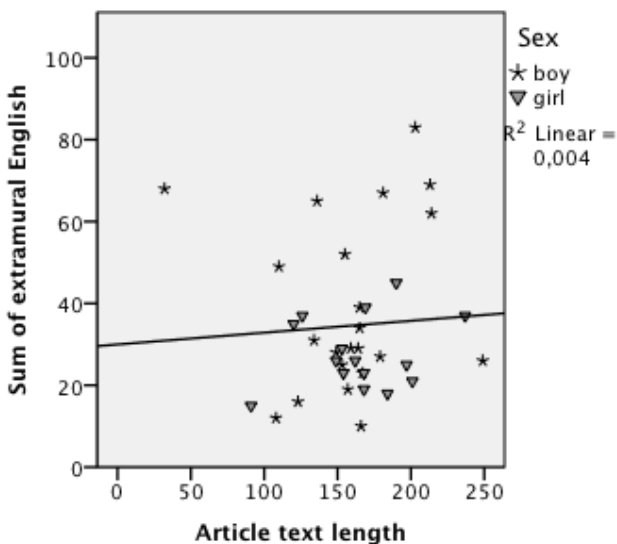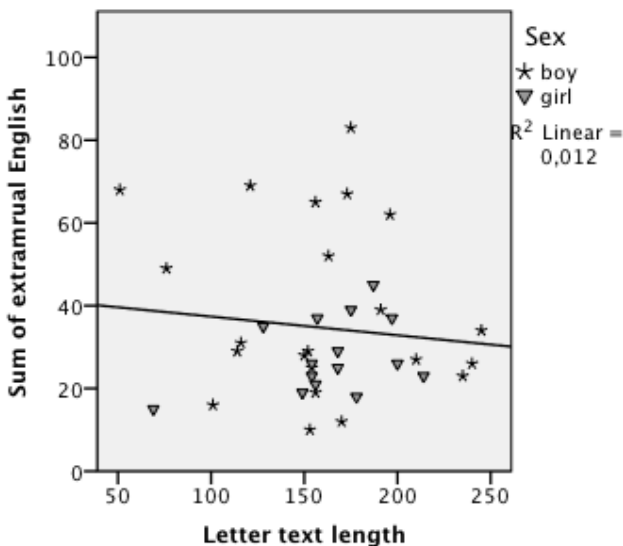
Graph 3A and 3B: Relationship between length of letters and articles (in running words) and reported frequency of extramural English for boys and girls.

Table 8: Mean length of letters and articles (in running words) for groups of pupils with low, medium or high frequency of extramural English.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English		Length of letter in running words	Length of article in running words
Low contact (1-25)	Mean	158	157
	N	13	13
	Std. Deviation	42	32
	Min	69	91
	Max	235	201
Medium contact (26-55)	Mean	168	163
	N	18	18
	Std. Deviation	44	35
	Min	76	110
	Max	245	249
High contact (56-85)	Mean	145	163
	N	6	6
	Std. Deviation	53	71
	Min	51	32
	Max	196	214
Total	Mean	161	161
	N	37	37
	Std. Deviation	44	41
	Min	51	32
	Max	245	249

The average length of the articles and the letters is the same: 161 words. However, there is a great range of variation between texts written by different pupils. The minimum length of a letter is 32 words and the shortest article is 51 words long, whereas the longest letter is 249 words and the longest article 245 words. The boys' texts are slightly shorter on average than the girls'. The boys' letters are 159 words long on average and their articles 158, whereas the girls' letters are 164 words long and their articles 165, on average.

Writing an article could be considered a more demanding task than writing a letter as regards vocabulary use and sentence length, for instance. It is therefore not surprising to find that, at a group level, the articles are slightly shorter on average than the letters in texts by pupils with a low or medium frequency of contact. Only the group of pupils with very high exposure to English wrote longer articles than letters, on average, which could be viewed as an indication that their language proficiency is higher. They were the only group that increased their average text length when writing articles, but still their average,

maximum and minimum scores for text length in the articles are similar to those of the other groups.

There is a correlation between length of article and length of letter; pupils who wrote long letters tended to write long articles as well. Spearman's correlation coefficient between lengths of the two text types is 0.6 at the 0.01 significance level. It seems that the text type was of little importance for the length of the texts in the present study, except for the pupils with a high frequency of contact, mentioned above. The tasks, however, specified the expected lengths of the texts; the results might have been different if the pupils had felt free to write as long or as short texts as they wanted. It is also difficult to know whether the shorter texts are short because the writer found it difficult to write a longer text or because he or she did not feel like writing a longer text for other reasons.

5.2.2 Sentence length

When learning a new language, learners most often learn isolated words and short phrases or sentences first. Then, as learning continues, the sentences produced become longer and more complex (see section 5.1.1). Thus, an investigation of sentence length in the pupils' texts may indicate how advanced their language is.

Graph 4A and Table 9 show that there is a correlation between sentence length in the letters and the frequency of extramural contacts in English. Spearman's correlation test confirms the correlation: the correlation coefficient is 0.4 at the 0.05 level of significance. Pupils with many extramural contacts are more likely to write longer sentences than pupils with few such contacts.

Table 9 shows that letters by pupils with few contacts in English in their spare time have an average sentence length of 11.5 words and that letters written by pupils with many contacts have an average sentence length of 16.7 words. Letters by pupils with a medium frequency of contacts have an average sentence length of 13.4 words.

The graphs and the table show that there are individual variations. The minimum and maximum scores for sentence length in the letters show that the highest score for pupils with a low frequency of contacts in English is 13.9, only slightly higher than the lowest score, 12.9, for pupils who reported a high frequency of contacts. The results indicate that frequent exposure to English may have an impact on sentence length when writing certain text types, in this case a letter.
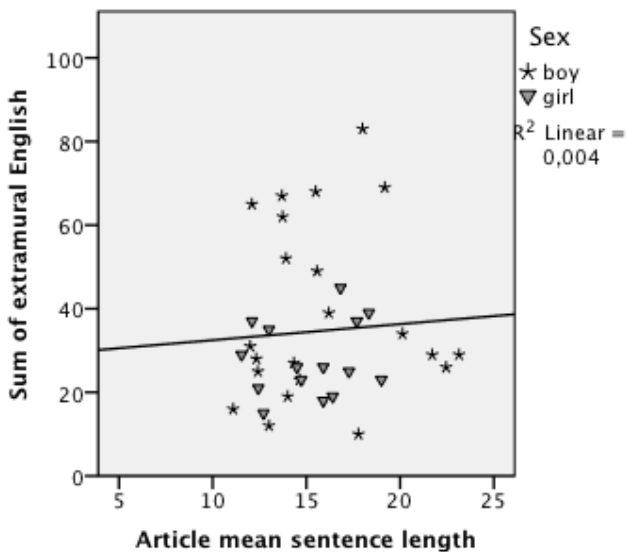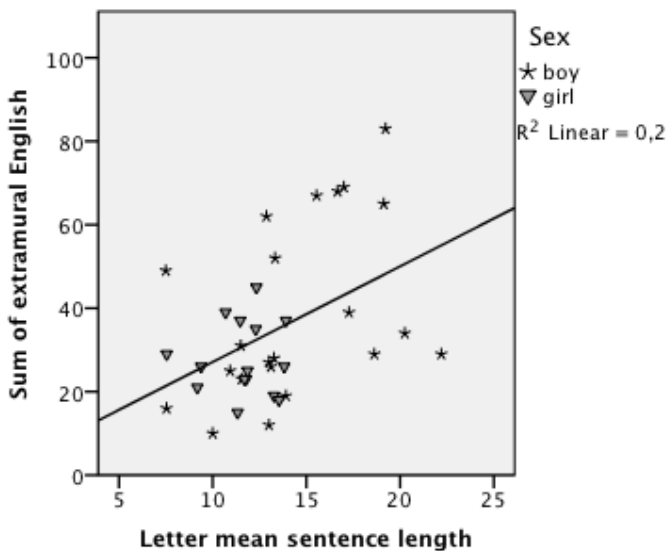
Graphs 4A and 4B: Relationship between sentence length of letters and articles (in words) and reported frequency of extramural English for boys and girls.

Table 9. Mean sentence length (in words) in letters and articles for groups of pupils with low, medium or high frequency of extramural English.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English		Letter: sentence length in words	Article: sentence length in words
Low contact (1-25)	Mean	11.5	14.7
	N	13	13
	Std. Deviation	1.8	2.4
	Minimum	7.5	11.1
	Maximum	13.9	19.0
Medium contact (26-55)	Mean	13.4	16.2
	N	18	18
	Std. Deviation	4.0	3.7
	Minimum	7.5	11.5
	Maximum	22.2	23.1
High contact (56-85)	Mean	16.7	15.4
	N	6	6
	Std. Deviation	2.4	2.8
	Minimum	12.9	12.1
	Maximum	19.2	19.2
Total	Mean	13.3	15.6
	N	37	37
	Std. Deviation	3.5	3.2
	Minimum	7.5	11.1
	Maximum	22.2	23.1

Graph 4B and Table 9 show that there is no statistically significant correlation between frequency of exposure to English and average sentence length in the articles The average sentence length of articles by pupils with high frequency of contacts in English is 15.4 words, which is slightly shorter than the mean sentence length for texts by pupils with a medium frequency of contacts: 16.2 words. Still, the average sentence length of articles written by pupils with very few contacts in English is lower: 14.7 words. The minimum and maximum scores for sentence length in articles by pupils with low and high frequency of contact in English are almost identical. Frequency of contacts in English does not seem to be of importance for sentence length in the articles.

Pupils who obtain high grades, VG or MVG, might be expected to write longer sentences, but the analysis shows that there is no significant correlation between grades in English and sentence length in the letters. In the analysis of the articles, Spearman's correlation test shows that there is a correlation between grades in English and sentence length in the articles: the correlation coefficient

is 0.4 at the 0.05 level of significance. Pupils with high grades in English thus tended to write longer sentences in the articles than pupils with lower grades. There is no correlation between sentence length in either text type and grades in Swedish; proficiency in Swedish does not seem to be relevant for sentence length in English texts.

A comparison of sentence length in the two text types shows that the articles contain longer sentences on average: the mean sentence length of the letters is 13.3 words and that of the articles is 15.6 words. The graphs also show a difference in text length between texts written by girls and boys. Graph 4A shows that only boys wrote letters with an average sentence length longer than 15 words. In the articles, no such difference is found. The boys' average sentence length in the letters is 14.4 words compared to 11.1 words for the girls. Both boys and girls increase the sentence length in their articles, to 15.8 words for boys and 15.2 words for girls.

The comparison in Table 9 between groups with different frequency of contact in English shows that the articles contain longer sentences on average in all groups except for the group with the highest frequency of contact, where the mean sentence length is longer in the letters than in the articles. This can be explained by the fact that, when watching TV or surfing the Internet, pupils come across everyday, informal language to a larger extent than the language that is typical of newspaper articles.

However, it is difficult to claim that the analysis of sentence length necessarily indicates differences in the quality of the texts. If a sentence is long but full of mistakes, sentence length is not a good measure of quality. Sometimes shorter sentences may show that the writer is capable of condensing the language, which would be useful and even necessary when reporting an event in a newspaper. The complexity of analyses of sentence length is demonstrated by the following examples from two pupils' texts (for texts, see sections 6.3.1.1-2). Maria and Arnold both obtained MVG in English, but they differ in their exposure to English in their spare time: Arnold has many different kinds of contacts (score for frequency of contacts 83), whereas Maria has fewer contacts in English (score 26). (For further background information about Maria and Arnold, see section 6.3.1). The analyses of their letters show that Maria writes shorter sentences on average in her letter than Arnold does in his: Maria's average sentence length in the letter is 13 words and Arnold's 19. In the article, Maria increases her average sentence length substantially: 22 words compared to Arnold's average of 18 words.

There are few sentences of more than 20 words in Maria's letter and there are some very short ones, such as instances of direct speech: *"Dear lord, what was that?"* and short remarks: *"Well, I was on that plane"*. She uses direct speech and shorter, personal remarks only in her letter, not in her article. These shorter sentences and phrases can at least partly explain why the average sentence length is shorter in Maria's letter than in her article, and why the average

sentence length in her letter is shorter than Arnold's. Arnold's letter does not include any short quotations or remarks. It would be difficult to maintain that the short personal remarks and quotations in Maria's letter have a negative effect on the quality of her letter; on the contrary, it could be argued that these features show an awareness of stylistic nuances suitable for the text type.

More often than Arnold, Maria uses reduced relative clauses, including participles (-*ing* form), which often reduces the length of the sentences. Instead of writing …*with ice-cold water <u>that was covering</u> my knees*, Maria writes …*with the ice-cold water <u>covering</u> my knees.* Arnold also uses the -*ing* form in this way; instead of writing *I heard some kind of engine <u>that did not function</u>*, he writes *I heard some kind of <u>malfunctioning</u> engine.* Maria's more frequent use of reduced clauses in the letter may also explain why her average sentence length is shorter than Arnold's.

There are a few extremely long sentences in Maria's article, such as the following one, which includes no fewer than 42 words:

The pilot got help from the nearest airport in New York which he lead the airplane to, though he didn't have time, which resulted in the fact that he had to land on the softest and largest area around: the Hudson River.

These very long sentences are found in her article only, not in her letter. Arnold's texts do not include any sentences of 40 words. When, in his article, he describes the same event as Maria, he uses two sentences instead: *The pilot was directed to land at a nearby airport although he figured he'd never make it. That's when he went about and landed on the river.*

The analysis of the writers' different ways of handling short and long sentences shows that a shorter average sentence length does not necessarily indicate lower textquality.

WordSmith software recognises a sentence by a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark followed by a word separator, the next symbol being a capital letter, a number or a currency symbol (<u>www.lexically.net</u>). Thus the following example from an article is counted as one sentence:

"*These are statements from local citizens, Charles Dera says:*
I was walking down the street by the docks and i heard some noise coming from the air, I turned my head and saw this plane descending from a smoke cloud which had its origin from the planes left engine."

The software does not correct mistaken punctuation and no correction has been made manually. In the analyses of sentence length, the fact that some sentences might be – or appear to be - extremely long because of incorrect punctuation must be considered.

The above discussion indicates that further analyses are needed. To summarise the results of the analysis of sentence length in the pupils' texts, a correlation was found between frequency of extramural contacts and sentence length in the letters, as opposed to the analysis of sentence length in the articles. This could indicate that pupils learn or practise informal, everyday language, of use in personal letters, for instance, when exposed to English in their spare time.

Writing an article may be considered a more complex task, demanding a different style and perhaps a more adequate knowledge of grammar. Grades in English correlated with sentence length in the articles, which would indicate that pupils with higher grades are better equipped for the task than those with lower grades. The analysis also showed that greater average sentence length need not always indicate higher quality.

5.2.3 Word length

The average length of words may also indicate level of proficiency; longer average word length would indicate higher proficiency and a richer vocabulary than shorter average word length (see 5.1.1). Different text types could also be expected to differ in average sentence length; the average word length in letters was found to be shorter than the average word length in factual texts (Nyström 2000). In the present study, the average word length of the letters and the articles was calculated and compared. Correlations between word length and frequency of extramural contacts, grades in English and grades in Swedish were analysed.

Graphs 5A and 5B show that extramural contacts seem to correlate with word length in the articles to a larger extent than in the letters. Spearman's correlation test confirms that there is a rather weak, but still significant, correlation between frequency of contacts in English and word length in the articles (correlation coefficient 0.4 at the 0.05 level of significance). Spearman's correlation test shows no significant correlation between frequency of contacts in English and average word length in the letters.

Pupils with many contacts in English thus tended to write articles with slightly longer words on average than pupils with fewer contacts, which could indicate that their vocabulary is richer and includes longer words. The results also indicate that pupils with many extramural contacts vary their vocabulary according to text type to a greater extent than pupils with few such contacts since the correlation was found in the articles, a text type where greater average word length could be expected than in the letters (see section 5.1.1).
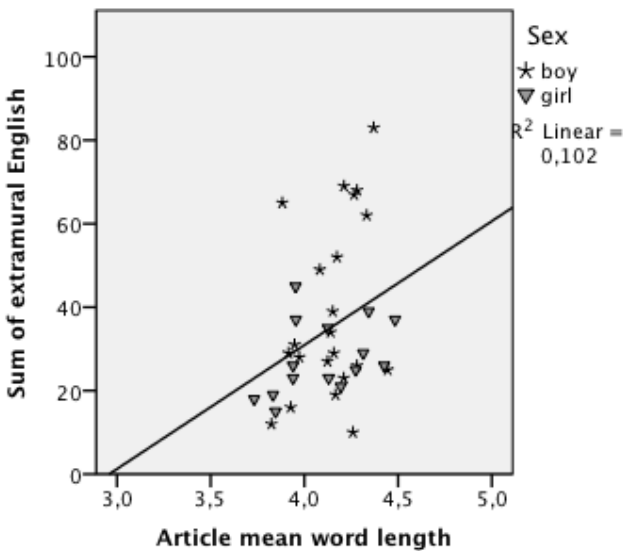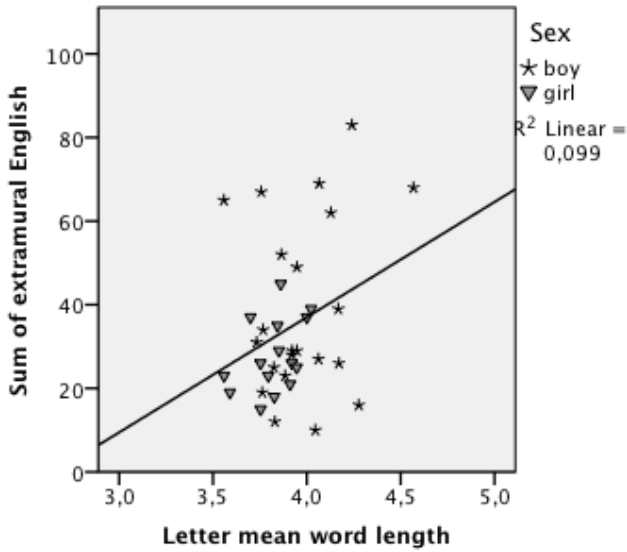
Graph 5A and 5B. Relationship between word length in letters and articles (in characters) and reported frequency of extramural English for boys and girls.

Table 10. Mean word length (in characters) in letters and articles for groups of pupils with low, medium or high frequency of extramural English.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English		Letter: word length in characters	Article: word length in characters
Low contact (1-25)	Mean	3.9	4.1
	N	13	13
	Std. Deviation	0.2	0.2
	Minimum	3.6	3.7
	Maximum	4.3	4.4
Medium contact (26-55)	Mean	3.9	4.1
	N	18	18
	Std. Deviation	0.1	0.2
	Minimum	3.7	3.9
	Maximum	4.2	4.5
High contact (56-85)	Mean	4.1	4.2
	N	6	6
	Std. Deviation	0.4	0.2
	Minimum	3.6	3.9
	Maximum	4.6	4.4
Total	Mean	3.9	4.1
	N	37	37
	Std. Deviation	0.2	0.2
	Minimum	3.6	3.7
	Maximum	4.6	4.5

Table 10 shows that the mean word length in the letters is almost the same in all groups, regardless of frequency of contacts: between 3.9 and 4.1 characters on average. For the articles, the mean scores are also similar in all groups, between 4.1 and 4.2 characters on average. Neither are there any great differences between girls' and boys' average word length. In the letters the boys used words that were 4.0 characters long on average, compared to the girls' 3.9. The words in the articles were 4.1 characters long on average for both girls and boys. Graph 5A shows, however, that only boys wrote letters with an average word length that is longer than 4.0 characters. Graph 5B shows no such gender difference in the average word length of the articles: both boys and girls wrote artcles with greater average word length than 4.0 characters.

The correlation between grades in English and average word length is similar for both articles and letters. There is a rather weak correlation: correlation coefficient 0.4 for letters and for articles at the 0.05 level of significance. There is a stronger correlation between grades in Swedish and average word length in the articles: correlation coefficient 0.5 at the 0.01 level of significance. Grades in Swedish do not correlate with word length in the letters, however. There seem

to be a number of factors that decide the length of words pupils choose to use in texts.

The most remarkable result concerning word length is the difference between text types; the mean word length in the articles is longer in all groups than the mean word length in the letters, even if the difference is not very substantial. The analysis shows that the pupils tended to use slightly longer words on average when writing the article than when writing the letter, which is a more informal text type.

There is also a correlation between word length in the two text types: Spearman's coefficient is 0.5 at the 0.01 level of significance. Pupils who use longer words in their letters tended to do so in their articles as well.

To summarise the analysis of word length, there appear to be a number of factors that influence the average word length used by the pupils, and frequency of extramural contacts seems to be one of them. A significant correlation was found between word length in the articles and frequency of extramural contacts, indicating that pupils with many extramural contacts may have a vocabulary that includes longer words, suitable for articles. Grades in Swedish also correlated with word length in the articles, while grades in English correlated with word length in both the articles and the letters. Pupils tended to write slightly longer words on average in their articles than in their letters.

5.2.4 Variation of vocabulary

The degree of vocabulary variation could indicate the proficiency level in writing (see section 5.1.1). One way of measuring the variation of vocabulary in a text is to calculate the type/token ratio, where the number of different words used in the text is divided by the total sum of words. For the Standardised Type/Token Ratio, STTR, used in the present study, calculations were made every 50 words since some of the texts were very short. A high ratio shows that the variation is greater than when the ratio is low. (See section 5.1.4 for a description of STTR and section 5.2.1 for the analysis of text length.)
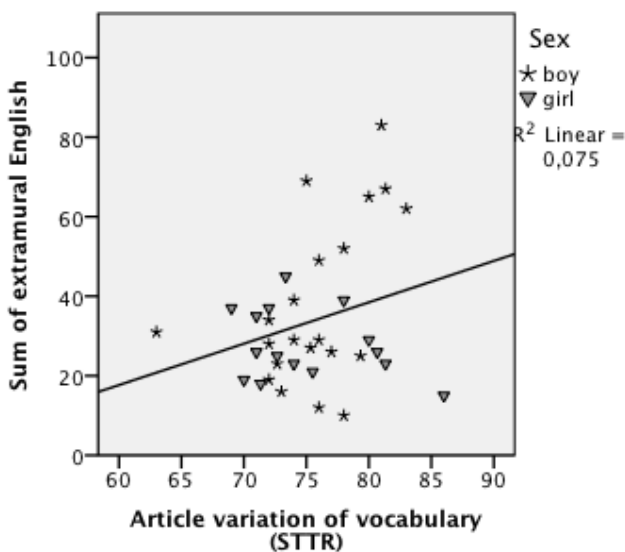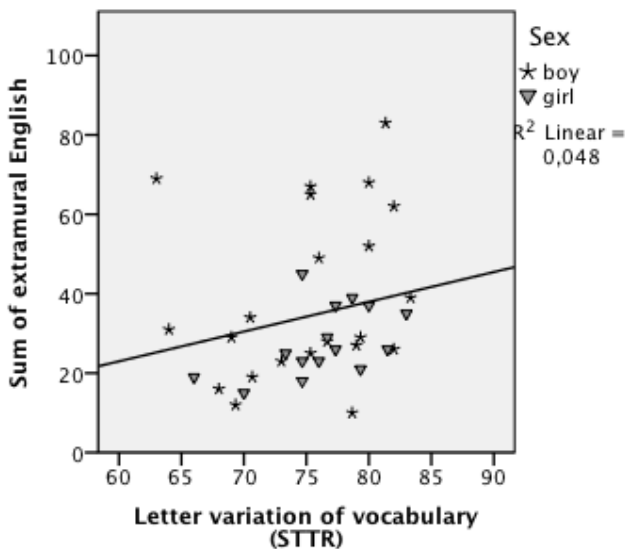
Graphs 6A and 6B: Relationship between variation of vocabulary (STTR) in letters and articles and reported frequency of extramural English for boys and girls.

Table 11. Variation of vocabulary (STTR) in letters and articles for groups of pupils with low, medium or high frequency of extramural English.

Groups based on frequency of extramural English		Standardised Type/Token Ratio in letters	Standardised Type/Token Ratio in articles
Low contact (1-25)	Mean	73.0	75.5
	N	13	13
	Std. Deviation	4.0	4.6
	Minimum	66.0	70.0
	Maximum	79.3	86.0
Medium contact (26-55)	Mean	77.2	74.0
	N	18	18
	Std. Deviation	5.1	4.3
	Minimum	64.0	63.0
	Maximum	83.3	80.7
High contact (56-85)	Mean	76.2	80.1
	N	6	5
	Std. Deviation	7.1	3.0
	Minimum	63.0	75.0
	Maximum	82.0	83.0
Total	Mean	75.5	75.4
	N	37	36
	Std. Deviation	5.3	4.6
	Minimum	63.0	63.0
	Maximum	83.3	86.0

Graphs 6A and 6B, and Table 11 show that frequency of contacts in English seems to be of some relevance for variation of vocabulary. Graphs 6A and 6B show that all pupils (except for one) with many extramural contacts (scores for contact 45 or more) vary their vocabulary to a great extent: their type/token ratio is 75 or higher in both text types. However, texts by pupils with fewer contacts also show such high ratios; different factors thus seem to be influential. Spearman's correlation test shows that there is a statistically significant correlation between the type/token ratio in the letters and the frequency of extramural contacts: the correlation coefficient is 0.4 at the 0.05 level of significance. For articles, there is no statistically significant correlation with frequency of extramural English.

At group level, the average standardised type/token ratio is 73.0 for letters written by pupils with few contacts in English, 77.2 for letters by pupils with medium frequency of contact and slightly lower, 76.2, for letters by pupils with the highest frequency of contacts in English. In the articles, the pupils with high exposure to English increase their variation. Their average standardised type/token ratio is 80.1 whereas the other groups have lower ratios: 74.0 for the

pupils with medium frequency of contact and 75.5 for the low frequency group. However, the minimum and maximum scores show that there are variations within the groups and that the differences between groups are not great, which explains why no statistically significant correlation was found between frequency of extramural contacts and type/token ratio in the articles.

There is no statistically significant correlation between type/token ratios in the two text types; pupils who vary their vocabulary in the letters do not necessarily do so to the same extent in the articles. The comparison of means in Table 11 shows, however, that the group of pupils with a high frequency of contact increase their variation of vocabulary in the articles to a larger extent than the other groups, which could indicate that they are able to vary their vocabulary according to text type; a greater diversity of vocabulary could be expexted in more advanced texts, such as articles (see section 5.1.1). There are no great differences in results between boys and girls: their mean type/token ratios are between 75 and 76 for both text types.

Grades in English and Swedish correlate with variation of vocabulary. The correlation coefficient between grades in English and standardised type/token ratio is 0.5 for letters and articles at the 0.01 level of significance. The correlation with grades in Swedish is slightly weaker: 0.4 at the 0.01 level of significance for the letters and 0.4 at the 0.05 level of significance for the articles.

To summarise, the results showed that pupils with higher grades tended to vary their vocabulary to a larger extent than pupils with lower grades in English and Swedish, as could be expected. The analysis also showed that most pupils with a high frequency of extramural contacts in English varied their vocabulary to a fairly large extent. A rather weak but still statistically significant correlation was found between frequency of extramural contacts and type/token ratio in the letters but not in the articles, indicating that pupils with many extramural contacts may have access to a more varied informal vocabulary than other pupils. Nevertheless, when changing text type from letter to article, the group of pupils with the highest frequency of extramural English increased their mean type/token ratio more than the groups of pupils with less frequent extramural contacts. This may indicate a higher degree of register awareness among pupils with frequent extramural contacts since their variation of vocabulary is higher in the article, a text type where an increase of vocabulary variation could be expected (see, e.g., Nyström 2000).

5.2.5 Use of infrequent words

The standardised type/token ratio does not show whether frequent or infrequent words are used in a text; it only shows to what degree different words are used. To analyse whether the pupils used very common words or whether they also

used more infrequent words when writing their texts, the vocabulary they used was categorised into four groups, using Vocabprofile from Lextutor (see section 5.1.4). The focus of the analyses was the use of infrequent words. The number of types (different words) beyond the 3000 most commonly found words in the British National Corpus (BNC) was calculated in the letters and the articles. Such words are categorised as K4-K20 in Vocabprofile.

Graphs 7A and 7B, and Table 12, show that many pupils do not use any unusual words in their texts; their score is 0. Thus, some texts include no words found beyond the 3000 most frequently used words in the BNC. Among the pupils who do not use any infrequent words in the letters, we find those with many and those with few extramural contacts. Graphs 7A and 7B, and Table 12, show that in the articles, all pupils with a very high frequency of extramural English (scores over 45) use at least one infrequent word, and those using the largest number of infrequent words (7 and 8) report that they have many extramural contacts. Graphs 7A and 7B show that the correlation between frequency of extramural contacts and use of infrequent vocabulary seems to be greater in articles than in letters. This is also confirmed by Spearman's correlation test: for the articles, the correlation coefficient is 0.5 at the 0.01 level of significance. There is, however, no statistically significant correlation between the use of infrequent words in the letters and frequency of extramural English.
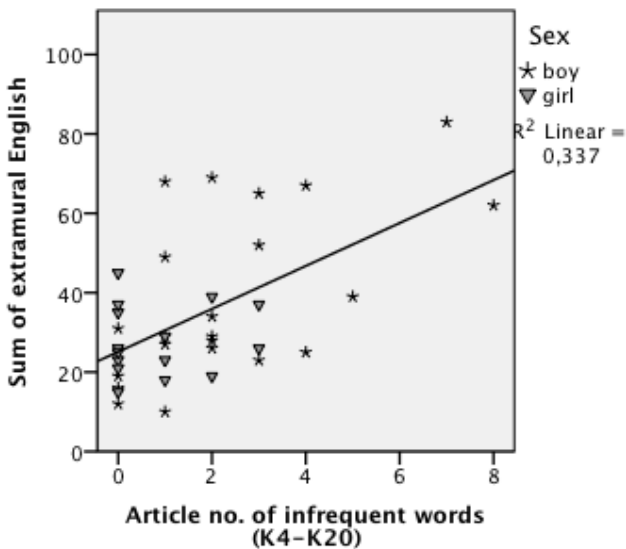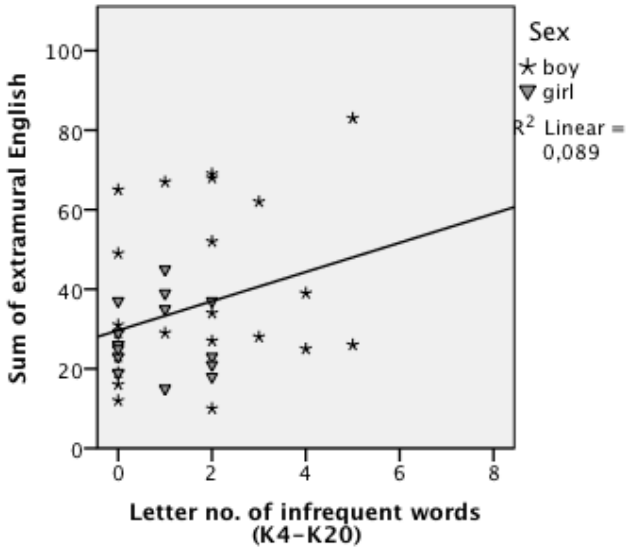
Graph 7A and 7B: Relationship between frequency of extramural English and use of infrequent words (categories K4 – K20 in Vocabprofile).

*Table 12. Mean numbers of infrequent words (K4-K20 types) in letters and
articles for groups of pupils with low, medium or high frequency of
extramural English.*

Groups based on frequency of extramural English		No. of K4-K20 types in letters	No. of K4-K20 types in articles
Low contact (1-25)	Mean	1.0	0.9
	N	13	13
	Std. Deviation	1.3	1.3
	Minimum	0	0
	Maximum	4	4
Medium contact (26-55)	Mean	1.3	1.6
	N	18	18
	Std. Deviation	1.5	1.4
	Minimum	0	0
	Maximum	5	5
High contact (56-85)	Mean	2.2	4.2
	N	6	6
	Std. Deviation	1.7	2.8
	Minimum	0	1
	Maximum	5	8
Total	Mean	1.4	1.8
	N	37	37
	Std. Deviation	1.5	2.0
	Minimum	0	0
	Maximum	5	8

Since many pupils do not use any or very few unusual words in their texts, the
average number used at group level is very low in most cases. Letters and
articles written by pupils with few contacts in English include only one K4-K20
type on average, whereas letters by pupils with the highest frequency of contact
include 2.2 infrequent types on average and their articles as many as 4.2. The
letters by pupils with a medium frequency of contact include 1.3 infrequent
types on average and their articles 1.6 infrequent types. However, as Table 12
and Graphs 7A and 7B show, there are variations within the groups. The text
that includes the greatest number of infrequent types is an article written by a
boy with a very high frequency of extramural contact; he used eight different
infrequent words in his article.

Graphs 7A and 7B show that the boys tended to use a larger number of
infrequent words in their texts; on average, they used 1.7 unusual words in the
letters and 2.4 such words in their articles, compared to the girls' average of 0.8
unusual words in the letters and 0.9 such words in the articles. Only boys are

found in the group of pupils with the highest frequency of extramural contact, the group that used the largest number of infrequent words.

As in the analysis of text length and variation of vocabulary in the two text types, it seems that pupils with a high exposure to English also increase their use of infrequent words when they change text types to a larger extent than pupils with a lower frequency of extramural contacts. They increase their average use of infrequent types from 2.2 in the letters to 4.2 in the articles, which indicates that they adapt their language use according to text type (see section 5.1.1).

There is a correlation between grades in English and the use of infrequent words: Spearman's correlation coefficient is 0.5 for the letters and 0.6 for the articles at the 0.01 level of significance. Not surprisingly, pupils with higher grades (VG or MVG) in English use a larger number of infrequent words when they write. As mentioned before, all pupils with a high frequency of contact obtained high grades; thus, the correlations are compatible (see sections 4.3.1-2). There is no statistically significant correlation between grades in Swedish and the use of infrequent words in the texts. Other factors than proficiency in Swedish seem to determine the use of infrequent words when writing in English.

The results indicate that extramural contacts may be one such factor. There was a significant correlation between frequency of extramural English in the articles, a text type where more unusual words could be expected (see section 5.1.1). The results may indicate greater register awareness and a richer vocabulary, including unusual words, among pupils with frequent extramural contacts in English.

5.3 Summary and discussion of corpus-based text analyses

The results of the corpus-based text analyses indicate that frequent contacts in English may have an impact on certain aspects of writing proficiency in English. The clearest results were found in the analysis of sentence length and in the use of infrequent vocabulary.

In the letters, a text type where everyday language could be expected to a larger extent than in a newspaper article (see, e.g., Nyström 2000), the group of pupils who reported the highest frequency of extramural contacts in English wrote longer sentences on average compared to the groups of pupils with lower frequency of such contacts. No such difference was found for the articles. The analysis of sentence length thus indicates that frequent contacts in English are beneficial for the development of informal language use. A statistically significant correlation was found between frequency of extramural contacts and sentence length in the letters but not in the articles. When watching TV, surfing the Internet or taking part in other kinds of activities in English, pupils are exposed to and use different kinds of English, in some cases for hours every day. From the survey, it is difficult to establish exactly what kind of English the

pupils come across in their spare time. TV programmes could include any programme from the BBC news to a soap opera, but it is likely that they come across and use informal, everyday language more often than academic language (see Corson 1997).

There was no correlation between grades in Swedish and sentence length, and only a rather weak correlation between grades in English and sentence length in the articles. Boys wrote longer sentences on average than girls in both text types. Since the pupils who reported the most frequent extramural contacts were all boys, the difference between girls' and boys' sentence length is not surprising, at least not in the letters, considering the correlation found between frequency of extramural English and sentence length in the letters.

The analysis of sentence length in the articles did not indicate any correlation with frequency of extramural contacts in English. The group of pupils with the highest frequency of exposure wrote slightly shorter sentences on average in the articles than in the letters, whereas the groups of pupils with lower frequency of contacts in English increased their sentence length in the articles. Examples from the pupils' texts showed that increased sentence length did not necessarily indicate higher text quality. Short personal remarks and exclamations in a personal letter could be regarded as typical of the text type and as signs of stylistic awareness. Short sentences in the article could demonstrate the ability to use condensed language, packed with information, which would rather be a sign of more advanced language use than the opposite. The analysis of sentence length shows that quantitative data alone are not sufficient for a comprehensive analysis of the pupils' texts, although they provide valuable additional material.

Apart from differences in sentence length, the corpus-based analyses of the texts also showed that frequency of extramural English could have an impact on the use of vocabulary. Pupils with a high frequency of extramural contacts used a larger number of different, infrequent words in their texts, particularly in the articles, where a statistical correlation was found between frequency of contacts in English and use of infrequent words (types). Again, the boys, who reported more frequent extramural contacts than girls on average, used a larger number of infrequent words than the girls. The results indicate that frequent exposure to English promotes the expansion of vocabulary, as Sylvén (2010) and Sundqvist (2009) also found. These studies, like the present one, do not show where and under what circumstances pupils learn new words, only that frequent exposure to and use of English correlate with knowledge of infrequent words. Great exposure to and use of a language mean frequent opportunities for coming across new vocabulary or inclusion for words already learnt.

Many results of the corpus-based analysis indicate that a number of factors seem to influence writing proficiency and that extramural English is one such factor. The analysis of word length showed that word length in the articles correlated rather weakly with frequency of extramural contacts, and with grades in Swedish and English as well. Analysis of vocabulary variation, using

type/token ratio, indicated that pupils with many extramural contacts varied their language in the letter, an informal text type, to a larger extent than pupils with fewer contacts, but again the correlation was rather weak. Grades in Swedish and English also correlated with variation of vocabulary. These correlations are compatible: all pupils with many extramural contacts obtained high grades in English, VG or MVG.

Regarding differences between the two text types, letters and articles, the results showed that pupils changed their way of writing to some extent when they changed text types. Some of these differences correlated with frequency of extramural English, as mentioned above. All groups of pupils, regardless of frequency of extramural contacts in English, increased their average word length in the articles as compared to the letters. Pupils with a high frequency of contacts in English increased the average variation of words in the articles more than pupils with a lower frequency of contacts, and their use of infrequent words (types) also increased in the articles to a greater extent.

The results thus indicate that pupils with a high frequency of extramural contacts in English may develop registers that allow them to vary their language according to text type to a greater extent than pupils with fewer extramural contacts. The analysis more often pointed to differences between text types in texts written by pupils with a high frequency of contacts in English than in texts written by pupils with fewer contacts.

The software used for the corpus-based analyses not only facilitated but actually enabled analyses that would otherwise have been extremely time-consuming or even impossible, even on a rather limited corpus such as the present one. But there are also limitations and drawbacks to consider. For instance, misspelled words were not included in the categorisation of vocabulary, which makes the analysis of the use of infrequent vocabulary somewhat uncertain. Minor spelling mistakes meant that words were not recognised by the programme and therefore categorised as "off-category". The software used for calculation of sentence length did not recognise incorrect punctuation, and so, punctuation that had been left out may have resulted in high average sentence length. It is thus necessary to be aware of the limitations in the analyses. Granger calls for caution when analysing type/token ratios in learner corpora since the data may include a high rate of non-standard forms that the software does not recognise, and consequently excludes, boosting the type/token ratio (Granger 2002:16). She refers to a study of a Spanish learner corpus where the type/token ratio was surprisingly high until closer examination showed that the high score was the result of a high frequency of erroneous forms (Granger & Wynne 1999). Despite these drawbacks, the corpus-based analyses provided quantitative data of value for understanding the impact of exposure to English on writing proficiency.

The limited size of the corpus was sometimes a hindrance to the analysis since, for instance, the number of pupils who reported very high exposure to

English was quite small, only six pupils. It means that calculations of averages were based on very few cases. On the other hand, for calculation of statistically significant correlations, results and scores for all 37 pupils and their texts were used; correlations were not calculated at group level.

6 Analysis of appraisal in the texts

The reported results of the pupils' extramural contacts in English and the corpus-based analysis of their texts indicated that a more in-depth analysis of differences in language use was needed, between the two text types, letters and articles, and between texts written by pupils with different exposure to extramural English. The analysis of appraisal, proposed by Martin and White (2005), provides a model for detailed analysis of the nuances in language use designed to illuminate differences between writers and text types.

The following question is addressed in this chapter:

- What kinds of linguistic resources do pupils with different frequency of extramural English and different grades in English use when expressing attitude and graduation in two different text types, a letter and a newspaper article?

Section 6.1 describes the appraisal system and section 6.2 outlines the method and the categories used for the analysis of appraisal in the present study, as well as the selection of texts and pupils for the analysis. Section 6.3 accounts for the results of the analysis of appraisal, and, finally, section 6.4 summarises the main findings.

6.1 Appraisal

In *The Language of Evaluation: Appraisal in English* (2005), J.R. Martin and P.R.R. White present a model for the analysis of expressions for appraisal in texts. Their focus is the interpersonal in language; they study the "subjective presence of writers/speakers in texts as they adopt stances towards both the material they present and those with whom they communicate" (Martin & White 2005:1). They build on theories developed by Halliday (2004), *Systemic Functional Grammar*, which focus on the functions of language. See also section 2.3.2.

For the present study, the analysis of expressions for appraisal is of particular interest since the topic of the texts, a dramatic incident involving an emergency landing, prompted the pupils to write texts that expressed appraisal in various

ways. The drama was depicted in two different text types, written from two perspectives, the participant's and the reporter's. A detailed study of how feelings and attitudes are expressed and to what extent they are graded may illuminate qualitative nuances in the texts. For the analysis of differences between text types, the focus on stance towards the material and the reader is highly relevant with regard to register variation.

6.1.1 Attitude

The appraisal system (Martin & White 2005) provides a framework for the analysis of expressions of *positive* or *negative attitude*. Expressions of attitude are categorised into three subgroups: *appreciation, affect and judgement. Appreciation* values things or abstract phenomena: *A terrible[21] incident. Affect* expresses feelings and emotional reactions, the writer's or someone else's: *We were happy. Judgement* is concerned with valuation of people's behaviour and actions: *He acted heroically*. Martin and White provide a simplified guide for the three categories:

(person feels **affect** about something) (it makes person feel **affect** that) (it was **judgement** of/for person to do that) (for person to do that was **judgement**) (person consider something **appreciation**) (person sees something as **appreciation)**

(Martin & White 2005:58-59)

There are many different subgroups, different kinds of affect, judgement and appreciation within the system, but only the three main categories have been used for the present study since the focus is not mainly on *what* the pupils express but rather *how* they do it. Of special interest for the present study is the question whether pupils express attitudes explicitly or implicitly, since different linguistic resources may be used for explicit and implicit expressions.

Explicit expressions of attitude are usually easily recognised in the material studied. They often describe qualities, using adjectives or adverbs: *It was a dangerous situation* (negative appreciation of the situation) or *The plane landed smoothly* (positive appreciation of the landing). Sometimes nouns are infused with attitude and processes may also express attitude: *The captain was a hero* (positive judgement of the pilot) or *The plane crashed* (negative appreciation of the landing).

In other cases, it is difficult to identify a certain word that is infused with attitude; *The captain realised that he wouldn't make it*. In this sentence it is

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[21] Underlining is used to show the word or expression in focus.

difficult to isolate one word that carries the attitude. It is rather the combination of words that implies a negative appreciation of the situation: the situation must have been serious if the captain thought that he would not make it. The sentence may also express positive or negative judgement of the captain, depending on the context; it was clever/stupid of him.

Sometimes it is difficult to establish whether a phrase expresses attitude at all: *The wing was on fire*. This sentence could be regarded as a factual description without any emotions but, depending on the context, it could also be regarded as an expression of negative appreciation of the situation; a passenger would probably find a wing on fire alarming. Very often, a sentence or word cannot be analysed in isolation; the context is crucial for the analysis, especially for implicit expressions of attitude. This brings an element of subjectivity to the appraisal analysis that cannot be avoided. Martin and White comment on the subjectivity of appraisal:

> At first blush it might seem that analysing the evaluation invoked by ideational selections introduces an undesirable element of subjectivity into the analyses. On the other hand, avoiding invoked evaluation of this kind amounts to a suggestion that ideational meaning is selected without regard to the attitudes it engenders - a position we find untenable. (Martin & White 2005:62)

The position of the reader is of interest in this context since subjectivity from a defined position makes the analyses transparent and manageable from a scientific point of view. Martin and White identify three kinds of readings of a text: *a compliant reading,* where the reader tries to embrace and sympathise with the attitude expressed in the text; *a resistant reading,* which works against the expressed attitude and opposes it; and, finally, *a tactical reading,* which is focused on a certain aspect of the text but does not really reject or support the attitudes expressed (Martin & White 2005:206). The pupils' texts used for this study could be read from different positions, depending on the purpose. A compliant and tactical position was chosen; the texts were read as if they were letters and articles, but the real objective was to make an analysis of appraisal in the texts and to study the stance of the writer. The focus was on how attitude is expressed rather than on what is expressed.

6.1.2 Graduation

Within the appraisal system there is a sub-system concerned with up-scaling and down-scaling of values, *graduation*, where different ways, syntactically and lexically, of expressing degrees of attitude or engagement can be analysed:

low degree		high degree
I'm <u>a bit</u> worried	I'm worried	I'm <u>extremely</u> worried
He's content	He's happy	He's ecstatic
I suspect	I believe	I'm <u>totally</u> convinced

The above examples illustrate graduation according to intensity or amount, called *force* by Martin and White (2005:135ff). The force of attitudes can be graded along a scale from positive to negative, but size, extent or vigour can also be assessed within the semantics of force. *A bit* and *extremely* in the examples above lessen or increase the force of the quality (*worried*); these isolated grammatical modifiers show the degree of intensification. *Ecstatic,* on the other hand, is infused with a high degree of intensification on its own. *I'm <u>totally</u> convinced* exemplifies the use of a maximizer, *totally,* which represents the uppermost end of the scale of intensification (Martin & White 2005:142).

Unlike grammatical modifiers, lexical modifiers sometimes express attitude themselves. In *The landing was <u>amazingly</u> smooth*, the modifier conveys an additional attitudinal expression: the landing was not only very smooth, it was also surprising that it was smooth. <u>*Ice cold*</u> is an example of a lexical modifier where the modifier functions as an intensifier: the water was extremely cold. Sometimes repetition is used for intensification of a quality or a process: *They <u>cried and cried and cried</u>*.

When size, weight, strength, and scope or proximity in time and space are scaled, different expressions for quantification are used: *a <u>small</u> problem*, *a <u>long-lasting</u> feeling*, *a <u>widespread</u> lie*.

Graduation of prototypicality, *focus,* is concerned with the degree to which a phenomenon is prototypical:

low degree	high degree
Stephen is <u>kind of</u> a star	Stephen is a <u>real</u> star

In the above examples, the underlined words have a softening or sharpening effect.

As Martin and White point out, otherwise non-attitudinal terms might become loaded with positive or negative attitude when specific expressions of focus are added:

Paul is a teacher	Paul is a <u>true</u> teacher

In most cases, the first sentence, *Paul is a teacher*, would be regarded as non-attitudinal. The second phrase, *Paul is a true teacher*, could express some kind

of attitude, either positive or negative, depending on the context, whether the speaker likes or dislike teachers.

The system of graduation provides a valuable tool when studying how attitudes are expressed. Martin and White have developed a comprehensive and detailed map of the graduation system. A simplified version of the system is presented in Figure 1. All of Martin and White's categories are included but there are fewer examples than in their original figure (Martin & White 2005:154).
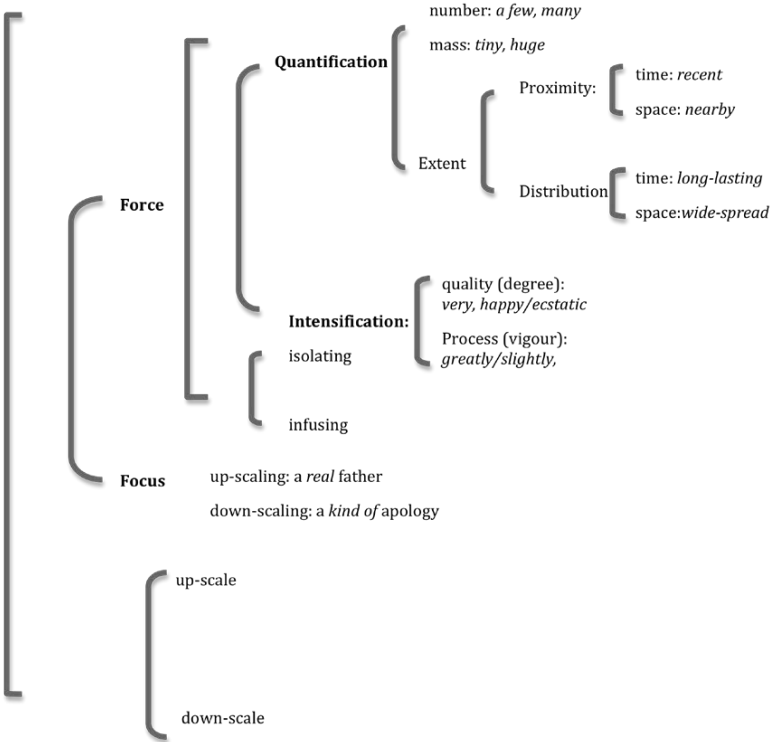
Figure 1. System of graduation: force and focus. Simplified version of Martin and White's figure (Martin & White 2005:154).

6.2 Method for analysis of appraisal in the pupils' texts

The objective of the analysis of appraisal was to investigate whether there were any differences in the way attitude was expressed in two different text types, letters and articles, between texts written by pupils with high or low frequency of extramural English. The analyses were carried out in two steps. First, 12 texts, letters and articles by six pupils who had obtained different grades in English and who had reported different frequency of extramural exposure to English, were analysed in great detail in order to identify what kind of attitude the texts expressed and what linguistic resources or tools the pupils used when expressing attitude. The purpose was to exemplify and describe differences and similarities between texts written by pupils with high versus low frequency of extramural English, and to show the impact of different linguistic choices on the expression of attitude. After this initial and detailed analysis, describing a limited number of texts, the use of different kinds of resources and tools for expression of attitude was analysed in an additional 20 texts written by ten other pupils in order to increase the base for the analysis; altogether, 32 texts by 16 pupils were analysed. The categories used for the analyses are accounted for in section 6.2.1 and the grounds for selection of pupils and texts in 6.2.2.

6.2.1 Categories for analyses of texts

In the analyses of types of attitude expressed in the six pupils' texts, the following categories were used (Martin & White 2005:69-81):

Table 13. Categories for analysis of types of attitude

+ / -	Appre- ciation	Affect	Judge- ment	In- scribed	In- voked	Caused by / felt by

Expressions of attitude were marked as positive or negative, inscribed (explicit) or invoked (implicit). The type of attitude was marked as appreciation, affect or judgement. The cause of the attitude was noted, as was the appraiser. Tables of analyses are provided in Appendices 6-11.

For the analyses of tools and resources pupils used in order to express attitude, 11 categories were listed:

Table 14. Categories for analysis of resources used for expressions of attitude (1-6) and graduation (7-11)

	Categories	Examples
1	Quality (adjectives, adverbs)	I felt *happy*
		It landed *smoothly*
2	Infused noun	He is a *hero*
3	Infused process	The plane *crashed*
4	Image (seen or heard)	*I saw the plane getting closer to the river*
5	Other infused phrases	He *realised he would never make it*
6	Modal adjuncts	*Fortunately*, there was a rescue team nearby
7	Force up- / downscaled	*Very* scared
		I was *a bit* nervous
8	Focus up- / downscaled	A *true* hero
		I was *kind of* surprised
9	Maximisation	It was *the best* day of my life
10	Lexical modifiers	*Ice*-cold water
		Amazingly smooth
11	Repetition	There was a big *booooom*! The plane went *down, down, down*.

The categories were selected from a large range of possible categories and cover both attitude and graduation (Martin & White 2005:42-69, 135-159). The 11 categories were selected since they were identified in the initial analysis of attitudinal expressions in the pupils' texts; when an attitudinal expression had been identified, the next step was to identify the kind of resource that was used for the expression.

Attitude can be realised in different forms, for instance through processes, nouns and modal adjuncts that are infused with attitudinal values (Martin & White 2005:46). Adjectives and adverbs are often used for descriptions of qualities. As shown in 6.1.2, one of the functions of graduation is to upscale or downscale the force or focus of attitudinal values and the graduation system therefore makes up an important element in the analyses of how attitude is expressed. Categories 1-6 define resources that express attitude whereas categories 7-11 are examples of graduating resources.[22]

All categories except categories 4 and 5, *Images* and *Other infused phrases*, are found within Martin and Whites' system (Martin & White 2005:42-69, 135-159). Categories 4 and 5 were identified in the initial analyses of the texts as well and were added since the existing categories did not cover certain kinds of expressions. As the examples in Table 14 show, a phrase could evoke attitude in

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[22] Categories 1-6 could also include graduating functions; a process, for instance, could be more or less strongly infused with attitude: *dislike/hate*, *like/love/adore* (Martin & White 2005:144). For the categorisation in the present study, this type of graduation was not included since it would have increased the degree of subjectivity: for instance, is *adore* a more forceful expression than *love*? In the analyses, *like, love, adore* were marked as *infused processes* only, disregarding possible graduating functions.

a certain context even if it does not include a particular adjective, noun or process that is infused with attitude. Phrases that evoke attitude and describe what people see or hear have been categorised as *images*, category 4, whereas category 5 includes other kinds of phrases that evoke attitude.

As shown in Figure 1, many different graduating tools can enhance or lessen the degree of attitude in an expression. The categories used in the present study were, as mentioned above, identified in the initial analyses and therefore selected. Category 7, *Force up- / downscaled,* is an extensive category that could have been divided into several subcategories (see Figure 1) but a large number of narrow categories could blur the overall picture and, consequently, it was not divided into subcategories. On the other hand, categories 9, 10 and 11, *Maximisation, Lexical modifiers* and *Repetition*, are rather narrow categories, infrequently used in the texts. However, for the purpose of studying the variety of linguistic resources used, they were selected as they were identified in the initial analyses.

When categorising expressions of attitude in the texts, an expression could indicate several categories: *the best day* would be marked as *quality* and *maximisation* whereas *a good day* would only be marked as *quality*. *A bit nervous* would be marked as *quality* and *downscaled force*.

In the initial, qualitative analyses of the six pupils' texts, the focus was both on types of attitude and use of resources for the expression, thus using the categories presented in Tables 13 and 14. The results indicated differences in the use of resources and tools between pupils with different exposure to English in their spare time. Therefore the analyses including the additional 20 texts focused on the analyses of the 11 categories of resources (Table 14).

Apart from the analyses of appraisal, the qualitative analyses also include comments on the pupils' choices of subjects (*I, you, the pilot,* etc.) in the two text types, since these choices constitute an important part of the interpersonal exchange that may influence the expression of attitude (Holmberg & Karlsson 2006:40). The choice of subjects is important for the stance of the writer and for his or her involvement in the text, which influences how attitude is expressed. The way the reader is addressed is also important for the expression of attitude, especially with regard to different text types.

6.2.2 Selection of pupils and texts

The purpose of the analysis was to compare texts written by pupils whose extramural exposure to English differed substantially in order to see whether there seemed to exist any differences in their expressions of appraisal in two text types, letter and article. As the results in section 4.3.1 show, all pupils with frequent contacts in English obtained high grades in English, VG (Pass with distinction) or MVG (Pass with special distinction); there was a correlation

between grades in English and frequency of contacts in English. The results also show that it was possible to obtain VG and MVG without frequent contacts in English in one's spare time. A pupil who obtained a high grade in English might be expected to be a more proficient writer than a pupil with a lower grade. Grades in English and frequency of extramural contacts were, therefore, factors that determined the selection of pupils and texts for the analysis of appraisal.

A selection of pupils with different grades in English and different frequency of extramural contacts in English was made. (For calculations of frequency, see section 4.1.) The pupils with the lowest and highest frequencies of extramural contacts were selected among those who had obtained a certain grade: G, VG or MVG. Thus, six pupils were selected and paired for the detailed analyses of texts. In each pair, the pupils had similar backgrounds[23] and the same grade in English but differed in frequency of contacts in English. The names of the pupils are fictitious.

Table 15. Selection of six pupils and their texts for the analysis of appraisal and graduation.

Low frequency of extramural English			High frequency of extramural English		
Pupils	Grade in English	Frequency score	Pupils	Grade in English	Frequency score
Maria	MVG	26	Arnold	MVG	83
Christopher	VG	10	Peter	VG	69
Lola	G	15	Linda[24]	G	35

The letters and articles written by the six pupils selected were analysed and described pairwise. Comparisons were also made with the other pairs' texts. Arnold's and Maria's texts were compared since they both obtained the same grade, MVG, in English but differed in frequency of extramural contacts. The texts by Christopher and Peter were compared, as were the texts by Lola and Linda. In the discussion, additional comparisons are made between all the six pupils' texts.

As Table 15 shows, the pupils were divided into two groups according to frequency of extramural contacts: the pupils who reported the highest frequency of extramural contacts among those who obtained G, VG or MVG are found in

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[23] Background information about the pupils included country of birth, language(s) spoken at home, parents' level of education, grades in Swedish and total sum of grades in all subjects (see Appendices 5A-C).

[24] Linda had the second highest score (35) among the pupils who had obtained G. The highest score was slightly higher: 37. Linda was selected since her background was more similar to Lola's than that of the pupil whose score was higher.

the high-frequency group and the pupils who reported the lowest frequency are found in the low-frequency group.[25]

For the second part of the analysis, when the analyses of ten pupils' use of linguistic resources and tools for expression of attitude and graduation were added in order to increase the base for analysis, the selection of pupils was made in a similar way. In addition to the six pupils presented in Table 15, the pupils with the second lowest and second highest frequencies of extramural English were selected among those who had obtained G, VG and MVG. The group of pupils who had obtained VG was larger than the groups of pupils who had obtained G or MVG, and it also included a greater range of frequency scores. Therefore, the pupils with the third and fourth highest and lowest scores for extramural English among pupils who obtained VG were also included. The group was thus limited to ten pupils in order to get a balance between pupils with different grades who differed in frequency of exposure to English.

Table 16. Selection of ten additional pupils for the analyses of linguistic resources used for expression of attitude and graduation.

Low frequency of extramural English			High frequency of extramural English		
Pupils	Grade in English	Frequency score	Pupils	Grade in English	Frequency score
John	MVG	27	Adam	MVG	62
Sven	VG	12	Thomas[26]	VG	65
Pamela	VG	18	Robert	VG	49
Sarah	VG	21	Lena	VG	45
Martin	G	16	Daniela	G	37

Grades in English are blunt tools for division of pupils into pairs or groups since different teachers may evaluate pupils' proficiency differently (Swedish National Agency for Education 2007). Further, pupils may have passed with a very small margin or almost met the requirements for a higher grade; there may be great differences in proficiency between pupils who obtained the same grade level. Nevertheless, for the present study it seemed more relevant to compare texts by pupils who had obtained the same grade but differed in frequency of extramural contacts rather than comparing pupils who had obtained different

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[25] The grouping of pupils is different from that used in the corpus-based analysis, since only a limited number of pupils were selected for the analysis of appraisal and since each group used for the corpus-based analyses did not include all three grade levels, G, VG and MVG (see sections 4.3.1 and 5.1.5).

[26] There was a boy in the VG group who had a frequency score of 68, slightly higher than Thomas's score, but Thomas was selected since there were special background factors to consider in the case of the other boy. Each of his texts included fewer than 55 words. The inclusion of these very atypical texts in a limited selection of texts would have weakened the validity of the results.

grades and also differed in frequency of extramural contacts. The choice to pair pupils with similar backgrounds, apart from frequency of contacts, promotes the analysis and its focus on extramural contacts.

6.2.3 Additional comments

As mentioned in section 6.1.1, the analysis of attitude is, at least to some extent, subjective; different people would probably make slightly different analyses, especially when the expression of attitude is implicit. Many expressions of attitude were found in the texts since they depicted a dramatic event and my version of the analysis is one of several possible versions. However, the choice of a tactical and compliant reading of the texts, described in 6.1.1, and the use of clearly defined categories of analysis (Tables 13 and 14) restrict the degree of subjectivity. Further, my analyses have been scrutinised by another researcher, familiar with the analysis of appraisal in texts. In the very few cases where our analyses differed initially, we discussed the differences and I adjusted the analyses when needed. This procedure also strengthens the reliability of the analyses presented in the following section.

6.3 Results of the analysis of appraisal

The analyses of the texts[27] are reported pairwise (see Table 15) and include the following sections:

1. Description of pupils' background
2. Analyses of letters
3. Analyses of articles

After the reports of results for the three pairs, a summarising account of the resources used for expressing attitude and graduation is given, including the additional ten pupils' texts (Table 16).

6.3.1 Maria and Arnold

Maria and Arnold are both successful pupils, especially Maria. She obtained the highest grade, MVG (pass with special distinction), in 15 out of 16 subjects, including English and Swedish. Arnold obtained only one MVG, in English. Both of them studied French; Maria was given MVG and Arnold VG. They

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[27] Letters are displayed in italics.

were born in Sweden and speak Swedish and another language at home. Their parents have university education.

There are great differences between them in their extramural contacts in English. Of all the pupils with an MVG in English, Maria had the lowest score, 26, when the frequency of different kinds of contacts, reported in the questionnaire, was summed up. Still, this was not a very low score in comparison to the whole group of informants. There were 13 pupils with lower scores than Maria but they all obtained lower grades in English. Arnold had the highest score of all pupils, 83. (For calculations of frequency, see 4.1.)

In the questionnaire Maria reports that she is exposed to English on a daily basis, watching English-speaking TV programmes or films and listening to music. She occasionally reads blogs or websites in English. The diary confirms the picture from the questionnaire about activities Maria is engaged in. During the seven days the diary was kept, Maria watched TV every day, mostly films or TV series in English with Swedish subtitles, one day for as long as 11 hours. She listened to music with English lyrics four times and browsed YouTube five times, 15 minutes each time. On average, she spent 5.1 hours per day in contact with English in her spare time, mostly watching TV.

In the questionnaire Arnold reports that he has a large number of contacts in English, many of them on a daily basis. He kept a diary for only five days but it confirms a high frequency of extramural contacts. He played computer games four of these five days, once for as long as 5 hours. He chatted with other players twice for 15-30 minutes. He visited websites on the Internet every day, sometimes 3 hours a day, commenting: "Everything I read on the Internet is in English". He watched films or programmes in English without Swedish subtitles and listened to music almost every day. His average time in contact with English per day was 5.8 hours. He did not write a diary during the weekend, as Maria did, which complicates comparison. Based on contacts during five weekdays, like the calculations for Arnold, Maria's average time per day in contact with English would be 4.25 hours.

The difference in average time spent in contact with English is not enormous, but it is evident that the nature of Maria's and Arnold's contacts in English differs. Arnold's contacts are more differentiated and they more often demand active production of English. Detailed background information about Maria and Arnold is provided in Appendix 5A.

6.3.1.1 Maria's and Arnold's letters

Maria's letter:

Arnold's letter:

Dear Leslie
I have something amazing and terrifying to tell you. Don't worry, it's nothing very serious, just a bit. You know the airplane they showed on the news, the one who landed because of an emergency on the Hudson River? Well, I was on that plane. You may have heard different versions about the experience but this is mine.

It's a bit strange how people can call themselves telepathic but I actually believe that I was at the moment while I was going on the plane, I had a really weird feeling. Something wasn't right. Now I know what it was.

I remember how I was listening to my walkman when the lady next to me started to scream: "Dear lord, what was that? Oh my god, is it serious? Please, could someone tell me what that explosion was?

Afterwards, everything continued very quickly. The stewardessess went back and forth, panicing inside but they had to be calm. It was a uncomfortable and bomby ride but I saw the river coming closer. I heard thwe pilot's calm voice in the speakers repeating: "Prepare for en emergency landing".

Two minutes later I hit the head in the chair when we landed, and for 30 minutes I stood on the wings, with the ice-cold water covering my knees, waiting to get warm.
A tough experience, call me later!
Your Barbara

I was by the river when I heard some kind of malfunctioning engine that was making loud noises. I looked up from where I stood and discovered that there was plane right above my head. People all around me halted what they were doing and stared at the plane, startled and surprised. That was when the thought struck me, what if the plain couldn't make it to the other side? But in my relief I noticed that it was on its way down. lt seemed like it was going to land on the river but that felt somewhat unbelievable. But that was actually the case, it softly and gently considering the circumstances landed upon the Hudson River. The crowd began to panic and screams of "Somebody help them" and "Are they going to be ok?" . lt only took a moment for a flotilla to get there and start the rescuing operation. Fortunately nobody was harmed in the disaster, which was a relief for all of us watching this dramatic event.

Tables showing the analysis of attitude and graduation in Arnold's and Maria's letters are provided in Appendices 6A and 7A.

Arnold and Maria start their letters from different points of view. Maria describes the event from a passenger's perspective while Arnold describes what happened from the docks of the river, as an eyewitness.

Maria's text can easily be recognised as a letter since she addresses a particular person at the beginning and the end of her text: *Dear Leslie*

and *Your Barbara.* She addresses Leslie twice using the imperative: *Don't worry* and *Call me later. You* is used as subject twice at the beginning of Maria's letter, addressing Leslie: *You know the airplane they showed on the news*… and *You may have heard different versions…*The use of *you* brings closeness to the interpersonal exchange in Maria's letter; the reader is invited into the text.

In his solution to the first task, Arnold does not address a particular person and there are no phrases indicating that he has necessarily written a letter or e-mail. He has chosen to write his text in the form of an eyewitness report of what happened that day in New York. He begins his text by stating his position*: I was by the river when I heard some kind of malfunctioning engine that was making loud noises.* Then he goes on to tell the story as though he had been in New York that day, watching the plane landing on the river. Like Maria, he uses *I* as subject several times and refers to the emotions of the imaginary *I*, which makes their accounts personal.

As shown in Appendices 6A and 7A, there are many similarities in the way attitude is expressed in the two letters. Both writers express attitude in the form of appreciation most frequently; they say that the incident was serious in different ways. In most cases these expressions are explicit but implicit expressions of appreciation also occur in both letters. They express affect frequently, both explicitly and implicitly. Since they write from a participant's perspective, as passenger or eyewitness, they express emotional reactions to the event in the form of affect. There are few instances of judgement in the letters.

Maria begins her letter with several explicit expressions of appreciation of the incident, balancing one expression against the other: *I have something <u>amazing</u> and <u>terrifying</u> to tell you. Don't worry, it's <u>nothing very serious, just a bit.</u>* She reveals the outcome from the start since she wants "Leslie" not to *worry* (affect). The use of a rather positive expression of attitude, *amazing,* takes away some of the negative effect of *terrifying;* the event becomes less terrifying. Then she reveals that everything probably ended well as she downscales the force of her expression of attitude: <u>*nothing very serious, just a bit.*</u>

A few times, Maria uses citations to convey attitude. In most cases these citations include a noun or a process that is infused with attitude:
"*Please, could some one tell me what that <u>explosion</u> was?"*
"*Dear lord, what was that?"*
Clearly, a word like *explosion* evokes emotions in a context where it is pronounced by a passenger in an airplane.
In the second citation the speaker's fear is expressed through a question and an emotional outburst, *dear lord*, that has an intensifying function in this context.

Arnold also uses citations to provoke affect: "*Somebody help them"* and "*Are they going to be ok?"* These citations indicate that people on the docks were

worried, but they are less forceful than Maria's citations since they do not include any intensifying elements such as *please* or *oh my god*.

Whereas Maria uses adjectives in most cases when she wants to express attitude explicitly, Arnold uses only a few adjectives. More often than Maria, Arnold uses other linguistic resources to express attitude, such as nouns loaded with a high degree of attitude, like *disaster* and *relief: … nobody was harmed in the disaster, which was a relief for all of us*. These nouns express appreciation of the situation (*disaster*) and affect (*relief*). In fact, Arnold uses nouns more often than adjectives to express attitude.

Quite often, Arnold does not explicitly express attitude; instead he describes an image or an event in a manner that evokes affect. In a context where strange sounds of malfunctioning engines have been introduced, the discovery of a plane just above one's head evokes fear. He writes: *I looked up from where I stood and discovered that there was plane (sic) right above my head.* In this context, the choice of *looked up* combined with *discovered* indicates that things happened quickly and dramatically. The use of *right* in *right above my head* is crucial, indicating that the plane was quite close. The choice of processes and the use of an expression for detailed proximity (*right*) provoke the affect. If less forceful processes had been used and if *right* had been omitted, the affect would not have been as strong: *From where I stood I saw a plane above my head*.

The following sentence from Arnold's text also demonstrates that he uses processes with a high degree of intensification to evoke attitude: *People all around me halted what they were doing and stared at the plane.* The same event could be described in a more neutral way without provoking such forceful attitude: *People stopped what they were doing and looked at the plane*. Arnold's way of expressing it more clearly indicates that the pedestrians were alarmed. Instead of writing *That is when I thought…* he writes *That is when the thought struck me,* which provokes a feeling of drama and perhaps even shock. Arnold demonstrates that he has access to a rich vocabulary, which allows him to express himself in a way that gives different nuances. As the examples above show, the intensity and vigour of the message are enhanced by his choice of processes, thus creating an expression of attitude, even if the isolated processes do not in themselves necessarily express attitude.

Maria also uses processes that provoke attitude: *Two minutes later I hit my head in the chair.* She uses *hit* which undeniably provokes the feeling of pain. She seems to use processes that express attitude explicitly, like *worry* and *panic*. Arnold's use of processes in the examples above had a different function. They were not as forceful in themselves but had a graduating function that created an implicit expression of attitude.

Like Arnold, Maria sometimes uses images to evoke attitude: *for 30 minutes I stood on the wings with the ice-cold water covering my knees, waiting to get warm.* By stating the duration, *30 minutes*, and intensifying the coldness of the

water by the additional lexical modifier *ice*, the image of the girl on the wing expresses attitude, indicating a desperate situation in the freezing water.

Both writers use different kinds of graduating tools to up- or downscale their expressions of attitude. In an example from Arnold's text, *I heard some kind of malfunctioning engine,* the use of *some kind of* makes the experience of the sound more vague; the eyewitness was not sure what kind of machine the sound came from. It is an example of downscaling of focus. He also writes *somewhat unbelievable* where he downscales the force; the degree of attitude is lessened by the use of *somewhat*. Maria also uses up- and downscaling intensifiers of force: *nothing very serious* and *a bit strange.*

Modal adjuncts are used a few times, more often by Arnold than Maria, to express attitude. In Maria's *I actually believe*…and Arnold's …*that was actually the case*, they both use *actually* to express counter expectancy and surprise. Arnold uses *fortunately* in *Fortunately nobody was harmed* to indicate a positive appreciation of the situation. In *It only took a moment for a flotilla to get there, only* indicates implicit positive judgement of the flotilla; they were quicker than expected.

The use of different linguistic resources to express attitude and graduation in Maria and Arnold's letters is summarised in Graphs 8A and 8B. These graphs and the analysis above show that both writers use a great variety of linguistic resources when expressing attitude in their letters. Maria's more frequent use of adjectives is evident, as is Arnold's more frequent use of nouns. Arnold uses modal adjuncts more often than Maria and he seems to vary his use of different kinds of up- or downscaling tools to a larger extent, even though Maria's text includes a larger number of attitudinal expressions. Both writers use images and citations to evoke attitude.
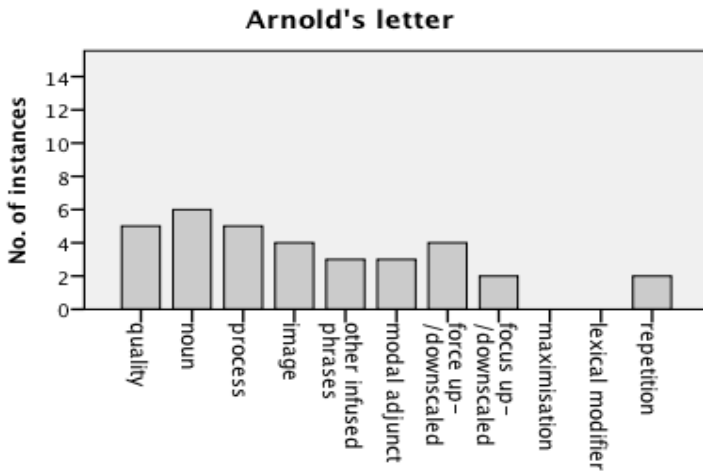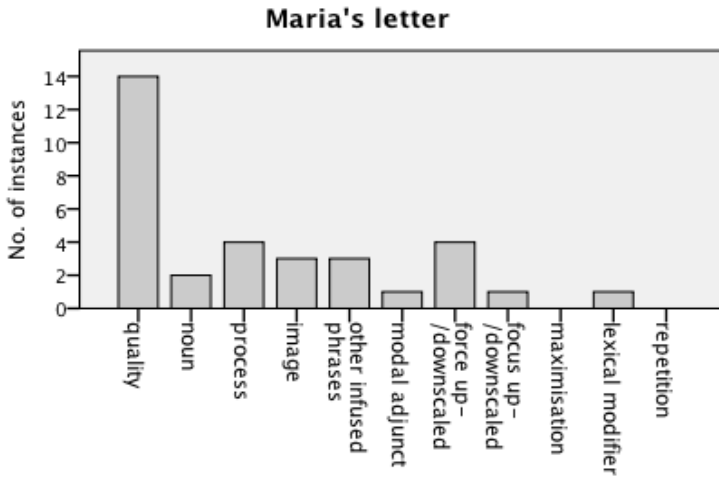
Graphs 8A and 8B: Maria's and Arnold's use of resources to express attitude and graduation in their letters.

6.3.1.2 Maria's and Arnold's articles

Maria's article:

Unexpected crash

What seemed to become a nice flight from the airport La Guardian, New York to Charlotte, South Carolina quickly ended due to a bird crash which affected the two engines. Just above the buildings of New York, the lives of the 200 passengers where suddenly hanging by a thin thread.

When the bird got sucked in to the huge engines, they immediately quitted to work, which left the plane just a couple of minutes to stay in the air. The passengers where at least as shocked as the pilot who for just a second hesitated what he would to. But because of his many years working in the air, he realized what he had to do: go with his first way out of this disaster.

The pilot got help from the nearest airport in New York which he lead the airplane to, though he didn't have time, which resulted in the fact that he had to land on the softest and largest area around: the Hudson River.

Witnesses say that the airplane landed so gentle and confident, that for a second they thought the river was a landbane.

The passengers immediately got out on the wings, waiting for the rescuers to come, which didn't take them a lot of time. Even though the fine landing helped the passengers a lot, they had to suffer from the ice-cold water who slowly surrounded them.

At the accident, no one got badly hurt exept the freezing enguries.

Arnold's article:

Pilot calmly saves 150 lives

Yesterday at 1700 hours a plane crashlanded on the hudson river. It was a miraculous landing wich required the pilot to use his skills to their fullest. Captain Sollenburger was the one who executed this amazingly smooth landing on the river. The plane had been hit by a swarm of birds which seriously damaged their left engine. The pilot was directed to land at a nearby airport although he figured he'd never make it. That's when he went about and landed on the river.

These are statements from local citizens, Charles Dera says:

- I was walking down the street by the docks and i heard some noise coming from the air, I turned my head and saw this plane descending from a smoke cloud which had its origin from the planes left engine.

Holly Birdstone says:

- I was terrified. I sat at a cafe at the time with my boyfriend when I saw a plane crashing down not too far away on the river!

Shortly after the plane had stopped a flotilla arrived to begin the rescue operation. Only 45 minutes later everyone had been safely taken ashore and every passenger survived.

Tables showing the analysis of attitude and graduation in Arnold's and Maria's articles are provided in Appendices 6B and 7B.

The foci of Arnold's and Maria's performance of the second task, writing an article, are different from the start, beginning at the headlines. Arnold's focus is on the skills of the pilot: *Pilot calmly saves 150 lives*, whereas Maria focuses on the crash: *Unexpected crash.*

Using headlines, both of them signal that they are writing articles. Their first paragraphs also indicate this, since they could pass for preambles; they relate to the headlines and summarise the contents of the articles. Arnold states the time and place of the incident, and summarises the event, relating it to the skills of the pilot mentioned in the headline; *Yesterday at 1700 hours a plane crashlanded on the hudson river. It was a miraculous landing wich required the pilot to use his skills to their fullest.* Maria also states where the incident took place and develops the theme of unexpectedness as she starts her article: *What seemed to become a nice flight from the airport La Guardian, New York to Charlotte, South Carolina quickly ended due to a bird crash which affected the two engines.*

Both writers vary their use of subjects, but Arnold primarily uses subjects that include the plane or the pilot, whereas Maria has the passengers as subject most of the time. This shows that both writers are able to pursue the directions suggested by the headlines.

From Maria's article:
The passengers were at least as shocked...
...the lives of the 200 passengers w(h)ere suddenly hanging by a thin thread.
The passengers immediately got out on the wings

From Arnold's article:
The plane had been hit...
The pilot was directed...
Captain Sollenburger was the one who executed this amazingly smooth landing

Both writers thus demonstrate a clear difference from their letters where *I* was frequently used. When Maria and Arnold solve the task of writing a newspaper article, they use third person subjects except in citations. As the examples above also show, they both include more factual information in their articles than in their letters, such as the exact time of the incident and the names of the captain or passengers.

Arnold and Maria both express appreciation more often than affect and judgement in their articles, as was also the case in their letters. In their articles, they express judgement more frequently and affect only a few times; the reverse was seen in the letters. In the articles, Arnold's in particular, the reporter comments on the event in the form of judgement, whereas the letters described what the *I* of the letter felt and saw.

Arnold increases the number of implicit expressions for attitude in his article in comparison with his letter; he expresses attitude implicitly twice as often as he does explicitly. In her article, Maria expresses attitude explicitly slightly more often than implicitly, as both of them did in their letters.

In the first sentence of her article, Maria's use of *seem* brings in an element of deliberate contradiction: *What seemed to become a nice flight...* The use of

seemed makes the reader understand, already at the beginning of the sentence, that most likely, the flight did not turn out to be that nice at all. The reason is revealed later on in the same sentence, but the choice of process still changes the positive appreciation of the *nice flight* into a negative appreciation of the situation. This technique, of balancing positively and negatively loaded expressions to create an attitude of ambiguity, or perhaps enhanced curiosity, can also be seen at the beginning of Maria's letter.

Maria expressed affect frequently in her letter, both explicitly and implicitly, but expresses affect only twice in her article, on both occasions explicitly: *…they had to suffer* and *The passengers where at least as shocked as the pilot.*
In both cases she describes the feelings of the passengers, not the reporter's, using words, *suffer* and *shocked*, which are infused with a high degree of attitude. As the example shows, Maria uses a graduating expression, *at least as*, to intensify the attitude.

Apart from the explicitly expressed affect in *I was terrified,* there are no other explicit expressions of affect in Arnold's article and there are only two cases of implicitly expressed affect:

- I was walking down the street by the docks and i heard some noise coming from the air, *I turned my head and saw the plane descending from a smoke cloud which had its origin from the planes left engine.*

- I sat at a café at the time with by boyfriend when I saw a plane crashing down not too far away

Here, Arnold uses the same technique as he does several times in the letter: he provokes attitude by describing an image. When the eyewitness describes the descending plane coming down from a cloud of smoke, both negative appreciation of the situation (*serious*) and negative affect (*scared*) are provoked by the description. The use of an expression for graduation of proximity, *not too far away,* and details describing the smoke and its origin, strengthen the force of the attitude. By contrasting the events with a context of normality, such as walking down the street or sitting in a café with a boyfriend, the event appears even more dramatic and shocking. In the above examples, Arnold cites eyewitnesses who express what they felt and experienced. The use of citations gives the reader a vivid report of the experience while the reporter can still keep his objective stance.

Maria does not use direct speech in her article, as she did in her letter, but uses indirect speech once, expressing explicit positive appreciation of the landing and implicit positive judgement of the pilot at the same time: *Witnesses say that the airplane landed so gentle and confident, that for a second they thought the river was a landbane[28]*. Even if the pilot is not mentioned, the image

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[28] *landbane*: an anglification of the Swedish word "landningsbana" which corresponds to the English word *runway*.

and the qualities, *gentle and confident*, indicate a positive judgement of his skills.

Arnold also expresses judgement of the pilot: *Captain Sollenburger was the one who executed <u>this amazingly smooth</u> landing on the river*, Here, Arnold expresses both explicit appreciation of the landing and implicit judgement of the pilot's skills. Arnold uses a lexical modifier, *amazingly,* that functions both as an intensifier of *smooth* (*amazingly smooth*=very smooth) and, at the same time, as an indicator of attitude: the captain's landing was *amazing* (= surprising).

Sometimes Arnold uses modal adjuncts to express invoked positive judgement: <u>*Shortly after*</u> *the plane had stopped a flotilla arrived...* and <u>*Only 45 minutes later*</u> *everyone had been safely taken ashore…* In both cases he is indicating that the rescue workers were quick.

Maria also expresses positive judgement of the rescue team: *The passengers immediately got out on the wings, waiting for the rescuers to come, <u>which didn't take them a lot of time</u>.* Using a longer phrase, she expresses the same admiration as Arnold. This is an example where Arnold's way of writing, using modal adjuncts, is more condensed, expressing attitude in fewer words without losing strength.

Maria and Arnold's use of different linguistic resources for the expression of attitude and graduation in their articles is summarised in Graphs 9A and 9B. The graphs show that Maria uses adjectives and other expressions of quality in her article to a larger extent than Arnold. He, on the other hand, uses infused processes more frequently. Both writers use images and infused phrases to evoke attitude in their articles and use a variety of up- or downscaling expressions.

Both Maria and Arnold show that they express appraisal in different ways in the two text types. Expressions of judgement are found more often in the articles and expressions of affect more often in the letters, which show that the stance of the writer changes with the text type; the personal experience of an eyewitness is expressed as affect in the letter and the reporter expresses judgement of the pilot and the rescue team's heroic acts in the article. Both writers express implicit attitude more frequently in their articles; Arnold in particular uses implicit expressions. Both writers use images to convey implicit attitude, especially Arnold. They use a variety of graduating tools in their articles, more frequently than in their letters. Maria, in particular, increases her use of graduation in the article. Both writers demonstrate that they have access to a rich vocabulary. In both her texts, Maria uses adjectives and other expressions of quality more often than Arnold. He uses infused nouns more often than Maria in the letter and processes that are infused with attitude more often in his article.

Maria's article
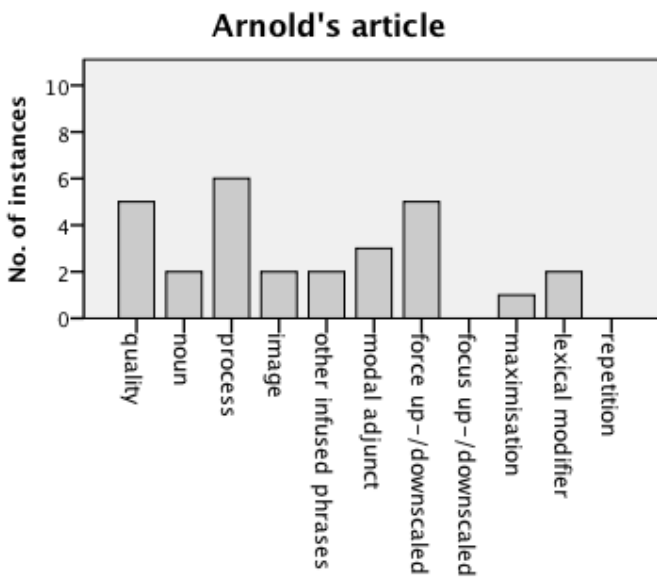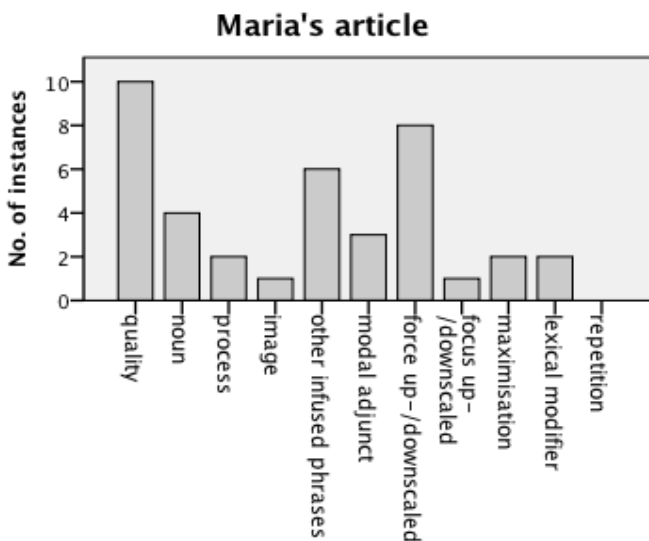
Arnold's article

Graphs 9A and 9B: Maria's and Arnold's use of resources to express attitude and graduation in their articles.

6.3.2 Christopher and Peter

Both Christopher and Peter obtained VG in English; otherwise, Christopher's grades were generally higher than Peter's. When leaving school, Christopher obtained the highest grade, MVG, in 11 out of 16 subjects, including Swedish, French and German. Peter did not obtain MVG in any subject but had VG in seven subjects, not including any languages apart from English. He studied German and Swedish, which he passed (G). Both boys were born in Sweden and they speak Swedish at home. Peter's mother studied at university; otherwise, their parents' education is upper secondary school.

There is a great difference in frequency of extramural contacts in English between the boys. Christopher had the lowest score of all pupils for frequency of contacts, 10, whereas Peter had the second highest score of all pupils, 69, the highest score for pupils with VG. Christopher did not report having any contacts in English on a daily basis in the questionnaire. Once or a few times a week, he usually watches English-speaking TV-programmes and listens to music with English lyrics. Occasionally, once or a few times a month, he reads manuals or periodicals in English. His diary confirms that he has few contacts; he was exposed to English 0.7 hours a day on average, based on a diary kept for seven days. He listened to music with English lyrics 10-30 minutes twice, watched TV programmes such as The Simpsons and films four days. Neither of the boys had travelled to an English-speaking country or used English during other trips.

Peter has frequent contacts of various kinds in English, most of them computer-based; in the questionnaire he reports that he usually plays computer games, listens to music with English lyrics and watches films or TV-programmes in English every day, often using the computer. He reports that he chats every day and that he reads blogs or other websites in English daily. Once or a few times a week, he reads manuals or periodicals. He reports that he has contacts in written English once or a few times a week, without specifying what kind. His diary confirms that he has many different kinds of contacts and that he spends a substantially longer time than Christopher being exposed to and using English. Peter's average is 3.7 hours a day, even if he forgot several times to write down how long he watched TV; his average should have been higher, but only reported time was used in the calculations. He kept the diary for seven days and reported that he spent less time than usual on English contacts on two of these days. He played computer games five days (*X-men* and *Grid*) for 30 minutes to one hour each time and talked to people in connection with the games a few times. He visited various sites, like YouTube, 30 minutes to two hours a day. He watched English-speaking programmes every day. The difference in exposure to and use of English between the boys appears to be great. Detailed background information about Christopher and Peter is provided in Appendix 5B.

6.3.2.1 Christopher's and Peter's letters

Christopher's letter:

Peter's letter

Hi my dear friend!

Hi, there!

It was an terrible accident here! There were birds who had flown in to an airplane's engine. The airplane was told to land and the captain did a marvellos landing in to the river Hudson river. Some of my friends were near the plane and could see the hole situation. I heard it was over 150 people in the plane. When the airplane had landed in the river it began to sink. Lucky, a boat could save them but some of the passenger were freezing. But no one died and that was good. Captain Sullenberger, which not is a cake in Germany, was big hero. Without his acting all the people could have died. It took over 45 minutes and then all the people were saved. It is really great that we have that kind of heros in our airplanes!

You will not believe what happened to me! I was down near the Hudson river, It was just a normal day the sun was shining, it was pretty cold and I was driving my ferry down the river there was many people this day, weekend.
Then suddenly everybody on the ferry heard a big boooooooom, it was a plane who was going to land on the river! The plane was coming really fast and close to the ferry everybody was frighten. The plane was very big and went very fast! Then it started to touch the water and nearly stopped immediately, it was a gigantic splash and we thought that nearly no one would have survived

Bye, bye! From your american friend!

Tables showing the analysis of attitude and graduation in Peter's and Christopher's letters are provided in Appendices 8A and 9A.

Christopher clearly shows that he is writing a letter, addressing someone at the start and end: *Hi my dear friend*! and *Bye, bye from your american friend!* Otherwise he does not directly address any particular person in the letter.

Peter begins his letter with a phrase of greeting and addresses a particular reader from the start, using *you* as subject: *Hi, there! You will never believe what happened to me*!

Peter's point of view is that of an eyewitness, although he seems to have changed his mind regarding his perspective, since he starts by stating that he was *near* the river, before changing to the position of the driver of a ferry, which he then pursues throughout the rest of the letter. He uses *I* as subject twice at the beginning of the text. His report is vivid and personal, referring to the experiences of the passengers of the ferryboat, including the *I*, throughout the text. The letter is rather short and it seems that he did not quite finish it; his text does not cover the outcome of the accident and the letter ends quite abruptly. Perhaps Peter ran out of time or grew tired of writing.

Christopher's letter is longer than Peter's and covers the whole episode: the cause of the accident, the landing and the outcome. He writes from a slightly more distant perspective, however, since his *friends were near the plane,* not the *I* of the text. Therefore *I* or *we* are not used as subjects more than once each. In spite of this, there are many expressions of attitude in the letter since there are frequent comments on the events and especially on the skills of the pilot.

Perhaps this distance in perspective can explain why Christopher expresses judgement more often than affect. As tables in Appendix 9A show, Christopher expresses very little affect in his letter; in fact he expresses positive judgement of the pilot more often than he expresses affect. Peter's rather short letter includes a larger number of expressions of affect than Christopher's longer letter, and mostly he expresses affect implicitly. In this respect, Peter's letter ressembles Maria's and Arnold's. Peter's letter does not include any expressions of judgement; he does not mention the pilot or the rescue team. Like Arnold and Maria, Christopher and Peter express appreciation of the situation most frequently in their letters. The most apparent difference between Christopher and Peter, in expressing attitude, is Christopher's preference for inscribed attitude while Peter mostly expresses invoked attitude, often using images to provoke affect or to express implicit appreciation.

Peter uses the same method as Arnold, and sometimes also Maria, contrasting the dramatic incident to normal, everyday activities in order to increase the force of the attitude: *It was just a normal day the sun was shining it was pretty cold and I was driving my ferry down the river (…) Then suddenly everybody on the ferry heard a big booooooom.* Like Arnold and Maria, Peter depicts images that bring intensity and a sense of presence to the text. The normality of an enjoyable day on the river is enhanced by different details, such as descriptions of the fine weather. A modal adjunct, *suddenly*, marks a change in attitude when the drama begins. The repetition of the letter *o,* in *booooooom*, strengthens the affect; the boom gets louder. The reader understands that the passengers were frightened and upset by the sound, and that the situation was serious. The drama and the expression of attitude contrast with the normality of the day.

Peter also describes the landing vividly, without expressing explicit attitude more than rarely. Instead he describes what the driver of the ferry saw:
The plane was coming really fast and close to the ferry. The image of the plane passing the ferry at close distance and high speed provokes attitude; we understand that the situation was serious and frightening. The use of an intensifier, *really*, increases the force of the attitude, as does the quantifying element in *It was a gigantic splash.* Peter uses *gigantic* to describe the size of the splash, at the same time expressing attitude. *It was a splash*, without the graduation, would not have expressed a high degree of attitude, if any, whereas the addition of *gigantic* makes the reader understand that it was a frightening experience.

Peter sometimes uses downscaling elements such as *nearly*: the plane *nearly stopped immediately* and the passengers on the ferry thought that *nearly no one would have survived*. The attitude is softened by the use of a downscaling element. Someone might have survived and the image of a gliding plane is probably more hopeful than if *nearly* had not been used; *the plane stopped immediately* might indicate a more abrupt ending for everyone.

Christopher also uses images in his letter, although not very often, perhaps because he decided that *some friends* witnessed the incident, not the writer himself. The letter retells what other sources observed: *When the airplane had landed in the river it began to sink*. The sinking plane could be seen as an image, a description of what his friends saw, but the attitude it expresses is much weaker than in the examples from Peter's text, since there are no graduating expressions that enhance the attitude.

Christopher describes and comments on the events, using other linguistic resources, mostly expressing quality: *It was an <u>terrible</u> accident here! The captain did a <u>marvellos</u> landing* and *But no one died and that was <u>good</u>*. As the examples show, Christopher expresses attitude explicitly in most cases. Like Maria, he often uses adjectives but also uses infused processes when he expresses attitude in his letter.

At the end of the letter, when Christopher describes the outcome of the incident, he expresses positive attitude, using intensifiers: *It is <u>really great</u> that we have <u>that kind of heros</u> in our airplanes!* Here, he expresses appreciation of the situation and positive judgement of the pilot; we can stay calm when we fly because heroes will take care of us. He uses an intensifier of focus, *really,* to strengthen the expression of attitude. The use of *that kind of* sharpens the focus; pilots like captain Sullenberger are not just heroes, they are true heroes.

To summarise, both writers express appreciation of the situation primarily in their letters. Peter expresses affect more frequently than Chistopher, who expresses judgement of the pilot several times. Graphs 10A and 10B show that Peter uses a greater variety of linguistic resources than Christopher when expressing attitude and graduation in the letters. Descriptions of sounds and images, and modifiers that strengthen or weaken the force, are tools that Peter uses more often than Christopher. He also uses modal adjuncts slightly more often than Christopher. Christopher mostly uses expressions for quality and, more often than Peter, he uses infused processes to convey attitude.

Christopher's letter

No. of instances

quality, noun, process, image, other infused phrases, modal adjunct, force up-/downscaled, focus up-/downscaled, maximisation, lexical modifier, repetition

Peter's letter

No. of instances

quality, noun, process, image, other infused phrases, modal adjunct, force up-/downscaled, focus up-/downscaled, maximisation, lexical modifier, repetition

*Graphs 10A and 10B: Christopher's and Peter's use of resources to express
attitude and graduation in the letters.*

6.3.2.2 Christopher's and Peter's articles

Christopher's article:

Flight captain saves over 150 people

The Flight captain Chesly Sullenberger did an incredible act when he did an emergancy-landing on the Hudson river. The planes left wing was crashed by some birds and the plane had to land. The captain did relise that he couldn't reech the next airport runway so captain Sullenberger landed just on the Hudson river and saved in the same moment over 150 peoples lives. A resque flottilla could help all the passenger on board and it took just 45 minutes. No one died but some people were freezing. One pilot did even take off his shirt to one of the passenger so all of the passenger were very happy with the help and the resque. The hero has not spoken yet but his family, The Sullenbergers, have. They were very proud of him and I think he is going to get a huge party when he arrives home.

From corrensponclent XX, New York.

Peter's article:

HUDSON RIVER PLANE CRASH

Today a airplane landed in the Hudson river after birds flow into both engines and destroyed them. The pilot was told to land in a nearby airport but he soon realized that it would be impossible to do, so he landed on the river. The plane had 155 passenger so it was a pretty big plane. The pilot said in the speakers that everybody must sharpen their belts.

People walking on the streets around the river saw the plane a long time and when the plane landed there was a huge splash and water even flew away to people walking on the streets. The people was shocked and the people in the plane was even more shocked. Everybody screamed on the streets and they thought that all had died or was going to sunk, Then suddenly the door on the plane opened and people started jumping out on the wings. Later a ferry and a helicopter came and saved the passengers, nobody was killed!

One thing I don't undersfand is that everybody says that the pilot was the hero but it was his own fault they flew into the birds but after that he did very good! But without him none of this would have happened.

Tables showing the analysis of attitude and graduation in Peter's and Christopher's articles are provided in Appendices 8B and 9B.

Both Christopher and Peter begin their articles with headlines that show the different foci of their articles. The theme in Christopher's headline, *Flight captain saves 150 people*, is continued in his first paragraph, and throughout the article: *The Flight captain Chesly Sullenberger did an incredible act when he did an emergency-landing on the Hudson river.* Christopher's focus is clearly on the heroic act of the pilot. Peter's approach is slightly different, which is already indicated in the headline: *HUDSON RIVER PLANE CRASH*. His first paragraph also reports the accident without focusing on the pilot: *Today a airplane landed in the Hudson river after birds flow into both engines and destroyed them.*

Christopher reports the reason for the emergency, the captain's decision to land on the river, the rescue operation and the outcome, including the statement made by the captain's family. Peter's report includes the same elements except for the family statement; instead he reports what happened in the streets around the river, as he did in his letter. Both of them include some factual information about location and number of passengers and use third person subjects like *the pilot, the plane* and *the people.* Neither of them uses direct citations in the letters or in the articles.

At the end of the articles, both Christopher and Peter suddenly write from a first person perspective, using *I* as subject for the first time. Christopher's comments on the captain in connection with the Sullenberger
family's statement: *They were very proud of him and I think that he is going to get a huge party when he arrives home*. Through this personal comment the reporter expresses positive judgement of the pilot; he deserves a huge party. The reporter steps into the text through this final remark.

Peter also expresses judgement of the pilot from a first person perspective, but his judgement is not altogether positive: *One thing I don't understand is that the pilot was the hero but it was his own fault they flew into the birds but after that he did very good! But without him none of this would have happened.* This comment comes after what could have been the end of the article, saying that *nobody was killed*. It is an emotional outburst that could be seen as a reaction to the praise of the pilot that the video clip presented. An outburst like this is somewhat unexpected in an otherwise strictly factual report. It is impossible to tell whether Peter sees these comments as a part of the article he was asked to write or whether they are comments he simply wanted to make, outside the frame of the article; he did not separate the comments from the article.

Thus, both Christopher and Peter, in particular, differ from Arnold and Maria in the use of subjects in the articles, since they never used *I* as subject, except in citations. The stance of the reporter is less objective in the last part of Peter's article than in the others' articles.

Tables in Appendices 8B and 9B show that Peter expresses appreciation and affect more frequently than Christopher, most likely because his focus is on the plane and the passengers whose situation and feelings he refers to. Emotional reactions are expressed through affect, and attitude towards things and abstract phenomena through appreciation. Christopher focuses on the pilot, what he did, and, thus, expresses judgement more frequently. Peter continues to express invoked attitude more frequently than inscribed in his article, as he did in the letter. Christopher also increases the proportion of invoked attitude; his article has more implicit expressions than explicit ones.

As in his letter, Peter uses images to express attitude in the article. He writes a description of the landing, similar to the one in the letter: *People walking on the streets saw the plane <u>for a long time</u> and when the plane landed there was <u>a huge splash</u> and water <u>even</u> flew away to people walking on the streets.* Again,

he uses a vivid image to express attitude implicitly. The reader understands that the situation was dangerous and dramatic, and that the people in the streets must have been alarmed, as they could see the plane for some time before they were hit by splashing water. Like Christopher, Peter uses *even* to express counter expectancy, and the degree of attitude is thereby enhanced; it is extremely surprising that a splash of water could be huge enough to reach people in the streets.

Peter's article covers the outcome of the incident in a similar way, describing an image: *Everybody <u>screamed</u> on the streets and they thought that <u>all had died</u> or was going to <u>sunk</u>* (sic). *Then <u>suddenly</u> the door on the plane opened and people started jumping out on the wings.* Using negatively infused processes such as *scream, die* and *sunk* in this context, Peter expresses negative appreciation of the situation and negative affect; people in the streets are scared and they see the situation as very serious. Then, with the modal adjunct *suddenly*, there is a change, a turningpoint, from negative attitude to positive and the situation becomes hopeful: the passengers were alive. The use of *suddenly* makes the description more dramatic and intense.

Christopher does not use images to express attitude but uses nouns and processes that are infused with attitude: *A <u>rescue</u> flotilla could <u>help</u> all the passenger on board and it took <u>just</u> 45 minutes.* Positively loaded words such as *rescue* and *help* tell us that the team was helpful and the addition of *just* before *45 minutes* shows us that they were quick. The expression of attitude is not very forceful, however. A reversed order of clauses would have made the expression of attitude more powerful: *In just 45 minutes, a rescue flotilla could help...* The position of the attitudinal expression in the sentence contributes to the impression of force.

In summary, the different foci of the writers, where Christopher's focus is on the pilot and Peter's on the landing and the eyewitnesses, may explain why there are a larger number of expressions for affect in Peter's article, and more expressions of judgement in Christopher's. As Graphs 11A and 11B show, the most remarkable difference between the writers' use of different linguistic resources to express attitude in the articles is Peter's use of images to provoke attitude. The graphs indicate that Peter's language use when expressing attitude is slightly more varied and rich. As in the letter, he uses modal adjuncts more frequently than Christopher. Christopher increases his use of up- and downscaling resources in the article as compared to the letter.

Like Maria and Arnold, both Christopher and Peter use implicit expressions of attitude more often in their articles. Peter and Arnold use similar vivid descriptions or images to evoke attitude in both their letters and in their articles.

Christopher's article

No. of instances

12
10
8
6
4
2
0

quality | noun | process | image | other infused phrases | modal adjunct | force up-/downscaled | focus up-/downscaled | maximisation | lexical modifier | repetition

Peter's article

No. of instances

12
10
8
6
4
2
0

quality | noun | process | image | other infused phrases | modal adjunct | force up-/downscaled | focus up-/downscaled | maximisation | lexical modifier | repetition

Graphs 11A and 11B: Christopher's and Peter's use of resources to express attitude in their articles.

6.3.3 Lola and Linda

Linda and Lola both obtained G in English. Both girls were given a higher grade, VG, in Swedish. Lola studied French where she got VG and Linda German, obtaining G. Their results on the National Test of Swedish writing proficiency were identical; they were both given VG, but only Linda obtained VG in English writing proficiency. Lola was otherwise given higher grades in general, one MVG and VG in ten out of 16 subjects. Linda also obtained MVG in one subject and VG in three subjects.

Linda and Lola were born in Sweden and speak Swedish at home. Linda's mother studied at university and her father has a compulsory school education (nine years). Lola's mother has studied at upper secondary level. She does not know what kind of schooling her father has.

In terms of the total frequency of different kinds of contacts in English reported in the questionnaire, Lola has the least frequent extramural contacts in English of the six pupils with G, with a score of 15. Linda, whose score is 35, has the second highest score of the pupils who obtained G. (The highest score for a pupil in this group was 37, but the backgrounds of Linda and Lola matched in a better way, and Linda was selected for this reason, since the frequency of contacts differed only marginally).

Both pupils reported that they listen to music with lyrics in English every day and that they watch English-speaking TV programmes once or a few times a week. Lola has made a few trips abroad using English to communicate; otherwise she did not report any contacts in English in her spare time. Linda reported that she uses English once or a few times a week for several activities; she speaks to relatives in English, chats and writes e-mails and text messages. Sometimes she reads books in English. She has visited Great Britain and made a few other trips where English was used for communication.

The diaries kept by both girls were incomplete. Lola filled in her diary for four days, showing an average of 1.1 hours per day in contact with the English language, watching a film and listening to the radio. Linda did not always write down how much time she spent at activities that involved the use of English and some activities were thus not included in the calculations. Her average for the four days that she kept the diary was 2.9 hours per day. She watched a film and hockey on TV, listened to music for an hour a day and browsed YouTube on the Internet. She chatted or sent text messages twice to a relative. Even though the diaries are incomplete, they confirm the information given in the questionnaire: Lola has fewer contacts and spends less time exposed to English in her spare time than Linda. More detailed background information about Lola and Linda is provided in Appendix 5C.

6.3.3.1 Lola's and Linda's letters

Lola's letter:

I living in Great Britten and it has an incident her last week. I saw the plane came over the lake and it was so horrible. The plane crash in the water end many people were hurt. The plane had crash with many birds before, and the wing was brokered.
The pilot's landing was very cool, it's not often people can land like he did.

Linda's letter:

It was horrible I was one of the 155 peoples who were there! I thought I would be dead at this time right now. But I was a real lucky woman who survived. I was really scared and couldn't think about anything else than my child, my little girl who was with me all the time. She was so scared and I couldn't do anything to help her. After a while there were some boats coming to rescue us, after 45 minutes they had saved 155 peoples lives. Many people were going to the hospital because of the freezing water. It was real freezing in the water and people were cold and scared. I think we had the angels with us!
Linda

Tables showing the analysis of attitude and graduation in Linda's and Lola's letters are provided in Appendices 10A and 11A.

In their solutions to the first task, neither of the two writers signals that they are writing a letter or an e-mail by addressing someone by name or by the use of *you* as subject. They do not use any phrase of greeting, neither at the beginning nor at the end of their texts, but Linda closes her letter with her name. Both writers use *I* as subject, Lola only twice at the beginning, whereas Linda uses *I* several times in the first half of the text, ending with a personal reflection about the outcome, thus more clearly indicating involvement than Lola.

Like the other pairs, Lola and Linda retell the story as though they had taken part in the events, and also from slightly different positions: Lola as an eyewitness and Linda from a passenger's point of view. Lola states the location and time of the incident in the first sentence of her letter, even if there is some confusion about the location: *I living in Great Britten and it has an incident her last week*. In the first sentence of the text, Linda states that *It was horrible* and then develops this theme throughout the text, explaining broadly what happened and, above all, the emotional reactions to the events felt by the imagined *I* and her fellow passengers. Lola's text is shorter than Linda's and does not include as much information but it is emotional, describing the eyewitnesses' experience of the crash.

Tables in Appendices 10A and 11A show that there are differences in the way the two writers express attitude. Lola expresses attitude less frequently in her

letter than does Linda, and she only expresses explicit attitude twice in the letter, whereas Linda uses a greater variety of expressions, in most cases for affect. Lola does not express affect at all. Because of this, Linda's letter is perceived as more emotional and perhaps also more personal. Linda expresses invoked attitude more often than Lola does.

Both writers use adjectives when they express explicit attitude, as the following examples from Lola's letter show: *It was so horrible* and *The pilot's landing was very cool,* and from Linda's: *I was a real lucky woman* and *I was really scared*. Linda uses a larger number of adjectives, especially when she expresses affect; her text is full of affective phrases. Both Lola and Linda use a limited number of intensifiers, *real, really*, *so* and *very*, but they are used quite frequently, particularly in Linda's text. *Horrible*, which both of them use, is infused with a high degree of negative attitude. The vocabulary used in their letters includes adjectives that are loaded with attitude, as shown in the examples, and some processes, such as *crash (*Lola), *survive* and *rescue* (Linda). They use very few negatively or positively infused nouns, if any; *incident* (Lola) and *hospital* (Linda) could possibly count as infused in this context.

Linda's text is often emotional, sometimes expressing attitude implicitly:*...couldn't think about anything else than my child, my little girl who was with me all the time.* In this context, the repetition of *my child, my little girl* intensifies the affect; the desperation of the mother is shining through.

Lola expresses negative appreciation of the situation using an image: *The plane crash in the water and many people were hurt*. The description expresses the seriousness of the situation using negatively infused *crash* and *hurt*, strengthening the force with a quantifying intensifier, *many people*. There are few nuances, however, perhaps owing to the limited use of graduating tools, which makes the affective expression rather weak. On the other hand, the given context, stating that it is an eyewitness report and that it was horrible, enhances the emotional intensity.

Lola's last sentence comments on the pilot's skills, expressing judgement implicitly: *it's not often people can land like he did.* This is a rather refined way of expressing admiration and judgement by means of an understatement.

Graphs 12A and 12B confirm the impression that Lola's letter includes few expressions of attitude and graduation. Linda's letter includes a greater number of expressions of attitude, and she uses different kinds of linguistic resources to a larger extent when she expresses attitude and graduation, such as intensifiers of force and focus and repetition, which makes her text vivid. She expresses affect more often than appreciation or judgement. Lola primarily expresses appreciation and uses few graduating tools.

Lola's letter

No. of instances

quality | noun | process | image | other infused phrases | modal adjunct | force up-/downscaled | focus up-/downscaled | maximisation | lexical modifier | repetition

Linda's letter

No. of instances

quality | noun | process | image | other infused phrases | modal adjunct | force up-/downscaled | focus up-/downscaled | maximisation | lexical modifier | repetition
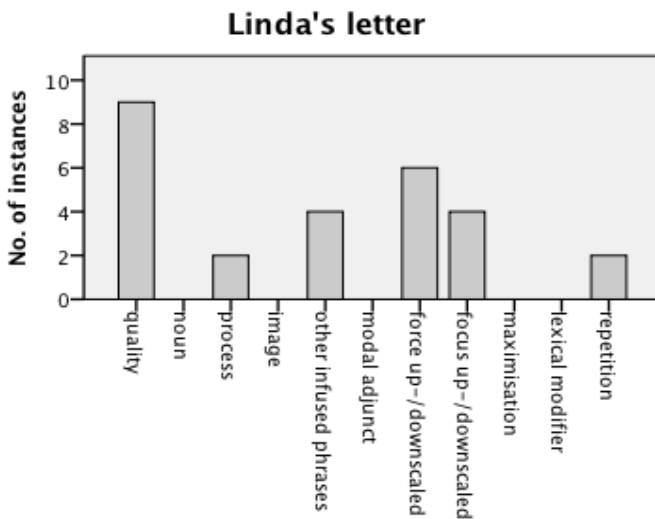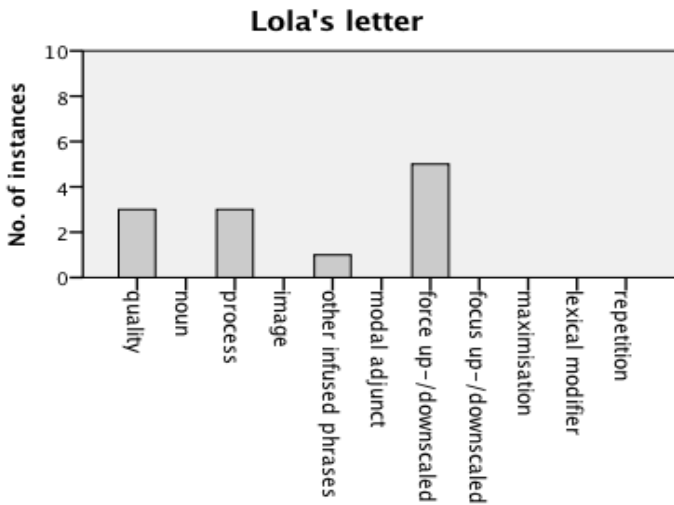
Graphs 12A and 12B: Lola's and Linda's use of resources to express attitude and graduation in their letters.

6.3.3.2 Lola's and Linda's articles

Lola's article:

Yesterday morning the plane crash over the Hudson River. The hospital had a lot of work to do this day. The water was very cold and many people get hurt but no one died. We have a hero, his name is Salem Burger. He is a pilot and helped many people to survive.
Salem is a great pilot he land the plane so professional.
The people in the city helped all the people in the water , they came with boats and ruggs to keep the people warm.

Linda's article:

There has been a plane crashing in the water, in the Hudson River. There were 155 people on the plane. Everybody survived and is alive today because of the great captain Sullenburgh. He has become a hero after this.
The whole thing started with a bird which flew into the engine. Then the plane was going down, down and down. The captain had no place to land on and the captain had to land in the Hudson River. That was the only thing to do or land in a neighborhood and killed many people and families. The people on the plane survived because of just that, that he landed in the water and saved everybody.

Tables showing the analysis of attitude and graduation in Linda's and Lola's articles are provided in Appendices 10B and 11B.

Neither Lola nor Linda provides a headline for the article. Lola starts her article in a way similar to that in which she started her letter. She states when and where the incident took place, this time with a correct indication of the location: *Yesterday morning the plane crash over the Hudson River.* In the article, Lola brings up people being hurt, the professionalism of the captain and the helpfulness of the rescuers, but she does not explain what caused the incident or why the captain had to land on the river. However, in spite of the lack of information, Lola still shows that she manages to write a text that is different from her letter; her article has a less personal stance. A contributing factor to this impression is her use of third person subjects. In the articles, none of the girls use *I* as a subject, as they did in their letters; instead *the water, the plane* and *the passengers* are subjects, indicating a less personal stance.

In the first paragraph of her article, Linda mentions where the incident took place, indicating the number of passengers and the name of the captain. Her first paragraph functions as a preamble that summarises the events:

There has been a plane crashing in the water, in the Hudson River. There were 155 people on the plane. Everybody survived and is alive today because of the great captain Sullenburgh. He has become a hero after this.

Then she goes on to explain the cause of the accident, why the captain had to land on the river and the heroism of what he did.

Linda expressed affect forcefully and frequently in her letter; in the article she comments on the event and the pilot, instead using expressions of appreciation

and judgement, as shown in Appendices 9B and 10B. Lola did not express much affect in the letter; nor does she do so in her article, but she increases the use of expressions of judgement, commenting on the pilot and the rescuers. Both writers express attitude implicitly more often in their articles, perhaps partly because a reporter is less involved than a participant, since he or she reports what others have experienced.

There are similarities between the two writers when they express judgement. Both mention that the captain is *a hero* and that he is a *great* pilot. Lola demonstrates an awareness of the stylistic value of certain words when she changes her expression from the letter where the captain was *cool*; in the article he is described as *professional*.

Linda implicitly expresses a positive judgement of the pilot as she describes what would have happened if the captain had not decided to land on the water: *That was the only thing to do or land in the neighbourhood and killed many peoples and families.* The heroism of the pilot is enhanced by describing how people in the neighbourhood could have been killed. The repetition, *many people(s) and families*, also has an intensifying function. Linda's focus then moves from the neighbourhood to the passengers, who also owe their lives to the captain: *The people on the plane survived because of just that, that he landed in the water and saved everybody.* By contrasting what could have happened, bringing in a negatively infused verb (*killed*), and what actually happened, adding positively infused verbs (*survived* and *saved*), her expression of positive judgement becomes very forceful.

Lola's positive judgement of the people in the city also gains strength from a positively infused process, *helped,* and from details: *The people in the city helped all the people in the water they came with boats and rugs to keep the people warm.* The image of people coming on boats, bringing rugs, intensifies the positive attitude, as does the last part of the sentence, *to keep the people warm.*

Linda uses repetition in her article, as she did in her letter: *Then the plane was going down, down, down.* Using repetition, she creates a vivid and frightful image that provokes negative appreciation of the situation. Otherwise, both writers mostly use *very* and *much* to intensify their expressions, although they also use *everybody* and *all* to specify extent or number in their articles. They used *so* in the letters, but not in the articles; they seem to use different graduating expressions in the two text types.

As Graphs 13A and 13B show, both Lola and Linda use negatively or positively infused processes more often when they express attitude in their articles than in their letters, and they use fewer adjectives or other expressions for quality. Linda uses a greater variety of linguistic resources in expressing graduation. They express appreciation of the situation and judgement of the pilot and the rescue team more often than in their letters. They do not express affect in their articles.

Like the other writers, both Lola and Linda show an awareness of differences between text types; they change their stance as they move from letter to article, writing from a third person perspective, i.e. the reporter's. Lola changes her choice of vocabulary from *cool* to *professional* when she describes the pilot in her article. They do not use images to the same extent as some of the other writers did, Arnold and Peter in particular, but Linda, too, uses infused phrases that evoke attitude in a similar way.
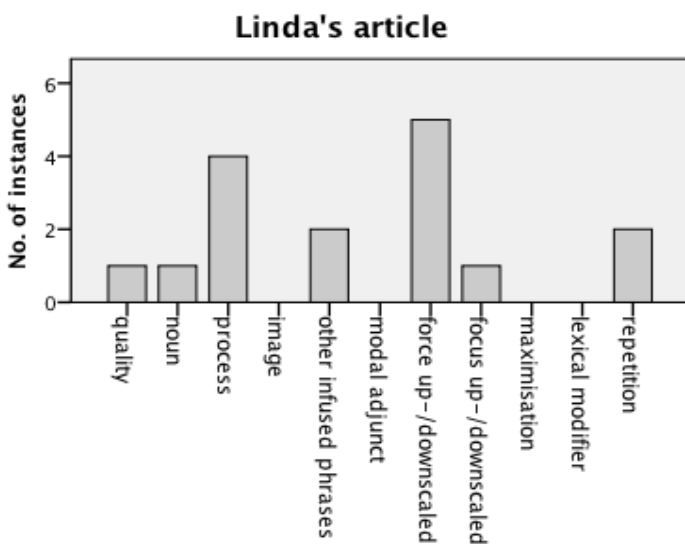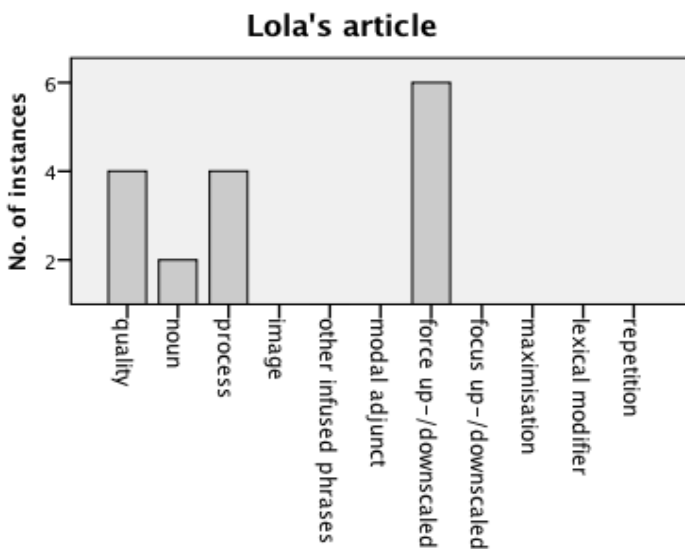
Graph 13A and 13B: Lola's and Linda's use of resources to express attitude and graduation in their articles.

6.4 Summary of the analysis of appraisal, including texts by ten additional pupils

The results of the analyses of the first six pupils' texts indicate that not only are there differences between texts written by pupils with different grades in English, which could be expected, there are also certain differences in the use of resources to express attitude and graduation between pupils with many extramural contacts in English and pupils with few such contacts, regardless of the grades the pupils obtained. Since only six pupils' texts were used in the initial analysis, an additional ten pupils' texts were selected to increase the base for the analysis; the final group thus included 16 pupils and 32 texts (see section 6.2.2). The 11 categories of resources and tools for expression of attitude and graduation, which were used in the initial analysis of the three pairs' texts, were used in the analysis of the additional pupils' texts as well (see Table 14 in section 6.2.1). There were, however, very few instances where some of the categories were used, and so categories with similar functions were merged: since there were few instances where pupils used maximisation, lexical modifiers and repetition for graduation of expressions, these categories were merged into one category. Images and phrases infused with attitude were merged into one category since both categories express invoked attitude. Expressions used for down- or upscaling of force or focus were merged into one category as well. Tables 17A and 17B show the seven categories that were used after the mergers. The purpose of these mergers was to create a clearer picture of differences and similarities between groups.

Tables 17A and 17B show the number of instances in which different linguistic resources were used for expression of attitude or graduation by pupils with a high or a low frequency of extramural English contacts. Each group includes eight pupils: two with G in English, four with VG and two with MVG. The two groups include the pupils with the highest and lowest scores for extramural English contacts among those who obtained a certain grade, G, VG or MVG (see Tables 15 and 16 in section 6.2.2).

Individual differences and means are not shown in Tables 17A and 17B since the results in each column are based on only eight texts and the number of instances in some categories is too small for calculation of means. On the other hand, the two groups are balanced with regard to equality in size and grade levels obtained by the pupils in the groups. Nevertheless, the limited size of the material should be borne in mind; more extensive studies are needed to confirm the results.

Table 17A and 17B. The use of linguistic recourses for expression of attitude and graduation in letters and articles written by pupils with a low or a high frequency of extramural English.

Resources for expression of attitude and graduation in **letters**	Low frequency of extramural English	High frequency of extramural English
	No. of instances	No. of instances
Quality	52	46
Noun	22	23
Process	39	22
Images and invoked phrases	23	39
Modal adjuncts	7	12
Focus/force up/downscale	55	57
Maximisation, repetition,lexical modifier	3	12
Total no. of instances	201	211

Resources for expression of attitude and graduation in **articles**	Low frequency of extramural English	High frequency of extramural English
	No. of instances	No. of instances
Quality	36	25
Noun	20	23
Process	39	30
Images and invoked phrases	22	32
Modal adjuncts	5	16
Focus/force up/downscaled	58	56
Maximisation, repetition, lexical modifier	6	9
Total no. of instances	185	191

A comparison between the two text types shows that the pupils tended to express attitude and graduation more often in their letters than in their articles,

which indicates that they are aware of differences between the text types or that they have access to a more limited register when they write articles than when they write letters. However, Tables 17A and 17B show that the difference in total numbers of instances between text types is not great; the group of pupils with many extramural English contacts used different linguistic resources to express attitude and graduation 211 times in their letters and 191 times in the articles. The numbers are slightly lower for the group of pupils with low frequency of extramural English, 201 and 185.

Tables 17A and 17B also show that, in the letters, the pupils in both groups use a greater number of expressions for quality than in the articles. The detailed analysis of the texts written by the three pairs selected shows that adjectives are frequently used in the letters to express affect and appreciation of the situation; the writer expresses how the imagined *I* of the letter experienced the event, either as an eyewitness on the ground or in the airplane. The articles are less emotional since the third person perspective, the reporter's, brings a certain distance to the texts; thus, there is less need for emotional expressions. More often than in the letters, the articles express judgement, mostly concerning the pilot and the rescue team.

Tables 17A and 17B show that, in both text types, pupils with few extramural English contacts use a larger number of expressions of quality, primarily adjectives, in comparison with the group of pupils with frequent extramural contacts who use a greater variety of other linguistic resources. The group of pupils with few extramural English contacts use expressions of quality 52 times in the letters and 36 times in the articles, compared to 46 times in the letters and 25 times in the articles in the group of pupils with frequent extramural contacts. Adjectives often express attitude explicitly, as the analyses of the six pupils texts show; the expression is often a direct comment on an event, as in *it was good* or *I was scared*. As the examples show, a simple sentence structure is often used for expression of attitude through adjectives.

The analysis shows that pupils with few extramural English contacts also use a larger number of infused processes, such as *crash* and *survive*. They express attitude using an infused process 39 times in the letters and in the articles, in comparison with the group of pupils with a high frequency of extramural English who use such processes 22 times in the letters and 30 times in the articles. Among the pupils with few extramural English contacts, expressions of quality and infused processes are the tools most commonly used, together with up- and downscaling of force and focus. This group of pupils seem to use approximately the same linguistic resources regardless of text type.

As Tables 17A and 17B also show, pupils with frequent extramural contacts use modal adjuncts more often than pupils with fewer extramural contacts in English. The group of pupils with few extramural contacts use seven modal adjuncts in the letters and five in the articles whereas the group of pupils with frequent extramural English contacts use 12 modal adjuncts in the letters and 16

in the articles. The group of pupils that reported a high frequency of extramural English thus use three times as many modal adjuncts in their articles as the group with more infrequent extramural contacts. The analyses of the pairs' texts show that a modal adjunct, such as *suddenly*, is sometimes used as a turningpoint, indicating a new turn of events in the story. Other modal adjuncts indicate invoked positive judgement, for instance in *it only took 45 minutes*. As the examples show, the use of modal adjuncts could indicate proficiency in using more complex structures on the sentence and the text levels.

Another difference that is noticeable in the analysis of the three pairs' texts is shown in Tables 17A and 17B as well: the more frequent use of images and other infused phrases by the pupils with frequent extramural English contacts, particularly in the letters. The group of pupils with frequent extramural contacts use 39 images or infused expressions in the letters compared to the other group's 23. The analyses of the pairs' texts show that the use of images often evokes strong attitudinal expressions implicitly; colourful descriptions of what is seen and heard convey the emotions. The number of images and infused phrases used by the pupils with a low frequency of extramural English is similar in the articles and letters, while the pupils with a high frequency of extramural English use fewer images and infused phrases in the articles than in the letters. As mentioned above, the stance of a reporter is different from that of an eyewitness; vivid first-person reports are probably more likely to appear in the letters, even if some pupils use citations from eyewitnesses, including images, in their articles as well.

As the analysis of the three pairs' texts indicates, the group of pupils with frequent extramural English contacts use graduating tools such as maximisation, repetition and lexical modifiers more often than the other group, particularly in the letters. Tables 17A and 17B show that the high-frequency group use four times as many graduating modifiers as the low-frequency group, 12 as opposed to three. The difference diminishes in the articles: nine as opposed to six. Still, such modifiers are unusual in both groups.

Up- and downscaling of force and focus are tools that pupils with many or few extramural English contacts use to the same extent; indeed, this is the most commonly used graduating tool in both groups. Tables 17A and 17B show that it is used approximately 55 times in both text types by both groups. The frequently used *very* and *so* belong to this category. Up- or downscaling of force occurs more frequently than scaling of focus, as shown in graphs 8-13.

In summary, the analyses show that both pupils with frequent and infrequent extramural contacts in English manage to write texts that could be recognised as articles and letters, even if some letters were written as personal accounts of the event. As could be expected, pupils with higher grades write more elaborated texts, using a greater variety of linguistic resourses; pupils who obtained MVG could be expected to be more fluent and proficient writers than pupils with lower grades. The analyses also show that there are great differences between

texts written by pupils with the same grades and that there are differences between texts written by pupils with frequent and infrequent extramural contacts in English. The group of pupils with a high frequency of extramural English use a greater variety of linguistic resources for expression of attitude and graduation and seem to adapt the use of such expressions according to text type to a greater extent than the group of pupils with fewer extramural contacts, thus indicating greater register variation.

Graphs 14 and 15 illustrate how the frequency of extramural English correlates with the use of different linguistic resources for expression of attitude and graduation in letters and articles written by pupils with different grades. The use of the 11 different linguistic resources for expression of attitude and graduation, introduced in Table 14, is shown for groups of pupils who obtained G, VG and MVG in English and who reported frequent or infrequent extramural contacts in English. The pie graphs can be seen as palettes illustrating the variety and the diversity in the use of linguistic resources for different groups of pupils.[29]

Graphs 14 and 15 show that the groups of pupils with many extramural contacts in English use a greater variety of linguistic resources when they express attitude and graduation; they seem to possess more varied and colourful palettes than the groups of pupils with few extramural contacts. The difference appears to be more pronounced among pupils with lower grades, G or VG, than among pupils who obtained MVG. The analyses of the pairs' texts show that both the pupils who obtained MVG, Maria and Arnold, use a large variety of linguistic resources in different ways, while Linda, who reported frequent extramural contacts, uses a considerably greater variety of tools to express attitude than Lola, who also obtained G but reported very few extramural contacts. Maria, whose frequency score for extramural English is the lowest among the pupils with MVG, nevertheless reports quite a few extramural contacts in English in the language diary, with an average of 5.1 hours of English per day. The results of the analyses indicate that extramural English may be beneficial for writing profiency. The frequent use of different linguistic resources for expression of attitude and graduation among pupils with frequent contacts in English, and with G or VG in English, shows that their texts resemble the texts written by pupils with the highest grade, MVG, in this respect. The analysis of appraisal confirms the results of the corpus-based analysis: extramural English seems to have a positive impact on writing proficiency.

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[29] Each chart in Graph 14 and 15 is based on analyses of very few texts, since the 32 texts were divided into subgroups depending text type, frequency of extramural English and grades in English, which must be borne in mind.
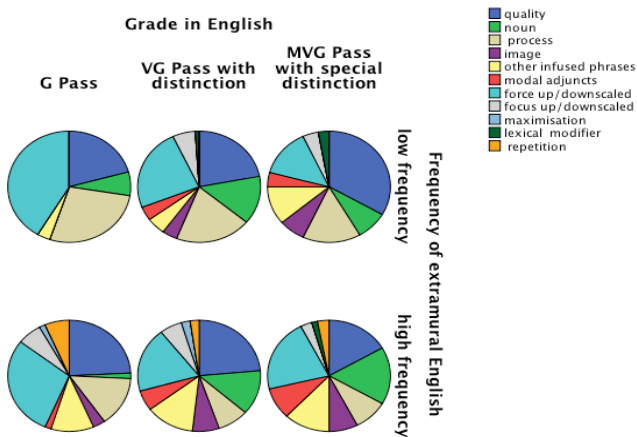
Graph 14. Variety of linguistic resources used by pupils with different grades and different frequency of extramural English in their letters.
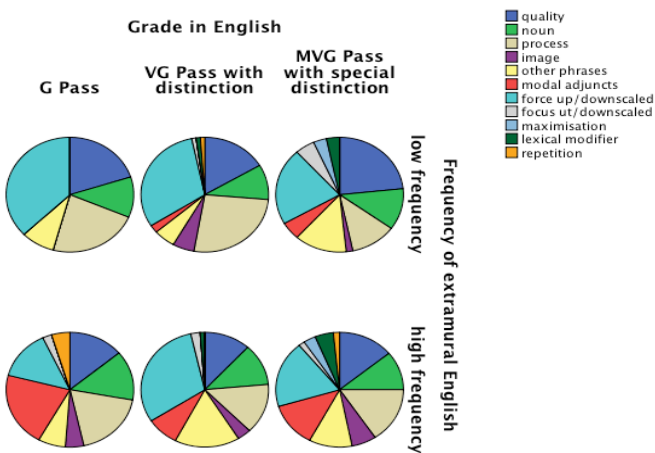
Graph 15. Variety of linguistic resources used by pupils with different grades and different frequency of extramural English in their articles.

7 Summary and concluding remarks

This chapter summarises the main findings of the study and discusses the results. Section 7.1 briefly describes the method and material used in the study. The results of the analyses are summarised and discussed in section 7.2. Section 7.3 points to some pedagogical implications. Finally, section 7.4 suggests some areas for further studies.

7.1 Objectives, material and methods

The objective of the present study was to investigate the impact of extramural English on writing proficiency as manifested in two text types, a letter and an article. The informants were 37 16-year-old pupils in grade nine in a secondary school in southwestern Sweden. The main research questions were:

- What impact does extramural English have on 16-year-old pupils' writing proficiency?
- What differences are manifested in two different text types, letters and newspaper articles, between pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs?

All pupils filled in a questionnaire, mainly covering the nature and frequency of their extramural contacts in English but also including some other questions, for instance about their parents' level of education and text types practised in school. A scale[30] was used to sum up the frequency of different extramural contacts that a pupil reported. Furthermore, the pupils kept a language diary for seven days where they noted for how long they were involved in different kinds of activities using English in their spare time. The pupils' grades and their results on national tests provided additional background information.

Statistical methods were used for the analyses of the pupils' extramural contacts in Englis as well as their grades. To allow comparisons, the pupils were

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[30] The scale: 10 indicated daily contact, 4 once or a few times a week and 1 once or a few times a month.

grouped according to their reported frequency of extramural English, but all calculations of correlations were based on individual results, not means.

Two texts were collected from each pupil, a letter and a newspaper article, both based on a video clip from the BBC showing the miraculous landing of an airplane on the Hudson River in New York.

Different methods were used for the analyses of the texts. Corpus-based methods were employed to measure text length, sentence length, word length, variation of vocabulary, and use of infrequent words in the two text types, i.e. variables indicating differences in proficiency levels. Correlations between the variables and the frequency of extramural English, and also grades, were calculated and comparisons of means were made at group level.

For a more in-depth analysis, expressions of appraisal - i.e. appreciation, judgement and affect - were analysed in considerable detail in a selection of texts. Texts written by six pupils who had obtained the same grades but differed greatly in frequency of extramural contacts were compared and the use of different linguistic resources to express attitude and to graduate such expressions was analysed in the two text types. To broaden the base for the analysis of linguistic resources used for expression of attitude and graduation, the texts of ten additional pupils were analysed as well.

The choice to use several sources of information was made to strengthen the reliability and validity of the results. Even if teachers may assess pupils' achievements differently, the choice to analyse correlations between extramural English and results on the national English writing proficiency test meant that writing proficiency was not only measured in the analyses of the texts collected for the present study, but also by the teachers who had assessed the pupils' national writing proficiency tests and given their grades in English. The choice to include different types of analyses of the pupils' texts thus meant that the overall analysis was fairly comprehensive, covering different aspects of writing proficiency.

7.2 Summary and conclusion of results

The summary of results is focused on the research questions set for each part of the analysis. Section 7.2.1 summarises and discusses the analysis of pupils' extramural contacts in English and their grades, section 7.2.2 the results of the corpus-based analysis of the texts, and section 7.2.3 the results of the analysis of appraisal in the texts. Section 7.2.4 concludes the discussion.

7.2.1 Extramural contacts and grades

- What kinds of extramural contacts do pupils have in English? How frequent are their contacts? Are there any differences between boys and girls regarding frequency of extramural English?
- Is there any correlation between frequency of extramural English and grades in English, especially grades on the written part of the National Test?

The analyses of the pupils' answers in the questionnaire and their reports of extramural English in the diary indicate great differences between pupils regarding the frequency, time spent on and nature of extramural contacts. The total scores ranged from 10 to 83, with a mean of 35. On average, the 22 boys reported more frequent extramural contacts than the 15 girls, but there were great individual differences, especially among the boys. The most common activity was listening to music with English lyrics, which 86% of the pupils reported that they did every day, followed by watching TV or films, which half of them did every day. More girls than boys read books and more boys than girls played computer games using English. In the diary, pupils reported that they spent between 0.3 and 7.4 hours per day on average in contact with the English language in their spare time.

Even if frequency of and time spent on contacts in English measure extramural contacts in different ways (the former measuring the number of times per week or month that extramural contacts occur, the latter measuring time spent in minutes or hours per day), the two types of data give the same indication: there are great differences in the frequency and nature of extramural contacts in English between the pupils. Six pupils, all boys, reported a considerably higher frequency of extramural English than the other pupils, with scores higher than 55.

The results of a survey including 2000 children and teenagers aged 9-16 indicated the same gender difference as the results of the present study. The survey showed that boys used different media to a larger extent than girls, even though the differences were smaller in 2010 than in earlier surveys (The Swedish Media Council 2010). Sylvén (2010) and Sundqvist (2009) also found that boys had greater extramural exposure to English than girls (Sylvén 2010:220; Sundqvist 2009:192). As in the present study, listening to music with English lyrics was found to be the most frequent activity in Sundqvist's study (Sundqvist 2009:192).

The analysis of extramural English and grades shows that there is a significant correlation between the frequency of extramural English and grades in English. All pupils with frequent contacts in English, with scores over 40, obtained VG, pass with distinction, or MVG, pass with special distinction. There are also pupils with low frequency of extramural English who obtained VG, but

none of them obtained the highest grade, MVG. Most of the pupils with G, pass, reported infrequent contacts in English outside of school. A correlation was also found between the frequency of extramural English and results on the written part of the National Test in English. The results indicate that extramural contacts may promote writing proficiency. There was also a correlation between results on the national writing proficiency tests in Swedish and English. This is an indication that being proficient in writing in Swedish facilitates writing in English.

The results of the present study partly support results of an evaluation carried out by the Swedish National Agency for Education (Oscarson & Apelgren 2005), which showed that pupils who did not pass English had fewer extramural English contacts than pupils who passed. Nevertheless, pupils who failed the writing proficiency test reported that they were almost as active in their spare time as those who passed, which would seem to indicate that extramural English does not have a great impact on writing proficiency (Oscarson & Apelgren 2005:80-82,91). It is, however, difficult to compare the results of the present study and the evaluation (2005) since the evaluation did not measure the frequency or duration of extramural English contacts, and also since none of the pupils in the present study failed the national writing proficiency test.

In the present study, the analysis of the possible impact of different kinds of extramural English contacts on writing proficiency, manifested in results of the national writing proficiency test, indicates that three activities are particularly beneficial: reading, writing and watching TV or films. However, the results must be viewed with some caution since the number of pupils involved in various activities was small in some cases. On the other hand, it would be surprising if activities involving writing would not promote writing proficiency.

There are many kinds of writing that pupils could be engaged in during their spare time, and some of the pupils did not specify the nature or their written contacts. When chatting on the Internet, as some of the pupils reported doing, it is probable that the writing is often verbal and informal in style. In discussions on advanced computer game forums, however, infrequent vocabulary may be needed to discuss complex games (see, e.g., Gee 2003). Text types where everyday, informal language is used are probably more frequent than more formal or academic text types when pupils use the Internet for writing.

Watching TV and films are also activities in which pupils are more likely to come across everyday language rather than academic language (Corson 1997:677). There are, of course, pupils who watch specialised channels, such as National Geographic, or news channels in English, where more academic registers can be expected.

Vocabulary range is of great relevance for the analyses carried out in the present study, since knowledge of vocabulary is, of course, fundamental for writing. Sylvén (2010:220) showed that reading enhances the learning of English vocabulary. Reading also provides opportunities for exposure, for

instance to grammar in use and to various text types. However, more detailed information about the nature of pupils' extramural reading and writing, and a closer mapping of their TV watching habits, would be needed for a more in-depth analysis of the results of the present study.

The results of Sundqvist's (2009) study, which included pupils of the same age as in the present study, showed that reading was not as important for vocabulary size as playing computer games and surfing the Internet (Sundqvist 2009:156). For writing proficiency, the present study did not give the same results regarding the impact of different types of activities, but both studies show that extramural English matters.

The nature of language use is different in the activities that seem to be of the greatest relevance for writing proficiency in the present study. Writing is an activity in which language is produced by the participant whereas watching TV and reading require no active language production; the participant takes in language produced by others. This does not mean that reading and watching TV are completely passive activities; they may trigger imagination and feelings, and different senses are activated. If Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) suggestion that language learning requires arousal is correct, activities such as reading and watching TV programmes that are engaging could be expected to result in learning (Dörnyei & Otto 1998, in Dörnyei 2001:9).

7.2.2 Corpus-based analysis of texts

- Are there any differences in text length, sentence length, word length, variation of vocabulary and the use of infrequent words between text types and between pupils whose frequency of exposure to extramural English differs?

The corpus-based analysis of the pupils' texts shows that pupils with many extramural contacts in English tended to write longer sentences in their letters than pupils with fewer contacts; a statistically significant correlation was found between frequency of extramural contacts in English and sentence length in the letters. No such correlation was found in the articles. The results indicate that extramural contacts may have an impact on language use in informal contexts, in particular, since longer sentences could signal more complex sentence structure.

Surprisingly, grades in English only correlated with greater sentence length in the articles. No correlation was found between grades in English and sentence length in the letters. Grades in Swedish did not correlate at all with sentence length. It might have been expected that pupils with a high proficiency in Swedish and English would write longer sentences than pupils with lower grades in both text types.

The average sentence length was somewhat longer in the articles than in the letters, 15.6 words in the articles compared to 13.3 words in the letters. The group of pupils with the most frequent extramural exposure to English did not, however, write longer sentences in the articles than in the letters on average, but it should be kept in mind that their mean was calculated on six pupils' texts only; a single atypical result could affect the mean score considerably in such a small group. One of the boys in this group wrote extremely short texts, not representative of the group at large.

Examples from the pupils' texts show that, in some cases, a greater average sentence length does not necessarily indicate a higher level of proficiency. A more condensed language use, for instance including participle constructions, could rather be regarded as a sign of higher proficiency. Likewise, short, personal remarks in the letter could be regarded as a sign of proficiency, adapting language use to text type. In short texts, like the ones in the present study, the use of a few very long or very short sentences may affect the average sentence length more than if the texts had been longer.

The analysis also shows that pupils with frequenct extramural contacts tended to use longer words in the articles than pupils with fewer contacts; a statistically significant correlation between frequency of extramural English and word length was found in the articles but not in the letters. This could indicate access to a richer vocabulary, including longer words, and greater register awareness among pupils with frequent extramural English contacts since an article is a text type in which longer words could be expected (see, e.g., Nyström 2000).

Pupils with higher grades tended to write longer words than other pupils; grades in English correlated with word length in both text types, and grades in Swedish with word length in the articles. Thus, several factors correlated with word length, extramural English contacts being one of them. There is no contradiction in the fact that several factors correlate since pupils with a high frequency of extramural English contacts obtained high grades.

The results of the analysis of variation of vocabulary indicate that pupils with frequent extramural contacts in English have access to a more varied informal vocabulary. A standardised type/token ratio, calculated every 50 words, was used to measure variation of vocabulary and a statistically significant correlation was found between frequency of extramural English contacts and the type/token ratio in the letters, but not in the articles.

Both grades in Swedish and grades in English correlated with variation of vocabulary in both text types. As could be expected, pupils with high grades varied their use of vocabulary to a larger extent than pupils with lower grades.

The analysis of the use of infrequent words shows a statistically significant correlation in the analysis of the articles between frequency of extramural English contacts and the use of words not belonging to the 3000 most commonly found words in the British National Corpus. The results indicate that the vocabulary of pupils with many extramural contacts in English is richer,

including a larger number of infrequent words. The results support the findings of Sylvén (2010) and Sundqvist (2009): extramural contacts have an impact on the range of pupils' vocabulary. The results of the present study also indicate that pupils with many extramural English contacts are able to adapt their vocabulary use according to text type to a larger extent, increasing their use of more infrequent words in the article (see, e.g., Biber 1988:192-95)

Extramural contacts in English did not seem to have an impact on the length of the texts; no correlation was found. Grades in English as well as grades in Swedish correlated more strongly and significantly with text length, both in the letters and in the articles. Other factors than frequency of extramural English thus seem to determine the length of texts.

The software used for the corpus-based analyses made analyses possible that would otherwise have been impossible or extremely time-consuming to perform, but the analysis showed that there are also limitations and drawbacks that must be considered. Minor spelling mistakes in words were not recognised by the program and therefore misspelt words were categorised as "off-category". Further, incorrect or missed punctuation may have resulted in a high average sentence length. The limited length of the texts may also have made calculations somewhat vulnerable; a few misspelt words in a short text may change the type/token ratio to a larger extent than if they had appeared in a longer text. On the other hand, correlations were calculated using all the texts written by the 37 pupils; minor discrepancies in individual texts should not affect calculations of correlations to any greater extent.

To summarise, the results of the corpus-based analysis show that extramural English seems to have an impact on writing proficiency. The results indicate that it is in informal contexts, such as a letter, that pupils with frequent extramural contacts excel; they write longer sentences and vary their vocabulary more than pupils with fewer extramural English contacts. The results also indicate that register variation is greater among pupils' with frequent extramural contacts; they use longer and more unusual words in their articles than in their letters.

7.2.3 Analysis of appraisal in the texts

- What kinds of linguistic resources do pupils with different frequency of extramural English and different grades in English use when expressing attitude and graduation in two different text types, a letter and a newspaper article?

The analysis of appraisal in 16 pupils' texts shows that the group of pupils with a high frequency of extramural English (8 pupils) used a greater variety of expressions for attitude and graduation than the group of pupils with fewer extramural contacts (8 pupils). The more frequent use of different kinds of

linguistic resources to express attitude and graduation often resulted in more elaborated texts with greater nuance. The difference in the use of such resources was particularly noticeable in texts written by pupils with G in English. Texts written by pupils who obtained G in English and reported a high frequency of extramural English displayed a considerably greater variety of expressions of attitude and graduation than texts written by pupils who also obtained G but with a low frequency of extramural English. There were fewer differences between texts written by pupils with the highest grade, MVG. However none of the pupils with MVG reported a very low frequency of extramural English.

Different expressions of quality, mostly adjectives, were often used to express attitude, particularly by pupils with few extramural English contacts. They used expressions of quality more often than pupils with frequent extramural contacts and they used intensifiers of force and focus, such as *very* and *so,* to the same extent as pupils with many extramural contacts. The group of pupils with a high frequency of extramural English expressed attitude through a description more often than the other group; they expressed attitude implicitly, with images. The use of images made the texts colourful; the descriptions of what people saw and heard in combination with graduating resources, like intensifiers of force, such as *huge* or *enormous*, contributed to an expression of vivid affect.

The group of pupils who reported frequent extramural English contacts used three times as many modal adjuncts in their articles as the group with more infrequent such contacts. The frequent use of modal adjuncts indicates a proficiency in handling more complex structures on the sentence as well as the text level. The analyses of the texts show that a modal adjunct, such as *suddenly*, was sometimes used as a turningpoint, indicating a new direction of events in the story. Other modal adjuncts, such as *only*, were used for expression of invoked judgement, for instance in *it only took 45 minutes*.

 The detailed analysis of texts shows that all pupils changed their language use to some extent when changing text types, from letter to article. They used first person pronouns, *I* and *we*, in the letters, changing to third person, *he, she, it* and *they*, in the article. The letters included a larger number of expressions of affect, describing feelings and reactions of the "*I*" in the letter, whereas the articles included expressions of judgement to a larger extent, commenting on the actions of the pilot or the rescue team.

Adjectives and other linguistic resources for expression of quality were used more often in the letters than in the articles. The personal stance of the letter is emphasised through the use of adjectives to express appreciation of the situation or emotional reactions to the events. The stance of the article is often more distanced, reporting the event, and so the need for adjectives seems to be smaller. This difference is noticeable in texts written by pupils with few or many extramural English contacts. A larger number of modal adjuncts and a smaller number of images are found in the articles written by the pupils with frequent extramural English contacts in comparison to their letters. In their letters, images

enhance the emotional expression of a personal account, while the more frequent use of modal adjuncts in the articles indicates an ability to shift to a less verbal style. The use of different linguistic resources for expression of attitude and graduation among pupils with few extramural contacts in English does not change to any great extent. The results indicate register variation to a greater extent among pupils with a high frequency of extramural English.

To summarise, the analysis of the use of linguistic resources for expression of attitude and graduation shows that pupils with frequent extramural English contacts use a greater variety of such expressions. Pupils with few such contacts use expressions of quality, such as adjectives, to a larger extent, while pupils with frequent contacts more often use images and modal adjuncts, which may require more complex sentence structure. The use of modal adjuncts may therefore indicate a higher level of proficiency. Both the group of pupils with a high frequency of extramural English and the group of pupils with few extramural contacts use somewhat fewer expressions of attitude and graduation in the articles than in the letters, thus indicating an awareness of registers. However, the pupils with frequent extramural English change their use of resources when changing text types to a larger extent than the other group, demonstrating greater register variation.

7.2.4 Conluding discussion

The success of pupils with a high frequency of extramural English in producing written language, as their high grades in English indicate and the results of the present study suggest, could be explained in different ways, depending on theoretical standpoint. This section discusses the results from different theoretical points of view, as suggested in chapter 2, since different perspectives may shed some further light on the results.

As suggested by Krashen (1982/2009), the high proficiency in writing among pupils with a high frequency of extramural English, as shown in the present study, may be explained by the fact that that these pupils' input of language is quite large; they acquire a good deal of language in a natural way. They would rather know by instinct, intuitively, what is correct than by having learned rules, according to Krashen. Possibly, some of the pupils, especially those who excel in writing, are also optimal monitor users, able to benefit from the formal teaching that they have received during lessons at school; they can use grammatical rules and other formal knowledge about the language to improve their texts (Krashen 2009:16).

Even though Krashen's input hypothesis can be used to explain some of the results obtained in the present study, they cannot explain the fact that pupils with little input of English outside of school still manage quite well; many of them obtained VG. School has, of course, provided all pupils with input of

different kinds during their years at school, and all of them have been exposed to some kind of English input outside of school, e.g. watching TV. Nevertheless, the input theory may seem insufficient; it does not pay much attention to other background factors that may influency proficiency.

A more Vygotskian explanation for the differences in writing proficiency that the results of the present study show would suggest that instruction in school has been within some of the pupils' zone of proximal development (Vygotsky 1978); school instruction and frequent input outside of school interact and enhance learning. Activities outside the classroom provide further opportunities for learning within the zone of proximal development. When engaged in an activity, for instance playing a computer game or listening to music with English lyrics, pupils are likely to come across new words or expressions that enhance their learning. Most likely, they would change activities if the language level should prove beyond the scope of their zone of proximal development.

The choice to engage in spare-time activities has to do with motivation. The results of the study could therefore also be considered in relation to Dörnyei's and Krashen's attention to affective variables; motivation, self-confidence and low anxiety influence the success of language acquisition (Dörnyei 2001; Krashen 2009:31). Pupils who engage in activities that involve English in their spare time do so by their own choice and there is thus reason to believe that they are highly motivated and that the degree of autonomy is high (Walker & Symons 1997 in Dörnyei 2001:18). Most likely, pupils would not engage in activities that they did not think they could manage successfully. If they watch a British or American TV series or film, they do it for pleasure and happen to learn English in the process; their motives are intrinsic.

The goals might also be quite different at school and outside of school. For a 15-year-old boy or girl, understanding a blog or winning a computer game may be regarded as a more worthwhile goal than good results on a test. It probably takes a great deal of effort before you command the English used in some computer games but, still, some pupils who would not normally consider doing their English homework, value the achievement enough to work hard to learn the necessary language for the game.

From a motivational point of view, English activities out of school seem to provide good conditions for language acquisition with regard to affective variables. Obviously, during lessons at school such conditions may also be fulfilled, but perhaps not as easily, since a class can consist of 30 pupils at different levels and with different backgrounds.

Certainly, there are a number of factors behind pupils' achievements in English. Some of these factors may be good English teachers, a genuine interest in the subject or a natural gift for language aquistition. Pupils may also practise and use English often and intensely enough to develop a high level of proficiency. The results of the present study have shown that a combination of

factors is probable and that extramural English is one factor that may indeed promote writing proficiency.

7.3 Pedagogical implications

Since pupils encounter English in various forms in their spare time, many of them for hours every day, it is important that lessons at school are relevant for them and enable them to develop their language skills to their fullest. The results of the present study have a bearing on the planning of English teaching in school since they indicate areas where extramural English may have an impact. An awareness of this could be of importance for the motivation of pupils and for the focus of lessons. Knowledge acquired outside of school must be considered and brought into the classroom. As Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggested in their multi-layer model of motivational effects in the educational situation, the extracurricular level must be included when planning for language development (in Dörnyei 2001:109). The results of the present study show that there are great differences in frequency and nature of exposure to English between pupils, and an awareness of this is necessary when planning English teaching. Pupils with little exposure to English outside of school probably require partly different teaching than pupils with great exposure.

The results showed that pupils with many extramural contacts in English were particularly fluent in the writing tasks in which everyday informal language was used, whereas many pupils seemed to have a more limited register when writing the article. An implication of these results could be a stronger focus in school on text types that are of a more academic kind. The reading of model texts in combination with the teaching of certain text types is one way of introducing more academic texts, as suggested by Ellis (1992), Carrasquillo, Kucer and Abrams (2004) and Schleppegrell (2004). Scaffolded introduction to new, more demanding text types may increase the range of registers a pupil can access, also widening the range within a register.

The analyses in the present study of linguistic resources for the expression of attitude and graduation show how important such expressions are in texts. When planning how to teach writing at school, an awareness of and focus on such resources should be valuable when teaching foreign languages as well.

It is difficult to organise teaching in a way that will meet the needs of all pupils. The results of the text analyses in the present study show that pupils' written proficiency vary greatly within the same class. It could be argued that the situation is similar in all subjects, but the exposure to English outside of school add circumstances that are specific to English as a school subject. It is a great advantage that many pupils also learn the subject outside of school and it would be unwise not to take advantage of this when planning English education at class level as well as curricular level.

Grading criteria for subjects in Swedish schools are linked to age; in grade 9 (age 16) pupils obtain grades in subjects according to criteria set up for grade 9. The results of the present study suggest that some pupils in a class may be ready to move on, beyond the demands set up for grade 9, whereas others may need more time, instruction and practice. A more flexible system, not necessarily connected to age, would allow pupils to advance to a higher level more easily.

7.4 Suggestions for further research

Although several aspects of writing proficiency were covered in the analyses in the present study, other aspects of the possible impact of extramural English on writing proficiency were left out; a limited study cannot grasp all aspects. Further studies including a larger number of texts are required for a deeper understanding of the impact of extramural English on writing proficiency.

In the material collected for the present study, a comparative analysis of vocabulary and expressions used in the video clip and the pupils' texts would be of relevance. Pupils with frequent extramural English contacts may find it easier to catch up words and expressions from a video clip and use them in their texts to a greater extent than pupils who use English more rarely.

In the results of the present study, the use and functions of modal adjuncts were demonstrated and the importance of modal adjuncts for the impression of the text shown, but the analyses could be taken further, perhaps including a larger number of texts. The results suggest that frequent use of modal adjuncts indicates a high level of proficiency. A comparison of an analysis of the frequency and use of modal adjuncts with an assessment of the texts made by experienced and well-educated native speakers of English could show whether modal adjuncts function as indicators of proficiency level.

Further, it would be of interest to study the impact of extramural English on the use of tense in texts. Swedish pupils sometimes perceive the use of different tenses in English as difficult, perhaps because the use of certain tenses in English differs to some degree from that in Swedish. Frequent exposure to English may facilitate the use of tenses; further research is required.

Of course, it would also be of relevance to investigate the impact of extramural English on other text types than letters and newspaper articles. The present study indicates greater register variation among pupils with frequent extramural exposure to English. Thus, it would be of great interest to examine the possible impact of extramural English on more academic text types, e.g. argumentative or exploratory texts based on subject content. Such text types require use of more complex grammar, including e.g. the use of connectives, but also the use of subject-specific and more general academic vocabulary. Studies of extramural English with such orientation would most likely tell us a great deal more, especially with regard to more advanced learners, about its role in

shaping the learning of English as a second or foreign language in today's world.

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Appendix 1 Writing tasks

Task 1.

Imagine that you were either on the plane or near the Hudson River when the accident happened. Write a letter or an e-mail to a friend and tell him/her what happened and what you experienced. You may use your imagination and make up facts, names etc.

Write 150-200 words. You may not use grammar or spelling control.

We will watch the video clip again before you start writing. Take notes if you want to.

When you are ready, print your text and e-mail it to eva.olsson@

<div align="center">***</div>

Task 2

Imagine that you are a newspaper reporter. Write a newspaper article about the plane crash on the Hudson River. You may use your imagination and make up facts, names etc.

Write 150-250 words. You may not use grammar or spelling control.

We will watch the video clip again before you start writing. Take notes if you want to.

When you are ready, print your text and e-mail it to eva.olsson@

<div align="center">* * *</div>

Language Diary
Dag 1: _____dag _____/_____elev nr:_____

ENGELSKA

Fyll i varje typ av kontakt du har haft med engelska
under dagen på fritiden.

		Tid i timmar och minuter på engelska	Total tid jag sysslat med detta (svenska och engelska)
Läst engeslkspråkig bok (t.ex. roman eller faktabok)	Titel:		Läst bok
Läst engelskspråkig tidning:	Namn:		Läst tidning
Sett engelskspråkigt TV-program. *Skriv S, E eller O efter varje program! Se nedan**	Namn;		TV
Sett engelskspråkig film (på bio, TV, video, DVD, dator, etc). *Skriv S, E eller O!**	Namn:		Film
Surfat på engelskspråkiga sidor på nätet	Sidor:		Surfat på nätet
Chattat på engelska med…			Chattat
Mailat på engelska till…/fått mail från…			Mailat
TV-/Dataspel på engelska	Namn:		TV/Dataspel
Talat engelska med…			
Lyssnat på musik med engelsk sång	Artist(er):		Lyssnat på musik
Annat	Exempel:		

- **S** = **S**vensk text. **E** = **E**ngelsk text. **O** = **O**textad.

*"Denna **dag** har jag hållit på med engelska…*

	…som vanligt"	*…mindre än vanligt"*	*…mer än vanligt"*
ENGELSKA			

Använd denna ruta om du behöver mer plats att skriva!

Appendix 3. Tables showing extramural contacts in English reported in the questionnaire.

I have visited or lived in an English speaking country

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	yes	Count	9	6	15
		% within Sex	40.9%	40.0%	40.5%
	no	Count	13	9	22
		% within Sex	59.1%	60.0%	59.5%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I speak English on a regular basis (outside of school)

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	yes	Count	6	9	15
		% within Sex	27.3%	60.0%	40.5%
	no	Count	16	6	22
		% within Sex	72.7%	40.0%	59.5%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I e-mail in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
every day	Count		1	0	1
	% within Sex		4.5%	0.0%	2.7%
once or a few times a week	Count		1	1	2
	% within Sex		4.5%	6.7%	5.4%
once or a few times a month	Count		2	3	5
	% within Sex		9.1%	20.0%	13.5%
never or almost never	Count		18	11	29
	% within Sex		81.8%	73.3%	78.4%
Total	Count		22	15	37
	% within Sex		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I send text messages (phone) in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
once or a few times a week	Count		0	1	1
	% within Sex		0.0%	6.7%	2.7%
once or a few times a month	Count		2	2	4
	% within Sex		9.1%	13.3%	10.8%
never or almost never	Count		20	12	32
	% within Sex		90.9%	80.0%	86.5%
Total	Count		22	15	37
	% within Sex		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I read and write letters in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
never or almost never	Count		22	15	37
	% within Sex		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Count		22	15	37
	% within Sex		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I have other written contacts in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	every day	Count	2	0	2
		% within Sex	9.1%	0.0%	5.4%
	once or a few times a week	Count	2	0	2
		% within Sex	9.1%	0.0%	5.4%
	once or a few times a month	Count	5	2	7
		% within Sex	22.7%	13.3%	18.9%
	never or almost never	Count	13	13	26
		% within Sex	59.1%	86.7%	70.3%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I read books in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	once or a few times a week	Count	3	1	4
		% within Sex	13.6%	6.7%	10.8%
	once or a few times a month	Count	3	7	10
		% within Sex	13.6%	46.7%	27.0%
	never or almost never	Count	16	7	23
		% within Sex	72.7%	46.7%	62.2%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I read newspapers in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	once or a few times a week	Count	1	0	1
		% within Sex	4.5%	0.0%	2.7%
	once or a few times a month	Count	5	2	7
		% within Sex	22.7%	13.3%	18.9%
	never or almost never	Count	16	13	29
		% within Sex	72.7%	86.7%	78.4%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I read comics in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
once or a few times a month		Count	6	2	8
		% within Sex	27.3%	13.3%	21.6%
never or almost never		Count	16	13	29
		% within Sex	72.7%	86.7%	78.4%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I read blogs and other websites in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
every day		Count	8	2	10
		% within Sex	36.4%	13.3%	27.0%
once or a few times a week		Count	3	5	8
		% within Sex	13.6%	33.3%	21.6%
once or a few times a month		Count	2	4	6
		% within Sex	9.1%	26.7%	16.2%
never or almost never		Count	9	4	13
		% within Sex	40.9%	26.7%	35.1%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I read other things like manuals or magazines in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
every day		Count	1	0	1
		% within Sex	4.5%	0.0%	2.7%
once or a few times a week		Count	2	1	3
		% within Sex	9.1%	6.7%	8.1%
once or a few times a month		Count	8	3	11
		% within Sex	36.4%	20.0%	29.7%
never or almost never		Count	11	11	22
		% within Sex	50.0%	73.3%	59.5%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I listen to music in English

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	every day	Count	18	14	32
		% within Sex	81.8%	93.3%	86.5%
	once or a few times a week	Count	4	1	5
		% within Sex	18.2%	6.7%	13.5%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I watch English-speaking TV programmes or films with Swedish subtitles

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	every day	Count	12	7	19
		% within Sex	54.5%	46.7%	51.4%
	once or a few times a week	Count	7	8	15
		% within Sex	31.8%	53.3%	40.5%
	once or a few times a month	Count	3	0	3
		% within Sex	13.6%	0.0%	8.1%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I watch English speaking TV or films without subtitles

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
	every day	Count	5	1	6
		% within Sex	22.7%	6.7%	16.2%
	once or a few times a week	Count	4	2	6
		% within Sex	18.2%	13.3%	16.2%
	once or a few times a month	Count	8	7	15
		% within Sex	36.4%	46.7%	40.5%
	never or almost never	Count	5	5	10
		% within Sex	22.7%	33.3%	27.0%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I surf on the Internet

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
every day		Count	18	10	28
		% within Sex	81.8%	66.7%	75.7%
once or a few times a week		Count	3	5	8
		% within Sex	13.6%	33.3%	21.6%
once or a few times a month		Count	1	0	1
		% within Sex	4.5%	0.0%	2.7%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

I play computer games

			Sex		Total
			boy	girl	
every day		Count	8	0	8
		% within Sex	36.4%	0.0%	21.6%
once or a few times a week		Count	4	0	4
		% within Sex	18.2%	0.0%	10.8%
once or a few times a month		Count	4	3	7
		% within Sex	18.2%	20.0%	18.9%
never or almost never		Count	6	12	18
		% within Sex	27.3%	80.0%	48.6%
Total		Count	22	15	37
		% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

When I play computer games, I use the following language(s)

		Sex		Total
		boy	girl	
I don't play	Count	4	11	15
	% within Sex	18.2%	73.3%	40.5%
Both Swedish and English but mostly English	Count	9	2	11
	% within Sex	40.9%	13.3%	29.7%
Always English	Count	8	0	8
	% within Sex	36.4%	0.0%	21.6%
Both Swedish and English but mostly Swedish	Count	0	2	2
	% within Sex	0.0%	13.3%	5.4%
Another language	Count	1	0	1
	% within Sex	4.5%	.0%	2.7%
Total	Count	22	15	37
	% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

When I chat or e-mail, I use the following language(s)

		Sex		Total
		boy	girl	
I don't chat or e-mail	Count	1	1	2
	% within Sex	4.5%	6.7%	5.4%
Both Swedish and English but mostly English	Count	4	0	4
	% within Sex	18.2%	0.0%	10.8%
Both Swedish and English but mostly Swedish	Count	13	10	23
	% within Sex	59.1%	66.7%	62.2%
Always Swedish	Count	4	4	8
	% within Sex	18.2%	26.7%	21.6%
Total	Count	22	15	37
	% within Sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Appendix 4. Table showing the what text types the pupils reported having practised writing

At school I have practised writing

	Responses	
	N	Percent of Cases
letter to a friend	33	89.2%
letter to a company or an organization	11	29.7%
retell an event in writing	30	81.1%
factual essay (i.e about a country)	26	70.3%
essay about a hobby	28	75.7%
essay based on textbook (continuation of story etc)	21	56.8%
short story	8	21.6%
book or film review	26	70.3%
summary	28	75.7%
argumentative text	15	40.5%
newspaper article	25	67.6%

Appendix 5A. Background information about Maria and Arnold

	Maria	Arnold
Total sum of contacts in English	26	83
Types of contacts in English	Every day: TV, Music Has used English when travelling to other countries many times A few times a month: reads blogs or websites	Every day: TV, music, speaks with friends, chats , e-mails, reads blogs/websites, computer games A few times a week: reads books and magazines
Background	Born in Sweden, speaks Swedish + another language at home	Born in Sweden, speaks Swedish + another language at home
Parents' education	Both university	Both university
Grade in English	MVG	MVG
National Test written proficiency (English)	MVG	MVG
Grade in Swedish	MVG	VG
National Test written proficiency (Swedish)	MVG	MVG
Total sum of grades (all subjects)	315	225
Running words, letter	240	175
Running words, article	249	203
Average word length letter	4.2	4.2
Average word length article	4.3	4.3
Av. sentence length letter	13.1	19.2
Av. sentence length article	22.5	18
Word variation STTR letter	82	81.3
Word variation STTR article	77	81

Appendix 5B. Background information about Christopher and Peter

	Christopher	Peter
Total sum of contacts in English	10	69
Types of contacts in English	Once or a few times a week: Listens to music, watches English-speaking programs on TV Once or a few times a month: reads manuals or periodicals	Every day: reads websites or blogs, chats, listen to music, watches TV and films, plays computer games (mostly in English) Once or a few times a week: reads newspapers and manuals or periodicals, written contacts (unspecified)
Background	Born in Sweden, speaks Swedish at home	Born in Sweden, speaks Swedish at home
Parents' education	Both parents upper secondary school	Mother university, father upper secondary school
Grade in English	VG	VG
National Test written proficiency (English)	VG	VG
Grade in Swedish	MVG	G
National Test written proficiency (Swedish)	MVG	G
Total sum of grades (all subjects)	295	200
Running words, letter	153	121
Running words, article	166	213
Average word length letter	4.0	4.1
Average word length article	4.2	4.2
Av. sentence length letter	10	17
Av. sentence length article	17.8	19.2
Word variation STTR letter	78.7	63
Word variation STTR article	78	75

Appendix 5C. Background information about Lola and Linda

	Lola	Linda
Total sum of contacts in English	15	35
Types of contacts in English	Every day: Music Once or a few times a week: TV Has used English when travelling a few times	Every day: Music Once or a few times a week: Speaks English, chats, sends text messages and e-mails, TV A few times a month: reads books Has visited Great Britain and used English when travelling
Background	Born in Sweden, speaks Swedish at home	Born in Sweden, speaks Swedish at home
Parents' education	Mother upper secondary school, father- does not know	Mother university, father compulsory school
Grade in English	G	G
National Test written proficiency (English)	G	VG
Grade in Swedish	VG	VG
National Test written proficiency (Swedish)	VG	VG
Total sum of grades (all subjects)	220	185
Running words, letter	69	128
Running words, article	91	120
Average word length letter	3.7	3.8
Average word length article	3.8	4.1
Av. sentence length letter	11.3	12.3
Av. sentence length article	12.7	13
Word variation STTR letter	82	83
Word variation STTR article	86	71

Appendix 6A. Analysis of appraisal in Arnold's letter

Task 1 letter Arnold	+/-	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory[1]
I was by the river when I heard some kind of malfunctioning engine.	-	x			x		Sound / writer	4 1 8
that was making loud noises	-	x			x		Sound /writer	7 2
I looked up from where I stood and discovered that there was plane right above my head.	-	x danger-ous	x scared			x	Situation / writer	4 7
People all around me halted what they were doing and stared at the plane,	-	x danger-ous	x stunned			x	Situation / pedestrians	3 4
startled and surprised.	-		x		x		Situation / pedestrians	1 11
That was when the thought struck me, what if the plain couldn't make it to the other side?	-		x scared			x	Situation / writer	5 3
But in my relief I noticed that it was on its way down.	+		x		x		Sight / writer	2 4
It seemed like it was going to land on the river but that felt somewhat unbelievable.	+/-	x			x		Situation / writer	1 8
But that was actually the case,	+		x surprised			x	Landing / writer	6
it softly and gently	+	x			x		Landing / writer	1 11
considering the circumstances landed upon the Hudson River.	+			x skilful		x	Pilot / writer	5
The crowd began to panic.	-		x		x		Sight / crowd	3
and screams of "Somebody help them"	-	x serious	x scared			x	Situation / crowd	2 3
and "Are they going to be ok?"	-	x serious	x scared			x	Stiuation / crowd	5
It only took a moment for a flotilla to get there and start the rescuing operation.	+			x fast		x	Flotilla / writer	6 2
Fortunately nobody was harmed	+	x			x		Situation / writer	6 7 3
in the disaster,	-	x			x		Situation /writer	2
which was a relief for all of us	+	x	x		x		Outcome / everyone	2 7
watching this dramatic event.	-	x			x		Incident / writer	1

[1] see Table 14: Categories of linguistic resources for expression of attitude and graduation.

Appendix 6B. Analysis of appraisal in Arnold's article

Task 2 Article Arnold	+ / -	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory
Pilot calmly saves 150 lives	+			x	x		Pilot / writer	1 3
Yesterday at 1700 hours a plane crashlanded on the hudson river.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	3
It was a miraculous landing	+	x			x		Landing / writer	1
wich required the pilot to use his skills to their fullest.	+			x	x		Pilot / writer	2 9
Captain Sollenburger was the one who executed this amazingly smooth landing on the river.	+	x		x skilful	x	x	Landing and pilot / writer	10 1
The plane had been hit by a swarm of birds	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	3 7
which seriously damaged their left engine.	-	x			x		Damages / writer	10 3
The pilot was directed to land at a nearby airport although he figured he'd never make it.	-	x serious				x	Situation and pilot / writer	5 6
That's when he went about and landed on the river.	+			x clever				
These are statements from local citizens,Charles Dera says:								
- I was walking down the street by the docks and i heard some noise coming from the air, I turned my head and saw this plane descending from a smoke cloud which had its origin from the planes left engine.	-	x serious	x scared			x	Sight / eyewitness	4 2 7
Holly Birdstone says:								
- I was terrified.	-		x		x		Sight / eyewitness	1

I sat at a cafe at the time with my boyfriend when I saw a plane crashing down not too far away on the river!	-	x serious	x scared			x	Sight / eyewitness	4 3 7
Shortly after the plane had stopped a flotilla arrived to begin the rescue operation.	+			x quick		x	Flotilla / writer	6
Only 45 minutes later	+			x quick		x	Rescuers and / writer	6
everyone had been safely taken ashore and	+	x safe		x good		x	Rescue operation and rescuers / writer	7 1 5
every passenger survived.	+	x good				x	Outcome / writer	7 3

Appendix 7A. Analysis of appraisal in Maria's letter

Task 1 Letter Maria	+ /-	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory
Dear Leslie	+	x			x		Friend /writer	1
I have something amazing and terrifying to tell you.	+/-	x			x		News / writer	1
								1
Don't worry,	+		x		x		News / reader	3
it's nothing very serious, just a bit.	+	x			x		News / writer	1
								7
								7
You know the airplane they showed on the news, the one who landed because of an emergency on the Hudson River? Well, I was on that plane.	-	x serious				x	Situation / reader	5
You may have heard different versions about the experience but this is mine.								
It's a bit strange how people can call themselves telepathic	-		x	x	x		People / writer	1
								7
but I actually believe that I was at the moment while I was going on the plane,	+		x surprised			x	situation / writer	6
I had a really weird feeling.	-	x			x		Feeling / writer	1
								8
Something wasn't right. Now I know what it was.	-	x			x		Feeling / writer	1
I remember how I was listening to my walkman when the lady next to me started to scream:	-		x scared			x	Explosion / passenger	3

"Dear lord, what was that?	-		x scared			x	Explosion / passenger	5
Oh my god, is it serious?	-	x			x		Situation / passenger	5 1
Please, could someone tell me what that explosion was?	-	x serious	x scared			x	Sound / passenger	2
Afterwards, everything continued very quickly.								
The stewardessess went back and forth, panicing inside	-		x		x		Emergency / stewardesses	3 4
but they had to be calm.	+			x admirable		x	Stewardesses / writer	1
It was a uncomfortable and bomby ride	-	x			x		Ride / writer	1 1
but I saw the river coming closer.	+?	x hopeful?				x	Situation / writer	4
I heard thwe pilot's calm voice in the speakers repeating:	+	x			x		Pilot's voice / writer	1
"Prepare for en emergency landing".	-	x serious	x scared			x	Situation / passenger	2
Two minutes later I hit the head in the chair when we landed,	-		x pain			x	Knock / writer	3
and for 30 minutes I stood on the wings, with the ice-cold water covering my knees, waiting to get warm.	-	x x serious	x cold scared		x	x	Water and situation/ writer	7 1 4 10
A tough experience, call me later!	-	x			x		Experience / writer	1
Your Barbara								

Appendix 7B. Analysis of appraisal in Maria's article

Task 2 Article Maria	+/-	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory
Unexpected crash	.	x			x		Incident /writer	1
								2
What seemed to become a nice flight from the airport La Guardian, New York to Charlotte, South Carolina	+	x			x		Flight / passengers	8
								1
quickly ended	-	x			x		Impression of flight / passengers	1
due to a bird crash which affected the two engines.	-	x serious				x	Incident / writer	2
Just above the buildings of New York, the lives of the 200 passengers where suddenly hanging by a thin thread.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	4
								6
								7
								7
When the bird got sucked in to the huge engines, they immediately quitted to work,	-	x			x		Engines / writer	6
								5
which left the plane just a couple of minutes to stay in the air.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	7
								5
The passengers where at least as shocked as the	-			x	x		emergency/ passengers, pilot	7
								3
pilot who for just a second hesitated what he would to.	+			x quick		x	Pilot / writer	7
								5
But because of his many years working in the air, he realized what he had to do:	+			+ wise		x	Pilot / writer	5
go with his first way out	-	x			x		Situation / pilot,	2

Text							Label	No.
of this disaster.							writer	
The pilot got help from the nearest airport in New York which he lead the airplane to, though he didn't have time, which resulted in the fact that he had to land on the softest and largest area around: the Hudson River.	- +	x			x	x	River / pilot	1 9 1 9 5
Witnesses say that the airplane landed so gentle and confident, that for a second they thought the river was a landbane.	+	x			x		Landing / witnesses	1 1 7
The passengers immediately got out on the wings,	+	x quick				x	Evacuation/ writer	6
waiting for the rescuers to come, which didn't take them a lot of time.	+			x quick		x	Rescuers / writer	7 5
Even though the fine landing helped the passengers a lot,	+	x			x		Landing / writer	1
they had to suffer from the ice-cold water who slowly surrounded them.	-	x			x		Water / passengers	3 1 10
At the accident, no one got badly hurt exept the freezing enguries.	+	x				x	Damages / writer	1 7 10 2

Appendix 8A. Analysis of appraisal in Peter's letter

Task 1 letter Peter	+ / -	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory
You will not believe what happened to me! I was down near the Hudson river,	-	x un-believable				x	News / reader	5
It was just a normal day the sun was shining, it was pretty cold and I was driving my ferry down the river there was many people this day, weekend .	+	x	+ happy		x	x	Day / writer	1 4 7 1 4
Then suddenly	-		x surprised			x	Sound / boat passengers	6
everybody on the ferry heard a big booooooom,	-		x scared			x	Sound / boat passengers	7 7 2 11
it was a plane who was going to land on the river!	-	x serious				x	Image / boat passengers	4
The plane was coming really fast and close to the ferry	-	x serious				x	Image / boat passengers	1 1 8
everybody was frighten.	-		x		x		Image / boat passengers	7 1
The plane was very big and went very fast!	-	x			x		Plane / boat passengers, writer	1 7 1 7
Then it started to touch the water and nearly stopped immediately,	+	x quick				x	Landing /writer	4 7 6
it was a gigantic splash and	-	x			x		Splash / writer	7
we thought that nearly no one would have survived	-	x serious	x scared			x	Outcome / boat passengers	7 3

Appendix 8B. Analysis of appraisal in Peter's article

Task 2 article Peter	+ / -	Appre- ciation	Affect	Judge- ment	In- scribed	In- voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate- gory
HUDSON RIVER PLANE CRASH!	-	x serious				x	Accident / reader, writer	2
Today a airplane landed in the Hudson river after birds flow into both engines and destroyed them.	-	x serious				x	Accident / reader, writer	4 7 3
The pilot was told to land in a nearby airport								
but he soon realized	+			x wise, quick		x	Pilot / writer	6
that it would be impossible to do, so he landed on the river.	-	x			x		Situation / pilot	1
The plane had 155 passenger so it was a pretty big plane.	-	X serious				x	Situation/writer	7
The pilot said in the speakers that everybody must sharpen their belts.	-	x serious				x	Situation / passengers, pilot	5 7
People walking on the streets around the river saw the plane a long time								7
and when the plane landed there was a huge splash and water even flew away to people walking on the streets.	-	x dangerous	x startled			x	Landing / pedestrians	4 7 6
The people was shocked	-		x		x		Landing / pedestrians	1
and the people in the plane was even more shocked.	-		x		x		Landing / passengers on the plane	6 7 1
Everybody screamed on the	-	x serious	x scared			x	Situation / pedestrians	3

streets								7
and they thought that all had died or was going to sunk,	-	x serious	x scared			x	Situation / pedestrians	3 7 3
Then suddenly	+		x surprised, happy			x	Sight/pedestrians	6
the door on the plane opened and people started jumping out on the wings.	+	x hopeful				x	Stiuation / pedestrians	4
Later a ferry and a helicopter came and saved the passengers, nobody was killed!	+	x good				x	Outcome/writer	3 3 7
One thing I don't undersfand is that everybody says	-	x strange				x	Public opinion / writer	5 7
that the pilot was the hero	+			x	x		Pilot / public opinion	2
but it was his own fault they flew into the birds	-			x	x		Pilot / writer	2 7
but after that he did very good!	+			x	x		Pilot / writer	1 7
But without him none of this would have happened.	-			x guilty		x	Pilot / writer	5 7

Appendix 9A. Analysis of appraisal in Christopher's letter

Task 1 letter Christopher	+/-	Appre-ciation	affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by/ Felt by	Cate-gory
Hi my dear friend!	+	x			x		Friend/ writer	1
It was an terrible accident here!	-	x			x		Accident/ writer	1
There were birds who had flown in to an airplane's engine.	-	x serious				x	Image / writer	5
The airplane was told to land and the captain did a marvellos landing in to the river Hudson river.	+			x	x		Pilot/ writer	1
Some of my friends were near the plane and could see the hole situation.								
I heard it was over 150 people in the plane.	-	x serious				x	Situation/writer	7
When the airplane had landed in the river it began to sink.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer , passengers, friends	3 4
Lucky, a boat could save them	+	x	x		x		Circumstances / passengers	6 3
but some of the passenger were freezing.	-		x		x		Cold/ passengers	7 1
But no one died and that was good.	+	x			x	x	Outcome/ writer	3 7 1
Captain Sullenberger, which not is a cake in Germany, was big hero.	+			x	x		Pilot/writer	3 7
Without his acting all the people could have died.	+			x heroic		x	Pilot/writer	5 7
It took over 45 minutes	-	x slow				x	Rescue operation /writer	7
and then all the people were saved.	+	x good				x	Outcome/ writer	3

It is really great	+	x			x		Situation/ writer	1 8
that we have that kind of heros in our airplanes!	+		x	x			Pilot/writer	8 2
Bye, bye! From your american friend!	+	x		x			reader/writer	2

Appendix 9B. Analysis of appraisal in Christopher's letter

Task 2 article Christopher	+/-	Appre- ciation	Affect	Judge- ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by/ felt by	Cate- gory
Flight captain saves over 150 people	+			x heroic		x	Pilot/writer	3 7
The Flight captain Chesly Sullenberger did an incredible act	+			x	x		Pilot/ writer	1
when he did an emergancy-landing on the Hudson river.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	2
The planes left wing was crashed by some birds and the plane had to land.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	3
The captain did relise that he couldn't reech the next airport runway	-	x serious				x	Situation/ pilot	5
so captain Sullenberger landed just on the Hudson river and saved in the same moment over 150 peoples lives	+			x wise, skilful		x	Pilot / writer	3 7 7
A resque flottilla could help all the passenger on board and it took just 45 minutes.	+			x quick helpful		x	Rescue team / writer	2 3 7
No one died	+	x good				x	Outcome/ writer	3 7
but some people were freezing.	-		x		x		Cold/ passengers	1 7
One pilot did even take off his shirt to one of the passenger	+			x kind		x	A pilot /writer	6 5
so all of the passenger were very happy with the help and the resque.	+		x		x		Outcome / passengers	7 7 1 2
The hero has not spoken yet but his family, The Sullenbergers, have.	+			x	x		Pilot / writer	2

They were very proud of him	+		x		x		Pilot / pilot's family	1 7
and I think he is going to get a huge party when he arrives home. From correnspondent 39:an, New York.	+			x hero		x	Pilot / writer	7 5

Appendix 10A. Analysis of appraisal in Linda's letter

Task 1 Letter Linda	+ / -	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory
It was horrible	-	x			x		Situation / writer	1
I was one of the 155 peoples who were there!	-		x upset			x	Situation / writer	5 7
I thought I would be dead at this time right now.	-	x dangerous	x scared			x	Situation / writer	1 7
But I was a <u>real</u> lucky woman who survived.	+		x		x		Survival / writer	1 8
I was really scared	.		x		x		Situation / writer	8 1
and couldn't think about anything else than <u>my child, my little girl</u> who was with me all the time.	-		x worried			x	Thought of child / writer	11 5 8
She was <u>so</u> scared	-		x		x		Situation / writer's daughter	7 1
and I couldn't do anything to help her.	-		x helpless			x	Situation / writer	5
After a while there were some boats coming to rescue us, after 45 minutes they had saved 155 peoples lifes.	+			x heroic		x	Rescuers / writer	3 7 3 7
Many people were going to the hospital because of the freezing water.	-	x			x		Water / passengers	7 1
It was <u>real</u> freezing in the water	-	x			x		Water / passengers	1 8 11
and people were cold and scared.	-		x		x		Water and situation /	1 1

I think we had the angels with us!	+		x lucky			x	passengers Outcome / writer	5

Appendix 10B. Analysis of appraisal in Linda's article

Task 2 Article Linda	+ / -	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory
There has been a plane crashing in the water, in the Hudson River.	-	x serious				x	Incident / writer	3
There were 155 people on the plane. Everybody survived and is alive today	+	x fortunate				x	Outcome / writer	3 11 7 7
because of the great captain Sullenburgh.	+			x	x		Pilot / writer	1
He has become a hero after this.	+			x	x		Pilot / public	2 7
The whole thing started with a bird which flew into the engine.								
Then the plane was going down, down and down.	-	x dangerous				x	Situation / passengers?	11
The captain had no place to land on and the captain had to land in the Hudson River.	-	x serious				x	Situation / pilot and writer	5
That was the only thing to do or land in a neighborhood and killed many people and families.	-	x serious		x wise		x	Situation and pilot / writer	7 5
The people on the plane survived because of just that, that he landed in the water and saved everybody.	+			x wise, skilful		x	Pilot / writer	3 8 3 7

Appendix 11A. Analysis of appraisal in Lola's letter

Task 1 Letter Lola	+ / -	Appreciation	Affect	Judgement	Inscribed	Invoked	Caused by / felt by	Category
I living in Great Britten and it has an incident her last week.	-	x				x	Situation/ writer	2
I saw the plane came over the lake and it was <u>so</u> horrible.	-	x			x		Sight / writer	1 7
The plane crash in the water	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	3
end many people were hurt.	-	x serious				x	Condition / passengers	1 7
The plane had crash with many birds before, and the wing was brokered.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	3 7 3
The pilot's landing was very cool,	+	x			x		Landing / writer	1 7
it's not often people can land like he did.	+			x skilful		x	Pilot / writer	5 7

Appendix 11B. Analysis of appraisal in Lola's article

Task 2 Article Lola	+ / -	Appre-ciation	Affect	Judge-ment	In-scribed	In-voked	Caused by / felt by	Cate-gory
Yesterday morning the plane crash over the Hudson River.	-	x serious				x	Incident / writer	3
The hospital had a lot of work to do this day.	-	x serious				x	Situation / writer	5 7
The water was very cold	-	x			x		Water / water	1 7
and many people get hurt	-	x serious				x	Damages / writer	7 1
but no one died.	+	x fortunate				x	Outcome / writer	3 7
We have a hero, his name is Salem Burger.	+			x	x		Pilot / writer	2
He is a pilot and helped many people to survive.	+			x heroic		x	Pilot / writer	3 7
Salem is a great pilot he land the plane so professional.	+			x			Pilot / writer	1 1
The people in the city helped all the people in the water , they came with boats and ruggs to keep the people warm.	+			x kind		x	City people / writer	3 7