Essentials: Teaching English to Young Learners in Primary School

Theresa Summer   [iD]   0000-0002-8081-6266

Heiner Böttger   [iD]   0000-0001-9767-9571

Abstract

This contribution is about selected key issues related to the teaching of English to young learners (TEYL). Focusing particularly on primary school education, it reflects upon central theories and evidence-based research related to how young learners acquire and learn English. After an outline of central teaching principles, we develop the notion of a principled mindset. This provides the basis for a discussion of competence development and the integration of materials – focusing particularly on the role of authentic materials, scaffolding, classroom phrases, and the importance of literary texts. A basic introduction into how to plan competence-based lessons or lesson sequences follows. Throughout this contribution, examples aim to highlight the importance of a theoretical grounding for teaching practice.

Keywords: teaching English to young learners (TEYL), primary education, teaching principles, theories, competences, literature, storytelling / picturebooks, scaffolding, classroom phrases, lesson planning

1. Introduction

When we speak of the teaching of English to young learners (TEYL), this typically and mainly refers to the age group of three to twelve-year-olds (Bland, 2015). This phase includes pre-school and school education. Historically, the teaching of English to this age group is a rather new phenomenon. In Germany, all federal states introduced English as a subject in primary schools in the third grade starting in the school year of 2004/2005 (Pienemann et al., 2006, p. 7). Over the years, the German school landscape has diversified extraordinarily with regard to the subject of primary school English (Böttger, 2021). Most commonly today, children

in Germany receive their first institutionalised English instruction in the third grade at the age of approximately eight. The introduction of English lessons varies across the German federal states, however, and some federal states such as Hamburg and Rhineland Palatinate start English lessons in the first grade – although the latter offers a choice of either introducing French or English as the first foreign language (for a current overview of the teaching of English in primary schools see Böttger, 2021, p. 40). Globally speaking, as Pinter rightly observes, "[p]rimary education is very different in various parts of the world" (2017, p. 1). Very often and regrettably thereby, primary language education is at the mercy of educational policy interests rather than the result of the implementation of scientific knowledge.

The objective of this contribution is to provide an overview of key issues relevant and constituent for TEYL by focusing on primary English language education (ELE), mostly starting in the third grade. Two main goals are in focus: First, this contribution aims to equip future English teachers with essential subject-specific knowledge and competences necessary for their future profession. This includes their ability to critically analyse teaching materials (e.g. textbooks and digital materials) and to develop tasks and lesson sequences. Second, this contribution aims to help pre-service teachers relate theory and practice so that they can reflect upon the English lessons they observe (e.g. during internships) and make principled decisions for practice.

According to Elsner (2021), sound theoretical knowledge and the development of TEFL-related competences among (pre-service) English teachers subsumes four key areas: 1) language competence (*Sprachkompetenz*), professional knowledge (*Fachwissen*), 'didactic' knowledge (*fachdidaktisches Wissen*), and reflective and research competence (*Reflexions- und Forschungskompetenz*) (pp. 106–11). Crucially, the development of professional knowledge and competences can equip teachers with the necessary tools to become good teachers. Additionally, this helps them justify and reflect on their own teaching. This complies with the concept of the "reflective practitioner" (see Grund et al. in this volume), which refers to teachers engaging in "meaningful reflection and awareness-raising" (Viebrock, 2018, p. 48). By identifying, naming and

defining problems and challenges, as well as potential solutions, reflective practitioners can develop sustainable didactic and methodological solutions to achieve professional teaching competence.

Starting with an outline of characteristics related to the learning of foreign languages among young learners, this contribution moves on to discussing key principles of TEYL, followed by an outline of English-related competences, materials and scaffolding, and basics of lesson planning – all of which are relevant for teaching in primary schools.

2. How young learners acquire and learn languages

To address the question of how young learners acquire or learn English, let us begin with a look at the following tickling rhyme well known by children in the English-speaking world:

Number one, tickle your tum
Number one, tickle your tum.
Number two, just say 'Boo!'
Number three, touch your knee.
Number four, touch the floor.
Number five, do a dive.
Number six, wriggle your hips.
Number seven, jump to heaven.
Number eight, stand up straight.
Number nine, walk in a line.
Number ten, do it all again! [Repeat]

Table 1: Example of a tickling rhyme

Children acquiring English as their first language (or one of their 'first' languages) might encounter this rhyme or a similar example and thereby engage with its playfulness and repetitive structure. The playful looping in of words, structures, and setting helps children memorize these and gain a first linguistic basis of experience. Rather than consciously learning the numbers and action verbs, they will identify the meaning of words from the given context combined with the physical actions. In other

words, they will subconsciously and implicitly acquire the lexical and grammatical items. Cognitive aspects like explanations are not necessary during this first language encounter. Initially starting with babbling, moving on to the first word, two words, and on to more complex syntactic structures, children start to develop conversational skills progressively when learning their first language(s) (Brewster et al., 2002, pp. 14–16).

From the age of three, children also begin to ask questions about the use of language (Böttger, 2016, p. 76). From this time on, mistakes and errors play a crucial role in language acquisition. As linguistic hypotheses, they mark the turning point from language acquisition to language learning. While the former is childlike, easy, and largely unconscious, learning means a rather strenuous, more conscious process. Table 2 provides an overview of key terms and highlights the differences between learning and acquiring a language.

Learning a language	Acquiring a language
explicitly & consciously	implicitly & widely subconsciously
in formal teaching situations	in informal, natural situations
mostly institutionalized	mostly non-institutionalized
dependent on attitude, e.g. motivation, dedication, etc.	dependent on aptitude, e.g. skills, competencies, talent, etc.
planned, mostly artificial and linear progression	non-linear progression from simple to complex

Table 2: Basic terminology: Learning vs. acquiring a language

The learning of a second (or third etc.) language, which frequently takes place in institutionalised settings, differs in several ways from first language(s) acquisition. In terms of the setting, learners at school evidently receive a lot less input in the target language than they would, for instance, if they grew up in an English-speaking country or if a family member spoke English at home. Therefore, the time available for learning English is limited. The opportunities for learning at school, however, are promising because learners in an EFL classroom are surrounded by peers of a similar age and potentially similar interests, and are often highly

motivated to learn English (Böttger, 2020b, p. 135). Moreover, a teacher is present, who should be able to make the most out of the approximately two or three hours of English instruction available per week. In these English lessons, it is important to address the cognitive as well as the non-cognitive capacities of the children in order to create the most natural language-learning environment possible. So, how can pupils in the classroom acquire or learn English? In other words, what can teachers do to foster learners' English language proficiency?

3. Teaching young learners: A theoretical and empirical perspective

To answer the questions raised in the previous section, we need to deal with some of the most relevant theories and research in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) relevant to young learners. Given the great variety of theories of SLA and research in different contexts (e.g. see Ortega, 2013 or Elsner, 2010, pp. 29–35 for an overview of central theories and hypotheses in the context of TEYL), this section focuses on some of the most important SLA theories and evidence – without any claim of completeness. We will draw on the recent overview of evidence-based SLA research (although not aimed at TEYL specifically, see Lethaby et al., 2021, pp. 59–86) and then provide a short insight into a neurobiological perspective (cf. Böttger, 2020c, pp. 32–36).

Before examining research into SLA and its implications for primary education, it is crucial to consider the factor of age. According to Piaget's outline of children's stages of development, learners aged seven to eleven years of age find themselves in the concrete operational stage. Within this stage, children learn to apply logical reasoning, yet without being able to generalise their understanding or achieving formal logic (cf. Pinter, 2017, p. 7). Only in the final (fourth) formal operational stage, from the age of 11 years onwards, are children able to think beyond the immediate context in more abstract ways and carry out deductive reasoning systematically (Pinter, 2017, p. 7). This is, among other reasons, why learners profit from increasingly more complex tasks as they get older. Despite some criticism of Piaget's stages (Pinter, 2017, pp. 8–10), which notes that the proposed stages are "less rigid and perhaps less deterministic" (Pinter, 2017, p. 9), teachers need to develop an awareness of the fact that age is a determining

factor in the teaching of English. Against this background, the role of input within the context of SLA provides a suitable starting point for exploring influential SLA theories.

Generally speaking, SLA theories and research largely revolve around the role of input, output and interaction, the use of different forms of practice, chunks, and explicit teaching (cf. Lethaby et al., 2021, p. 60–62). Crucially, learners do not only need rich and comprehensible input, but they must also be given opportunities to produce language and interact – arguments situated within the output hypothesis and the interaction hypothesis (cf. Lethaby et al., 2021, p. 60–62). Due to learners' young age in primary schools, input (in the form of oral or written language) plays an especially significant role (cf. Shin et al., 2021, pp. 48–51). The need to expose learners to comprehensible and rich input is not only a common claim today but also a substantial component of SLA theories supported by research (Lethaby et al., 2021, 59–60). One of the most influential hypotheses developed for SLA worldwide are Stephen Krashen's (1982) five hypotheses; these are as follows:

1. **Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis:** There are two ways of developing competence in a foreign language: 1) acquisition, a subconscious process, which is identical to a child's acquisition of the mother tongue, and 2) learning, a conscious process, is based on the existence of language knowledge. Thus, the conscious consideration of rules is the difference between first and second language acquisition.
2. **Natural Order Hypothesis:** The acquisition of language rules occurs in a natural way (natural order), as in the case of children acquiring their L1, but not in the order prescribed by structured curricula.
3. **Monitor Hypothesis:** Learning rules (explicit learning) does not foster language acquisition but only helps speakers to monitor their language production.
4. **Input Hypothesis:** The acquisition of a language depends on the linguistic input (non-/comprehensible input). Speaking is a consequence of acquisition and not its cause. If there is enough input and it is understood (expressed in the formula 'input + 1', i.e. containing structures slightly above the acquirer's current level), the

grammatical rules are acquired independently. Accordingly, languages cannot be taught directly.

5. **Affective Filter Hypothesis:** Certain attitudinal variables (e.g. related to motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety) act as barriers or filters that can prevent input from language acquisition. Depending on the intensity of the filters (high or low), speech processing is possible or impossible.

Concerning the Natural Order Hypothesis (see above), Pienemann's teachability hypothesis offers an insight into the order in which learners acquire certain grammatical items. This, for instance, applies to the ways in which learners acquire the structure of questions. Starting with one-word responses, learners move through a sequence of stages until they are able to say more complex sentences, such as questions in the simple past (Pienemann et al., 2006, p. 36). The "teachability" of language elements therefore plays a key role in the teaching of foreign languages. As Lethaby et al. (2021) sum up, "teaching certain forms only works if learners are ready" (p. 66). For primary school teachers, an awareness of the teachability hypothesis can thus help them understand SLA processes better and be patient with their learners.

Despite the prominence and influence of Krashen's hypotheses, these have also been subject to criticism. Whereas the importance of creating a pleasant atmosphere, for instance, has been further empirically confirmed (cf. Gudjons, 2006), it is acknowledged today that input alone in an institutionalised EFL setting is insufficient and that learners not only acquire a language subconsciously but "they also consciously memorize and reflect on language" (Grimm et al., 2015, p. 45). A knowledge gap remains between the linguistic input, the reception of language as a pattern for further processing, and the conscious production of language, the output. Also, determining the individual real speech reception and processing, the intake, is a challenge for SLA research. As such, Krashen's hypotheses must be supplemented by further findings (Böttger, 2020c, pp. 23–24).

Interlanguage theories and the interlanguage hypothesis (cf. Selinker, 1972) also play a major role in primary ELE. The term *interlanguage* refers

to a linguistic system used and developed by learners in the process of learning a foreign language – thus often involving the incorporation of aspects from learners' 'native' or first language(s). Hence the interlanguage is transitional and individually different among learners. The achieved state of 'near-nativeness' forms the greatest possible language acquisition success. In a learner language analysis, it is mainly competence errors that indicate the status of the interlanguage, not performance errors, i.e. mistakes. Examples of such competence errors are approximations (e.g. he go*ed home), fossilizations (e.g. *handy), overgeneralizations (e.g. children*s), interferences (e.g. the woman *became twins) and simplifications of language in order to avoid mistakes (Böttger, 2020b, pp. 44–46). According to Selinker (1972), successful second language acquisition, also on the primary level, mainly consists of reorganizing the linguistic material of the interlanguage in order to take it closer to the target language. Such an approximation requires permanent (positive) feedback about the status of the interlanguage so that the approximation hypothesis can be checked by the learners themselves and by their teachers. For teaching practice, this therefore highlights the need for continuously assessing learners' competence levels, for instance, through diagnostic (self-)assessment grids offered by the Common European Framework of References (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 26–27). Setting up and testing hypotheses – like children do while acquiring their mother tongue – is a central, predominantly unconscious process of second language acquisition.

A further theory that plays a role when focussing on TEYL is connectionism (cf. Böttger, 2020b, pp. 18–19). Connectionism tries to explain language acquisition, especially SLA, with mental representations and information processing in neural networks. Such connections are strengthened as linguistic experiences and their repetitions are processed. The well-proven plasticity of the neuronal connectome, the brain, especially during first language acquisition, which is also still present at the beginning of foreign language acquisition and beyond, remains throughout the whole life span. In contrast to the linearity of behaviourism, connectionism assumes that some mental processes, such as language acquisition, can take place in parallel or simultaneously, but not hierarchically, and that linguistic knowledge is distributed across the

different neural connections. This, for example, means that the development of a linear (foreign) language structure, i.e. a fixed sequence of grammatical structures, is not realistic in primary school. At a young age, language tends to develop in a network-like connective manner, for example, in wordwebs or thematically dense contexts. An example would be the mental storage of the words *cow* and *hen* in the context of the topic "farm animals", or *brother* and *uncle* in the word field "me and my family and friends" (cf. Böttger, 2016, p. 101).

In addition to the selected theoretical positions discussed above, various factors have an impact on the development of foreign language proficiency. Psychological prerequisites for learning can be listed as follows: age (as discussed above), the group of learners and the learning atmosphere, memory, motivation, personality traits, learner types, language aptitude, language awareness, and multilingualism (Böttger, 2020b, pp. 22–31). These aspects determine the heterogeneity of a learner group and can have a great impact on how learners acquire and learn a foreign language.

Judging by their preconditions, young learners can learn multiple languages and they seem to do so rather well. As children acquire their first (second, third, etc.) language(s) while growing up at home and in institutionalised care such as kindergartens, they are well equipped with a basic competence of cognitive control (Böttger, 2016, p. 74), which manifests itself in several areas of cognitive potential (cf. Festman, 2022, pp. 74–91). In short, this means that they are indeed able to formulate sentences freely and correct themselves at the age of roughly eight – the age around which learners typically start to learn English in German primary schools.

 Whereas children living outside of English-speaking countries will probably have encountered the English language as a lingua franca or different varieties of Global Englishes in pop culture and on the Internet – for example, while singing along to their favourite song or while surfing online or playing (video) games, most young children will probably not have had much practice using the English language. The structured EFL lessons at school can therefore offer learners opportunities to develop

basic competences. The advantages of English instruction at school are that language learning materials are pre-selected, structured, and designed to develop specific competencies, which can help learners integrate newly acquired items (Böttger, 2020a, p. 11).

Children within the same age group can show several similar traits. Various researchers have looked into the differences between the characteristics of younger and older learners. Based on such outlines (Pinter, 2017, p. 3; Brewster et al., 2002, pp. 27–34), Table 3 provides an overview of a few basic key differences between younger and older learners.

Younger learners	Older learners
They enjoy	
• fantasy, imagination, movement, topics related to their lives	• topics related to their lives and influenced by pop/media culture
They are good at	
• implicit learning (without conscious awareness)	• explicit learning (with conscious awareness)
They need	
• a lot of comprehensible input, including semi-authentic and authentic input • stories and tales, picturebooks, audio input • a great variety of different activities, including movement-based, playful, and creative activities	• comprehensible and increasingly more complex 'authentic' input • increasingly more complex multimodal input (or more complex tasks) • a variety of different activities, including movement-based, creative, increasingly complex and problem-solving tasks

Table 3: Key differences between younger and older learners

Evidently, this is a simplified generalisation, however, and we must consider that, as Pinter (2017, p. 2) notes, "every child is unique, and even

in the same context, there are often significant differences between children within the same age range." Nonetheless, Table 3 indicates some specific needs of younger as opposed to older learners that future English teachers should be aware of so that they can adapt their teaching accordingly. This does not mean, however, that certain activities or texts are only suitable for younger learners. As concerns the use of picturebooks (as one example of 'authentic' multimodal texts), for example, this text format offers various learning opportunities for older learners as well (Alter & Merse, in press).

4. Teaching young learners: A neuroscientific perspective

The basic structure of the brain is built over time, starting before birth and continuing into adulthood. Early positive as well as negative experiences can affect the quality of that structure. Therefore, positive language experiences, for instance, almost automatically lead to the development of positive language mindsets and language predispositions. The young brain's ability to change and adapt as a result of experience is called neuroplasticity, also known as brain plasticity. During the first few years of life, over a million new neural connections are made each second. Connections proliferate and prune in, with later, more complex brain circuits built upon earlier, simpler circuits. They scaffold the next stage of development, as shown in Figure 1, which proceeds as follows:

(1) sensory neural pathways (vision and hearing),
(2) early language skills (listening comprehension and speaking), and
(3) high cognitive functions (deciding, evaluating, planning, also literacy).

The neural connections then steadily decrease in number and speed of the connection. Importantly, the various language-related capacities of the brain are interrelated. They are the building blocks of human language development.
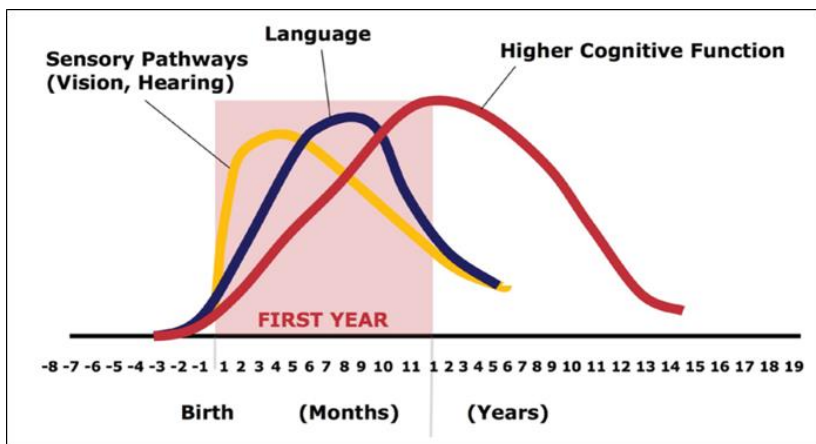
Figure 1: Early brain development: Neural connections for different functions (Nelson, 2000)

As the brain ages, it becomes more specialized in its tasks. Depending on the relevance of the tasks and the frequency of usage, the motto 'use it or lose it' prevails. This also includes cognitive functions, which makes the brain less able to adapt to new situations and changes. Early in life, parts of the brain that handle sounds become specialized for a particular language. At the same time, it loses its ability to identify different sounds in other languages. Although the windows for language learning and improving language skills remain open, these circuits become harder to alter over time. These circumstances clearly speak for learning a language as early as possible, at best even in pre-school age.

When children start school at the age of five or six, their brains are well prepared for language acquisition and processing. At this time, the child's brain has normally had many language experiences already, mostly in its mother tongue and possibly further languages and related varieties or dialects, and can draw on them.

A further crucial aspect is the interconnection between teacher and young (language) learner: This specific relationship during the early stages of foreign language learning in primary schools is a key factor for successful language development, for kids naturally reach for interaction through

their mouths and facial expressions. The absence of these expressions and responses during the early stages of development can – worst scenario – lead to disparities in language learning (Böttger, 2016, p. 63). In addition to considering the special capacity of children's brains for (foreign) language learning in primary school, further principles of TEYL can help make the experience of English language learning as motivating and as effective as possible – as outlined below.

5. From principles of TEYL to a principled mindset

Principles for teaching generally aim to support teachers in becoming professional practitioners and ensuring that teaching practices follow a sound theoretical, ideally also empirically validated, basis. This section provides an overview of two sets of principles developed by different researchers: 1) an outline of six core principles for exemplary teaching of English learners developed by a group of researchers from the international association TESOL (Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Language, Shin et al., 2021) and 2) nine principles put forward by Daniela Elsner for primary school education that are widely known across Germany (Elsner, 2020). An examination of these principles then leads to an outline of what we call "a principled mindset". This complies with the current understanding of the postmethod concept, which is "willing to explore alternatives to method rather than taking the failed path of finding alternative methods" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 214). In other words, the postmethod condition supports educators in making informed and principled choices for teaching practices – for which we suggest a principled mindset as the fundamental basis for TEYL.

The six core principles developed by an international team of language teaching experts take into account the importance of high-quality teaching by professionals (see Table 4). According to Shin et al. (2021), teachers need to make well-informed decisions in practice and foster foreign language proficiency development appropriately and effectively.

Core principles	Explanation
1) Know your learners	Teachers learn basic information about their learners (family, linguistic/cultural background, etc.).
2) Create conditions for language learning	Teachers create a positive classroom atmosphere and culture, making sure learners feel welcome.
3) Design high-quality lessons for language development	Teachers develop meaningful and goal-oriented lessons that promote the development of foreign language proficiency, learning strategies and critical thinking.
4) Adapt lesson delivery as needed	Teachers assess as they teach and reflect on learners' responses, and continuously adjust their lessons.
5) Monitor & assess student language development	Teachers monitor and assess learners' development in order to advance their learning efficiently.
6) Engage & collaborate within a community of practice	Teachers collaborate with others and support each other and their learners; they continue their professional learning.

Table 4: Six principles for exemplary teaching of English (adapted from Shin et al. 2021, p. 6)

What is more, their core principles, which are research-based, "are grounded on a strong commitment to children living in our multilingual, multimodal world where English continues to be a global language of opportunity for the future of our young learners" (Shin et al., 2021, p. 6). Accordingly, the six principles (see Table 4) rest on four foundations:

1) commitment to children,
2) recognition of English as a global language,
3) commitment to a multilingual world, and
4) integration of multiliteracies (Shin et al., 2021, p. 7).

A well-known list of principles in Germany is Elsner's list of nine principles. By taking into consideration how young learners learn English, these principles offer a valuable guideline for English educators at primary school (see Table 5).

Principles	Explanation
1) Active learning and a focus on tasks	Learners should get actively involved in the learning process. Tasks should be integrated that are meaningful, goal-oriented, interactive, and provide room for creativity.
2) Playful learning	Language practice should include playful elements (e.g. in the warm-up phase) with a clear goal.
3) Collaborative and cooperative learning	Learners should be encouraged to act in a team so that they can create an outcome in a group in which every group member is given a specific role (e.g. Think – Pair – Share).
4) Functional monolingualism	English lessons should take place in English right from the start by establishing routines. The L1 should be used in certain situations (e.g. to explain complex task instructions, to talk about rules and mistakes, in reflection phases).
5) Cautious error correction	The creation of a pleasant learning atmosphere is crucial, and rather than correcting errors right away, teachers should draw conclusions about learners' stage of learning.
6) Repetition	Teachers should provide many opportunities for learners to repeat language in new contexts.
7) Authenticity	Teachers should use authentic texts (e.g. songs, stories, blogs, chat messages). Teachers should foster authentic language use by creating authentic communicative situations.
8) Learner-orientation	Teachers should offer a variety of different activities, tasks, and learning arrangements and consider gender-specific interests.
9) Inclusion	Differentiated instruction is essential as well as the provision of visualisation.

Table 5: Principles of primary ELE (adapted from Elsner, 2020, pp. 18–37)

Synthesising the two sets of principles outlined above, we suggest four basic components of a principled mindset for (novice) primary school English teachers as well as teachers of young learners in general (see Table 6). These four components primarily aim to support pre-service and

novice teachers in the establishment of a mental network that encourages them to relate theory and research while developing making goal-oriented and principled decisions for teaching practice.

Principle	Explanation
1) Rituals & repetitions	Teachers establish a set of English-speaking routines in the classroom and provide opportunities for plenty of repetitions.
2) Cultures & authenticity	Teachers develop tasks and lesson plans in authentic contexts to provide opportunities for inter- and transcultural learning.
3) Cooperation and collaboration	Teachers initiate cooperative learning in the classroom (e.g. through pair/group work) and cooperate or collaborate with colleagues within the school and beyond – for the purpose of professional development.
4) Playing & experimenting	Teachers provide opportunities for goal-oriented playful language engagement and use while also experimenting with new ways of teaching and learning and offering (corrective) feedback.

Table 6: TEYL: A principled mindset

Thus, it can be seen as a first impulse for, using Shin et al.'s words, "exemplary teaching" (2021, p. 6). The first principle underlying the principled mindset is especially crucial because it can help classroom management also in terms of managing a class of young learners who are only just beginning to learn English as a foreign language.

In addition to establishing a set of routines, also outside regular English lessons (see Meyer in this volume), repetitions are crucial. This, however, does not imply decontextualized drilling but rather refers to the importance of recycling language in meaningful tasks and using repetitive literary texts.

Julia Donaldson's rhythmical, engaging and (partly) repetitive writing is famous in that regard; and it is highly likely that learners will have encountered *The Gruffalo* (Donaldson & Scheffler, 1999) in their native

language(s) in kindergarten, to give but one well-known example. Recognising the importance of providing learners with texts and tasks that offer opportunities for intercultural (or transcultural) learning is the second feature of a principles mindset. Brunsmeier's (2016; 2017) study on the development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in primary education provides a starting point for this. Her outline of guiding questions offers a systematic approach for developing tasks that aim to foster ICC (cf. Brunsmeier, 2016, pp. 318–325). An example of the domain attitudes is "Do the tasks enable learners to deal with their own and other cultures (i.e. cultural practices) from different perspectives?" (Brunsmeier, 2016, p. 318, own translation). Third, cooperation is crucial: among learners in the classroom who may work cooperatively on a task to further various competences (see section 6) and among teachers who may engage in reflective practice while observing each other in action. The latter is highlighted by Shin et al., who suggest a (self- or peer) reflection by considering three questions: (1) What did my colleague (or I) do?, (2) How did it go?, and (3) What did we both (I) learn? (Shin et al., 2021, p. 78). Finally, the playful engagement with language use of young learners is crucial, as is teachers' willingness and openness to experiment with a wide variety of teaching methods and activities. In different steps of a lesson, the warm-up, for instance, teachers can promote language practice through brainstorming, talking about pictures or videos, Think-Pair-Share, and playing games like hangman or charades (cf. Shin et al., 2021, p. 55).

Overall, a principled mindset, in which English teachers establish routines and repeat language items within culturally 'authentic' settings while offering opportunities for cooperation and collaboration, provides a basis for initiating competence development in English lessons, as outlined below.

6. Competence development

6.1 Competence domains of ELE

The main objective of English language teachers is the development of various competences. In Germany, educational standards comprise three main competence domains: functional communicative, intercultural, and methodological competences (KMK, 2004; also in Böttger, 2020b, p. 61). The former subsumes communicative skills and language elements, as shown in Figure 2. Consequently, teaching practices should foster these competences. A further way of describing skills or competences is presented by the Council of Europe (2018) in their *Companion Volume with New Descriptors*. Four modes of communication are listed, i.e. reception, production, interaction, and mediation – thus used as umbrella terms and moving away from a description of the traditional skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing). In current curricular guidelines in Germany, however, these descriptors are not (yet) integrated.

Communicative skills	Language elements	Intercultural competences	Methodological competences
• listening, viewing / audio-visual comprehension • reading • speaking • writing • mediation	• vocabulary / lexis • grammar • pronunciation, intonation • orthography	• intercultural communicative competence • cultural knowledge and awareness • transcultural competence	• strategic competence • media competence / digital literacy

Figure 2: Competence domains of ELT (based on KMK, 2004)

Moreover, a crucial competence domain today is the development of media literacy and digital competence. In a world that is becoming increasingly digitalized, learners need to become digitally competent so that they can, for instance, successfully take part in digital communication practices, critically reflect on the content of digital texts, and (re-)design digital content. Such skills are listed in Shin and Crandall's outline of "21st Century Skills" (in reference to the U.S. educational organisation that developed the "P21", i.e. "The Partnership for 21st Century Skills" in

2011), and they comprise three sets of skills: (1) learning and innovation skills, (2) digital literacy skills, and (3) career and life skills (Shin & Crandall, 2014, p. 327). A more prominent framework today that offers a detailed description of digital competence for education across Europe is the *European Digital Competence Framework for Citizens* (also referred to as DigComp). It includes five main competence areas: (1) information and data literacy, (2) digital communication and collaboration, (3) digital content creation, (4) safety, and (5) problem solving (Vuorikari et al., 2016, pp. 8–9; adapted for German educational guidelines, see KMK, 2016). The development of digital competence also plays a key role for teachers. As Dausend (2021) highlights, for example, if teachers develop an awareness of the opportunities and limitations of digital media, lessons can offer a greater variety of learning formats (p. 170).

Among young learners, the development of digital competence can take all sorts of forms and, most importantly, it can be integrated into everyday English language lessons. To enable learners to engage in digital communication and collaboration (domain 2 of the DigComp), for instance, teachers can make video calls with a class in another country, have basic conversations or sing songs together (Shin & Crandall, 2014, p. 341); learners could engage in dialogic interaction with an expert from an English-speaking country when dealing with a specific topic (Dausend, 2021, p. 177); further options are blogging and collaborative writing projects in which learners interact with a class abroad (Kolb, 2018).

In addition to the language-based competence domains and digital competence, general educational goals also play a key role in TEYL. These relate to cross-curricular and interdisciplinary aims, which include the area of education for sustainable development (ESD). ESD aims to stimulate "critical and systemic thinking, collaborative decision-making, and taking responsibility for present and future generations" (UNESCO, 2014, p. 12). Through transforming themselves and the society they live in, learners should be empowered to become "global citizens" (UNESCO, 2014, p. 12). Although the complexity of critical issues related to ESD, such as climate change may at first glance pose challenges for integrating general educational goals into TEYL, interdisciplinary measures and digital picturebooks or audio-visual texts (Summer, 2022) can provide

opportunities for combining the development of language-based and general educational goals (see Zirkel in this volume).

Whereas a description and discussion of each competence domain would go beyond the scope of this contribution, it is important to comment on the role of primary education in fostering language-based competencies. First, not only receptive skills such as listening and audio-visual comprehension play a key role, but also productive skills such as speaking and writing can be integrated into primary classrooms (see Reckermann and Ritter in this volume). The development of communicative competence requires extensive and continuous exposure to language, a variety of tasks, opportunities for imitation (e.g. through songs and stories), and opportunities for physical movement for young learners (Krkgöz, 2018, pp. 174–175). Importantly, reading and writing are dynamic and interactive processes that learners do not acquire naturally and thus require skills and strategies so that learners can make meaning from printed texts (Shin & Crandall, 2018, p. 188). That is why, for reading, Shin & Crandall recommend the To/With/By approach in which the teacher first reads "To" students (e.g. read-alouds), then "With" students (e.g. by sharing a big book), and then "By" students (e.g. in collaborative projects) (Shin & Crandall, 2018, p. 199).

The development of language systems – especially the learning of important chunks (cf. Lethaby et al., 2021, pp. 67–69) – plays a key role in TEYL. Defined as multi-word items such as in "to ride a bike" or "to take a picture", chunks are vital for building functional vocabulary among young learners so that they can use "ready-made phrases [...] to express meaning" (Haestræt, 2018, p. 224), thus helping them become more fluent speakers of English. Providing learners with many opportunities for listening to, noticing, or playfully practising chunks, can thus be a good starting point for fostering competence development. Importantly, a focus on chunks in TEYL can also allow teachers to feel more relaxed about including grammatical structures that are not (yet) intended to be taught in primary school but potentially necessary for certain communicative situations. If, for instance, learners wish to tell their teacher in English about their birthday party, "had a party" can be taught

as a chunk without having to discuss the formation of irregular verb forms or explicitly introducing the simple past.

The development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) subsumes knowledge, skills (of interpreting and discovering the foreign culture as well as interacting with it), attitudes (relativizing oneself and valuing others), and critical cultural awareness (Byram, 1997). Real-life products and artefacts from other cultures, such as picturebooks and films, can tell stories from the worlds of others and introduce learners to new perspectives on everyday life issues such as daily routines, the food we eat, what we do in our spare time, and how we interact with our family and friends. A challenge for teaching practice in primary schools, however, is the lack of materials and straight-forward concepts that help teachers put ICC into practice. In her study investigating teachers' understanding of ICC in primary school teaching through teacher interviews, Brunsmeier found that "they [teachers] were not sure about what ICC involved and that they did not share a common understanding of what ICC was" (2017, p. 148). She furthermore identified that ICC is "not consistently put into practice" (Brunsmeier, 2017, p. 152). This is but one example that illustrates the complexities involved in putting theory into practice – especially concerning the development of ICC in primary education.

In recent years, there has been a shift in scholarly discussions from inter- to transcultural competence (e.g. Delanoy, 2013). The underlying concept of transcultural learning promotes an understanding of culture that goes beyond fixed categories of cultures – for instance, the Germans vs. the Americans, and is characterised by cultural overlaps and interconnections focusing on cultural hybridity at the level of individuals (Kreft, 2020, p. 30). For teaching practice, teachers' knowledge of these two concepts is essential so that they can deal with the cultural heterogeneity of their class effectively and teach them to embrace all cultures while, at the same time, enabling learners to become aware of cultural stereotypes, certain (cultural) differences, and similarities. This can be done by exploring communicative topics and identifying individual aspects that may (or may not) be grounded in cultural differences. One of the great advantages of primary school English teachers is their didactical and pedagogical

freedom in terms of the topics they choose for their lessons, for most curricula provide exactly that. As such, teachers can choose from a great variety of topics that, as Elsner (2020, p. 16) emphasises, should be child-friendly and focus on content such as animals, food and drink, school, my home, family and friends, shopping, daily and yearly events, and learners' interests. Combining elements of inter- and transcultural learning while dealing with such topics in learner-centred tasks is a valuable option for engaging teaching practice.

6.2 Practical example: A picturebook for transcultural learning

To give an example of transcultural learning, this section focuses on a picturebook suggested by Kreft (2020) in primary ELE titled *The Wall in the Middle of the Book* by the American writer and illustrator Jon Agee (2018). The story presents a young knight who is protecting his side of the wall from dangers shown on the other side: a rhino and a tiger, a monkey and a mouse, and, eventually, an ogre – all of which successively enter the 'other' side of the wall shown on the double-page spread. Describing how the knight is convinced that the high wall in the middle protects him from the dangers on the other side, he overlooks the fact that the dangers on his side are increasing due to flooding and wild animals that start to appear. The book excerpt (see Figure 3) shows his bewilderment when he turns around and realises that he might be about to drown as the water continues to rise. Luckily, the ogre on the other side of the wall seems to realise what is going on and rescues the knight by reaching his hand over the wall and pulling him out of the water. When the ogre saves him, the knight exclaims "OH NO! I'm on the other side of the book", stating that he thinks the ogre will eat him up, who then responds: "Haw-haw-haw! I'm actually a nice ogre. And this side of the book is fantastic!" (Agee, 2018). The ogre then shows him around (while the animals on the knight's side of the wall eat each other up), and the knight eventually realises that his fears were unjustified or, in fact, prejudices. A (mostly) happy ending is presented, showing the knight riding on the rhino with (almost) everyone united and looking very cheerful; except for the mouse: It is shown on the final double page all alone.

Kreft (2018) considers this picturebook especially suitable for developing transcultural competence because it focuses on overarching aspects such as overcoming prejudices and developing trust rather than focusing on categories of nation, religion, and gender. As such, rather than dealing with cultural differences and stereotypical depictions of different nations or people, picturebooks such as these provide an opportunity for learners to establish common values such as helping each other (rather than excluding one another) and embracing diversity – thus, for instance, seeing physical differences such as size and abilities as resources rather than as potential dangers. Thanks to the ogre's size, he was able to reach across the wall and quickly save the knight. At the same time, teachers can encourage learners to relate to the perspectives of others in this book when telling the story by asking questions related to the story: 'How does X (the knight, the ogre, the mouse) feel?' (e.g. happy, sad, scared) – thus combining language work with developing transcultural competence. Additionally, the picturebook is available on YouTube as an animated 1-minute book trailer (Penguin Kids, 2018) as well as several read-alouds – opening up opportunities for fostering digital competence.
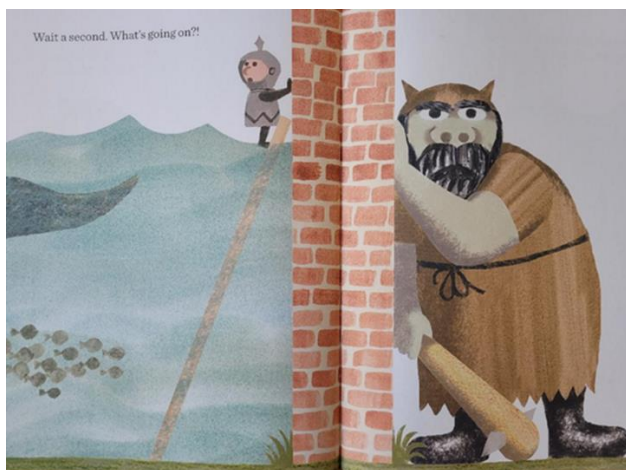

Figure 3: Excerpt: *The Wall in the Middle of the Book* **by Jon Agee (2018)**

Keeping in mind the importance of goal-oriented TEYL in which various competence domains receive attention, the following section presents an

overview of central teaching materials for TEYL while focusing on the importance of authentic texts, scaffolding, and literary texts.

7. Working with materials in primary education

7.1 The importance of 'authentic' texts and scaffolding

Teaching materials play a key role in TEYL – both in task development and providing learners with high-quality and comprehensible input. As concerns terminology, there is a fine line between the term *materials* and *media*. The term *media* commonly refers to a specific mode of delivery, such as audio-visual media (e.g. films) or digital media (e.g. edu-apps). The term *materials* subsumes different resources such as worksheets, flashcards, etc. A textbook, for instance, could be described in terms of its mode of delivery (a print medium or a digital medium), and it could also be considered a resource, i.e. teaching material. Teaching materials, generally speaking, thus include any sort of text (in the broad sense) or activity that supports the development of foreign language proficiency. Course materials include (print or digital) textbooks and other textbook-accompanying items like workbooks, the teacher's book, and additional digital and audio-visual media such as films and interactive activities. Authentic materials, for instance, include nursery rhymes, YouTube shorts, poems, picturebooks, songs, chat messages, blog posts, podcasts, and story apps. The issue of authenticity, however, is more complex than it may initially seem, and features of the verbal and visual text can determine a text's degree of authenticity; and what also matters is how learners authenticate a text (e.g. see the "acts of authenticity" approach by Moody, 2021). What is more, authenticity by itself is not a valid selection criterion for texts suitable for TEYL.

As concerns the feature of authenticity, this plays a key role due to the importance of dealing with examples of authentic and comprehensible language use in an authentic cultural context. An important aspect is the creation of authentic communicative situations in which learners can engage in meaningful discourse by exploring topics relevant to their lives (e.g. family, hobbies, pets, holidays) (Elsner, 2010, p. 68–69). Against this background, the job of English primary school teachers today is not only

the development of motivating, engaging, and goal-oriented materials. Considering the fact that English teachers have various other tasks to fulfil, it is advisable for teachers to use resources from publishers designed specifically for their school type and curricular guidelines. At the same time, however, it is important for educators to critically analyse the quality of texts and activities (Legutke et al., 2014, pp. 114–120). In that way, teachers can tweak, modify, and supplement content in textbooks. In addition, using engaging materials such as short clips or songs throughout a school year is advisable not only because of their high motivational capacity but also because of the different perspectives authentic sources can provide for learners of English (Summer, in prep). To give an example, "ABC" by The Jackson 5 (1970) provides opportunities for teaching the *abc* and numbers while training selective listening for basic chunks (e.g. "sit down", "get up", "shake it"). Furthermore, several current pop stars, such as the Australian singer-songwriter Lenka or the American Bruno Mars, have released songs whose English is comprehensible – potentially also for younger learners.

In addition to authentic or non-pedagogic materials, published ELT resources such as textbooks and workbooks evidently play a key role because they can greatly support the teaching and learning process. Teachers' use of textbooks significantly differs, ranging from those that "painstakingly do all the texts, activities, tasks, and exercises" to those who rely on authentic materials and activities they collected or designed themselves (Legutke et al., 2014, p. 113). For future teachers of English, it seems advisable to take on a balanced approach and use published materials, develop task sequences on current topics, and collaborate with colleagues to continuously extend one's teaching materials.

One central element of materials and task development for TEYL is scaffolding. Providing learners with *scaffolds* or *scaffolding* is important to give young learners the support necessary to complete an activity and engage in basic communication. Scaffolding refers to the provision of help in a systematic manner – "an instructional strategy which ensures that the child can gain confidence and take control of the task [...] as soon as they are willing and able to" (Pinter, 2017, p. 11). In the TEYL context, the following examples of scaffolding techniques can be useful: Routines

can provide a form of scaffolding by helping learners acquire basic communicative competence (e.g. saying the date in English, for further examples, see Meyer in this volume); also, from the perspective of teaching methodology, routines can act as a form of process scaffolding by teaching learners how to carry out a specific activity. Classroom phrases also play a key role here and can act as important scaffolds in TEYL, as discussed below.

7.2 The importance of classroom phrases

The ability to monitor a group of children is a prerequisite for classroom management and teaching. In foreign language education, this is especially important because the time for learning English in primary school, usually no more than roughly two hours of instruction per week, is short, and teachers need to be creative and find many opportunities for engaging learners in English language use during their school time so that no time is wasted on the unpopular phrase "In English, please!" or "Could you say that in English, please?". Furthermore, as children are usually "ruled by their own immediate needs and desires, which usually do not include learning a foreign language" (Shin & Crandall, 2014, p. 289), classroom management is crucial. Creating an environment in which English is spoken is absolutely essential, and this, as Elsner also highlights, must not cause teachers to switch to German when dealing with organisational issues or managing the class (Elsner, 2021, p. 99). As such, managing the language use in the classroom is crucial, and for this, classroom phrases can provide excellent scaffolding for learners.

Classroom discourse, described as the language of teaching and learning in English (Böttger, 2020b, p. 149), is central to establishing an appropriate focus on the target language. To help teachers and learners engage with the target language in the classroom, it is advisable to introduce and practise classroom phrases in the classroom from the very start. There are various ways in which classroom talk can be categorised (see, for instance, Doms, 2014, p. 21) and practising teachers have provided useful lists of classroom phrases for teachers (for a list developed mostly for secondary teaching, see King, 2020). Figure 4 provides an

overview of some basic classroom phrases – both for learners and teachers in a TEYL setting.

If learners are familiar with classroom phrases and basic dialogues, have practised these and can use them in context, teachers and the class can profit from this enormously as it facilitates classroom management and encourages learners to speak the target language. This cannot only help the transition to secondary school in which the use of English in the EFL classroom is highly important (see Bastkowski in this volume). What is more, it is a prerequisite for introducing and dealing with literary texts in the classroom.
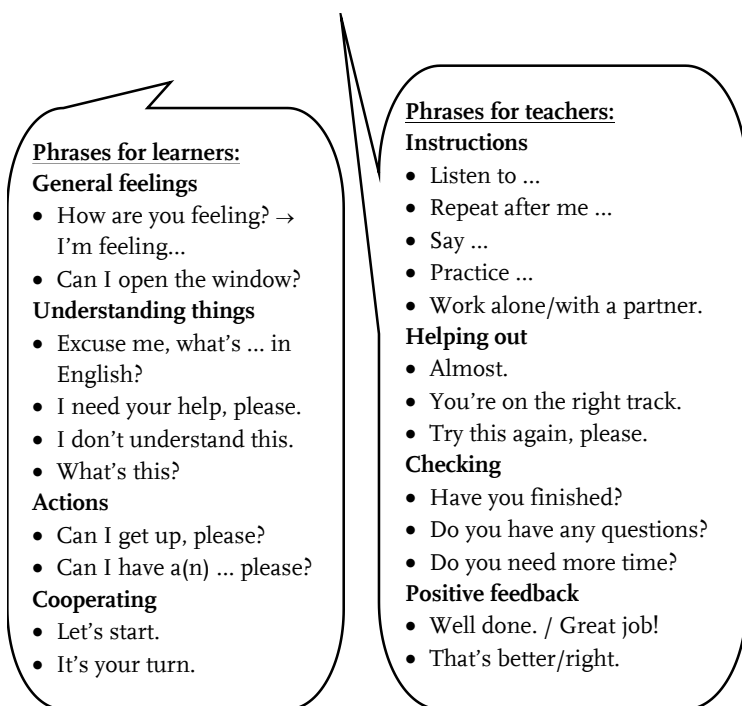
Phrases for learners:
General feelings
- How are you feeling? →
  I'm feeling...
- Can I open the window?
Understanding things
- Excuse me, what's ... in English?
- I need your help, please.
- I don't understand this.
- What's this?
Actions
- Can I get up, please?
- Can I have a(n) ... please?
Cooperating
- Let's start.
- It's your turn.

Phrases for teachers:
Instructions
- Listen to ...
- Repeat after me ...
- Say ...
- Practice ...
- Work alone/with a partner.
Helping out
- Almost.
- You're on the right track.
- Try this again, please.
Checking
- Have you finished?
- Do you have any questions?
- Do you need more time?
Positive feedback
- Well done. / Great job!
- That's better/right.

Figure 4: Classroom phrases for primary education

7.3 The importance of literature

Learners' failures at secondary school level and beyond, particularly with regard to language development, can frequently be traced back to failures at primary school when focusing on writing and reading, especially when learning tasks and learning materials increasingly change from "learning to read" (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2008, p. 1330) towards "reading to learn". Reading difficulties are typically linked to poor visual processing or perception skills. A variety of factors can be the cause, such as poor eye coordination and teaming, visual tracking and focusing, for instance, on letters. The gaze span development also plays a role (cf. Böttger, 2016, p. 134): The unread areas become larger with systematic practice and can then be deduced from the word context and the reading and language experience. This is a precondition for a smooth reading process. What is more, there is a largely ignored gender gap: The early different neuronal myelination in girls and boys with different margins in the literacy development of up to three years highlights the absolute necessity of targeted differentiation concerning literacy development (cf. Böttger, 2016, p. 100).

As a result, early intervention is necessary. Writing and reading courses, as well as dealing with literature in general in native and foreign languages – if at all available on primary level – must therefore be reconsidered and restructured. As such, in her paper "More Teacher Education and More Children's Literature!" (2019), Bland rightly makes a case for integrating high-quality input into young learner classrooms, developing teacher expertise in dealing with literary texts, and including broader educational goals into lesson plans that go beyond the learning of colours or basic nouns. By sharing stories from different cultural backgrounds, fostering inter- and transcultural competences as well as initiating critical thinking, numerous benefits of working with literary texts can be outsourced in practice. The affordances of using picturebooks (often also referred to as storybooks), thereby, are far-reaching. Picturebooks can contribute to young learners' cognitive and cultural as well as their aesthetic and emotional development (Mourão, 2015). Not only are they motivating and enjoyable, but they can also "act as a

springboard for a wide variety of related language and learning activities" (Ellis & Brewster, 2014, p. 6).

In TEYL, picturebooks offer manifold opportunities for competence development: Learners can listen to a story read aloud by the teacher in a reading circle, they can respond with short sentences and thus develop speaking competence, and get creative in a post-reading phase (see Zirkel in this volume). What is more, not only print picturebooks, but also digital picturebooks such as storyapps can foster language-related competences as well as media literacy (Brunsmeier & Kolb, 2017). This can include the effective use, reflection, and creation of media (Kolb, 2021). A positive development for TEYL is that digital picturebooks are becoming increasingly available for free online. Free eBooks (digital picturebooks) are available on Oxford Owl (https://www.oxfordowl.co.uk/) by Oxford University Press through which teachers and students can register free of charge and easily access digital texts. Also, YouTube offers various read-aloud videos that can be dealt with in the classroom or watched by learners at home. What is more, the PEPELT website (https://pepelt21.com) is a highly valuable resource for teachers by suggesting specific picturebooks and practical ideas.

8. Lesson planning

Teachers can plan English lessons or lesson sequences according to a range of different models. For competence-based teaching, a basic threefold structure can be a helpful tool for developing English lessons or lesson sequences among novice teachers. Focusing primarily on GTO – an acronym that stands for (1) goals, (2) topic, and (3) outcome, this structure provides a good starting point for competence-based English lessons, illustrated with some examples in Table 7.

G	1. Goals/ competences	What are the goals of my lesson or lesson sequence? Which competences are in focus? → e.g. speaking → can-do-statements such as *Learners can say short sentences about their families with the help of given chunks.*
T	2. Topic	Which topic is suitable for fostering the specific competence(s) in focus? → e.g. *families across the world*
O	3. Outcome	What is the visible result/product at the end of a lesson or lesson sequence? → e.g. *mini-presentations about families with the help of a lapbook*

Table 7: Basic competence-based lesson planning

After a consideration of GTO, which derives from the more detailed model of competence-based instruction (e.g. Hallet, 2012, p. 14), teachers can focus on more specific and more detailed components of the lesson or a lesson sequence. These include the required language systems (grammar, lexis, pronunciation and intonation, orthography), suitable tasks, input texts and media, interaction forms, time, means of differentiation, and options for documenting or assessing learner achievement. Such aspects are also commonly listed in navigation models for competence-based teaching (e.g. Elsner, 2020, p. 133). A systematic consideration of these aspects can help teachers to plan their English lessons according to a competence-based syllabus.

One key principle of lesson planning is differentiation. As children embody various emotional, physical, psychological, and social differences related to their age, sex and gender, learner type, intelligences and abilities, family situation, cultural experiences, attitudes to learning, willingness to learn, and social competencies (Eisenmann, 2019, p. 46), teachers need to take individual learner differences into account. Given the complexity of this requirement, the concept of differentiated instruction (DI) can offer a first guideline for responding to learner differences.

Examples of how to inform DI planning are the following four categories of guiding questions that can aid teachers' DI: (1) instructional strategies (e.g. Can I present material through different audio/visual media?), (2) learning environment (e.g. How do I create a welcoming environment?), (3) curriculum (e.g. Can I find ways to vary content by student interest?), and (4) student products (e.g. assessment, cooperative work, variation by skill level) (Sullivan & Weeks, 2018, p. 128). A consideration of some of these aspects during lesson plans can thus contribute to differentiated teaching and potentially help weaker learners, for instance, by getting additional help or by engaging less interested learners in a lesson sequence that offers a thematic choice when creating an outcome.

In addition to the guiding questions, core practices can help teachers adopt effective DI. Examples of such core practices are engaging students' understanding of key concepts (e.g. by using pictures), capitalising students' interests and knowledge (e.g. through learning strategies), using L1 for support, allowing flexible pacing (e.g. by waiting 10 seconds), incorporating cooperative learning, and providing scaffolding (Sullivan & Weeks, 2018, pp. 131–132). This list exemplifies previously discussed principles of primary ELE while also showcasing the complex nature of a primary English language teacher's job. Teaching English in primary schools is not just about singing rhymes, colouring in, and naming colours and pets in English. A well-structured, differentiated, and effective lesson plan that engages young learners by fostering an authentic interaction with the target language can set the fundamental basis for language proficiency.

9. Conclusion

If English educators at primary school succeed in turning primary ELT into a playful and experimental, therefore memorable and engaging experience – through goal-oriented, authentic, and playful tasks as well as the integration of literary texts such as picturebooks that invite young learners to enter new storyworlds and change their perspectives – children may remember and keep positive memories of their primary school English lessons for a whole lifetime. Furthermore, if their motivation and interest in the English language is maintained throughout secondary

school and a successful transition takes place (see Bastkowski in this volume), learners are more likely to become proficient in the target language and develop additional educational goals.

The principled mindset presented in this contribution aims to offer a sound theoretical basis for practical decision-making. Having discussed competence development, suitable teaching materials for TEYL and the importance of scaffolding – focusing particularly on the importance of establishing classroom phrases and using literary texts, and a basic way of approaching competence-based lesson planning, this contribution aims to help (pre-service) English teachers to further their professional competences so that they are able to design goal-oriented and purposeful tasks on the basis of a sound theoretical and empirically validated groundwork. To conclude, therefore, we would like to end with Elsner's recent and important call for a professional education of future primary school teachers: "It's the teacher who counts, also in elementary school English classes" (Elsner, 2021, p. 115, own translation).

References

Primary sources

Agee, Jon. 2018. *The Wall in the Middle of the Book*. New York, NY: Dial Books.

Donaldson, Julia; Scheffler, Axel. 1999. *The Gruffalo*, London: Macmillan.

Penguin Kids. 2018, 25 September. *Book Trailer: The Wall in the Middle of the Book by Jon Agee* [video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=X_zeRNiEot8 (01 February 2022).

The Jackson 5. 1970. ABC. On *ABC* [Album]. Motown Records.

Secondary sources

Alter, Grit; Merse, Thorsten. in press. *Re-thinking Picturebooks for Intermediate and Advanced Learners.* Tübingen: Narr.

Bland, Janice (ed.). 2015. *Teaching English to Young Learners: Critical Issues in Language Teaching with 3-12 Year Olds.* London: Bloomsbury.

Bland, Janice. 2019. Teaching English to Young Learners: More Teacher Education and More Children's Literature! *Children's Literature in English Language Education* 7 (2). 79–103.

Böttger, Heiner. 2016. *Neurodidaktik des frühen Sprachenlernens. Wo die Sprache zuhause ist.* Stuttgart: utb.

Böttger, Heiner. 2020a. Voraussetzungen von Grundschulkindern für den Fremdsprachenerwerb. In: Böttger, Heiner (ed.): *Englisch Didaktik für die Grundschule* (6th ed). Berlin: Cornelsen. 8–22.

Böttger, Heiner. 2020b. *Englisch lernen in der Grundschule*. Bad Heilbrunn: Julius Klinkhardt.

Böttger, Heiner. 2020c. Neurowissenschaften und Spracherwerb. In: Harant, Martin; Küchler, Uwe; Thomas, Philipp (eds.): *Theorien! Horizonte für die Lehrerbildung*. Tübingen: University Press.

Böttger, Heiner. 2021. Der Fremdsprachenunterricht beginnt sicher besser (früher). In: Böttger, Heiner (ed.): *Fremdsprachenfrühbeginn (noch) besser machen*. Wien: SchriftBild. 31–40.

Brewster, Jean; Ellis, Gail; Girard, Denis. 2002. *The Primary English Teacher's Guide*. New Edition. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Brunsmeier, Sonja. 2016. *Interkulturelle Kommunikative Kompetenz im Englischunterricht der Grundschule: Grundlagen, Erfahrungen, Perspektiven*. Tübingen: Narr.

Brunsmeier, Sonja. 2017. Primary teachers' knowledge when initiating intercultural communicative competence. *TESOL Quarterly* 51 (1). 143–155. doi:10.1002/tesq.327

Brunsmeier, Sonja; Kolb, Annika. 2017. Picturebooks Go Digital – The Potential of Story Apps for the Primary EFL Classroom. *Children's Literature in English Language Education* 5 (1). 1–20.

Byram, Michael. 1997. *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Council of Europe. 2001. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97 (01 February 2022).

Council of Europe. 2018. C*ommon European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989 (01 February 2022).

Dausend, Henriette. 2021. Der Einsatz digitaler Medien beginnt früh. In: Böttger, Heiner (ed.): *Fremdsprachenfrühbeginn (noch) besser machen*. Wien: SchriftBild. 169–185.

Delanoy, Werner. 2013. From the "inter' to "trans"? In: Eisenmann, Maria; Summer, Theresa (eds.): *Basic Issues in EFL Teaching and Learning* (2nd ed.). Heidelberg: Winter. 157–167.

Doms, Christiane. 2014. Say It in English. Classroom talk – Englisch als Arbeitssprache. *Grundschule Englisch* 48. 18–21.

Eisenmann, Maria. 2019. *Teaching English: Differentiation and Individualisation*. Schöningh: UTB.

Ellis, Gail; Brewster, Jean. 2014. *Tell it Again! The New Storytelling Handbook for Primary Teachers*. British Council. https://www.teachingen glish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/pub_D467_Storytelling_handbook_FI NAL_web.pd (01 February 2022).

Elsner, Daniela. 2010. *Englisch in der Grundschule unterrichten: Grundlagen, Methoden, Beispiele*. München: Oldenbourg.

Elsner, Daniela. 2020. *Kompetenzorientiert unterrichten in der Grundschule: Englisch 1–4*. München: Oldenbourg Schulbuchverlag.

Elsner, Daniela. 2021. Warum auch der frühe Fremdsprachenunterricht ausgebildete Lehrkräfte benötigt. In: Böttger, Heiner (ed.): *Fremdsprachenfrühbeginn (noch) besser machen*. Wien: SchriftBild. 95–115.

Festman, Julia. 2022. Der Fremdsprachenfrühbeginn nimmt die kognitiven Potenziale der Kinder ernst. In: Böttger, Heiner (ed.): *Fremdsprachenfrühbeginn (noch) besser machen*. Wien: SchriftBild. 70–93.

Grimm, Nancy; Meyer, Michael; Volkmann, Laurenz. 2015. *Teaching English*. Tübingen: Narr Francke Attempto.

Gudjons, Herbert. 2006. *Neue Unterrichtskultur – veränderte Lehrerrolle*. Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt.

Haestræet, Torill Irene. 2018. Vocabulary teaching for young learners. In: Garton, Sue; Copland, Fiona (eds.): *The Routledge Handbook of Teaching English to Young Learners*. London: Routledge. 220–233.

Hallet, Wolfgang. 2012. Die komplexe Kompetenzaufgabe: Fremdsprachige Diskursfähigkeit als kulturelle Teilhabe und Unterrichtspraxis. In: Hallet, Wolfgang; Krämer, Ulrich (eds.): *Kompetenzaufgaben im Englischunterricht: Grundlagen und Unterrichtsbeispiele*, Seelze: Klett. 8–19.

King, Dennis. 2020. English Classroom Phrases for Teachers. Available online. https://www.schule-bw.de/faecher-und-schularten/sprachen-und-literatur/englisch/unterrichtsmaterialien-nach-kompetenzen/sprechen/classroom_phrases/english-classroom-phrases-for-teachers-ecpft-king-2020.pdf (01 February 2022).

KMK (Kultusministerkonferenz) 2004. *Bildungsstandards für die erste Fremdsprache (Englisch/Französisch) für den Mittleren Schulabschluss*. https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/2003/2003_12_04-BS-erste-Fremdsprache.pdf (01 February 2022).

KMK (Kultusministerkonferenz) 2016. *Bildung in der digitalen Welt: Strategie der Kultusministerkonferenz*. https://www.kmk.org/themen/bildung-in-der-digitalen-welt/strategie-bildung-in-der-digitalen-welt.html (01 February 2022).

Kolb, Annika. 2018. Digitale Medien im Englischunterricht der Grundschule. *Grundschule Englisch* 64. 30–33.

Kolb, Annika. 2021. Digital Teaching and Learning in the Primary EFL Classroom. In: Lütge, Christiane; Merse, Thorsten (eds.): *Digital Teaching and Learning: Perspectives for English Language Education*. Tübingen: Narr. 125–140.

Krashen, Stephen. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford.

Kreft, Annika. 2020. Developing transcultural competence. Transkulturelle Kompetenz in der Grundschule fördern – Was, wie und worauf achten? *Grundschule Englisch* 73. 30–32.

Krkgöz, Yasemin. 2018. Fostering young learners' listening and speaking skills. In: Garton, Sue; Copland, Fiona (eds.): *The Routledge Handbook of Teaching English to Young Learners*. London: Routledge. 171–187.

Kumaravadivelu, Balasubramanian. 2006. *Understanding Language Teaching: From Method to Postmethod*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Legutke, Michael K.; Müller-Hartmann, Andreas; Schocker-v. Ditfurth, Marita. 2014. *Teaching English in the Primary School*. Stuttgart: Klett.

Lethaby, Carol; Mayne, Russel; Harries, Patricia. 2021. *An Introduction to Evidence-Based Teaching in the English Language Classroom: Theory and Practice*. Shoreham by Sea, West Sussex: Pavilion ELT.

Moody, Andrew. 2021. Teaching 'Authenticity' of Media and Pop Culture Texts. In: Werner, Valentin; Tegge, Friederike (eds.): *Pop Culture in Language Education: Theory, Research, Practice*. Milton: Taylor & Francis Group. 243–256.

Mourão, Sandie. 2015. The Potential of Picturebooks with Young Learners. In: Bland, Janice (ed.): *Teaching English to Young Learners: Critical Issues in Language Teaching with 3-12 Year Olds*. London: Bloomsbury. 199–117.

Neslon, Charles A. 2000. *Center on the Developing Child, Harvard University, Chicago*. https://developingchild.harvard.edu/resources/inbrief-science-of-ecd/ (07 October 2022).

Ortega, Lourdes. 2013. *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. London: Routledge.

Pienemann, Manfred; Keßler, Jörg-U.; Roos, Eckhard (eds.). 2006. *Englischerwerb in der Grundschule*. Paderborn: Ferdinand Schöningh.

Pinter, Annamaria. 2017. *Teaching Young Language Learners* (2nd ed). Oxford: OUP.

Selinker, Larry. 1972. Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics* 10, 219–231.

Shaywitz, Sally E.; Shaywitz, Bennett A. 2008. Paying attention to reading: the neurobiology of reading and dyslexia. *Development and psychopathology* 20 (4). 1329–1349.

Shin, Joan Kang; Crandall, JoAnn. 2014. *Teaching Young Learners English: From Theory to Practice*. Boston: National Geographic Learning.

Shin, Joan Kang; Crandall, JoAnn. 2018. Teaching reading and writing to young learners. In: Garton, Sue; Copland, Fiona (eds.): *The Routledge Handbook of Teaching English to Young Learners*. London: Routledge. 188–202.

Shin, Joan Kang; Savić, Vera; Machida, Tomohisa. 2021. *The 6 principles for exemplary teaching of English learners: Young learners in a multilingual world*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL International Association.

Summer, Theresa. in prep. *Pop Culture in English Language Education: From Theory to Practice*. Berlin: ESV.

Summer, Theresa. 2022. Digital Picturebooks in Times of Crisis: From Picturebooks about Covid-19 to Developing Critical Environmental Literacies. In: Stadler-Heer, Sandra; Paran, Amos (eds.): *Taking Literature and Language Learning Online: New Perspectives on Teaching, Research and Technology*. London: Bloomsbury. 71–92.

Sullivan, Amanda L; Weeks, Mollie R. 2018. Differentiated instruction for young English learners. In: Garton, Sue; Copland, Fiona (eds.): *The Routledge Handbook of Teaching English to Young Learners*. London: Routledge. 125–137.

UNESCO. 2014. *UNESCO Roadmap for Implementing the Global Action Programme on Education for Sustainable Development*.

https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/1674unesco roadmap.pdf (01 February 2022).

Viebrock, Britta. 2018. Teachers of English as a Foreign Language: Experience and Professional Development. In: Surkamp, Carola; Viebrock, Britta (eds.): *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. Stuttgart: J.B. Metzler. 39–56.

Vuorikari, Riina; Punie, Yves, Carretero, Stephanie; Van den Brande, Lieve. 2016. *DigComp 2.0: The Digital Competence Framework for Citizens. Update Phase 1: The Conceptual Reference Model*. Luxembourg: Publication Office of the European Union. EUR 27948 EN. https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/handle/JRC101254 (01 February 2022).