Perspectives on English Language Education in Sweden

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[Abstract]
This is a literature review on current situations of English language education at compulsory schools in Sweden. By examining a variety of literature, the study is to investigate the 9-year English education system in Sweden's compulsory primary schools (ages 7 - 16) as well as to explore the issue from the following four (4) diverse perspectives that are supposed to impact English education in Sweden: (1) Linguistic affinities between L1 (First Language: Swedish) and TL (Target Language: English), (2) Swedish culture's historical compatibilities with and current assimilation by Anglo-American culture, (3) Language policies motivated by Sweden becoming a member of the European Union (EU) in 1995, and (4) EU's recommended language teaching approach of “Content and Language Integrated Learning” (CLIL). A brief set of implications for English language education in Japan are gleaned from the results of this study.

[Keywords]
English Education in Sweden, EU’s Language Policy, CLIL

I. Introduction

The harmonious co-existence of many languages in Europe is a powerful symbol of the European Union's aspiration to be united in diversity, one of the cornerstones of the European project. Languages define personal identities, but are also part of a shared inheritance. They can serve as a bridge to other people and open access to other countries and cultures, promoting mutual understanding. A successful multilingualism policy can strengthen life chances of citizens: it may increase their employability, facilitate access to services and rights and contribute to solidarity through enhanced intercultural dialogue and social cohesion. Approached in this spirit, linguistic diversity can become a precious asset, increasingly so in today's globalised world. (Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment) ¹

This is a literature review on current situations of English language education at compulsory schools in Sweden. By examining a variety of literature, the study is to investigate the 9-year English education system in Sweden’s compulsory primary schools (ages 7 - 16) as well as to explore the issue from the following four (4) diverse perspectives that are supposed to impact English education in Sweden:

(1) Linguistic affinities between L1 (First Language: Swedish) and TL (Target Language: English),
(2) Swedish culture’s historical compatibilities with and current assimilation by Anglo-American culture,
(3) Language policies motivated by Sweden becoming a member of the European Union (EU) in 1995, and
(4) EU’s recommended language teaching approach of “Content and Language Integrated Learning” (CLIL).

Gleaned from the results of this study are a brief set of implications for English language education in Japan.

One of the current authors visited Sweden twice in 2009 and 2010 and observed some English classes at compulsory primary schools (ages 7 to 16) in and around Stockholm. In all of the classes, he was very much impressed with the high level of communicative English competence shown by the pupils and students, both in their classroom communication with their teachers and peers (CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) as well as in their spontaneous conversations with him during their breaks (BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) (Cummins, 2008). The author was particularly impressed with the fluency of the 7th, 8th and 9th graders: their listening and speaking appeared to be much more advanced than the average Japanese university student.

As a long-time English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching professional practicing in Japan where classroom interaction is difficult to maintain in the target language, the author had to ask a simple question: Why are Swedish students so good at communicating in English?

This study is therefore a part of the attempt to answer that question. It is our intention that this literature review will lead to a more grounded study of Sweden’s English language education.
Following the introduction, the literature review first summarizes the current situation of English language education in Sweden.

In the second part, the factors affecting Sweden’s English language education are discussed: (1) linguistic affinities between Swedish and English, (2) cultural compatibilities between Swedish and British cultures and recent global cultural assimilation by Anglo-American culture, (3) language policy that is politically and economically necessitated by Sweden’s EU membership and (4) the EU recommended language teaching approach, “CLIL” (Content and Language Integrated Learning).

Shown in the final section of this study is a short list of implications for English language education in Japan derived from this study.
II. Literature Review

A. English Language Education in Sweden

The chart below shows Swedish education system (TABLE 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typical Age</th>
<th>Year Grade</th>
<th>Type of Education</th>
<th>Graduation Courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26–27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>Graduate Schools:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–26</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td>Master’s &amp; Doctorate Courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24–25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23–24</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22–23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>4-year University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21–22</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>College (2-3 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>Higher Vocational Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19–20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>Upper Secondary Education (Grades 10-12) 3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18–19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17–18</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16–17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15–16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Compulsory Education</td>
<td>Lower Secondary Education (Grades 7-9) 3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14–15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13–14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12–13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>Primary Education (Grades 1-6) 6 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 – 10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 – 9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 – 8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Preschool, Pedagogical Care, Open Pre-school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 http://skolnet.skolverket.se/polopoly/utbsys-eng/
The school education system in Sweden can be divided into two categories: Compulsory and Non-compulsory (Euroguidance Sweden, 2006). The types of schools included in each category are shown in the following table (TABLE 2).

**TABLE 2. Sweden’s Compulsory and Non-Compulsory Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Type of Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory</td>
<td>regular compulsory school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sami* school, special school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>programs for pupils with learning disabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Compulsory</td>
<td>preschool class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>upper secondary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>upper secondary school for pupils with learning disadvantages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>municipal adult education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>education for adults with learning disadvantages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Sami* is a minority group in northern areas of Scandinavia, a.k.a., Lapps.

All the public education in Sweden is free of charge and no payment is “required from students or their parents for teaching materials, school meals, health services or school transport.” The school year starts at the end of August and ends at the beginning of June.

In Sweden, almost all children between the ages of seven and sixteen go to a nine-year compulsory school, which is equivalent to the combination of a six-year primary school and a three-year junior high school in other countries, such as Japan. There are very few private schools in Sweden.

According to Sundin (2000), Sweden’s English language education has historically shown swings of the pendulum in terms of starting age:

Since the mid 50s, English has been taught as a compulsory subject for all children from grade five and then gradually from grade four. From the late 60s, English was introduced in grade three, when the children were nine years old. In the early 70s, Sweden, like many other countries in Europe, the USA and Canada seemed to be very keen on early foreign language teaching, which was very interesting and motivating for a small country with only 8.5 million people. (p. 151)
In the 1980’s, however, Swedish authorities were back to introducing English from the fourth grade. Then, the National Curriculum of Sweden stipulated that English should start in grade three, although it could be postponed for one year by local decision. And now the Swedish authorities, like other EU countries, are again interested in starting foreign language learning early.

Sundin (2000) further explains:

In Sweden, English is laid down as the first foreign language and it is compulsory for all children. A second compulsory foreign language is introduced in grade 6. There is a choice of German, French, Spanish and home languages. Pupils who cannot cope with another foreign language can take an extra course in English or if necessary take an additional course in Swedish. In grade 8, the third foreign language is introduced. (p. 151)

A new National Curriculum was introduced in Sweden in 1995. The curriculum stipulates that “English as a first foreign language is taught from grade 1, 2 or 3 and in some schools from grade 4.” Each school decides when to start and how to allocate the time to English with the grades 1-9 students. The minimum guaranteed time for English is set at 480 hours (p. 154).

On an optimistic note, Sundin (2000) mentions that the high motivation of Swedish students in regards to studying English could be due to the fact that the language is somehow related to high status.

The teaching approach of the English lessons in the primary schools the author observed in Sweden could be described as the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). With the exception of some young pupils in the 1st and 2nd grades, all of the classes were conducted in English: teaching English through English. A proponent of CLT, Savignon (1991) states: “Classroom teacher talk and opportunities for learner self-expression are but two features of classroom learning” (p. 272).

In a current literature review of Sweden’s language education, Hayashi (2010) mentions the rigorous credit requirement for grating teaching credentials in Sweden, pointing out that even for the primary level it is necessary to take graduate-level courses and credits. More graduate-level courses and credits are required for higher levels of teaching credentials. This might one of the lessons Japan should learn from the Swedish system,
Hayashi argues, when considering the efficacy of our language education.

Since there is no way to internationally compare the students’ communicative competence in English, it is necessary to approximate. For example, Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores show some evidence of Swedish students’ competence in English compared to students from other countries. (TABLE 3)

**TABLE 3. TOEFL iBT Total and Section Score Means: All Examinees Classified by Geographic Region and Native Country 2009³ (Selected Asian and European Countries Only)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographic Region and Native Country</th>
<th>Reading</th>
<th>Listening</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Writing</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Korea</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Swedish students’ scores are high in “listening,” especially when compared with the scores of Asian students. However, it should be noted that when compared with other European countries, particularly with Scandinavian countries, Sweden does not stand out.

**B. Factors Affecting English Language Education in Sweden**

(1) Linguistic affinities between L1 (First Language: Swedish) and TL (Target Language: English)

It is commonplace to point out the linguistic affinities of the Swedish and the English languages. The two languages are both of Proto-Germanic origin, which is a branch of the Indo-European language family. Lehmann (2007) defines Proto-Germanic as follows:

Proto-Germanic (PGmc) is the reconstructed language from which the attested Germanic dialects developed: chief among these are Gothic (Go.) representing East Germanic, Old Norse (ON) representing North Germanic, and Old English (OE), Old Saxon (OS), and Old High German (OHG) representing West Germanic. PGmc is distinguished from the other Indo-European languages by phonological innovations such as the change of consonants characterized by Grimm’s Law, by morphological innovations such as the introduction of the dental preterite and the n- declension of adjectives, by syntactic innovations such as the large number of modal auxiliaries, and by numerous additions to its lexicon.

Swedish was a part of Old Norse (ON) until the 14th century and Old English was the language of Anglo-Saxons until the mid-12th century.

Even today, English and Swedish share a number of grammatical features: both have the standard “Subject-Verb-Object” word order and their morphologies are similar; words have comparatively few inflections. Other features include two genders, two grammatical cases, and a distinction between plural and singular.

Stensson (2009) described the syntax of the Swedish language compared to that of the English language as follows:

Swedish syntax is fairly straightforward for someone used to English, but there are a few things that differ. The most noticeable part is that Swedish sentences often use inverted word order (the verb before the subject) to indicate questions, conditionals and consecutives. Inverted word order is also used when the sentence starts with an adverbial or when any object of the verb is placed at the front of the sentence.

It is not difficult to imagine that people whose native language has similarities to the target language can learn it more easily than the ones whose native language is quite different. From the point of view of TESOL pedagogy, Brown (1994) mentions the relationship between the first language and the target language as follows:
The native language of learners will be a highly significant system on which learners will rely to predict the target language system. While that native system will exercise both facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the new language, the interfering effects are likely to be most salient. (p.27)

This looks particularly real when we remember examples of the “negative transfer” (Ellis, 1994) made by Japanese learners of English.

Jenkins (2007) reports a research study to investigate the perception of non-native speakers of English about the English accent produced by other non-native speakers of English. As to the English pronunciation by Swedish people, Jenkins (2007) describes:

One of the most frequent types of comments about the Swedish English accent concerns its perceived proximity to an NS accent, for example, ‘fluent, almost mother tongue-like,’ 'nativelike,' 'sounds like a native speaker,' 'quite natural like native speakers' ('natural' being equated here, as so often, with 'native-like'). (p. 71)

Swedish speakers’ English accents are constantly rated high among other non-native speakers' accents and is often said to be a 'near British accent.' This is in stark contrast to the English accent of Japanese or Chinese English speakers. It could be argued that this partially due to the linguistic affinities between English and Swedish.

Euroguidance Sweden (2006) advertises Sweden in “Education, work, guidance in Sweden” by stating that “Sweden is also known for its open, egalitarian and liberal society. Many Swedes are experienced travellers and most people speak very good English” (p. 6). According to European Union’s survey, Eurobarometer (2005), 4 89% of Swedes reported the ability to speak English.

(2) Swedish culture's historical compatibilities with and current assimilation by Anglo-American culture.

Language and culture are inseparable. To teach a language means to teach its culture as well. Brown (1994) states, “Whenever you teach a language, you also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting” (p.25).

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4 http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/cf/index_en.cfm
According to Kramsch (1993), language study is also culture study:

... given that we want to teach language in such a way that learners are initiated into its social and cultural meanings, how many of these meanings must be made explicit, how many can be understood implicitly? (p.9)

Naturally, when students’ native cultures share a lot with the target language culture, the students have easier access to the new culture and language.

The following table is a list of key social and cultural factors comparing Sweden and the U.K. The table shows with striking similarities between the two mature European countries, both of which are aging, literate, and wealthy protestant monarchies. (TABLE 4)

Presumably, these similarities would positively affect English language learning of Swedish students.

TABLE 4. Comparison of Key Social/Cultural Factors between Sweden and the U.K.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Kingdom of Sweden5</th>
<th>United Kingdom6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government type</td>
<td>constitutional monarchy</td>
<td>constitutional monarchy and commonwealth realm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religions</td>
<td>Lutheran 87%, other (includes Roman Catholic, Orthodox, Baptist, Muslim, Jewish, and Buddhist) 13%</td>
<td>Christian (Anglican, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Methodist) 71.6%, Muslim 2.7%, Hindu 1%, other 1.6%, unspecified or none 23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age structure</td>
<td>0-14 years: 15.4% 15-64 years: 64.8% 65 years and over: 19.7%</td>
<td>0-14 years: 17.3% 15-64 years: 66.2% 65 years and over: 16.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth</td>
<td>total population: 81.07 years, world ranking (with 1 being the country with the longest life expectancy): 15</td>
<td>total population: 80.05 years, world ranking (with 1 being the country with the longest life expectancy): 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total fertility rate</td>
<td>1.67 children born/woman (2011 est.)</td>
<td>UK 1.91 children born/woman (2011 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urbanization</td>
<td>urban population: 85% of total population (2010)</td>
<td>urban population: 80% of total population (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy</td>
<td>total population: 99%7</td>
<td>total population: 99%8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita (PPP)</td>
<td>$39,000 (2010 est.) world ranking (with 1 being the country with the highest GDP): 23</td>
<td>$35,100 (2010 est.) world ranking (with 1 being the country with the highest GDP): 36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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7 definition: ages 15 and over can read and write  
8 definition: ages 15 and over have completed five or more years of schooling
Globalization has been permeating all the countries of the world today and Sweden is no exception. The traditional compatibilities with the U.K. have been increasingly compounded with a more pervasive phenomenon of cultural assimilation by Anglo-American culture.

More than two decades ago, Naisbitt & Aburdene (1990) predicted as follows:

Language is a great agent of homogenization: it is the frequency on which the culture is transmitted. If English is gaining a lock on global language, the implications are clear: The culture of English-speaking countries will dominate. (p. 140)

This seems quite relevant to Sweden even today. In fact, pointing out the current situation of pop music, where local popular songs can no longer be world hits unless they are sung in English, Crystal (1997/2003) mentions as an example the case of ABBA (p. 103), a Swedish pop group that had gained worldwide popularity in the 1970s by singing English songs, such as “Dancing Queen” (1977). This attests not only to the English language competence of Swedish people, but also to the high degree of pervasiveness of Anglo-American culture in Sweden.

To explain this cultural phenomenon, Kirkpatrick (2007) introduces Dollerup (1996)’s theory:

Dollerup has argued that the 'present hegemony of English in Europe is primarily due to the entertainment industry, and only secondarily to war, technological lead, science and political domination' (1996: 26). For example, some 80 percent of the films shown in Western Europe are imported from either Britain or the USA. (p. 164)

As far as movies are concerned, this observation, along with the tradition of subtitling as opposed to dubbing, also makes the language situation in Sweden clearer. According to Berns, Claes, de Bot, Evers, Hasebrink, Huibregtse, Truchot, and van der Wijst (2007), some countries in Europe, including Sweden, consider dubbing as “cultural barbarism” (p. 20).

From the point of view of English language teaching, Sundin (2000) explains the same phenomenon as follows:
Swedish society is quite influenced by the English language through TV, films, music and computers. On television there are Swedish subtitles, but young children cannot read them, so their listening comprehension is quite good. They get used to pronunciation and intonation, something we lack in German, French and Spanish. We do not have so much contact with these languages in everyday life. In a way, this early English influence prepares pupils linguistically and even culturally for foreign language learning, at least when it comes to English. (p. 154)

Sundin also notes how English words are used in Swedish communication:

For example, there are a large number of borrowed words and expressions among educated people. You often hear “sorry,” “cool,” “no problem,” etc, used instead of the Swedish expressions. (p. 154)

It is also true that English language is a key to success in societies all over the world, including Sweden. It is “a fundamental tool that unquestionably brings professional success or one that oppresses us under capitalism, neoliberalism and the global market (Guilherme, 2007, p. 72).

(3) Language policies necessitated by Sweden becoming a member of the European Union (EU) in 1995.

In 1995, Sweden joined the European Union (EU). The languages of the EU, which now include twenty-three official languages along with a wide range of non-official languages, are the ones used by the people of the EU member states. However, it is the English language that dominates the EU: Kirkpatrick (2007) explains:

English is the most widely used language of wider communication in Europe. It is taught more than all the other European languages put together (Gorlach, 2002). It is the major foreign language for business in all EU countries, preferred for negotiations and dominant in academic publishing almost to the exclusion of all other languages (Ammon, 1996: 253), and is 'by far the most important language of scientific and scholarly conferences' (Ammon, 1996: 260). The domination of English in academic publications is startling (p. 164).

Ammon, U. (2006) lists major languages in the EU and the ratio of the people who speak them. (TABLE 5)
TABLE 5. The five numerically strongest EU languages, based on the official EU survey conducted in May-June 2005 (p. 331)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>% of EU population</th>
<th>% native speakers</th>
<th>% foreign language speakers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The strength of English is clear: almost half (47%) of the EU population speaks English. Yet, more importantly, while only 13% are native English speakers, 34%, by far the largest percentage, also speak English. This is quite different from the other official languages. Even though the number of native speakers are larger than that of English native speakers, as far as the numbers of foreign language speakers are concerned, the other official languages are no match for English.

The following chart shows the position of the English language in Sweden:

CHART 1. Knowledge of Foreign Languages in Sweden 2005, percentage

Discussing the language policy of Sweden, Winsa (2005) argues:

The position of English as the international language of instruction is rapidly growing since Sweden took up membership in the European Union (EU) (Hyltenstam, 1996). The EU seeks to integrate research and higher education and has set up a number of programmes to achieve this for European universities. This funding has effects on international contacts, the use of English, the exchange of students and professors, and on joint research projects. (p.235)

On a similar note, Ferguson (2007) mentions the spread of English in the field of science and asks questions related to:

(i) the potential detrimental impact on other languages, even standardized national languages, which are at risk, so it is argued, of being relegated to a lesser role in an incipient global diglossia and of losing domains; and

(ii) the communicative inequality produced by the dominance of English between, in particular, native-speaking scientists/academics and non-native scientists, the latter experiencing relative disadvantage, it is sometimes claimed, when it comes to placing their work in high prestige international journals.

Of these concerns, Ferguson argues that while the second one is not posing a real threat because of English language education in many countries throughout the world, the first concern, the risk of domain loss, is very real. This is one of the reasons why in Sweden, Sami schools were established to protect their language from extinction.

However, Ferguson is concerned that even the Swedish language could lose its domain. This concern will become even more real once the use of English becomes more widespread in Sweden.

Soler (2007), however, mentions the policy of the European Union to promote multilingualism:

The underlying assumption to encourage multilingualism is the need to find a balance between an integrated identity as a European citizen and the necessity of maintaining linguistic and cultural diversity. (p. 23)

This could be described as a measure to counterbalance English language domination in Europe. Soler introduces a successful example of education based on multilingualism: to use minority languages from pre-school education to adult education. Soler also states:
…we cannot claim that multilingualism guarantees effective schooling, but learners can benefit from the cognitive benefit of developing at least two languages fully and learning English as a third language. Moreover, it is possible that by encouraging multilingual education, language education policies may help to develop a broader enculturation and a wider view on merging with different cultures. (p. 24)

(4) EU’s recommended language teaching approach of “Content and Language Integrated Learning” (CLIL).

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is the EU’s recommendation for language teaching and is increasingly practiced in many countries in the European Union, including Sweden. According to European Commission (2008),

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) involves teaching a curricular subject through the medium of a language other than that normally used. The subject can be entirely unrelated to language learning, such as history lessons being taught in English in a school in Spain. CLIL is taking place and has been found to be effective in all sectors of education from primary through to adult and higher education. Its success has been growing over the past 10 years and continues to do so.

This type of teaching approach is generally described as “Content-based language Teaching.” For examples, see Snow and Brinton (1988). Unterberger (2008) defines CLIL as:

…“a dualfocussed educational approach” (Maljers, Marsh & Wolff 2007: 8) in which content subjects, such as geography or history, are taught through a foreign language. More specifically, the “essence of CLIL is integration” (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 11) as it facilitates a fusion of content and language teaching. This fusion takes part on two levels: On the one hand, language learning in a CLIL setting is not exclusively restricted to the foreign language classroom, but is also integrated in content lessons. On the other hand, language teachers incorporate content covered in CLIL subjects and thus alter and expand traditional foreign language curricula (ibid.). (p. 5)

Sylvén (2006) explains how CLIL is conducted:

The basic idea with using CLIL is, of course, that language is a means of communication and using language as a communicative tool resembles the natural way of learning a
language. Supposedly, students then not only learn the subject content, but they also learn the new language more effectively than is the case with traditional language teaching. (p. 47)

Historically, CLIL was introduced to the Swedish schools at the end of the 1970s and has been gradually spreading in Sweden. Sylvén describes:

The CLIL method was first introduced in Sweden as an experiment in 1977. This experiment was followed by another in 1984, and soon after that a growing number of schools introduced the method. In 2001, a total of 20 percent of all schools at upper secondary level and 4 percent of those at lower secondary level implemented the CLIL method in one way or another (Nixon 2000: 8) and the number of schools offering CLIL is increasing. (p. 48)

Obviously, this teaching approach is for students at secondary schools and not so much for pupils in lower grades.

CLIL is based on the idea that the EU supports multilingualism:

The EU’s language policy promotes multilingualism and aims for a situation in which every EU citizen can speak at least two foreign languages in addition to their mother tongue. (EU Language Policy) 10

As for the teachers who teach CLIL, the European Commission (2008) explains:

Teachers working with CLIL are specialists in their own discipline rather than traditional language teachers. They are usually fluent speakers of the target language, bilingual or native speakers. In many institutions, language teachers work in partnership with other departments to offer CLIL in various subjects. The key issue is that the learner is gaining new knowledge about the 'non-language' subject while encountering, using and learning the foreign language. The methodologies and approaches used are often linked to the subject area with the content leading the activities.

10 http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/eu-language-policy/index_en.htm
Discussions of CLIL and the teachers who practice it also refer to Ludbrook (2008) and Pistorio (2009).

Similarly, de Graaff, Koopman, Anikina, and Westhoff (2007) ask questions regarding CLIL teacher quality in the Netherlands: Most CLIL teachers are non-native speakers of the target language and do not have a professional background in language pedagogy.

See also for more recent discussions of CLIL: Coonan (2008), Darn (2006), Gefäll (2009), Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), Lorenzo, Casal, and Moore (2010).

Finally, it is worthwhile to note the benefits that CLIL’s multi-faceted approach could offer, according to European Commission (2008):

- Builds intercultural knowledge and understanding
- Develops intercultural communication skills
- Improves language competence and oral communication skills
- Develops multilingual interests and attitudes
- Provides opportunities to study content through different perspectives
- Allows learners more contact with the target language
- Does not require extra teaching hours
- Complements other subjects rather than competes with them
- Diversifies methods and forms of classroom practice
- Increases learners' motivation and confidence in both the language and the subject being taught

These are also the benefits of multilingual education.
III. Implications

So far, this study has covered the current situation of English language education in Sweden and then the four factors affecting Sweden’s English language education. The four factors include:

(1) Linguistic affinities between Swedish and English, which may positively affect the English language learning of Swedish students.
(2) Cultural compatibilities between Swedish and British cultures and recent cultural assimilation by Anglo-American culture are increasingly exerting more influence on the students’ motivation, especially in the case of the second one.
(3) Language policy politically and economically necessitated by Sweden’s EU membership; this of course stimulates students’ instrumental motivation (see, for example, Dörnyei, 2001).
(4) The EU recommended language teaching approach, CLIL, could be a powerful tool to promote multilingualism in Europe.

Some implications for English language teaching in Japan could be drawn from this study.

(1) The Japanese language is very different from the English language. Therefore, the first factor, linguistic affinities, could not benefit Japanese learners. However, when we recall the fact that Finnish is not related to English at all and that TOEFL scores in Finland are higher than in Sweden, the TOEFL scores, or language achievement and linguistic affinities, do not match.
(2) Rather than the historical cultural compatibilities, when we think about Japan’s English education, the current cultural assimilation by Anglo-American culture is more strongly felt. It is necessary to investigate more closely how cultural assimilation encourages language study.
(3) It is quite unfortunate that Japan does not have the need or the motivation to learn a language to communicate within a regional community because Japan does not belong to a regional nation group, such as the EU. Japanese people are becoming more and more in-ward-looking, and it is psychologically and politically necessary to stimulate the motivation to study English.
(4) CLIL might be a good approach at senior high school and university English language classes. However, it is important to note that teacher development is definitely needed in order to start this approach at Japanese compulsory schools.
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スウェーデンの義務教育における英語教育の現況

井川好二・八木成和

本稿は、スウェーデンの義務教育における英語教育の現況に関する文献研究である。幅広い文献によりスウェーデンの9年制基礎学校（7歳から16歳）における英語教育制度を概観するとともに、以下の4つの観点よりスウェーデンの英語教育を分析する。(1)スウェーデン語と英語の類似性、(2)スウェーデン文化と英国文化の歴史的共通性および近年の英米文化の浸透、(3)EU加盟(1995年)による言語政策の変更、(4)EUが推奨する外国語教授法CLIL。本研究の結果から得られた日本の英語教育に対する提言を付す。

キーワード：スウェーデン、英語教育、EUの言語政策、CLIL

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