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ESTONIAN CASE SYSTEM IN L2 LEARNING MATERIALS

MA thesis

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Affirmation of authorship

I confirm that I have written this thesis myself and have correctly cited the contributions of other authors. The work was written based on the thesis requirements of the Institute of Estonian and General Linguistics of the University of Tartu and is in line with good academic practices.

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1 INTRODUCTION

For foreigners residing in Estonia whose native language is not Estonian, learning Estonian is crucial for practical and personal reasons. These include employment opportunities, family life, citizenship, residency, and societal integration. Various factors, such as language classes, instructors, and learning materials, play a significant role in their language learning process, albeit not limited to these alone.

Four years ago, I started learning Estonian, a language I knew nothing about. As I explored various options to learn the language, I discovered a variety of learning materials available. These ranged from conventional textbooks to interactive websites, language apps, and online games. Each resource had its unique approach to presenting the language to learners. As I began to learn more about language, I found the case system in Estonian fascinating, because my native language also uses cases, although in a slightly different way. Even though I started learning Estonian using English, I enjoy comparing it with my mother tongue, Marathi. It is interesting for me to see how Estonian and Marathi use cases differently.

I also observed how native English speakers find learning a language with a case system. Traditional English language teaching materials typically overlook cases altogether. Even if learners' first language use cases, they might not be as extensive as those found in Estonian. As I discussed with other L2 learners from diverse backgrounds and native tongues, I encountered a range of reactions and perspectives regarding cases taught in a classroom or how they are presented in the language learning materials. These conversations motivated me to conduct a comparative analysis and compile a review report. Consequently, this idea turned into my master's thesis.

While I acknowledge my limitations-I am neither a trained language teacher nor have I completed a language teacher program-I remain passionate about Estonian language learning. My curiosity drives me to explore and summarize various approaches found in language study materials. Notably, there has been no specific study analyzing L2 materials designed for individuals learning Estonian through the medium of English. Among these learners, some are native English speakers, while others, like me, learnt English as a second language in school and now use it in everyday communication.

This review is a preliminary study. It can be a synthesis for people who want to learn about L2 learning materials. It can show where more resources or different teaching methods might be needed. Due to the limited scale of the study, the focus of the data is narrowed down to only one grammar item: the case system, which is one of the essential grammar points in learning

Estonian.

The main research question of my thesis is, “How do learning materials present cases to adult L2 learners?” Here, L2 learners refer to individuals learning Estonian using English as the medium of instruction. They can be both native English speakers and non-native English speakers.

My study aims to find out the following:

- What is covered before the discussion of cases and at what point are cases introduced?
- What is the order in which cases are presented?
- How are the cases introduced?

The thesis contains six chapters. Since the current study’s main focus is on how grammar is taught in a second language, Chapter 2 will form the study’s theoretical background. It will introduce second language acquisition (SLA) and its key terms. This includes examining the methods of teaching a second language. The subsequent subsection will elaborate on grammar and approaches used in teaching grammar within SLA. Additionally, I will briefly focus on Estonian as a second language, who the learners of Estonian are, what materials are available for them, and aspects of Estonian language strategy regarding Estonian as L2. Chapter 3 will explain the materials chosen for the study in detail and the methodology used. Chapter 4 will present data, its analysis, and main findings. Chapter 5 discusses these findings and their implications. Finally, chapter 6 covers the conclusion of the thesis.

2 BACKGROUND

The chapter introduces Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and its associated terminology, offering an overview of methods for teaching a second language. It delves into grammar teaching techniques and approaches employed in SLA. The last section of the chapter offers an overview of Estonian L2 learning.

2.1 Second Language Acquisition

2.1.1 First and Second Language

Language acquisition is a process through which children learn their first language. It occurs through observation and interaction with the speakers around them, usually during early childhood, without formal teaching. Children learn by listening to the language spoken by those around them, and interacting with others. The primary source of learning for children is their family and community. The language that a child learns during childhood is referred to as their mother tongue, first language, or native language (L1) (Yule 2010, pp. 170–172). In other words, a native language is any language that a child has acquired since birth, whether it is one language spoken in a monolingual environment or two languages spoken in a bilingual environment (VanPatten and Benati 2015, p. 145).

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to the process of learning a new language after one has already learned one's native language (Gass and Selinker 2008, p. 7). This new language is referred to as the target language or L2. The SLA involves mastering a non-native language after becoming proficient in the native language. In this thesis, any language learned after one's mother tongue is considered a second language, regardless of whether it is the second, third, fourth, or even tenth language learned.

2.1.2 Acquisition and Learning

An important difference often made in SLA literature is that between language learning and language acquisition. Krashen's acquisition-learning hypothesis (1985, p. 1) states that "acquisition is subconscious" while "learning is a conscious process." Acquisition and learning are two different processes of acquiring language knowledge and skills. Acquisition occurs naturally when we use language in communicative contexts. On the other hand, learning is a more explicit and conscious process in an educational setting. It involves the conscious

accumulation of knowledge about language features such as vocabulary and grammar, etc.

When it comes to learning a second language, input and output are both crucial factors to consider. Input refers to the language the learner is exposed to, which should be made understandable in learning L2. According to the Input Hypothesis (Krashen 1985, p. 2), learners automatically acquire the necessary grammar if the input is understood and there is enough of it. Input can be accessed through reading and listening. Swain (1995) argued that output is important for second language development. Swain introduced the Comprehensive Output Hypothesis, (Swain and Lapkin 1995, p. 372) which suggests that learners must generate language through speaking and writing to advance their language skills beyond mere comprehension. Therefore, output complements input and helps learners improve their language abilities.

2.1.3 Motivation and Aptitude for Learning a Second Language

Ellis (2003, p. 4) expressed two primary objectives within SLA. This first goal is to describe acquiring a second language (L2). Another goal is to explain and identify external and internal factors contributing to why learners acquire L2 in specific ways.

One crucial internal factor determining the success or failure of second language acquisition is the learner's motivation and aptitude. L1 learners are inherently motivated to communicate and interact with caregivers, while L2 motivation is affected by personal interest, external factors, and the need to communicate in specific contexts. Motivation, as defined by Gardner, comprises four crucial components. The first component is having a goal. Secondly, motivation is driven by the aspiration to achieve specific goals. Thirdly, it involves investing dedicated efforts. Lastly, the positive effect, characterized by the enjoyment derived from the learning process, plays an important role in maintaining motivation (Gass and Selinker 2008, p. 426).

Two distinct orientations of motivation were observed in L2 learners. The first is the integrative orientation, in which learners maintain a positive attitude towards L1 speakers. This orientation is characterized by a genuine interest in the language, associated culture, and people. On the other hand, the instrumental orientation is primarily driven by pragmatic reasons. Learners with this orientation focus on the practical benefits of acquiring a second language, often linked to specific objectives such as career advancement or academic requirements (Gass and Selinker 2008, pp. 426–427).

Motivation is the inner drive that pushes an individual to learn a language, while aptitude refers to the inherent ability to learn a language. One of the reasons why learners acquire an L2 at different rates is because of their language aptitude. This refers to a person's natural ability to learn languages. Some people seem to have a knack for learning new languages, while others find it more challenging (Ellis 2003, p. 6). Aptitude encompasses cognitive and psychological traits such as memory, pattern recognition, and language learning ability.

Language learning aptitude is an individual's ability to learn a foreign language within a given timeframe and under specific conditions relative to their peers. This concept of aptitude suggests that language learning is not a single ability but comprises several parts that can vary independently. Consequently, there may be patterns of aptitude in language learning.

Carroll's four-factor theory of aptitude, discussed by Skehan (1991, p. 277) consists of the following factors. The first factor is phonemic coding ability, which involves not only the capacity to differentiate sounds but also to code foreign sounds so that they can be recalled later. The second factor is associative memory, which refers to the ability to form connections between stimuli (e.g., native language words) and responses (e.g., target language words). The third factor is grammatical sensitivity, which is the ability to recognize the functions that words serve in sentences rather than the ability to analyze sentences overtly. The fourth factor is inductive language learning ability, which refers to identifying patterns of correspondence and relationships involving either meaning or syntactic form by examining language materials. Aptitude plays a significant role in SLA, affecting progress and proficiency.

2.1.4 Language Proficiency

Aptitude relates to potential and can be evaluated through tests that predict learning ability. On the other hand, proficiency reflects actual skill and is measured by assessing current language use. An individual's language proficiency in a language is usually measured on a scale, with values of the low end, like a beginner, and values in the high end, advanced, native-like. Numerous second language learners often reach an intermediate proficiency level and struggle to attain complete mastery of the target language, leading to a state of fossilization or an intermediate plateau, as observed by the Fundamental Difference Hypothesis by Bley-Vroman (1990) discussed by VanPatten and Benati (2015, p. 122). It is common for people to have different levels of proficiency in different language skills. For example, someone might be at an intermediate level in reading and listening but only at a beginner level in speaking.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) offers a descriptive framework for evaluating language proficiency (Council of Europe 2020, p. 17). The CEFR is neutral. It does not prescribe any particular pedagogic approach. Its methodological message is that language learning should be directed towards enabling learners to act in real-life situations, express themselves, and accomplish tasks of different natures (Council of Europe 2020, p. 31). It measures language skills on a six-level scale, from A1 for beginners to C2 for advanced learners. These levels are not tied to any specific language. This scale concerns both the user/learner's ability to recall 'prefabricated' expressions correctly and the capacity to focus on grammatical forms while articulating thought (Council of Europe 2020, p. 134).

2.1.5 Methods of Second Language Teaching

In language pedagogy, language teaching methods are categorized into three main types: structural, functional, and interactive. Each category comprises several approaches that educators and learners can use. This section will discuss some important methods.

The structural approach considers language a system of interconnected elements such as sounds, morphemes, words, and sentences that convey meaning through vocabulary. Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is a long-standing approach that exemplifies the structural approach. The GTM originates from ancient Greek and Latin teaching. It emphasizes vocabulary lists, memorization, and strict grammar rules. Written language is prioritized over spoken (Yule 2010, p. 189). Language learners are first taught the grammatical rules of the language they are studying. These rules translate sentences between the target and native languages and vice versa. The first language serves as the primary framework. An emphasis is placed on reading and writing. However, this approach can leave students with a limited understanding of how the language is used in everyday conversation (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 6). The focus is primarily on the mechanics of the language rather than building cultural awareness and context. GTM relies heavily on textbooks. Visual aids were also used, including wall charts, flashcards, illustrations, etc. The textbooks are carefully organized. They focus on various grammatical structures. However, textbooks are used as a guiding tool, and teachers are expected to have mastery over them.

The audiolingual (ALM) is a structural approach. Similar to GTM, ALM also looks at language as a structurally related element; however, it strongly emphasizes spoken language when learning a second language. It was developed in the United States. ALM is based on a systematic structure that progresses from simple to complex elements. The method relies on developing habits through repeated oral drills and practice (Richards and Rodgers 2001, pp. 50–53) However, ALM often involves isolated and repetitive exercises that do not align with spoken language's interactive and engaging nature, making it potentially monotonous for learners. Instructional materials within the ALM are primarily designed to support the teacher's role. Particularly in the initial stages of the course, students are engaged in listening, repeating, and responding activities. Student textbooks are typically excluded. The avoidance of written text during this phase is intentional, as it helps maintain focus on auditory input. Tape recorders and audiovisual equipment play central roles in ALM courses. If the teacher is not a native speaker of the target language, tape recorders offer precise models for dialogues and drills. A typical taped lesson may begin with a dialogue for listening practice. It is followed by opportunities for students to repeat sentences from the dialogue line by line. Subsequently, follow-up exercises may be provided (Richards and Rodgers 2001, pp. 57–68).

The functional approach to language suggests that language serves as a tool for conveying functional meanings. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a functional approach

to language learning that differs from traditional methods. The focus is on using language functionally in real-life situations. It emphasizes practical communication rather than abstract grammar structures (Richards and Rodgers 2001, pp. 153–155). In CLT, “Meaning is paramount” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 156). Language learning involves obtaining the ability to communicate effectively. Drill exercises may be included as a secondary aspect. The primary focus is on developing communicative competence. Communication attempts can be encouraged right from the beginning of the learning process. Teachers who follow this approach encourage students to use the target language and promote meaningful language use through tasks. One could describe CLT as a response to the structural syllabus. It emphasizes language acquisition through meaningful engagement rather than rote learning about the language (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 168). Thus, materials play a key role in the adoption of communicative language.

The third approach is interactive. “It sees language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals.” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 21). From this perspective, language is seen as a tool for forming social connections. Task-Based Language Learning also incorporates an interactional perspective on language, particularly for those within the SLA research tradition of interaction studies. Task-Based Learning (TBL) can also be regarded as a modernized version of communicative methodology. In TBL, learning centers on completing meaningful tasks that resemble real-life situations (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 169). Learners engage in various tasks as a means of learning. Activities such as games, role plays, and simulations are employed. These learning materials slightly differ from traditional ones, typically consisting of exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, and pair communication materials.

2.1.6 The Role of Learning Materials in Second Language Learning

Textbooks are important in learning and teaching second languages, particularly for beginners (Risager and Chapelle 2013, p. 1). They are widely used in language teaching, even when supplemented by additional materials from websites, apps, CDs, or other sources. Textbooks usually determine the structure of instruction, and they are essential because they provide learners with their first reliable exposure to the target language. Textbooks help new teachers plan their lessons and activities. They bring order and organization to the class, ensuring everything follows a logical order and stays consistent. Through time, the development of instructional materials has evolved in line with changes in how people learn second languages. Today, creating effective instructional materials requires careful assessment and adjustment to meet the unique needs of learners.

There are two different perspectives regarding the value of language learning materials (Tomlinson 2013, p. 2). One view believes that language learners benefit from a dictionary (to learn new words) and a textbook (offers structured and focused instruction). Critics, however, argue

that textbooks can be superficial, oversimplify language learning, enforce a one-size-fits-all approach, and limit teachers' creativity and autonomy.

There are also discussions regarding what language learners need in these materials, such as whether the materials should be form-focused or meaning-focused (refer to section 2.2.7). Form-focused materials involve learners intentionally learning specific aspects of the language directly and clearly. On the other hand, meaning-focused materials immerse learners in language activities like reading stories, games, and completing tasks. Supporters of meaning-focused materials argue that emotional and mental involvement is crucial for effective learning (Tomlinson 2013, p. 2).

Another discussion is whether to have contrived materials tailored specifically for language learners or reflect the language used by proficient speakers (authentic). The argument for contrived materials is that they simplify learning by focusing on target features, usually through easy-to-understand examples. Conversely, proponents of authentic materials argue that they expose learners to real-life language usage, preparing them for actual communication scenarios (Tomlinson 2013, p. 2). While many coursebooks prioritize tailored materials, especially at lower levels, some applied linguists advocate for authentic materials. They believe authentic materials are more effective in developing communicative skills.

How effective are written materials compared to other forms like multimedia or Internet-based? There is not a definitive right way to develop materials. Tomlinson (2013, pp. 3–4) states that there is limited research in this area. However, researchers have raised concerns about the approach. Many authors rely on past experiences when creating materials. Publishers often replicate popular features from existing coursebooks. While this approach may seem practical, a more systematic method is needed to enhance language acquisition. According to Tomlinson (2013, pp. 3–4) this might involve creating frameworks that meet universal language acquisition standards and learners' specific needs and preferences in different contexts.

2.2 Teaching Grammar in Second Language

2.2.1 Grammar Descriptions

Scholars define grammar in several ways. The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar, for example, provides three separate definitions of grammar:

1. "The system of a language, traditionally encompassing syntax and morphology.
2. A book containing a description of the rules of grammar.
3. An individual's application of the rules" (Chalker et al. 2014, p. 185).

However, it does not make the function and purpose of grammar any clearer. Ur's (1999, p. 4)

description of grammar gives the definition of grammar as “Grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) to form longer units of meaning.” Another definition worth considering is “Grammar is what turns words into language.” (Berry 2021, p. 19), which is further elaborated (ibid.), stressing, “Grammar is the system of rules that enables users of a language to relate linguistic form to meaning.” Based on this, grammar can be seen as the structure of language. It consists of rules and systems that facilitate the construction of meaningful communication. It is also a practical tool for creating and understanding language. This thesis does not investigate grammar as a whole but focuses only on one part of Estonian grammar, i.e., cases.

2.2.2 Pedagogical Grammar

Pedagogical grammar (used to teach language) differs from analytical grammar (used to teach about language). Pedagogical grammar is intended to meet the demands of L2 students and teachers. Davies (2007, p. 21) defines pedagogical grammar as “a grammatical description of a language that is intended for pedagogical purposes, such as language teaching, syllabus design, or the preparation of teaching materials.” Pedagogical grammar may be based on a specific grammatical theory, but it studies the learner’s grammar problems and directs the teaching process.

2.2.3 Construction Grammar

The foundations of construction grammar can be found in the usage-based language acquisition theory. According to usage-based theory, linguistic elements are seen as ‘constructions’. “Constructions are symbolic: they specify the defining properties of morphological, syntactic, and lexical form, and the semantic, pragmatic, and discourse functions that are associated with these” (Ellis 2015, p. 3). It argues that grammar does not exist in isolation. Grammar emerges naturally through meaningful interaction and usage. As we use language in real-life situations, we internalize grammatical patterns. Language shapes how it does because of how people use it, not because of something built into our brains. When we learn the language, we pick up common patterns that we often hear. These patterns, like common words and phrases, help us learn without realizing it. These patterns are found in every part of language, like sounds, words, and how sentences are combined. They are easier for learners to understand than strict rules because they are more like what we naturally hear and speak.

In this framework, constructions are seen as the building blocks of language and reinforced through usage in communication. This perspective contrasts with traditional views of grammar, which often prioritize abstract rules and categories over actual language usage. Construction grammar establishes links between specific linguistic elements and their corresponding communicative functions. Construction grammar emphasizes the importance of specific con-

structions in language use. Unlike traditional linguistic frameworks that often separate lexicon (vocabulary) and syntax (grammar), construction grammar blurs these boundaries (Keck and Kim 2014, p. 63).

2.2.4 Grammar Teaching

Some scholars emphasize the importance of grammar teaching in SLA, while others believe it should be taught implicitly. Nassaji and Fotos (2011, p. 1) states, “Grammar is fundamental to language. Without grammar, language does not exist. However, nothing in the field of language pedagogy has been as controversial as the role of grammar teaching.” The debate has always centered around whether grammar should be taught explicitly or implicitly through immersion in meaningful language contexts.

Teaching grammar involves using different methods to help learners focus on specific grammatical structures. The aim is to make learners understand these structures by thinking about them or actively using them in reading, writing, or speaking. Ellis (2006, p. 84) explains, “Grammar teaching involves any instructional technique that draws learners’ attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it meta-linguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it.”

There has been a significant shift in grammar teaching methods. Nassaji and Fotos (2011, p. 2) refer to this change as ‘pendulum swings.’ This shows the gradual and recurrent changes to teaching strategies in grammar teaching. These strategies undergo cycles of adopting different approaches, like a pendulum that swings from one extreme to the other and back. A shift from more conventional techniques, such as the transition from grammar-translation to the contemporary communicative approach, demonstrates how grammar teaching in SLA has evolved.

In connection with the shift in grammar teaching methods, Ur (1999, p. 7) classifies the teaching framework into four phases: presentation (aimed at understanding structure), isolation and explanation (shifting focus from context to grammatical elements), practice (transferring knowledge from short-term to long-term memory), and assessment (tracking progress).

Nassaji and Fotos (2011, p. 6) explored an alternative perspective proposed by Ellis. Ellis suggest, “Grammar can also be taught through the presentation of rules alone without any practice, or through practice without presentation. It can also be taught through discovering grammatical rules, exposing learners to input that involves occurrences of the target form, or even through corrective feedback on learner errors during communicative tasks.” So, the grammar teaching methods should be flexible enough to allow a range of approaches based on presentation, practice, discovery, exposure, and corrective feedback.

According to Larsen-Freeman (2014, pp. 257–258), when learning a second language, it is

important to understand all three aspects: how the language is structured (Form), what words and sentences mean (Meaning), and how to use them in various situations (Use). Simply knowing all possible grammatical structures of a language is insufficient. Students must also understand which forms are appropriate and typical in specific situations.

2.2.5 Deductive vs Inductive Approaches

Grammar teaching has been classified into two broad approaches: deductive and inductive. The deductive method follows a rule-driven path where knowledge is delivered explicitly. It progresses from general to detailed knowledge. The deductive method assumes that by understanding general principles up front, learners can apply these rules to specific language instances. Conversely, the inductive method follows a rule-discovery process. It advances from specific to general information. The inductive method requires students to make explicit observations, detect patterns, formulate hypotheses, and draw conclusions based on their discoveries.

Ellis (2006, p. 103) states, “the acquisition of the grammatical system of an L2 is a complex process and almost certainly can be assisted best by a variety of approaches.” But which should you choose for specific grammar points? For that, he considers the complexity of the grammar points, and the student’s ability to analyze grammar should decide the approach. He mentions an inductive approach may be used for complex grammatical features and may be the deductive approach for simple ones. Either method, deductive or inductive works for simple grammar (Ellis 2006, pp. 97–98). However, in the case of complex grammar, the teacher may use a combination of two.

2.2.6 Explicit vs Implicit Learning

Language learning often involves two kinds of knowledge, explicit knowledge (conscious, declarative) about language which differs from implicit knowledge (unconscious, procedural), of how to use language. There is an important distinction in how knowledge is expressed: explicit knowledge can be described in words because it is learned explicitly through descriptions. Implicit knowledge is more subtle and difficult to express because it is not learned through verbal descriptions.

A discussion among SLA researchers is whether the two share a common point or interface. One school of thought advocates no commonality, e.g., Krashen’s monitor theory, which distinguishes acquisition and learning. It asserts that SLA is largely implicit (VanPatten and Benati 2015, p. 34). It means, one needs implicit knowledge to learn an added language. Having explicit knowledge is not particularly helpful. Even though a learner has declarative knowledge, he/she cannot make use of it much when it comes to real-time communication using language. The only role explicit knowledge plays is the role of a monitor for error

correction when a learner has time to consciously think about and edit language output, e.g., during writing or careful speech. The monitor reviews and fix errors based on the learner's explicit knowledge of grammar rules; otherwise, implicit and explicit knowledge are two distinct kinds of knowledge.

The 'no interface' view advocates not teaching grammar but rather providing learners the opportunity to use language for themselves (Long 2015, p. 20). A typical example is the CLT method syllabus (refer to section 2.1.5), where study materials are designed to immerse learners in the target language and make them use it without any explicit explanation. Learners are given input samples. They need to analyze, identify patterns, and produce grammar rules, much like how the human brain acquires L1.

On the other hand, DeKeyser's skill acquisition theory leans towards a 'strong interface' between implicit and explicit knowledge (VanPatten and Benati 2015, p. 25). He quotes SLA driven by explicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge can become implicit through practice. You start by explaining a concept explicitly and then follow it up with practice, and eventually, declarative knowledge becomes procedural. This view leads to a synthetic syllabus where language teaching is viewed as "a process of filling the learner's linguistic quiver one shiny new arrow at a time" (ibid.). The synthetic approach to syllabus divides language into several linguistic units, grammar being one of them. The study materials start with explicit learning with clear instructions. The course books are organized in PPP (presentation-production-practice). First, grammar points are contextualized and presented with examples explicitly, so they get an idea consciously. Then, they go on to practice so that declarative knowledge will turn into procedural knowledge. The Grammar Translation and Audio-Lingual methods (refer to section 2.1.5) are primarily grammar focused. These methods employ a synthetic approach where language is separated into distinct parts and taught individually in isolation.

However, there is a middle path between the two extremes that believes there is a 'weak interface' between explicit and implicit knowledge (VanPatten and Benati 2015, pp. 35–36). The driver that pushes SLA is implicit knowledge, but explicit knowledge can help as well. The factual aspects of the language, like grammar, can be taught explicitly. This will help learn faster. A weak interface advocates learning by doing. It gives procedural knowledge that helps you to use the language. The study materials are adopted for analytical syllabi like task-based language teaching (ibid.). These coursebooks explicitly include formal parts of the knowledge, like grammar. There is a place for grammar teaching, but it differs from the strong interface. Communication precedes classroom language use, with minimal reliance on mechanical practices. Grammar rules, drills, and error correction are rarely, if at all, used.

There is no consensus on whether teaching grammar should be explicit or implicit among researchers; however, to conclude the discussion, a position that skill acquisition theory takes is important to note, "learning is a movement from declarative knowledge (i.e., explicit

knowledge of rules and systems) to procedural knowledge (i.e., knowledge of how to use the system). Students first learn the new target rules and structures through the development of conscious knowledge, and then practice them to gain control of them” (Nassaji and Fotos 2011, p. 4).

2.2.7 Form Focused and Focus on Meaning Instructions

The distinction between form and meaning is important in SLA as it helps understand how learners acquire and process language. Form-focused instruction emphasizes teaching grammatical structures, pronunciation, and other formal aspects of language. Meaning-focused instruction, on the other hand, prioritizes communication.

Form-focused instructions are divided into Focus on Forms (FonFs) and Focus on Form (FonF). The misperception between ‘Focus on Forms’ (FonFs) and ‘Focus on Form’ (FonF) arises due to their similar names and overlapping concepts. These terms were introduced by Long and Robinson (1998, p. 16) and they represent different approaches to language instruction.

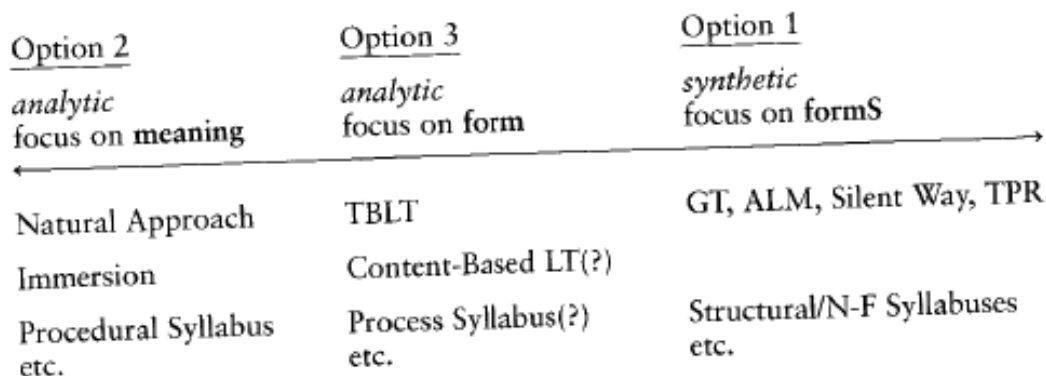
The Focus on Forms (FonFs) approach is a more conventional teaching method. It teaches grammatical structures by addressing each grammar item individually. In this approach, the L2 is divided based on linguistic components such as words, collocations, grammar rules, etc. These components are then compiled into lists and presented to learners sequentially as models for their learning. In FonFs, learners are encouraged to integrate these components into their communication (Long and Robinson 1998, p. 15). The primary emphasis in FonFs is on form. Here, activities are directed at each grammatical structure intensively. This approach involves teaching grammar through a series of separate lessons (Ellis 2006, p. 100). Approaches like GTM and ALM typically prioritize Focus-on-Forms (FonFs).

There was a growing realization that traditional syllabi were not producing the expected results. Teaching procedures seemed ineffective, prompting some SLA theorists to shift away from FonFs and embrace a Focus on Meaning (Long and Robinson 1998, pp. 18–21). Focus on Meaning methods advocate for language acquisition through immersive experiences, meaningful contexts, and task-based learning. However, Long describes this transition as ‘equally single-minded,’ indicating a strong promise to prioritize meaning over form in language instruction (ibid).

The third option, Focus on Form (FonF), aims to use the strengths of a Focus on Meaning approach while addressing its shortcomings. It emphasizes understanding the relationships between form and function. In FonF, syllabi consist of a series of pedagogical tasks. These tasks are not designed with a specific linguistic focus. The emphasis is on understanding the significance behind language use. Within this approach, attention to form is still present but is secondary to grasp the intended meaning. In FonF, primary attention is directed towards meaning, with occasional consideration given to form as needed (Long and Robinson 1998,

pp. 21–28). Figure 2.1 illustrates how Long and Robinson (1998, p. 16) define the differences between the terms.

Figure 2.1. Options in language teaching.



2.3 Estonian as a Second Language

2.3.1 Estonian L2 Learners

Estonian is one of the least widely spoken official languages in the European Union, with slightly over a million people speaking it as their native tongue (Statistikaamet n.d.). It is the only official language of Estonia after the restoration of independence. Metslang (2009, p. 3) states, “The higher status of Estonian in the past decades has brought along an increased study of Estonian as the second language among the non-Estonian-speaking population of Estonia as well as outside Estonia.”

Historically, Estonian learning as an L2 was limited to linguists or individuals with close ties to Finno-Ugric languages. In the Soviet period, there was an influx of Russian speakers who were not obliged to learn Estonian and often lived in areas where they could get by with just Russian. In this period, Russian was used in public administration, banking, military, railway, navy, and aviation (Verschik 2005, pp. 286–287). A network of Russian-medium schools was created. Estonian was not taught as an L2 in the Russian-medium schools. Many teachers in service in 1940 were replaced; some teachers were hired from other Soviet republics by 1949. This led to the dual school system, which coexisted with two parallel education tracks: the Estonian-language school system and the Russian-language school system. This “dual school system” extends beyond the Soviet era.

After independence in 1991, Estonia transitioned to a single official language. Hence, the

need to teach Estonian to its Russian-speaking population became paramount. Estonia has traditionally offered the choice for students to enroll in Russian-speaking primary and secondary schools. Nevertheless, there has been a shift away from a dual school system, driven by the recognition that all students require strong Estonian language skills to access fair educational and employment opportunities (Verschik 2005, pp. 303–305). At present, Estonian learners come from diverse backgrounds. These L2 learners include those with linguistic interests, while others have personal reasons. Foreign nationals residing in Estonia consider the Estonian language to be of practical importance. Specifically, they regard proficiency in Estonian as crucial for obtaining employment, residing in Estonia, and acquiring Estonian citizenship or a residence permit.

The demand for language proficiency has increased as the Estonian government recently introduced a major change affecting foreigners who are willing to renew their temporary residence permits (TRP) for employment in Estonia. Starting in July 2023, any foreigner wishing to extend a TRP initially granted after July 15, 2018, must demonstrate proficiency in the Estonian language at the A2 level or above (Riigikogu 2023, § 179). The professed goal of this requirement is to facilitate better integration of foreigners into Estonia.

Further, people applying for Estonian citizenship must pass the Estonian language proficiency test at level B1. The citizenship act states the requirement as “for the purposes of this Act, proficiency in the Estonian language means general proficiency in basic Estonian needed in everyday life which corresponds to the proficiency level B-1 specified in the Language Act or to an equivalent level” (Riigikogu 1995, § 8).

2.3.2 Estonian L2 Materials

Estonian language learning materials have traditionally focused on teaching Russian L1 speakers living in Estonia. This makes sense, given the country’s large Russian-speaking population. However, there has been a recent surge in resources designed for non-Russian speakers. The most commonly available materials English speakers can use are shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: List of materials available for use to L2 English speakers.

#	Name	Author	Level
1.	<i>Complete Estonian</i>	Mare Kitsnik, Leelo Kingisepp	0 - Level 4
2.	<i>E nagu Eesti</i>	Mall Pesti, Helve Ahi	0 - B1
3.	<i>Kirjuta mulle</i>	Mare Kitsnik	A1 - A2
4.	<i>K nagu Kihnu</i>	Mall Pesti	B2

Continued on next page

Table 2.1: List of materials available for use to L2 English speakers. (Continued)

#	Name	Author	Level
5.	<i>Keel Selgeks! Eesti keele õpik täiskasvanutele</i>	Sirje Rammo, Maarika Teral, Birute Klaas-Lang, Mari Allik	0 - B1
6.	<i>Mustmiljon küsimust</i>	Leelo Kingisepp, Marju Ilves,	A2
7.	<i>Naljaga...</i>	Mare Kitsnik, Leelo Kingisepp	A2
8.	<i>...pooleks</i>	Mare Kitsnik, Leelo Kingisepp	B1
9.	<i>Tere! Estonian for Beginners</i>	Inga Mangus, Merge Simmul	0 - A1
10.	<i>Tere jälle! Eesti keele õpik</i>	Inga Mangus, Merge Simmul	A1 - A2 (B1)

In the materials above, some are explicitly designed for English speakers, while others ‘can be’ used by L2 learners who understand English. The term ‘can be’ is used because not all these materials are exclusively intended for English learners. Instead, they are designed in a manner that allows them to be useful for speakers of other languages, such as German, Russian, and Finnish. In addition, two language portals, *Keelekliik* (0-A2) and *Keeletee* (B1), offer free online self-paced courses.

There are several other resources available for independent learners. Integration Foundation website gives a list of options for the beginner level; learners can use *speaking.me* and *50languages.com* (an app featuring educational games and assessments) (Integration Foundation n.d.). Eesti Keele Institute offers a beginner-friendly picture dictionary on their website: www.eki.ee/dict/psv/pildilehed.pdf. *Murimuri.net* offers fun and straightforward exercises for novice language learners. For advanced level learners, *multikey.app* offers a language practice application to facilitate finding chat partners and honing language skills online or through direct interaction. *Walktalk.ee* helps discover expressions for specific situations and enables users to compile personalized dictionaries. Meanwhile, *K44nuk.ee* serves as a digital grammar game and dictionary tailored for those learning Estonian at B1, B2, and advanced levels.

The Estonian government provides the Settle in Estonia program to support newly arrived migrants in their transition to local life. Participants gain insight into Estonia’s governance, societal dynamics, and daily routines through training courses. Information related to the program can be accessed through their website: www.settleinestonia.ee. The program offers language modules that provide Estonian language courses for individuals with residence permits. These courses are free and open to beginners (Settle in Estonia n.d.). Individuals who have moved to Estonia for work, study, family reunification, or any other purpose and have lived in the country for less than five years can join this program. The Settle in Estonia course offers a course book to learners enrolled in the program. The Ministry of the Interior Estonia funds this program, supported by the European Union through the European Social Fund

(ESF). The program aims to facilitate effective adaptation using various teaching methods, from self-paced learning to interactive games. The training method used in the language module is described as:

“The Estonian language course of the Settle in Estonia programme has a safe learning environment that involves and encourages the learner. The classes use inclusive active learning techniques and a variety of communication, listening, reading, and writing tasks. Pair and/or group work is used on each study day. Grammar drill and vocabulary learning are playful – communicative tasks are used to reinforce language structures” (Settle in Estonia n.d.).

2.3.3 Estonian Language Strategy (ELS)

The Estonian Language Strategy (ELS) has been planned to achieve the goal of all Estonian residents attaining proficiency in Estonian. It outlines Estonia’s language policy objectives and developmental trajectories for 2021-2035 (Ministry of Education and Research 2022, pp. 7–9). It includes three strategic goals. The first strategic goal is ensuring that Estonian remains widely used and respected. The second strategic goal aims to make research on the Estonian language world-class. It also aims to ensure that the tools and resources for learning and using Estonian are modern, accessible, and varied. Additionally, the vocabulary will be updated and expanded in a well-organized manner. The third goal involves advancing and delivering language education, including learning Estonian as a native language, acquiring it as a second language, and learning foreign languages (Ministry of Education and Research 2022, p. 7). This goal encompasses several key aspects, including development in facilitating Estonian language acquisition as a second language. This will involve developing teaching resources and methodologies, training educators, ensuring they possess the necessary skills to teach students of varying ages and cultural backgrounds.

ELS acknowledges achievements and challenges related to second language learning in Estonia. The achievements specifically related to second language acquisition include: Over the years, many resources for learning Estonian have been developed, including e-learning platforms like *Keeletee*. *Keeletee* caters to over 60,000 users learning Estonian through Russian and English. Additionally, Estonian language houses have been set up, offering various opportunities for practicing Estonian communication (Ministry of Education and Research 2022, p. 22).

The ELS report highlights key language teaching and learning challenges relevant to Estonian as L2. Some of these challenges include a shortage of language teachers, underutilization of existing e-learning resources, limited improvement in language skills among learners with other native languages, ineffective teaching methods in basic education, and insufficient practice opportunities for adults aiming to pass state language proficiency exams (Ministry of Education and Research 2022, pp. 22–23). One challenge is the limited applied research

on teaching methodologies for Estonian as a second language. Research on methodologies is scarce, and modern teaching methods are underutilized (Ministry of Education and Research 2022, p. 23). This provides an opportunity to analyze existing teaching approaches used in the material so that they can be improved if necessary.

3 DATA AND METHODS

This chapter discusses the methods and data used in the thesis. It is structured into four main parts. First, I will provide an overview of the data sources in section 3.1. Subsequently, I will discuss the research method in section 3.2. The framework used for analyzing the collected data will be discussed in section 3.3. Lastly, section 3.4 will provide the study's aims and scope.

3.1 Data Sources

This study examines seven learning materials suitable for people who want to learn Estonian through English. It is important to clarify the term 'suitable' as some of these materials can also be used by non-English speakers, such as Russian or Finnish, which are popular languages for learning Estonian in Estonia. It should also be noted that the term 'learners' includes both people who speak English as an L1 and those who have learned English as an L2.

I intended to choose beginner-friendly materials. The selected materials are suitable for absolute beginners with no prior exposure to Estonian. I aimed to include the latest available books during selection. It is important to acknowledge that some books may have been published earlier. However, the data presented in this thesis accurately reflects the publishing year information associated with the books used. Due to time constraints and the specific scope of this study, the selection of materials was limited to seven. The materials that were examined as part of this study are listed in alphabetical order in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Overview of learning materials.

#	Learning Material	Level	Author	Year of Publication	Publisher
1.	<i>Complete Estonian</i>	0 - Level 4	Mare Kitsnik, Leelo Kingisepp	2010	Hodder Education
2.	<i>Eesti Keel 0>A1.1</i>	0 - A1.1	Piret Toomet, Linda Palts, Katrin Jänese	2022	Tartu Ülikool

Continued on next page

Table 3.1: Overview of learning materials. (Continued)

#	Learning Material	Level	Author	Year of Publication	Publisher
3.	<i>E nagu Eesti</i>	0 - B1	Mall Pesti, Helve Ahi	2018	Kiri-Mari Publishing OÜ
4.	<i>Keel Selgeks! Eesti keele õpik täiskasvanutele</i>	0 - B1	Sirje Rammo, Maarika Teral, Birute Klaas- Lang, Mari Allik	2017	Avita Publishing House
5.	<i>Settle in Estonia</i>	0 - A1	Marju Ilves, Leelo Kingisepp	2023	Ministry of Culture
6.	<i>Tere! Estonian for Beginners</i>	0 - A1	Inga Mangus, Merge Simmul	2017	Kirjatark OÜ
7.	<i>Keeleklikk</i>	0 - A2	Leelo Kingisepp, Marju Ilves	2014	Software by Hydraco OÜ

3.1.1 Complete Estonian (Kitsnik and Kingisepp 2010)

Complete Estonian (Kitsnik and Kingisepp 2010) consists of 14 thematic units and 386 pages. It is in A5 format. Two CDs accompany it. This book was first published in the UK in 2008 as *Teach Yourself Estonian*. The book features a black-and-white appearance and includes pictures to describe specific topics. At the outset, there are two sections: ‘Only got one minute?’, which offers a concise overview of Estonia’s geography and the Estonian language on a single page. The subsequent section, ‘Only got five minutes?’, provides a more detailed exploration of Estonia and the Estonian language. The introduction section outlines the book’s structure and how to use instructions.

The preface mentions that the book suits classroom instruction and independent study. Its goal is to progressively develop grammar skills through encountering different situations (Kitsnik and Kingisepp 2010, pp. XII–XIII). It is specifically tailored for English learners. The material assumes learners have no prior knowledge of Estonian (*ibid*). The book contains listening, speaking, reading, and writing exercises. Each unit commences with listening exercises. For reference, the CD and track numbers accompany all listening exercises. Grammar is integrated into the end of each unit under the heading ‘Language patterns,’ and grammatical tasks are included within the same section. Grammar is related to the theme of the unit. Grammar explanations are occasionally also found adjacent to the ‘Language patterns’ section.

3.1.2 *Eesti Keel 0>A1.1* (Toomet et al. 2022)

Eesti Keel 0>A1.1 (Toomet et al. 2022) is created by Estonian language teachers at the University of Tartu. It comprises two separate books, which cover six thematic topics. Together, it spans a total of 107 pages. At the back of the second book, is a section dedicated to ‘The Origin of the Estonian Language.’ The appearance of the book is black and white and has accompanying pictures. It is designed for learners starting from level zero and progressing to the A1.1 level. The medium of instruction is English. It is available to students enrolled in Estonian language classes at the University of Tartu and intended for classroom use. The grammar is located at the end of each chapter, typically highlighted with a square, and the heading is identified by grammar topic. In the context of the thesis, this book is referred to by the shortened name: *Eesti Keel*.

3.1.3 *E nagu Eesti* (Pesti and Ahi 2021)

E nagu Eesti (Pesti and Ahi 2021) is organized into 25 topics and contains 280 pages. The book’s overall appearance is characterized by shades of blue, maintaining a consistent color scheme throughout the content. The book aims to help students achieve proficiency up to level B1. The author briefly outlines the book’s structure at the beginning, stating that it starts with simple words and phrases. As learners progress through the book, it is hoped that they will gradually advance to a level where they can engage in spoken communication (Pesti and Ahi 2021, p. 3). No specific instructions are provided on how to use this book. ‘Kordamine’ section is included after every five units. They offer a review of the grammar taught in the preceding five units. This section comprises revision exercises covering the material from those units. The book includes tests as well. The answers to the tests are not provided. Instead, it suggests consulting with a teacher or Estonian friends to obtain the answers (Pesti and Ahi 2021).

The grammar-related content is color-coded, typically light blue, and is presented under the titled section ‘Keeletark.’ The instructions used are in Estonian only. However, at the end of the book, there is a vocabulary section called ‘Õppetükkide Sõnastik,’ which includes Russian, Finnish, German, and English vocabulary. Additionally, an accompanying website www.enagueesti.ee/en/ features listening exercises accessible under the ‘audio’ tab. For translations of the book, learners can refer to the ‘units’ tab, where the content is provided in English. Moreover, the website offers tips for learners and includes songs. The author also administers a Facebook group named ‘E nagu Eesti – Let’s Learn Estonian,’ where she addresses questions from learners.

3.1.4 *Keel Selgeks!* (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012a)

Keel Selgeks! (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012a) comprises three books. The primary book serves as the core material for learning Estonian. It contains 20 thematic chapters and spans 328 pages. Visually, the book uses shades of red to distinguish between different topics. Additionally, it contains pictures and photographs. Three accompanying CDs have listening activities and related texts. In the preface, the author states that *Keel Selgeks!* is designed for adult language learners with experience studying one or two foreign languages. However, the book is also suitable for beginners and those who already have some knowledge of Estonian (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012a, p. 4). The book is intended to teach at the B1 level. The second book is the grammar book. It consists of 80 pages and 19 chapters. Each is dedicated to one grammar point. Unlike the coursebook, the grammar book is available in Russian, English, and Finnish. Lastly, the appendices cover glossary, translation tasks, and texts for listening activities. These appendices are also available in Russian, English, and Finnish (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012a).

3.1.5 *Settle in Estonia* (Kingisepp and Ilves 2023)

Settle in Estonia (Kingisepp and Ilves 2023) course is a part of the government's initiative to offer free language courses for individuals who have recently immigrated to Estonia. The book is offered to the learners who attend these courses. It is designed to help learners achieve proficiency up to A1. The total pages are 91 and offer 23 different topics. The publication consists of two main components: the coursebook and practice workbook. The coursebook contains instructions in Estonian only. This course is specifically meant for people who immigrated to Estonia. The language training is exclusively conducted in Estonian, without using any other language. Therefore, individuals motivated to learn Estonian can join the course regardless of their native language; hence, it is included in the thesis. It is integrated with *Keeleklikk* for some listening activities. In this course "the participant is encouraged to learn words independently, to practice what has been learned in a language environment, and to write shorter texts about themselves" (Settle in Estonia n.d.). Towards the end of the book, a map of Estonia is included. Additionally, useful links are provided to assist learners in furthering their studies. It is intended for classroom use, guided by a teacher. The practice workbooks contain vocabulary practice. There is also a teacher's handbook for teachers. The book uses Estonian as a medium of instruction.

3.1.6 *Tere! Estonian for Beginners 0-A1* (Mangus and Simmul 2017)

Tere! Estonian for Beginners 0-A1 (Mangus and Simmul 2017) consists of a total of 230 pages. In the context of the thesis, this book is referred to by the shortened name: *Tere*. The authors state that learners can expect to spend 60-80 hours completing the material, depending on the group size (Mangus and Simmul 2017). Instructions on how to use the book are

initially given with diagrams. This is a colorful book that uses different colors to distinguish sections. The book contains listening, writing, reading, and speaking exercises. Learners can access grammar videos, audio for listening exercises, and digital exercises via the QR code. A separate book exists for Russian learners.

3.1.7 *Keeleklikk* (Kingisepp and Ilves 2014)

Keeleklikk (Kingisepp and Ilves 2014) is an Internet-based Estonian language course for beginners. This e-course is accessible online. It allows learners to progress at their own pace and convenience. The course is available to English, Russian, and Ukrainian speakers. It is organized into 16 language learning units and covers language levels 0 to A2. *Keeleklikk* also offers the opportunity for students to communicate with a real Estonian teacher by exchanging letters via email. The homework can be submitted to Estonian teachers for error checking. This project has received funding from the European Social Fund and the Estonian Ministry of Education and Science. It is freely accessible on computers and all mobile devices for anyone interested in using it. Detailed instructions on how to navigate the website are provided under the ‘Help’ tab. Each chapter comprises videos, listening exercises, writing tasks, speaking activities, and grammar exercises.

3.2 Qualitative vs Quantitative Analysis

Whether to use quantitative or qualitative research methods for this study is not a complicated decision. Quantitative research typically involves quantifying data, starting from broad theories, and aiming to test them using specific data (Levon 2018, p. 139). It focuses on answering questions like ‘how much,’ ‘how often,’ and ‘how many,’ among others. Qualitative research is different from quantitative analysis in that it is not focused on testing a specific hypothesis.

Relying solely on quantitative methods when studying the presentation of grammar cases might not provide a complete understanding. These methods might overlook the implementation of pedagogical approaches across different resources. Qualitative methods in L2 research offer the flexibility to investigate a wide range of questions that quantitative methods may not address effectively (Nassaji 2020, p. 427). So, in this case, browsing resources and collecting data (qualitative methods) would be better rather than just counting how many times they appear and how many examples or exercises are given (quantitative methods). Additionally, these learning materials cater to different CEFR proficiency levels. In such a case, a qualitative assessment seems more suitable than a quantitative one.

Qualitative research gathers and analyzes non-numerical data, such as observations, interviews, case studies, etc. “Qualitative approaches are particularly valuable in providing in-depth, rich data” (Angouri 2018, p. 41). Moreover, my interest lies in exploring the ‘how’ rather

than ‘why’, and qualitative research seeks to figure out how things work and what they mean, rather than trying to control them. It looks at the big picture and tries to get the overall idea. Considering all these factors, a qualitative approach aligns better with my research questions and objectives.

The data was collected by browsing each book and page individually. The learning materials consist of examples targeting various aspects of language and grammar. Each aspect is addressed through exercises. For this thesis, I shall concentrate on examples and exercises centered around cases, not any other linguistic feature or grammar point. This targeted selection allows me to concentrate on the analysis of relevant content. Table 3.2 presents the grammar sections from which data is collected, to provide a concise summary overview.

Table 3.2: Grammar sections.

#	Learning Material	Grammar Section Identifier
1.	<i>Complete Estonian</i>	Language Patterns (located at the end of each unit.)
2.	<i>Eesti Keel</i>	Identified by grammar topic, highlighted with a square.
3.	<i>E nagu Eesti</i>	Keeletark, the light, blue-colored section is at the end of each unit.
4.	<i>Keel Selgeks</i>	Units 1-5 and grammar book chapters 3 to 8.
5.	<i>Settle in Estonia</i>	There was no specific grammar section.
6.	<i>Tere</i>	No Section name, identified by each grammar topic, Highlighted with orange color.
7.	<i>Keeleklikk</i>	Let’s Learn Grammar

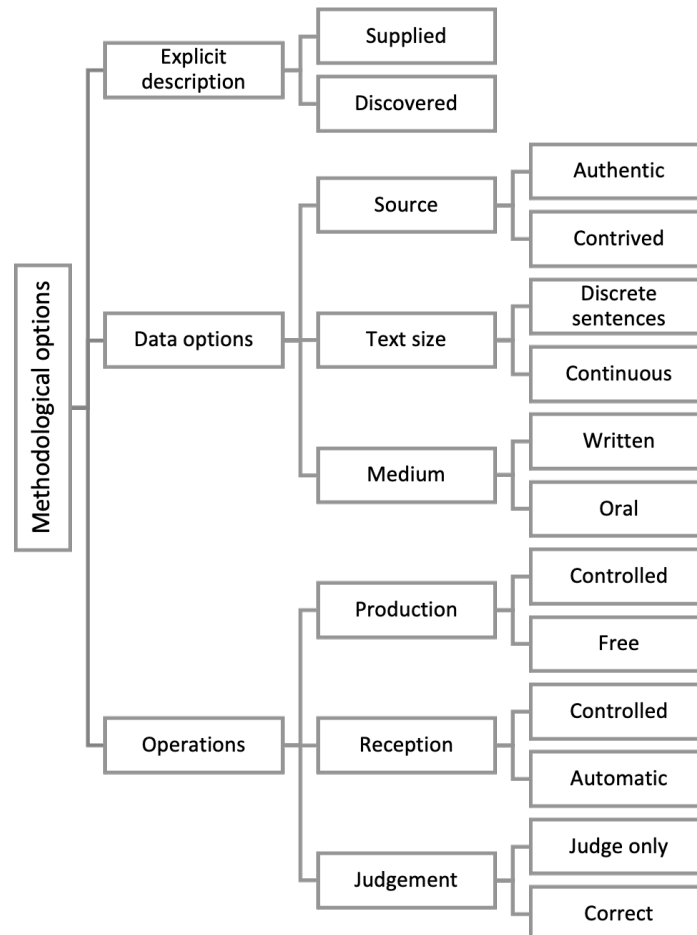
As depicted in Table 3.2, *Settle in Estonia* (Kingisepp and Ilves 2023) does not have a distinct grammar section. Therefore, the entire book was reviewed for data collection. In the case of *Keeleklikk* (Kingisepp and Ilves 2014), each link in the grammar section was clicked to gather data.

3.3 Framework

The framework used to categorize data is based on Ellis’s (2008, p. 160) system of methodological options. I have found that this approach is the most systematic method for analyzing the material. It suits the data requirements of this thesis. The data includes explanations, examples, and exercises for learning cases. Hence, Ellis’s framework proves to be a fitting match for the dataset. Although the framework primarily targets textbooks, it is adaptable. It is applicable for analyzing online resources like *Keeleklikk*.

It comprises three main categories: ‘explicit description’, ‘data options’, and ‘operations.’ These categories describe ways of presenting grammar points. Each category has subcategories (Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1. A system of methodological options (Ellis 2008, p. 160)



The first category is ‘explicit description’. It looks at how the grammar point is explained. It is subdivided into ‘supplied’ and ‘discovered’. The ‘supplied’ description looks at whether the grammar point is directly explained. When learners deduce their explanations by actively engaging in activities, they discover their understanding. In this scenario, the explanations are categorized as ‘discovered.’ However, the term ‘explicit description discovered’ appears contradictory as the discovery based approach emphasizes implicit learning. Considering this for better transparency, I will use the heading as an ‘explanation’ instead of an ‘explicit description.’

The second category focuses on examples and their presentation. The current heading lacks intuitive clarity regarding what is being observed. Therefore, I will use the heading ‘examples’ instead. Ellis distinguishes examples from exercises within this category, which can be further divided into three subcategories: ‘source’, ‘text size’, and ‘medium’ (Ellis 2008, p. 160).

The ‘source’ is divided into ‘authentic’ and ‘contrived’. ‘Contrived’ examples are specifically created to show grammar points. Conversely, ‘authentic’ examples come from real-life texts, such as poems, advertisements, quotes, magazine articles, newspapers, etc. These examples are not specifically created to teach grammar; rather, they are intended to expose learners to the language they might encounter in real-world situations.

The ‘text size’ refers to whether the examples contain isolated words, phrases, or sentences. If so, the data will be labeled as ‘discrete.’ Otherwise, longer texts are ‘continuous’ (Ellis 2008, p. 160). However, the heading ‘text size’ is ambiguous. It may suggest the focus is on the size of characters, which is not intended here. Hence, ‘text structure’ is more appropriate to use instead of ‘text size’. The ‘medium’ means how data is communicated to learners, whether in ‘written’ or ‘oral’ form.

The third category encompasses ‘operations’ that deal with what exercises are presented. Hence, I will use heading ‘exercises’ rather than ‘operations’ to add clarity. It is further divided into ‘production’ (controlled/free), ‘reception’ (controlled/automatic), and ‘judgment’ (judge only/correct). The ‘production exercises’ involve producing sentences using the targeted form. These exercises may either be ‘controlled’, providing learners with structured prompts such as gap-filling exercises, or ‘free’, allowing learners to express themselves creatively. An example can be writing an essay where meaningful sentences are produced using target forms.

The ‘reception’ exercises assess student’s comprehension of the target structure. In a ‘controlled reception’ exercise, students understand a sentence at their own speed. However, the key difference here is that the learner is not creating new text like in ‘controlled production’. An ‘automatic reception’ learners process sentences in real time, an example would be a listening task.

Lastly, ‘judgment’ exercises make a metalinguistic judgment about a sentence’s correctness. They are further divided into ‘judge only’ exercises, where the learner decides whether the given sentence is grammatical or ungrammatical. On the other hand, ‘judgment correct’ exercises ask learners to fix the errors. In a nutshell, Table 3.3 provides examples of exercise categories.

Table 3.3: Exercise subcategories with examples.

Task Type	Description	Examples
Controlled production	Learners <u>modify</u> a given text using the specified grammar point. They work within predefined boundaries.	Given sentence: <i>Mother ___ every-morning. (cook)</i> Learner writes it to: <i>Mother cooks every morning.</i>

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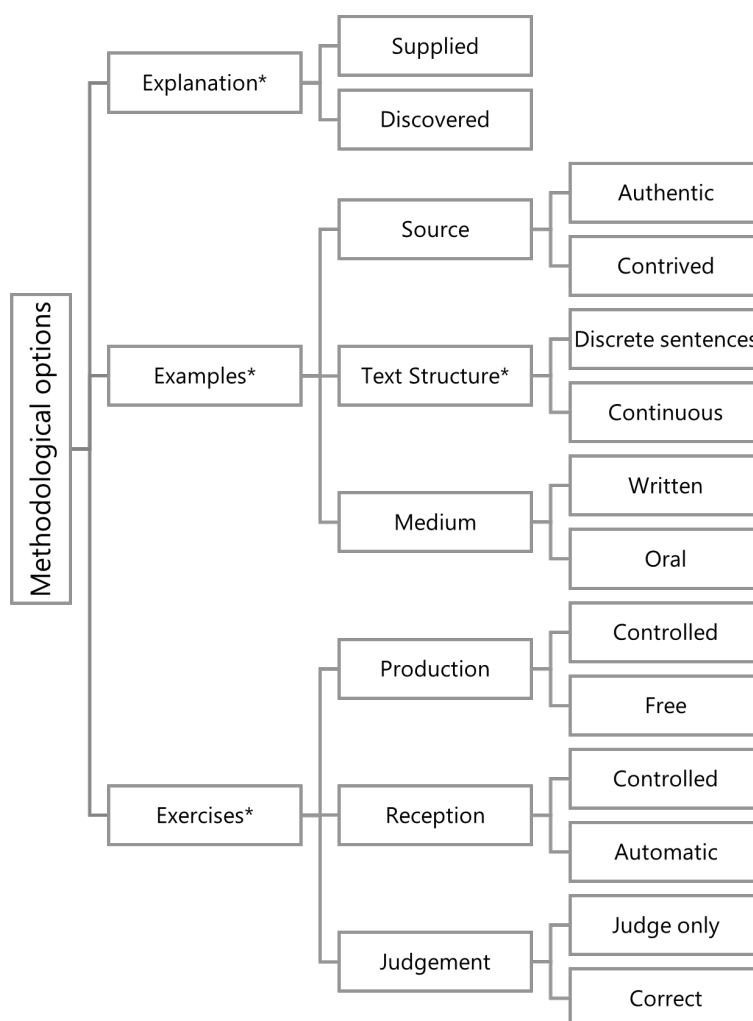
Table 3.3: Exercise subcategories with examples. (Continued)

Task Type	Description	Examples
Free production	Learners <u>create</u> their sentences using the given grammar point. Allows creative freedom.	Create a sentence using the past perfect tense: <i>He had lived in America.</i>
Controlled reception	Learners <u>control the speed</u> at which they process sentences during comprehension tasks.	Read a paragraph and answer questions. (not a time-bound exercise)
Automatic reception	Learners process sentences <u>in real time</u> , without control over the speed.	Listen to a dialogue and answer the questions.
Judge only	Learners <u>make a judgment</u> whether a given sentence is grammatical or not.	Decide if: <i>She go to the store</i> is correct or incorrect.
Correct	Learners <u>identify and fix errors</u> in a sentence.	Correct: <i>You is a doctor</i> to <i>You are a doctor.</i>

Note: Examples created by author

Based on this information, figure 3.2 presents a framework with modified headings (indicated with asterisks), which will be used hereafter.

Figure 3.2. A system of methodological options (*revised headings)



Lastly, I align myself with Ellis in that the data analysis did not analyze how often (frequency) each author used different options. Instead, the focus is on whether a specific option appeared at any point in each unit (Ellis 2008, p. 162).

3.4 Aims and Scope

The topic of case presentation in learning materials can be studied from different angles. For example, how L2 learners acquire grammatical cases and compare how well the materials meet learners' needs. However, this is beyond the scope of the thesis. The study refrains from providing a preference order for the learning materials to avoid subjective judgments about superiority. Instead, the primary goal is to analyze and understand the approaches embedded within each resource. Individual learning styles or preferences are not addressed in this study. Learning materials often vary based on personal inclinations and aptitudes. Therefore, the research does not prescribe a one-size-fits-all solution. Furthermore, this study does not

explore pedagogical aspects beyond cases, such as vocabulary acquisition, cultural context, and other grammatical structures. External factors like classroom dynamics, teacher expertise, or learner motivation are also not considered within the scope of this thesis. The goal is to compare approaches in learning materials by examining the presentation of grammatical rules for cases, using corresponding examples, and the design of practice exercises. This involves examining whether the materials explicitly explain the rule or encourage learners to discover it through examples and practice. It also includes comparing the level of detail in the explanations and the examples provided. Additionally, it involves identifying the skills targeted by the exercises, such as recognition, production, etc.

4 RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the analysis of the seven L2 learning materials. Section 4.1 discusses what topics are introduced before cases are presented, and section 4.2 shows the order in which cases appear. This is followed by an analysis of how cases are shown in L2 learning materials in section 4.3.

4.1 Research Question One: Topics Introduced Before Cases

The first research question asks what topics are introduced to the learners before introducing cases and at what point cases are introduced. The objective is to ascertain when the cases are introduced, and the background knowledge given to the students. Estonian is a case language. Words written using cases appear implicitly from the beginning, and even basic sentences inherently feature cases. For this research question, I considered instances that explicitly describe cases. Table 4.1 outlines general and grammar concepts introduced before cases and the relevant unit where the first explicit mention of a case appears.

Table 4.1: Topics covered before cases and case introduction point.

#	Learning Material	General Topics Covered Before Cases	Introduction to Grammar Concepts	Case Introduction Point
1.	<i>Complete Estonian</i>	Common greetings, everyday expressions, Estonian surname information, language names in Estonian, dialogues with greetings and 'How are you?', pronunciation of consonants, time-telling, numbers 1 to 12.	Pronunciation features of Estonian, personal pronouns, present tense, negation in present tense, compound verbs, the formation of yes/no questions, and possessive pronouns.	Unit 3 (<i>Vabandage, kus on...?</i>)

Continued on next page

Table 4.1: Topics covered before cases and case introduction point. (Continued)

#	Learning Material	General Topics Covered Before Cases	Introduction to Grammar Concepts	Case Introduction Point
2.	<i>Eesti Keel</i>	General information about Estonia and Tartu, features of the Estonian language, greetings, alphabet, numbers, time-telling, weekdays, seasons, month, country, capital, nationality, and language.	An overview of Estonian grammar, pronunciation, who/what, yes/no questions, personal pronouns, and verb conjugation in the present tense.	Unit 2 (<i>Mina olen...</i>)
3.	<i>E nagu Eesti</i>	Estonian culture, alphabet, numbers, vocabulary, greetings, Estonian city names, and directions.	Personal pronouns, Present tense, Negation, Question words (who/what, yes/no questions).	Unit 1 (<i>Tere!</i>)
4.	<i>Keel Selgeks</i>	Alphabet.	Grammar Book: Specific features of Estonian, pronunciation, explanation of the concept of a case, personal pronouns, present tense verb conjugation.	Chapter 3 (Grammar book)
5.	<i>Settle in Estonia</i>	Greetings, words, numbers, alphabet, clock, days, month, season, country, nationality, language, colors.	Present tense (<i>olema</i>).	Unit 7 (<i>Kohv ja pitsa</i>)
6.	<i>Tere</i>	Alphabet, greetings.	Personal pronouns, present tense (<i>olema</i>), <i>-ma</i> and <i>-da</i> infinitive, verbs conjugation (present tense), negation.	Unit 3 (<i>Kas te räägite eesti keelt?</i>)

Continued on next page

Table 4.1: Topics covered before cases and case introduction point. (Continued)

#	Learning Material	General Topics Covered Before Cases	Introduction to Grammar Concepts	Case Introduction Point
7.	<i>Keeleklikk</i>	Greetings, months, time-telling, useful expressions, Estonian alphabet.	Verb (present tense), verb (present tense negation), imperative, imperative negation, personal pronouns, yes-no questions, pronunciation.	Section 2.4.10

Table 4.1 shows the learning materials vary in where they present cases. The first case is introduced anywhere from Unit 1 to Unit 7. *E nagu Eesti* introduce cases in Unit 1, while other learning materials introduce them later, typically in Unit 2 or 3. *Settle in Estonia* delays formal case introduction until Unit 7. All materials feature thematic chapters, each centered around a specific topic or theme. They organize vocabulary, grammar, and activities centered in each chapter around a particular subject, such as family, food and drink, travel, etc. Cases are also presented using these themes.

Before introducing cases, the most common topics covered are the alphabet, greetings, personal pronouns, present tense (*olema*), and numbers. Some learning materials cover more specific topics such as directions, clock, days, months, seasons, colors, names of the countries, nationalities, and languages. Additionally, learning materials prepare learners for their learning journey. For instance, *E nagu Eesti* gives tips for learning Estonian at the beginning. *Complete Estonian* in its ‘What’s the Estonian language like?’ gives a swift overview of cases by comparing them with English without labeling them. *Eesti Keel* mentions that the Estonian language has 14 cases in the language overview. *Keel Selgeks* and *Tere* also mention 14 cases in Estonian; however, they do so upon formally introducing cases.

4.2 Research Question Two: Sequence of Cases

The second research question looks for the sequence of cases. The results are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Sequence of cases in L2 learning materials.

#	Learning Material	Case Names And Order In Which They Are Introduced
1.	<i>Complete Estonian</i>	inessive, adessive, illative, comitative, abessive, allative, nominative, genitive, partitive, elative, ablative, essive, terminative, translative.
2.	<i>Eesti Keel</i>	inessive, adessive, elative, ablative, nominative, genitive, partitive, allative, illative, comitative, abessive.
3.	<i>E nagu Eesti</i>	nominative, inessive, adessive, genitive, partitive, illative, allative, ablative, elative, comitative, abessive, essive, translative, terminative.
4.	<i>Keel Selgeks</i>	nominative, genitive, partitive, illative, inessive, elative, allative, adessive, ablative, translative, terminative, essive, abessive, comitative.
5.	<i>Settle in Estonia</i>	nominative, genitive, partitive, adessive, inessive, allative, illative, comitative.
6.	<i>Tere</i>	nominative, genitive, partitive, adessive, inessive, allative, illative, elative, ablative, comitative, abessive, essive, translative, terminative.
7.	<i>Keeleklikk</i>	inessive, adessive, nominative, genitive, allative, partitive, comitative, abessive, elative, ablative, essive, terminative, illative, translative.

Table 4.2 shows that all materials, except *Eesti Keel*, *Tere* and *Settle in Estonia* cover all fourteen cases. The order in which these cases are taught also varies. *Keel Selgeks* and *Tere* initially teach basic grammatical cases (nominative, genitive, partitive). *E nagu Eesti* starts with the nominative case, but the introduction is brief. A detailed introduction is provided later in Unit 4, along with the genitive and partitive. *Settle in Estonia* is also in the same group; it starts with teaching basic grammatical cases. However, its presentation style is different than others. It is discussed in detail in the next research question. Other learning materials begin with locative cases. *Keel Selgeks* includes all six locative cases in Unit 5. The other cases, terminative, essive, abessive, and comitative, are presented in proximity. It has been observed that all materials introduce the comitative and abessive cases together. In *Eesti Keel* essive and terminative cases were not found. *Settle in Estonia* had only a comitative case.

4.3 Research Question Three: Approaches to Introducing Cases

The third research question explores how materials offer explanations, examples, and exercises in more detail. For this purpose, Ellis’s (2008) methodological options are employed. The data is visually represented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Overview of Explanations, Examples, and Exercises in L2 Learning Materials (according to Ellis’s 2008 coding system - see section 3.3).

Materials		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
Explanations	Supplied	X	X	X	X		X	X	
	Discovered					X			
Examples	Source	Authentic							
		Contrived	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Text structure	Discrete	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
		Continuous							
	Medium	Written	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		Oral						X	X
Exercises	Production	Controlled	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
		Free		X		X	X	X	
	Reception	Controlled	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
		Automatic		X		X	X		
	Judgement	Judge only	X			X			X
		Correct							

Legends: A = Complete Estonian, B = E nagu Eesti, C = Eesti Keel, D = Keel Selgeks, E = Settle in Estonia, F = Tere, G = Keeleklikk


4.3.1 Explanation and Examples

Table 4.3 shows a consistent trend among selected materials, where descriptions are ‘supplied’ along with ‘contrived,’ ‘discrete,’ and ‘written’ examples. Overall, the ‘production’ and ‘reception’ exercises dominate.

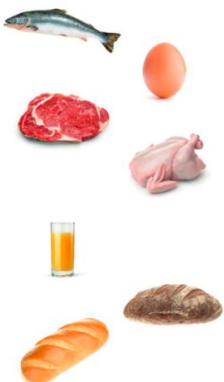
However, in terms of ‘explanation’, *Settle in Estonia* stands out. It takes an approach that presents learners with tasks/activities to discover patterns for cases. This contrasts with the other materials, which provide direct explanation. Figure 4.1 illustrates one such task, where

learners are asked to form a genitive and partitive case. The goal is to make learners aware of cases without providing information about them. An example sentence immediately follows the task (Figure 4.2). This is inductive learning, where students learn by doing.

Figure 4.1. *Settle in Estonia*, unit 7, page 23. Figure 4.2. *Settle in Estonia*, unit 7, page 25.

 2. Vaata ja õpi!

I vorm	II vorm	III vorm
kala	kala	kaks kala
muna		kaks
liha		kilo
kana		kaks
mahl	mahlia	kaks mahlia
leib	leiva	kaks leiba
sai		kaks



I vorm leib	II vorm leiva	III vorm leiba
Siin on leib .	Leivas on rosinad.	Ma söön leiba .
Kas see on leib ?	leivas upp	Ma ei söö leiba .
Mulle maitseb leib .	leivad	kaks leiba
		kilo leiba

As seen in Figure 4.2, *Settle in Estonia* uses the I, II, and III forms to refer to nominative, genitive, and partitive. Other cases are addressed with question words. The examples in this book are ‘written.’ They are intentionally created, i.e., ‘contrived,’ with the specific purpose of teaching cases. No ‘authentic’ examples are found throughout the book. These examples typically consist of ‘discrete’ one-word or short sentences containing 3 to 4 words. While longer dialogues and paragraphs are also included in the book, they primarily serve as part of listening or reading practice exercises.

Moreover, the examples are not translated into English. The book’s medium of instruction is Estonian. This book is given to the learners who attend *Settle in Estonia* language course. According to the *Settle in Estonia* website, these language training courses are conducted entirely in Estonian. The groups are formed without consideration of participants’ native languages (*Settle in Estonia* n.d.). The exercise itself is an example as well as an explanation. This book is meant to be used in the classroom, and the teacher will guide learners through these exercises. It has a separate book that guides teachers on how to use this book in class; however, I could not access the teacher’s guide.

The other six materials include ‘supplied’ grammar instructions. Each has a dedicated grammar section that presents the rules of Estonian cases. *Complete Estonian* has a separate grammar section, but explanations for cases were also found in other sections. For example, the partitive case is explained in the ‘Estonian bars and coffee shops’ section in Unit 4 (page 77). Another instance is the ablative case (to indicate action from person originates), given under ‘Estonian

markets' in Unit 7 (page 139) instead of the 'Language Pattern,' where grammar is typically located. However, even though these instructions were in sections other than grammar, they are taught deductively.

Complete Estonian, Eesti Keel, Tere, and Keeleklikk can be grouped. All explain the description and meaning of cases in English. *Complete Estonian* is designed to meet the needs of English-speaking learners studying independently. The approach used in the book is independent of explanations from an instructor, and there is no requirement for prior language learning experience or knowledge of linguistic terminology (Kitsnik and Kingisepp 2010, p. XII).

Tere is only material that provides explanations and examples in oral and written format. It offers grammar videos that explain cases in English. Videos are accessible on their webpage at www.kirjatark.ee. The QR code and password for accessing the videos are provided in the textbook. The case endings are highlighted to emphasize form. Figure 4.3 provides an example of this presentation style. *Complete Estonian* drew attention to exceptions to the rule like *öösel* 'at night' with NB!

Figure 4.3. *Complete Estonian*, unit 5, pg. 90.

Language patterns

Millal? When? – adessive case

The answer to the question **Millal? When?** usually takes the ending **-l**. Like all case endings, it is added to the second, not the first form of the word. The case ending **-l** in this instance translates into English as *on, in* or *during*. For instance:

mis? what?		millal? when?	
hommik, -u	<i>morning</i>	hommikul	<i>in the morning</i>
vaba aeg, vaba aja	<i>free time</i>	vabal ajal	<i>during free time</i>
päev, -a	<i>day</i>	päeval	<i>during the day</i>
õhtu, -	<i>evening</i>	õhtul	<i>in the evening</i>
öö, -	<i>night</i>	NB! öösel	<i>during the night</i>
nädalavahetus, -e	<i>weekend</i>	nädalavahetusel	<i>during the weekend</i>

Tere provides grammar information concisely, highlights it with an orange color, and uses bubble shapes (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4. *Tere*, unit 8, pg. 79.



The three materials, *Complete Estonian*, *Eesti Keel*, and *Tere* present explanations immediately, followed by ‘discrete’ and ‘contrived’ examples. The examples provided aim to show particular cases and are usually comprised of individual words, phrases, and sentences that showcase the application of cases in language. Although some examples outside the grammar section may be based on real-life scenarios, they still cannot be considered ‘authentic’ since they are not specifically created to teach cases.

Keeleklikk does the opposite; it first shows an example of how a specific case works and then explains it. *Keeleklikk* introduces the concept of the case in section 2.4.10, ‘With one or two ‘a’-s?’ of chapter 2 (‘Let’s get acquainted!’). It uses colorful texts and examples. It also provides a comparison of how English grammar deals with scenarios in the absence of a case system. Further, it uses the comitative case with the suffix ‘-ga’ to illustrate how cases are formed in Estonian. The video explanation is as follows:

“*Tere!* Today we will discuss one very curious phenomenon. Many meanings can be expressed with case endings which are little bits added to the end of the word. Often the case endings have the same meaning as the English prepositions.

Look! *ma räägin Mariaga.* I’m speaking with Maria. *Ma õpin Juliaga.* I am studying with Julia. *Ma tantsin Romeoga.* I am dancing with Romeo. Did you notice? That the proposition within Estonian is expressed with the case ending ‘ga’. We always add ‘ga’ to the end of the word.

We used the same ending call when we want to talk about how names are spelled. For instance, say that the name Jaana is spelled with double A’s. Look, *Jaana, kahe a-ga. Karel ühe a-ga. Vera, ühe e-ga. Peeter, kahe e-ga. Kristina, ühe e-ga.*

Karoliina, kahe i-ga. Romeo, ühe ü-ga. Toomas, kahe o-ga. Uno, ühe u-ga.

That's it for today. See you soon. *Kohtumiseni!*"

Keeleklikk video transcript of section 2.4.10, time 0:18 - 2:11.

The scenario shows an example of explicit grammar instruction where the rules are taught explicitly. The explanation starts by telling what case endings are in Estonian, why they are important, and how they relate to English prepositions. The examples are given, and Estonian cases are compared with English prepositions.

Similarly, *Complete Estonian* takes an English construction and explains how to communicate it using an Estonian case rather than merely translating it into English. It shows how English and Estonian constructions are different. One such occurrence is the construction 'I like' compared with the allative case in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5. *Complete Estonian*, unit 5, pg. 93.

Mulle meeldib sport *I like sports – allative case*

The construction *I like* is different in English and Estonian. We use the same case ending *-le* we learnt in the previous unit, which is used with words like *ütlesma* *to say*, *andma* *to give*. It is added to the person who 'does the liking', for instance:

Joosepile meeldib sport.	<i>Joosep likes sports.</i>
Joosepile ei meeldi see laager.	<i>Joosep does not like this camp.</i>

The specific example (Figure 4.5) explains that the allative case ending *-le* uses verbs like *meeldima* 'to like' to indicate the 'experiencer' (person who likes) in this experiencer construction. This differs from English, where 'Joosep likes sports' is used instead of *Joosepi-le meeldib sport*. *Keeleklikk* exhibits the same but involves first providing an example within a situation and then presenting the rule for the constructions.

Such constructions are also present in *Tere*, which showed differences between English and Estonian constructions using 'contrived' and 'discrete' examples. As seen in Figure 4.6, the phrase 'Who is right?' could be translated into the mental grammar of English speakers as **Kes on õigus?* Instead, Estonian uses the adessive case, and the target sentence is *Kellel on õigus?* Such scenarios are often explained with examples and explanations in the grammar section and highlighted with 'But! In Estonian we say.'

Figure 4.6. *Tere*, unit 6, pg. 54.

□ **Kellel** on õigus? Who is right?
Teil on õigus. You are right.

□ **Kellel** on hea meel? Who is happy?
Mul on hea meel. I am happy.

But !

In Estonian we say:
Who has right?
You have right.

Who has a good mood?
I have a good mood.

Now you know it and should easily be able to answer the questions often asked in a supermarket:

□ Kas **teil** partnerkaart (säätukaart, kliendikaart) on? Do you have a loyalty card (savings card, loyalty card)?

□ Kas **teil** sente (kaht(e) eurot) on? Do you have sents (two euros)?

The answer is easy: *Jah, (on küll)!* or *Ei ole!*

Keel Selgeks fits within the above group of materials with ‘supplied’ explanations in English. However, its approach to explaining cases is different from that of others. In *Keel Selgeks*, the language used for explanation is more analytical than pedagogical. The ‘explanation’ uses metalinguistic terms, like in Figure 4.7. Here, the formation of an illative case is explained. The term ‘gradation’ has been previously mentioned in an earlier section, such as Chapter 2, ‘Specific Features of Estonian,’ where the book provides an overview of case formation in Estonian and the alterations that occur. It states, “Because of gradation some Estonian word stems undergo regular changes when declined or conjugated. The changes occur in the quality or quantity of stem sounds” (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012b, p. 8). However, the book does not explain terms like ‘gradation,’ ‘declension,’ ‘quality,’ ‘quantity,’ or ‘conjugation.’ The use of words such words seems to hypothesize that the learners are familiar with the terms and their meanings.

Figure 4.7. *Keel Selgeks* (Grammar Book), unit 5, pg. 18.

2. The short form of the illative has no ending. The short illative can be formed if the word has two syllables in the genitive, and from some one-syllable words.

Where gradational words have the genitive in the weak grade and the partitive in the strong grade, the short illative often coincides with the partitive.

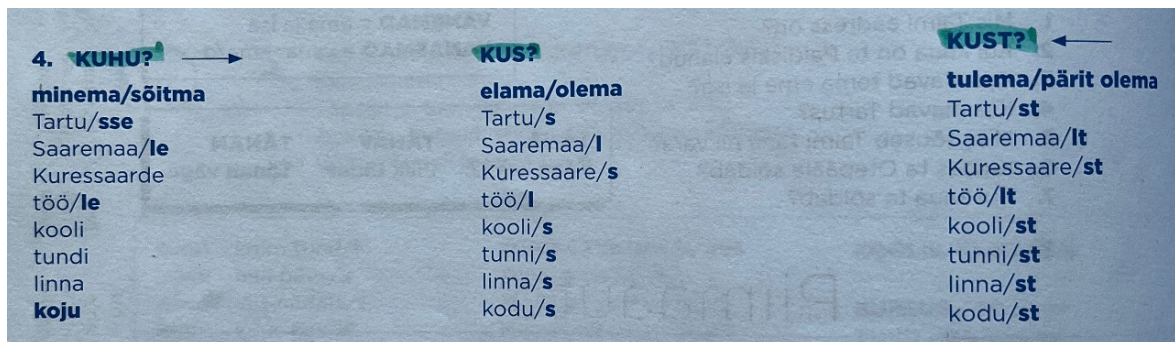
kott : koti : kotti > kotti into the bag

The ‘examples’ in *Keel Selgeks* are presented in two different places: the grammar book and

the coursebook. In both cases, the examples are ‘discrete’ and ‘contrived.’ They consist of separate words or sentences. However, there is a difference between the two. In the grammar book, examples are in English, while the course book is not. The preface asserts that the grammar book is bilingual, and learners can choose between Russian, English, and Finnish. But the coursebook is only in Estonian (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012a, p. 4).

In contrast to the materials discussed above, *E nagu Eesti* took a completely different approach, even though it is categorized as a ‘supplied’ explanation. It does not provide any explanation in written form. Instead, *E nagu Eesti* relies heavily on excessively ‘contrived’ examples (Figure 4.8). Here, the examples are limited to single words without any context or meaningful usage provided. The focus is solely on the form of the cases. The case endings are highlighted. Examples are not translated into English. The short grammar explanations are also on the website under the ‘Units’ tab at www.enagueesti.ee. However, the book does not have a QR code or mention of these explanations.

Figure 4.8. *E nagu Eesti*, unit 5, pg. 32.



‘Authentic’ examples are scattered throughout the book; for instance, poems such as *Vari* in Unit 4 (Pesti and Ahi 2021, p. 24), *Piimaauto* in Unit 5 (Pesti and Ahi 2021, p. 31), and *Õhtul* in Unit 7 (Pesti and Ahi 2021, p. 54). However, these are meant to show other grammar points or linguistic features, not the case.

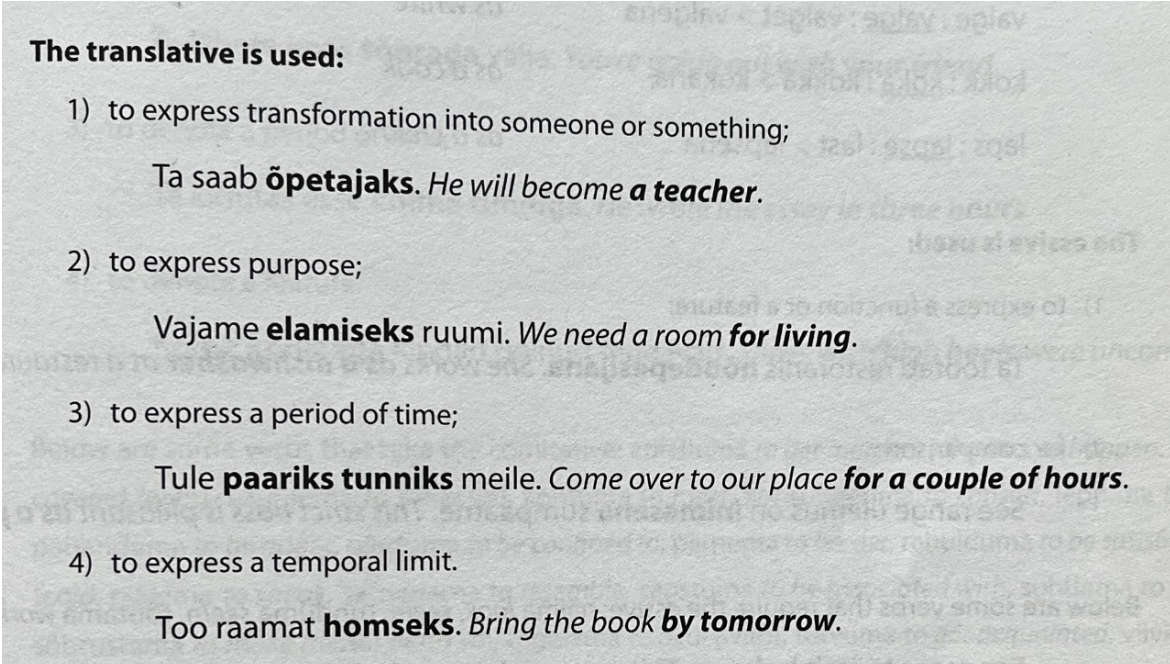
When discussing case representation in pedagogical resources, it is important to address two aspects of cases. First is the concept of case functions, where a single case is used in multiple grammatical or syntactic scenarios. Second, case government (*verbirektsioon*) refers to instances where a verb governs a specific case.

Most cases in Estonian are multifunctional. The nominative, genitive, and partitive cases in Estonian are considered polyfunctional (Miljan 2008, pp. 203–204). Additionally, the Estonian spatial cases are recognized for their significant multifunctionality (Aigro 2022, pp. 182–187). The locative cases have shared characteristics. The illative, inessive, elative, allative, adessive, and ablative, all express location relations, such as being in, on, into, onto, or at something.

Moreover, these cases exhibit multifunctionality, serving additional roles beyond their primary spatial meanings. For instance, in certain contexts, the adessive and allative cases can also mark experiencer arguments. Another example of multifunctionality of the case in Estonian would be the translative case, which can be used to express transformation into someone or something, to express purpose, a period, and to express temporal limits.

Data collected in this respect shows that materials vary in their presentation. *Keel Selgeks* covered all possible case usages in the same chapter where it introduced a case. The presentation sequence includes an explanation of the case, examples, and a list of all possible functions. An example sentence with its English translation is also provided for each function (Figure 4.9).

Figure 4.9. *Keel Selgeks* (Grammar Book), unit 7, pg. 25.



The translative is used:

- 1) to express transformation into someone or something;
Ta saab **õpetajaks**. *He will become **a teacher**.*
- 2) to express purpose;
Vajame **elamiseks** ruumi. *We need a room **for living**.*
- 3) to express a period of time;
Tule **paariks tunniks** meile. *Come over to our place **for a couple of hours**.*
- 4) to express a temporal limit.
Too raamat **homseks**. *Bring the book **by tomorrow**.*

In contrast, other materials show each purpose of the case in separate units. For instance, *E nagu Eesti* introduces the translative case in Unit 10 to express transformation into someone or something. Subsequently, it progressed through other grammatical features before revisiting the remaining usages of the translative case in Unit 17. In this context, *Complete Estonian*, *Tere*, and *Keeleklikk* prompted learners to remember that this specific case has been previously covered. Moreover, *Complete Estonian* mentions the chapter number where it was initially introduced, signaling that it is reintroduced in a different context.

Turning to the case government topic, *Keel Selgeks* has a list of such verbs within its chapters. The material followed a format that provides explanations, examples, and case functions. It immediately supplies a list of verbs associated with the previously discussed case, similar to the one shown in Figure 4.10. Nevertheless, a list of verbs is provided without consideration

of proficiency level. For instance, *viitama* ‘to refer’ might not be appropriate for beginners.

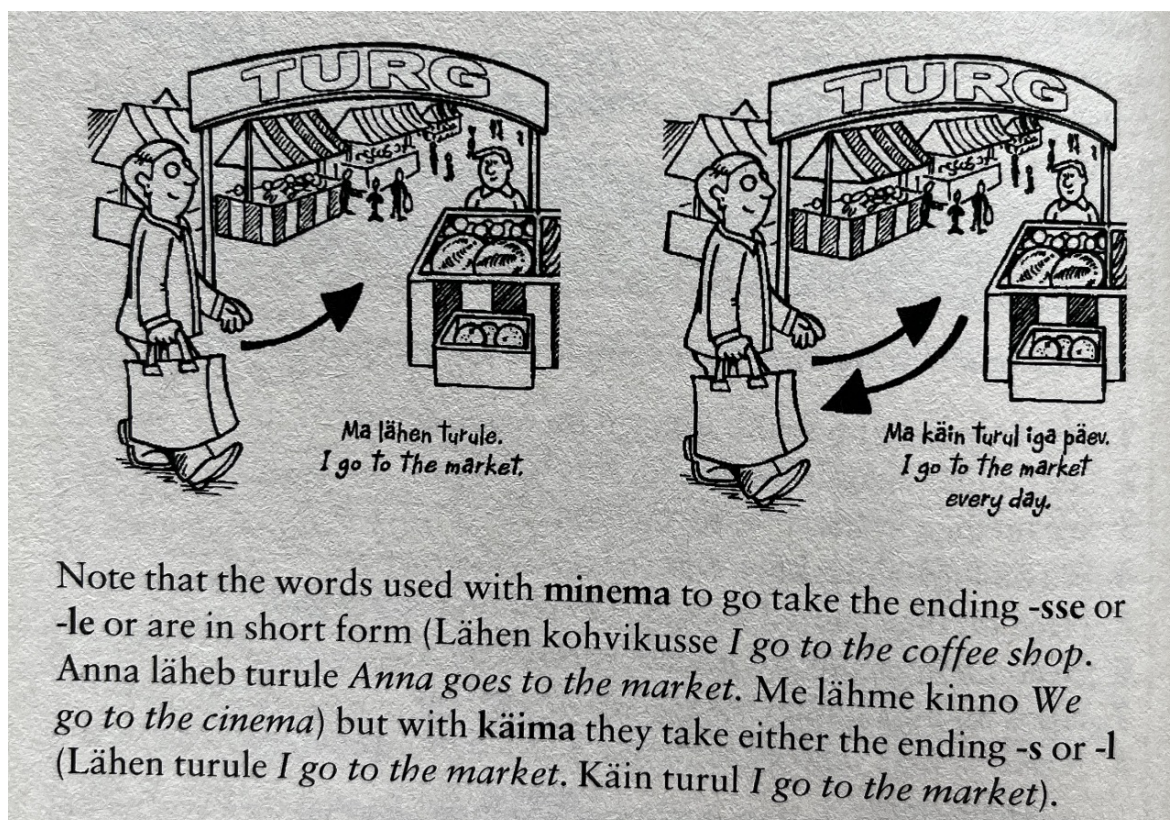
Figure 4.10. *Keel Selgeks* (Grammar Book), unit 5, pg. 21.

Below is a list of verbs and adjectives that take the allative: *järgnema follow*, *lootma hope*, *mõjuma influence*, *meenuma recall*, *naeratama smile*, *viitama refer*, *alla kirjutama sign*, etc.

Ööle järgneb päev. **Night** is followed by day.

In contrast, *Complete Estonian* adopts a different approach by introducing it in various units. For instance, in a segment titled ‘Estonian Markets,’ the material illustrates the usage of the allative case (Figure 4.11). It showed the verbs *minema* and *käima*, conveying the idea of ‘to go.’ Each verb takes different case endings. This explanation was further enhanced visually by adding pictures, demonstrating the differentiation between the two scenarios. A similar approach is taken by *Eesti Keel*, *E nagu Eesti*, *Tere*, and *Keeleklikk*.

Figure 4.11. *Complete Estonian*, unit 7, pg. 142.



In *E nagu Eesti*, the topic that certain verbs need a specific case is not explained explicitly anywhere. However, the book often mentions verbs and required cases with question words

and examples in the grammar section (Figure 4.12). It also lists this information collectively in the *kordamine* section (Figure 4.13).

Figure 4.12. *E nagu Eesti*, unit 15, pg. 117.

4. RÄÄKIMA • JUTUSTAMA • LUGEMA • MÖTLEMA kellest? millest?

oma pere/ st	võõrkeelte õppimise/ st
oma sõprade/ st	töö/ st ja vaba/ st aja/ st
oma vanemate/ st	arvutimängude/ st

Figure 4.13. *E nagu Eesti*, kordamine 16-20, pg. 166.

2. TEGUSÕNA + NIMISÕNA

KEERAMA kuhu? kus? Keera vasakule jõe äärde!	PÖÖRAMA kuhu? Kas ma pööran siit paremale?
KIIRUSTAMA kuhu? Ma kiirustan just bussijaama.	SAATMA kellele? kuhu? Saatsin õele Inglismaale paki.
PARKIMA? kus? Tänavaaäres ei tohi parkida.	VISKAMA kuhu? Visake prügi prügikasti!
PEATUMA kus? kui kaua? Buss peatub Pärnus 15 minutit.	KUKKUMA kus? Ta kukkus oma kodutänaval.
SELGITAMA kellele? Ta ei selgitanud meile midagi.	OLENEMA kellest? millest? Kõik oleneb projekti hinnast.
SOOVITAMA kellele? Mida sa mulle soovitaksid?	SÖLTUMA kellest? millest? See sõltub grupi tasemest.
VARASTAMA kust? Keegi varastas keldrist ratta.	VÄLJUMA kust? kus? Buss väljub Tartust kell 20. Kas te järgmises peatuses väljute?

4.3.2 Exercises

Table 4.3 shows a pattern indicating that the materials prioritize ‘production’ and ‘reception’ exercises over ‘judgment’. When observing the overall structure of the exercises, some clear similarities and differences become apparent. The exercises related to case grammar are typically found after explanations and examples in *Complete Estonian*, *Eesti Keel*, *Tere*, and *Keeleklikk*. The introduction section of *Complete Estonian* recommends that learners start

by reading through the grammar explanations and then proceeds to complete the exercises typically provided afterward. After most grammar sections, additional exercises are included in the ‘Let’s Practice’ section. These exercises progress from simpler tasks to more challenging ones (Kitsnik and Kingisepp 2010, pp. XIII–XIV). *Tere* offers online exercises, which are available on their webpage, www.kirjatark.ee, following each topic and via QR codes. Additionally, separate worksheets containing games, dialogues, and grammar exercises are available for purchase to complement the textbook (Mangus and Simmul 2017, pp. 7–9).

In contrast, *Keel Selgeks* and *E nagu Eesti* present exercises separately from the explanations. *Keel Selgeks* contains exercises in the coursebook, organized under specific case names within *grammatikateemad* (units 1-5) and in units 6-20. While units 1-5 primarily consist of gap-filling exercises, units 6-20 feature a more diverse range of exercise (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012a, pp. 8–9). In *E nagu Eesti*, the *Harjutused* section includes exercises corresponding to each unit. Subsequently, a test on each of the five units is given. For *Settle in Estonia*, the line between examples and exercises is blurred. The exercises frequently feature straightforward, playful tasks tailored for beginners. The book presents grammar drills and vocabulary acquisition in an engaging, communicative style (Settle in Estonia n.d.).

The language used in exercise instructions varies across these materials. *Complete Estonian* provided instructions in English, while *E nagu Eesti*, *Keel Selgeks*, and *Settle in Estonia* delivered instructions only in Estonian. *Eesti Keel*, *Tere*, and *Keeleklikk* offered bilingual instructions in Estonian and English. Although *Keeleklikk* provides written instructions in both languages, oral instructions are only in Estonian. *E nagu Eesti* often gives minimal instructions, sometimes merely mentioning question words like *KUHU? KUS? KUST?* *Complete Estonian*, *E nagu Eesti*, and *Tere* provided answers to exercises, while *Eesti Keel*, *Keel Selgeks*, and *Settle in Estonia* did not include answer keys. However, both *Eesti Keel* and *Settle in Estonia* are designed for classrooms, so teachers can assist with answers. Being an interactive website *Keeleklikk* provides immediate feedback, as soon as the user submits their answer.

The trend in the exercises across the listed materials is that ‘controlled’ and ‘free production’ exercises appeared the most. ‘Controlled’ exercises typically guide learners through specific language tasks with limited variability, while ‘free production’ exercises encourage learners to apply their language skills more independently and creatively.

Complete Estonian, *Eesti Keel*, and *Keeleklikk* focus solely on ‘controlled production’ exercises. Although there are ‘free production’ exercises in these, they were not meant to practice cases. ‘Controlled production’ exercises in all materials mainly contained gap-filling. However, exercises differ. Some require more concentration on producing the correct form, whereas others focus on understanding the meaning, or both focus on form and focus on meaning. For example, to practice inner locative cases, *Complete Estonian* provides gap filling exercise focusing on form (Figure 4.14). It divides nouns based on the endings they take. With the

given example, learners need to complete the table. Through repetition, learners learn these forms. These types of tables appear often in the book to practice form. Nonetheless, as the book’s introductory section states, these tables do not aim for rote memorization. Rather, they function as a resource to which learners can turn when uncertain about how a specific form is constructed (Kitsnik and Kingisepp 2010, pp. XIII–XIV).

Figure 4.14. *Complete Estonian*, unit 5, pg. 92.

Name of the place	Ma lähen, sõidan ... kuhu? <i>I go, I drive ... where to?</i>	Ma elan, olen kus? <i>I live, I am in ... where?</i>	Ma olen pärit, tulen kust? <i>I am from, I come from ... where?</i>
	-sse	-s	-st
Tartu <i>Tartu</i>	Tartusse	Tartus	Tartust
Tallinn <i>Tallinn</i>	Tallinnasse
Eesti <i>Estonia</i>	Eestisse
Pärnu <i>Pärnu</i>	Pärnusse
USA <i>USA</i>	USA-sse

Another exercise from the same book, as shown in Figure 4.15, also features a gap-filling exercise to practice locative cases. This exercise illustrates a comparison between the adessive and allative cases. Learners are prompted to identify where someone is currently located and determine where they are heading. This exercise represents a form of ‘controlled production’ while incorporating elements of ‘controlled reception’ exercises. It assesses learners’ understanding of the adessive and allative cases and their ability to differentiate between them. It not only gives practice to learners to provide the correct forms but also if they can use them within sentences.

Figure 4.15. *Complete Estonian*, unit 3, pg. 52.

Exercise 11

🔊 **CD1, TR 32**

Answer the questions. Listen to the correct answers.

Kus? Where?	Kuhu? Where to?
1 Olen Pärnu maanteel.	Lähen <i>Pärnu maanteele.</i>
2 Olen võistlusel.	Lähen
3 Olen Vabaduse väljakul.	Lähen
4 Olen sadamas.	Lähen <i>sadamasse.</i>
5 Olen kaubanduskeskuses.	Lähen
6 Olen taksos.	Lähen
7 Olen muuseumis.	Lähen
8 Olen kaupluses.	Lähen
9 Olen kesklinnas.	Lähen <i>kesklinna.</i>
10 Olen infopunktis.	Lähen
11 Olen kohviku juures.	Lähen <i>kohviku juurde.</i>
12 Olen kaupluse juures.	Lähen

Eesti Keel also incorporates a similar emphasis on form and function. It introduces the use of the partitive case with the verb *armastama* ‘to love’ by featuring well-known individuals associated with love in simple sentences (Figure 4.16). Learners can easily get the context by recognizing these familiar names. They are then prompted to read and comprehend the paragraph. Following this, they are asked to answer ‘Does Juliet love Romeo?’ to assess their understanding of the text’s meaning. Subsequently, the exercise directs learners to identify all nouns in the partitive case, emphasizing grammatical form. This ‘controlled reception’ exercise aims to illustrate case government and how the verb *armastama* requires the partitive case. It initially focuses on meaning and subsequently shifts to focus on form.

Figure 4.16. *Eesti Keel*, unit 4, pg. 69.

HARJUTUS 21. Kas Julia armastab Romeot? Loe ja tõlgi. Märki partitiivis olevad nimed. *Does Juliet love Romeo? Read and translate. Mark the names that are in partitive / III case form.*

Kleopatra armastab Marcus Antoniust ja Marcus Antonius armastab Kleopatrat. Dante armastab Beatricet. Kas Beatrice armastab Dantet? Julia armastab Romeot ja Romeo armastab Juliat. James Bond armastab Bondi tüdrukut. Bondi tüdruk ei armasta James Bondi. Harry armastab Meghanit ja Meghan armastab Harryt. Ma armastan Mariat ja Robertit, Erikut ja Hendrikut, Michelle'i ja Jacques'i, Leod ja Lead, Siimu ja Triinu, Marist ja Andrest.
Kas sa armastad Tartut või Tallinna? Me armastame Saaremaad. Nad armastavad Riiat, Vilniust ja Helsingit. Ma armastan Londonit, Moskvat, Pekingit ja Tokyot. Sa armastad Pariisi, Berliini ja Amsterdami. Me armastame Itaaliat ja Prantsusmaad.

Like the exercise in Figure 4.14, *E nagu Eesti* has a gap-filling exercise to practice locative cases, but it differs slightly. For example, in Figure 4.17, learners must identify the correct verb, which is given in an incomplete form. Then, they need to consider the appropriate case associated with that verb. Take sentences 4 and 7 as examples: the verb *sõitma* 'to drive' requires one of the locative cases from given options. Therefore, learners must not only understand the verb itself but also its corresponding case.

Figure 4.17. *E nagu Eesti*, unit 6, pg. 51.

2. Kuhu? Kus? Kust?

1. Me elame me +L (Prantsusmaa). 2. Peetri vend õpi b +S (Austria). 3. Kas sa oled d +S (Rootsi)-käinud? 4. Nad sõidavad suvel +sse (Ameerika). 5. Millal sa +ist (Pariis) tagasi tule d? 6. Kadri õpi b +L (Inglismaa). 7. Lii sõida b koos sõbraga +le (Saksamaa). 8. Tõnis ja Toomas lähevad juulis +Ø (Taani). 9. Nikolai on sündinud +L (Venemaa). 10. Kas te elate praegu +S (Moskva)?

There also exist gap-filling exercises, which are not 'controlled production' but 'free production.' Completing a sentence where no cue is given is one such example. Learners must use their imagination and understand the context to finish these. For instance, in Figure 4.18, no prompt is given, so learners are free to produce any suitable word. The second sentence, one can complete as:

- *Mis kell sa tavaliselt kooli lähed?* (What time do you usually go to school?) or
- *Mis kell sa tavaliselt tööl lähed?* (what time do you usually go to work?) or
- *Mis kell sa tavaliselt jõusaali lähed?* (What time do you usually go to the gym?) etc.

Figure 4.18. *E nagu Eesti*, unit 5, pg. 33.

3. KUHU? KUS?

1. Ta õpib eesti keelt Tartu _____ . 2. Mis kell sa tavaliselt _____ lähed? 3. Mis kell sa õhtul _____ tuled? 4. Ära jää _____ hiljaks! 5. Kas sa oled täna õhtul _____? 6. Mitu inimest siin _____ elab?

This exercise focuses on getting the form correct and testing whether the student understands the meaning. In the same book, another ‘free production’ exercise involves students constructing full sentences using cases (Figure 4.19). In this exercise, sample sentences are provided. The goal is for learners to understand the main idea and then generate five additional sentences that are related to the context of the given paragraph. This exercise is different from previous ones where learners are prompted to think about a single word. In this case, their objective is to construct sentences that convey meaning.

Figure 4.19. *E nagu Eesti*, unit 5, pg. 33.

7. KIRJUTA SELLESSE TEKSTI VEEL VIIS LAUSET.

Linnas on majad ja autod. Tänaval on lapsed. Majal on aknad ja uksed. Lapsed lähevad kooli. Neil on koolikotid käes. Kotis on vihikud, raamatud, pliatsid ja pastakad. Pliatsid on punased ja pastakad on sinised. Lapsed lähevad kiiresti. Kool algab kell kaheksa. Koolis lapsed loevad ja kirjutavad. Neile meeldib matemaatika. Kool lõpeb kell üks. Siis lähevad lapsed koju. Kodus on ema.

One ‘reception’ exercise in the same book is grouping words (Figure 4.20). Learners are asked to group nouns based on their nominal declension paradigms. Examples are given for each paradigm group, and learners must categorize words accordingly. The key here is understanding how nouns change, then deciding each word based on its expected change and grouping it accordingly. This type of ‘controlled reception’ task is an example of only focusing on form and not function. Such exercise is not observed in other materials.

Figure 4.20. *E nagu Eesti*, harjutused 1-5, pg. 42.

6. LISA SÕNAD GRUPPIDESSE. 0a/4

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
õpilane	kodu	õige	armastus	korter	õpik	suu
õpilase	kodu	õige	armastuse	korteri	õpiku	suu
õpilast	kodu	õiget	armastust	korterit	õpikut	suud

õntu vastus valge pea järgmine maja nina aasta tee tüdruk ema küsimus öö vana
inimene pliiats sinine minut õpetaja venelane pilet hommik maa sekund

Only three materials, *Complete Estonian*, *Keel Selgeks*, and *Keeleklikk*, contain ‘judgment’ exercises. An example from *Complete Estonian* of ‘judgment’ activity emphasizes form (Figure 4.21). Learners are prompted to choose between the inessive and illative cases. It does require knowledge of the verb and its required case form.

Figure 4.21. *Complete Estonian*, unit 3, pg. 61.


Exercise 17

Choose the right form.

- 1 Sõidan teatrisse/teatris.
- 2 Lähen turul/turule.
- 3 Sõidan apteegis/apteeki.
- 4 Lähen kaubanduskeskuses/kaubanduskeskuse.
- 5 Sõidan lennujaamas/lennujaama.
- 6 Lähen muuseumi juures/muuseumi juurde.
- 7 Lähen trepi juures/trepi juurde.

Keeleklikk features a translation exercise (Figure 4.22) that prompts learners to compare the English construction ‘I have’ with its Estonian counterpart and select the appropriate case for translation. This exercise highlights meaning rather than judging grammatical form.

Figure 4.22. *Keeleklikk*, unit 5.1.39



Marina has an aunt.

Marina on tädi.

Marinal on tädi.

Among all the materials, only *Keel Selgeks* includes two ‘judgement correct’ exercises. However, since these exercises were not specifically designed to practice case grammar, they have been excluded.

Since *Settle in Estonia* embraces a discovery-based teaching approach, activities are important here. The book provides a range of tasks, exercises, and activities, although not all can be covered here. Tasks are also designed around speaking. For example, the ‘controlled production’ activity in Figure 4.23 is provided to practice the locative cases. A board game is given, and learners ask each other questions. They navigate through the game board by answering a given cue. In this text, words that require specific case endings are highlighted in corresponding colors to emphasize their forms. For instance, the illative case ending ‘-sse’ is marked in green. However, no explicit explanation is provided; it is up to the learner to discover these patterns with guidance from the teacher. While this is a ‘controlled production’ exercise where learners produce given words and forms, it can also be a ‘free production’ task, as learners may choose to expand beyond the provided prompts.

Figure 4.23. *Settle in Estonia*, unit 15, page 52.

3. Küsi ja vasta!

Lähme täna kontserdile!

Lähme teisipäeva õhtul ööklubisse!

Lähme jah! Hea mõte! Okeii!

Aitäh kutsumast, aga kahjuks ma ei saa. Võib-olla mõni teine kord? Mulle ei meeldi ööklubi.

täna, homme
esmaspäeval, laupäeval
homme hommikul, homme õhtul
nädalavahetusel, neljapäeval
pühapäeva hommikul, teisipäeva õhtul
reedel, kolmapäeval

This is an ‘automatic reception’ exercise (Figure 4.24) in which learners listen to words and mark whichever they can hear. In *Settle in Estonia* book, there is a place for grammar teaching, but it is taught through tasks.

Figure 4.24. *Settle in Estonia*, unit 15, page 50.

1. Kuula ja märgi!

VIDEO 12

spordivõistlusele

turule

tööle

ööklubisse

kaubanduskeskusesse

veekeskusesse

lillepoodi

toidupoodi

kohvikusse

restorani

loomaaeda

kontserdile

peole

koju

To conclude this section, the study primarily focused on case representation, but it also revealed some additional findings worth noting. The following discussion will explore these insights further, emphasizing the main findings and other observations.

5 DISCUSSION

This study examined how cases are presented in L2 learning materials. Six textbooks and one website were selected for examination, and data was analyzed using a qualitative approach. Ellis (2008) coding framework was employed for data categorization. During the coding process, some of the category headings in the original framework were found to be unclear, so more precise captions were used instead to ensure clarity in the description and analysis. The analysis was limited to the grammar sections and did not include their entire content. However, books like *Complete Estonian* also explicitly teach case grammar outside of the dedicated grammar sections; therefore, those areas are also considered.

The first research question in this study sought to determine the topics covered before introducing cases. According to Ellis (2006, p. 90), two competing perspectives exist on when grammar should be taught in L2 acquisition. The first perspective suggests emphasizing grammar teaching in the early stages, while the second perspective recommends introducing grammar teaching later once learners have begun to form their interlanguages. The current study reveals that the selected materials introduce cases at varying points. *E nagu Eesti* and *Keel Selgeks* present cases earlier than others. Hence, there is less background information. Materials that choose to show more topics their approach adhere to the principle of waiting until learners have acquired basic communication skills and ample lexical knowledge, upon which their grammatical knowledge can be built (Ellis 2006, p. 90).

There is a spectrum in the number of topics covered. Some introduce more topics than others, but common topics include simple phrases and sentences such as greetings and introductions, basic questions and answers, numbers and dates, days of the week and months, the alphabet and sounds, phonetic patterns, and forming yes/no questions. This is in line with CEFR descriptors for the Pre-A1, level which pertains to simple, general tasks where the learner can produce short phrases and give basic personal information, can understand short, simple instructions in everyday communication (Council of Europe 2020, p. 37). However, what differs is the presentation style. *Complete Estonian* and *Keeleklikk* demonstrated more context-based, elaborative explanations for each topic than others.

The second research question analyzed the order in which cases are presented. Since Estonian is a case language, cases start to appear implicitly from the beginning; hence, the first explicit mention of the case has been considered for this question. This is important to interpret the results correctly. The results indicate that the order in which cases are presented varies. The findings reveal two distinct patterns. In the first pattern, materials start with basic grammatical

cases, whereas the second pattern entails materials beginning with spatial cases. Notably, the data did not indicate materials starting with any cases beyond those specified. The analysis's most evident observation about teaching locative cases is that they are typically taught as a combination of one interior and one exterior. For example, inessive (within or inside something) and adessive (on or at something) are presented together. Similarly, elative (movement out of something) and ablative (movement away from something) are found together. Based on this data, it can be deduced that they are taught together due to their close connection in expressing spatial relations. Another pair that all materials combine is comitative (signifying the presence of something) and abessive (signifying the absence of something). The comitative and abessive cases represent a clear conceptual contrast—presence versus absence. Hence, teaching these together might help learners understand this dichotomy more easily. These observations may also support the hypothesis that these cases are similar to English prepositions, helping learners form associations. Therefore, the authors may have chosen to combine and teach them together.

The third research question in this study was how cases were presented, with a specific focus on rule explanation, the structure and context of examples, and the variety of exercises. Except for one book, *Settle in Estonia*, which emphasizes learner engagement and allows learners to discover grammar rules independently, all others explicitly present explanations for case formation. As mentioned in the background section, the teaching methodology for the *Settle in Estonia* language module highlights the interactive nature of the courses, emphasizing the necessity of active learner participation. This material exemplifies the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) syllabus, designed to immerse learners in the target language. The TBLT approach centers around using tasks as the fundamental unit for planning and instruction in language teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 223). It is facilitated through communicative activities and tasks that allow learners to use the language in meaningful ways.

Other materials offer explicit grammar instructions and clear explanations of specific cases, using examples to illustrate the rules. However, the way they present these rules to learners differs. The first distinction is that the presentation contains dedicated grammar sections presenting case rules. Even though these resources have separate sections, they seamlessly blend grammar with thematic content, ensuring contextual relevance. This way, the grammar is not completely isolated. *Keel Selgeks*, however, shows complete segregation of grammar instructions with a separate grammar book. The case formation rules are presented without more information on how to apply these rules in the actual communicative context. Despite the differences in presentation, all stress the importance of the meaning behind each case. This is particularly important as the grammar taught should emphasize form and the meanings and uses of different grammatical structures (Ellis 2006, pp. 15–17).

The second distinction in the presentation is based on the language of explanation. Based on this criterion, the materials can be classified into three groups. The first group includes

resources that primarily provide explanations only in English. The second group offers explanations exclusively in Estonian. The third group encompasses materials that deliver explanations in Estonian and English. Materials specifically designed for English learners primarily use English for explanations. This enables a direct comparison of cases with English prepositions, like in *Complete Estonian, Eesti Keel, Tere, and Keeleklikk*. It also enables them to compare English constructions when introducing cases. The second group, *E nagu Eesti* and *Settle in Estonia* does not compare cases with other languages, so they choose a more immersive approach instead. In her thesis, Rammo (2010, p. 21) mentioned that *E nagu Eesti* textbook authors argue that understanding grammatical structures and linguistic details is not crucial for foreign language communication. This suggests the authors likely advocate for a more communicative approach to language learning and fluency over grammatical accuracy. However, in *E nagu Eesti*, several exercises related to case grammar also focus on form integrated with meaning. So, the likelihood is that while some grammatical understanding is important, it should not overshadow the primary goal of communication.

Keel Selgeks falls in between the patterns. While it provides explanations in English, it also caters to grammar for Russian and Finnish learners. The author mentions in the preface that the main portion of the book is in Estonian and can be used by language learners globally. Thus, it is made clear that placing the grammar instructions in the grammar book instead of the main coursebook is an intentional choice. Additionally, the author's perspective on grammar is described as "The Estonian Grammar that belongs to the set offers an overview of the structure of Estonian on the principle as little as possible, as much as necessary" (Rammo, Teral, et al. 2012a, p. 4). This approach likely explains the absence of detailed grammar instructions in the coursebook. It frequently uses metalinguistic terms in explanation and focuses on explaining how language works rather than directly helping learners acquire language skills. The case grammar exercises within *Keel Selgeks* are clearly labeled with the names of the cases, explicitly mentioning learners which case is being practiced. While *Keel Selgeks* coursebook includes thematic chapters, all of these observations align with traditional grammar teaching methods. Traditionally, grammar instruction involves presenting and practicing specific grammatical structures (Ellis 2006, p. 84). This approach may appeal to learners interested in understanding the inner workings of language. However, learners primarily focused on improving their communication skills may not find this approach effective. Further, I would like to point out that *Tere* delivers its content in Russian via a separate book, and *Keeleklikk* provides a dedicated website in Russian and Ukrainian. These two do not include instruction for learners of other languages within one book or platform.

The examples are found to be 'discrete,' 'contrived,' and 'written.' In this study, examples are considered authentic only if texts are produced for reasons other than teaching. Three materials, *E nagu Eesti*, *Keel Selgeks*, and *Settle in Estonia* were noted for their tendency to present examples in a manner that felt more contrived and isolated than others. These resources lacked

contextualization, to show example words or sentences, and failed to establish connecting narratives between activities and examples. In contrast, *Complete Estonian*, *Eesti Keel*, *Tere*, and *Keeleklikk* stood out for providing the most contextualized examples, incorporating narrative elements rather than relying solely on isolated words or sentences. *Keeleklikk*, as an audiovisual medium, used animation and role-playing to present examples. While it is commonplace for textbooks to present examples in written format, it is interesting to observe that *Tere* opted to provide oral examples via online videos.

When analyzing the structure of the exercises, two distinct presentation patterns were observed. First, a strong relationship between exercise and previously taught explanations was found among materials that follow the explanation-examples-exercise pattern, e.g., *Complete Estonian*, *Eesti Keel*, *Tere*, and *Keeleklikk*. These exercises are connected to the texts that the students have read previously. In contrast, *E nagu Eesti* and *Keel Selgeks* present exercises separately from the explanation and examples. *Tere* again positions itself as written through the physical textbook and online exercises via the website. The analysis reveals a preference for ‘production’ and ‘reception’ exercises over ‘judgment’ across the materials studied. Fewer resources incorporate judgment exercises, likely due to their demand for higher order thinking and subjective decision-making, which may be challenging for beginners. Also, ‘judgment’ exercises are unlike ordinary language use, so they might not be the most useful exercise or task at the initial stage of L2 learning. All materials offer ample opportunities for practicing cases, often employing fill-in-the-blank exercises with one-word manipulation to emphasize form during the initial stages. At the pre-A1 level, learners are expected to engage in simple interactions using basic words and formulaic expressions (Council of Europe 2020, p. 63). While all materials include ‘controlled production’ exercises, the activities vary both collectively and individually among the analyzed textbooks. This variation is due to some resources focusing solely on form, others on meaning, and some on both simultaneously. *E nagu Eesti* stands out for providing the most diverse practice opportunities. This diversity can be attributed to its minimalist instructions, requiring learners to intuitively understand tasks or seek guidance from the teacher, as well as its incorporation of combined elements of ‘controlled’ and ‘free’ production or ‘controlled’ and ‘automatic’ reception. Consequently, arriving at answers in *E nagu Eesti* exercises is often less straightforward than exercises in other materials.

One relevant finding that appeared from the data is the selected materials show no clear indication or marking for transitioning between levels beyond A1. This aligns with a previous study by Estonian Language Strategy (ELS), which noted the absence of a consistent system for adult learners to progress seamlessly from one language proficiency level to the next (Ministry of Education and Research 2022, p. 23).

6 CONCLUSION

There are various resources available for learning Estonian as a second language. Historically, in Estonia, the Russian language has been the more prevalent medium for studying Estonian as an L2. This has resulted in ample language learning resources for Russian learners. With an increased demand from people immigrating to Estonia, the number of resources available to English speakers has also risen. The Estonian government and related organizations are making efforts to meet this growing demand by creating new language learning resources. These resources go beyond traditional textbooks, offering interactive options such as websites and apps, etc. However, this also necessitates a systematic evaluation of currently available materials to ensure their quality and relevance. This thesis takes the first step towards this direction. However, one must note that it does not provide an evaluation but aims to create a foundation for further analysis.

This study compared seven materials available to English speakers, revealing significant differences in structure, content, and pedagogical approaches. The primary focus was on the representation of cases, as outlined in the research question. Variations were evident from the beginning, including timing, order of case introductions, and topics covered before introducing cases. Additionally, differences were observed in explanation style, level of context provided in examples, and the structure and linkage of exercises to explanations. Production-based activities were the most common exercise type. The materials predominantly present grammar rules using a deductive approach, although the application of deductive teaching methods varies among them. Notably, a range of approaches to grammar teaching methods is observed, from traditional deductive to more communicative styles.

As discussed earlier in the background section, the field of SLA has witnessed a ‘pendulum swings’ in grammar instruction methodologies from traditional to more communicative approaches. The same trend is evident here, with *Keel Selgeks* representing a more traditional approach and *Settle in Estonia* adopting a more communicative method. But there is no one way of teaching grammar. The debate surrounding the most effective grammar teaching methods will likely continue in the Estonian L2 research and pedagogy landscape. This study hopes to serve as a small step toward future material analysis for English speakers. Future research should investigate how these textbooks are applied in classrooms and whether explicit grammar instruction takes a more inductive approach when presented by teachers. Additionally, exploring students’ perceptions and experiences with these materials could provide valuable insights into their effectiveness and inform future material design.

Glossary

ALM Audiolingual Method

CEFR Common European Framework of Reference

CLT Communicative Language Teaching

ELS Estonian Language Strategy

FonF Focus on Form

FonFs Focus on Forms

GTM The Grammar-Translation Method

L1 First Language

L2 Second Language

SLA Second Language Acquisition

TBL Task-Based Learning

TRP Temporary Residence Permit

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Summary: Estonian Case System in L2 Learning Materials

This thesis reviewed how cases are presented in materials intended for learning Estonian as a second language (L2). The study examined six textbooks and one online course using a qualitative approach guided by Ellis's (2008) coding framework, with modifications for clarity. The analysis focused specifically on how cases are presented in grammar sections.

The three research questions are:

- What is covered before the discussion of cases and at what point are cases introduced?
- What is the order in which cases are presented?
- How are the cases introduced?

Findings from the first research question reveal varied timing for introducing cases, with most introducing them relatively early and others waiting until learners acquire basic communication skills.

The second research question identified two distinct patterns in case presentation: starting with basic grammatical or spatial cases and often presenting related cases together due to their conceptual connections.

The analysis addressing the third research question examined rule explanations, examples, and exercise variety. Most materials provided explicit grammar rules, except for *Settle in Estonia*, which employed an inductive approach. Presentation styles varied between integrating grammar with thematic content and separating it into separate sections. Explanations were delivered in English, Estonian, or both. Examples were contrived and discrete. Exercises predominantly followed an explanation-example-exercise pattern, favoring production and reception tasks over judgment exercises.

Future research should investigate classroom application and learner perceptions to better inform material design and instructional strategies.

Kokkuvõte: Käänded eesti keel teise keelena õppematerjalides.

Käesolevas magistritöös vaadeldakse, kuidas on esitatud käänded eesti keele kui teise keele õppematerjalide grammatikaosades. Uuritud on kuut õpikut ja ühte veebikursust. Kasutatud on kvalitatiivset uurimismeetodit ning Ellise (2008) loodud metodoloogiliste valikute süsteemi, mille terminite sõnastust on selguse huvides veidi muudetud.

Töös on esitatud kolm uurimisküsimust:

- Mis teemasid käsitletakse enne käändeid ja millal alustatakse käänete käsitlemist?
- Mis järjekorras käändeid esitatakse?
- Kuidas käändeid esitatakse?

Esimese uurimisküsimusega seotud tulemused näitavad, et käänete esitamise aeg on erinev. Suuremas osas õppematerjalidest tutvustatakse käändeid suhteliselt vara. Ülejäänud õppematerjalides aga oodatakse, kuni õppijad on omandanud elementaarsed suhtlusoskused.

Teise uurimisküsimuse puhul tuvastati käänete esitamisel kaks erinevat mudelit: alustatakse kas grammatilistest käänetest või kohakäänetest. Omavahel tihedamalt seotud käändeid õpetatakse üldjuhul koos.

Kolmandale uurimisküsimusele vastamiseks uuriti reeglite selgitusi, näiteid ja harjutusi. Enamikus õppematerjalidest esitatakse eksplitsiitsed grammatikareeglid, välja arvatud *Settle in Estonia*, kus kasutatakse induktiivset lähenemist. Käänete esitamine varieerub: grammatika integreeritakse temaatilise sisuga või esitatakse eraldi osadena. Selgitused esitatakse inglise keeles, eesti keeles või mõlemas keeles. Näited on autorite konstrueeritud ja enamasti diskreetsed (sisaldades üksiksõnu, -fraase, -lauseid). Harjutustes järgitakse valdavalt mudelit: selgitus - näide - harjutus. Peamised ülesandetüübid on produtseerimis- ja mõistmisülesanded.

Tulevastes uuringutes tasuks keskenduda õppematerjalide kasutamisele klassiruumis ja õppijate arusaamadele, et saada rohkem infot õppematerjalide koostamise ning õpetamisviiside kohta.

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