



The Faculty of Arts and Education

MASTERS THESIS

Study programme: Advanced teacher education for levels 8-13 with specialisation in Literacy studies	Spring term, 2021 Open
Author: Mona Flesland Loukili (signatur author)
Supervisor: Toril Irene Hestetræet	
Title of thesis: Multilingual learning of English: A study of teachers' and pupils' beliefs and reported experiences	
Keywords: multilingualism, multilingual learning, multilingual pedagogy, teacher cognition, learners' beliefs	Pages: 80 + attachment/other: 14 Stavanger, May 11 th , 2021

Abstract

This research project is a qualitative study examining the beliefs and reported experiences held by Norwegian upper secondary teachers and multilingual pupils. The pupils in this study had a different or additional first language than the majority language Norwegian. In today's society multilingualism is an increasing phenomenon due to globalisation and migration, which has ultimately influenced Norwegian classrooms. For long, there was an assumption that pupils learn best if taught in the target language. However current research suggests the opposite, that pupils' language learning and academic achievements will improve if they are allowed to use their whole language repertoire. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to implement multilingualism in the classroom, by creating an inclusive multilingual environment where all languages and cultures are welcomed. Furthermore, multilingualism is endorsed in LK20 and the Core Curriculum. Nevertheless, research suggests that teachers do not have the necessary competence needed to teach multilingually.

Therefore, through semi-structured interviews with four VG1 teachers and focus group interviews with eight VG1 multilingual pupils, this study aimed to examine the teachers' and pupils' beliefs and their reported practices and experiences about multilingual teaching and learning of English. Additionally, the aim was to examine the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences concerning learning English multilingually. The findings from the interviews suggested that the teachers were positive towards multilingual teaching, however they had limited competence in how to enact it. Furthermore, the teachers expressed a desire to receive more training about multilingual teaching. The pupils' beliefs suggested that they also saw the benefits of multilingualism, however they did not see the relevance of using their L1 in class. Furthermore, the practice reported by the teachers suggested that the majority of the teachers enacted an English only approach in the classrooms, as they had been taught that pupils learn best through the target language. The pupils' reported experiences suggested that they did not use their L1 in class, only two of the pupils did so in order to comprehend tasks. Finally, the findings suggested that there existed a complex and dynamic relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences concerning multilingual learning of English. The results might suggest that pupils were influenced by the teachers' English only approach and, at the same time, the teachers were influenced by the pupils' beliefs, not wishing to include their L1 in class.

Three main implications were suggested: 1) that it is not enough to only include multilingualism in LK20, the teachers need to be adequately trained in how to teach multilingually, 2) policy makers need to enhance diversity through implementing multilingual

strategies in the schools, and 3) the teacher training curricula need to have an enhanced focus on multilingualism in all aspects of the teacher training program so that student teachers are trained adequately in how to teach multilingually.

Acknowledgement

First of all, I would like to thank the teachers and pupils who took time out of their busy schedules in order to participate. This project would not have been possible without your invaluable insights.

Secondly, I would like to thank my friends, family and Pablo for their support and encouragement. Thank you to my bright and kind friends Ursula, Miranda and Nina for making the last five years at UiS meaningful and exciting. To my dearest friend Line, thank you for our friendship. I would especially like to thank my parents for raising me in an accepting multicultural home. The interest in this topic thrived due to your continuous support. Furthermore, I would like to thank Robert for our countless discussions concerning multilingualism. Your insights and support have been incredibly helpful, *hvala!*

Finally, I would like to thank my project supervisor Torill Irene Hestetraet for your helpful advice and feedback. Even more so, I am thankful for your kind and supporting words. I am incredibly grateful for your guidance throughout the writing process.

Table of contents

List of Abbreviations	VI
1. Introduction	1
1.1 <i>Topic, aims and relevance</i>	1
1.2 <i>Research questions</i>	2
1.3 <i>Outline of this thesis</i>	2
2. Background	4
2.1 <i>The Norwegian national curriculum</i>	4
2.2 <i>Common European Framework of References for Languages</i>	7
3. Theoretical orientation	9
3.1 <i>Plurilingualism, multilingualism and bilingualism</i>	9
3.1.1 Multiculturalism - language and culture	10
3.1.2 Language and identity.....	11
3.1.3 The issue of using identifying terms	13
3.2 <i>Research on multilingualism</i>	14
3.2.1 Varieties of bilingualism/multilingualism	16
3.3 <i>Language learning theory</i>	18
3.3.1 Socio-cultural theory.....	18
3.3.2 Second language acquisition and third language acquisition.....	19
3.4 <i>Multilingual pedagogy</i>	22
3.4.1 Enacting multilingualism in the classroom.....	22
3.4.2 Translanguaging in the classrooms	23
3.5 <i>Teacher cognition and learners' beliefs</i>	25
3.5.1 Teacher cognition.....	26
3.5.2 Learners' beliefs.....	27
3.6 <i>Theoretical orientation</i>	29
4. Methodology.....	32
4.1 <i>Qualitative research</i>	32
4.2 <i>Interviews as data collecting tools</i>	33
4.2.1 Semi-structured interviews as a data collecting tool.....	33
4.2.2 Focus Group interviews as a data collecting tool	35
4.3 <i>The choice of participants</i>	37
4.3.1 Teachers	37
4.3.2 Pupils.....	38
4.4 <i>Data analysis</i>	39
4.5 <i>Data validity and reliability</i>	42
4.6 <i>Ethical issues</i>	44
5. Findings.....	46
5.1 <i>Teachers</i>	46
5.1.1 Teachers understanding of the term multilingualism.....	46
5.1.2 Background information and teacher training	47

5.1.2.1 Information about the school and class.....	47
5.1.2.2 Training received on LK20.....	48
5.1.2.3 Training received on multilingualism.....	49
5.1.2.4 Desire to receive/ lack of training in multilingualism.....	49
5.1.3 Teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English.....	50
5.1.3.1 Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism.....	52
5.1.4 Teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually.....	53
5.1.4.1 Teachers' reported practice teaching multilinguals.....	55
5.1.5 Challenges.....	56
5.2 Pupils.....	57
5.2.1 Pupils understanding of the term multilingualism.....	57
5.2.2 Background information.....	58
5.2.2.1 Linguistic background.....	58
5.2.2.2 Knowledge about LK20.....	60
5.2.3 Pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English.....	60
5.2.3.1 Pupils' beliefs about being multilingual.....	60
5.2.4.1 Pupils' experience about multilingual learning of English.....	61
5.2.4.2 Pupils' experience about being multilingual.....	62
6. Discussion.....	64
<i>6.1 Teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English.....</i>	<i>64</i>
<i>6.2 Pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English.....</i>	<i>66</i>
<i>6.3 Teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually.....</i>	<i>68</i>
<i>6.4 Pupils' reported experience learning English multilingually.....</i>	<i>71</i>
<i>6.5 The relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences.....</i>	<i>73</i>
<i>6.5 Limitations.....</i>	<i>75</i>
<i>6.6 Implications for teaching.....</i>	<i>77</i>
7. Conclusion.....	78
<i>7.1 Main Findings.....</i>	<i>78</i>
<i>7.2 Contributions and implications for further research.....</i>	<i>80</i>
8. References.....	81
9. Appendices.....	89
<i>Appendix 1.....</i>	<i>89</i>
<i>Appendix 2.....</i>	<i>92</i>
<i>Appendix 3.....</i>	<i>95</i>
<i>Appendix 4.....</i>	<i>97</i>
<i>Appendix 5.....</i>	<i>100</i>

List of Abbreviations

VG1- Upper secondary level 1

LK20- Norwegian National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion 2020

CEFR- Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

L1- First language

L2- Second language

L3- Third language

ZPD- Zone of proximal development

SLA- Second language acquisition

TLA- Third language acquisition

NSD- Norwegian Centre for Research Data

1. Introduction

1.1 Topic, aims and relevance

This present study aims to examine the beliefs and experiences held by Norwegian upper secondary English teachers and multilingual pupils. Multilingualism in this study is defined as “an individual familiar with three or more languages to some degree of fluency” (De Angelis, 2007, p. 8). Therefore, the pupils in this study have a different or additional first language (L1) than the majority language Norwegian.

In today’s society multilingualism is an increasing phenomenon due to globalisation and immigration. According to Krulatz, Dahl and Flognfeldt (2018, p.11), immigration to the Scandinavian countries has increased rapidly as a result of the Schengen Agreement, which lets European citizens move freely between the member states. Numerous immigrants have therefore moved with their families to Scandinavian countries to seek work. Another significant impact on the changing demographics is the movement of refugees, as conflicts around the world are forcing people to emigrate from their home country (Krulatz et al., 2018, pp. 11-12). In 2021, 18,51 % of the Norwegian population are immigrants or Norwegian-born to immigrant parents (Statistics Norway, 2021).

Schools have become more multilingual due to this increased immigration. Therefore, pupils should be entitled to teaching that considers their multilingual background (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.12). For long, there was an assumption that pupils learn best if taught in the target language (Garcia, 2012, p. 3; Haukås & Speitz, 2020, p. 67). However, pupils’ academic achievements will improve if they feel cherished and are allowed to use the language they excel in most (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.126; The National Centre of Multicultural Education [NAFO], 2019). Therefore, Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 12) stress the importance that policy makers and teachers involved in pupils’ education need to understand what multilingualism is, additionally, why it is important and how to support it. Furthermore, they explain that there exists a bias towards multilingual children, assuming that they will have lower competence in the majority language and lower performance in school (Krulatz et al., 2018, pp. 12-13). Moreover, they experience that this bias comes from teachers’ lack of knowledge about multilingualism, where one factor is the traditionally monolingual focus during the teacher training (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.13). Similarly, Spernes (2020, p. 214) argues that teachers lack the required competence in teaching minority speaking pupils.

Multilingualism is endorsed in the Norwegian National Curriculum for Knowledge promotion 2020 (LK20) and the Core Curriculum (Haukås & Speitz, 2020, p. 66). In the Core

Curriculum it states that “all pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large” (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 5). In addition, a competence aim in the English subject curriculum reads that pupils shall “use knowledge of similarities between English and other languages he or she knows in language learning” (LK20, 2019, p. 10). Scholars suggest that teachers do not have the competence needed to teach multilingually (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Krulatz et al., 2018; Nordlie, 2019; Spernes, 2020). Therefore, the underlying assumption in this thesis is that teachers lack the knowledge to teach English multilingually according to LK20. The aim of the thesis is therefore to examine what beliefs and reported practices teachers have towards multilingual teaching of English. Research suggest there is a close relationship between teachers’ and pupils’ beliefs (Barcelos, 2003; Büyükyazi, 2010; Horwitz, 1988; Krulatz et al., 2018). Therefore, this study aims to examine what beliefs and reported experiences the pupils have towards multilingual learning of English. Even more so, since to the best of my knowledge, there are no studies that examine the relationship between teachers’ and pupils’ beliefs and experiences regarding multilingual learning of English, the aim of this study is to contribute to further research within this field.

1.2 Research questions

This study is a qualitative study that will interview four upper secondary level 1 (VG1) English teachers and eight VG1 multilingual pupils. The research questions are as follow:

1. What are the teachers’ beliefs about multilingual teaching of English?
2. What are the multilingual pupils’ beliefs about multilingual learning of English?
3. What are the teachers’ reported practice teaching English multilingually?
4. What are the multilingual pupils’ reported experience learning English multilingually?
5. What is the relationship between the teachers’ and the pupils’ beliefs and experiences concerning multilingual learning of English?

1.3 Outline of this thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Following the introduction is the background chapter, this chapter seeks to present the context of this study. Therefore, the chapter provides an overview of how multilingualism is reflected in Norwegian curricula and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), these are the political regulations that affect the Norwegian classrooms.

Chapter three provides the theoretical orientation, which is the relevant literature and theory related to multilingual teaching. This section specifically focuses on key terms such as multilingualism, research on multilingualism, language learning theory, multilingual pedagogy, teacher cognition and learners' beliefs. Finally, it provides a literature overview of previous research conducted within multilingual pedagogy. Furthermore, this part presents the contribution of this current study of teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences of learning English multilingually.

Chapter four describes the methodology applied in order to answer the research questions, mainly the characteristics of semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews. In addition, this section explains concept such as validity and reliability. Finally, it describes the data collection and analysis process before considering some main ethical issues.

Chapter five presents the findings collected from the interviews. It is divided into two main parts, teachers and pupils. Furthermore, it is categorised by the interview guide.

Chapter six discusses the findings in relation to the background and theoretical orientation. This section is organised by following the research questions, additionally, it also discusses the limitations and implications for teaching.

Finally, the seventh chapter provides a conclusion of the main findings from this study. Additionally, it describes the contributions made and implications for future research.

2. Background

This chapter aim is to provide an overview of the context relevant to this study. It is subdivided into two sections, the Norwegian national curriculum and the CEFR. First, in section 2.1, it will provide a brief summary of how multilingualism has been reflected in the previous curricula, before presenting how multilingualism is valued in LK20 and the Core Curriculum. Lastly, in section 2.2., it will provide a summary of multilingualism in the CEFR, as the CEFR is vital for Norwegian educational policies (Simensen, 2020).

2.1 The Norwegian national curriculum

The Education Act regulates the Norwegian national curriculum, and it reflects the content of education in primary and secondary school (Spernes, 2020, p. 42). Therefore, the political decisions made regarding the curriculum are crucial to the teaching in school. Norway has become more multilingual and multicultural due to refugees and immigrants, resulting in the school becoming a multicultural arena (Statistics Norway, 2021). This ultimately reflects the curricula, where the M74 was the first curriculum to acknowledge minority background pupils, but it was not until M87 that the value of being bilingual was recognised (Spernes, 2020, p. 42). According to Spernes (2020, p. 42), it recognised the value of being bilingual for pupils of Sámi and other minority backgrounds. The aim was *functional bilingualism*, that minority pupils should be equally fluent in both the majority and the minority language (Spernes, 2020, p. 42). In L97, the aim of functional bilingualism continued for Sámi pupils, but not with other minority backgrounds pupils. For them, their L1 only became a tool used to learn Norwegian, and when their Norwegian skills were adequate, the mother tongue instruction would end (Spernes, 2020, p. 42). This scheme resulted in researchers criticising these changes to the L97, as immigrants or Norwegian-born to immigrant parents were excluded (Spernes, 2020, p. 43). Similarly, in LK06, mother tongue instruction was only taught to strengthen pupils' Norwegian skills (Spernes, 2020, p. 43).

Norway has several international obligations that regulate Norwegian laws. One of these is article 30 in the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*, which states that children have the right to enjoy, profess and practise their own culture, religion, and language (Spernes, 2020, p. 44; UN Commission on Human Rights, 1990). This article ultimately led to the objective clause changing in the Education Act in 2008 (Spernes, 2020, p. 44). Since it was criticised for being Christian, as it specified that schools in collaboration with the home should give pupils a Christian and moral upbringing (Spernes, 2020, p. 44). *The European*

Court of Human Rights noticed the central part Christianity had in this paragraph, and therefore, in the Norwegian schools (Spernes, 2020, p. 44). The changes resulted in a more inclusive objective clause:

Education and training in schools and training establishments shall, in collaboration and agreement with the home, open doors to the world and give the pupils and apprentices historical and cultural insight and anchorage.

Education and training shall be based on fundamental values in Christian and humanist heritage and traditions, such as respect for human dignity and nature, and on intellectual freedom, charity, forgiveness, equality and solidarity, values that also appear in different religions and beliefs and are rooted in human rights.

Education and training shall help to increase the knowledge and understanding of the national cultural heritage and our common international cultural traditions.

Education and training shall provide insight into cultural diversity and show respect for the individual's convictions. They are to promote democracy, equality and scientific thinking ... (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 3).

As society has changed over the last decades, the government suggested in 2016 to renew all subjects in school (Spernes, 2020, p. 42). The new curriculum LK20 and the Core Curriculum focuses on in-depth learning and Bildung (Core curriculum, 2017; LK20, 2019). In addition, the multicultural perspective reflects both the Core Curriculum and the subject curricula (Core curriculum, 2017; LK20, 2019; Spernes, 2020, p. 47). It is explained in the Core Curriculum that "all pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large" (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 5). Krulatz et al. (2018) argue that this clause is "nothing less than a call for multilingual education" (p.123).

The Core Curriculum is universal for primary, lower- and upper secondary schools, and all teachers are required to follow it (Core Curriculum, 2017, pp. 1–2). It elaborates on the core values in the object clause and the core principles for teaching (Core Curriculum, 2017). First, it presents the purpose of education from the objective clause in the Educational Act, and this part is fundamental for the rest of the Core Curriculum (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 3; Spernes, 2020, p. 47). Thereafter, it is divided into three main chapters: "1. Core values of the education and training, 2. Principles for education and all-round development, 3. Principles for the school's practice" (Core Curriculum, 2017, p.1) In the first chapter, there

are mainly two relevant sub-chapters that involve teaching in an inclusive multicultural and multilingual environment. The first is sub-chapter *1.1 Human dignity*:

School must consider the diversity of pupils and facilitate for each pupil to experience belonging in school and society. We may all experience that we feel different and stand out from the others around us. Therefore, we need acknowledgement and appreciation of differences (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 4).

It acknowledges that all people are different, and therefore teachers should strive to create an inclusive environment for all. In addition, this sub-chapter references the *UN Convention on the Rights of the Child* and emphasises equal rights (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 4).

The following sub-chapter is *1.2 Identity and cultural diversity* (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 5). The aim is that “school shall give pupils historical and cultural insight that will give them a good foundation in their lives and help each pupil to preserve and develop her or his identity in an inclusive and diverse environment” (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 5).

Furthermore, it states:

Insight into our history and culture is important for developing the identities of pupils and their belonging in society. The pupils shall learn about the values and traditions which contribute to uniting people in our country. Christian and humanist heritage and traditions are an important part of Norway’s collective cultural heritage and have played a vital role in the development of our democracy (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 5).

However, Spernes (2020, p. 48) questions this as it is two ways to interpret it: a) that all pupils, regardless of their background, possess and govern the Norwegian culture or b) that it is the Norwegian traditions that are of relevance in creating an identity. Nevertheless, the chapter acknowledges the diversity in schools today and how a desirable society builds upon an inclusive and diverse community (Spernes, 2020, p. 49). Additionally, the sub-chapter includes aspects of a multilingual society: “all pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large” (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 5). However, Spernes (2020, p. 49) criticises this as well, since it does not correlate with the curriculum as mother tongue instruction is still only used as a tool to better learn Norwegian (Spernes, 2020, p. 49). She argues that this can signal that the development of pupils’ L1 is of unimportance (Spernes, 2020, p. 49). Furthermore, emphasising that if the minority speaking pupil had the opportunity to develop their whole language repertoire, it would not only benefit the pupil but the society in itself (Spernes, 2020, p. 49).

The English subject curricula in LK20 also focuses on the importance of acknowledging multilingual diversity and the benefits it provides for the individual and society (LK20, 2019, p. 2). The argument that pupils should understand the value of being multilingual is re-stated in the English subject curricula (LK20, 2019, p. 2). More importantly, a specific competence aim highlights a multilingual teaching approach: the pupils shall “use knowledge of similarities between English and other languages he or she knows in language learning”¹ (LK20, 2019, p. 10). This particular competence aim is fundamental for this thesis, as it is now required for teachers to teach multilingually. However, the term *multilingualism* is only implicitly stated in the Core Curriculum and only explicitly stated once in the English subject curricula (LK20).

2.2 Common European Framework of References for Languages

The Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR) has immensely influenced language teaching and assessment worldwide (Deygers, 2021, pp. 186-187). The CEFR is a tool used to describe language ability (Cambridge English, n.d.). Its purpose is to help language learners, teachers, and institutions to navigate someone’s language qualifications on a six-point scale from beginner (A1) to proficient (C2) (Cambridge English, n.d.). The CEFR is the most used language proficiency framework and has impacted language policies, tests, and curricula (Deygers, 2021, pp. 186-187). The CEFR is important in Norwegian educational policies, as Simensen (2020) states: “we might say that in the Norwegian educational system LK20 is a third generation document with regard to the CEFR” (p. 35)

The CEFR values *plurilingualism*². In other words, plurilingualism in the CEFR promotes “personal growth, self-awareness, language awareness, interculturality, political perspective and professional competence” (Piccardo, North & Goodier, 2019, p. 26). The CEFR values plurilingualism as the idea is that twenty-first century citizens in Europe must have a repertoire of language to fulfil the shifting purposes (Garcia, 2009, p. 54). Additionally, it acknowledges that there are educational and cognitive benefits of plurilingualism (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28; Piccardo et al., 2019, p. 26).

The CEFR suggests that plurilingual competence supports linguistic and cultural diversity at an individual level:

¹ This competence aim is stated in both the VG1 English subject curriculum for general studies programme (SF) and the vocational education programmes (YF).

² The Council of Europe prefers the term *plurilingualism*, however, this thesis will engage with the term *multilingualism* (see 3.1).

It promotes the need for learners as ‘social agents’ to draw upon all of their linguistic and cultural resources and experiences in order to fully participate in social and educational contexts, achieving mutual understanding, gaining access to knowledge and in turn further developing their linguistic and cultural repertoire (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 157).

The CEFR does not consider language competence as separate units with perfect competence in all languages. Instead, the purpose is to create a linguistic repertoire, where all languages have a place (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 157). Furthermore, it emphasises that languages are not stored separately in mental compartments but are interrelated (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 157). Similarly, to the competence aim in the English subject curriculum to “use knowledge of similarities between English and other languages he or she knows in language learning” (LK20, 2019, p. 10), the CEFR specifies that “the proactive capacity to use knowledge of familiar languages to understand new languages, looking for cognates and internationalisms in order to make sense of texts in unknown languages” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 157). Therefore, teachers should value and acknowledge learners’ cultural and linguistic diversity (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 157). This acknowledgement in an educational context will also develop pupils’ linguistic tolerance, so they become citizens who are positive towards people who use language differently (Garcia, 2009, p. 54). The CEFR promotes intercultural competence to raise awareness of the cultural diversity that exists, and to encourage tolerant and respectful citizens (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 158).

3. Theoretical orientation

This chapter aim is to provide an overview of the relevant theory to this study. Section 3.1 will explain key terms such as multilingualism, multiculturalism, and identity. Furthermore, section 3.2 will discuss research done on multilingualism. In section 3.3, theory on socio-cultural learning will be presented, additionally, a brief overview of second language acquisition (SLA) and third language acquisition (TLA). Section 3.4 will investigate multilingual pedagogies, such as translanguaging, and how to enact that in the classroom. Theory on teacher cognition and learner's beliefs is reviewed in section 3.5. Finally, section 3.6 will provide a brief overview of previous research conducted within multilingual teaching.

3.1 Plurilingualism, multilingualism and bilingualism

Plurilingual, *multilingual* and *bilingual* are all terms that describe individuals who have a repertoire of languages. Some researchers use them as synonyms, while others have a clear distinction between them (De Angelis, 2007, p. 8). De Angelis (2007, p. 8) argues that there are some problematic inconsistencies with these terms, as the terms are used differently in research. Therefore, this section will explain some common definitions used in interpreting these terms and clarify how they will be defined in this thesis.

Haukås and Speitz (2018, p. 304) distinguish the term *multilingualism* from *plurilingualism*. Multilingualism is defined as the different varieties of languages at a societal level, while plurilingualism is the diverse repertoire of languages at an individual level (Conteh & Meier, 2014; Haukås and Speitz, 2018, p. 304). This distinction is also in line with that of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28). The CEFR presents plurilingualism as a dynamic competence since it is constantly changing as the person's resources are different from one language to another (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28). Nevertheless, the essential idea is that plurilinguals "have a single, inter-related, repertoire that they combine with their general competences and various strategies in order to accomplish tasks" (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28). Similarly, Grosjean (2010, p. 4) experiences that the term multilingualism is commonly used to describe varieties of languages at a societal level. On the other hand, Krulatz et al. (2018, p.11) do not distinguish between languages on a societal and individual level. They define multilingualism as speakers of two or more languages at both the individual and societal level (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 11).

The terms bilingualism and multilingualism are often used as synonyms in literature (De Angelis, 2007, p. 8). Grosjean (2010) defines bilingualism as "those who use two or more

languages (or dialects) in their everyday lives.” (p. 4). However, some researchers prefer to make a clear distinction between them. Krulatz et al. (2018, p.54) define bilingualism as speakers of two languages, whereas multilinguals are speakers of two *or more* languages. This definition is also in line with that of the Oxford English Dictionary, which indicates that this particular distinction is of common use (Bilingual, 2021; Multilingual, 2018). However, some researchers recognise these definitions of bilingualism and multilingualism but phrase them differently, as they define multilinguals as speaker of three or more languages (De Angelis, 2007, p. 8; Kemp, 2009, p. 15).

Another variable to consider when discussing multilingualism and bilingualism is the level of fluency. How this is perceived will vary significantly from researcher to researcher, ranging from Bloomfield’s (1933) definition where bilinguals need to have “native-like control of two languages” (p. 56). On the other hand, Grosjean (2010, p. 21-22) denies that bilinguals need to be perfectly and equally fluent in both languages. Grosjean (2010, p. 21) criticises scholars who define bilinguals according to their fluency, as he believes bilingualism cannot be regarded as double monolingualism. He claims that “most bilinguals use their languages for different purposes, in different situations, with different people” (Grosjean, 2010, p. 21), therefore they do not need to be equally fluent in all their languages. Also, Kemp (2009, p. 15) claims that the proficiency level of the different languages a person speaks may significantly vary. However, De Angelis (2007) perceives that multilinguals and bilinguals need to speak a language “to some degree of fluency” (p. 8). Most bilinguals will not be equally fluent in both languages, and some might not even know how to read or write in one of the languages, as the languages will have different uses (Grosjean, 2010). This thesis will engage with the term *multilingual* for people who can communicate in three or more languages. In comparison, *bilingual* will be employed for people who speak two languages.

3.1.1 Multiculturalism - language and culture

Language and culture are closely related. Duranti (1997) defines culture as “something learned, transmitted, passed down from one generation to the next, through human actions, often in the form of face-to-face interaction, and, of course, through linguistic communication” (p.24). Watson (2000, p. 1) defines culture as having a sense of belonging to a particular group through shared religious beliefs, history, moral values, geographical origin and a common language. Language in culture is crucial, as Lund (2007, p. 27) states that culture is carried through language, people participate in and learn about culture through the use of language. Furthermore, she explains how languages make the world around us

manageable, through systems of categorisation and being able to classify experiences and phenomena (Lund, 2007, p. 28). Several scholars argue the inseparable relationship between language and culture (Byram & Morgan, 1994; Kramersch, 1998).

As there exists a relationship between language and culture, Risager (2007, p.1) argues that it is time to change teaching from a traditional national paradigm into a transnational paradigm that considers the global and transnational world that exists today. She claims that language teachers must focus on more than just the target language in class, not only from the perspective of the minority pupils, but also in order to develop pupils' multicultural and multilingual competence for the whole class (Risager, 2007, p.1). Moreover, Risager (2007) argues that identities have to be understood "as processes that take place between particular players under particular historical and geographical circumstances in multicultural communities that form and develop across existing national boundaries" (p.1). She therefore argues that it is not enough to view *language* and *culture* as an inseparable whole, where the goal is to teach in the target language and target language culture. It is essential to understand the complexity and multidimensional process that take place in language and culture and teach thereafter (Risager, 2007, p. 2).

Risager (2007) suggests that the world has become more transnational, which ultimately influences culture. Globalisation has led to cultural diversity, or multiculturalism. Multiculturalism is an umbrella term that is understood differently, depending on the person interpreting it (Song, 2010; Watson, 2000, p. 1). However, Watson (2000) defines multiculturalism as "to speak of a society- a state, a nation, a country, a region or even simply a bounded geographical location such as a town or a school- composed of people who belong to different cultures" (p. 1-2). The objective clause in the Education Act has a more inclusive approach where multicultural teaching is valued "education and training shall provide insight into cultural diversity and show respect for the individual's convictions" (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 3). Since language is a crucial part of someone's culture, and therefore identity (see 3.1.2), it is crucial to include a multilingual approach in class in line with LK20.

3.1.2 Language and identity

Identity is a complex matter, as it concerns people's culture, tradition, history, beliefs and first and foremost language (Choi, 2015, p. 240). Fuller (2013) argues that identity is a socially constructed phenomenon, something individuals construct themselves through social behaviour. For immigrants or people born to immigrant parents, this matter is even more complex as they will often experience hybridity in their sense of belonging (Choi, 2005, p.

240). Choi (2015) argues how society perceives immigrants may influence their identity: “the notion of who they are is based not only on their self-perception, but also on what is seen through the lenses of the members of the societies in which they exist” (p.240). Furthermore, he emphasises that there exists a close relationship between language and identity since language symbolises an individual’s identity. Baker (2006) claims: “identity is socially created and claimed through language. . . ., in our expressions and engagements, predictions and preferences. Language is a symbol of our identity” (p. 241). Spolsky (1999), as referenced in Gibson (2004), states: “a language is a powerful symbol of national and ethnic identity” (p.2). Similarly, Chesire (2002, p.19) argues that language reveals individual’s social and personal identity.

Monolingual identities are not as complex and complicated as multilingual identities (Aronin & Singleton, 2012, p. 81). Multilingual language learning involves interactions from a large spectrum of different and changing influences, for example, through the languages they have acquired at different stages in their lives (Aronin & Singleton, 2012, p. 81). Therefore, the identity formation multilingual pupils have gone through is something teachers should consider (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 103). Teachers must create an inclusive classroom that is linguistically and culturally affirmative (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 103). Furthermore, they argue that English teachers have a particular responsibility in this as they will introduce pupils to a high-status language: “because English is seen as valuable commodity, it runs the risk of being contrasted with other languages the children speak, which in turn can be stigmatised as less desirable” (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 104).

As previously explained, identity is emphasised in LK20 (see 2.1, p. 6), especially concerning the Core Curriculum’s sub-chapter *1.2 identity and cultural diversity*. In addition, in focusing on developing the pupil’s identity through cultural and historical insight in a diverse and inclusive environment, it states that pupils should be “confident in their language proficiency, that they develop their language identity and that they are able to use language to think, create meaning, communicate and connect with others. Language gives us a sense of belonging and cultural awareness” (Core Curriculum, 2017, p. 5).

According to Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 106), empirical evidence indicates that confirming pupils’ identity and continuously helping them develop their whole language repertoire will result in higher academic achievement. The pupil’s identity development is affected by how the teacher perceives the pupil, as Bernhard et al. (2006) claim: “classroom instruction always positions students in particular ways that reflect the implicit (or sometimes explicit) image of the student in the teacher’s mind. How students are positioned either

expands or constricts their opportunities for identity investment and cognitive engagement” (p. 2387). Therefore, teachers need to have positive beliefs towards pupils multilingual identities. If schools have a majority language only policy, it sends a message to multilingual pupils that their home language and culture is not valued and respected. Furthermore, this can eventually lead to pupils having low self-esteem and can create an identity crisis (Krulatz et al., 2018). Eventually, it might result in them altogether abandoning their L1 in favour of the majority language (Krulatz et al., 2018 p.107). Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 107) explain that this is particularly common for languages that are associated with low status.

Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 107) argue for teachers to create learning environments that value multilingualism. Then teachers would be validating pupils’ multilingual and multicultural identities (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 107). Krulatz et al. (2018) emphasise: “English teachers have, therefore, a moral responsibility to raise all children’s awareness of the importance of respecting and valuing all languages and cultures present in the classroom” (p.108). They suggest equipping the school libraries with multilingual books and dictionaries, as this will reinforce their multilingual identities. Choi (2005), Baker (2006), Chesire (2002) and Krulatz et al. (2018) argue that language and identity are closely related. Therefore, it is crucial for teachers to preserve and consider the different languages the pupils speak, as this may impact their identity.

3.1.3 The issue of using identifying terms

The author of this paper has acknowledged the problematic aspect of using identifying terms as *first language*, *mother tongue* and *native language*. Rampton (1990) suggests using terms that may be more accurate and descriptive for individual situations. Furthermore, he claims the use of *mother tongue* and *native language* in an educational context suggests that the language is inherited, and therefore presuming that the ability to speak it should be well (Rampton, 1990, p. 97-98). People do not only belong to one social group and one language, therefore the language repertoire will adapt and change (Rampton, 1990, p. 98). Furthermore, using the terms mother tongue and native speaker links the idea of fluency and biology, besides not considering the social factors involved in language learning (Rampton, 1990, p. 98). Considering that people have multilingual identities, it is essential to have correct terms when referring to the different languages in their linguistic repertoire (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 104). Garcia (2009, p. 58) is also critical towards the use of mother tongue, as the situation in the world today is much more complex, therefore the use of mother tongue might give false assumptions.

As an alternative, Rampton (1990, p. 97) suggests *language expertise*, *language inheritance* and *language affiliation* to be more appropriate in educational settings. By using the term language expertise, the teacher is changing the focus from “who you are to what you know” (Rampton, 1990, p. 99). However, as identification is crucial, Rampton (1990, p. 99) suggests supplying with the terms language inheritance and affiliation. He explains that the difference between these two is that “inheritance occurs within social boundaries, while affiliation takes place across them” (Rampton, 1990, p. 99). Furthermore, Rampton (1990, p. 99) emphasises that the pupils can have a stronger attachment to either of those languages. As an overall term for the latter two, he uses the term *language loyalty* since it is vital not to assume that language ability automatically connects with nationality and ethnicity (Rampton, 1990, pp. 99-100). However, the term first language is used in this thesis to describe the language the pupil acquired first in life. In addition, home language is used to describe the language the pupil has learnt from home, if it is not their first language.

3.2 Research on multilingualism

People have always moved from one location to another, resulting in multilingualism being an everyday reality for most people throughout the world (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 10). Researchers have for long debated what the beneficial factors are related to multilingualism, but today there exists a consensus in research that supports the cognitive benefits (Bialystok, 2009, p. 7; Cenoz, 2003; J. Edwards, 2012, p. 31; V. Edwards, 2009, p. 19; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 71). Before the 1960s, multilingualism was mainly viewed negatively, as bilinguals were believed to be inferior to monolinguals (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). According to Franceschini (2009, p. 31), bilinguals were for decades considered an exceptional phenomenon rather than as the linguistic rule. In the classroom, teachers wanted to eliminate the child’s home language, as it was believed that being bilingual had damaging cognitive effects (Franceschini, 2009, p. 31). V. Edwards (2009, p. 18) claims that researchers believed that bilinguals had an intellectual disadvantage to monolinguals. Since it was commonly believed that knowing two languages would take twice as much space as knowing one language since there was an ongoing image of the brain as “receptacle with finite capacity” (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). Therefore, assuming that bilinguals could not perform as well as monolinguals (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18).

The research conducted on multilingualism before the 1960s is criticised, as some researchers were comparing monolinguals and bilinguals with different socio-economic backgrounds (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). The results retrieved from these studies, which

showed monolinguals as superior, could therefore be attributed to their social class rather than their intellectual abilities (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). Peal and Lambert's (1962) study on bilinguals and monolinguals in Montreal had substantial impacts on bilingual research (Hakuta & Diaz, 1985, p. 319). They criticised previous studies for not accounting for socio-cultural and economic factors when conducting research (Peal & Lambert, 1962, p. 1). When all factors were accounted for, they found that bilinguals had higher scores on verbal and nonverbal intelligent tests than monolinguals (Peal & Lambert, 1962, p. 20). The researchers reported that they were not expecting these results as it contradicted previous research (Peal & Lambert, 1962, p. 20). This study resulted in researchers becoming more aware of the importance of socio-economic factors (Hakuta & Diaz, 1985, p. 322). However, their study was also criticised for sampling in favour of the bilingual children, something they also admitted in their study (Hakuta & Diaz, 1985, p. 322; Peal & Lambert, 1962, p. 15).

Today there is a consensus that there is a common underlying proficiency between the languages a person has acquired, meaning that languages are not acquired in separate units (Council of Europe, 2018; V. Edwards, 2009, pp. 18–19). A common analogy used to explain bilingualism is Cummins' (1981) theory on the Common Underlying Proficiency. This suggests that languages are interdependent and based on a common foundation, contrasting previous beliefs that languages are stored separately in the brain (Cummins, 1981; 2000; Garcia & Flores, 2014, p. 154). Cummins' (1981) theory is often illustrated as the double-peaked iceberg (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 79). The two individual peaks that show over the water are the specific features of the language, while the shared base underwater is the “common underlying proficiency involved in cognitively demanding tasks” (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). Today multilingualism is seen as an advantage in different cognitive and metacognitive tasks (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18).

However, Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 83) claim that it is still debated if there are significant differences to be found between monolinguals' and bi- and multilinguals' performance. Cenoz (2003, p. 73) claim that the research conducted since the 1980s has had the general indication that bilinguals scored higher than monolinguals on cognitive ability tests. Bialystok & Craik (2010) argue that there is one disadvantage to bilingualism, that their formal language is not as developed due to their smaller vocabulary. However, they emphasise that this disadvantage is minor compared to the advantages of bilingualism. One of the argued benefits is *cognitive control*, that bilinguals are able to focus their attention on what is important and block out the unnecessary information in a given task (Bialystok & Craik, 2010; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 83). Krulatz et al. (2018) refer to that as *cognitive*

flexibility, the ability “to pay particular attention to formal aspects of linguistic units” (p.83). Studies also show that multilinguals have a high degree of *communicative sensitivity* (Cenoz, 2003, p. 73; Garcia, 2009, p. 96; Krulatz et al., 2018). This means that they are more sensitive to their interlocutors’ communication needs, and therefore, able to adapt in given situations (Cenoz, 2003, p. 73). Multilinguals have developed communicative competence through communicating with people with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.84). Evidence also suggests that multilinguals have an advantage over monolinguals when learning yet another language, as they will look for patterns in the languages they already have acquired (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.84).

3.2.1 Varieties of bilingualism/multilingualism

In many western countries, it might seem that monolingualism is more natural for humans, as it is common only to have one L1 (V. Edwards, 2009). However, this is not the case worldwide, as acquiring several languages from birth is the norm (V. Edwards, 2009). This naturalistic language acquisition of becoming bilingual by learning several languages at once is called *simultaneous bilingualism* (Aronin & Singleton, 2012, p. 102; V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 55). Simultaneous bilingualism is becoming more common everywhere as children grow up in multicultural homes and environments. Norwegians born to immigrant parents will often be simultaneous bilinguals, as they frequently learn their home language from their parents and Norwegian when they start kindergarten. Another common way of becoming bilingual is by *sequential bilingualism*, when a child first acquires one language before learning another language (Aronin & Singleton, 2012, p. 102; V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). Sequential bilingualism frequently happens after the age of three and through formal education (Aronin & Singleton, 2012, p. 102; V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). This method of acquiring an L2 is called *elective bilingualism* (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). According to V. Edwards (2009, p. 18), this is often associated with *high-status languages* and would therefore be considered positive. According to Thomas (2004), all languages may be connected to prestige and stigma, dependent on the speaker’s social class, nation, and social identity. This will ultimately influence the speaker’s social and cultural lives (Thomas, 2004).

The status a language has in society can affect how people acquire languages, as the setting is crucial (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). Lambert (1973), introduced the terms *additive*- and *subtractive* bilingualism. Additive bilingualism is when acquiring an L2 does not harm the language abilities of the L1 (Plüddemann, 2013, p. 18). Whereas subtractive bilingualism

is when acquiring another language negatively impacts or replaces the L1 (Plüddemann, 2013, p. 18). Cenoz (2003, p. 82) argues that the status a language has in society can influence how the language is acquired. If the language is valued, it will often result in additive bilingualism. Conversely, it will result in subtractive bilingualism if the language is not valued (Cenoz, 2003, p. 82). Migrants are often victims of subtractive bilingualism, as they are *circumstantial bilinguals* since they are dependent on learning an L2 to function in the new society (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). Unfortunately, their L1 will often be viewed negatively, which results in damages to their L1 when acquiring an L2 (V. Edwards, 2009, p. 18). V. Edwards (2009, p.18) is critical towards this phenomenon where bilingualism is valued with some languages in certain communities, while being viewed negatively with other communities and languages.

Garcia & Flores (2014, p.154) disagree with the idea of bilingualism as double monolingualism. They do not believe that bilinguals are only monolinguals with two languages. Furthermore, they recognise Cummins (1981) theory that languages rely on a common foundation and are not stored as separate units in the brain (see 3.2, p. 15). Garcia (2009, p. 55) argues that it is time to perceive bilingualism as a dynamic process because of globalisation. Globalisation has led to different interaction patterns: “in the linguistic complexity of the twenty-first century, bilingualism involves a much more dynamic cycle where language practices are multiple and ever adjusting to the multilingual multimodal terrain of the communicative act” (Garcia, 2009, p. 53). However, critics have stated that the difference between bilinguals’ and monolinguals’ language competence is not related to cognitive factors but the different socialisation and practice patterns (Garcia & Flores, 2014, p. 154).

Monolinguals cannot use languages the same way as bilinguals and multilinguals, as bi- and multilinguals can use their whole language repertoire in conversations (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 138). This is traditionally referred to as *code-switching*, the ability to alternate between the different languages, but researchers have begun to criticise this term as it indicates that languages are stored as separate units in the brain (Garcia, 2012, p. 1; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 138). Instead, researchers suggest using the term *translanguaging*, which is related to Cummins’ (1981) Common Underlying Proficiency theory (Garcia, 2012, p. 1; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 138). Krulatz et al. (2018, p.138) define translanguaging as the process where “multilinguals select the features from their linguistic repertoires depending on the particular situation” (p.138) (see 3.4.2.). The concept of translanguaging suggests that there is one linguistic repertoire and disrupts the idea of native languages and L1s (Garcia, 2012, p.

4). According to Garcia (2012, p. 4), bilinguals are at a continuum and not possessors of an L1, learning an L2.

Not only are there cognitive benefits of bilingualism, but also social advantages. The world is becoming more globalised and closer together, therefore the ability to communicate in more than one language is crucial (Garcia, 2009, p. 98). The aim is no longer to be fluent in two languages, but to be familiar with several codes and discourse modes, to be able to find and choose what is appropriate in specific settings, therefore translanguaging is essential in local and global interactions (Garcia, 2009, p. 98). In addition, another benefit of multilingual settings is the cultural awareness that happens, as the interlocutors become aware of cultural differences (Garcia, 2009, p. 98). For immigrants and children born to immigrant parents, becoming aware of differences in cultures allows them to develop their hybrid culture by negotiating cultural systems (Garcia, 2009, p. 98). Nordlie (2019, p. 12) argues that multilingualism may only be beneficial for pupils if certain conditions are met. Conditions such as the languages multilinguals speak must be welcomed and made available for them (Nordlie, 2019, p. 12).

3.3 Language learning theory

3.3.1 Socio-cultural theory

The socio-cultural learning perspective has its roots in Vygotsky's theory. The theory's foundation lies in that learning happens in social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky (1978, p. 85) argued that children had *an actual developmental zone* and *an zone of proximal development* (ZPD). The actual developmental zone involves the mental functions the child is currently at, meaning tasks they can complete independently. On the other hand, the ZPD is the potential development the child may have through *scaffolding*, meaning the child will develop its mental functions through help with someone more capable (Vygotsky, 1978, pp. 85-86). The ZPD involves the mental functions the child has not matured. However, with guidance, the child will be able to *internalise* the mental functions (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). This is a continuous process as the ZPD will develop into the actual developmental zone with scaffolding, and thereafter a new ZPD will arise (Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, teachers must consider the pupil's ZPD in order for them to constantly develop. However, the learning must happen within the pupil's developmental zone since scaffolding will be of no use if the task is too difficult (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 88). As Compton-Lilly (2013) argues: "learning involves connecting children's new knowledge with what is already known" (p.4).

Another aspect of the socio-cultural approach has been Compton-Lilly's (2013, p. 4) theory. She argues that teachers should *build on what the children bring*: "teaching is more successful when we recognise and develop what children bring to reading/literacy classrooms and are able to help them to access and utilise the vast sets of knowledges that they bring" (Compton-Lilly, 2013, p. 4). This theory is developed of the cognitive aspects (in-the-head processes) and the socio-cultural aspects (in-the-world experiences) (Compton-Lilly, 2013, p. 5). The cognitive theories focus on the capacities of the human mind, while the socio-cultural theory focuses on attitudes, feelings and beliefs. In teaching literacy, teachers need to consider both the in-the-head processes and the in-the-world experiences to fully understand what the children bring, meaning what knowledge the children possess (Compton-Lilly, 2017, p. 5).

Vygotsky's and Compton-Lilly's socio-cultural approaches acknowledge the importance of considering the individual pupil in learning. The pupils will have different life experiences, which influences what they bring to the classroom, which again will impact their ZPD. No two pupils are the same, therefore, these theories will be significant in a multilingual teaching approach, as the pupils will have considerably different experiences, and it is the teacher's job to consider these.

3.3.2 Second language acquisition and third language acquisition

One of the main theories within SLA is Krashen's *monitor model*. This monitor model consists of five hypotheses: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982).

The first hypothesis, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, separates acquisition from learning (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). Language acquisition is an unconscious process, similar to how children learn languages. When acquiring languages, people are not aware of the grammatical rules, however, the grammatical sentences *feel* right or wrong. In contrast, language learning is the conscious process of learning a language, where people learn about the grammar.

The natural order hypothesis is the second hypothesis in the monitor model (Krashen, 1982, p. 12). This concerns that learners learn some structures before others in languages. Krashen (1982, p. 12) claim that when learning grammatical structures in languages, the same order or stages are usually followed. Children acquiring English as an L2 showed a pattern in learning the grammatical structures of the language. However, the grammatical structures were different from the children learning English as their L1. Nonetheless, the L2 learners

also revealed a *natural order* in acquiring the grammatical structures of English regardless of what their L1 was (Krashen, 1982, p.12).

The third hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, suggests that acquisition and learning have specific roles (Krashen, 1982, p. 15). Acquisition in an L2 is responsible for our fluency while learning only functions as a monitor: “learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of our utterance, after it has been ‘produced’ by the acquired system” (Krashen, 1982, p. 15).

The fourth hypothesis is the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1982, p. 20). This hypothesis suggests that language learners benefit most from conversations where the level is slightly above the current level (Krashen, 1982, p. 21). Krashen (1982, p. 21) describes this as $i+1$, where i is the actual language competence of the learner, and $i+1$ is the comprehensible input that should only be ‘a little beyond’ the learner’s current level. Furthermore, he disagrees with previous assumptions that L2 learners first learn structures before using these in communication. This hypothesis claims the opposite, that in acquiring language the learners first go for the meaning before acquiring structure. Finally, Krashen (1982, p. 22) claims how fluency is not teachable, that it is individual depending on how *ready* the learner is. However, providing comprehensible input, $i+1$, will benefit the learner’s language acquisition (Krashen, 1982, p. 22).

The final hypothesis is the affective filter hypothesis. This emphasises the importance of affective factors such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety, and how these affects SLA (Krashen, 1982, pp. 30-31). On the one hand, motivation and self-confidence positively impact L2 acquisition, and on the other hand, anxiety negatively impacts SLA. Krashen (1982) claims “the affective filter hypothesis captures the relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their affective filters” (p. 31).

Krashen’s (1982) monitor model, and especially the natural approach has immensely been criticised for being irrelevant (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 273). As teachers are often required to follow curricula which indicate what level the learner should be at different stages during the school courses. Furthermore, English is often only taught a few hours each week resulting in a gradually approach to teaching English (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 274). However, Krashen’s (1982) model has immensely influenced the field of SLA (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Researchers argue that there should be a distinction between SLA and TLA, as the learner is bilingual in TLA, compared to SLA where the learner is monolingual (Cenoz, 2003;

Herdina & Jessner, 2002). However, there are some similarities between SLA and TLA. Cenoz (2003) defines TLA as “third language acquisition refers to the acquisition of a non-native language by learners who have previously acquired or are acquiring two other languages” (p. 71). Third language (L3) learners might have developed some learning strategies when learning an L2, which they might benefit from in TLA (Cenoz, 2003, p. 80). Missler (2000), as referenced in Cenoz (2003, p. 81), found similar evidence of experienced language learners more frequently using language learning strategies than novice language learners. Cenoz (2003, p. 83) argues that most studies show a significant advantage of being bilingual when acquiring an L3. However, the contexts must be right, meaning language learning should happen in an additive context, where acquiring L3 does not negatively affect the L1 or L2. The outcome of additive or subtractive bilingualism depends on the status the language has in society (Cenoz, 2003, p.82) (see 3.2.1 pp. 16-17).

The positive transfer between languages can be attributed to bilinguals’ learning strategies, communicative abilities and metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz, 2003). In addition, research suggests that bilinguals have a wider linguistic repertoire which influences the positive language transfer (Cenoz, 2003). TLA is a complex phenomenon concerning several factors, for example factors as bilingualism (Cenoz, 2003, p. 83). However, Cenoz (2003, p. 83) argues that bilingualism might not be the most significant factor as many individual and contextual factors will also influence language acquisition. A study conducted by Cenoz (1991), as referenced in Cenoz (2003, p. 75), found that individual factors as motivation and general intelligence were more significant than the influence bilingualism had on TLA. However, evidence suggests that bilinguals have a higher level of proficiency in an L3 than monolinguals. In the studies conducted where bilingualism did not have an advantage in acquiring an L3, it usually involved subtractive contexts, meaning that acquiring an L3 negatively impacted the L1 or L2 (Cenoz, 2003, p. 78). Therefore, she argues for the importance of considering contextual factors when comparing bilinguals and monolinguals in TLA. Bono and Stratilaki (2009) also emphasise the importance of contextual factors. They found that most learners recognised multilingualism as an advantage if it was associated with something positive within a school context. Particularly if multilingualism was encouraged in the curricula and within multilingual learning strategies. Therefore, it is essential for teachers and educators to have a multilingual approach in the classroom, where languages are welcomed and seen as a benefit.

3.4 Multilingual pedagogy

As several teachers and researchers now recognise multilingualism as an asset, there has been a *multilingual turn in education* (Conteh & Meier, 2014; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 124). Teachers acknowledge the pupils' background and apply learning strategies that consider pupils' linguistic repertoire (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 124). This contradicts the language socialisation several pupils have learnt, meaning that pupils have been taught that only the majority language should be used in school (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 124). For long, the assumption was only to use English in English class, but research shows "that new language practices only emerge in interrelationship with old language practices (Garcia, 2012, p. 3). Similarly, Haukås & Speitz (2020) argue that this is especially true in the English classroom, as teachers have been expected to only speak English, in order for pupils "maximize their input and to avoid interference from other languages" (p. 67).

Krulatz et al. (2018, p.124) argue that by taking the diversity in the classroom into pedagogical use and creating an inclusive classroom environment in welcoming all languages and backgrounds, teachers contribute to the multilingual turn in education. Even more so, they state that "ideas like equality and equal rights are not fully realised if some learners are denied access as a whole person, with their multilingual identities" (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 126). Besides, all pupils learn best when they can learn by using the language they excel most in (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.126). This section will present approaches on how to enact multilingualism in the classroom.

3.4.1 Enacting multilingualism in the classroom

According to the Ministry of Education and Research (2007, p. 7), schools do not automatically become multicultural by only having a diverse representation. However, multicultural schools are the ones that consciously value and have strategies to enhance diversity (Ministry of Education and Research (2007, p. 7). Therefore, in the ideal multicultural school differences are normalised and there is equality among pupils (Spernes, 2020, p. 174). This requires schools to value differences and not carry assimilation policies. Assimilation would mean for the immigrants to fully participate in the new society (Spernes, 2020, p. 169). This could be a painful process, as the person would lose all connections to their heritage culture (Spernes, 2020, p. 170). It is not the teachers who can decide how the schools should administer the diversity (Spernes, 2020, p. 175). However, the teachers can implement some strategies in the classroom, which will create a multilingual classroom where diversity is valued. Spernes (2020, p. 238) emphasises the importance of differentiated

teaching, meaning that the content and language must be adapted for every pupil. In addition, the teacher must consider the pupils' experiences and background in teaching.

The National Centre of Multicultural Education (NAFO, 2019, para. 2) aim is to “to contribute to the protection of multilingual and multicultural aspects at all levels of education from kindergarten to college and university”. They focus on how educators can provide adaptive teaching for multilinguals in order to develop inclusive learning environments. NAFO (2019) provides courses and conferences to evolve and support teachers and schools multilingual and multicultural competence. Furthermore, they develop multilingual Internet sources that can aid the teachers and pupils in the classroom. NAFO (2019) emphasises that all pupils need to feel cherished to learn, since being acknowledged by the teacher and the class is essential for positive development.

NAFO (2010) suggest several methods to create an inclusive learning environment. They suggest using environmental prints, as multilingual posters can enforce an inclusive classroom (NAFO, 2010, p. 11). Furthermore, by cherishing the different holidays celebrated worldwide, teachers would be enacting multilingualism (NAFO, 2010, p. 14). Additionally, teachers can enact multilingualism by learning to say simple phrases in the pupils' languages, as good morning, welcome and have a nice day (NAFO, 2010, p. 13). Their overall assumption is that the teaching needs to promote multilingualism as a resource. Furthermore, that there are simple methods for teachers to create a classroom where pupils' diverse identities are valued (NAFO, 2010).

3.4.2 Translanguaging in the classrooms

Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 134) emphasise that the monolingual myth that languages should be kept separate since mixing languages will cause confusion, is not supported by research. A method of embracing multilingualism in the classroom is to use translanguaging as pedagogy. Translanguaging is a learning strategy explicitly stated in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018). Garcia & Flores (2014) refer to translanguaging as “the flexible use of linguistic resources by bilinguals in order to make sense of their complex worlds” (p. 154). In a similar vein, Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 137) define it as a “flexible use of linguistic resources available to multilinguals; the main assumption is that multilinguals have one linguistic repertoire that includes features of various languages and they select the feature appropriate for a given situation to best meet their communicative needs” (p. 137). Translanguaging goes beyond codeswitching, as it includes all form of bilingual contact and language use (Garcia, 2009, p. 45). Garcia (2009, p. 47) argues that translanguaging illustrates how there are no

clear-cut barriers in bilinguals' linguistic repertoire, but languages are accessed from a *linguaging continuum*.

Translanguaging in school involves using the languages the pupils and teachers know as a tool for better understanding and learning (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.139). However, teachers worry about implementing translanguaging in the classroom when they do not speak the language themselves (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.140). Krulatz et al. (2018, pp.140-141) stress that it is not about speaking the language. However, for teachers to acknowledge that pupils' home language is valuable for learning, and by doing this, the teacher will also promote language equality. In addition, teachers need to develop language strategies to help promote translanguaging for pupils (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 140). Furthermore, what beliefs teachers' have towards translanguaging is highly influential in how pupils view their multilingual skills (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 143). Not only will translanguaging as a pedagogy be beneficial for multilingual pupils but for all the pupils, as it will create awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity that can foster curiosity in learning several languages (Garcia, 2012, p. 4; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 141). According to Garcia and Flores (2014), evidence now shows that translanguaging results in "deeper thinking, affirms multiple identities, engages bilingual students with more rigorous content, and at the same time develops language that is adequate for specific academic tasks" (p.155). Translanguaging can enhance literary, language and cognitive abilities (Garcia & Flores, 2014, p. 155)

To let pupils actively engage in translanguaging in school not only supports their language development, but will also be beneficial for their academic content knowledge (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.139). However, to use translanguaging in the classroom means that the teachers need to have methods that explicitly let the pupils practice it as a choice for learning and knowing (Garcia & Flores, 2014, p. 161). Krulatz et al. (2018) suggest four language strategies to implement translanguaging in an English foreign language (EFL) classroom: "*Creating a multilingual learning environment; Making teaching and learning culturally relevant; Using multilingual texts; Encouraging collaborative work*" (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.144).

To create an inclusive learning environment means not only welcoming the majority language or English but to equally welcome all of the languages the pupils speak (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.144). Celic and Seltzer (2012) state: "it's important to create classroom and school environments that represent, respect, and value all of your students – including your bilingual students" (p. 20). There are several methods to accomplish this. One simple contribution is to learn how to pronounce the pupils' names correctly, not the Norwegian or

English equivalent of it (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.144). Music is also an excellent tool in promoting cultural learning environment, by inviting the multilingual pupils to help translate songs in their home language and let the other pupils learn how to pronounce the words in the lyrics (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.144). Culturally relevant teaching and learning mean building a bridge between pupils' background knowledge and the new content and language they are learning, so multilinguals feel valued and appreciated (Celic & Seltzer, 2012, p. 13). Krulatz et al. (2018, p.145) suggest that teachers can include literature from other regions or cultures, not only western literature. Then teachers include multilingual texts relevant to the whole class (Krulatz et al.,2018, p.145). Research shows that pupils' reading proficiency is more significant when they are able to engage and connect with a text (Celic & Seltzer, 2012, p. 13).

The last strategy Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 146) suggest is to use collaborative groups or pairs. When pupils are put together in groups, most of the time they will speak in Norwegian or English. However, if they are placed together to draw on their home language, it is a method of making all the languages spoken in the classroom a resource to facilitate learning (Krulatz et al.,2018, p.147). Implementing translanguaging is one way of enacting multilingualism in the classroom in accordance with LK20. Since LK20 and the Core Curriculum states that pupils need to understand that being multilingual is an asset both in school and society. Additionally, translanguaging will work towards the competence aim that encourages pupils to use their whole language repertoire in learning English (Core Curriculum, 2017; LK20, 2019). Furthermore, Krulatz et al. (2018) argue: "teachers' own attitudes to translanguaging practices have a strong impact on how students themselves perceive their multilingual skills" (p.143).

3.5 Teacher cognition and learners' beliefs

Multilingual teaching is valued in LK20 (Haukås & Speitz, 2020, p. 66). However, scholars as Spernes (2020, p. 214) and Krulatz et al. (2018, p. 13) argue that teachers do not have the necessary competence needed to teach multilingually, consequently, teachers need to develop their competence in teaching minority pupils. Therefore, it is applicable to provide an overview of research done on teacher cognition. Furthermore, as this thesis aims to examine the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences, it is relevant to include research on learners' beliefs.

3.5.1 Teacher cognition

Teacher’s practices in the classroom are generally influenced by their beliefs (Graden, 1996, p. 394). Consciously or unconsciously, teachers plan lessons on what they believe is the most effective approaches for pupils to learn (Harmer, 2015, p. 213). Teachers actively make decisions based on their knowledge, belief, and thoughts, called *teacher cognition* (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Borg (2003) defines teacher cognition as “what teachers think, know, and believe and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom” (p. 81). Therefore, it is reason to believe that teachers’ beliefs about multilingualism are crucial as studies suggest that beliefs and practices have a reciprocal relationship (Borg, 2018, p. 86). Borg (2015, p. 333) presents a model consisting of three factors that contribute to teacher cognition:

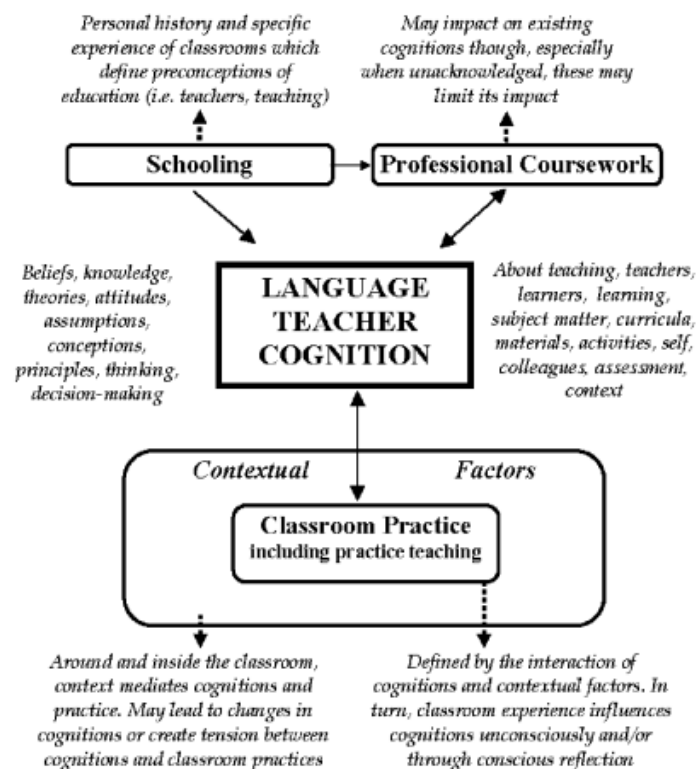


Figure 1: Borg’s (2015) language teacher cognition model

This model presents how teacher cognition is a result of factors such as *schooling*, *professional coursework* and *classroom practices* (Borg, 2015, p. 333). Borg (2015) argues that this model presents how “language teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work” (p. 333). Teachers’ earlier educational background and learning have influenced teacher cognition, meaning their beliefs have been influenced by what and how they have been taught as learners (Borg, 2003, p. 81; 2015, p. 334). Similarly, Ebsworth & Schweers

(1997, p. 255) found that teacher taught based on their experiences as teachers and learners. Holt-Reynolds (1992, p. 343) also found evidence that teachers' previous experiences as learners were highly influential in their beliefs and practices as teachers in the classroom. Borg's (2015, p. 333) model also includes how teachers' professional coursework is influenced by previous schooling and teacher cognition. However, he emphasises that when teachers' previous beliefs are ignored, the impact this has on teacher cognition is not as effective (2015, p. 334). In addition, the model indicates how there exists a reciprocal relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practices (Borg, 2015, p. 333). Borg (2006) claims "with contextual factors playing an important role in mediating the extent to which teachers are able to implement instruction congruent with their cognitions" (p. 334). Contextual factor such as: a) institutional factors as syllabus, exam pressures and timetabling, b) pedagogical factors as pupils needs and abilities, c) personal factors as personal lives and relationships and d) physical factors as the size and layout of the class (Borg, 2015, p. 156). These are only a few examples of contextual factors that might impact teacher cognition and classroom practice.

Each part of this model contributes to what Borg defines as language teacher cognition. Previous and current personal experiences influence teachers' beliefs and practices in the classroom: "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). However, Borg (2018, p. 86) explains that research on teachers' beliefs and practices indicate that this relationship is often inconsistent. Furthermore, external factors as school curricula can explain these findings, but the findings are also related to the teachers' knowledge gap (Borg, 2018, p. 86). Teacher cognition is a complex matter and constantly evolving, therefore it is not limited to what is learnt during teacher training. Horwitz (1988) argues that teachers' beliefs highly influence pupils' beliefs due to teachers' strong position of authority.

3.5.2 Learners' beliefs

Kalaja, Barcelos and Aro (2018) define learners' beliefs as the "conceptions, ideas and opinions learners have about L2 learning and teaching and language itself" (p.222). They argue that learners' beliefs are crucial in their awareness of learning an L2. If teachers are not aware of what beliefs learners have, the teaching methods applied in the classroom might be in vain (Kalaja et al., 2018). Similarly, Büyükyazı (2010, p. 180) argues that teachers need to be aware of learners' beliefs.

A study conducted by Barcelos (2003) aimed to examine the dynamic relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs about SLA and how it influenced each other (Barcelos, 2003, pp. 171-172). By focusing on three English teachers and three of their Brazilian pupils in a language institute in the US, the findings suggest that the teachers and learners had different beliefs concerning topics such as classroom atmosphere, grammar teaching and the role the teacher and learners had (Barcelos, 2003). However, the study found that teachers' and learners' beliefs influence each other: "students' and teachers' beliefs about SLA and actions shape context and are shaped by it" (Barcelos, 2003, p. 194). As there is a dynamic relationship between teacher and pupil beliefs, Barcelos (2003, p. 194) argues that teachers must reflect on their SLA beliefs and compare them with their pupils' beliefs. Kalaja et al. (2018) conclude that the study had "evidence for beliefs being dynamic and context dependent in nature" (p. 224) since there was a reciprocal relationship between teachers' and learners' beliefs and experiences.

According to Kalaja et al. (2018, p. 225), the most widely used approach in studying learners' beliefs from an environmental perspective is the socio-cultural approach. Inspired by Vygotsky's (1978) socio-cultural theory, it focuses on how learners' beliefs are mediated and (co)constructed in social interaction, and how speech, other people, and artefacts (social tools) influence beliefs (Kalaja et al., 2018, p. 225). Alanen (2003) describes mediation as "higher mental functions emerge through a process called mediation. In mediated action, instead of a direct connection between the subject and object of action, the relationship between the two is mediated by a tool, whether material or psychological" (p. 60).

Alanen's (2003) study is inspired by Vygotsky's socio-cultural concept of mediation. The study was a longitudinal study examining 7-to-9-year-old children learning a foreign language, and how beliefs if used as a mediating tool, influenced learning (Alanen, 2003). That learners' beliefs were cultural and psychological tools the learners used to mediate their learning (Alanen, 2003, p. 80). Alanen (2003) characterises beliefs as a variable, explaining that "beliefs are (co)constructed in social interaction in specific contexts of activity" (p. 67). Furthermore, he explains how beliefs are also stable: "beliefs are appropriated/internalised and (re)constructed in mediated action to become part of the individual's knowledge reservoir" (Alanen, 2003, pp. 67-68). The study revealed that in certain incidences beliefs were just repeated, the beliefs are internalised but not appropriated. Internalisation is reconstructing or repeating knowledge or beliefs, and appropriation is incorporating it at a personal level. However, the results did find that that beliefs were socially co-constructed in social interaction (Alanen, 2003, pp. 80-82).

3.6 Theoretical orientation

Globalisation has led to increased research in the field of multilingualism. However, the research on how to enact multilingualism in the classroom is somewhat limited, especially from the pupils' perspective. This section will present previous research done regarding multilingual teaching and learning. For the research to be considered relevant for this thesis, the research must meet *one* of the following criteria: involve multilingual learning or teaching; contain teachers' or pupils' beliefs; contain teachers' or pupils' experiences. In addition, only research conducted after 2015 is considered relevant, as the need for multilingual education has changed immensely because of recent globalisation and immigration. Thus, based on the listed requirements, eight studies were chosen.

Dahl and Krulatz (2016) examined to what extent English Norwegian teachers have the competence necessary to work with multilingual pupils with a different L1 than Norwegian. It was a mixed-method study where 176 teachers participated in a quantitative survey, and four teachers participated in focus group interviews. The results suggest that even though the teachers felt somewhat prepared to work with non-native speakers, few had actual education that focused on multilingualism. Furthermore, the results showed that English teachers did not have enough formal competence to support the pupils' multilingual competence and skills necessary to teach English in a multilingual classroom. Even more so, the findings suggest that the teachers would like to be more knowledgeable regarding multilingualism. Dahl and Krulatz (2016, p. 1) use their findings to emphasise the importance of teachers receiving adequate training in this area. They argue that classrooms will only become more multilingual, and English teachers are a vital factor in supporting multilingualism at school. Teachers have to implement and adapt teaching, so minority speaking pupils have the best possible learning outcome (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016, p. 15).

Nordlie (2019, p. 80) also argues that the future teachers do not have enough training or knowledge regarding multilingualism and multilingual pedagogies. This master thesis aimed to examine what experience, knowledge, and attitudes student teachers had towards multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy. The research was a mixed-method study where 102 student teachers answered a survey from different universities and colleges in Norway. Nordlie's (2019, p. 82) study indicates that even though the student teachers did have positive beliefs about multilingualism. They had little knowledge and experience about multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy. However, she found that the majority of the students believed that English should be the only language spoken in English language teaching classrooms, that other languages should, if possible, be avoided. Therefore, Nordlie

(2019) concluded that student teachers receive little training related to multilingualism and multilingual pedagogies.

Yurchenko (2020, p. 76) studied teachers' beliefs and practices about minority speaking pupils from a multicultural perspective. The findings from this master thesis suggest that teachers lack knowledge regarding multicultural education. Furthermore, the findings propose that the teachers did not differentiate the teaching to accommodate the minority pupils, as they believed it would exclude them. Finally, the study suggests that multicultural education was not considered in classroom practices. As a concluding note, Yurchenko (2020) states that "there is a need for a multicultural approach to teaching English, which will acknowledge and exploit the cultural capital of all students in the class" (p.77). The researcher argues the necessity for an updated curriculum for schools and teacher-training programs.

Slettebø (2020, p. 63) master thesis was a research conducted from the teachers' perspective regarding their experience working with multilingual pupils as a resource in a multilingual classroom. The study revealed that the teachers were positive towards working with multilingual pupils, as they see them as a resource. The teachers actively searched for methods to include the multilinguals in their teaching by drawing on their experiences and knowledge. A challenge they faced was that some of the multilingual pupils did not like to stand out, that to be classified as different has a negative effect on them. Slettebø (2020, p. 63) suggests that a solution can be to value differences and emphasise similarities. Another finding was that the teacher explained that the pupils had a hierarchy depending on the pupils' ethnicity. Therefore, it can be challenging for the teacher to know how much the particular pupil should be displayed in class (Slettebø, 2020)

A study conducted from pupils' perspective is a master thesis conducted by Holst (2018). This study examined how the pupils perceived having knowledge about several languages and if they actively used this knowledge in learning other languages. The results from the study suggest that the multilingual pupils showed signs of language awareness as they used their multilingual competence in learning languages. However, the findings do not support his hypothesis that knowing a fourth language will significantly enhance their language awareness. Furthermore, Holst (2018) suggests that multilingual pupils can develop language awareness if teachers focus on language competence among multilingual pupils in lessons. Holst's (2018) definition of the term multilinguals does not correlate with how it is defined in this thesis. Holst (2018) considered most pupils multilingual as they are acquiring an L3 at school, even the pupils who recently started learning an L3 only a few months back.

Haukås (2016) studied teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and their multilingual pedagogical approach in L3 classrooms. The research was a qualitative study collecting data from L2 and L3 teachers. The study found that teachers had a potentially positive view of multilingualism, but these beliefs are not transferred to practice. Even though teachers found that being multilingual was helpful to their language learning, they did not perceive that it automatically was a benefit for the pupils. The teachers frequently drew on the pupils' language knowledge from Norwegian and English. However, as the teachers believed that acquiring an L3 is different from an L2, there was little focus on learning strategies transfer (Haukås, 2016).

Lundberg (2019) conducted a Swedish study that explored 40 teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual pupils from three different primary schools. The findings suggest three overall assumptions: the teachers' have positive beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual pupils, that they are accepting towards newer concepts in literature, for example, concepts as translanguaging. However, the teachers did have a monolingual ideology, which may challenge implementing multilingual policies (Lundberg, 2019).

An international study conducted by Gorter and Arocena (2020) studied what beliefs teachers had about multilingualism and translanguaging, in relation to how teachers can have a fundamental role in changing educational practices. The participating teachers received training on multilingual approaches during the study. The researchers examined the teachers' beliefs about translanguaging and multilinguals before, during and after the courses. The results indicate "some important changes in the teachers' beliefs about separating languages, mixing languages and languages supporting each other and the application of those beliefs in the classroom" (Gorter & Arocena, 2020, p. 1). After the training, the teacher had more positive beliefs, and several of the teachers ended up implementing a translanguaging approach in the classroom (Gorter & Arocena, 2020, p. 9).

The studies presented in this chapter indicate that multilingualism is commonly perceived as something positive. Most of the studies done on multilingual pedagogy are either conducted from the teachers' perspective or the pupils' perspective. To the best of my knowledge, there are no research that examines the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and how it potentially can influence pupils' beliefs and practices related to multilingual pedagogy in a Scandinavian context. Therefore, the present paper will contribute to this field of research by examining the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and practices and how this influences pupils' beliefs and experiences of learning English multilingually.

4. Methodology

This chapter describes the methodology and the methodological choices made in this research project regarding teachers' and pupils' beliefs and reported practices and experiences about multilingual teaching and learning of English. Qualitative research was seen as best suited to answer the research questions, as the aim of the thesis is to achieve in-depth answers concerning the pedagogical choices' teachers make when teaching multilingual pupils. In addition, the current research project aims to examine pupils' beliefs and experiences of learning English multilingually. Furthermore, this study aims to investigate the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences regarding multilingual learning of English. The data from this study consists of interviews with four VG1 English teachers and eight VG1 multilingual pupils. Section 4.1 justifies the choice of research design, namely qualitative research. Furthermore, section 4.2 explains how the semi-structured interviews and the focus group interview were planned and conducted. Section 4.3 presents the process of sampling teachers and pupils. Section 4.4 explains the procedure of the data analysis. Afterwards, in section 4.5, a discussion related to the concerns of the validity and reliability of conducting qualitative research is presented. Finally, in section 4.6, the ethical issues are considered.

4.1 Qualitative research

The choice of research design is dependent on what the researcher plans to investigate. Qualitative research was chosen, as this study intends to investigate the teachers' and pupils' beliefs and reported practices and experiences regarding multilingual teaching and learning of English. In *The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research*, Leavy (2014) introduces qualitative research as: "a way of understanding, describing, explaining, unravelling, illuminating, chronicling, and documenting social life- which includes attention to the everyday, to the mundane and ordinary, as much as the extraordinary" (p. 1). Qualitative research aims to examine how people understand the world, their experiences, and the meaning they have constructed in life (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 15).

This study is interested in understanding teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences about multilingual learning of English. In order to understand it from the participants' viewpoint and not as statistical generalisations, an interpretative stance was selected when choosing research methodology. Interpretative research focuses on the interviewee's perspective, as Werbinska (2011) claims, "its value lies in attention to significant details as

seen through the eyes of the subjects themselves, in highlighting and sensitizing to clues that might have been lost in numbers and statistics” (p.184). Borg’s (2012, p.12) analysis on methodology choices made in language teacher cognition studies found that it is common to choose an interpretive research stance in contemporary teacher cognition research.

The current research project is a qualitative study combining the use of semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews. Qualitative research generally collects data in a non-numerical and open-ended method and is typically analysed in methods that are non-statistical (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). Qualitative research is not interested in numerical statistics but people’s beliefs, thoughts, and experiences (Brink, 1993, p. 35). The research methods are subjective and viewed holistically in a social context (Brink, 1993, p. 35). Qualitative research offers the perspective of the people it involves, it provides complex and in-depth data, and as it is flexible, it also opens up for spontaneity between the researcher and the participant (Mack, Woodson, MacQueen, Guest, & Namey, 2005, pp. 1-4). The research materials in this study consist of semi-structured interviews with four VG1 English teachers and four focus group interviews with eight VG1 multilingual pupils. In order to examine teachers’ and pupils’ beliefs and reported experiences about how multilingualism is enacted in the classroom. However, one of the interviews with the pupils resulted in being an individual semi-structured interview due to only one pupil attending (see 4.1.2, p. 37).

4.2 Interviews as data collecting tools

4.2.1 Semi-structured interviews as a data collecting tool

According to Dörnyei (2007, p. 134), the interview is the most common method for collecting data in qualitative research. Brinkmann (2014, p. 286) states that semi-structured interviews are often associated with qualitative interviewing. Furthermore, Borg (2012, p. 19) claims that the findings from the analysis on methodological approaches in teacher cognition studies illustrate that semi-structured interviews are by far the most common method. Therefore, semi-structured interviews were chosen in interviewing the teachers as the aim of this study is to examine teacher cognition. DeMarrais (2004), as referenced in Merriam & Tisdell (2016), define research interview as: “a process in which a researcher and participant engage in a conversation focused on questions related to a research study” (p.108). The purpose of an interview is to understand someone’s perspective on something, to examine what cannot be observed (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 108).

Dörnyei (2007) describes that “the typical qualitative interview is a one-to-one professional conversation that has a structure and a purpose to obtain description of the life

world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena” (p.134). Furthermore, qualitative interviews are usually a one-time event and last about 30-60 minutes (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 134). Semi-structured interviews were chosen since these are less structured and can therefore respond to the situation, to new ideas on the topic and to the participant’s perspective (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 111). The interviewer should guide the conversation and is encouraged to respond to the topics brought up and let the interviewee elaborate on topics (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136). Therefore, semi-structured interviews were more favourable as they allowed for elaboration. Even though it is less structured, there are still a set of topics and questions that will guide the interview, which is determined ahead of time (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 110). However, as it is encouraged to elaborate on the topics brought up, follow-up questions were asked during the interviews. An additional advantage of using semi-structured interviews is that the interview guide does not necessarily need to be followed in the exact order or wording, as it will be different for each interview (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136). This allowed for greater flexibility when conducting the interviews, at the same time as it followed some set topics and questions.

The teachers were asked open-ended questions concerning their beliefs in enacting multilingualism in the classroom. The questions from the interview guide were based on the theoretical framework for this study. The interview guide consisted of questions that concerned their background and qualifications; teacher training; experiences with multilinguals; beliefs about LK20 and multilingual teaching of English; practice teaching English multilingually. Examples of questions include: 1) It is an aim in LK20 to treat multilingualism as a resource for all pupils, what would you say are the benefits and challenges of this? 2) What aspects of multilingual teaching are you familiar with? (see appendix 2)

Before collecting the data, a pilot interview was conducted with a teacher. Dörnyei (2007, p. 75) states that researchers must pilot the project to ensure the quality is high, especially in terms of reliability and validity. Therefore, the pilot interview was conducted to test the questions to see if they were clearly defined, objective, and easy to understand for the interviewee. In addition, in examining possible answers and questions that might need follow-up questions. The pilot interview lasted for 75 minutes, as the interviewee was knowledgeable about multilingual teaching. The pilot interview resulted in deleting two repetitive questions concerning their educational background and their beliefs about multilingualism. In addition, the order of the questions was also changed. Especially the question regarding how the interviewee defines multilingualism, this was moved towards the beginning of the interview.

This term can be defined in different ways, therefore it is crucial to have a common understanding of the term throughout the interview. The pilot interview was not recorded.

The data collection was a two-step process, where the first step was to conduct the interviews. Over the course of three weeks, individual interviews were conducted with four VG1 English teachers. Due to the COVID-19 situation, the teachers could decide if the interview were to be conducted in person or over Teams. Additionally, they could decide what language they preferred the interview to be conducted in, since Dörnyei (2010, p. 49) argues that the quality of the collected data improves if it is conducted in the participants' L1. Therefore, three of the interviews were conducted in Norwegian and carried out in person, while the interview with Teacher 2 was conducted over Teams in English. In accordance with the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) guidelines, the participants received the consent form prior to the interview (see appendix 4). The interviews lasted from 45 to 60 minutes and were audio-recorded by using a handheld audio-recorder. This way, I was able to be fully attentive to the conversation and provide backchanneling signals. *Carry-on feedback* such as sympathetic smiles, nods, and one-word utterances is a crucial part of the interview, reinforcing what the participant is saying (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 142). Additionally, conducting the interviews at the schools enhanced a safe environment as it was a familiar location for the participants. Creating a safe and relaxed environment is crucial when conducting interviews, in order for the participant to feel comfortable expressing themselves (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 140).

After data collection, step two was the transcriptions. Prior to the analysis, the data material had to be transformed into a textual form (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 247). More specifically, the audio-recordings were transformed into verbatim transcriptions. One potential issue of transcriptions is that the non-verbal aspects from the interviews are lost. Therefore, to generate an experience of oral communication, certain writing styles were applied, such as using varied punctuation marks and dividing the speech (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 247). In addition, it was noted when the interviewee paused, if there were abrupt changes in the sentences and if some words or phrases were said in certain emotions, such as a nervous laugh or if something was emphasised. This word-to-word transcription was then used to code the data.

4.2.2 Focus Group interviews as a data collecting tool

The focus group interview is a common method used to collect data in educational research (Brinkmann, 2014, p. 289). Group interviews are characterised by the group participants having knowledge about the given topic (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 114). The interactive discussion that arises in focus group research is what Hennink & Leavy (2014, pp. 2–3) argue

is interesting and unique. This interactive discussion will help the participants share their perspectives and listen to others' perspectives, which might result in refining their own beliefs. This will serve as an advantage, as the pupils may not be aware of their own beliefs, so by hearing the opinions of other multilingual pupils, they might reflect upon their own situation. As Dörnyei (2007) states: "the focus group format is based on the collective experience of group brainstorming, that is, participants thinking together, inspiring and challenging each other, and reacting to the emerging issues and points" (p.144).

Focus group interviews usually have six to eight participants, depending on the topic (Hennink & Leavy, 2014, p. 1). According to Dörnyei (2007, p. 144), fewer than six people make it harder to create an interactive discussion. Due to circumstantial factors, mainly the number of multilingual speakers in each classroom, it was not possible to have six or more participants in each focus group interview. However, Brinkmann (2014, p. 289) states that there has been a recent development where researchers are experimenting with focus group interviews with only two participants. Then the research process is easier to handle than with larger groups, where an issue is participants not showing up.

The focus group interview will provide the pupils' beliefs and their reported experiences of how multilingualism is enacted in the classroom. The interview guide consisted of questions concerning their background and L1; beliefs about LK20 and multilingual learning of English; experiences learning English multilingually. Questions consisted of: 1) What would be the benefits/disadvantages of using your L1 when learning English? 2) To what degree do you experience an including multilingual classroom environment, meaning a classroom where every language is welcomed? (see appendix 3)

A pilot interview was conducted to test the quality of the interview guide, where appropriate changes were made accordingly. The pilot interview lasted for 30 minutes and consisted of two participants. The interview was not recorded. Three questions were made more objective in order to prevent research bias by asking leading questions. For example, the question concerning how pupils' experience that their L1 is a part of their school day, was changed from "how is your first language a part of your school day?" to "is your first language a part of your school day?". This way, the pupils are not given any indication that their L1 should be a part of their school day. However, if they responded that their L1 was a part of their school day, they were then asked to explain further.

Similar to the data collected from the teachers' interviews, collecting data from the pupils was a two-step process. The first step was to conduct the focus group interviews. Three

of the interviews were conducted in person, and interview 2³ was conducted over Teams. The pupils could decide if the interview should be conducted in Norwegian or English. Dörnyei (2010, p. 49) suggest collecting data in the participants' L1. However, this was not possible in this project, therefore they could choose the language they felt most comfortable speaking. Interview 1 was conducted in English, while the other interviews were in Norwegian. Due to absence, interview 4 resulted in an individual interview as only one pupil attended. The interview had already been postponed once, so a conclusion was made to conduct an individual interview instead. Interview 2 had three pupils instead of the originally planned two, as there was an additional pupil who had a great interest in participating. All of the pupils had to read and sign the consent form before participating, in accordance with NSD guidelines (see appendix 5). The interviews lasted between 20-30 minutes. In order to create a safe and relaxed environment, the interviews were audio-recorded by a handheld audio-recorder. This way I was able to participate in the interview. Due to language barriers, meaning the participants' Norwegian competence, some of the questions in the interview guide had to be reformulated in order for clarification. Therefore, the questions in the focus group interviews were not identical. The pupils' linguistic competence in Norwegian was an unforeseen limitation that impacted the outcome of the interviews.

After collecting the data, step two was to create the transcriptions. Therefore, a verbatim transcription was made and later used to analyse the data. The main aim of the transcription is to make a textual form of the audio-recording to use when coding the data. The transcription method was similar to the one used for the semi-structured interview (see 4.2.1, p. 35).

4.3 The choice of participants

4.3.1 Teachers

A primary aim of this study is to examine what beliefs and reported practices teachers have about multilingual teaching of English. Therefore, the participants for this proposed research were selected by way of *criterion sampling*, which Dörnyei (2007) defines as “the researcher selects participants who meet some specific predetermined criteria” (p. 128). For this study, they were all qualified upper secondary English teachers, more specifically they were presently teaching English in VG1. Furthermore, at the time of the study they all had to currently teach multilingual pupils with a different or additional home language than the majority language Norwegian. Except for this, there were no demands of teachers’

³ See Table 2 for the pupils' profile.

experiences with multilingualism and multilingual pupils. The teachers were sampled through my personal network, but none of the teachers were personal acquaintances. In this study, four teachers have been interviewed. The participants were all certified teachers in Norway. Three of the teachers were female and one teacher was male, and they all had different seniority as teachers. Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 worked at the same school, named School 1 in this thesis. Two of the teachers taught English at a general studies programme and two taught at a vocational education programme⁴. Due to privacy and ethical consideration, all of their names and names of the schools have been anonymised and replaced by numbers. Therefore, the names of the teachers and schools will be referred to as “Teacher 1” – “Teacher 4” and “School 1” – “School 3” (see Table 1).

Participant	School	Linguistic background	Teaching experience/seniority (as qualified)
Teacher 1	School 1	Norwegian (L1) and English (L2)	16 years
Teacher 2	School 1	English (L1), Norwegian (L2), Spanish (L3) and German (L3)	2 years
Teacher 3	School 2	Norwegian (L1) and English (L2)	4 years
Teacher 4	School 3	Norwegian (L1), German (L1), Swedish (L2) and English (L2)	7 years

Table 1: Teachers’ profile

4.3.2 Pupils

This thesis aims to examine the relationship between teachers’ and pupils’ beliefs and reported experiences. Barcelos (2003) suggests there is a dynamic relationship between teachers’ and pupils’ beliefs. Therefore, the pupils’ beliefs and reported experiences regarding multilingual learning of English had to be examined. Therefore, the participating teachers sampled two or three of their multilingual pupils to participate in a focus group interview. Similar to the semi-structured interviews, *criterion sampling* was also used for the focus group interviews. This means that the participants had to meet specific criteria. In this case, the teachers sampled the pupils from two given criteria: a) they had to be multilingual speakers with a different or additional L1 than the majority language Norwegian, and b) all of

⁴ Due to anonymity rights, the programme the teachers taught at will be kept confidential.

them had to be enrolled in a VG1 English upper secondary class. The pupils from the same class participated in the same focus group interview. Due to privacy and ethical consideration, all of their names and names of the schools have been anonymised and replaced by numbers. The names of the pupils and schools will be referred to as “Pupil A” – “Pupil H” and “School 1” – “School 3” (see Table 2).

Participant	Focus group interview	School	First language/s	Linguistic Background
Pupil A	Interview 1	School 1	Spanish	Spanish, English, Norwegian and German
Pupil B	Interview 1	School 1	French	French, English, Norwegian and German
Pupil C	Interview 2	School 1	Spanish	Spanish, Norwegian and English
Pupil D	Interview 2	School 1	Russian	Russian, Norwegian, English and Spanish
Pupil E	Interview 2	School 1	Amharic and Norwegian	Amharic, Norwegian and English
Pupil F	Interview 3	School 2	A minority Myanmar language ⁵	A minority Myanmar language, Norwegian and English
Pupil G	Interview 3	School 2	Farsi	Farsi, Arabic, Norwegian and English
Pupil H	Interview 4	School 3	Tigrinya	Tigrinya, Amharic, Norwegian and English

Table 2: Pupils’ profile

4.4 Data analysis

According to Creswell (2013, p.180), collecting data in qualitative research means to prepare and organise the data for analysis. Dörnyei (2007, p. 243) states that qualitative research is a language-based analysis, meaning that the data is usually adapted to a textual form before analysing it with words. In this study, the interviews conducted with the teachers and pupils were compromised to verbatim transcriptions. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2007, p.243) describes

⁵ Due to anonymity rights, Pupil F’ L1 was changed in order to protect the pupil’s identity.

qualitative analysis as an *iterative* process, that it is a nonlinear process that moves back and forth between the collected data, the analysis, and interpretation based on the emergent results. Because of this iterative process, it is not needed to collect all the data at once before starting to analyse in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 244).

Creswell (2013, p.180) states that analysing data in qualitative research means reducing the collected data into organised themes by using codes and taking these codes and presenting them in figures, tables, or a discussion. Coding the data means reducing the data into segments and then give names or codes to these segments (Creswell, 2013, p. 180). Dörnyei (2007) explains the purpose of coding as “reducing or simplifying the data while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to broader topics or concepts” (p.250). The primary purpose of analysing data in qualitative research is to take these codes and sort them into broader themes, and then make comparisons between the different categories (Creswell, 2013, p.180). Before starting the coding process, I reflected on the interviews by reading the transcriptions and writing down my thoughts. Dörnyei (2007, p. 250) explains this as a *pre-coding* move, that a lot of the data has already been analysed before the actual coding process begins. Pre-coding involves clarifying first-impressions of the collected data, by transcribing and reading these transcriptions and writing marginal notes (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 250). Further, Dörnyei (2007, p. 250) emphasises the importance of this pre-coding step as it will help to reflect on the data and influence how to code it.

Creswell (2013, p. 184) explains two possible methods in coding the data. The first method is to start with 25-30 different codes that correlate with the text segments, but Creswell prefers *lean coding*. This starts with fewer categories (only five or six) and then expands these categories with more codes as the data is being reviewed (Creswell, 2013, p. 184). Either way, he emphasises the importance of not having too many themes in the end when writing the narrative (Creswell, 2013, p. 185). Creswell (2013, p. 186) recommends creating codes that describe the information given, instead of creating codes from the exact words said. Themes or categories in qualitative research create a common idea that consists of comprehensive units of information created from the codes (Creswell, 2013, p. 186). As qualitative data is an iterative process, the codes are likely to start as descriptive and low-inference codes and develop into higher-order pattern codes (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 251). Since researchers in qualitative studies review the data several times, crucial categories will develop that will link the different data segments together (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 251). These segments are then combined in further coding, which will reveal new data cuts (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 251).

Creswell's (2013) method of lean coding was applied when analysing the data. Meaning that the analysis started with four main categories, and then these expanded with appropriate codes when reviewing the data. Additionally, these pre-existing categories were made prior to the analysis since they could potentially describe the information that would be collected. The pre-existing categories were made accordingly as an inspiration from reviewing the previous research, context and theoretical orientation, in addition to the interview guide. In the semi-structured interview with the teachers, the categories were as following:

- Teachers' understanding of the term multilingualism
- Background information and teacher training
- Teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English
- Teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually

In addition to applying Creswell's (2013) method of lean coding, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) method of *open coding* was used. Open coding seeks "exploring the data and identifying units of analysis to code for meaning, feeling, actions events and so on" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 493). This involves creating new categories, sub-categories and codes where necessary. Open coding involves constant comparison, that the data are compared with the categories to accomplish a perfect fit between the categories and the data. New categories may emerge to accomplish this perfect fit. Therefore, when analysing the data, the need for an additional category emerged:

- Challenges

The findings from the teachers' interviews will be presented in these five categories. These categories have then been expanded with sub-categories and codes. As the last research question concerns examining the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs, similar and appropriate categories were made for the pupils:

- Pupils' understanding of the term multilingualism
- Background information
- Pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English
- Pupils' reported experience about learning English multilingually

Lean coding and open coding were applied in coding the data from the interviews. The process was similar to that of the teachers. In that these categories were expanded with appropriate sub-categories and codes to create a perfect fit. The interviews were mainly sorted into different categories and codes by using comments and colour codes. The data was analysed participant by participant, before sorting the coded data into a table for comparison.

Dörnyei (2010, p. 49) argues that data should be collected in the participants L1. Therefore, the participants in this study could choose what language they preferred to speak. So, the interviews with the teachers were conducted in their L1. However, as this was not possible with the multilingual pupils, the pupils could decide to have the interview in the language they felt most comfortable speaking. This resulted in the majority of the interviews being conducted in Norwegian, except for the semi-structured interview with Teacher 2 and the focus group interview with Pupil A and Pupil B. In the interviews conducted in English, the quotes are identical to what they said. However, concerning the interviews conducted in Norwegian, the quotes have been translated where the focus was on content over form. Therefore, a limitation is that the quotes have translated. However, the researcher has aimed for an objective translation.

4.5 Data validity and reliability

In qualitative research, *validity* and *reliability* are crucial, as research tends to be more subjective than quantitative research (Brink, 1993, p. 35). However, even in quantitative studies, an interpretation of the data is made (Silverman, 2010, p. 275). According to Brink (1993), validity depends on how accurate or truthful the findings are. Therefore, a valid study must present what truly exists (Brink, 1993, p. 35). Silverman (2010) defines validity as truth: “by validity, I mean truth: interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers” (p.275).

According to Dörnyei (2007, p. 54), the *truth* in qualitative research is inherently relative, and the presented *facts* are the researcher’s individual perception. Therefore, it is problematic to establish a consensus on criteria for qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 54). However, Dörnyei (2007) lists three quality concerns that he argues are “independent of paradigmatic considerations” (p.55). The first issue that qualitative researchers endure is *insipid data*, which means that the quality is reliant on the original data’s quality. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2007) states that it is uncertain if it is possible to create precise guidelines “for judging one set of complex idiosyncratic meaning as better than another” (p. 55). The second issue is on the *quality of the researcher*, which is particularly important in qualitative research, as “the researcher is the instrument” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 56). The last issue Dörnyei (2007) describes is the “*anecdotalism and the lack of quality safeguards*” (p. 56). This issue is the matter of how to convince the audience and themselves in how accurate the findings are, meaning that “their findings are genuinely based on critical investigation of all their data” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 56), that it is not just based on a few particular examples.

Another aspect to consider concerning the validity in qualitative research is the generalisability. Dörnyei (2007, p) explains “that generalization in qualitative research usually takes place through the development of a theory derived from the particular persons or situations studied which helps to make sense of other situations” (p. 59). This implies that the main idea might be generalised. This study aimed to gain in-depth answers by conducting semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews with few participants, therefore generalisations must be made with caution.

On the other hand, reliability has tended to be overlooked in qualitative research, as the focus is often on validity (Dörnyei, 2007, p.56-57). Nonetheless, “reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions” (Silverman, 2010, p. 275). In other words, if the study were to be conducted again, the same results should be obtained. However, the challenge of duplication is that the participants’ personal accounts and the subjective interpretation of the researcher will jointly shape the research. Nevertheless, it is possible to ensure reliability in qualitative research by considering some potential error-factors (Brink, 1993; Dörnyei, 2007, p.57).

According to Brink (1993, p. 35), one potential factor that might affect validity and reliability is error. The findings will be less valid and reliable the more significant the error is (Brink, 1993, p. 35). Therefore, it is crucial to be mindful of error sources when conducting qualitative research (Brink, 1993, p. 35). Errors in research are typically related to the person conducting the research, the participants, the context, and the methods/analysis (Brink, 1993, p. 35). As the researcher’s bias is a major error risk when conducting research, it is essential to become aware of personal biases in order to be as objective as possible. In addition, it will generate a more honest and open narrative that the audience will respond well to (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 60). One solution to identifying biases is to practice the interview beforehand (Brink, 1993, p. 36). Therefore, in order to prevent bias, interview guides have been made where the questions are formulated objectively. In addition, pilot interviews have been conducted to locate places where bias might occur and make appropriate changes to the questions and behaviour.

Another potential error is the truthfulness of the informant’s responses (Brink, 1993, p. 36). Brink (1993, p. 36) states that the participants might want to answer what they believe the researcher wants to hear or present a situation as better or worse than reality. Further on, he lists several solutions to this problem: the researcher can make the nature of the study extremely clear, build a trustworthy relationship with the participants, compare results with

additional evidence, confirm results with the informant and keep field notes with the variations in the informants' responses (Brink, 1993, p. 36). Therefore, in order to get as truthful answers as possible, the nature of the research will be clearly stated for the participants. Awareness of the bias that might occur will also prevent the risk of the informants answering what they think they should answer. If needed, the findings will also be evaluated by an outside researcher to see if the results might be contaminated.

Not only can the informants influence the validity and reliability of the research, but also the social context of how the data is collected (Brink, 1993, p. 36). How the informants are interviewed can impact the research, as the social circumstances will influence this (Brink, 1993, p. 36). The informants might answer differently if they are alone, compared to in groups (Brink, 1993, p.37). This is a potential risk for the interviews, as the pupils are interviewed in groups. To prevent any possible validity and reliability errors, the teachers have been asked to select pupils who have a safe and trustworthy relationship with each other. Doing this can minimise the risk of faulty answers as the pupils might not be embarrassed or afraid to answer truthfully.

The last significant error researchers might endure is the validity and reliability of the data collection and analysis (Brink, 1993, p. 37). Brink states that one risk for this is *sampling bias*, that the researchers only select certain participants, that the participants are either over-represented or under-represented in the phenomena studied (Brink, 1993, p. 37). When sampling teachers, no information about them was known, except that they are English teachers at VG1. This has minimised the risk of sampling bias and over-and under-representation of certain participants. The teachers have then selected two multilingual pupils from each class to participate, therefore, it was out of the researcher's control.

4.6 Ethical issues

Silverman (2010, p. 152) argues that ethical consideration is crucial in qualitative research as it inevitably involves human contact. Therefore, it is important to obtain ethical approval for the research project (Silverman, 2010, p. 152). Silverman (2010, p.152) lists some of the most prominent principles that most researchers agree on:

- Participation is voluntary, and they have the right to withdraw at any time
- The participants must be protected
- The participants need to give consent
- The participants must not be subject to any harm

These principles were considered before conducting the interviews. Prior to collecting the data, an application to NSD was sent (see appendix 1 for the approval letter). The NSD demands that the participants' identity, all the names, names of the school, and names of the region are anonymised and given codes to protect their anonymity. Therefore, the participants' names and names of the schools were given codes to protect their confidentiality, Teacher 1- Teacher 4, Pupil A- Pupil H and School 1- School 3.

In addition, the participants need to be aware of their rights, so before the interviews, the participants were given oral and written information about the purpose of the project and their rights. The interviewees had to sign a consent form in order to participate (see appendices 3-4). They were notified that they could receive all the data collected from their interview, meaning the audio-recording, the verbatim transcription, the analysis, and the final draft of the thesis. Additionally, it was emphasised that they could withdraw their consent at any given time during the project. In accordance with NSD's application, the interviews were recorded by a separate handheld audio-recorder. Furthermore, the audio-files were stored separately by a password protector and by using codes. The transcriptions were anonymised and stored separately from the audio-recordings, additionally, it was protected by a password. Finally, all of the audio-recordings and transcriptions will be deleted.

5. Findings

This chapter presents the findings from the collected data, namely the interviews with the teachers and pupils. The main aim of the interviews was to investigate the beliefs and reported practices and experiences teachers and pupils had towards multilingual teaching and learning of English. The findings are presented as a thematic analysis using the categories that emerged from the data analysis. The five categories from the individual interview with the teachers are: 5.1.1 teachers' understanding of the term multilingualism, 5.1.2 background information and teacher training, 5.1.3 teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English, 5.1.4 teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually and 5.1.5 challenges. Similar categories were attained from the focus group interviews: 5.2.1 pupils' understanding of the term multilingualism, 5.2.2 background information, 5.2.3 pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning and 5.2.4 pupils' reported experience about multilingual learning.

5.1 Teachers

5.1.1 Teachers understanding of the term multilingualism

The answers from the teachers suggest that there are several ways to interpret the term multilingualism. Teacher 1 interpreted it as speaking a minority language at home: "I think it relates to the ability to speak another language at home"⁶.

Teacher 2, on the other hand, interpreted the term two different ways:

I think it can be interpreted in two different ways. Because you could say that I am multilingual, but I would not say I was bilingual if that makes sense. So, I can speak four languages, but my mother tongue⁷ is English, and whereas if you compare that to the students that you spoke to yesterday, I would consider them bilingual, and they are also multilingual. From what I understand, they are as competent in the languages they speak at home as they are in Norwegian. So, multilinguals are of course someone who can speak different languages, to certain degrees, so it is either as mother tongues or as a bilingual speaker, or someone who has learnt that language as an adult.

Teacher 2 separated the terms bilingualism and multilingualism. Bilingualism is someone who speaks two languages from birth: "my interpretation of bilingualism is somewhat something that you have had from birth and something you have spoken your whole life". So,

⁶ This quote and the following quotes from Teachers 1, 3, 4 and Pupils C, D, E, F, G, H have been translated from Norwegian to English.

⁷ The term *mother tongue* will only appear in direct quotes as this was used by the teachers and pupils.

bilinguals can also be multilinguals, but multilinguals do not necessarily have to be bilinguals as she believed that multilingualism is the ability to speak several languages.

Teacher 3 had a similar interpretation of multilingualism as Teacher 1: “pupils who have a different mother tongue than Norwegian. That they can speak Norwegian and English, and fluently speak an additional language”. Teacher 4, on the other hand, interpreted it as the ability to speak two or more languages: “I would define most people in Norway as multilingual. I have understood it as the ability to be understood in two or more languages, being able to communicate in those languages”. During the rest of the interview, the term multilingualism was used to describe pupils who have a different or an additional L1 than the majority language Norwegian.

5.1.2 Background information and teacher training

All of the teachers had different educational backgrounds but they all had 60 credits in teacher training. Teacher 1 had been working as a teacher for 16 years. She majored in English and minored in Norwegian. Teacher 2 had a four-year degree in Spanish and German and one-year-programme in English. She had been a certified teacher for almost two years. Teacher 3 had completed the advanced teacher education 8-13 (lektorutdanning), and majored in English and minored in social studies. She had been a teacher for four years. Teacher 4 had a bachelor in English, in addition he had a bachelor in history where he minored in social studies. He had been a qualified teacher for almost seven years.

Teacher 1 and Teacher 3’s L1 were Norwegian, and they also spoke English. Teacher 2’s L1 was English, but she had later learnt Norwegian, German and Spanish. Teacher 4’s L1s were Norwegian and German, but he also spoke English and Swedish.

5.1.2.1 Information about the school and class

All of the teachers were asked questions if multilingualism and multilingual teaching were relevant to their workplace. Teacher 1 said that the number of multilinguals differs from year to year, but usually, they do not have many multilingual pupils. She had not seen an increase in the number of multilingual speakers, and she experienced it as a bit arbitrary. She also did not experience hearing the pupils speak other languages than Norwegian or English at the school. In her VG1 English class less than 15% were multilingual. Teacher 2 worked at the same school as Teacher 1, and she shared the same impression as Teacher 1, that there was not a large number of multilingual pupils at the school. However, from talking to other teachers, she had the impression that there had been an increase of multilingual pupils over

the last few years. In her VG1 English class, 10% was considered multilingual. Similarly, to teacher 1, she did not hear the pupils talk in their L1.

Teacher 3 said multilingualism was something that they frequently discussed at their school, but they used the term minority speakers. She explained that 25% of their pupils were multilingual. From talking to other teachers, she experienced that the school had a recent growth of multilingual pupils after the European migrant crises of 2015, especially multilingual speakers with Arabic as their home language. In her class 33% were multilingual.

Teacher 4 said it was fairly divided how much they talked about multilingualism, depending on which department it was. The school had a separate department that assisted multilingual pupils in the classroom. However, at his department, they talked more about the practical aspects, but not how to enact multilingualism in the classroom. He emphasised that multilingualism was a theme at the school. Teacher 4 noted that 40% of the pupils in his class were multilingual.

5.1.2.2 Training received on LK20

All of the teachers had received training regarding LK20. Teacher 1 was satisfied with the training received on LK20. However, she added “this year has been very special, and then in the middle of the corona situation the new curriculum was supposed to be implemented, so I have not really thought about it that much lately”. When asked how much of the training received was related to multilingualism, she said “I think there was so much material that we did not get to discuss that”. Additionally, she claimed she had not thought about the multilingual competence aim before being requested to participate in this interview, that she started to focus on it after that.

Since Teacher 2 recently completed teacher training, they discussed LK20 during her education. She said that they have had weekly meetings at the school discussing LK20. She had an understanding that they worked quite actively with it, even though they could not focus on everything. When asked how much of this was related to multilingualism, she explained “we have focused more on *vurdering* (assessment) and *underveis vurdering* (formative assessment) and *dybdelæring* (in-depth learning). If that [multilingualism] comes later, I am unsure, but at the moment, that is what we have focused on”.

Both Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 experienced being carefully introduced to LK20. Teacher 3 explained that they had focused on learning strategies rather than multilingualism.

Similarly, to the other teachers, they experienced there had not been a focus on multilingualism when trained in LK20.

5.1.2.3 Training received on multilingualism

The teachers were also asked what multilingual pedagogies and strategies they were familiar with. They were specifically asked if they had heard about *translanguaging*, none of them had. However, they all said they were familiar with *code-switching*.

Teacher 1 said she received little training on multilingualism. However, she got many offers to attend courses, but she could not think of any related to multilingualism. Teacher 2, however, received training about multilingualism during her foreign language didactic course and her practicum. Concerning this question, Teacher 3 said: “I am left with the impression that it was quite superficial, a bit theoretical related to the advantages of multilingualism, very little on how to actually enact it in practice”. Teacher 4 said he did not recall learning anything about multilingualism during his education. He remembered that in English didactic there was much focus on pupils learning best when taught in English, he said that:

I do not remember anything. A part of the research they based themselves on was that research show that pupils learn best when all communication is in that designated language. The teacher is a role model in only talking English. This is something that has been in the back of my mind the entire time. ... However, when it comes to my education, I do not remember learning anything [about multilingualism]. Rather the opposite, that it is not about translating texts in that way, that all communication should be in the target language.

5.1.2.4 Desire to receive/ lack of training in multilingualism

All of the teachers wanted to receiving more training. However, Teacher 1 explained that there were so much that were important and new right now because of LK20: “I would like to receive more training. However, I am not certain if it is just a lot that is new right now. ... So maybe in a few years, we will have a different starting point”.

Teacher 2 explained as a foreign language teacher she was generally interested in this topic, so she “would be interested and learn how we can work with it in the different subjects as well”. Additionally, she wanted to learn more about teachers’ experiences and how they teach multilingually, and she was optimistic that it would happen in the future as it was a part of LK20.

Teacher 3 emphasised that she wanted to learn how to enact multilingualism more concretely, as she said that when they discussed it among colleagues, it was quite superficial.

As a follow-up question, she was asked what knowledge she thought was necessary in order to be a teacher in an inclusive multilingual classroom. She replied:

I would like some more knowledge about languages in general, if we think about differences in languages regarding for example sentences structures, as this can help me understand why some students struggle to learn English. ... another thing is learning strategies, how we best can facilitate for the individual pupil, in general, but especially regarding multilingualism. How do they learn best, what learning strategies, and of course, some theoretical knowledge, ... as more knowledge can increase understanding.

Teacher 3 said she wanted to attend more courses regarding enacting multilingualism in the classroom. She emphasised: “I see that it is more important now than ever before, and it will only become more and more important, that we just do not have enough knowledge about this. I think many of my colleagues would agree with this”. She added that it would be possible to follow up and facilitate better if she received more training in learning strategies in creating an inclusive multilingual classroom.

Teacher 4 said he would like to learn more about the practical aspects of enacting multilingualism: “I think it should be more practical aspects as adapted learning of assignments or sources, web-based resources that could help pupils who need more English training. Then they could use their mother tongue to do this”.

5.1.3 Teachers’ beliefs about multilingual teaching of English

The teachers had positive beliefs towards multilingual teaching. However, Teacher 1 admitted that she has not thought about multilingual teaching before receiving emails regarding this interview. Her beliefs indicated that she did not perceive that language learning were different for multilingual pupils than the majority speaking pupils. As she believed that all of her pupils struggled with similar language mistakes. She believed that working with grammar knowledge in one language, will also help the development in other languages. She was positive towards letting her multilingual pupils use their L1 in class in order to “reflect and draw parallels to other languages”.

All of the teachers were asked how they interpreted the Core Curriculum in relation to multilingualism, as it states pupils shall understand that being multilingual is a value to the school and society. Teacher 2 explained she was generally passionate about this topic she believed the purpose was to create an interest in a subject: “it is not just the language; it is the country, the culture and to encourage them to want to learn that language and want to get to

know that culture a little bit more”. Teacher 2 further explained being very interested in pupils linguistic background, so she was aware and thought about it, at the same time she emphasised that she tried not to focus on it too much, not to single anyone out. Hence, she tried to find the balance between being interested and not singling them out.

Teacher 3 often heard a few of her pupils talk together in their L1, she believed the pupils benefited from communicating together. She also said she believed that pupils learnt languages faster if they spoke several languages, but she found that quite individual. Furthermore, she admitted that she could learn more about their languages, especially a bit more information about the language structure. She said that she did not experience that the pupils showed interested in talking about their language and culture, maybe just the pupils who struggled in English in order to explain why.

A competence aim in the English subject curriculum is to “use knowledge of similarities between English and other languages he or she knows in language learning” (LK20 2019, p. 10). Therefore, the teachers were asked about their thoughts around this competence aims. Teacher 1 replied: “positive; I think it is quite important. I see that the pupils do get a confirmation or acknowledgement regarding languages”. She said that she believed the competence aim is to exploit all the languages the pupils speak and draw parallels from the other languages to strengthen their English. She added that she would have had to think about multilingual teaching more if her pupils were not as proficient in English.

Teacher 2 welcomed several languages in her classroom, as she believed it would make the pupils more open-minded to other cultures and languages. However, she worried about making people stand out, so she tried to do it as a group effort than targeting specific pupils. She said: “in English, I do not know what would happen if everybody spoke their own language, that would not be something I would be against at all, but I am just trying to think of an educational perspective of how to manage that in the classroom”. At the same time, she emphasised that she valued using the target language in lessons.

Teacher 3 said she would encourage the pupils to talk in English, but it depended on the situation. However, she found the situation difficult, as she believed it was beneficial for the pupils to talk in their L1. Furthermore, she understood the benefit of letting pupils use their whole language repertoire in oral discussions to enhance their understanding. She explained: “they use Google Translate, I see that they are conscious about it themselves and that they most likely think in their mother tongue”. When asked what the benefits and challenges are with allowing pupils to use their L1 in class, she answered:

The benefit of it is the metalanguage, that the different terms and strategies in their mother tongue can be transferred to English, so that is one thing: they can see patterns, structures, and connections about similarities and differences, which could strengthen their understanding. What language they are used to and how it differs from English probably matter, and if it is quite different from English, then I think it might be more challenging to think in English and learn to write [in English].

Teacher 4 understood why pupils used their L1 in class, but he said that it depends on the context:

When it comes to using their mother tongue to enhance their learning and English, I support it 100%. However, if it takes over the English part, say we are discussing in English, where they will share their perspectives with the rest of the class, I would like them to do that in English, which I encourage them to do. In these cases, I do comment that now we are speaking in English. So, if they answer that they were just explaining something practical, then it is allowed, but if they were to explain their argument, it should be in English.

Teacher 4 was also asked if he was familiar with any multilingual pedagogies. He explained that what he remembered from English pedagogy is that the teaching should be in English. He only allowed other languages orally, and not in writing. Except for the pupils who were not as proficient in English and had designated tasks to enhance their understanding, however as it is not VG1 level material it does not count in their final mark. He stated that other languages than English were mainly used as a tool for comprehension.

5.1.3.1 Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism

Some of the beliefs the teachers had about multilingualism were not related to multilingual teaching but to their beliefs about multilingualism. All of the teachers believed that knowledge increased tolerance for linguistic diversity. However, Teacher 2 believed that society were not at that stage yet. Furthermore, concerning multilingualism, Teacher 3 answered:

It creates diversity in the classroom. I believe that when they learn from each other about culture and language differences they contribute to increased tolerance maybe, it does create knowledge about it. However, I do believe it is good to be tolerant towards other languages. In addition, it will develop me as a teacher, that there will be pupils who might not have the same English competence, that I need to be conscious about the learning strategies I make. The challenge is to be able to properly follow-up on the pupils, as I do not know the languages they speak, if they were to use them more in the classroom.

Teacher 3 also said that to help all of her pupils feel welcome, she focused on the importance of knowing several languages, how it is a resource. Teacher 4 believed multilingualism is a resource, but in order for it to become a resource, the people must also speak the majority language.

5.1.4 Teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually

As Teacher 1 had recently started to think about multilingual teaching of English, she had one lesson where she specifically focused on this. She experienced it as important to learn about the grammar in different languages to understand why pupils make specific mistakes. They were working on grammar, so she asked the class how many languages they spoke to compare how 'to be' is conjugated. She commented that this was interesting as this is something the pupils struggled with.

Teacher 2 had specific lesson plans about multilingual teaching of English, regarding culture, identity and language. They also directly worked towards code-switching, where the pupils reflected if they did it in their life, regardless of what languages they spoke. She commented that she experienced she had directly worked towards the multilingual competence aim by doing this. She also drew on her own language knowledge, by comparing and emphasising similarities among languages. In addition, she encouraged the pupil to reflect on how they have learnt languages in the past. However, Teacher 2 focused on not making any pupils stand out. Therefore, she only considered their multilingualism when helping them one-on-one. Additionally, Teacher 2 also tried to speak in the target language as much as possible. She only used Norwegian when she could tell the pupils were not following.

Similarly, Teacher 3 also wanted the pupils to speak as much as possible in the target language English: "I believe that they should talk as much as possible, but some of the multilingual pupils have not received so much training in English before, so towards them, I would speak more Norwegian, as I would translate important words and messages". In addition, she explained she perceived that these pupils learnt English differently, since they had not been as exposed to English. She added that her experience is that they learnt language faster, however it was individual. Teacher 3 admitted that the pupils had not been allowed to actively use their L1 in class, when answering what her beliefs about the multilingual competence aim were. However, as Norwegian is their common language, she tried to use this more often. She also commented that she did not do anything extra with the multilingual pupils, except helping them like she would do with all of her pupils.

Teacher 4 said he often heard the multilingual pupils talk in their L1, and that he commented that they needed to talk in English in order for them to practice their English skills. He said that they often answered that it was to explain something to each other. So, he noticed that they actively use their L1 as a tool for better understanding. Related to the competence aim, Teacher 4 said he tried to find room for the pupils to use their L1 in class, but he emphasised that it was not always possible as he desired to use the target language as much as possible. However, he said he allowed the pupils to speak in their L1 in other subjects as they are not assessed in how formally correct they speak.

The teachers were asked how they implemented multilingual teaching in English lessons according to the LK20's basic skills. Teacher 1 answered she could not think of any examples, as she had not given multilingual teaching much thought. Except for the lesson where she specifically worked towards the competence aim by comparing languages.

Regarding reading skills in multilingual teaching, Teacher 2 said she had not focused on multilingual teaching in reading. Even though Teacher 3 said that she did not know if she had worked directly towards multilingual pupils when it comes to reading skills. She had a more general focus on how most pupils who do not have English as their L1 would learn a text. In addition, she gave more attention to the pupils who had not been as exposed to English. Teacher 4 said he did not actively work towards multilingual teaching in reading skills, as he said it would not work to read a text in another language than English, as they are assessed in English. However, they are allowed to use other languages as a tool for better understanding. He did consider the pupils' level as he adapted texts depending on their English competence.

Regarding multilingual teaching and oral skills, Teacher 2 said she focused on learning strategies, how the pupils learn languages: "I touched on when you learnt a language and when you hear different words at home you do not always understand, how do you remember them, so I guess vocabulary and learning of words are something that we touched on". Teacher 3 said that in a class where there are different levels of English, it is extra important to stop when speaking and listening, to check if the pupils understand. She also experienced that she would comment to the pupils who communicated in other languages that they should speak English. Teacher 4 said the communication must be in English when practicing listening skills, however he allowed the pupils to use whatever language they want as a tool for understanding. In an oral discussion in plenary, he would always tell the pupils to try to explain it first in English, and if they could not do that, he would let them use Norwegian to explain it. However, if it was assessments, English would be the only language

allowed. It impacted their mark negatively, if they used another language. He emphasised that in informal classroom situations, the pupils could use their L1 as a tool.

Regarding multilingual teaching in writing skills,, Teacher 2 also drew on the pupils' previous experience of learning a language: "when we have written in English, I will often say how did you learn to do that in Norwegian, that we are now going to continue that in English ... In that sense, we have of crossed languages that way". Teacher 3 explained how she tried to facilitate so that multilingual pupils with little exposure to English would receive more manageable tasks. However, she emphasised that this had more to do with their level than being multilingual. Teacher 4 said he had similar methods regarding writing skills as oral skills, that if it was an informal situation, it was allowed to use their L1 as a tool to enhance their comprehension. However, in formal situations during assessments, English was the only language allowed. He perceived it as positive that the pupils used their L1 when it developed their English skills.

In multilingual teaching regarding digital skills, Teacher 2 told her pupils to explore other languages through technology, for example, by having the language changed on their phone. Teacher 3 said she always encouraged the pupils to use their technology in English, as she experienced that the pupils preferred reading in their L1. Teacher 4 said he encouraged the pupils who need it to use designated tools such as *Lingit*, which suggested words to use in texts. He said this tool is beneficial for pupils with learning disabilities and for multilingual pupils who struggle with English.

5.1.4.1 Teachers' reported practice teaching multilinguals

Teacher 1 said she had not had many multilingual pupils, so she has not focused on multilingual teaching. Teacher 2 commented that she found multilinguals more open in trying new languages, besides having a better understanding of grammar and how languages work. Teacher 3 experienced that multilingual pupils from non-western countries struggled more with English as the language was a significant barrier for them. She said: "to come to a new country as an adult and simultaneously learn Norwegian and English. Of course, it is a lot easier for multilingual pupils who have had English since elementary school". Teacher 3 continued to say that she experienced multilingual pupils from non-western cultures had a more authoritative viewpoint on school and teachers. In addition, she experienced that they were not as used to oral activities, as they mostly learnt grammar, but never practiced the actual language.

Similarly, Teacher 4 experienced that multilingual pupils who grew up in non-western countries were not as exposed to English, and therefore needed to make more of an effort to use the tools available for them in order to learn. He observed that they used Google Translate and actively used each other to understand the material. In these cases, they would talk in their L1. He experienced that Norwegian-born to immigrant parents L1 was often not even a topic in the classroom, compared to those who have immigrated to Norway themselves.

5.1.5 Challenges

Teacher 1 experienced it as a challenge that she did not speak several languages as she could not understand the pupils' perspective. She was not able to understand the mistakes they made, and she could not see connections and similarities between languages. She said she could make them aware of the differences by asking them, but it would have been beneficial if she had spoken several languages herself.

Teacher 2 found it challenging to make everyone feel included, as the pupils had different experiences with multilingualism. She explained: "the challenge is to make everybody feel included in this. Some people have more experience with multilingualism than others. ...So, it is getting that balance between making sure that everyone is with you... and not losing anyone along the way".

Teacher 3 was also asked what she experienced as the benefits and challenges of teaching multilingually. She said that the benefits were that it was easier for multilinguals to develop their language. The challenge for her was not being able to understand and speak the languages they spoke, that she believed she did not have control over the situation in not being able to help them. Another challenge was that they could exclude the other pupils. In addition, Teacher 3 was asked what she believed the benefits and challenges of including all languages in class, where she said:

The benefit is that they are talking more freely and showing their knowledge without struggling to find the words. In addition, the class can learn from each other, think about other languages. The challenge would be that it might be chaotic, especially for me as a teacher, to be alert in what they are saying. So, to do this, it has to be structured and in controlled formats, but now I am thinking primarily about oral communication.

Teacher 4 also experienced benefits and challenges of allowing all languages in a classroom situation. He said he worried that by allowing his pupils to use their L1, they would use it too much and, in that way, "do themselves a disservice (*bjørnetjenste*)". He said that he worried

they would just translate everything on Google Translate and not working on it word-by-word. However, he said that the advantage is that they would use their whole language repertoire. When asked if he experienced that teachers needed more education on multilingual teaching, he said:

I think everybody would benefit from it, as we are moving towards a society where more and more languages are spoken, and I do not view this as something negative. ... However, from a pupil's perspective, they are here to learn English [in English class], they are not here to learn Arabic. For example, when they have vocational English, they need to know the names of the tools, materials and machines in English, as many workshops use English names. ... How will they be able to get an apprenticeship if they cannot communicate properly?

Teacher 4 was also asked about the challenges and benefits of teaching multilinguals. He said that the biggest challenge is he experienced that some of the pupils were transferred from introductory class to ordinary school too quickly, so language became a huge barrier. He clarified that these pupils needed to be really motivated and take responsibility for their own learning. However, he understood it as a benefit that the pupils could use their L1 as a tool in the classroom and workshop when it was appropriate. When Teacher 4 was asked how he created a multilingual classroom where everyone is welcome, he said that it was not just about language, but making everyone feel at home and that the teaching should be relevant for everyone. He added that he did not actually do anything different for the multilingual pupils, except letting them sometimes use their L1.

5.2 Pupils

5.2.1 Pupils understanding of the term multilingualism

Almost all of the pupils were familiar with the term multilingualism. Pupil A said she understood multilingualism as the ability to speak several languages. She added “I think it is a good asset to a person. I think it is good, but it is also the disadvantage of being hard when entering a new system”. She did however see it as beneficial to speak several languages, especially related to travelling. Pupil C and Pupil E were not familiar with the term multilingualism. However, Pupil D was, he said “just like bilingualism, the ability to speak several languages”. Pupil F and Pupil G were familiar with multilingualism. They said “that one speaks several languages”. Pupil H was also familiar with the term multilingualism, he said, “yes, the ability to speak several languages”.

5.2.2 Background information

Pupil A was born in Mexico by a Mexican mom and a Norwegian dad. She considered herself half Norwegian and half Mexican. Pupil B is half French and half German, but she was born in Norway. She moved when she was young and returned to Norway when she was seven years old. She did not consider herself as Norwegian: “I do not have the official documents to justify it, but also, I have another culture, that does not really fit in I would say so, for now, I would not consider myself Norwegian”.

Pupil C was born in Norway by Spanish parents, but they moved to Spain and lived there for seven years before returning to Norway. She identified as Spanish. Pupil D was born in Russia by Russian parents and moved to Norway when he was eight years old. He identified as Russian. Pupil E was born in Norway by an Ethiopian mom and a Norwegian dad. She identified as half Norwegian and half Ethiopian.

Pupil F was born in Myanmar (Burma), and moved to Norway when she was five years old. When asked what she identified as she said: “I have a Norwegian passport, so you are Norwegian, right? So, when people ask me, I tell them that I am Norwegian, but I understand what they mean, ... so I tell them my ethnicity is from a different country”. As a follow-up question, she was asked if it upset her that people asked where she was from, and she responded “[emphasised long break]. No, not really, or it depends, sometimes. I guess, yeah”. Pupil G was born in Afghanistan but lived in Iran before immigrating to Norway six years ago. She said, “of course I identify as Afghani”.

Pupil H was born in Eritrea and immigrated to Norway five years ago. He identified as Eritrean, saying he would never identify as Norwegian as he has not lived here for long. As a follow-up question, he was asked if he would ever consider himself as Norwegian, and he said:

The reality is, I live in Norway, I must follow the law, but that does not mean I am Norwegian. I am from a different continent, different country, different language and culture, and not to mention the colour of my skin. So, no matter how long I live here, I will always have a different skin colour, which is an obstacle in identifying as Norwegian. In addition, I will never be as good in Norwegian as Norwegian-born, so that is why I do not feel and will never feel Norwegian.

5.2.2.1 Linguistic background

Pupil A’s L1 was Spanish, but she also spoke Norwegian and English. However, she was most comfortable speaking English, as this was the language she practiced most. Pupil B’s L1 was French, but she also spoke Norwegian and English. In addition, she said she understood

German. She felt most proficient in French. Both Pupil A and Pupil B started to learn Norwegian at age seven. Pupil B learnt Norwegian through international school as a L3 subject. She regularly took advantage of her whole language repertoire, but she mostly spoke French at home, but she used her languages interchangeably.

Pupil C's L1 was Spanish, but she was also fluent in Norwegian and English. She learnt Norwegian through a learning centre before being transferred to an ordinary primary school. She experienced being more comfortable speaking Norwegian. Similarly, Pupil D also learnt Norwegian through a learning centre, as his L1 was Russian. He spoke Russian, Norwegian and English. There were other pupils that spoke Russian in primary school, but he said it was more natural to speak Norwegian than Russian with them. Neither Pupil C nor Pupil D had received mother tongue instruction. Pupil E has two L1s as she learnt Norwegian and Amharic simultaneously. She experienced being just as fluent in both languages, but she was better at writing in Norwegian. She had never received mother tongue instruction during her education. However, she was offered but they declined as she already spoke the language.

Pupil F's L1 was minority Myanmar language but she also spoke Norwegian and English. She spoke her L1 with her parents, but she spoke Norwegian with her sisters. Pupil F went to an introductory school for two years before being transferred to an ordinary primary school. She was more comfortable speaking Norwegian: "Norwegian is my language". She added:

For me, it is easier to speak Norwegian as I have learnt it for more than ten years now. Since I came to Norway, I have started to forget my L1, as I constantly speak Norwegian, so I do not remember so much of my L1 anymore. So, my parents get a bit mad at me as I forget my L1.

Pupil G's L1 was Farsi, but she also understood some Arabic. In addition, she recently learnt Norwegian and English. Pupil G also learnt Norwegian at an introductory school before being transferred to an ordinary upper secondary school. None of Pupil F and Pupil G had received mother tongue instruction.

Pupil H's L1 was Tigrinya, but he also spoke Amharic, English and Norwegian. He learnt Norwegian at a learning centre for three years before being transferred to an ordinary upper secondary school. He did not receive any mother tongue instructions. Pupil H added that he did not wish to receive that, as he already spoke Tigrinya, that he understood it as more valuable to learn Norwegian, as he still struggled with the vocabulary.

5.2.2.2 Knowledge about LK20

Pupil A and Pupil B said they familiar with the new curriculum. However, Pupil B said she did not know a lot about it, but that the teachers had explained that it was some differences this year. Pupil C, Pupil D and Pupil E were familiar with LK20, however, they had no opinion about the changes related to multilingualism. Pupil F and Pupil G had not heard about LK20, but they were familiar with competence aims and subject curriculums. Pupil H was also familiar with competence aims.

5.2.3 Pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English

Pupil A and Pupil B were asked if their L1 was a part of their everyday school life. Pupil A responded that her L1 was not a part of her school life. However, she believed she was more proficient in English, so she actively used English to promote her Norwegian skills. Pupil B, however, stated that neither French nor English was a part of her school life anymore except in English class.

Pupil C did not understand how she could use Spanish when learning English. As pupil C responded that it did not make sense why they should do that, they were therefore explained the benefits of strengthening their whole language repertoire. Even so, they still did not understand how this would be possible. Pupil C thought it should only be the target language spoken in lessons. Pupil D added that the grammar in Russian is so different from Norwegian and English, so he did not understand how it could be transferred. Also, Pupil E did not understand how this would work in practice. However, Pupil C added that she experienced it as easier to learn new languages as she was multilingual. They were asked what other advantages there was of using their L1 in class. Pupil C answered: "there is no point in doing that". Except for in Spanish class, none of the pupils used their L1 in school. Pupil C, Pupil D and Pupil E used the target language or Norwegian at school, and at home, they used their L1. Furthermore, they had chosen to read a book in Norwegian or English, compared to their L1. However, they did claim that it was due to availability.

5.2.3.1 Pupils' beliefs about being multilingual

Pupil B was aware that she frequently used all of her languages in conversation, but she did not know why. She guessed it was because of the environments. She added that she sometimes changed the language according to what is most appropriate.

Pupil C said the advantage of being multilingual is that it was easier to learn more languages as she had a larger vocabulary and therefore had the ability to see similarities

between the languages she spoke. She said she was aware of similarities between the different languages. Pupil E agreed with this, while Pupil D gave an ambiguous answer: “I do not see it as an advantage, maybe a little”.

5.2.4.1 Pupils’ experience about multilingual learning of English

All of the pupils were explained that the new subject curriculum has a competence aim that includes multilingual learning. Pupil B responded: “the English teacher has actually used that, she has asked us how the other languages would write or express such sentences, and how the verb should be placed in the sentence, and if there are any changes to the verbs or the subjects”. However, Pupil B did not personally see the relevance of this. She added that it was a nice opportunity to make new observations about the languages. Furthermore, Pupil B said that if a classmate spoke French, she would prefer to speak French to the person in class. Pupil B explained that she used Google Translate a lot in the beginning as a tool to understand. She also used a French educational website that had lessons about similar topics. They were asked if they actively used their L1 or English when they learnt Norwegian. Pupil A said, “well, I think in English, ‘what would this be in Norwegian’, for the past test, I knew everything in English, and I thought I needed to be a Google Translate in my mind and think what it would sound like in Norwegian.”. Pupil B explained that if she did not understand something in the target language, she would use French as a tool to understand it.

Pupil C, Pupil D and Pupil E never used their L1 in English class. They also reported that they did not believe that they should use their L1 in class. As a follow-up question, they were asked what language they would use if they did not understand an assignment in English class. Pupil C said she would first try to translate it into her L1, but if she could not think of it in her L1, she would ask the teacher. While Pupil E agreed, Pupil D somewhat agreed on this. According to this response, they were therefore asked if they thought they sometimes used their L1 without thinking about it, Pupil D and Pupil E said that it might be correct. None of them experienced that the teacher taught any differently to them.

When asked if they had any thoughts on how they could use their L1 in class, Pupil G said she did not understand how that would be possible, as they were not allowed to use their L1. She did however say she was allowed to use her L1 when she did not understand something. Outside the classroom, she could also speak to her classmate in Farsi. As a follow-up question, she was asked what her beliefs were towards this, she said, “I think it is very good, but it is hard in English as I do not understand so much”. She added, “I do understand that the teacher does not want us to speak our language, as they believe we should speak

Norwegian since we are at a Norwegian school”. Pupil G said that it has happened that the teacher has told them to speak in English when she is talking in Farsi. However, after telling the teacher it is to understand a task, it is acceptable. She does try to speak as much English as possible.

Pupil F said she struggled to learn English when she was young as it was so much focus on learning Norwegian, so she experienced that she fell behind compared to her classmates. She said that she no longer struggled, that she actively used English in English class, and did not use her L1 or Norwegian. Pupil G, however, reported that she actively used her L1 in English class by translating it in her head. The pupils did not experience that the teacher taught the multilingual pupils differently than the rest of the class.

When Pupil H was asked if he actively used his L1 in English class, he said that he would use Google Translate if he struggles to understand something. He said that he tried to talk as much as possible in English in order to learn. He said he actively used his L1 in English class, as he struggles to comprehend. When learning English, he thought in his L1. Pupil H also saw similarities between Norwegian and English and actively used this in his learning development.

5.2.4.2 Pupils’ experience about being multilingual

Both Pupil A and Pupil B had attended an international school. Therefore, they were asked how the transition was, Pupil B experienced that the Norwegian learning culture was different, as the French system was harder. However, she felt that the transition to a Norwegian school was hard, because of the language barrier. Both of the pupils agreed that the Norwegian school system was more relaxing, but it became more complicated since it was in a different language. Pupil A said: “it was equally as hard because you have to learn everything in another language, it is quite hard”.

Pupil A said she felt included in her class, that the class would help them if they asked for help. She experienced that the other pupils are interested in their background. Pupil B said that she experienced that some teachers were interested in their background, and some were not. However, they all wanted them to succeed and give them equal opportunities.

Pupil D experienced people being interested in his background and has often been asked to speak Russian. Pupil C also experienced that people wanted to hear her speak Spanish. However, she said, “If people learn I am Spanish, they want to hear me speak it, but it is not like I speak it in the classroom, because it is only Norwegian there”. Pupil E also experienced people who were interested and wanted to hear how words were pronounced in

Amharic. However, they all stated it was the classmates who were interested in their language and culture, and not the teachers. Pupil D added that the teachers asked more about their background and how comfortable he was in speaking Norwegian and what language he spoke at home. That they did not want to hear him speak the language. All of the pupils reported they regularly used all of their languages in conversation. Pupil C said it was because she spoke Norwegian more than Spanish so that she would forget the Spanish word. Similar instances was reported by Pupil D and Pupil E.

Both Pupil F and Pupil G experienced the class to be interested in their heritage and language. However, Pupil F said:

It depends on the people, I am scared to talk about my culture, if they did not ask me about it, but if they ask me and show interest, I talk about it. Because I am scared that if I talk about it, they will be bored, so it all depends on whom I am talking with. Because some are interested, and some are not, it all just depends.

Pupil G said she agreed with Pupil F's statement. They both reported that the teachers showed interest in their heritage culture and language, especially their *contact teacher (kontaktlærer)*. Pupil F said "it is fun when we can see how different people are, and how different languages are".

Both Pupil F and Pupil G reported that they would switch between languages during conversations, Pupil F stated, "when I speak Norwegian, and if I do not remember a word in Norwegian, I would say it in my language, so that is why I mix them". Pupil G added, "I think it happens automatically".

Pupil H said he struggled to learn Norwegian and English, as he learnt Norwegian simultaneously with English. He said that his class felt like his family, that they were interested in his ethnicity, but at the same time that they did not care about cultural differences. He experienced that he can ask his classmates for help when he did not understand. He said his Norwegian had improved after starting ordinary school as it was compulsory to talk Norwegian. He also experienced that his English teacher was interested in his heritage.

6. Discussion

The aim of this thesis is to investigate what beliefs and practices teachers and pupils have about multilingual teaching and learning of English. Additionally, the thesis aims to examine the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences. This section connects the main findings to the theory and background presented in chapters 2 and 3. The discussion is divided into seven main sections with reference to the research questions: 6.1 Teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English; 6.2 Pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English; 6.3 Teachers' reported practice of teaching English multilingually; 6.4 Pupils' reported experience learning English multilingually; 6.5 The relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences; 6.6 Limitations; 6.7 Implications for teaching.

6.1 Teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English

The first research question examines what beliefs teachers had about multilingual teaching of English. This question is related to how teachers defined and interpreted multilingualism and how that impacted their beliefs. The findings are discussed in relation to the national curriculum, previous research on multilingualism, theory on multilingual pedagogy and teacher cognition. The analysis of the teachers' responses indicate that they all had positive beliefs about multilingualism. All of the teachers were familiar with the term, but they had somewhat different beliefs concerning what the term indicated. That the teachers defined multilingualism differently may have impacted their beliefs and reported practices in the classroom. Teacher 2 claimed she considered herself multilingual but not bilingual, as she believed bilingualism could only occur simultaneously early in life. Therefore, she believed that people who learn several languages later in life became multilingual and not bilingual. On the other hand, Teacher 4 believed the whole class were multilingual as most Norwegians are not monolingual. Teacher 1 and Teacher 3 understood the term as speaking a minority language at home.

These findings are in line with De Angelis' (2007) suggestion that it is problematic to have several definitions of the same term. According to the theory presented, there are several interpretations in describing an individual who speaks several languages, therefore, the results from the teacher interviews were not surprising (Conteh & Meier, 2014; Council of Europe, 2018; De Angelis, 2007; Grosjean, 2010; Haukås & Speitz, 2018; Kemp, 2009; Krulatz et al., 2018). The different interpretations could ultimately influence the teachers' classroom practices since it could lead to inconsistencies in determining who is considered multilingual.

Additionally, the different beliefs could affect the outcome of learning, reading and discussing multilingualism and multilingual pupils in an educational setting. However, the Core Curriculum does not explicitly use the term multilingualism. Instead, the curriculum explains that speaking several languages is valued, which may prevent a potential misunderstanding (Core Curriculum, 2017). Nevertheless, the findings demonstrate that it would be beneficial in an educational context to have specific definitions of the term multilingualism, as otherwise teachers will interpret this term themselves. Similarly, Krulatz et al. (2018) argue, that it is crucial that teachers understand what multilingualism is in order to enact it.

All of the teachers said that they had received little or no training regarding multilingualism. The teachers indicated that they had positive beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual teaching. Teacher 1 claimed she experienced that pupils received acknowledgement through language use. Teacher 2 welcomed the use of several languages in class. However, she also explained that she valued using the target language in English lessons. Similarly, Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 specified that they also believed that the target language should be the language spoken in English class. Even so, they stated that other languages should only be used as a tool for better understanding.

These findings are somewhat self-contradictory. That the teachers had positive beliefs towards multilingualism are in line with Dahl and Krulatz (2016), Haukås' (2016), Lundberg (2019), Nordlie (2019), Slettebø (2020) and LK20. However, it contradicts Krulatz et al.' (2018) who indicate that teachers have bias towards multilingual pupils. Krulatz et al. (2018) indicate that the reason teachers lack knowledge about multilingualism is because the teacher training programs have a monolingual focus. Similarly, findings from this study demonstrate that the majority of the teachers believed they did not have the necessary competence needed to teach multilingually. This might also be supported by the argument that the teachers reported mostly employing a monolingual approach in the classroom. These findings correlates with Garcia's (2012) that to only speak English in English class was for long considered the norm. Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 recently became qualified teachers (within the last five years). Therefore, as the teachers recently completed their education, these findings are in line with Nordlie's (2019), that student teachers do not receive adequate training regarding multilingual teaching. Therefore, it may be concluded that there is not enough multilingual training in the current teacher training programs.

Even more so, the evidence suggests that the teachers' positive beliefs about multilingualism correlate with recent research done on the benefits of being multilingual (Bialystok, 2009; Edwards, 2009; Krulatz et al., 2018; Peal & Lambert, 1962). However, as

the majority of the teachers have a monolingual classroom approach, this might indicate that they have beliefs that reflect previous theory, which assumed that languages are stored as separate units in the brain (Cummins, 2000; Edwards, 2009; Garcia & Flores, 2014). If familiar with the theory of Garcia's (2009) that multilinguals have a repertoire of languages on a continuum, and to Cummins' (1981) theory that languages are based on a common underlying proficiency, the teachers might have had a different teaching approach, if they had learnt about multilingualism and how to enact it as a part of their teacher education. As Dahl & Krulatz (2016) and Yurchenko (2020) suggest, it is time to update the teacher training curricula, so the teachers receive adequate training in this area.

6.2 Pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English

Research question two concerns what beliefs the pupils had towards multilingual learning of English. The pupils' beliefs indicated that they did not understand how to use their L1 in English class. The majority of the pupils perceived it as appropriate to use their L1 at home and the majority language at school.

The pupils did not understand the purpose of using their L1 in English lessons, even though they were explained the benefits of strengthening their whole language repertoire. All of the pupils answered that they believed English should be spoken in English class. Therefore, it is possible to argue that they initially did perceive that they had one language repertoire, but different repertoires. Their beliefs towards language use may indicate that they, similar to the teachers, might perceive that languages are stored separately in the brain (Cummins, 2000; Garcia & Flores, 2014). However, most of the pupils had a dynamic relationship with the languages, as they all reported they unconsciously used them interchangeably. Pupil B said she frequently used all of her languages in conversation, without understanding why. In line with Garcia (2009), multilingualism is not a linear process but a dynamic process. However, most of the pupils only used the majority language or English at school, which might indicate that the pupils' minority language was not valued. This would then be in line with Krulatz' et al. (2018) argument, that the pupils experienced a majority language only policy at school.

Even though the pupils did not believe their L1 was appropriate in English class, they all had positive beliefs about the benefits of being multilingual. Pupil C claimed she believed she learnt language faster since she knew several languages and therefore had a more extensive vocabulary and was able to see similarities between languages. These findings are directly in line with Krulatz' et al. (2018) and Cenoz (2003), who argue that evidence

suggests that multilinguals learn languages faster since they have developed learning strategies from SLA that they can apply in TLA.

The pupils' beliefs also indicated that there were social advantages to multilingualism. Pupil A commented on the advantages of speaking several languages when interacting with different cultures. These findings are in line with Garcia's (2009) claim that as the world is becoming more globalised, so it is crucial to communicate in several languages. All of the pupils believed there were cognitive and social advantages of multilingualism. These results tie well with previous research about the benefits of bilingualism and multilingualism (Bialystok, 2009, p. 7; Cenoz, 2003; J. Edwards, 2012, p. 31; V. Edwards, 2009, p. 19; Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 71). These findings are a good starting point for further implementing multilingualism at schools. Even so, as Bono and Stratilaki (2009) argue, learners viewed multilingualism as something positive when valued within the school context, especially if encouraged in the curricula. However, even though LK20 values multilingualism by emphasising that pupils should understand the benefits of speaking several languages, it is possible to argue from the findings, that it is not significant enough if the teachers do not have the necessary knowledge needed to teach multilingually (Core Curriculum, 2017; Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Krulatz et al., 2018; LK20, 2019; Nordlie, 2019).

All of the pupils reported identifying with their L1. The majority of the pupils reported that they did not consider themselves Norwegian. Pupil H claimed that he would never perceive himself as Norwegian because of his skin colour. On the other hand, Pupil F identified as Norwegian, however she claimed that other people perceived her as a foreign, therefore, she had to say she had another ethnicity. However, she perceived she had a stronger connection to the Norwegian language than her L1. This might question the theory of the relationship between language and identity, as most of the pupils did not identify as Norwegian even though they spoke the language. Contrasting the belief held by several researchers, that there exists a close relationship between language and identity (Baker, 2006; Chesire, 2002; Choi, 2015; Gibson, 2004; Krulatz et al., 2018). However, as the pupils were only asked briefly about how they identified, there is not enough evidence to support this argument. LK20 demands that pupils should develop their identity through cultural and historical insight in a diverse and inclusive environment (Core Curriculum, 2017; LK20, 2019). Therefore, these examples illustrate how important it is to convey a multilingual approach in the classroom, so that all the pupils feel welcome for who they are, and can develop their hybrid identity (Choi, 2015; Krulatz et al., 2018). Baker (2006) argues that how the teacher perceives the pupils is crucial in their identity development. If the pupils do not

perceive that their L1 is valued, it might result in subtractive bilingualism (Cenoz, 2003; Krulatz et al., 2018; Lambert, 1973). Therefore, it might be argued that in order for pupils to develop their identity, teachers need to be aware of their own beliefs.

6.3 Teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually

The third research question aims to examine the reported practices teachers have concerning teaching English multilingually. Graden (1996) and Harmer (2015) argue for a close relationship between teachers' beliefs and practice in the classroom. The teachers in this study had positive beliefs about the benefits of multilingualism, however their multilingual teaching practice was limited. This indicates a complex relationship between beliefs and practices (Borg, 2018). Even though the teachers had positive beliefs, there may be factors that hindered multilingual teaching, such as the teachers' knowledge, the curricula, society and school practices.

Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 explicitly stated that they would only allow pupils' L1 if used as a tool for better learning. They had been taught that English should be the primary language spoken in class. This practice is in line with Garcia's (2012) and Haukås and Speitz' (2020) argument, that it is commonly believed that pupils learn best when taught in the target language. Borg (2015) argues that teachers' prior experiences and knowledge are reflected in their teaching practice. In addition, the experiences teachers have inside and outside the classroom also influence teacher cognition (Borg, 2015). This is reflected in the English-only approach Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 conducted, revealing that their knowledge reflects their pedagogical approach in the classroom. However, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices is often inconsistent and complex, as teacher cognition is not limited to the teacher training (Borg, 2018). Their practices may also be influenced by contextual factors such as the pupils' needs and abilities, the curricula and school practices (Borg, 2015; 2018).

The teachers gave ambiguous answers concerning the use of L1 in the classroom. Teacher 3 explained that he understood the benefits of the pupils speaking in their L1, and that he tried to find room for it whenever possible. Similar answers can be found with Teacher 2 and Teacher 3, as they wanted the pupils only to speak English. However, the teachers also responded that they tried to find room for several languages when possible. This indicates that the teachers have a desire to teach multilingually, however their competence is limited. These findings are in line with research on teachers' lack of competence of teaching multilingual pupils (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Slettebø, 2020; Spernes, 2020). However, the findings from

this study illustrate that the teachers had some knowledge, as Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 had explicitly worked towards the competence aims.

However, all of the teachers expressed they would like to receive more training regarding multilingual teaching. Therefore, it can be argued that these findings emphasise the importance of teachers receiving more training in teaching multilingually. The findings that teachers' beliefs were not a constant representation of their practice correlates with Borg's (2018) argument that the inconsistent and complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and practice can be related to teachers' knowledge gap. However, there exists a complexity behind the teachers' knowledge gap. It is not solely the teacher's responsibility to implement multilingualism, they need to be appropriately trained to do so. Therefore, their knowledge gap can be related to the teacher training curricula. Dahl and Krulatz (2016) and Yurchenko (2020) conclude that the teacher training curriculum needs to be updated. Similarly, the findings from this study suggest that further education is needed for student teachers regarding multilingual teaching of English.

The findings demonstrate how the teachers lacked strategies in how to implement multilingual pedagogies. However, Teacher 2 actively drew on the pupils' previous language learning experiences, by explicitly asking them how they previously learnt languages. This way of drawing on previous language learning is reflected in Cenoz' (2003) theory on TLA which indicates that multilinguals experience a positive transfer between languages as they draw on previous languages when learning a new language. Teacher 3 claimed she experienced that multilingual pupils learnt language faster than monolinguals. The teachers believed that there were cognitive benefits of being multilingual, which is in line with current research (Bialystok, 2009; Edwards, 2009; Krulatz et al., 2018). However, when teachers do not know how to teach English multilingually, it is not adequate that they have positive beliefs towards the benefits of being multilingual. In order to teach multilingually in line with LK20, teachers need to acquire the competence in how to do so, not just the theoretical aspect of multilingualism.

The findings suggested that the teachers' knowledge about multilingual pedagogical approaches was somewhat limited. None of the teachers were familiar with translanguaging or could explain other multilingual approaches they had implemented in the classroom. Regarding translanguaging, they all found the concept interesting but were not aware of how it could be implemented in practice, as Teacher 3 stated that she worried about not having control when the pupils spoke other languages. This example demonstrates Krulatz' et al. (2018) finding, that teachers worry about implementing translanguaging when they do not

speak the languages themselves. However, as the teachers expressed a need for more training it might be argued that if the teachers were adequately trained, they might implement multilingual pedagogies. Similarly, in Gorter & Arocena's (2020) study, the findings suggest that the teacher implemented multilingual strategies when trained in this.

There are simple and non-time-consuming methods in how to implement translanguaging in the classroom. The crucial aspect is acknowledging and valuing the pupils' home language (Krulatz et al., 2018). There are simple methods for teachers to do this, the teachers could learn to pronounce their name right, and not just the Norwegian or English equivalent of it (Krulatz et al., 2018). The teachers could include literature from non-western countries, or let pupils work in collaborative groups where they can draw on their home language (Krulatz et al., 2018). Teacher 2 worried about pupils with little experience of multilingualism feeling left out. However, scholars argue that translanguaging is not only beneficial for multilinguals, but for the entire class. Translanguaging will create awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity that can foster curiosity in learning several languages (Garcia, 2012; Krulatz et al., 2018). In line with the CEFR, the pupils need to develop intercultural competence in order to become tolerant and respectful citizens (Council of Europe, 2018).

All of the teachers had had positive beliefs about the benefits of being multilingual, however Teacher 2 worried about making any pupil stand out. Similar results are found in Yurchenko's (2020) study. In addition, Slettebø's (2020) findings reveal that the teachers tried to find methods to include multilinguals, but some of the multilingual pupils did not like to stand out. The findings from this study and previous studies (Slettebø, 2020; Yurchenko, 2020) indicate that a potential challenge in the multilingual classroom is employing a multilingual approach without making any pupil feel different in a negative manner.

Two of teachers explicitly said they believed there existed a strong correlation between language and culture. Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 said they experienced that pupils from non-western cultures often struggled to learn English as they had not been exposed to it. In addition, Teacher 3 experienced that the multilingual pupils had different language learning strategies, however she did not provide examples of this. These examples are in line with research on the inseparable relationship between language and culture (Byram & Morgan, 1994; Lund, 2007). Risager (2007) argues that due to the transnational world that exists in classrooms today, it is crucial to consider the complexity and multidimensional process that take place in language and culture and teach thereafter.

The teachers' beliefs suggest that they are positive towards multilingual learning and wish to receive more training. Their multilingual teaching does contain elements of

multilingualism. However, their knowledge of how to enact multilingualism is limited. Furthermore, multilingualism is acknowledged in LK20 and the Core Curriculum. Therefore, these findings might support the argument that a *multilingual turn in education* has happened, at least that multilingualism has entered schools (Conteh & Meier 2014; Krulatz et al., 2018). However, there is still much to be done before pupils' backgrounds are acknowledged. Teachers need to apply learning strategies that consider pupils' linguistic repertoire, learning strategies as translanguaging. The Ministry of Education and Research (2007) emphasise that it is not enough to have multilingual pupils enrolled in order to be considered multicultural or multilingual. Schools have to implement multilingual strategies that value differences (Spernes, 2020). However, as the teachers are not trained in how to do so, it is challenging to implement multilingual strategies in the classroom. Therefore, schools need to develop specific learning strategies that value differences, and more importantly teachers need to be trained in how to enact multilingualism in the classroom.

6.4 Pupils' reported experience learning English multilingually

Research questions four concerns pupils' experiences with multilingual learning of English. The results indicate that the pupils had little experience with multilingual learning. Two of the teachers had worked explicitly toward the competence aim in LK20, that pupils should use knowledge of similarities in the languages they know in English lessons. However, the pupils did not understand the purpose of this competence aim.

For the majority of the pupil informants, their L1 was not a part of their school life. These findings are in line with Krulatz' et al. (2018) that pupils often experience language socialisation since schools carry a majority language only policy. For the school to be considered multicultural and multilingual, The Ministry of Education and Research (2007) emphasises that schools must have specific strategies that value diversity. Surprisingly, none of the pupils had ever received mother tongue instruction. Only one of the pupils was offered but declined as she and her parents experienced that she already spoke the language. Spernes (2020) criticises that mother tongue instruction is only taught to strengthen Norwegian skills. However, the findings that none of the pupils had received mother tongue instructions might suggest that mother tongue instruction is not a used practice at schools. However, as this study only examined eight multilingual pupils who have attended different primary and secondary schools, more research is necessary to make such a generalisation.

All of the pupils were multilinguals and spoke three or more languages. However, Pupil F claimed her linguistic abilities in her L1 had significantly decreased. Teacher 4 also

experienced that language was not even a topic for Norwegian-born pupils to immigrant parents. Pupil F might be a victim of subtractive bilingualism, which Lambert (1973) defines as when learning an L2 negatively impacts the L1. However, as Pupil F did not specifically state the cause of her L1 abilities decreasing, no such conclusion can be made. Spernes (2020) states that assimilation can be a painful process, as the pupils will lose all ties to their home language and culture. Even more so, Krulatz et al. (2018) argue that to not implement a multilingual teaching approach can result in subtractive bilingualism. Therefore, teachers should promote an inclusive multilingual approach where all languages and identities are valued. More importantly, Nordlie (2019) argues that multilingualism is only beneficial under certain conditions. Similarly, Cenoz (2003) found that in the studies where bilingualism was not beneficial in TLA it usually involved subtractive contexts. Therefore, if teachers support multilinguals' entire language repertoire, according to the previously stated research they are more likely to benefit from being bilingual. Teachers should make the languages they speak welcomed and available for them.

All of the pupils experienced that the teachers were interested in their background. However, some of the pupils commented that they perceived that the teachers were not interested in their language, only their culture. This is an interesting finding as this might indicate that the teachers' beliefs to focus on the target language affects the pupils' classroom experiences. The findings might also be related to the teachers' knowledge gap, that the teachers do not know how to show interest in their home language. However, this might indicate that there is a close relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences, confirming the theory of Barcelos (2003), Büyükyazi (2010) and Horwitz (1985). However, this is only the pupils' perception of their teacher's interest. Comparing their perception to the teachers' belief might indicate that the teachers care about the pupils' home language, however they are unaware of how to include it in their lessons.

The pupils had little experience with multilingual learning of English. There were two incidences where Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 reported that they had directly worked towards the multilingual aim in LK20. However, only Pupil B had registered that Teacher 1 had a lesson specifically examining similarities among languages. On the other hand, Pupil C, Pupil D and Pupil E did not recall the lesson Teacher 2 had where she specifically worked towards the multilingual competence aim. In general, Teacher 2' pupils had negative beliefs towards multilingual learning of English. However, they claimed they would read a book in English or Norwegian as the availability of books in their L1 was poor. This indicates that there is room for several ways of validating pupils' multilingual identities, such as including books in the

pupils' L1 in the school library. Similar to Krulatz' et al. (2018) suggestion, teachers should create classrooms that value multilingualism, as this will validate their multilingual identities, they suggest that if the school libraries are equipped with multilingual books, they will be reinforcing their hybrid identity. The teachers would also implement a multilingual classroom by learning short phrases as *welcome*, *hello* and *good morning* in the pupils' L1 (NAFO, 2010). Additionally, by hanging up posters that value multilingualism, the pupils' multilingual background would be reinforced (NAFO, 2010).

6.5 The relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences

Research question five concerns the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and reported experiences of learning English multilingually. Research suggests that there exists a strong relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and that teaching is most efficient when teachers consider pupils' beliefs (Barcelos, 2003; Büyükyazı, 2010; Horwitz, 1988; Krulatz et al. 2018). There have been conducted Scandinavian studies which examined multilingual teaching concerning teachers' beliefs and practices (Haukås, 2016; Nordlie, 2019; Sletttebø, 2020) and pupils' beliefs and experiences (Holst, 2018). However, to the best of my knowledge, there are no studies that examine the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences regarding multilingual learning of English in a Scandinavian context. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to this research by examining the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in the classroom and how this might influence the pupils' beliefs and experiences concerning multilingual learning of English.

All of the teachers were familiar with LK20 and the multilingual changes made to the curriculum. On the other hand, the pupils were somewhat familiar with LK20, since five of the pupils had heard about the updated curriculum. However, none of them was aware of the changes made regarding multilingual teaching. The teachers had positive beliefs towards the multilingual changes made to LK20, however the teachers had little knowledge in how to implement it. These classroom experiences might then have influenced the pupils' beliefs, as they perceive that their L1 is not relevant in learning English. These findings can support the argument that there is a close relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences (Barcelos, 2003; Büyükyazı, 2010; Horwitz, 1988; Krulatz et al., 2018).

That the teachers conveyed an English-only approach in the classroom might have influenced the pupils as they also believed that it was only appropriate to talk English. This argument might be used to support the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs. This argument might further be supported when Pupil G expressed that it was positive that

English should be the only language spoken in class even though she said she did not have the linguistic competence to do this. Additionally, the pupils had negative associations with using their L1 in English class. The majority of the pupils claimed it was unnecessary to use their L1 in class. However, two of the pupils said they used their L1 as a tool for better understanding. Therefore, as previously argued, the findings suggest that the teachers' multilingual approach in the classroom is somewhat limited. However, if the teachers allowed the pupils to use their whole linguistic repertoire it might validate and develop their multilingual identities and linguistic abilities (Garcia & Flores, 2014; Krulatz et al. 2018).

Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 claimed they allowed L1s if the pupils did not comprehend a task. This practice is in line with Krulatz' et al. (2018) translanguaging, since it involves using the languages the pupils know for better learning. However, it might be argued that since Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 explicitly said L1s are *only* allowed if the pupils do not comprehend a task, it can signal that their L1 is unimportant. Therefore, this would not be in line with translanguaging, as it is crucial to acknowledge that the pupils' home language is important (Celic & Seltzer, 2012; Krulatz et al., 2018), especially considering that Krulatz et al. (2018) suggest that teachers' beliefs about translanguaging significantly influences the pupils' experience of being multilingual.

The findings from this study suggest that pupils' beliefs indicate that multilingual learning is not relevant to their English learning. This might be related to them being little exposed to it as the teachers do not have the necessary competence in how to enact multilingualism in the classroom. However, research suggests that there exists a reciprocal relationship between teachers' and learners' beliefs (Barcelos, 2003). Therefore, it might be argued that the pupils' beliefs influence the teachers' beliefs. The findings from this study suggest that Pupil C's beliefs indicated that it was irrelevant to use her L1 in English class. Similarly, Teacher 2 emphasised that she did not want any pupils to stand out. This might again influence Pupil C's experience as an authority person confirms her belief, which results in her original belief being maintained. Ultimately, the pupil's beliefs then validate Teacher 2's beliefs which will again influence her practices. This example supports the complexity in teacher cognition, that teachers are influenced by their experiences and contextual factors (Borg, 2018). Furthermore, that beliefs are socially co-constructed in social interaction, since these findings support the reciprocal and dynamic relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs as they are validated and maintained in social interaction (Alanen, 2003; Barcelos, 2003).

All of the teachers considered the individual's level when teaching. Teachers 3 and 4 explicitly said they gave tasks depending on the pupils' English level, however they claimed that it was regardless of them being multilingual. These findings indicate that the teachers consider Vygotsky's (1978) concept of ZPD, as they differentiated their teaching and supported them according to their level. However, as Compton-Lilly (2013) suggests, teachers must build on what the pupils bring to class and help them utilise their knowledge. This includes that the teachers need to consider the multilingualism in the classroom. Furthermore, Cenoz (2003) argues it is vital to separate SLA and TLA, as multilinguals will have learning strategies to benefit them when learning additional languages. However, the context must be right when acquiring an L3 (Cenoz, 2003). The context refers to an environment where the pupils' languages are valued. If the environment is positive this might also result in the pupils being more motivated and confident, and therefore they might learn languages better (Krashen, 1983). Krulatz et al. (2018) argue that if the pupils L1 is not validated, it can eventually lead to the pupils having low self-esteem and can create an identity crisis. Therefore, it is not sufficient enough to enact an English only approach in the classroom.

Horwitz (1988) suggests that the teacher's authority influences pupils' beliefs, therefore, teachers must demonstrate to the pupils that their L1 is important and relevant to the class. Additionally, Kalaja et al. (2018) argue that if teachers do not consider learners' beliefs, the teaching might be in vain. Therefore, teachers must consider what beliefs pupils have about language learning when teaching. Furthermore, article 30 in the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*, states that children have the right to enjoy, profess and practise their own culture, religion, and language (UN Commission on Human Rights, 1990). Also, Krulatz et al. (2018) argue that evidence indicates that confirming pupils' identity and continuously helping them develop their whole language repertoire will result in higher academic achievement. An argument might therefore be made that teachers have a responsibility to consider *what the pupils bring* to the classrooms, in order for them to have the best possible development.

6.5 Limitations

The main limitation of this study involves the methodological choices made, namely the low number of participants. The low number of participants impacts the generalisability of the research since semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews were chosen to investigate in depth the participants' beliefs and reported experiences. Therefore, the findings from this study can only be used as an indication of the beliefs and practices that might be

found in Norwegian classrooms. However, the choice of using interviews allowed the researcher to analyse the in-depth answers of their specific beliefs and practices, providing thorough answers to the research questions. Therefore, as Dörnyei (2007) suggests, the main idea might be generalised as it can help understand the situation of others.

The reliability of the data is also impacted by the choice of conducting focus group interviews with pupils, for two reasons. The first reason is that the different focus group interviews had a varying number of participants. One of the interviews had only one participant and cannot be counted as a focus group interview, but as an individual semi-structured interview. Additionally, another interview had three participants instead of the planned two participants. However, in this interview, it was evident that one of the pupils did not want to disagree with the other pupils. This is similar to the theory suggested by Brink (1993) that people might answer differently in group interviews than if they were alone. Therefore, it is possible to argue that the reliability of the thesis is increased by choice of having small focus-group interviews, to avoid the pupils just confirming answers.

On the other hand, another limitation was that the small focus-group interviews resulted in the interviewees not having the desired interactive discussion. The focus group interview resulted in a conversation where the participants only answered the given questions instead of discussing multilingual teaching with each other. This limitation confirms Dörnyei (2007) argument, that having fewer than six participant makes it harder to create an interactive discussion. Additionally, the participants young age and limited knowledge regarding multilingual learning might have also influenced this outcome.

An unpredicted limitation the researcher encountered was the language barrier. A couple of the participants had limited Norwegian competence than what was initially accounted for. This resulted in reformulating the questions in order to clarify, and therefore, impacting the outcome of the interview. However, did this not impact the validity and reliability of the interview, as the interview was planned in order to open up for spontaneity (Mack et al., 2005).

One last limitation to consider is that the findings from the study are subjective interpretations the teachers and pupils have of their beliefs and experiences. Their subjective interpretations have not been observed, meaning that the researcher has not entered the classrooms in order to study the teachers' classroom practices. The reliability and validity of the thesis would have been improved if it was not for the listed limitations.

6.6 Implications for teaching

This study aims not to criticise the teachers' approaches in the classroom, but to contribute to professional teaching development by examining the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences regarding multilingual learning of English. It is evident that the English teachers had positive beliefs towards multilingual teaching, however they did not have the necessary competence to teach multilingually. Therefore, the first implication is that teachers need to be adequately trained in multilingual teaching. In order for schools to have inclusive multilingual strategies, it is not enough that LK20 has a multilingual focus when the teachers have not been sufficiently educated in how to teach multilingually. Furthermore, previous research reveals that training teachers on how to enact multilingualism results in them implementing it in the classroom (Gorter & Arocena, 2020). Therefore, policy makers need to train schools and teachers in how they can implement multilingualism in the classroom.

Krulatz et al. (2018) argue that it is crucial that the policy makers and teachers that have influence over the children's education understand what multilingualism is, in addition they need to understand why it is crucial to support it and how to implement multilingualism in the classroom. The Ministry for Education and Research (2007) reports that it is not enough to have multilingual pupils enrolled at the school. However, the schools need to have specific strategies that value differences. Therefore, the second implication for future teaching is that schools and policy makers need to enhance diversity through implementing multilingual strategies.

The final implication, which is similar to what other studies have argued (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Nordlie, 2019; Yurchenko, 2020), is that the teacher training curriculum must be updated where student teachers receive adequate training in how to teach in a multilingual classroom. Furthermore, it is important that the teacher training curriculum has an enhanced focus on multilingualism, and not just regarding the language didactic courses, but all aspects of the teacher program.

7. Conclusion

7.1 Main Findings

This present study aimed to examine the teachers' and pupils' beliefs and reported practice experience about multilingual teaching and learning of English. Additionally, this study aimed to examine the relationship between the teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences. By conducting semi-structured interviews with four VG1 English teachers and focus group interviews with eight VG1 pupils, the study has aimed to answer the following research questions: What are the teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English? What are the multilingual pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English? What are the teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually? What are the multilingual pupils' reported experience learning English multilingually? What is the relationship between the teachers' and the pupils' beliefs and experiences concerning multilingual learning of English?

Concerning the first research question on what beliefs teachers had about multilingual teaching of English, this study concludes that teachers had positive beliefs about multilingual teaching of English. However, they had little knowledge of how to implement multilingualism in the classroom. This conclusion can be drawn as the teachers on several occasions stated that they thought it was beneficial to be multilingual. However, they expressed a desire to learn more about how to enact multilingualism in the classroom. Regarding the use of several languages, three teachers said they tried to find room for the pupils' L1 when possible, but they believed English should be the only language spoken in English class. Therefore, a conclusion may arrive at the teachers wanted to implement multilingualism in the classroom but did not have the necessary competence to do so.

The second research question concerned what beliefs pupils had towards multilingual learning of English. This study concludes that the pupils did not understand the relevance of using their L1 in English class. The pupils believed that Norwegian or English, should be spoken in class, and their L1 was restricted to their families and friends outside of school. However, all of the pupils had positive beliefs towards being multilingual and perceived there were cognitive and social benefits associated with it.

The third research question concerned what reported practice teachers had towards multilingual teaching of English. The study concludes that the teachers had limited practice teaching multilingually. The findings suggested that there exists a complex relationship between the teacher's beliefs and practice. Furthermore, this complexity might be related to contextual and external factors. Therefore, a conclusion may be made that due to the teachers'

knowledge gap in how to implement multilingualism in the classrooms, it might have resulted in them employing the English only rule.

The fourth research question concerned pupils' reported experiences learning English multilingually. Similar to the pupils' beliefs that they did not understand the purpose of using their L1 in English class, the study concludes that the pupils had little experience learning English multilingually. The majority of the pupils did not use or want to use their L1 within the school context. However, two of the pupils used their L1 for better understanding.

The last research question aimed to examine the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences about multilingual learning of English. From the discussion, a conclusion might be drawn that there exists a complex and dynamic relationship between the teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences. The findings suggest that the classroom practices carried by the teacher might have influenced the pupils' beliefs towards multilingual learning of English. This conclusion might be drawn since the teachers only used the target language in English lessons, which might have influenced the pupils' negative beliefs about multilingual learning. However, the pupils' beliefs towards not wanting to use their L1 at school might have also shaped the teachers' beliefs, which might influence the classroom experiences, which might again shape the pupils' beliefs. Therefore, it demonstrates the complexity between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences.

The assumption of this thesis was that teachers did not have the necessary competence needed in order to teach English multilingually according to LK20. This assumption is confirmed, however, the findings from this study argues that it is more complicated than previously assumed. The findings from this study suggested that all of the teachers desired to receive more competence in how to implement multilingualism. Thus, the responsibility involves not just the teachers, but also the policy makers to implement programs that train teachers accordingly. Multilingualism is no longer an exception but a fact in every classroom. Article 30 in the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*, states that children have the right to enjoy, profess and practise their own culture, religion, and language. This is not accomplished if pupils' home languages and cultures are not welcomed at school. Therefore, the government and the people involved in children's education need to create programs that properly educate teachers and schools on how to implement specific strategies that enact multilingualism in the classroom.

7.2 Contributions and implications for further research

This current study contributes to the research of multilingual teaching of English in a Scandinavian context. By focusing on both teachers' and pupils' beliefs and reported practice and experience, the study contributes to the importance of teaching multilingually.

Furthermore, the study contributes to research on the relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences. Due to the dynamic and complex relationship between teachers' and pupils' beliefs, this study creates awareness of the importance of teachers being sufficiently trained in how to teach multilingually. Furthermore, that teachers need to be aware of their own beliefs and their pupils' beliefs in teaching. The study provides helpful information about how to enact multilingualism according to LK20. Additionally, it emphasises that in order to have schools and teachers that values differences, it is not enough to change the curriculum, but it is equally or even more important to train the teachers sufficiently.

Therefore, a possible direction for further research is to have a longitudinal study that examines teachers who have been trained explicitly towards multilingual teaching, and compare it to the teachers who have completed the current ordinary education. Then, the study could examine any possible teaching differences that might affect the pupils' beliefs towards multilingualism and multilingual learning, and how it can potentially develop their hybrid identity.

Furthermore, a suggestion for further research would be to conduct a mixed-method study that includes questionnaires in order to examine teachers' and pupils' beliefs and experiences of multilingual learning of English. Then a more extensive answer could be provided regarding how multilingual pupils learn English according to the Knowledge Promotion 2020.

8. References

- Alanen, R. (2003). A sociocultural approach to young language learners' beliefs about language learning. In P. Kalaja & A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs About SLA: New Research Approaches* (Vol. 2, pp. 55–85). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Aronin, L., & Singleton, D. M. (2012). *Multilingualism*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Baker, C. (2006). *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* (4th ed.). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Barcelos, A. M. F. (2003). Teachers' and students' beliefs within a Deweyan framework: Conflict and influence. In P. Kalaja & A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs About SLA: New Research Approaches* (Vol. 2, pp. 87-108). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Bernhard, J. K., Cummins, J., Campoy, F. I., Ada, A. F., Winsler, A., & Bleiker, C. (2006). Identity texts and literacy development among preschool English language learners: Enhancing learning opportunities for children at risk for learning disabilities. *Teachers College Record*, 108(11), 2380-2405.
- Bialystok, E. (2009). Bilingualism: The good, the bad, and the indifferent. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 12(1), 3–11. doi:10.1017/S1366728908003477
- Bialystok, E., & Craik, F. I. M. (2010). Cognitive and linguistic processing in the bilingual mind. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 19(1), 19–23.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721409358571>
- Bilingual. (2021, March). In *Oxford English Dictionary Online*. Retrieved 4 April 2021 from <https://www.oed.com/view/Entry/18967>
- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Bono, M., & Stratilaki, S. (2009). The M-Factor, a bilingual asset for plurilinguists? Learners' representations, discourse strategies and third language acquisition in institutional contexts. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 6(2), 207–227.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710902846749>
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81–109.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903>
- Borg, S. (2012). Current approaches to language teacher cognition research: A methodological analysis. In R. Barnard & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching Language*

- Teacher Cognition and Practice: International Case Studies* (pp. 11–29). Bristol: Multilingual Matters
- Borg, S. (2015). *Teacher Cognition and Language Education: Research and Practice*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Borg, S. (2018). Teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. In P. Garrett & J. M. Cots (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Language Awareness* (pp. 75-91). New York: Routledge
- Brink, H. I. L. (1993). Validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Curationis*, 16(2), 35–38. <https://doi.org/10.4102/curationis.v16i2.1396>
- Brinkmann, S. (2014). Unstructured and semi-structured interviewing. In P. Leavy (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 277-299). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Büyükyazı, M. (2010). The beliefs of university foreign language students and their teachers about language learning. *Sosyal Bilimler*, 8(1), 169–182.
- Byram, M., & Morgan, C. (1994). *Teaching-and-Learning Language-and-Culture*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Cambridge Assessment English. (n.d.). International language standards: About the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Retrieved from <https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-tests/cefr/>
- Celic, C., & Seltzer, K. (2012). *Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators*. New York: CUNY-NYSIEB. Retrieved from: <https://www.cuny-nysieb.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Translanguaging-Guide-March-2013.pdf>
- Cenoz, J. (1991). *Enseñanza-Aprendizaje del Inglés como L2 o L3*. Leioa: Universidad del País Vasco.
- Cenoz, J. (2003). The additive effect of bilingualism on third language acquisition: A review. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 7(1), 71–87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13670069030070010501>
- Cheshire, J. (2002). Who we are and where we're going: Language Europe and identities in the new Europe. In P. Gubbins & M. Holt (Eds.), *Beyond Boundaries: Language and Identity in Contemporary Europe* (pp. 19-34). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Choi, J. K. (2015). Identity and language: Korean speaking Korean, Korean-American speaking Korean and English?. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 15(2), 240–266. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2014.993648>
- Cohen, L., Morrison, K., & Manion, L. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). London: Routledge.

- Compton-Lilly, C. (2013). Building on what children bring: Cognitive and sociocultural approaches to teaching literacy. *The Journal of Balanced Literacy Research and Instruction*, 1(1), 4-11. Retrieved from <https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/jblri/vol1/iss1/3>
- Conteh, J., & Meier, G. (2014). Introduction. In J. Conteh & G. Meier (Eds.), *The Multilingual Turn in Languages Education: Opportunities and Challenges* (pp. 1-15). Bristol: Multilingual matters.
- Core Curriculum. Values and principles for primary and secondary education.* (2017). Oslo: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from <https://www.udir.no/lk20/overordnet-del/?lang=eng>.
- Council of Europe. (2018). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment Companion Volume with New Descriptors. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Retrieved from <https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989>
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In California State Department of Education (Ed.), *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework* (pp. 3-50). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center California State University
- Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, Power and Pedagogy: Bilingual Children in the Crossfire*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Dahl, A., & Krulatz, A. (2016). Engelsk som tredjespråk: Har lærere kompetanse til å støtte flerspråklighet?. *Acta Didactica Norge*, 10(1), 4-18. <https://doi.org/10.5617/adno.2397>
- De Angelis, G. (2007). *Third or Additional Language Acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- DeMarrais, K. (2004). Qualitative interview studies: Learning through experience. In K. DeMarrais & S. D. Lapan (Eds.), *Foundations for Research: Methods of Inquiry in Education and the Social Sciences* (pp. 51-68). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Deygers, B. (2021). The CEFR Companion Volume: Between research-based policy and policy-based research. *Applied Linguistics*, 42(1), 186-191. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amz024>

- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2010). Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Constructing, Adminstrating, and Processing (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Duranti, A. (1997). *Linguistic anthropology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ebsworth, M., & Schweers, C. (1997). What researchers say and practitioners do. Perspectives on conscious grammar instruction in the ESL classroom. *Applied Language Learning*, 8(2), 237-260.
- Edwards, J. (2012). *Multilingualism: Understanding Linguistic Diversity*. London: Continuum.
- Edwards, V. (2009). *Learning to be Literate: Multilingual Perspectives*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Franceschini, R. (2009) The genesis and development of research in multilingualism: Perspectives for future research. In L. Aronin, & B. Hufeisen, *The Exploration of Multilingualism: Development of Research on L1, Multilingualism and Multiple Language Acquisition* (pp. 27-61). Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing Company
- Fuller, J. M. (2013). *Spanish speakers in the USA*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Garcia, O. (2009). *Bilingual Education in the 21st Century: A Global Perspective*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Garcia, O. (2012). Theorizing translanguaging for educators. In C. Celic & K. Seltzer (eds.), *Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators*. New York: CUNY-NYSIEB. Retrieved from <https://www.cuny-nysieb.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Translanguaging-Guide-March-2013.pdf>
- Garcia, O, & Flores, N. (2014). Multilingualism and common core state standards in the United States. In S. May (Ed.), *The Multilingual Turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and Bilingual Education* (pp. 147–166). London: Routledge.
- Gibson, K. (2004). English only court cases involving the U.S. workplace: The myths of language use and the homogenization of bilingual identities. *Second Language Studies*, 22(2), 1–60.
- Gorter, D., & Arocena, E. (2020). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism in a course on translanguaging. *System*, 92, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102272>
- Graden, E. C. (1996). How language teachers' beliefs about reading instruction are mediated by their beliefs about students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 387–395. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1996.tb01250.x>

- Grosjean, F. (2010). *Bilingual: Life and Reality*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Hakuta, K., & Diaz, R. M. (1985). The relationship between degree of bilingualism and cognitive ability: A critical discussion and some new longitudinal data. In K. E. Nelson (Ed.), *Children's Language* (Vol. 5, pp. 319-344). London: Psychology Press.
- Harmer, J. (2015). *The practice of English language teaching* (5th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Longman.
- Haukås, Å. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13(1), 1–18.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2015.1041960>
- Haukås, Å., & Speitz, H. (2018). Plurilingual learning and teaching. In H. Bøhn, M. Dypedahl, & G. A. Myklevold (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning English* (pp. 303-321). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.
- Haukås, Å., & Speitz, H. (2020). Plurilingual learning and teaching. In C. Carlsen, M. Dypedahl, & S. H. Iversen (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning English* (2nd ed., pp. 62–80). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.
- Hennink, M. M., & Leavy, P. (2014). *Focus Group Discussions*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Herdina, P., & Jessner, U. (2002). *A Dynamic Model of Multilingualism: Perspectives of Change in Psycholinguistics*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Holst, H. (2018). *Language Awareness and Multilingualism in Lower and Upper Secondary School in Norway: An Empirical Study of 8th Grade, 10th Grade and Vg2 Students' Use of Their Multilingual Knowledge in Language Learning* (Master thesis, University of Bergen). Retrieved from <https://bora.uib.no/bora-xmlui/handle/1956/18148>
- Holt-Reynolds, D. (1992). Personal history-based beliefs as relevant prior knowledge in course work. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(2), 325–349.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312029002325>
- Horwitz, E. K. (1985). Using student beliefs about language learning and teaching in the foreign language methods course. *Foreign Language Annals*, 18(4), 333–340.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The Beliefs about Language Learning of Beginning University Foreign Language Students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), 283–294.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1988.tb04190.x>
- Kalaja, P., Barcelos, A. M. F., & Aro, M. (2018). Revisiting research on L2 learner beliefs: Looking back and looking forward. In P. Garrett & J. M. Cots (Eds.), *The Routledge*

- Handbook of Language Awareness* (pp. 222–237). New York: Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315676494-14>
- Kemp, C. (2009). Defining multilingualism. In L. Aronin & B. Hufeisen (Eds.), *The Exploration of Multilingualism: Development of Research on L3, Multilingualism, and Multiple Language Acquisition* (Vol. 6, pp. 11-26). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Kramsch, C. (1998). *Language and Culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and Practices in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krulatz, A., Dahl, A., & Flognfeldt, M. E. (2018). *Enacting Multilingualism: From Research to Teaching Practice in the English Classroom*. Oslo: Cappelen Damm Akademisk.
- Lambert, W. E. (1973). *Culture and Language as Factors in Learning and Education*. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED096820.pdf>
- Leavy, P. (2014). Introduction. In P. Leavy (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 1-16). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lund, R. (2007). *Questions of Culture and Context in English Language Textbooks: A Study of Textbooks for the Teaching of English in Norway* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Bergen). Retrieved from <https://bora.uib.no/bora-xmlui/handle/1956/2421>
- Lundberg, A. (2019). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism: Findings from Q method research. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 20(3), 266–283.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2018.1495373>
- Mack, N., Woodsong, C., MacQueen, K., Guest, G., & Namey, E. (2005). *Qualitative Research Methods: A Data Collector's Field Guide*. Durham: Family Health International.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ministry of Education and Research. (2007). *Likeverdig opplæring i praksis! Strategi for bedre læring og større deltakelse av språklige minoriteter i barnehage, skole og utdanning 2007–2009*. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/globalassets/upload/kd/vedlegg/grunnskole/strategiplaner/udir_likeverdig_opplaering2_07.pdf
- Missler, B. (2000). Previous experience of foreign language learning and its contribution to the development of learning strategies. In S. Dentler, B. Hufeisen, & B. Lindemann

- (Eds.), *Tertiär—Und Drittsprachen: Projekte und Empirische Untersuchungen* (pp. 7–21). Tübingen: Stauffenburg Verlag.
- Multilingual (2018, March). In *Oxford English Dictionary Online*. Retrieved 4 April 2021 from <https://www.oed.com/view/Entry/123560#eid35428346>
- National Centre of Multicultural Education. (2010). *Språklig og kulturelt mangfold—En ressurs i opplæringen: Idéhefte*. Oslo: Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training. Retrieved from <https://www.nb.no/nbsok/nb/585016d9157dea0e1867e06847d1a836?lang=no>
- National Centre of Multicultural Education. (2019, June 20). About NAFO. Retrieved from <https://nafo.oslomet.no/om-nafo/about-nafo/>
- National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion 2020*. (2019). Curriculum in English (ENG01-04). Oslo: Kunnskapsdepartementet. Retrieved from <https://www.udir.no/lk20/eng01-04?lang=eng>
- Nordlie, S. (2019). *Approaches to Multilingualism: A Study of Norwegian Student Teachers' Knowledge, Experience and Attitudes* (Master thesis, University of Bergen). Retrieved from <https://bora.uib.no/bora-xmlui/bitstream/handle/1956/20320/Synne-Nordlie-MA-doc-2019.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Peal, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1962). The relation of bilingualism to intelligence. *Psychological Monographs*, 76(27), 1–23. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.uis.no/10.1037/h0093840>
- Piccardo, E., North, B., & Goodier, T. (2019). Broadening the scope of language education: Mediation, plurilingualism, and collaborative learning: the CEFR Companion Volume. *Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society*, 15(1), 17-36. <https://doi.org/10.20368/1971-8829/1612>
- Plüddemann, P. (2013). 'Additive' and 'subtractive': Challenges in education for multilingualism. *Per Linguam*, 13(1), 17-28. <https://doi.org/10.5785/13-1-197>
- Rampton, M. B. H. (1990). Displacing the 'native speaker': Expertise, affiliation, and inheritance. *ELT Journal*, 44(2), 97–101. <https://doi.org/10.1093/eltj/44.2.97>
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Risager, K. (2007). *Language and Culture Pddagogy: From a National to a Transnational Paradigm*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters
- Silverman, D. (2010). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.

- Simensen, A. M. (2020). A brief history of English teaching and learning in Norway. In C. Carlsen, M. Dypedahl, & S. H. Iversen (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning English* (2nd ed., pp. 19-39.). Oslo: Cappelen Damm Akademisk.
- Slettebø, B. (2020). *Læreres arbeid med flerspråklige elever som ressurs i klasserommet og utfordringer lærerne møter i dette arbeidet* (Master thesis, University of Stavanger). Retrieved from <https://uis.brage.unit.no/uis-xmlui/handle/11250/2676467>
- Song, S. (2010). Multiculturalism. In E. N. Zalta (Ed.), *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (Spring 2017 Edition)*. Retrieved 6 April 2021 from <https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2017/entries/multiculturalism/>
- Spernes, K. (2020). *Den flerkulturelle skolen i bevegelse: Teoretiske og praktiske perspektiver* (2. ed.). Oslo: Gyldendal Akademisk.
- Spolsky, B. (1999) Second-language learning. In J. Fishman (Ed.), *Handbook of Language and Ethnic Identity* (pp. 181-192). Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Statistics Norway. (2021). Immigrants and Norwegian-born to Immigrant Parents. Retrieved from Statistics Norway website: <https://www.ssb.no/en/statbank/table/09817/tableViewLayout1/>
- Thomas, L. (2004). Attitudes to Language. In L. Thomas, S. Wareing, I. Singh, J. Peccei, J. Thornborrow, & J. Jones (Eds.), *Language, Society and Power: An Introduction* (2nd Ed., pp. 193–209). London: Routledge.
- UN Commission on Human Rights. (1990). *The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child*. London: UNICEF. Retrieved from <https://www.unicef.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/unicef-convention-rights-child-uncrc.pdf>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. London: Harvard University Press
- Watson, C. W. (2000). *Multiculturalism*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Werbinska, D. (2011). The first year in the classroom: Crossing the borderland from being a student to being a teacher. In M. Pawlak (Ed.), *Extending the Boundaries of Research on Second Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 181–196). New York: Springer.
- Yurchenko, O. (2020). *Reflections on Multicultural Education: Teachers' Experiences of Teaching Multicultural Classes* (Master thesis, University of Stavanger) Retrieved from https://uis.brage.unit.no/uis-xmlui/bitstream/handle/11250/2670759/Yurchenko_Olena.pdf?sequence=3&isAllowed=y

9. Appendices

Appendix 1

The NSD approval



NSD sin vurdering

Prosjekttittel Masteroppgave Referansenummer 658155

Registrert

13.11.2020 av Mona Flesland Loukili - mf.loukili@stud.uis.no

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

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

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat) Torill Irene

Hestetreet, torill.hestetreet@uis.no, tlf: 51831358

Type prosjekt

Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

Kontaktinformasjon, student

Mona Flesland Loukili, mf.loukili@stud.uis.no, tlf: 45406567 Prosjektperiode

14.12.2020 - 30.06.2021

Status

04.12.2020 - Vurdert

Vurdering (1) 04.12.2020 - Vurdert

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet den 04.12.2020 med vedlegg, samt i meldingsdialogen mellom innmelder og NSD. Behandlingen kan starte.

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER

Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:

<https://www.nsd.no/personverntjenester/fulle-ut-meldeskjema-for-personopplysninger/melde-endringer-i-meldeskjema>

Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET

Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 30.06.2021.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG

Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake. Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER

NSD vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:

- lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
- formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke viderebehandles til nye uforenlige formål
- dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
- lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER

Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19), dataportabilitet (art. 20).

NSD vurderer at informasjonen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER

NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).

Microsoft Teams er databehandler i prosjektet. NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene til bruk av databehandler, jf. art 28 og 29.

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og eventuelt rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET

NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

<https://meldeskjema.nsd.no/vurdering/5f589a5c-1c70-4652-9d98-91169c80e8a8 2/3>

3.5.2021 Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Simon Gogl

Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

<https://meldeskjema.nsd.no/vurdering/5f589a5c-1c70-4652-9d98-91169c80e8a8 3/3>

Appendix 2

Teachers' interview guide ⁸

Interview guide teachers

1. Background for the interview and qualifications

1. For how long have you been a qualified teacher?
 - a) What is your educational background?
 - b) Do you have further education after receiving your teacher qualification. If so, what?
2. What grades do you teach?
 - a) Are you a 'kontaktlærer'?
3. What languages do you speak?
 - a) Which of the mentioned languages have you studied in higher education?
4. How do you understand the term *multilingualism* (flerspråklighet)?
 - a. Is this a term that is commonly used at your school?
5. How many pupils are there at the school?
 - a) About how many would you say are multilingual?
 - b) Would you say that multilingualism at your school (how many multilingual pupils there are) has had a recent growth?
 - a) If so, when did this happen?

2. Teacher training

1. To what extent did the teacher training include teaching about multilingualism?
2. To what extent do you believe that you have been sufficiently educated about multilingual teaching through work?
 - a. If relevant, have you been taught in later years, e.g. at courses, about multilingualism?
 - b. If relevant, how have you learnt what you know about multilingual teaching?
3. How were you introduced/taught about LK20?
 - a. Did this teaching include multilingualism?
4. When did multilingualism become relevant for your teaching of English?

3. Experience with multilinguals

⁸ A translation was made for the interviews conducted in Norwegian.

2. How much experience do you have teaching English to multilingual pupils?
 - a. How do you experience that multilingual pupils with a different or additional L1 than the majority language Norwegian, learn English?
3. In your English class, how many pupils are multilingual?
 - a. How familiar are you with the pupil's home language?
 - b. Do you often observe or hear the pupils talk in their home language?
 - a) If so, what is your reaction?

4. Beliefs about LK20 and multilingual teaching of English

1. "To what extent do you believe that knowledge about multilingualism increases tolerance for linguistic diversity?" (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 28)
2. "What do you see as possible advantages and disadvantages in welcoming the use of several languages in the classroom when you are teaching English?" (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 233)
3. What knowledge and skills do you feel you need to develop as a teacher to facilitate an inclusive approach to teaching in a linguistically and culturally diverse classroom?" (Krulatz et al., 2018, p.121)
 - a. (if relevant) Would you focus more on creating an inclusive multilingual classroom if you learnt more about the topic?
4. It is an aim in LK20 to treat multilingualism as a resource for all pupils, what would you say are the benefits and challenges of this?
 - a. "What would you include as important elements in a multilingual pedagogy in your English classes?" (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 85)
5. A competence aim in the English subject curriculum is that pupils shall use the languages they know when learning English:
 - a. How do you think this can be done in the classroom?
 - b. What would be the benefits/challenges of this?
6. How do you believe English should be taught to multilingual pupils?
7. What aspects of multilingual teaching are you familiar with?
 - a. Translanguaging as a classroom pedagogy involves using the languages the pupils and teachers know as a tool for better learning. Can you think of examples in your classroom where this could be applied?
 - b. What do you see as the benefits and challenges of using translanguaging in the classroom?

- i. Especially in relation *in promoting* pupils' English abilities?

5. Practice teaching English multilingually

1. (How) do you implement multilingualism in the classroom in the teaching of:
 - a. Reading skills?
 - b. Oral skills?
 - c. Writing skills?
 - d. Digital skills?
2. How do you help your multilingual pupils in becoming better language learners?
(Krulatz et al., 2018)
3. What are the benefits/challenges of teaching multilingual pupils?
4. "How do you help your multilingual pupils "feel at home" in your classroom?"
(Krualtz et al., 2018, p. 207)

References:

Krulatz, A., Dahl, A., & Flognfeldt, M. E. (2018). *Enacting Multilingualism: From Research to Teaching Practice in the English Classroom*. Oslo: Cappelen Damm Akademisk.

Appendix 3

Pupils' interview guide⁹

Interview guide pupils

Background and first language/s

1. What is your first language?
 - a) If relevant, when did you learn Norwegian?
 - b) What language would you say you are most comfortable speaking?
 - c) Have you received mother tongue instruction or special language instruction?
2. If someone asks you where you are from, what do you respond?

The knowledge promotion 2020 and beliefs about multilingual learning of English

1. Are you familiar with the concept of multilingualism? How do you interpret this?
 - a) Why do you think this has become relevant for the new curriculum?
2. LK20 states that all pupils shall use the languages they speak as a resource in English lessons. What are your thoughts about this?
 - a) What would be the benefits/disadvantages of using your first language in learning English?
 - b) Would you prefer to use all your languages in the English classroom?
 - c) How do you think using your first language would be beneficial in learning English? Can you think of any examples?
3. Do you have any thoughts on how to learn English multilingually? Any examples?

Experiences learning English multilingually

1. Is your first language a part of your school day?
 - a) If relevant, how do you use your first language during the school day?
2. What are your experiences about speaking another language than the target language in:
 - a) Norwegian class?
 - b) Foreign language class?
 - c) English class?
3. Do you experience an interest among the teacher or classmates concerning your first language?

⁹ A translation was made for the interviews conducted in Norwegian.

4. To what degree do you experience an including multilingual classroom environment, meaning a classroom where every language is welcomed?
5. When you learn languages, do you look for similarities in the languages you already speak?
6. How do you experience that the teacher teaches the multilingual pupils English?

Appendix 4

Teachers' letter of information ¹⁰

Are you interested in taking part in the research project "Multilingualism and the Knowledge Promotion 2020: A Study on Multilingual teaching of English"

This is an inquiry about participation in a research project where the main purpose is to find out how teachers can implement multilingual teaching. In this letter we will give you information about the purpose of the project and what your participation will involve.

Purpose of the project

This project will be a qualitative study of how multilingualism is enacted in the English classroom according to the Knowledge Promotion 2020 (LK20), from the perspective of English teachers and multilingual pupils with a different or additional home language than the majority language Norwegian. Multilingualism is a central part of LK20, and it is acknowledged in both the Core curriculum and the English subject curriculum that pupils should experience that being multilingual is beneficial in both society and school. This requires teachers to have competence about how to teach multilinguals, but teachers report that they do not feel they have the necessary skills to do so (Krulatz, Dahl, & Flognfeldt, 2018, p. 13). Through interviews with four English teachers and four focus group interviews with two multilingual pupils, this master thesis plans to examine:

1. What are the teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English?
2. What are the multilingual pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English?
3. What are the teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually?
4. What are the multilingual pupils' reported experience learning English multilingually?
5. What is the relationship between the teachers' and the pupils' beliefs and experiences concerning multilingual learning of English?

Who is responsible for the research project?

Mona Flesland Loukili is conducting the research, and Torill Irene Hestetræet is the supervisor. The Department of Cultural Studies and Languages at the University of Stavanger is the institution responsible for the project.

Why are you being asked to participate?

You have been asked to participate since you meet the criteria for this study:

- You work in upper secondary school
- You are a qualified English teacher
- You have experiences of teaching multilingual pupils

What does participation involve for you?

If you chose to take part in the project, this will involve that you participate in an interview. It will take approx. 45-60 minutes. The interview includes questions about your beliefs and practices regarding multilingual teaching. The interview will be audio-recorded and transcribed, but it will be anonymised. If COVID-19 prevents in persons-interviews, the interview will be conducted over Teams.

¹⁰A translation was made for the interviews conducted in Norwegian.

Participation is voluntary

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

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

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

- Only, Mona Flesland Loukili, and Torill Irene Hestetraet, the supervisor, will have access to the personal data.
- We will replace your name and contact details with a code. The list of names, contact details and respective codes will be stored separately from the rest of the collected data.
- The audio recordings and anonymised transcriptions will be saved with a code, and the audio-recordings will be deleted after the end of this project, by the end of June 2021.

The participants will not be identified in the publication.

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

The project is scheduled to end in June 2021. All of the personal data, including the audio recording, will be deleted at the end of the project.

Your rights

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

What gives me the right to process your personal data?

We will process your personal data based on your consent.

Based on an agreement with the department of cultural studies and languages at UiS, NSD – The Norwegian Centre for Research Data AS has assessed that the processing of personal data in this project is in accordance with data protection legislation.

Where can I find out more?

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

- The conductor of this project: Mona Flesland Loukili, by email: (mf.loukili@stud.uis.no)
- The supervisor: Torill Irene Hestetraet, by email: (torill.hestetreet@uis.no)
- Data Protection Official at UiS, by email: (personvernombud@uis.no)
- NSD – The Norwegian Centre for Research Data AS, by email: (personvertjenester@nsd.no) or by telephone: +47 55 58 21 17.

Yours sincerely,
Mona Flesland Loukili

Project Leader
(supervisor)

Student

Consent form

I have received and understood information about the project ” *Multilingualism and the Knowledge Promotion 2020: A Study on Multilingual teaching of English* ” and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I give consent:

- To participate in an oral interview
- To be audio recorded

I give consent for my personal data to be processed until the end date of the project, approx. June 2021.

(Signed by participant, date)

Appendix 5

Pupils' letter of information ¹¹

Are you interested in taking part in the research project "Multilingualism and the Knowledge Promotion 2020: A Study on Multilingual teaching of English"

This is an inquiry about participation in a research project where the main purpose is to examine how teachers can implement multilingual teaching. In this letter, we will give you information about the purpose of the project and what your participation will involve.

Purpose of the project

This project will be a qualitative study of how multilingualism is enacted in the English classroom according to the Knowledge Promotion 2020 (LK20), from the perspective of English teachers and multilingual pupils with a different or additional home language than the majority language Norwegian. Multilingualism is a central part of LK20, and it is acknowledged in both the Core curriculum and the English subject curriculum that pupils should experience that being multilingual is beneficial in both society and school. This requires teachers to have competence about how to teach multilinguals, but teachers report that they do not feel they have the necessary skills to do so (Krulatz, Dahl, & Flognfeldt, 2018, p. 13). Through interviews with four English teachers and four focus group interviews with two multilingual pupils, this master thesis plans to examine:

1. What are the teachers' beliefs about multilingual teaching of English?
2. What are the multilingual pupils' beliefs about multilingual learning of English?
3. What are the teachers' reported practice teaching English multilingually?
4. What are the multilingual pupils' reported experience learning English multilingually?
5. What is the relationship between the teachers' and the pupils' beliefs and experiences concerning multilingual learning of English?

Who is responsible for the research project?

Mona Flesland Loukili is conducting the research, and Torill Irene Hestetræet is the supervisor. The Department of Cultural Studies and Languages at the University of Stavanger is the institution responsible for the project.

Why are you being asked to participate?

You have been asked to participate since you meet the criteria for this study:

- Speak at least three languages
- One of the languages is not Norwegian or English, and it is spoken at home

What does your participation involve?

If you chose to take part in the project, this will involve that you participate in a focus group interview. This means you will be interviewed together with some of your classmates, regarding your experience of how you are taught English multilingually. It will take approx.

¹¹ A translation was made for the interviews conducted in Norwegian.

30 minutes and will be conducted in Norwegian or English. The interview will be audio-recorded and transcribed, but it will be anonymised. If COVID-19 prevents in-person interviews, the interview will be conducted over Teams.

Participation is voluntary

Participation in the project is voluntary. If you give consent for your participation, you can withdraw your consent at any time without giving a reason. In case the interviews have been conducted, the audio-recording and anonymised transcription will be deleted. There will be no negative consequences for you if you chose not to participate or later decide to withdraw.

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

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

- Only, Mona Flesland Loukili, and Torill Irene Hestetraet, the supervisor, will have access to the personal data.
- We will replace your name and contact details with a code. The list of names, contact details and respective codes will be stored separately from the rest of the collected data.
- The audio-recordings and anonymised transcriptions will be saved with a code, and the audio-recordings will be deleted after the end of this project, by the end of June 2021.

The participants will not be recognised in the publication.

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

The project is scheduled to end in June 2021. All of your personal data, including the audio recording, will be deleted at the end of the project.

Your rights

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

What gives me the right to process your personal data?

We will process your personal data based on your consent.

Based on an agreement with the Department of Cultural Studies and Languages at UiS, NSD – The Norwegian Centre for Research Data AS has assessed that the processing of personal data in this project is in accordance with data protection legislation.

Where can I find out more?

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

- The conductor of this project: Mona Flesland Loukili, by email: (mf.loukili@stud.uis.no)
- The supervisor: Torill Irene Hestetraet, by email: (torill.hestetreet@uis.no)

- Data Protection Official at UiS, by email: (personvernombud@uis.no)
- NSD – The Norwegian Centre for Research Data AS, by email: (personvertjenester@nsd.no) or by telephone: +47 55 58 21 17.

Yours sincerely,
Mona Flesland Loukili

Project Leader
(supervisor)

Student

Consent form

I have received and understood information about the project ” *Multilingualism and the Knowledge Promotion 2020: A Study on Multilingual teaching of English* ” and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I give consent:

- To participate in a focus group interview
- That I will be audio recorded

I give consent for my personal data to be processed until the end date of the project, by the end of June 2021.

(Signed by participant, date)