UNIVERSITETET
I OSLO

Master's Thesis

Exploring Multilingualism in the English Classroom

A comparative study of students' linguistic repertoires, teacher beliefs about the use of such repertoires and language use in English classrooms in Norway and England

Adéla Funova

English didactics

Spring 2023

Credits: 30

Department of Teacher Education and School Research

Faculty of Educational Sciences

Exploring Multilingualism in the English Classroom

A comparative study of students' linguistic repertoires, teacher beliefs about the use of such repertoires and language use in English classrooms in Norway and England

Mastergradsavhandling ved Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleforskning

UNIVERSITETET I OSLO

VÅREN 2023

2023

Exploring Multilingualism in the English Classroom
A comparative study of students' linguistic repertoires, teacher beliefs about the use of such repertoires and language use in English classrooms in Norway and England

Adéla Funova

https://www.duo.uio.no/

Abstract

The recognition of multilingualism as a valuable asset has gained importance in the English subject after the implementation of the new national curriculum in Norway. With growing globalisation and migration, classrooms are becoming more linguistically diverse, underscoring the need for English language teaching to reflect this diversity. A pertinent issue in language education research is to what extent and how adolescents are afforded opportunities to learn and utilize languages in the classroom. The aim of this MA study is to investigate three aspects of language use in grade 9 English classrooms in lower secondary school in Norway and the equivalent grade in England. The overarching research question of this study is: *What characterizes language use during English lessons in multilingual classrooms across Norway and England?*

In order to answer my research question, I have employed three methods of inquiry, using data collected and made accessible through the Language use and instruction across contexts (LANGUAGES) project: (i) the Ungspråk survey about students' reported language repertoires from 16 English classrooms in Norway and England, (ii) video-recorded observation data (*n*=32 English lessons) from four multilingual English classrooms from each country, and (iii) teacher interviews (*n*=8) about their beliefs concerning language practices during English lessons.

The findings unveiled that all sampled English classrooms portrayed a degree of linguistic diversity; however, the characteristics of a multilingual classroom differed between school contexts in Norway and England. Secondly, the findings of this MA study showed that the use of other languages than English was rare. However, I identified that during group or pair work, there were more observable examples that students used other languages with fellow students. Furthermore, I found that the degree to which English teachers used students' languages as a resource varied across teachers and educational contexts

Implications of this master thesis suggest that despite Norwegian policy documents' recognition of multilingualism as a resource for language learning, there may be a limited implementation of multilingual practices in English classes in Norway, whereas in England, previous research shows an absence of official multilingual policies. Furthermore, I argue that what is most important across classrooms and educational contexts is the recognition of everyone's language skills in the classroom.

Sammendrag

Synet på flerspråklighet som en verdifull ressurs har økt i betydning innenfor engelskfaget etter innføringen av den nye nasjonale læreplanen i Norge. Med økende globalisering og migrasjon har klasserom blitt mer språklig mangfoldige, noe som understreker behovet for at engelskundervisningen anerkjenner og gjenspeiler dette mangfoldet. Et relevant tema innenfor språkundervisningsforskning er i hvilken grad og hvordan ungdommer får muligheter til å lære og bruke språk i klasserommet. Målet med denne masteravhandlingen er å undersøke tre aspekter ved språkbruk i engelsktimer på 9.trinn i Norge og tilsvarende trinn i England. Den overordnede problemstillingen i denne studien er: *Hva kjennetegner språkbruk i engelsktimer i flerspråklige klasserom i Norge og England?*

For å besvare problemstillingen har jeg benyttet tre undersøkelsesmetoder, der jeg benyttet data som er samlet inn og gjort tilgjengelig gjennom LANGUAGES-prosjektet: (i) Ungspråk-spørreundersøkelse om elevenes rapporterte språkrepertoar fra 16 engelskklasser i Norge og England, (ii) videofilmede observasjonsdata (n=32 engelsktimer) fra fire flerspråklige engelskklasser i hvert land, og (iii) lærerintervjuer (n=8) om deres tanker rundt lærerens språkpraksis i engelsktimene.

Analysen tyder på at engelskklassene i denne studien karakteriseres av språklig mangfold; likevel var kjennetegnene ved et flerspråklig klasserom forskjellige mellom skolekontekstene i Norge og England. For det andre viste funnene i denne masterstudien at bruken av andre språk enn engelsk var sjelden. Imidlertid fant jeg at under gruppe- eller pararbeid var det mer observerbar bevis på at elevene brukte andre språk i interaksjon med medelever. Videre fant jeg at graden av hvor mye engelsklærerne brukte elevenes språkressurser varierte mellom lærere og utdanningskontekster.

Implikasjonene av denne masteroppgaven antyder at til tross for at den norske læreplanen i engelsk anerkjenner flerspråklighet som en ressurs i språklæring, kan det være begrenset implementering av flerspråklige praksiser i engelsktimer i Norge, mens i England, viser tidligere forskning viser en mangel på offisielle flerspråklige retningslinjer. Videre argumenterer jeg for at det som er viktigst på tvers av klasserom og utdanningskontekster, er anerkjennelsen av alles språkferdigheter i klasserommet.

Acknowledgements

I want to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Eva Thue Vold. Your feedback, guidance and our conversations have been invaluable help throughout the process of writing my MA thesis. Additionally, I would like to thank my co-supervisor Lisbeth M. Brevik. Thank you for all your help, both with my MA thesis, but also with LANGUAGES. I am forever grateful that you invited me to the LANGUAGES project and that you always made me feel as a valuable part of the team. Being part of this project has been an invaluable experience, shaping me both as future teacher and a co-researcher.

I would also like to say thank you to the whole LANGUAGES team, for all your help and support and for accepting me as a part of your research team. This year has truly been a memorable and educational experience thanks to all of you.

A big thanks to my fellow MA students in English didactics, for the support and laughter we have shared as a group throughout the subjects of EDID and our lunches and dinners.
Thank you especially, Simen Grung, my fellow co-researcher, for all your support and all the countless late nights in the lab, filled with laughter and even a few tears. This MA experience would have not been the same without you!

To my family, thank you for your unlimited love and support. To my mum, thank you for always believing in me and being there whenever I need you. To my dad, thank you for always being my biggest supporter. To my sister, Vendula, thank you for your unconditional love and support. I love you! And thank you to my grandparents for always cheering me on and supporting me. Mám vás strašné moc ráda!

Last, but far from least, thank you Jonas, my one and only. You supported and took care of me throughout this process and always believed in me even when I didn't believe in myself. Thank you for always being my rock and for teaching me how to be brave.

x

Table of contents

1. Introduction

Recent trends in language education have encouraged the use of students' linguistic repertoires in the English classroom (Beiler, 2021; Brevik & Rindal, 2020). While English has become the foremost language of communication in the current globalised world, concerns are raised regarding the extensive use of English at the expense of other languages, as well as the insufficient incorporation of students' additional linguistic repertoires within the classroom (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Seltzer, 2019). A pertinent issue in language education research is to what extent and how adolescents are afforded opportunities to learn and utilize languages in the classroom to facilitate their inclusion in local and global communication (Beiler, 2021; Brevik & Rindal, 2020). With growing globalisation and migration, classrooms are becoming more linguistically diverse, underscoring the need for language teaching to reflect this diversity (Mcauliffe & Triandafyllidou, 2021). Recent trends in language education have therefore promoted the use of students' linguistic diversity in the classroom. The Council of Europe (2020) promotes language learning where learners are encouraged to use all their linguistic repertoires by prompting them to see similarities and regularities as well as differences between languages and cultures. In order to capture the holistic nature of a student's linguistic diversity in language learning, it is important to study the ways in which the use of various languages is promoted in schools, and to examine how language instruction builds on students' linguistic repertoires, which is one of the aims of the LANGUAGES project (Language use and instruction across contexts) (UiO, 2021), which this MA study is part of.

I was given the opportunity to become part of the LANGUAGES research team and participate in gathering data in order to compare language use and instruction in English lessons in lower secondary schools in Norway, England and France. I became interested in comparing how students' linguistic repertoires are utilized in English classrooms across different contexts in these countries. Specifically, I wanted to investigate the different language practices in English classrooms in Norway, where English is regarded as a second language for students, compared to English classrooms in England, where English is an official language and the language of schooling. Considering the high English proficiency of Norwegian students (e.g. Brevik et al., 2016) and the increasing prevalence of English in Norway (e.g. Rindal, 2022), one could argue that the English subject in Norway might be comparable to English classrooms in England, and perhaps even more so than to English as foreign language classrooms (Storch & Sato, 2020),

for example in France. However, both in Norway and England, English might have a different status for many students, as first, second or additional languages. Aiming to understand the variety of students' linguistic repertoires and how the English instruction provided opportunities for students to use these languages (or not) made it even more interesting for me to compare English instruction in Norway and England. Thus, this MA study investigates three main aspects of language use in grade 9 in lower secondary school in Norway and the equivalent grade in England; (1) what characterizes students' reported linguistic repertoires, teacher beliefs about the use of such repertoires (2) and if these languages are used in their English lessons (3).

1.1 Context and relevance

In Norway, the presence of English is considerable in most areas of society, and for many Norwegian adolescents, English has become a language they use every day both in and out of school (Brevik, 2019; Rindal, 2022). The English subject has experienced significant changes in recent decades, driven by a shift in the status of English in Norway and the implementation of a new curriculum (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training [NDET], 2019). Norwegian adolescents have demonstrated increased use and proficiency in English, which has contributed to the transition where the English language is no longer considered merely a foreign language in Norway (Rindal, 2020, 2022). According to the English Proficiency Index (Education First, 2022), Norwegian adolescents and adults are among the most proficient users of English out of 111 countries and have scored in the top 5 positions every year in the last decade. However, other languages have a weaker position both in and outside the language classrooms in Norway (Beiler, 2021; Brevik & Rindal, 2020), despite the fact that 74% of lower secondary students choose to study a third language in school and the increasing number of students with first languages other than Norwegian (Beiler, 2021; Foreign Language Centre, 2022). Nevertheless, the recognition of multilingualism as a valuable asset has gained traction both in Europe and Norway. I will provide definitions and theoretical perspectives on multilingualism in Chapter 2.

The most recent national curriculum implemented in Norwegian schools since 2020, henceforth LK20 (NDET, 2019), underscored the importance of acknowledging students' linguistic repertoires as an asset in general and specifically in the English subject. The description of the relevance and central values of the English subject, states that "the pupils shall experience that the ability to speak several languages is an asset at school and in society in general" (NDET,

2019). Additionally, LK20 places emphasis on language learning as a core element of the English subject, highlighting the significance of identifying connections between English and other languages the students know. The new competence aims after year 10 further state that students are expected to be able to "explore and describe some linguistic similarities and differences between English and other languages the pupil is familiar with and use this in one's own language learning" (NDET, 2019). This is in contrast with the preceding national curriculum (LK06), which only referred to students' native language as a basis for comparison with English (NDET, 2006, 2013). Even though there is a strong focus on the use of other languages in LK20, there is no explicit direction on how students' linguistic repertoires should be used or acknowledged in the English classroom (Beiler, 2021). Brevik et al. (2020) discuss the implications of LK20 and argue that what is most important is the recognition of everyone's language skills, not just those of students with linguistic minority backgrounds. All students should be able to experience multilingualism as a resource, regardless of whether they are learning foreign languages in school or informally through interactions with friends and family. However, it is not expected that teachers need to know all of the languages spoken by the student, but rather use the different languages as a language learning strategy for the students (Beiler, 2021; Brevik et al., 2020).

1.2 The LANGUAGES project

I was fortunate enough to be invited by Lisbeth M. Brevik, professor at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research at the University of Oslo and the project leader of the LANGUAGES project, to become a part of LANGUAGES (*Language use and instruction across contexts*). LANGUAGES is a video and language study that combines data from lower secondary schools in Norway, England, and France, aiming to advance our understanding of how language teachers support language development from different proficiency levels and language backgrounds. LANGUAGES thoroughly investigates teachers' instruction and students' use of languages in classrooms by including varying degrees of language homogeneous and heterogeneous contexts, in three countries with different official languages and language policies. The LANGUAGES project information page at the University of Oslo describes its objectives as follows:

1. advance our knowledge about the consequences of how language policy affects practice,
2. develop new and much sought after knowledge about how teachers enact language instruction in everyday classroom practices across subjects and contexts,
3. examine the effect teaching practices have on students' language use and multilingual identities, and
4. identify teachers' and students' perspectives on practices that are both successful and less successful to suggest implications for future language policy and practice (UiO, 2021).

This will be achieved through systematic video-recorded observation of English and French lessons over time, at a number of schools in each country, in conjunction with language proficiency tests, student and teacher surveys, and interviews. During the 2022-2023 school year, my involvement in the LANGUAGES project enabled me to actively participate in data collection in Norway and England. As a result, I was granted access to the data collection sites, participants, and data sources. Additionally, I gained first-hand knowledge of the General Data Protection Regulations (GDPR) throughout the data collection process.

1.3 Research questions

In this MA study, I use the Ungspråk student survey to identify students' reported language repertoires across all 16 English classes in Norway and England. Next, I select a sub-sample of the four classrooms in each country with highest percentage of students who report to know four or more languages (hereafter referred to as multilingual classrooms). Next, I use video recorded lessons (*n*=32) in these eight English classrooms to investigate how languages are used in English lessons and whether students' language repertoires are used to foster English language learning. Additionally, I use teacher interviews to examine the beliefs of the English teachers regarding languages use in the recorded English classrooms. Based upon this contextualization, my overarching research question is:

What characterizes language use during English lessons in multilingual classrooms across Norway and England?

To answer the overarching research question, I have formulated three sub-questions:

RQ1: *What characterizes students' reported linguistic repertoires and linguistic diversity in 16 English classrooms in Norway and England?*

RQ2: *Which languages are used within and across 32 English lessons in eight multilingual classrooms in Norway and England?*

RQ3: *What characterizes the English teachers' beliefs concerning the use of students' languages as a resource in the classroom to foster English language learning?*

The methods that have been used to answer the three sub-questions are (i) quantitative responses in the Ungspråk student survey about students' reported language repertoire to answer RQ1, (ii) quantitative and qualitative information from video-recorded observation data from four multilingual English classrooms in Norway and four multilingual English classrooms in England to answer RQ2, and (iii) qualitative information from teacher interviews about their beliefs concerning language practices during English lessons to answer RQ3.

To summarise, the participants in my MA study comprise students from a total of 16 English classrooms, eight in Norway and eight in England, used to answer RQ1. From these classes, four English classrooms from each country with the highest linguistic diversity were selected for a sub-sample, in order to look at language use during English lessons to answer RQ2 and to select eight English teachers to answer RQ3. The comparative approach within and across English classes in Norway and England used in this MA study contributes with in-depth knowledge of how languages are used in multilingual classrooms across Norway and England and how these practices relate to students' linguistic repertoires and teacher beliefs about the use of such repertoires.

1.4 Thesis outline

Following the introductory chapter, I will present the theoretical framework and provide an overview of relevant prior research in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 will outline the methods deployed for gathering and analysing the data material, including the sampling procedure for my MA study. In Chapter 4, I will present the findings of this study, whilst Chapter 5 will discuss my findings in light of theory and prior research, followed by the didactical implications. Finally, Chapter 6 will offer some concluding remarks and suggestions for further research.

2. Theory and prior research

In this chapter, the theoretical framework for my MA study, and a review of relevant prior research will be presented. As the field of multilingualism include several definitions, approaches and beliefs, I will present my theoretical framework in six main sections; Languages as a resource (2.1), Definitions of multilingualism (2.2), Norway: a multilingual paradise? (2.3), England: a state of monolingualism (2.4), Language approaches (2.5) and prior research (2.6). Due to the comparative nature of this study, I will present prior research from both Norwegian and English contexts.

2.1 Languages as a resource

In my MA study, my use of the word 'resource' in relation to students' linguistic repertoires, derives from Ruíz's (1984) seminal paper on language orientations in language planning. Ruíz (1984) refers to orientation as "a complex of dispositions toward language and its role, and toward languages and their role in society" (p. 16), noting its relation to language attitudes in that orientations constitute the framework in which attitudes are formed toward language. He identified three broad orientations to language: language-as-problem, language-as-right and language-as-resource. The language-as-problem perspective views multilingualism as a problem, suggesting that knowing multiple languages can increase complex problems such as language stratification, code selection and standardization. This orientation associates minority languages with social problems and a lack of education. Bilingual communities are seen as having "little languages" (Ruíz, 1984, p. 19) that need to be replaced with English to maintain national unity. The second orientation, the language-as-right perspective recognizes the use of languages as a basic human right. It emphasizes the right to use language in communal activities and not be discriminated against based on language barriers in education. Ruíz (1984) critiques these orientations for diminishing the status of subordinate languages and creating tension between majority and minority communities. He therefore proposed a third perspective, language-as-resource, which highlights the importance of viewing languages in cooperation with each other. This approach acknowledges the value of linguistic diversity and offers solutions to previously mentioned conflicts. The resource-oriented approach recognizes the significance of the existing language resources as a valuable asset and a language skill. By incorporating all languages, one can provide a more 'natural' language learning experience. Moreover, this approach acknowledges the importance of linguistic diversity in global

communication and the positive impact of multilingual proficiency on both social and educational domains.

I situate my MA study within Ruíz's (1984) perspective of language as a resource by recognizing the linguistic repertoire of students as a valuable asset for language learning. Additionally, I aim to explore how both teachers and students can utilize multilingualism as a resource for the teaching and learning of English.

2.2 Definitions of multilingualism

Research on multilingualism is a highly interdisciplinary field that spans various disciplines, including neurology, psychology, literature, education, and linguistics. As a result, there are many different approaches to studying this phenomenon as well as definitions of multilingualism. The definition of multilingualism varies across different fields and specific studies, in addition to variation within key concepts such as the number of languages, proficiency level, and language use (Beiler, 2021; Berthele, 2021; Cenoz, 2013; Haukås, 2022). Related terms, including plurilingualism, bilingualism, trilingualism, polyglotism, polylingualism, and translanguaging are also prevalent in the field. These terms are sometimes used interchangeably, while at other times, they carry distinct interpretations (Haukås, 2022). According the Berthele (2021) multilingualism "as a field of inquiry is torn between approaches that question the usefulness of identifying and counting languages in the repertoire in order to understand multilingual language acquisition and use, and approaches that fundamentally rely on meaningful delimitations and counts of languages in their theoretical reasoning and their empirical operationalizations" (p. 82). According to Clyne (2017), individuals are considered multilingual if they use or possess competence in more than one language. Other researchers suggest that individuals must have acquired three or more languages to be classified as multilingual (Kemp, 2009). Moreover, certain definitions require individuals to have a specific proficiency level in their languages or actively use them, distinguishing between receptive and productive multilingualism (Haukås, 2022). In no-boundaries approaches, translanguaging has been more recently introduced in the multilingual field to describe pedagogical language practice where more than one language is used simultaneously as the learner's linguistic repertoire is seen as one single unified entity (Berthele, 2021; Cenoz, 2017). However, Berthele (2021) argues that the move away from any categorization of languages, would not likely produce any research that would be meaningful for improving educational policies in multilingual learning. A recent and increasing tendency is to view multilingualism as the study

of an individual´s linguistic repertoire and agency in several languages across contexts (Marshall & Moore, 2018). Taking into account the recent trend, the Council of Europe (2020) has introduced updated definitions of multilingualism and plurilingualism which have more recently been used in newer multilingual studies.

2.2.1 The council of Europe´s definitions of multilingualism and plurilingualism

In the Common European Framework of Reference of Languages, Council of Europe (2020) considers multilingualism as "the coexistence of different languages at the social or individual level" (p.30) and distinguishes it from plurilingualism, which is viewed as a more holistic approach to language use and refers to "the dynamic and developing linguistic repertoire of an individual user/leaner" (p. 30). The focus is on the individual level where languages are interrelated and interconnected and not kept in separated mental compartments. The aim of the CEFR (2020) is to promote language learning where all knowledge and experience of languages contribute to build up a learner's linguistic repertoire and competence.

> The aim of language education is profoundly modified. It is no longer seen as simply to achieve "mastery" of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the "ideal native speaker" as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place (Council of Europe, 2001, p.14).

Some of the plurilingual competencies that are highlighted by the CEFR (2020), involve the ability to switch between languages or dialects, expressing oneself in one language while understanding another, recognizing words from a common international store in a new guise, and calling upon the knowledge of a number of languages to make sense of a text. From a pedagogical perspective, this approach leverages the learner's linguistic and cultural background to foster a more holistic and dynamic approach to language learning (Council of Europe, 2020).

Within an educational context, Haukås et al. (2022) draw on the definition of plurilingualism by the Council of Europe (2020) in addition to include the perspective of the students about their own multilingualism. In line with Haukås et al. (2022), in this MA study students will be considered multilingual based on their self-reported knowledge of multiple languages, which entails considering them as multilingual if they report knowledge of more than one language.

2.3 Norway: a multilingual paradise?

According to Haukås (2022), Norway can to some extent be called a multilingual paradise as all Norwegians can be considered multilingual given their knowledge and understanding of multiple languages and varieties. The two official languages of Norway are Norwegian and Sami, with Norwegian having two equal written versions, Bokmål and Nynorsk. Sami, a group of indigenous languages, is spoken and taught in northern Scandinavia. Norwegian students begin learning Norwegian, along with one of its written versions, and English in the first grade of primary school. English is a mandatory subject throughout the 10 years of mandatory education. Furthermore, when students start lower-secondary school (grade 8-10), students are expected to learn both Bokmål and Nynorsk. In grade 8 (age 13 – 14), students can choose a foreign language in addition to English. Most students can choose between Spanish, French and German, but some schools offer other languages as Italian or Russian. In the academic year 2022-2023, 74% of grade 8 students opt for studying a foreign language, whereas the remaining students chose the vocationally oriented work experience-subject or extra classes in English, Norwegian, maths or Sami instead (Foreign Language Centre, 2023). In addition to the linguistic repertoire that students acquire in school, Norway as a Scandinavian country has a receptive multilingualism, as the majority of the population can understand standard Swedish and Danish, meaning that they are able to understand and interact with each other across the three languages while speaking their respective language (Haukås et al, 2021).

Over the past several decades, Norway's population has become increasingly diverse in terms of language and culture, largely due to global migration. In total, 16% of the population has an immigrant background, meaning they are either immigrants themselves or born in Norway to immigrant parents (Statistics Norway, 2023), whereby 19% of students attending primary or lower secondary school are considered to have an immigrant background (Statistics Norway, 2022). When Norwegian scholars and researchers discuss multilingualism, they typically only refer to those with an immigrant background, thereby excluding most Norwegians from being considered multilingual. This tendency is problematic, as it fails to recognize the neutral meaning of multilingualism, which is the ability to use multiple languages. When multilingualism is associated only with subgroups of the population that are more likely to live in lower socioeconomic status and experience academic difficulties, being identified as multilingualism may not be seen as adding any value or resource. Therefore, it has been recently more important in educational research to acknowledge that practically all Norwegians are

multilingual and thereby encourage a positive view of multilingualism, and promote the implementation of a multilingual pedagogical approach in schools that includes all students (Beiler, 2021; Haukås, 2022).

2.4 England: a state of monolingualism

In England, a lack of interest in learning additional languages is observed, resulting in a prevalent state of monolingualism among native English users (Collen, 2022; Lanvers, 2015; Lanvers et al., 2019; Lo Bianco, 2014). The global spread of English as a lingua franca has contributed to a drop in language learning uptake beyond the compulsory stage due to the Anglophone adolescent belief that developing language skills seem distant or irrelevant for practical communication, given the ever-growing number of fluent L2 English speakers (Lanvers et al., 2019). The National Curriculum Framework states that students are required to study languages at Key Stages 2 and 3, covering ages 7-14. At Key Stage 2, any foreign language can be taught, including modern or ancient foreign languages, while Key Stage 3 requires specific instruction in a modern language. After the age of 14, in Year 10, it is not a requirement to study an additional language. However, the school must provide the opportunity for students to take a course in a modern or ancient language should they wish to do so (Long et al., 2022). In the academic year 2020-2021 46% of the students submitted an entry to *General Certificate of Secondary Education* (GCSE) final exam in a modern language. The students were at the end of Key Stage 4 (age 14 -16) across all types of schools in England. The entries in modern language GCSEs included over 21 languages, where French was the most popular with 20%, followed by Spanish at 17% and German at 6% (Long et al., 2022). In addition to modern and ancient foreign languages, some schools offer British Sign Language. Students who choose a foreign modern language in school are referred to as Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) students.

Furthermore, in secondary schools across England, 34.1% of children come from a minority ethnic background (covers all ethnic groups except White British), whereas 17.5% of secondary students were noted as having a first language known or believed to be other than English (DfE, 2022). These students often fall into the category as having English as an Additional Language (EAL). Despite the fact that schools offer a wide range of languages, and a substantial percentage of students have additional home languages, there is no evidence of educational policy, curriculum support or classroom practice with respect to multilingualism for neither

MFL nor EAL students (Costley & Leung, 2020). However, the national curriculum in Key Stage 4 states that "teachers should plan teaching opportunities to help pupils develop their English and should aim to provide the support pupils need to take part in all subjects". (DfE, 2014)

2.5 Language approaches

Language use in English classrooms varies between several language approaches of whether to use English only, use English in combination with the language of schooling or allow students to use their whole linguistic repertoire (Brevik et al., 2020; Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012). While it is widely agreed that exposure to and utilization of the target language are essential for language learning, many researchers emphasize that the target language should not be viewed in isolation from students' overall language abilities. There are several viewpoints about which approach is most beneficial. Language practices observed in the classroom are often influenced by teachers' beliefs about appropriate language use and students' language needs (Brevik et al., 2020; Cook, 2001). Teacher beliefs regarding language use in L2 English classrooms have historically revolved around two approaches; the monolingual approach (also known as the target language-only approach) and the bilingual approach (Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012). However, in the last decades, language education scholars have advocated for a third option, the multilingual approach.

The monolingual approach in English classrooms emphasizes maximizing the use of English while avoiding the language of schooling or any other languages (Brevik et al., 2020; Cook, 2001). It is based on the assumption that the most effective way to learn English is through the use of English only, an approach rooted in the belief that English instruction should imitate the way children learn their L1 (Brevik et al., 2020; Cook; 2001; Cummins, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012). This ideology is still influential in school contexts as many teachers still believe "they have to isolate the target language from other languages students use" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2014, p. 240).

The bilingual approach in English classrooms encourages teachers and students to use both the target language and the language of schooling. Such language practices might occur spontaneously or intentionally (Brevik et al., 2020). The approach emphasises that using the students' first language (L1) in the classroom does not hinder their acquisition of the target

language, however, it acknowledges that dismissing the language of schooling out of the classroom restricts the possibilities for language learning (Cook, 2001). Rather than preventing the use of L1, the focus should be on encouraging students to utilize the target language as much as possible. A fundamental premise of bilingual teaching is recognizing that knowledge and skills acquired in one language are transferable resources for language instruction in the other language (Brevik et al., 2020; Cummins, 2008).

In a multilingual approach, teachers seek to affirm and build on students' multilingual repertoires as a resource in English teaching (Beiler, 2021; Brevik et al. 2020; Cenoz, 2017; Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Cummins, 2008; Haukås, 2022). This approach encompasses all languages spoken within the English classroom (Brevik et al., 2020), and opens up the language use beyond the shared language of schooling and the target language. Effective multilingual approaches in education strive to embrace the diversity of languages and literacy skills that students bring to the learning environment (García et al., 2006). When teaching English, this approach recognizes and builds upon students' complete linguistic repertoires.

The multilingual approach is not a specific way of teaching, but a collection of principles applied to varying degrees based on teaching context, curriculum, and the learner (Haukås, 2016; Neuner, 2004). Implementing a multilingual approach involves mobilising both linguistic repertoires that the teacher does and does not share with students (Beiler, 2021; Cenoz, 2017; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014). It is important to note that English teachers are not expected to be fluent in all the languages their students bring to the classroom. Instead, they should be equipped with the necessary tools to effectively utilize the language resources available, whether shared or not, within the classroom setting (Brevik et al., 2020; Krulatz et al., 2018). However, Šurkalović (2014) suggests that English teachers can benefit from acquiring general knowledge about the different language backgrounds they frequently encounter.

Scholars argue that by allowing students to apply their entire linguistic competence within educational contexts, student gain a greater sense of how to use their full knowledge and expertise in relation to English language learning (Cummins, 2008; Garcia et al., 2006).

2.6 Review of prior research

Multilingual students and multilingual approaches have received increasing attention in recent years of study. In this section, I will present prior research on linguistic diversity in the classroom (2.7.1), the implementation of multilingual practices in the English classroom (2.7.2) and English teacher beliefs about multilingualism (2.7.3). As my MA study is a comparative investigation of language use in English lessons in Norway and England, I have chosen to focus on prior research from these two countries to limit the scope of my review.

2.6.1 Prior studies on linguistic diversity in the classroom

In the Norwegian context, Haukås, Storto and Tiurikova (2021) developed the longitudinal Ungspråk project with the main aim to investigate young learners' multilingual identity in the Norwegian lower secondary school context. In the first phase of the project, 593 students from seven lower secondary schools responded to the Ungspråk questionnaire. Students were asked to report what languages they knew, where the findings showed that 3% of students (*n*=19) reported they knew two languages, 33% reported knowing three languages (*n*=196), while the remaining 64% reported knowing four languages or more (Haukås, 2023). In addition to languages they learned at school (Norwegian, English, Spanish, French and German), students also frequently reported home languages such as Polish, Arabic and German. A great number of students also reported knowing Danish and Swedish. The findings also showed that 67% of students viewed themselves as multilingual, while 9% meant they were not multilingual and 23% were unsure. The uncertainty stemmed from the lack of knowledge about what it means to be multilingual and the amount of languages one has to know to be considered multilingual (Haukås, 2023).

In the English context, Lanvers, Hultgren and Gayton (2019) created a teaching intervention in order to investigate Anglophone students' attitudes towards multilingualism and language learning. The study was conducted among 97 students aged 12-13 with a pre-and post-questionnaire regarding their attitudes towards multilingualism and the global status of English. The findings suggested that English students generally held an anglocentric view and considered multilingualism to be difficult to achieve, distant and unnecessary due to the global spread of English. The interventions showed that teaching students about multilingualism and its benefits can help change Anglophone attitudes. The content of the intervention helped

students to counter the fallacy that "English is enough" by opening students' eyes to the ubiquity and importance of multilingualism (Lanvers et al, 2019).

2.6.2 Prior studies on language use and practices

Beiler (2021) found that most studies on teacher preparedness have found limited if any evidence of multilingual approaches to English teaching except for researcher interventions. In the Norwegian context, Brevik and Rindal (2020) investigated how languages were used in English classrooms across seven lower secondary schools. The findings show that teachers and students used English 77% of the time, and Norwegian 16% of the time, while the remaining 7% was the use of both languages. Other languages were rarely used with only a few instances in high-frequency English classrooms, initiated by teachers only. These infrequent practices mostly prompted students to use their linguistic repertoires in high-status modern languages such as French, German and Spanish. The researchers observed no students speaking any languages other than English or Norwegian, nor did they observe any teachers suggesting that students should use other languages they know (Brevik & Rindal, 2020).

Another study about teacher practices, by Lorenz et al. (2021) further suggests that teacher language practices are influenced by the monolingual ideal. In this study, two teachers with a multilingual background and previous experience teaching multilingual students did not fully utilize their students' linguistic repertoires. Consequently, they missed several opportunities to enhance their students' language knowledge. Lorenz et al (2021) suggest that this may be due to a subconscious belief in the monolingual approach and strict separation of languages. Furthermore, in two studies conducted at linguistically diverse schools, students were actively discouraged from speaking minoritized languages. This was either because these languages were seen as excluding others who were not proficient in them or because they were perceived to undermine the teacher's control over classroom interactions (Flognfeldt, 2018; Krulatz & Torgersen, 2016). Nevertheless, there is evidence, either reported or observed, indicating that students with minority languages use their broader linguistic repertoire in pair conversations or during individual work. Students experience support from their peers through their common native languages when they are for instance translating or identifying grammatical similarities (Flognfeldt, 2018; Iversen 2017)

Furthermore, Calafato (2021) conducted a quantitative study on teachers' implementation of multilingual teaching practices, examining 517 language teachers of English, French, German, and Spanish in Norwegian and Russian schools. The study's findings suggested that the participants who taught multiple foreign languages tended to use more multilingual teaching practices. In contrast, participants that implemented less multilingual teaching practices were English teachers. Calafato further noted that even when a teacher taught English alongside another foreign language, they still used multilingual practices less frequently in their English lessons. Calafato (2021) suggests that this might be because English teachers assume their students are already proficient in English and therefore do not see the need to utilize their knowledge of other languages and language learning experiences. However, Calafato (2021) further points out that this approach can hinder students' development of learning strategies and advanced metalinguistic knowledge in English lessons, preventing them from using their multilingualism as a resource to learn additional languages in the future.

In a prior MA thesis, Barreng (2021) studied language use during English lessons in six CLIL classrooms in two lower secondary schools. The study found that English was the predominant language used in the majority of the classrooms with a great variation regarding the use of Norwegian across classrooms. The Norwegian use was notably higher during English lessons with substitute teachers, where English classrooms that would usually be labelled as high frequency English classrooms would be labelled as high frequency Norwegian lessons when a substitute teacher were present. Furthermore, the findings showed that other languages than English and Norwegian were rarely used in the classrooms, however the few instance that were observed suggested different language practices between the two schools. The one school used other languages for pedagogical purposes, while the other school used other languages for non-academic conversations with students.

In England, there is an increasing number of classrooms with a high level of linguistic diversity, however there are few accounts of the development of multilingual pedagogies (Costley & Leung, 2020). Costley and Leung (2020) investigated therefore the opportunities and constraints of adopting trans/multilingual practices in publicly funded schools in England by analysing policy documents and teacher interview data. The overall finding drawn from the study is that there was no real evidence of sustained and coordinated educational policy, curriculum support and classroom practice in England regarding trans/multilingual pedagogy. The absence of positive engagement and encouragement at the policy level have led to a scarcity

of actual culture or prevalent practice in schools of using languages as a meaningful resource, as well as a lack of a culture of collaboration between and across colleagues working within English as Additional Language (EAL) and Modern Foreign Languages (MFL).

Consequently, the schools are characterized by a monolingual disposition where English functions as the statutory language in the curriculum and the only language of schooling, leaving no space for other languages in the classroom as they are regarded unnecessary. Costley and Leung (2020) further commented on the lack of provision or requirement for using other languages than the target language or English in the MFL classroom as it is not mentioned in any curriculum or syllabuses. A third finding from the study is that teachers were refraining from encouraging the use of other languages due to classroom management. The need to manage and coordinate the classroom led to the perception that teachers might lose control of the class if they would let students use their own language, as they would not be able to understand all the languages in their classrooms and monitor students' learning. Costley and Leung (2020) conclude by pointing out the need for change in both policy and practice in order to recognise multilingualism as a resource.

A recent interview and observation study by Szymczyk et al. (2022) also set out to reflect on the issues presented by the lack of a comprehensive national strategy and guidance for EAL provision, support, and training in England. The findings indicate that although some teachers made efforts to incorporate multilingualism into their pedagogical practice, some teachers from mainstream classes discouraged the use of other languages, even amongst students. These teachers believed that doing the opposite would imply that they cannot carry out their fundamental role as English language teachers of teaching them use English appropriately. This has led to instances where students who spoke the same language were separated in the classrooms to avoid disruptions. In contrast, teachers from the EAL department paired students who shared the same native language together to facilitate comprehension of English tasks. The study also highlights that some teachers went to great lengths to incorporate multilingualism into their practice, with some teachers learning words of their students' languages, even picking up swear words which they now made sure were not used in the classroom. Szymczyk et al. (2022) conclude similarly that there is a need for official support for teacher education and guidelines around multilingual education, despite useful resources being developed practicing teachers.

2.6.3 Prior study on teacher beliefs about multilingualism

Prior research from Norway has indicated that English teachers generally have positive attitudes regarding multilingualism and multilingual students (Calafato 2021; Haukås 2016; Krulatz & Dahl 2016). However, the overall implications from studies stress the need to develop English teachers' linguistic awareness and knowledge of multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy, as monolingual ideologies are widespread in their beliefs and teaching practices (Flognfeldt et al. 2020; Flognfeldt 2018; Iversen 2017; Lorentz et al., 2021). Prior findings show that when English teachers do use other languages the focus is on Norwegian-English bilingualism or high status modern languages (eg. Spanish, German and French), while minoritized languages are not systematically incorporated to promote multilingualism as a resource (Beiler 2021; Brevik & Rindal; 2020; Christison et al. 2021; Haukås 2016; Iversen 2017).

Haukås (2016) investigated foreign language teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and their use of a multilingual pedagogical approach. The findings showed that the language teachers involved in the study had made progress towards implementing a multilingual pedagogy, as they saw multilingualism as a positive tool for learners to connect their L3 language to their L1 Norwegian and L2 English. However, most teachers tended to not reflect on previous language learning experiences with their students. In addition there was a lack of collaboration between language teachers to enhance students' multilingualism. The teachers also believed that learning an L3 was significantly different from learning L2 English, making it difficult to transfer strategies across language subjects. They further claimed that their students were not aware of the strategies that they used to learn English because they began learning it at an early age. Haukås (2016) suggests that these statements reflect that language learning strategies may be overlooked in the English classroom, despite being emphasized in the English curriculum.

A more recent study by Tishakov and Tsagari (2022), which focused on language beliefs of English teachers in Norway, found similarly that teachers generally embraced the idea of multilingualism, however their beliefs and teaching practices reflected contradictory beliefs between monolingual and multilingual ideals. English teachers' belief and practices were influenced by both multilingual and monolingual ideologies to varying degrees. The study's findings suggest that English teachers' trajectories are in transition towards more pro-multilingual beliefs, but there is a need for more opportunities for English teachers to try out multilingual pedagogical practices in teaching environments.

In the English context, there is a scarcity of studies that focus on English teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards language diversity in the classroom (Cunningham, 2020). Whilst there is some research in England, such as that conducted by Weekly (2018), on the beliefs of heritage languages, Cunningham (2020) argues that their study offers an original contribution to the field in the UK context. The study by Cunningham (2020) investigated the mixed discourses of 13 teachers from northern England about their orientations toward multilingual children as well as their perspectives on responsibility for language maintenance and attrition. The findings suggest that a number of teachers demonstrated a positive rhetoric towards language diversity and maintenance, viewing language-as-resource in accordance with Ruíz's (1984) perspective. However, the study also found that the perception of language as a problem was more regularly observed, reflecting the dominant discourse in mainstream education in the UK towards languages other than English, which still tends to draw heavily on an orientation to language-as-problem. Teachers further expressed that the curriculum is too 'structured', 'tight' and 'inflexible' resulting in a lack of time and headspace for language maintenance and development work. Cunningham (2020) therefore concludes that it should be school leaders who develop more positive rhetoric around schools' role in language maintenance, followed by more practical implementations.

2.6.4 Relevance for my study

In this chapter, my aim has been to provide insight into the definitions and perspectives of multilingualism and prior research about the use and beliefs about multilingual approaches. The terms which are of particular relevance for my MA study are the orientation of language-as-recourse (Ruíz, 1984), multilingualism in line with Haukås (2022) and language approaches (Brevik et al., 2020; Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012). In this MA study students will be considered multilingual based on their self-reported knowledge of multiple languages, which entails considering them as multilingual if they report knowledge of more than one language. Additionally, I situate my MA study within Ruíz's (1984) perspective of language as a resource by recognizing the linguistic repertoire of students as a valuable asset for language learning. In this MA study I am interested in investigating what characterizes students' reported linguistic repertoires, teacher beliefs about the use of such repertoires and if these languages are used in their English lessons. In the following chapter, I will elaborate on the methodological choices that have been utilized in this MA study.

3. Methodology

In this chapter, I present the methodology that I have used to answer my overarching research question: *What characterizes language use during English lessons in multilingual classrooms across Norway and England?*

First, I present the LANGUAGES project's research design (3.1), which my MA study is part of. Next I describe my own research design for this MA thesis (3.2) including the sample and sampling procedures used in my selection of classes in this study. Next, I describe the data material (3.3) and data analysis used in my MA study (3.4). Finally, I discuss how I have addressed research credibility in my thesis (3.5), by discussing aspects of reliability, validity, and ethical considerations.

3.1 LANGUAGES research design

The LANGUAGES project was initiated in 2021 by the project leader Lisbeth M. Brevik. The project aim to investigate and compare what characterises language instruction in English and French lessons across Norway, England, and France. It uses a longitudinal design that follows the same students and teachers over two school years (grades 9–10 in the Norwegian school system and in corresponding grades in England and France, ages 13–15). The data collection will be conducted in two cycles, one for each school year. The data sources in the project include video recordings of classroom instruction, aiming to capture teachers' and students' actual oral language practices. In addition, the project collects student and teacher surveys including a language survey concerning language instruction, language resources, beliefs about multilingualism and identities. The project also collects language proficiency tests both years, more precisely a reading comprehension test in English and a vocabulary test in French. The data sources further include student and teacher interviews to obtain their perceptions of effective classroom instruction in order to foster target language learning. The LANGUAGES project received approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) and is funded by The Research Council of Norway (NFR) in the project period 2021 to 2025.

3.1.1 LANGUAGES sampling procedure

The LANGUAGES project recruited eight schools in each country, with one French class and one English class in each school, ending up with 48 classes (24 for each subject) and teachers and their students. The sampled schools were recruited from different regions in each country.

LANGUAGES used strategic purposeful sampling with the aim to "purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study" (Creswell, 2007, p. 125) on the basis of two sampling criteria; socio-economic status (SES), and linguistic diversity (LD) on the school or district level. The aim was to sample classes with maximum variation concerning these two criteria; specifically half of the classes from the higher end and the other half from the lower end, see Table 3.1. The research teams in each partnering university were responsible for the recruitment in each country.

Table 3.1. LANGUAGES sampling strategy and criteria on the school level (Brevik et al., 2023)

Category	SES	LD	Total classes	Total English classes	Total French classes	Norway	France	England
1	high	high	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
2	high	low	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
3	low	high	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
4	low	low	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
			48	**24**	**24**	**16**	**16**	**16**

Note: In each country there are 2 English classes and 2 French classes for each category.

3.1.2 My role in the LANGUAGES project

I was invited to become a co-researcher of the LANGUAGES research project in the academic year of 2022 – 2023 and I have taken active part in the data collection and analysis in the first data collection cycle. My role in the LANGUAGES project was to conduct data collection through classroom video recordings of English and French lessons in Norway and England in addition to collecting student surveys and language proficiency tests. By taking part in the project as a co-researcher, I was part of the research team (Brevik, 2022a). Throughout the data collection, I collected data from half of the classrooms in Norway and England. At one school in Norway, I was also responsible for collecting and following up on parental consent. After filming, my responsibilities included the safe storage of the video recording equipment and securing and importing the data from the participating schools to the Teaching Learning Video Lab (TLVlab) at the University of Oslo. I was also responsible for editing the videos I had filmed to align with the GDPR privacy regulations. This included editing any footage where

non-consenting students or a school name was captured on the video. In addition, I initiated and engaged in the development of a model of language diversity (LD) among students and classes.

3.2 My MA research design

For my MA study, I have chosen a mixed methods (MM) research design, including quantitative and qualitative data and analysis. As my aim was to investigate the use of different languages in the classroom, including student resources and teacher beliefs, I wanted to compare video recordings to the reported linguistic repertoire of the students, as well as the beliefs of teachers in relation to their students' languages as a resource in the English classroom. I used the Ungspråk student survey, which included mainly closed answers (e.g. Do you learn French at school?) and some open questions (e.g. which languages the students reported to know). The video recordings comprised qualitative observation data, which I analysed both qualitatively (e.g. characteristics of classroom talk) and quantitatively (e.g. time used for each language). Finally, I analysed the teacher interviews qualitatively. This mixed methods approach is particularly suitable for researching complex social phenomena like education and classroom contexts (Brevik & Mathé, 2021; Greene, 2007). By integrating qualitative and quantitative data and analysis, I have been able to look for both corroboration and divergence in the data, which may provide a more holistic picture of language use in the classroom compared to either method alone (Brevik, 2022b; Brevik & Mathé, 2021).

Figure 3.1 gives a brief overview of my research design, including the overarching research question, the methods I have used, the data material and analysis.
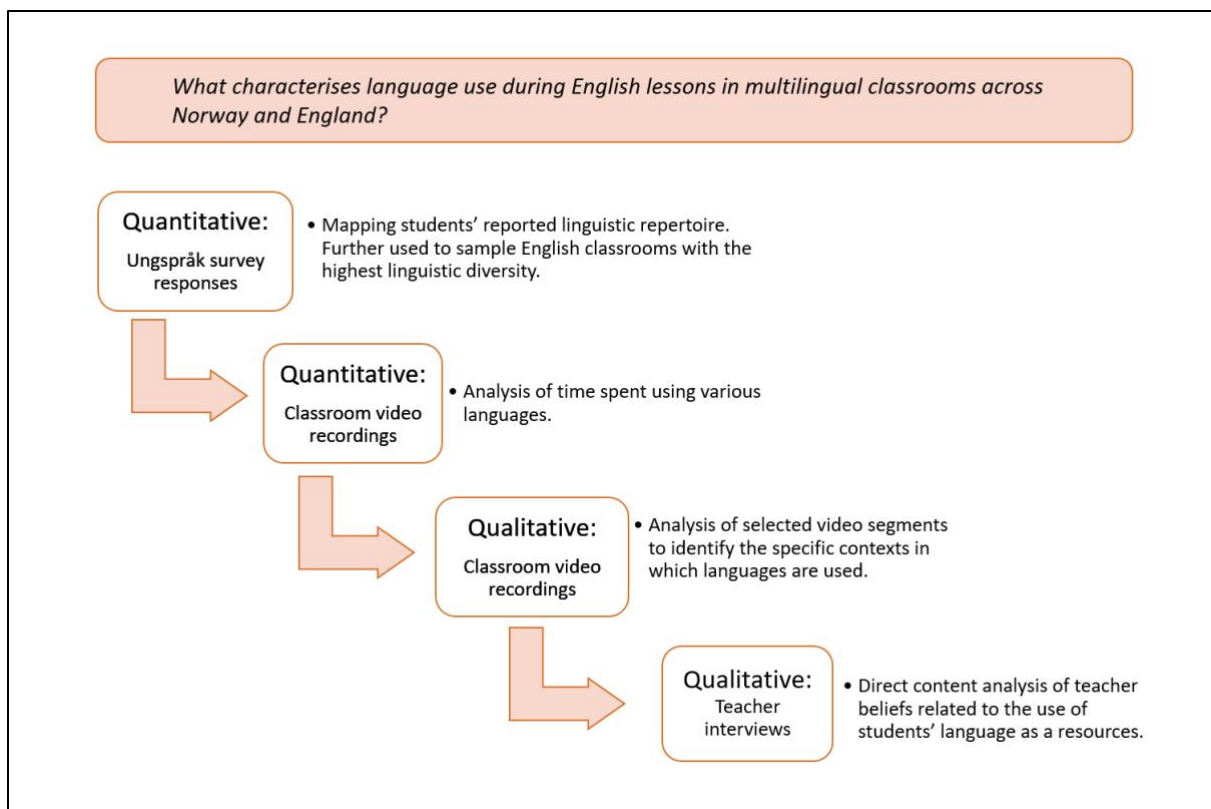
Figure 3.1. An overview of my mixed methods research design

My first unit of analysis is students' reported linguistic repertoire as expressed in the Ungspråk survey. My aim with analysing these survey answers is to identify the languages that exist within the English classrooms, and in turn to identify the most multilingual classrooms in each country in the material. My second unit of analysis is language use in the classroom. I first, focus on a quantitative analysis of the time classes spend using various languages. Second, I qualitatively analyse selected video segments to identify the specific contexts in which these languages are utilized. Finally, the third unit of analysis centres around teachers' beliefs related to the use of students' language resources in English lessons.

3.2.1 MA sampling procedure

In my MA study, I have decided to narrow my focus to English lessons in two contexts, England, and Norway. Given the high English proficiency of Norwegian students and the increasing prevalence of English in Norway (e.g. Brevik et al., 2016; Rindal, 2020), it is possible to assume that English classes in Norway are more similar to English classrooms in England, where English is the official language than to English as a foreign language classroom as in France, making the two contexts an interesting comparison. As shown in section 3.1.1 the

LANGUAGES project sampled a total of eight English classrooms in both Norway and England (*n*=16), which is my main sample and will be used to answer RQ1, see Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Overview of my main sample, including student survey data

Country	English classes	Student surveys
Norway	8	175
England	8	173
Total	**16**	**348**

I used the Ungspråk student survey responses from all 16 English classrooms (*n*=348) to investigate the linguistic diversity among student in these English classes, I identified a sub-sample comprising the four classrooms with the highest reported linguistic diversity in each country (*n*=8), which will then be used to answer RQ2 and RQ3, see Table 3.3. I am particularly interested in classrooms with students who report a high linguistic repertoire, as these students are more likely to use multiple languages in the classroom. Table 3.3 gives an overview of the sub-sample, including country, English classes, video recordings, and teacher interviews.

Table 3.3 Overview of my sub-sample, including video recordings and teacher interviews

Country	English class	Video recordings (English lessons)	Teachers interviews (pseudonyms)
Norway	N.Class#2	4 lessons	Selda
Norway	N.Class#4	4 lessons	Len
Norway	N.Class#5	4 lessons	Helle
Norway	N.Class#8	4 lessons	Steinar
England	E.Class#2	4 lessons	Joanne
England	E.Class#6	4 lessons	Leah
England	E.Class#7	4 lessons	Ria
England	E.Class#8	4 lessons	Valentina
Total	**8 classrooms**	**32 lessons**	**8 teacher interviews**

Note: Of the 32 lessons, substitute teachers were present in five. Only the main teachers were interviewed.

3.3 Data material

The data material of my MA study consists of 348 student responses to the Ungspråk surveys, 32 video-recoded English lessons, and 8 teacher interviews from the LANGUAGES project. In this section, I will explain the standards and procedures deployed by LANGUAGES to collect the data material I have chosen to use in my MA study. I have included this information to provide the reader with an understanding of the data collection process, which will increase transparency (Befring, 2015) and hopefully provide a more comprehensive overview and understanding of the data collection.

3.3.1 Ungspråk student survey

The LANGUAGES project chose to employ the validated Ungspråk student survey (Haukås et al., 2021) which was adapted to the project and translated into English and French and piloted. The aim of using the Ungspråk survey in my MA thesis is to provide a systematic overview of all students' reported linguistic repertoires. In my sampled English classes, the Ungspråk survey was given to all consenting students. The survey comprised three sections, in which the students were asked a combination of closed and open questions about their relationship to the English language, their opinion on languages and language learning, and their perception of being multilingual (Haukås et al., 2021). For my MA study, I chose to include four items from the Ungspråk survey as the main data source to map the linguistic repertoire of each student in the sampled English classrooms, aiming to answer RQ1:

> **Item 1:** How many years have you known English?
> **Item 2:** Do you learn French at school?
> **Item 3:** Do you know any OTHER languages?
> > Please name all other languages you know. You can include languages you use with your family, other languages you learn now or have learnt in school, and any other language you know in any way. It does not matter how well you know these languages. Please list them here:
> **Item 4:** Are YOU multilingual? Please explain why you think you are multilingual:

Items 1 and 2 are closed questions with a predetermined list of possible responses, while items 3 and 4 are open questions, which provide the students with a space to construct their own responses. Open-ended questions have the advantage of allowing respondents to express themselves freely without being limited by predetermined options. This approach can reveal

nuanced differences in responses from different students (Frønes & Pettersen, 2021; Grønmo, 2015). When asking students about their languages, the use of open questions has the added benefit of providing information about what students perceive as a language and offer an overview of languages the students report to know (Haukås, 2023).

3.3.2 Classroom video recordings

The LANGUAGES project chose to collect classroom video recordings to gain insight into naturally occurring language instruction, using a video design from prior research projects (Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Klette et al., 2017). The use of classroom video recording as data material is gaining popularity in classroom research, primarily due to its ability to facilitate precise, comprehensive, and subtle analysis of teaching and learning processes (Blikstad-Balas & Klette, 2021). The aim of using the video recordings for my MA study is to systematically examine which languages were used in the multilingual classrooms in my sub-sample, aiming to answer RQ2.

The video design in LANGUAGES functions as a window into the classroom. The design relied on two microphones and two cameras recording simultaneously the same lesson. A small camera was placed at the back of the classroom facing the teacher and another in front of the classroom, focusing primarily on the students. The teacher wore one microphone and the other was placed in the middle of the classroom to capture the students (Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Klette et al., 2017). Additionally, two dictaphones were placed on students' desks around the classroom in order to capture student-to-student interaction as well as sound from the entire classroom in case of technical difficulties with the main equipment. This video design provided reasonably good video and audio recordings of the whole classroom and teacher-student interactions (Brevik & Rindal, 2020).

Strict procedures and standards established in the LANGUAGES project were followed before, during and after the video-recorded observations. Filming in six of the classrooms, meant that I was sitting in the back of the room, simultaneously watching both videos and listening to the audio while recording. This enabled me to observe the interactions within the entire classroom, including those between the teacher and students and those between students. Additionally, being present in the classroom allowed me to ensure that the technical equipment was functioning properly. The lessons varied in duration, with an average length of about 60 minutes. Using the video-recorded observations as data material enabled me to observe some

of the lessons in my sub-sample in real time, and to return to all the video data in this sample multiple times to see if explanations and interpretations made sense (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

3.3.3 Teacher interviews

The LANGUAGES project collected teacher interviews from consenting teachers after the filming period in each school. The teacher interviews allowed a thorough and systematic investigation of teachers' perceptions of effective classroom instruction. The interviews focused on instruction that teachers found more or less helpful in fostering language learning and on whether and how such instruction related to students' linguistic repertoires.

I selected two questions from the teacher interview guide in order to explore whether the eight English teachers in my sub-sample were aware of their students' linguistic repertoires and their beliefs concerning the use of students' languages as a resource to foster English language learning. The interviews were semi-structured (Creswell, 2014), and used an interview guide with pre-determined questions, but allowing the interviewer to ask additional questions during the interview process. To facilitate comfortable, deeper, and more flexible conversations about the teachers' teaching practices, the interviews were conducted in English in England and Norwegian in Norway in line with suggestions by Richard (2015). Aiming to answer RQ3, I used two questions from the interviews:

> Do your students in this class speak languages other than French or English?
> Do you make use of this in your teaching in any way?

The teacher interviews were conducted in their entirety by other members of the LANGUAGES team, by researchers from their respective country. However, I transcribed the selected segments of the sampled interviews and translated the Norwegian interviews into English for the purpose of this MA study.

3.4 Data analysis

In this section, I present the procedures I have used to analyse the data material in order to answer RQ 1-3. In step 1, the Ungspråk student survey responses were categorized and analysed to identify the linguistic diversity in all 16 English classrooms in Norway and England. In step 2, the video-recorded English lessons from the eight English classes in my sub-sample were

coded and analysed using an analytical framework for time stamping of languages developed by Brevik and Rindal (2020). In step 3, direct content analysis of teacher interviews was used to explore the beliefs of the eight English teachers in my sub-sample concerning their perceptions of their students' linguistic repertoires and how to use them in the English classroom as a resource. In the following, I outline my steps of analysis.

3.4.1 Step 1: Categorisation of student survey responses

As I wanted to investigate language use in multilingual classrooms, analysing the Ungspråk survey in order to determine linguistic diversity was my first step aiming to answer RQ1: *What characterizes students' reported linguistic repertoires and linguistic diversity in 16 English classrooms in Norway and England?*

In order to determine linguistic diversity, I used information from the Ungspråk student survey to obtain an overview of students' reported linguistic repertoires. In collaboration with another MA student, we initiated a linguistic diversity model. As co-researchers, we then developed the LANGUAGES linguistic diversity model along with other team members, based on four survey items in the Ungspråk survey to determine the level of linguistic diversity on the student and classroom levels (Brevik et al., 2023; Fohr-Prigent, et al., 2023). The categorization was based on two criteria: (a) the percentage of students with reported knowledge of four or more reported languages, and (b) the number of unique languages in the classroom as reported by the students.

To assess the degree of linguistic diversity in each classroom, we undertook the task of identifying and counting the number of languages reported by each student. We accomplished this by first utilizing the four survey items presented in Table 3.4 to identify and count the number of reported languages for each student. Our focus was on official or politically recognized languages. Thus, when a student mentioned a specific dialect of a language, such as Mexican Spanish or Brazilian Portuguese, it was not considered a unique language but rather a variety of a language. Moreover, constructed languages like Klingon from the Star Trek series were also excluded from this analysis.

Table 3.4. Overview of the four selected Ungspråk items used in the LANGUAGES linguistic diversity model (Fohr-Prigent, et al., 2023)

Items from Ungspråk survey	Language is listed if:
Item 1: How many years have you known English? Response options: Less than 1 year 1-3 years 4-8 years 9-11 years My whole life	If a student selected "1-3 years" or higher, then English would be listed as part of their linguistic repertoire.
Item 2: Do you learn French at school? Response options: Yes / No	If a student selected "yes", then French would be listed as part of their linguistic repertoire.
Item 3: Do you know any OTHER languages? Please name all other languages you know. You can include languages you use with your family, other languages you learn now or have learnt in school, and any other language you know in any way. It does not matter how well you know these languages. Please list them here:	Each language a student listed here would be added to the student's linguistic repertoire if it is an official or politically recognized language. To determine this, we searched governmental websites and articles for each listed language. Since the item was open-ended, students were at liberty to report any language they were familiar with, and some specified their level of proficiency in each language. Occasionally, students would indicate that they knew a language "a little", in which case we added the language to their linguistic repertoire in our model, due to the subjective

	understanding of what qualifies as knowing "a little" of a language. Conversly, when the students themselves specified a quantifiable limit to their language knowledge, we excluded the language from their linguistic repertoire. For instance, if a student reported, "I know English, Spanish, and French, but I can count to 10 in Korean, Chinese and German," we would not add Korean, Chinese or German to their linguistic repertoire.
Item 4: Are YOU multilingual? Please explain why you think you are multilingual:	If a student selected "yes" and added other languages than those in Items 1-3 to their explanation, then the reported language(s) would be added to the student's linguistic repertoire.

Once we had analysed the four selected items from the Ungspråk survey and the number of languages reported by each student had been counted, the students were sorted into four categories, see Table 3.5. Category 1 consists of students who reported only one language, Category 2 includes those who reported two languages, Category 3 comprises students who reported three languages, and Category 4 consists of those who reported four or more languages.

Table 3.5. The LANGUAGES linguistic diversity (LD) model

Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4
Student reported only one language	Student reported two languages	Student reported three languages	Student reported four or more languages

After categorizing students in each class into their respective language categories, we calculated the percentage of students in each category for each class. Next, we compiled a list of the distinct languages present in each class to determine the total number of unique languages in each classroom. The LANGUAGES linguistic diversity model is established by considering

both the percentage of students reporting to know four or more languages and the number of unique languages reported by the students in the classroom.

Due to variations in school and societal contexts between countries, we classified classes from each country separately. All eight Norwegian English classrooms ended up in categories 3 or 4, reflecting an extensive linguistic repertoire among Norwegian students mentioned. In England, the percentage of students in categories 3 and 4 was lower than in Norway, however, Category 4 allowed for clear distinctions and nuanced comparisons between classes in both countries. We therefore, identified the most multilingual classes using category 4 by reporting the percentage of students in each class in this category.

Based on the LANGUAGES linguistic diversity model, I sampled the four classes with the highest reported linguistic diversity among students in category 4 in each country, equalling to half of the sampled English classes from each country. These eight English classes created my sub-sample for the video-recorded lessons and teacher interviews.

3.4.2 Step 2: Coding of classroom video observation

The analysis of the video-recorded lessons in my sub-sample of eight English classes, four in Norway and four in England, was my second step. I used the LANGUAGES analytical framework by (Fohr-Prigent et al., 2023) for my analyses, which builds on and extends a model by Brevik and Rindal (2020) I coded the 32 video-recorded lessons in the sub-sample accordingly, using the software program *InterAct*. Coding involves identifying and labelling data segments, which can provide different angles, lenses, and filters for analysing the data (Saldaña, 2016). Video data coding is usually divided into deductive and inductive coding (Saldaña, 2016). In the study by Brevik and Rindal (2020), a deductive coding approach was utilized, whereby pre-existing coding frameworks were applied to the data material.

Language codes: In my analysis, I used four specific codes for language use in the classroom: first language (L1), target language (TL), both (L1 and TL) and other. The language code *L1* was applied when either a student or a teacher spoke in the language of schooling, which would be Norwegian in Norway and English in England. The *TL* code was activated for the Norwegian classrooms when someone spoke English. The code *both* was applied in the Norwegian classrooms when both *L1* and *TL* were used simultaneously and each language lasted less than 3 seconds: "For instance, these interactions occurred when a teacher asked a question in

English, a student gave a brief one-word response in Norwegian, and the teacher offered an equally brief response in English, or vice versa" (Brevik & Rindal, 2020, p. 9). Lastly, the language code *other* was activated when any other language apart from L1 and TL was uttered during the English lessons in Norway and England. The language codes are duration codes, meaning they are applied to the entire duration of teacher and student talk during English lessons. When either the teacher or a student spoke, a code was activated, and it was deactivated when they stopped talking. The speech that was coded involved the teacher's talk, including student-to-teacher talk, as well as student-to-student interactions that were captured by the microphones (Brevik et al., 2023; Brevik & Rindal, 2020).

Organisational codes: In order to capture student-to-student interactions that were not captured by the classroom microphones, I used the dictaphones that were placed in front of students to examine whether other languages occurred during conversations between students, especially in student conversation during group or pair work. I have therefore applied three additional duration codes to the video analysis to capture the classroom organisation: Whole class, Individual and Pair/Group. The Pair/Group code was activated whenever the teacher explicitly initiated pair or group discussions. After coding one lesson from the video recordings, I would listen to the timestamped pair/group sessions on the dictaphones to check which languages students conversed in and used the same four language codes as mentioned above. This approach allowed me to gain a more detailed and comprehensive understanding of actual language use within each classroom, beyond the teacher-student interactions captured on the microphones in the video recorded lessons.

Frequency codes: Along with the established codes from the analytical framework, I applied two additional frequency codes: Encourage and Comment. The *Encourage* code was used to capture instances where teachers encouraged students to use other languages than the target language, without using those languages themselves. The *Comment* code was utilized when either the teacher or a student made a remark about other languages in the classroom without using or encouraging them. These two codes complemented the LANGUAGES analytical framework.

3.4.3 Step 3: Content analysis of teacher beliefs

In step 3, I wanted to investigate teachers' beliefs about the use of students' languages as a resource in the English classroom. I listened through all the English teacher interviews from Norway and England and then employed content analysis of the interviews of the eight English teachers in my sub-sample. I used the transcription of the teacher interviews related to the questions mentioned in section 3.4.3. to develop categories. A category can be described as "a grouping of things, phenomena, or entities that are somehow considered to be equivalent" (Kvernbekk, 2013, p. 40). I used an inductive approach when creating the categories for the interviews, meaning that the categories were developed as I analysed the transcripts in search of common themes and patterns. I developed four categories, presented in Table 3.6. I highlighted responses in the transcripts in four different colours to identify each category (cf. Eriksen & Svanes, 2021) and selected extracts to represent the teachers' attitudes towards their use of students' linguistic repertoires during English lessons.

Table 3.6 Categorisation used in the analysis of teacher interviews

Interview questions	Categories	Explanation
Do your students in this class speak languages other than French or English? Do you make use of this in your teaching in any way?	Teacher beliefs	General beliefs about the use of other languages in the English classroom.
	Reported practices: Use of home languages	Teachers explain whether they incorporate or encourage the use of other languages for students with other home languages than Norwegian or English.
	Reported practices: Etymology and international words	Teachers explain whether they or students compare English with other languages when learning about the origin of words or international words

		(loanwords that occur in several languages).
	Professional development	Teachers express a wish to develop multilingual pedagogies about how to incorporate other languages into English teaching.

3.5 Researcher credibility

This section will cover the reliability, validity and ethical considerations of my MA study. To establish credibility as a researcher, it is important to employ rigorous methods for collecting high-quality data, which is then carefully analysed with a focus on ensuring both reliability and validity (Patton, 1999; Tashakkori et al., 2020). Validity and reliability are therefore crucial components that all research projects and studies aim to achieve. Reliability refers to "the accuracy and transparency needed to enable replication of the research", while validity refers to "the trustworthiness of the inferences drawn from the data" (Brevik, 2015. p. 46). In order for a study to have credibility, it must encompass both reliability and validity.

3.5.1. Reliability

According to Tashakkori et al. (2020), research reliability refers to the consistency, stability, or repeatability of the results of a study, indicating that if the study were replicated, the same results would be obtained. However, qualitative research, which comprises a large portion of my MA study, is inherently impossible to replicate. As noted by Brevik (2015), "research where people are involved can never be fully replicated; for instance, the atmosphere in a classroom will never be identically recreated and identical utterances will not be uttered" (p. 46).

All the data material collected by the LANGUAGES team employed in my study; specifically the Ungspråk survey, the video recordings, and the teacher interviews, are piloted and executed in accordance with LANGUAGES standards. The validated Ungspråk questionnaire, utilized in this MA study, meets strict standards for reliability and validity. This robust instrument is created to investigate learners' multilingual identity within school settings (Haukås et al., 2021).

Additionally, I used the LANGUAGES analytical framework by (Fohr-Prigent et al., 2023) for my video analyses, which builds on end extends a model by Brevik and Rindal (2020) that have been validated as an analytical instrument. By adapting previously established codes, similar interpretations of language use in the classroom can be achieved across studies.

Throughout the analysis process of the data material, I have had the opportunity to discuss my interpretations with my fellow MA student, doctoral research fellows, the project leader, my supervisor, and other researchers linked to the LANGUAGES project. Additionally, I could repeatedly review the video recordings, the dictaphones and the recorded teacher interviews by pausing and examining different segments utilized in my study to assess whether explanations and interpretations were reasonable (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This enhances the reliability of my research.

3.5.2. Validity

In this section, I will account for the strategies employed to enhance the validity, trustworthiness, of my MA study. Research validity refers to "research that is plausible, credible, trustworthy, and therefore defensible" (Johnson, 2013, p. 299). Validity does not pertain to the data itself, but rather to the researcher's evaluation and whether the inferences made from the study's outcomes are correct and truthful (Brevik, 2015; Tashakkori et al., 2020). To ensure validity, it is essential for the researcher to accurately reflect the participants' realities of the social phenomena and be credible to them (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

I utilized triangulation as a validation approach, which involves searching for convergence and divergence among the data sources (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Tashakkori et al., 2020). Given that my MA study consists of various data sources such as the Ungspråk survey, video recordings, and teacher interviews, I argue that these sources provide the possibility to cross-check conclusions derived from each data source. According to Tashakkori et al. (2020) examining a research topic from various angles and perspectives is both beneficial and essential, regardless of whether the findings converge or diverge. In my MA study, the video recordings enabled me to observe authentic language use in the classroom, while the student surveys offered insight into reported language repertoires among students that may not be evident in the videos. Moreover, the teacher interviews provided a different perspective, revealing the teachers' beliefs and experiences behind the practices observed in the videos, allowing me to

gain a more detailed and holistic understanding of language use in the observed English classrooms. As a result, triangulation can help reduce the risk of validity threats (Patton, 1999).

In addition, I have used peer-debrief as a validation approach (Tashakkori et al., 2020). To ensure, transparency and reflection, The LANGUAGES linguistic diversity model has been presented at an international conference in front of researchers and academics within the field of educational research (Fohr-Prigent et al., 2023).

In order to ensure external validity, or generalizability, as defined by Johnson (2017) as "the degree to which the findings of a study can be applied to and across different populations of individuals, settings, times, outcomes, and variations in treatments" (p. 291), I utilized a large sample consisting of all student surveys collected from 16 English classrooms in Norway and England in the LANGUAGES material, as well as 32 video-recorded lessons and 8 teacher interviews. Even though external validity tends to be a limitation in qualitative research, I have observed samples from classrooms from different regions, socio-economic, and linguistic backgrounds, as well as teachers with different teaching experiences and language expertise. Therefore, it could be suggested that other multilingual classrooms might display similar language use practices to those described in my MA study.

Ensuring the trustworthiness of the data and this MA study involves addressing researcher bias, which is a crucial factor according to Patton (1999), who states that "credibility of qualitative findings can be hampered by concerns that the analyst has tailored the results to fit their pre-existing predispositions and biases" (p. 653). To minimize this bias, I must exercise researcher reflexivity, meaning that I have to recognize my position within this study and self-disclose assumptions and biases I may hold (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Given that this study involves cross-national comparative research, it is crucial to acknowledge that I am a Norwegian researcher comparing classroom practices in Norway and England. The aim of this study is not to portray a practice as better or more suitable than the other, but rather to explore, understand and explain how societal and cultural aspects shape educational practices across countries (Luoto, 2023). During cross-national research, it is crucial to consider the cultural context and the educational policies that may impact a teacher's practice (Osborn, 2004). I try to minimize this validity concern, by disclosing the contextual differences in English teaching between Norway and England and consistently contextualise my findings in light of these differences.

3.5.3 Ethical considerations

Throughout the data collection, processing of the data and writing of this thesis, research ethics has been a crucial part in order to conduct reliable and responsible research. The University of Oslo is the leading institution for the LANGUAGES project and sought ethics approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD/Sikt) in Norway, which was subsequently followed by all partner universities seeking ethical approval from their respective ethics committees at the university or regional level. This approach ensured that contextual requirements were considered in each country. Prior to data collection, teachers, students, and parents provided their voluntary written consent in line with the local and national requirements (NESH, 2022). The project leader for LANGUAGES developed the consent forms in consultation with the NSD/Sikt, and they were provided in multiple languages for students and parents to select the data sources they wished to participate in, with the option to withdraw their consent from the project at any time. Each country team adapted the necessary forms to their context. Furthermore, initial voluntary consent served only as a foundation for protecting students' privacy, as the researchers present in the classroom consistently asked for students' process consent. By renewing consent during the course of the project, one assured to respect students' agency and autonomy (Beiler, 2021; Sieber & Tolich, 2013).

To protect the privacy of non-consenting students, the project members had established procedures in place. If a student chose not to participate in the project or video recording, the researcher consulted with participating teachers to position them outside the camera angle. While all students consented to *in situ* observation, some declined to be part of the video recordings. These students were carefully positioned in a blind zone of the classroom that was not covered by the cameras, and any instances of them being captured on camera were noted down by the researcher in place. Once the video observation was complete, the video recordings were sent to the TLVlab at the University of Oslo for editing where any non-consenting participants were meticulously blurred in the footage to ensure their anonymity.

To comply with General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) requirements, all participants were anonymised, and each student, teacher, class and school were assigned a specific code in the data sources and this study, so the participants are not identifiable. The data collection was carried out on password-protected devices and the data were securely transferred to the LANGUAGES platform at TLVlab. The LANGUAGES project established a data-sharing agreement between the participating institutions, wherein the project team have access to the

data via a secure data protection system. The project owner, the University of Oslo, has the responsibility to store the data in the project's secure storage space. The research team members are granted access to relevant areas of the dataset via a multi-factor authentication process. This shared and secured platform enables researchers from different countries to collaborate effectively and ethically (cf. Haugen & Skilbrei, 2021).

4. Findings

In this chapter, I will present my findings from the data analysis. First, I present the extent of linguistic diversity among students in the 16 English classrooms I have studied in Norway and England. Second, I will provide an overview of the languages used in each classroom from my sub-sample, with a particular focus on the use of other languages than English and Norwegian. Last, I will present the teachers' beliefs about the use of students' language repertoires in the English classroom in both countries. Based on the analysis, three main findings were identified: (1) All the sampled English classrooms portrayed a degree of linguistic diversity; however, the characteristics of a multilingual classroom differed between the two countries. (2) As expected, English was used predominantly in all English classes in both countries, with limited evidence of other language use. However, there were occasional instances where teachers or students either used other languages, encouraged, or commented on the use of other languages, especially during group or pair work. (3) The degree to which English teachers used students' languages as a resource varied across teachers and countries. In England, there was a general belief among English teachers in this study that the use of other languages was particularly important for students who had English as a second or additional language. On the other hand, English teachers in Norway typically refrained from using other languages in English teaching and instead prefered to use students' linguistic repertoires in foreign language teaching.

4.1 Linguistic diversity in English classrooms

I analysed the extent of linguistic diversity in 16 English classrooms in Norway and England, aiming to answer RQ1: *What characterizes students' reported linguistic repertoires and linguistic diversity in 16 English classrooms in Norway and England?*

First, I categorized all student survey responses from English classes in Norway and England and found that all classes had a substantial amount of reported linguistic diversity. Based on 348 students' responses, I identified 69 distinct languages, with 41 reported languages in Norway and 50 reported languages in England, as visualized in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2. In Norway, the three most reported languages after Norwegian and English were Spanish, German, and French, which are the most common foreign languages offered in Norwegian schools. Swedish and Danish were subsequently reported, followed by Arabic, Russian, Italian, Chinese, Polish, Croatian and Turkish. See Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Word cloud of reported languages among students in English classes in Norway

In England, English was reported by all students, and half of them reported French. The subsequent languages were Spanish, German, and Italian. Additionally, there was a number of students reporting Hindi, Arabic, Polish, Punjabi, and Portuguese. See Figure 4.2

Figure 4.2 Word cloud of reported languages among students in English classes in England

To further assess the linguistic diversity of English students in Norway and England, students were divided into four categories, based on the LANGUAGES linguistic diversity model, in terms of the number of languages they reported knowing: one, two, three, or four or more, as presented in Table 4.1. In Norway, the majority of students fell under Categories 3 and 4, with 49.7% stated that they knew three languages, and 44.6% reported that they knew four or more languages. The remaining 5.7% fell under Category 2, reported they only knew Norwegian and English. In England, the distribution of students across all four categories was more balanced. The majority of students, 38.2%, reported they knew two languages, while 20.9% reported three languages and 21.4% reported they knew four or more languages. The remaining 19.7% of English students who participated in the Ungspråk survey reported knowing only English.

Table 4.1 Percentage distribution of students' linguistic repertoire. LANGUAGES linguistic diversity model (Fohr-Prigent et al., 2023)

	Category 1	**Category 2**	**Category 3**	**Category 4**
	Student reports knowing only one language	Student reports knowing two languages	Student reports knowing three languages	Student reports knowing four or more languages
Norway	0%	5,71%	49,71%	44,57%
England	19,65%	38,15%	20,80%	21,38%

In order to display the variety of linguistic diversity among the sampled classrooms in Norway and England, Tables 4.2 and 4.3 show the percentage of students in each class that reported they know four languages or more and the number of unique language in the classroom. In Norway, the classes with the highest percentage in Category 4 ranged from 46 – 64% with 14 to 17 unique languages in each classroom (see Table 4.2). The classes on the lower end ranged from 25 – 45% with 10-13 unique languages, implying that even the classes with the lowest percentage had a substantial number of students who knew four or more languages. In England, the percentage of students who reported four or more languages was noticeably lower compared to English classes in Norway. The English classes with the highest percentage ranged from 22-50%, with 13 to 27 distinct languages (see Table 4.3). Notably, classrooms E.Class#7 and E.Class#8 stood out by having 27 and 20 unique languages, respectively, indicating a particularly high degree of linguistic heterogeneity among the students.

Table 4.2 Overview of linguistic diversity in English classrooms in Norway

N.Class	N#4	N#2	N#5	N#8	N#6	N#1	N#3	N#7
Percentage of students who reported four languages or more	64%	61%	54%	46%	45%	39%	28%	25%
Number of unique languages in the classroom	14	16	17	15	13	11	10	13

Table 4.3 Overview of linguistic diversity in English classrooms in England

E.Class	E#7	E#8	E#2	E#6	E#1	E#4	E#3	E#5
Percentage of students who reported four languages or more	50%	25%	25%	22%	14%	13%	12%	11%
Number of unique languages in the classroom	27	20	16	13	12	16	8	7

The highest level of reported linguistic diversity was observed in the four classes marked in red in Tables 4.2 and 4.3, equalling half of the sampled English classes from each country. Across these eight classes, students reported speaking a total of 59 distinct languages, with 31 languages in English classes in Norway and 46 in English classes in England. These particular classes are further investigated through video observation and teacher interviews.

4.1.1 Main Finding 1: Summary

All sampled English classrooms from Norway and England in the LANGUAGES project portrayed a certain degree of linguistic diversity, although the extent varied across classrooms and between the two countries. English classrooms in Norway portrayed a substantial level of linguistic diversity, primarily because the majority of students reported proficiency in three or more languages. Alongside Norwegian and English, the students predominantly reported

knowing Spanish, German, and French, followed by Danish and Swedish, Arabic, Russian, Italian, Chinese, Polish, Croatian and Turkish. Conversely, English classrooms in England had an overall lower percentage of students who reported four languages or more compared to English classrooms in Norway. The majority of students in England reported proficiency in two languages, while 20% of students reported knowledge of only English. The most commonly reported languages were French, Spanish, and German, followed by Hindi, Arabic, Polish, Punjabi, and Portuguese. Some English classrooms, particularly E.Class#7 and E.Class#8, reported a uniquely high number of languages. Overall, while all the participating English classrooms displayed a degree of linguistic diversity, there were differences in the characteristics of multilingual classrooms between the two countries that could be attributed to contextual factors.

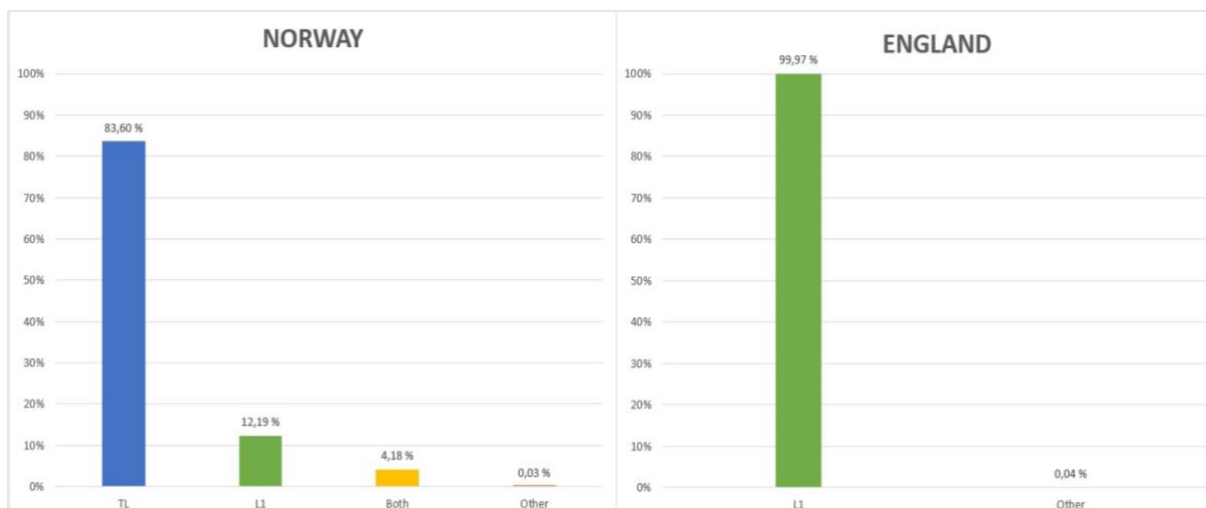## 4.2 Language use in the English classroom

In the following section, I will provide an overview of the languages used in English classrooms in Norway and England with a particular focus on the coded *other* category, aiming to answer RQ2: *Which languages are used within and across 32 English lessons in multilingual classrooms?* The 32 video-recorded English lessons which make up my sub-sample of video data material consisted of 70% spoken language. The remaining 30% of the time, is referred to as "Not coded speech" which are segments in the video that were not coded as language use. This might refer to silent work, inaudible speech between students or audio sound from movies or videos. As previously mentioned (section 3.3.2), the coded spoken time was mainly based on whole class conversations and teacher-student interactions. During group and pair work, it is probable that students engaged in conversations with each other alongside the teacher-student interactions. Although these parallel interactions were not captured in the main video recordings, some conversations were captured using dictaphones. The student-student interactions that were captured through dictaphones will be presented in section 4.2.3. While analysing the coded language use, I calculated the percentage of coded spoken time in each classroom, as represented in Figure 4.3.
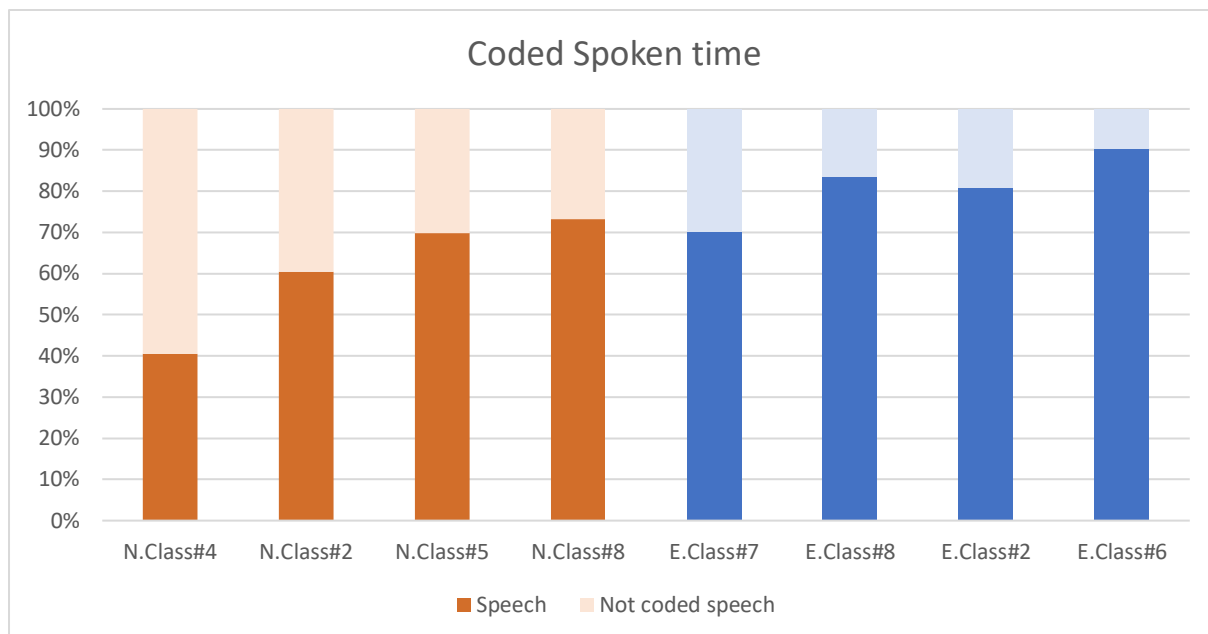
Figure 4.3 Percentage distribution of coded spoken time

Figure 4.3 shows how coded spoken time varied between 41% and 73% in Norway, and between 70% and 90% in England. The overall coded speech ranged from 60% to 90%, except for the Norwegian N.Class#4 which had the lowest percentage of coded speech at 41%. It is important to note that two out of four lessons filmed in this school were used to watch a documentary resulting in fewer opportunities for the teacher and students to speak. Overall, the classes have a high percentage of coded spoken time, which provided a good entrance into analysing the language patterns of each classroom.

Based on the spoken coded time shown in Figure 4.3, I have identified the languages used during English classes where the main English teacher was present, shown in Figure 4.4. Among the 32 video-recorded lessons, 5 lessons in total from Norway and England were taught by substitute teachers, involving three substitute teachers in Norway and one substitute teacher in England. In order to separate regular language patterns used by the main English teacher and the language used during lessons with a substitute teacher, the latter 5 lessons will be presented in a separate graph, shown in Figure 4.5. The findings will be presented on the country level.
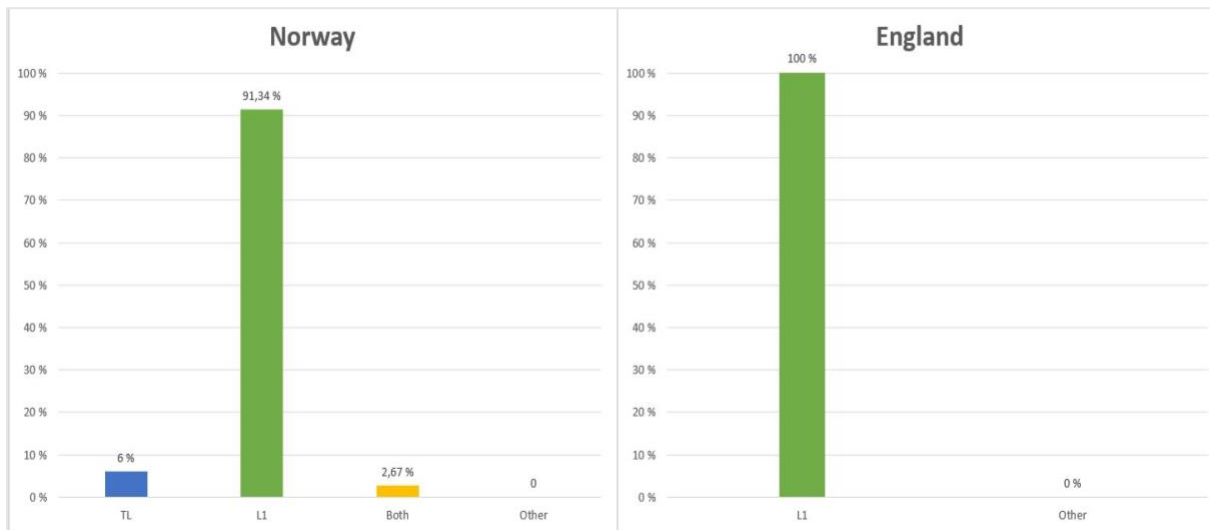
Figure 4.4 Overview of languages spoken with English teachers in Norway and England

As can be seen in Figure 4.4, the predominant languages employed in English classrooms in Norway were English as the target language (TL), and Norwegian, as the language of schooling (L1). English (TL) was used the most across all the classrooms, accounting for an overall percentage of 83.6%, while Norwegian (L1) was utilized to an average extent of 12.19%. For the remaining percentage, the teacher or students drew on *both* languages with few instances of *other* languages. The use of *both*, which consisted of interactions where both English and Norwegian were used simultaneously, had an average percentage of 4.18 %. An instance of *both* is exemplified by a teacher-student interaction where a student asked a question in Norwegian, and the teacher responded in English. The language code *other*, was used the least in all classrooms. A closer analysis of the *other* category will be presented in section 4.2.3.

English classrooms in England used almost exclusively English, the language of schooling (L1). The findings revealed that English was used over 99% of the time in all classrooms. In the remaining percentage, the teacher or students drew on other languages. The use of other languages was captured in all four classrooms in England, with an average percentage of 0.04%. The language codes both and TL were not utilized in the English lessons in England, as there was no target language in these lessons other than their L1 English.

Figure 4.5 Overview of languages spoken during 5 lessons with substitute teachers in Norway and England.

Figure 4.5 reveals a significant shift in language use within English classrooms in Norway when a substitute teacher was present. The prominence of Norwegian (L1) noticeably increased to 91.34%, while the use of English (TL) was reduced to an average of 6%. The use of both languages simultaneously decreased to 2.67%, and there were no instances of other languages being used. This shift suggests that the presence of a substitute teacher markedly influenced language use within the classroom, leading to a stronger reliance on first language of schooling, Norwegian.

In classrooms in England, the language used during the one English lesson with a substitute teacher remained unchanged, with English as the exclusive language of communication. Moreover, there were no instances of incorporating other languages

4.2.1 Use of *other* languages

As stated in the methods chapter (section 3.5.2), the language code *other* was activated when languages other than the target language (TL) or the language of schooling (L1) were used. The use of *other* was below 1% in all classrooms and ranged from 0 to 7 seconds in each lesson both in Norway and England. In Norway, there were no instances of the language code *other*, in N.Class#2 and N.Class#5, while the use of other was fairly low in N.Class#4 and N.Class#8 at 0.02–0.03%. In N.Class#4, the teacher used Spanish for 1.6 seconds during classroom

management, where the teacher said a sentence in English and repeated it in Spanish in order to get students' attention. The use of Spanish was also captured in N.Class#8, where both the students and the teacher used Spanish words during discussions about Latin America, resulting in 2.5 seconds of other speech. The use of other languages was captured in all classrooms in England, with a variation between 0.01% to 0.07%.

Other languages were slightly more often used in classrooms in England than in Norway. In E.Class#7 with the highest amount of coded *other* at approximately 7 seconds, two students were captured speaking Portuguese with each other during a teacher-student conversation (further captured on dictaphones, see 4.2.3.) In E.Class#8, the *other* code was activated when a student spoke Polish, resulting in 4 seconds of speech. In E.Class#6 and E.Class#2, students and teachers used Latin and Greek words during whole class discussions, which amounted to 1.7 seconds at E.Class#6 and 0.8 seconds at E.Class#2.

Similar to findings from previous research (see 2.7.2), my findings from the video-recorded English lessons revealed limited occurrences of other languages. To provide additional insight into the use of other languages, I will present findings from student interactions captured by dictaphones during group and pair activities.

4.2.2 Language use during group and pair discussions

In the following section, I will present the findings from student interaction captured by the dictaphones during group and pair work. In order to look closer into the language use during group and pair work, I coded for classroom organisation of each sampled lesson to identify the amount of time provided for pair/group discussions. Figure 4.7 presents an overview of the overall percentage distribution of classroom organization for all sub-sampled classes in Norway and England.
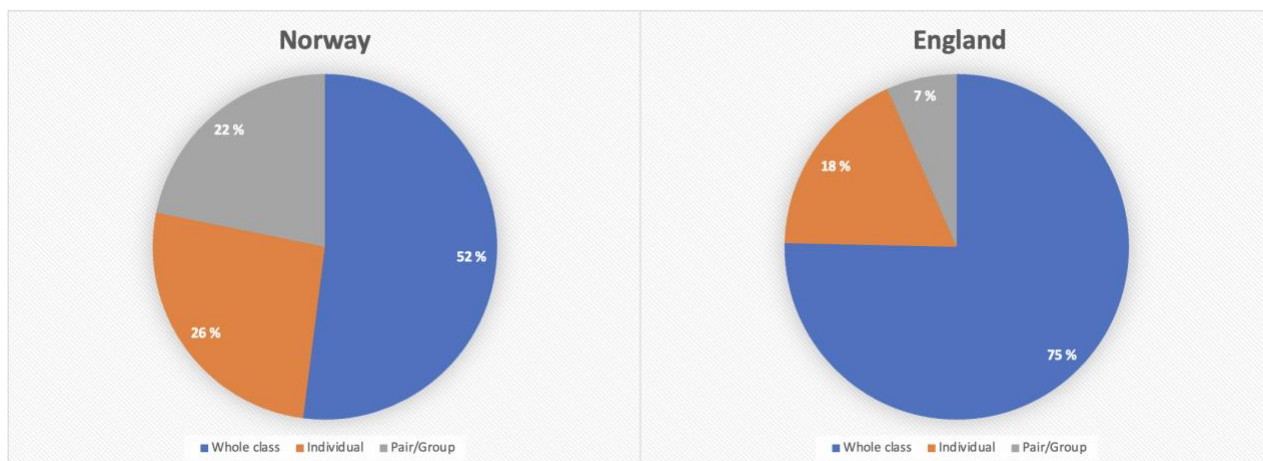
Figure 4.6 Classroom organisation in the sampled eight English classrooms in Norway and England

As can be seen in Figure 4.6, classroom organisation practices vary across the eight English classrooms in Norway and England. In Norway, 52% of the sampled lessons involved whole class teaching, while 26% of the time was allocated to individual work. In contrast, England primarily employed whole class teaching, accounting for 75% of the time, with 18% dedicated to individual work. Pair and group work were the least used approaches in both countries, with Norway employing them 22% of the time and England only 7% of the time. Taking into account the duration of the sampled lessons, the 22% of pair and group work in Norway corresponded to 3 hours and 43 minutes, whereas the 7% of group and pair work in England amounted to 54 minutes of filmed English lessons.

The findings in Figure 4.6 made it possible to identify group and pair work segments for further language coding using the dictaphones. Among these selected segments, only one classroom in each country used *other* languages during student conversation during group work, E.Class#7 in England and N.Class#5 in Norway. Both instances had a substantial amount of conversation in other languages in comparison to findings from the other recorded video lessons, with 6 minutes coded as *other* in England and 1.5 minutes of *other* language use in Norway. The segments in the lessons in which other languages were captured will be further presented in Figures 4.7 and 4.8.
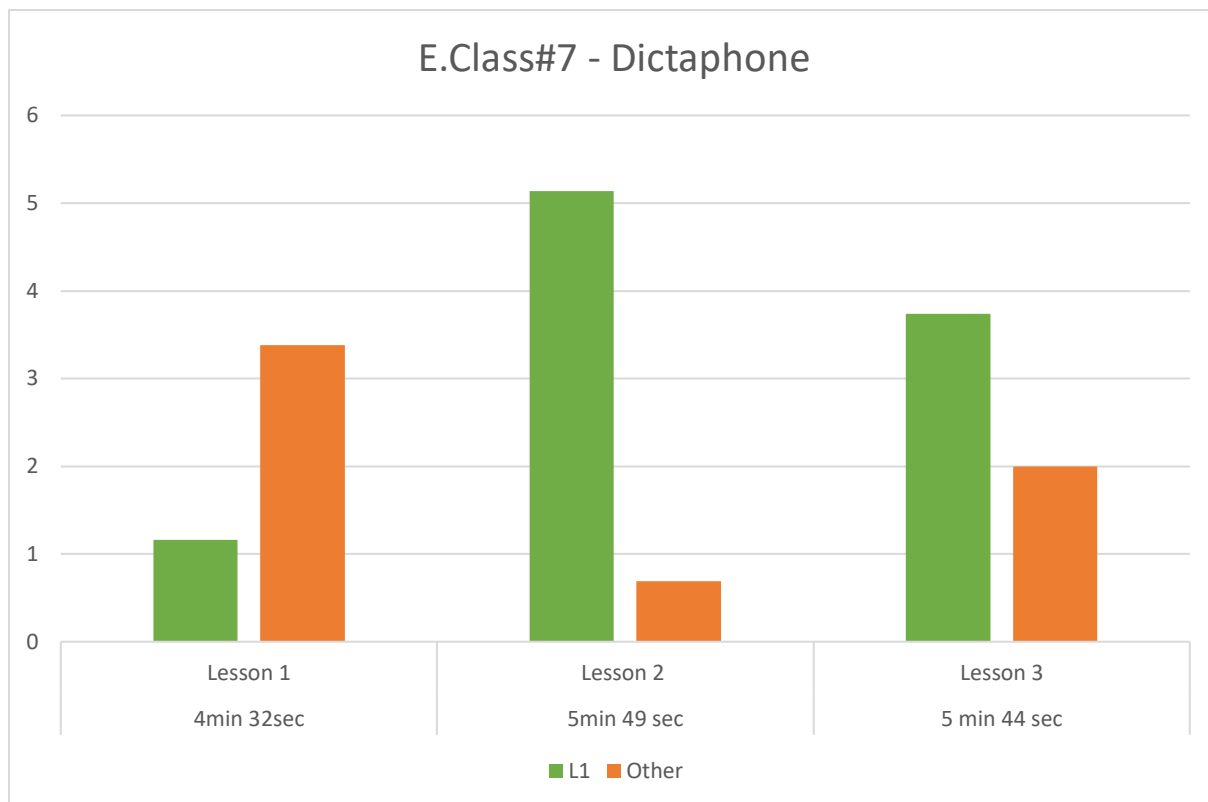
Figure 4.7 "Other" code activated in group/pair work in E.Class#7 in seconds (England)

The use of other languages was identified in three out of four filmed lessons in E.Class#7 in England. As mentioned in section 4.2.1, two students in this class were captured speaking Portuguese with each other during a teacher-student conversation. The dictaphones captured the further conversation between these two students. During lesson 1, the two students spoke exclusively Portuguese with each other about the task provided by the teacher. The instances where English (L1) was captured on the dictaphone were when the students talked to the teacher and the teacher responded to a question. In lesson 2, the amount of Portuguese dropped due to a third student (student A) working with them who did not speak Portuguese. The conversations were mostly in English with a few instances where the two students spoke Portuguese to each other. In the third lesson, the two Portuguese-speaking students were again seated with another student (student B) which resulted in a conversation predominantly in English. This student (student B) was interested in listening to them speaking Portuguese and discussed with them the similarities between Portuguese and Spanish as student B studied Spanish. However, when discussing the task provided by the teacher, student B asked the Portuguese-speaking students to talk in English as she wanted to be included in the conversation.
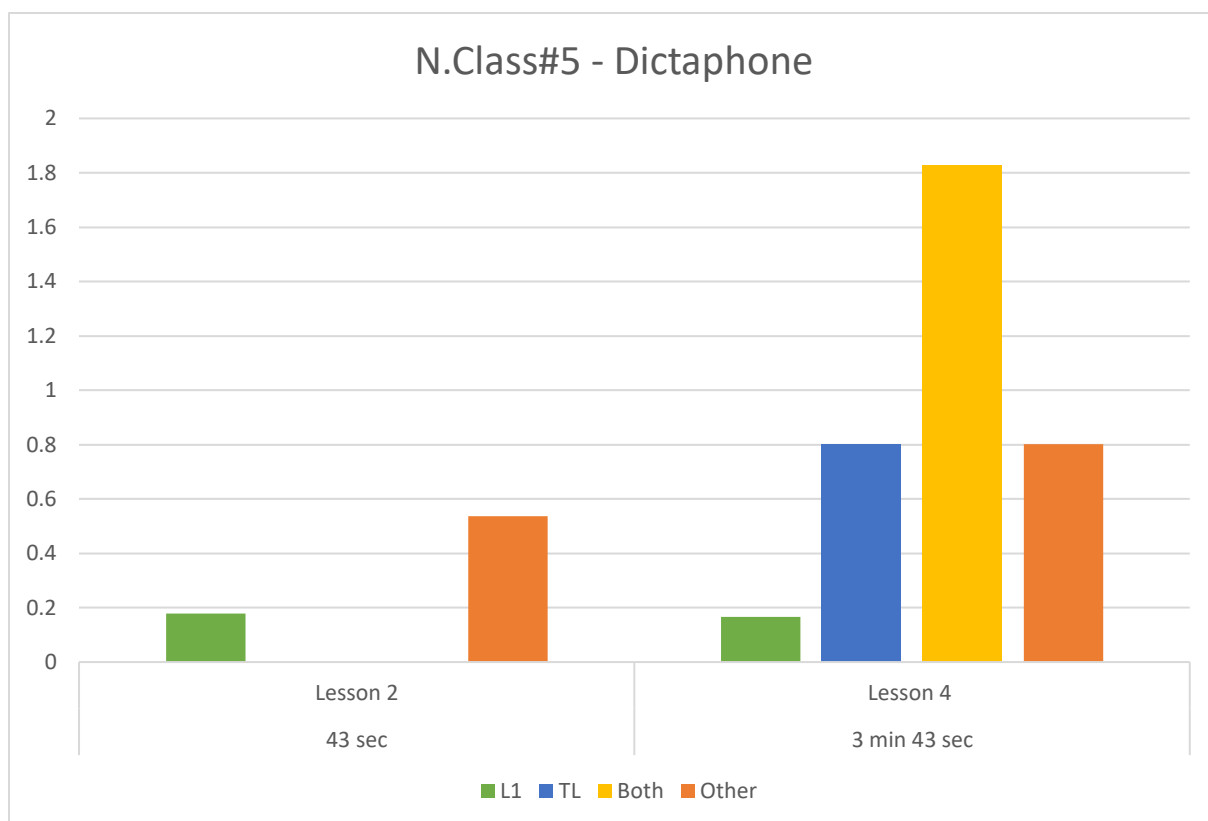
Figure 4. "Other" code activated in group/pair work in N.Class#5 in seconds (Norway)

The other finding from the dictaphones of *other* language use was captured in two lessons from N.Class#5 in Norway. During lesson 2, a short segment of 43 seconds was captured where two students spoke Arabic with each other. In between Arabic sentences, the students used Norwegian words and phrases (represented as L1). In lesson 4, the dictaphone captured a group activity with four students discussing a task provided by the teacher, where several discussions and conversations happened in both Norwegian and English simultaneously. However, in between conversations, one of the Arabic-speaking students turned around to a table behind her and spoke Arabic with the other student.

4.2.3 Teachers encouragement or comment on the use of other languages

In this section, I will present the findings that emerged from the codes *Encourage* and *Comment*. As mentioned in the methods chapter (section 3.5.2), the *Encourage* code was used to capture instances where teachers encouraged students to use other languages than the target language, while the *Comment* code was utilized when either the teacher or a student made a remark about other languages. In the 32 sampled video-recorded English lessons, I identified three instances

of *Encourage* and three instances of *Comment*. Five of these were from English lessons in England and one was from Norway.

To give further insight into how teachers encouraged students to use other languages, I will present transcribed excerpts from the video-recorded lessons. Excerpt 4A shows an instance from E.Class#7 (Lesson 1), 4B shows an instance from E.Class#6 (Lesson 4), and 4C shows an example from E.Class#2 (Lesson 3).

Excerpt 4A   E.Class#7: Teacher encouraged the use of Portuguese (England)

Student:	Miss, I don't see the point of the mic being here because we just speaking Portuguese[1]
Teacher:	*haha* that's okay, but you can feedback in English. That's all right [student name].
Student:	But I have to translate it all after.
Teacher:	Huh?
Student:	Do I have to translate it all after?
Teacher:	Absolutely, you translate from Portuguese into English

In excerpt 4A, one of the Portuguese-speaking students (see section 4.2.2) questioned the purpose of the dictaphones placed in front of them since they only spoke Portuguese. The teacher acknowledged the use of Portuguese and assured them that it was okay to talk in Portuguese.

She further encouraged them to translate from Portuguese to English to prepare for the whole class discussion.

---

[1] Of note. All students were expressly reminded that they could withdraw their consent to being recorded at any time. In the consecutive lessons, the students who had been recorded were asked to reaffirm their process consent, and they consistently agreed to have the dictaphone placed in front of them (Beiler, 2021; Sieber & Tolich, 2013).

Excerpt 4B   E.Class#6: Teacher encouraged the use of Latin (England)

Teacher: "Malformation" excellent. "Mal" means something terrible, awful, he is
            malformation, again physiognomy. Okay. He is kind of this, yeah,
            deformed appearance, okay?

Student: Mal is Latin.

Teacher: Exactly! Using your Latin there, fantastic!

Looking at excerpt 4B, one can see how the English teacher encouraged and complimented the student in making the connection between Latin and English. The teacher explained the meaning of the word 'malformation' and delved into the definition of the prefix 'Mal'. The student then identified the word as Latin and drew a connection between the two languages.

Excerpt 4C   E.Class#2: Teacher encouraged the use of Greek (England)

Teacher: So just before we move on, let's have about thirty seconds for you to
            copy down if you haven't already what *peripeteia* means. It's the Greek
            term for the reversal of fortunes or the turning point in a tragedy

In excerpt 4C, the English teacher referd to Greek terminology when analysing Romeo and Juliet in a whole class discussion. The teacher explained the meaning and relevance of the Greek term to the topic before prompting students to write down the term in their personal notes.

In addition to the instances of teacher encouragement, I identified three instances where the teacher or a student made a remark about other languages, *Comment*. To give further insight into these instances, I will present transcribed excerpts from the video-recorded lessons. Excerpt 4D and 4E show instances from E.Class#8 (Lesson 1 and 4), and 4F shows an example from N.Class#8 (Lesson 1).

Excerpt 4D   E.Class#8: Teacher commented on students' other languages (England)

Teacher: Pop your hand up if English is your second language or your parent's second
            language.

Twelve out of eighteen visible students raised their hands, including the teacher.

Teacher: Yeah, it is interesting

Looking at excerpt 4D, one can see how the English teacher showed awareness and interest in students' home languages. Although this event occurred in the presence of a researcher, it

highlights the teacher's genuine appreciation and interest in the students' linguistic repertoires. Of note, the LANGUAGES researchers had not expressed particular interest in other languages, only interest in naturally occurring English instruction.

Excerpt 4E   E.Class#8: Teacher requested a student to stop swearing in Polish (England)

Student sweared in polish

Teacher: [Student name], stop swearing in Polish.

Student: Miss, how did you know?

Teacher: Because I'm half Polish.

In excerpt 4E, a student took advantage of knowing another language to swear in class, but the teacher intervened as she understood the language and spoke it herself. This occurrence illustrated a case where the student used other languages for non-academic purposes.

Excerpt 4F   N.Class#8: Teacher and students discussed word origin (Norway)

Student 1:   Hvorfor står det Xaymaca?

Teacher: Yeah that's because […] this x here was probably pronounced *sh* very long time ago.

Student 1:   Men står det ikke Jamaica means land of wood and…?

Teacher: Yeah because it's not really an English speaking name, it came from before they were speaking English and then in this language, the Spanish used x to write this *sh* sound.

Student 1:   Åja det er s-j-aymaca?

Teacher: So, it should be Shamaca, Shalmaca. And then this "y" has been put in later, so it becomes Jamaica instead of Xaymaca. So things have been, the English have kind of twisted the name.

Student 1:   Ok

Student 2:   Doesn't they speak Spanish in Cuba?

Teacher: In Cuba they speak Spanish, that's correct. Because Jamaica used to be Spanish if you remember from the text here.

In excerpt 4F, the English teacher and a student discussed the origin of the word "Jamaica". The teacher compared the English pronunciation with the original Spanish pronunciation,

which prompted another student to compare Jamaica to another Spanish-speaking country, Cuba.

4.2.4 Main Finding 2: Summary

In Norway, English was the predominant language used in all classrooms, with Norwegian being utilized by teachers and students for about 12% of the time. However, when a substitute teacher was present, a significant shift in language use occurred, with Norwegian noticeably increasing in prominence to 91%. Other languages were seldom used, with no instances in N.Class#2 and N.Class#5, and only a few seconds of Spanish in N.Class#4 and N.Class#8. In England, English was used almost exclusively in all English classes, with only some seconds of other languages, such as Portuguese, Polish, Latin, and Greek. However, during group and pair work, there was more evident use of other languages among students in both countries. The dictaphones recorded 6 minutes of Portuguese conversation between two students in England, while in Norway, two students conversed in Arabic for 1.5 minutes. In addition, the video-recorded lessons showed instances where teachers encouraged the use of other languages besides English as well as examples where students or teachers made remarks about other languages during English lessons. Overall, the findings suggest that while English was the predominant language of instruction in both Norway and England, there were instances of other languages being used by students and encouraged by teachers, particularly during group and pair work.

4.3 Teacher beliefs about language use in the English classroom

In the following section, I will present the findings from the interviews with the eight English teachers in the sampled classes, to contextualise the use of other languages in the English lessons in England and Norway. During the interviews, the English teachers were asked whether students in their class spoke languages other than English or Norwegian and if they made use of these languages in their teaching in any way. The findings will be presented based on the categories that arose from the interviews, and the teachers will be referred to by their pseudonyms (see Table 3.3) and class.

4.3.1 Teacher beliefs about the use of other languages in the classroom

All English teachers in my sample expressed that they used other languages in English teaching to varying degrees. In England, there was a general belief that the use of other languages was especially important for students with English as an additional language (EAL). Some teachers, such as Joanne and Valentina, expressed strong beliefs towards multilingual approaches and presented specific practices tied to the use of students' linguistic repertoires, which they emphasized in their teaching:

Joanne: I definitely use it [multilingual practices], and I make a big thing of it as well.
(E.Class#2)

Both Joanne and Valentina were aware of all the languages that existed within their classrooms and Valentina specifically said that they wrote down all of the students' languages at the beginning of the school year. Ria also believed that it was important to draw on students' languages, yet lacked a complete overview of all the languages students in the classroom knew. Ria explained that this information was not provided to the teachers unless they sought out that information themselves. Nonetheless, Ria expressed a positive attitude towards the use of other languages in the English classroom:

Ria: I am going to think much more carefully in the future about capitalising upon those first
(E.Class#7)   languages because we don't think about them so much when we're teachers. We're all
              teachers of English, you know, by virtue of the fact that we teach in an English school.
              But again, we should be using their native languages if they don't speak English as their
              first language as a kind of starting point for them assisting others in the classroom.

Leah expressed a similar experience to Ria that it could be challenging to have a complete overview of all students' home languages and consequently did not draw on them in their English teaching. However, Leah consciously incorporated the languages that students learnt in other language subjects into English teaching and expressed a positive experience with this approach.

All four teachers in the Norwegian sample reported using other languages in English teaching to a limited extent. However, three of the four teachers were also foreign language teachers and emphasized that they used other languages extensively in their foreign language classes.

Len: I've been more focused on it in Spanish than in English.

(N.Class#4)

Len, Selda, and Steinar noted that incorporating other languages was easier in foreign language subjects than in English. Helle, who only taught English, used students' other languages minimally. Selda stated that sometimes they compared English to Norwegian in English classes, however this teacher drew on a wider range of languages in German lessons, to compare vocabulary, grammar, and syntax. Steinar portrayed a belief that the use of other languages was not as crucial in English classes as in foreign language classes due to the high level of proficiency of the students and found it easier to utilize this approach in Spanish class, as the students were at a lower proficiency level.

Steinar: So I think it's easier to do that in Spanish than in English because English has moved up

(N.Class#8)   a level from being a purely foreign language overall.

4.3.2 Incorporating other languages for students with immigrant backgrounds and lower proficiency in English

Five teachers across both contexts underscored the importance of utilizing students' languages as a resource to assist those who had home languages other than the language of schooling or a lower proficiency in English. In England, teachers Valentina, Joanne and Ria talked about a wide array of practices they used with students who had English as an additional language (EAL). Valentina described the English classroom as a mixture of students who exclusively spoke their parents' native language at home, some who spoke a combination of languages and others who only spoke English. Students in the first category could find it difficult to find the appropriate vocabulary in English, so Valentina frequently encouraged them to consider what they were attempting to express in their home language before searching for the corresponding English terminology. During the interview, Valentina provided examples of how these interactions occurred with students:

Valentina: You can even write down a couple of words in your home language and then if you want

(E.Class#8)   it you can draw me an arrow down to tell me what the translation is.

Valentina also provided students with dictionaries, a practice mentioned also by Joanne and Ria. Joanne mentioned specifically the use of Google Translate to translate specific artefacts from English to students' home languages and gave an example of a student from Korea, whose English was limited, for whom they regularly translated PowerPoints used in class from English in to Korean. Ria also experienced the use of bilingual dictionaries as helpful but also relied on students who spoke similar languages as a means of translation for students with lower proficiency in English. For instance, Ria mentioned that they had Tetun-speaking students in the English class with very limited English proficiency. The Tetun language is only a spoken language and therefore lacks a written form and a corresponding dictionary. Ria was therefore trying to learn a few words in Tetun to better communicate with them and sought assistance from a student who was proficient in both Tetun and English:

Ria:	I am trying to learn from a year 8 student that we have who is from East Timor and his
(E.Class#7)	English is excellent. I don't know how he's managed to do the translation so well, but his English is excellent so he can tell me how to say things and I will say them.

Additionally, Ria highlighted the advantages of having students who shared the same language in the classroom as they could use their shared language to assist each other with translation and comprehension. Ria usually adjusted seating plans so that students who spoke the same language could sit together, and students with greater proficiency in English helped Ria in translating difficult terminology for other students who struggled to understand:

Ria:	One particular student has been with us for three and half years and he is from Brazil
(E.Class#7)	and speaks Portuguese. His table partner, I've only recently found out, she speaks very, very little English because she is brand new to us, but he will often translate for her. He'll translate from English into Portuguese for her, then she'll translate into Portuguese for him, and they'll argue in Portuguese and then they'll both decide "Okay, I know how to do this". So, they'll do the work in English and then they'll feedback to me in English as well. But it is really interesting. He can explain to her something I've said if she's not sure what exactly I've said.

In Norway, teachers Helle and Len suggested that students with lower proficiency in English could benefit from using their own home languages or more familiar languages when conducting research and preparing for writing before they started composing a text in English. Helle pointed out a practice where they encouraged students to research a topic in their home

language so that they already had some knowledge before they begun researching further or writing about the topic in English.

Helle:
(N.Class#5)
If they have been given a topic to read about, they may often search for the topic in their own language just to have a reference point before using it in English.

Len also discussed a similar approach, where they allowed students to write a text in a language, they were comfortable with before translating it into English.

4.3.3 Comparing English to etymology and international words

Other uses of students' linguistic repertoires that were mentioned by the interviewees were linked to etymology and international words. English teachers from both Norway and England said that they compared English with other languages when discussing international words or the origin of English words. From England, Leah mentioned that they often drew on students' languages when discussing the meaning of words, root words and prefixes. The students in Leah's English class had other language subjects, such as Latin, Spanish, and German, which students incorporated in English classes when discussing etymology. Leah expressed that this knowledge was very useful to have in class and that students often made the connection between languages themselves even without the teacher prompting them. Joanne expressed similar approaches when discussing their use of other languages in etymology. In addition to using Latin words to explain the origin of words, they also compared English to the languages spoken by students in class.

Joanne:
(E.Class#2)
I've got two Spanish speakers and a couple of Polish speakers. So very often when we do etymology, I you know, I'll question them, I'll say, "How do you say it in your language?", "How do you say it?" and then we look for commonality.

English teachers in Norway reported that they often compared English vocabulary with Norwegian. Steinar additionally noted that they incorporated international words that are recognizable across multiple languages. Len similarly used this approach, but primarily in Spanish lessons. In Spanish, Len utilized students' languages to identify transparent words that share similarities with Spanish.

Len:	Collaborating means that if there is another student in the class, for example, I often
(N.Class#4)	have students who speak Arabic or Persian, they might know words from their language
	that can be used in our Spanish lesson.

Len further expressed a wish to apply similar practices in English classes but found it challenging to find ways to incorporate other languages when teaching English.

4.3.4 Wish to develop multilingual pedagogies

Even though every interviewed teacher mentioned practices of using other languages in the classroom, many also expressed a wish to develop multilingual pedagogies about how to effectively utilize students' linguistic repertoires. As mentioned, Len expressed that they had certain practices which were used in Spanish classes but lacked experience in how to use them in English classes due to the higher proficiency level among English students compared to Spanish students who were new to the Spanish language.

Len:	I try different methods, but I struggle a bit more with that. I have a lot to learn in that
(N.Class#4)	area. I would like to pursue further education on how to better incorporate
	multilingualism into teaching.

A similar notion was expressed by Helle, who had not previously incorporated other languages in English teaching until they attended a workshop on multilingual pedagogy that emphasized the importance of utilizing students' home language in teaching. In England, Leah expressed a desire to learn more about how to utilize students' linguistic repertoires and how to personalize practices to the individual student. From another perspective, Ria brought up a wish for more collaboration between language departments at the school to help students and teachers see the connections between different languages, as English departments were typically separated from the foreign language departments.

| Ria: | I guess we should co-teach and co-plan much more because we're a faculty. We're not |
| (E.Class#7) | just a department. We're a faculty. |

4.3.5 Main finding 3: Summary

All English teachers in my sample expressed varying degrees of using other languages in English teaching. In England, there was a general belief that the use of other languages was particularly important for EAL students. Conversely, English teachers in Norway expressed that they used other languages to a limited extent in their English teaching, as some believed that it was not as crucial due to the high English proficiency level of their students. They acknowledged that it was easier and more important to incorporate other languages in foreign language subjects. Overall, teachers from both countries emphasized the importance of integrating other languages for students with other home languages and lower English proficiency. They mentioned using multilingual strategies such as dictionaries, translation, research in students' home languages, and seating adjustments that allowed students with similar languages to sit next to each other to assist each other in translation and comprehension. The teacher interviewees also mentioned using students' linguistic repertoires for etymology, such as discussing word meanings, root words, and prefixes, and incorporating international words that were recognizable across multiple languages. Although each teacher employed some strategies or practices of using other languages in the classroom, many expressed a wish to develop multilingual pedagogies on how to effectively utilize students' linguistic repertoires.

5. Discussion

In the previous chapter, I presented my main findings. First, I found that all the sampled English classrooms portrayed a degree of linguistic diversity; however, the characteristics of a multilingual classroom differed between school contexts in Norway and England. Second, I found that English was used predominantly in all English classes in both countries, with limited evidence of use of other languages. However, there were occasional instances where teachers or students either used other languages, encouraged, or commented on the use of other languages during English lessons. I also identified that during group or pair work, there were more observable examples where students used other languages with fellow students. When analysing the teacher interviews, I found that the degree to which English teachers used students' languages as a resource varied across teachers and educational contexts. In England, there was a general belief among this study's English teachers that the use of other languages was particularly important for students who had English as an additional language. On the other hand, the English teachers in Norway typically refrained from using other languages in English teaching and instead preferred to use students' linguistic repertoires in foreign language teaching. Furthermore, many teachers expressed a wish to develop multilingual pedagogies about how to effectively use students' linguistic repertoires. In this chapter, my main findings will be discussed in light of theory and prior research, in order to investigate my overarching research question:

What characterizes language use during English lessons in multilingual classrooms across Norway and England?

In order to discuss the data thematically, the findings of this MA study will be divided into three main sections; Linguistic diversity in English classrooms (5.1), actual language use across English classrooms (5.2) and teacher beliefs about the use of students' linguistic repertoires (5.3). Lastly, I will provide didactic implications in section 5.4.

5.1 Linguistic diversity in English classrooms

All sampled English classrooms from Norway and England in the LANGUAGES project portrayed a certain degree of linguistic diversity, mirroring the growing globalisation and migration (Mcauliffe & Triandafyllidou, 2021). Although the extent of linguistic diversity

varied across classrooms, there were certain characteristics in each country that could be attributed to contextual factors, as discussed below.

Across all English classrooms in Norway, students reported to know multiple languages, thus confirming Haukås's (2022) notion that all students in Norway can be considered multilingual. The majority of students reported three languages or more, which aligns with the findings by Haukås (2023) who developed and used the Ungspråk questionnaire. Haukås's (2023) findings showed slightly higher percentage as they additionally included students' reported language varieties such as regional dialects, constructed languages (e.g. programming languages) and body language. Additionally, my analysis revealed that Spanish, German and French were the most reported languages (alongside Norwegian and English), indicating that many of the Norwegian students have opted for a second foreign language in school (Foreign Language Centre, 2022). Moreover, many of these students reported either knowing Danish or Swedish, which can be attributed to their receptive multilingualism in Scandinavian languages or perhaps their home language (Haukås, 2022). Altogether, Norwegian students reported to know 34 additional languages, including Arabic, Russian, Italian, Chinese, Polish, Croatian and Turkish. In summary, linguistic diversity in English classrooms in Norway is characterised by students' language learning in school, Scandinavian intercomprehensibility an the presence of minority languages.

Furthermore, In Norway even the English classroom with the lowest percentage of students who reported knowing four or more languages (25%), portrayed a substantial degree of linguistic diversity, including languages such as Arabic, Hindi, Tigrinya, Somali and Swahili. This corroborates with Haukås's (2022) and Beiler's (2021) argument that there should be space for multilingual pedagogical approaches in all classrooms in Norway as all students can be considered multilingual.

Across all English classrooms in England, the majority of students reported to know two or more languages, whereas 20% of students reported only one language, English. There could be several factors influencing students' reporting of English as their sole language. While there is a requirement for students in England to be taught one foreign language during Key stage 2 and 3 (ages 7-14), there is a probability that students have chosen to omit their foreign language subject in Year 10, as it is not a requirement to study additional languages at that age (Long et al., 2022) and therefore did not report that they know languages other than English. Previous

research indicates a systematic lack of interest in learning additional languages among English students, resulting in a sustained decline in language learning uptake beyond the compulsory stage over the past two decades (Collen, 2022; Lanvers, 2015; Lanvers et al., 2019; Lo Bianco, 2014). Lanvers et al. (2019) argue that English adolescents perceive the development of language skills as distant or irrelevant for practical communication, given the ever-growing number of fluent L2 English speakers.

However, despite the prevailing belief in England that English students do not see the necessity for other languages, since their language of schooling, English, serves as the lingua franca of the world (Lanvers et al., 2019; Lo Bianco, 2014), 80% of the students in this MA study still reported to know two or more languages in this MA study. Among these responses, French, Spanish and German were the most frequently reported languages, which is also in concordance with the most popular languages in GCSE entries in modern languages (Long et al., 2022). Overall, the languages mentioned by the students in England indicate that the sampled English classrooms comprise a combination of languages that are usually associated with the modern foreign languages subject (MFL) and languages usually associated with students who have English as an additional language (EAL). This corresponds to the claim put forth by Costley and Leung (2020) that there is an increasing number of classrooms in England with a prevalent linguistic diversity, highlighting the need for a development of multilingual pedagogies in England.

5.2 Actual language use across English classrooms

The findings from the Ungspråk survey indicated that the sampled English classrooms in both Norway and England portrayed substantial linguistic diversity among students, which should facilitate the use of other languages in the classroom. This would especially be the case in the four classrooms in each country with the highest linguistic diversity which was selected as my sub-sample for the video analysis. Despite this situation, the findings of this MA study showed that the use of other languages than English was rare.

As anticipated, English classrooms in England portrayed an almost exclusive use of English, mirroring the monolingual disposition where English functions as the statutory language in the curriculum and the only language of schooling, as discussed by Costley and Leung (2020). Correspondingly, in Norway, English was the predominant language employed in all English

classrooms, accounting for an overall percentage of 84% across the four classrooms, aligning with the findings by Brevik and Rindal (2020), who found an average English use of 77% across seven classrooms and Barreng (2021), who likewise found that English was the most commonly used language across six lower secondary English classrooms. The prevalence of English in Norwegian L2 English classrooms, as highlighted by the aforementioned studies, might be attributed to several factors. One possibility might be the traditional monolingual ideal that the most effective way to teach English is through maximizing the use of English. This belief, as indicated by prior research, is prevalent among English teachers in Norway (Flognfeldt et al. 2020; Flognfeldt 2018; Iversen 2017; Lorentz et al., 2021). Alternatively, the predominant use of English might be attributed to the high English proficiency of Norwegian students (e.g. Brevik et al., 2016), consequently, there might not be a need for additional support of their language of schooling. This further supports the impression that language use in the L2 English classrooms in Norway closely resembles an L1 English classroom in England.

However, even though English is the predominant language used in Norwegian L2 English classrooms, the Norwegian language was still present in all sampled lessons. The use if Norwegian amounted to an overall percentage of 12 % across the four classrooms during lessons with the main English teacher. This may suggest that the incorporation of Norwegian is not utterly discouraged, and that there is evidence of a possible multilingual or bilingual approach where judicious use of students' language of schooling is recognized as valuable and not something that hinders students' acquisition of the target language (Beiler, 2021; Brevik et al., 2020; Cook; 2001; Cummins, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012).

The language use during English lessons with a substitute teacher present, deviated from the language pattern of the regular English teacher, by incorporating a dominant use of Norwegian. As discussed in Barreng (2021), substitute teachers might not have developed teaching practices considering language use. An additional explanation might be that the substitute teachers were not used to teach in English, which could possibly result in a higher use of Norwegian in order to establish a safe learning space (Barreng, 2021; Hall & Cook, 2012).

5.2.1 The use of other languages

In alignment with previous research (Beiler, 2021; Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Flognfeldt, 2018; Iversen, 2018; Lorenz et al., 2021), this MA study found limited use of students' linguistic repertoires during English lessons in Norway. The only languages that were captured alongside English and Norwegian, were Spanish, which was used in two out of four classes, accounting for less than 1% of the coded spoken time in each class. These findings suggest that the very limited use of other languages centres around high-status modern languages, such as Spanish, which aligns with previous findings by Beiler (2021), Brevik and Rindal (2020) and Barreng (2021). In comparison, teachers and students in England similarly used other languages for less than 1% of the coded spoken time, but there were instances in all sampled classrooms. This contrasts with findings in Costley and Leung (2020), who found no evidence of multilingual classroom practices in England. The languages that were used in this MA study's classrooms included ancient foreign languages (Latin and Greek) for academic purposes and EAL languages (Polish and Portuguese) for both academic and non-academic purposes, indicating that the sampled teachers might incorporate some multilingual pedagogical approaches. This is further evident in the analysis of the teacher interviews, where teachers expressed the use of multilingual pedagogical practices and emphasised their positive beliefs towards the use of students' languages as a resource (further discussed in 5.3).

5.2.2 Language use during group and pair work

The findings of this MA study identified that the use of other languages were employed more extensively during group and pair work in student to student interactions. By employing dictaphones placed in front of students during the video-recorded lessons, I captured one classroom with student-student conversations in each country where languages other than English or Norwegian were used. In both instances, a substantial amount of conversation occurred in these other languages. In Norway, two students spoke Arabic with each other in two filmed lessons for a total duration of 1.5 minutes, while in England two students were captured speaking Portuguese in three filmed lessons for a total of 6 minutes. The amount of speech captured in other languages contrasted with the findings from the video data analysis, where the length of other languages in speech did not precede 7 seconds. This coincides with prior research that found evidence, both reported or observed, of students with minority languages using their broader linguistic repertoire in pair conversations (Beiler, 2021). In such interaction, they experienced support from their peers through the use of common native

language when they were for instance translating or identifying grammatical similarities (Flognfeldt, 2018; Iversen 2017).

In E.class#7, the dictaphones also captured a conversation where a third student were seated next to the Portuguese speaking students. When they were discussing the task provided by the teacher, this student asked the Portuguese-speaking students to talk in English as she wanted to be included in the conversation. This interaction indicated an argument in favour of minimizing the use of other languages, as other students might feel excluded if they were unable to understand what was being said (Szymczyk et al., 2022). Prior research has also discussed this notion where teachers discouraged the use of other languages because these languages were seen as excluding others who were not proficient in them (Beiler, 2021; Flognfeldt, 2018; Krulatz & Torgersen, 2016).

5.3 Teacher beliefs about the use of students' linguistic repertoires

There were considerable differences in beliefs concerning the use of students' linguistic repertoires to foster English language learning among teachers from Norway and England. English teachers in England viewed students' languages as a resource (Cunningham, 2020), whereas teachers from Norway portrayed opposing beliefs in English and foreign language teaching, as supported by prior research (Calafato, 2021; Haukås, 2016). Despite the positive rhetoric surrounding the use of multilingual pedagogies in English teaching, English teachers from both countries expressed a need for professional development in multilingual pedagogies.

5.3.1 English teachers in England view students' languages as a resource

The findings of this MA study suggest that the sampled teachers from England demonstrated positive beliefs towards linguistic diversity and multilingual practices, viewing language-as-resource in accordance with Ruiz's (1984) perspective. Previous research found similar rhetoric among a number of English teachers (Cunningham, 2020). However, Cunningham (2020) found that the more regularly observed perception among English teachers is to view language as a problem, reflecting the dominant discourse in mainstream education in the UK towards languages other than English, which still tends to draw heavily on an orientation to language-as-problem. This tendency was not observed among the sampled English teachers from England, as they all expressed positive beliefs about the use of other languages in the classroom. All teachers reported incorporating multilingual practices that they believed are helpful for

either students with English as an additional language (EAL) or students with modern foreign languages (MFL).

The English teachers Valentina, Joanne and Ria extended language use beyond the shared language of schooling by implementing students' home languages into the classroom through multilingual practices such as bilingual dictionaries, translated teaching materials or by letting students write in their own languages before translating into English. This practice mirrored practices found in Norwegian L2 English classrooms by Beiler (2021). Furthermore, Leah portrayed other effective multilingual approaches, such as incorporating languages from MFL subjects such as Spanish and German or ancient foreign language such as Latin, when discussing etymology in the classroom. By including students' linguistic repertoires as a point of comparison during English teaching, Leah embraced the diversity of languages skills that students brought to the learning environment (García et al., 2006). When considering teachers' expressed beliefs, reported practices and visible use of other languages through the video recordings, one may argue that these teachers sought to affirm and build on students' multilingual repertoires as a resource in English teaching although not frequently observed (Beiler, 2021; Brevik et al. 2020; Cenoz, 2017; Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Cummins, 2008; Haukås, 2022).

A note on Ria's multilingual approach in England

Ria expressed that they actively support EAL students with lower English proficiency by drawing on students' languages as a resource. For instance, in addition to relying on students who spoke similar languages for translation, Ria also took the opportunity to learn a few words in those languages. This teacher believed that this approach helped better the communication with students with lower English proficiency. Even though teachers are not expected to be proficient in all the languages students bring into the classroom (Brevik et al., 2020; Krulatz et al., 2018), acquiring general knowledge about the various language backgrounds frequently encountered is considered beneficial (Beiler, 2021; Šurkalović, 2014; Szymczyk et al., 2022), as supported by Ria's reported experiences.

Furthermore, Ria reported a practice of adjusting seating plans in the classroom so that students who spoke similar languages were paired. This strategy facilitated comprehension of English tasks for students with lower English proficiency. In the teacher interview, Ria exemplified this

practice by mentioning two Portuguese speaking students who had been seated together in order to help one of the students who found it challenging to comprehend English tasks. By assigning a table partner who could translate between Portuguese and English and discuss tasks in both languages, Ria ensured that the student understood what was being asked and expected of her. This reported practice was confirmed by findings from the video and dictaphone recordings, which captured the students engaging in conversations in Portuguese and English during group and pair work in three out of four filmed lessons. In one lesson, Ria even encouraged the use of Portuguese with subsequent translation into English. The consistency of findings across multiple data sets, strengthened the finding that this teacher recognized students' languages as a valuable asset in the English classroom in accordance with Ruíz's (1984) view of language-as-resource.

This practice has in prior research been viewed as a positive multilingual approach and has been encouraged by EAL teachers in England (Szymczyk et al., 2022). However, Szymczyk et al. (2022) pointed out that teachers from mainstream classes discouraged this practice, and instead followed a monolingual approach, where the overall use of other languages in the classroom was avoided by actively separating students who spoke the same languages to prevent disruptions in class. However, by discouraging other languages in the classroom, these teachers may inadvertently have made it challenging for some students to comprehend the lessons, as they were unable to rely on languages other than English. Consequently, the students, such as the one mentioned in the example, would be unable to fully participate in class due to the lack of linguistic support. In contrast, Ria's approach to structural classroom management might be more beneficial as the teacher provided teaching opportunities to help students develop their English while providing the needed support and scaffolding, which is in alignment with the English national curriculum (DfE, 2014).

5.3.2 Opposing beliefs in English vs foreign language teaching among English teachers in Norway

All four English teachers from Norway expressed that they used students' linguistic repertoire to a limited extent during English lessons, this is in concordance with the observations from the video recordings, which showed that English was by far the predominant language used. Thus, there were very few instances of other languages being used during the four recorded lessons in each classroom. However, three out of four interviewed teachers were also foreign language

teachers, in Spanish or German, and emphasized that they used other languages extensively in their foreign language classes. They gave examples of clear multilingual practices from their foreign language classrooms but expressed that these were not used in their English lessons. A listen through the remaining English interviews from Norway in the LANGUAGES material, showed that the preference for using other languages in foreign language subjects rather than in the English language subject was further shared by all English teacher interviewed in Norway. This further aligns with prior research, as these tendencies are also visible among other English teachers in previous studies (Calafato, 2021; Haukås. 2016). Haukås (2016) found that multilingualism was seen as a positive tool for students to connect their foreign language to their L1 Norwegian and L2 English. However, most teachers tended to believe that learning an foreign language was significantly different from learning L2 English, making it difficult to transfer strategies across language subjects. Similarly, Calafato (2021) found that English teachers implemented less multilingual teaching practices than foreign language teachers and noted that even when a teacher taught English alongside another foreign language, they still used multilingual practices less frequently in their English lessons.

In the teacher interview, Steinar justified this practice by arguing that the use of other languages was not as crucial in English classes due to the higher level of English proficiency among students and stated that the English language has progressed beyond being a purely foreign language. This argument corroborates with the general belief that Norwegian students demonstrate increased use and proficiency in English, which has contributed to the recent transition where the English language is no longer considered merely a foreign language in Norway (Rindal, 2020, 2022). This might further support the impression that language use in the L2 English classrooms in Norway closely resembled L1 English classroom in England in this MA study.

Similarly, Calafato (2021) suggests a similar explanation for the lack of multilingual practices and argues that English teachers may assume their students are already proficient in English, and hence they do not see the need to draw their students' knowledge of other languages and language learning experiences. However, Calafato (2021) further points out that this approach can hinder students' development of learning strategies and advanced metalinguistic knowledge in English lessons, preventing them from using their multilingualism as a resource to learn additional languages in the future. In addition, Haukås (2016) suggests that these teacher beliefs reflect that language learning strategies may be overlooked in the English classroom, despite

being emphasized in the English curriculum (NDET, 2019). On the other hand, Len, mentioned limiting the use of multilingual practices to foreign language classes due to a lack of pedagogical competence regarding how to use multilingual approaches in English teaching. However, even though both Steinar and Len expressed that they did not utilize other languages in English teaching, the video observation presented some instances where Spanish was employed during one of their English lessons. Len used Spanish during classroom management while Steinar used Spanish words to discuss word origins. These practices could be described as multilingual practices, however, the absence of them mentioning the use of such practices might indicate a lack of awareness of what constitutes multilingual approaches (see also Beiler, 2021).

5.3.3 Need for pedagogical development in multilingual approaches

The findings of this MA study show that even though there is a positive rhetoric towards the use of multilingual pedagogies in English teaching, English teachers expressed a need for professional development in multilingual pedagogies. In Norway, the English teacher Helle had not previously incorporated other languages in English teaching until attending a workshop on multilingual pedagogy that emphasized the importance of utilizing students' home language in teaching. This aligns with implications from prior studies that highlights the need to develop English teachers' linguistic awareness and competence in multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy, since monolingual ideologies are widespread in their beliefs and teaching practices (Flognfeldt et al. 2020; Flognfeldt 2018; Iversen 2017; Lorentz et al., 2021). A similar belief was expressed by Len, who expressed a wish to pursue further education in multilingual pedagogies. This wish corroborates with prior research by Tishakov and Tsagari (2022), who found that English teachers embraced the idea of multilingualism and were moving towards more pro-multilingual beliefs, although their teaching practices reflected contradictory beliefs as there was a lack of multilingual pedagogical practices in their teaching environments.

Prior research from England reflects similar implication. There is a need to provide teachers with official support through teacher education, guidelines and policy around multilingualism (Costley & Leung, 2020; Cunningham, 2020; Szymczyk et al., 2022). In the teacher interview, Ria expressed a need for more collaboration between language departments in order to help students and teachers see the connections between different languages, as English departments are typically separated from the foreign language departments. The lack of culture of

collaboration between and across colleagues working within English as Additional Language (EAL) and Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) is according to Costley and Leung (2020) due to the absence of positive engagement and encouragement at the policy level.

5.4 Didactic implications

In relation to didactic implications, I would like to discuss some possible suggestions for the English classroom context in Norway and England. Through analysis of the rich data material I have used in my MA study, I found that there is a positive rhetoric towards the use of students' linguistic repertoires as a resource in the English classroom. In addition, English classrooms in both contexts portray a considerable degree of linguistic diversity among students, thereby providing a space for the use of such repertoires. However, the findings of this MA study suggest that there may be limited implementation of multilingual practices in English classes in Norway, whereas in England, previous research shows that there appears to be a potential absence of official multilingual policies.

In Norway, there is an underlying premise expressed through policy documents that teachers need to gain knowledge of multilingualism and pedagogical practices in English teaching. The recent national curriculum, LK20, underscores the importance of acknowledging students' linguistic repertoires as an asset in the English subject (NDET, 2019), however there is no explicit direction on how students' linguistic repertoires should be used or acknowledged in the English classroom (Beiler, 2021). Teachers in this MA study present clear multilingual practices from their foreign language classrooms but expressed that these were not used in their English lessons. Despite the current belief among English teachers that Norwegian students are proficient enough in English and therefore do not need to utilize their knowledge of other languages, it is tempting to suggest that it is important for English teachers to recognize students' languages as a resource in English teaching. The use of other languages in the classroom can contribute to students' development of effective learning strategies and advanced metalinguistic knowledge within English lessons (Beiler, 2021; Calafato, 2021; Haukås, 2016). For example drawing inspiration from Ria's practice of adjusting seating plans in the classroom so that students who speak similar languages are paired together, or drawing inspiration from Leah and Joanne, who actively used students' linguistic repertoires, both languages from home and other foreign language subjects, when discussing etymology.

In England, this MA study shows that many English teachers embodied multilingual practices, however there was a lack of awareness surrounding these practices as well as the absence of official policy and guidelines. Common implications across prior studies in England which is in concordance with this MA study suggest providing teachers with official support in teacher education and multilingual policy (Costley & Leung, 2020; Cunningham, 2020; Szymczyk et al., 2022). Furthermore, the findings of this MA may suggest that collaboration between and across colleagues working within English as Additional Language (EAL) and Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) can bring about advantages by enabling students and teachers to recognize the connections between different languages (Costely & Leung, 2020).

Lastly, I argue that what is most important across classrooms and educational contexts is the recognition of everyone's language skills in the classroom, not just those of students with linguistic minority backgrounds. All students should be able to experience multilingualism as a resource, regardless of whether they are learning foreign languages in school or informally through interactions with friends and family (Beiler, 2021; Brevik et al. 2020; Haukås, 2022).

6. Conclusion

In this final chapter, I summarize the data material and findings of this MA study (6.1) before I offer some suggestions for future research (6.2). Finally, I offer some concluding remarks on my study (6.3).

This MA study has aimed to answer the overarching research question: *What characterizes language use during English lessons in multilingual classrooms across Norway and England?* In order to investigate the main research question, three sub-questions were formulated:

RQ1: *What characterizes students' reported linguistic repertoires and linguistic diversity in 16 English classrooms in Norway and England?*

RQ2: *Which languages are used within and across 32 English lessons in eight multilingual classrooms in Norway and England?*

RQ3: *What characterizes the English teachers' beliefs concerning the use of students' languages as a resource in the classroom to foster English language learning?*

The methods that have been used to answer the three sub-questions are (i) quantitative responses ($n = 348$) in the Ungspråk student survey about students' reported language repertoire from 16 English classrooms to answer RQ1, (ii) quantitative and qualitative information from video-recorded observation data ($n = 32$ English lessons) from four multilingual English classrooms in Norway and four multilingual English classrooms in England to answer RQ2, and (iii) qualitative information from teacher interviews ($n = 8$) about their beliefs concerning language practices during English lessons to answer RQ3.

6.1 Summary of findings

The first main finding shows that all the sampled English classrooms portrayed a degree of linguistic diversity; however, the characteristics of a multilingual classroom differed between school contexts in Norway and England. Across all English classrooms in Norway, students reported to know multiple languages, thus confirming Haukås's (2022) notion that all students in Norway can be considered multilingual. Linguistic diversity in the English classrooms in Norway was characterised by students' language learning in school and Scandinavian

intercomprehensibility along with minority languages. In England, despite the prevailing belief that English students did not see the necessity for other languages (Lanvers et al., 2019; Lo Bianco, 2014), a majority of 80% of students in this MA study still reported to know two or more languages. The linguistic diversity sampled English classrooms included a combination of languages that are usually associated with the modern foreign languages subject (MFL) and languages usually associated with students who have English as an additional language (EAL).

The second main finding shows that English was used predominantly in all English classes in both countries, supporting the impression that language use in the L2 English classrooms in Norway closely resembles an L1 English classroom in England. In Norway, the incorporation of Norwegian is not utterly discouraged as it was still present in all sampled lessons, indicating a judicious use of students' language of schooling, as found in prior research (Brevik et al., 2020). In alignment with previous research, this MA study found limited use of students' linguistic repertoires during English lessons. However, there are instances where teachers or students either used other languages, encouraged, or commented on the use of other languages during English lessons. I also identified that during group or pair work, there were more observable examples that students used other languages with fellow students, indicating that students with minority languages used their broader linguistic repertoire in pair conversations (Beiler, 2021; Flognfeldt, 2018; Iversen 2017).

Lastly, I found that the degree to which English teachers used students' languages as a resource varied across teachers and educational contexts. In England, there was a general belief among English teachers that the use of other languages was helpful for EAL students and they view students' languages as a resource in English teaching (Cunningham, 2020). In Norway, English teachers expressed that they typically refrained from using other languages in English teaching due to the high level of English proficiency among students and instead preferred to use student linguistic repertoires in foreign language teaching (Calafato, 2021; Haukås, 2016). Despite the positive rhetoric surrounding the use of multilingual pedagogies in English teaching, English teachers from both countries expressed a need for professional development in multilingual pedagogies.

6.2 Suggestions for future research

This MA has contributed with in-depth knowledge of how languages were used in multilingual classrooms across Norway and England and how these practices relate to students' linguistic repertoires and teacher beliefs about the use of such repertoires. In the following section, I offer some specific suggestions for future research.

Firstly, the findings of this MA study identified that the use of other languages was employed more extensively during group and pair work among student-to-student interactions. By employing dictaphones placed in front of students during the video-recorded lessons, I captured more use of other languages than in the main video recordings. Taking into account the amount of other languages captured through the dictaphones, I propose that further investigation should be conducted to investigate student language use in multilingual classrooms. In this study, only two dictaphones were placed at random on students' desks. However, it would be interesting to place more dictaphones systematically on students' desks to capture more student conversations. This would allow for further insight into whether students use their linguistic repertoires more frequently when interacting among each other than what is observed during whole-class sessions and teacher-student interactions.

Secondly, in this MA study I compared teacher beliefs about multilingual approaches and language use with their actual language use in the classroom. The teacher interviews provided valuable insight into teacher's beliefs and reported practices, which contributed to in-depth knowledge of how languages are used in multilingual classrooms. I would therefore argue that it would be interesting to incorporate the student perspective by conducting student interviews about how they draw on their own linguistic repertoires during classroom instruction. The LANGUAGES project has already conducted student interviews, in which students were asked whether they used other languages in their English class and if they found it helpful. I believe that integrating actual language use with the perspectives of both teachers and students would offer a holistic view of beliefs and practices regarding language use in the English classroom.

Moreover, the sub-sample of this MA study was limited to only four English classrooms in Norway and four English classrooms in England. Therefore, I would suggest conducting further research on language use by including all 16 English classrooms in the LANGUAGES project. This would help determine if the findings of this MA study are representative across

the remaining English classrooms sampled in Norway and England. Additionally, it would be interesting to incorporate English classrooms in France, which would provide further valuable insights into potential variations in language use and teaching practices across different countries.

6.3 Concluding remarks

The process of writing this MA study has been highly educational, both from a professional perspective as a future teacher of languages and from a research perspective as a co-researcher in the LANGUAGES project (Brevik, 2022). Through my participation in the LANGUAGES project, which included data collection, model development and data analysis, it has become clear to me that students' linguistic repertoires are an asset in English language teaching. Even though Norwegian students are proficient in English, they might benefit from drawing on other languages in their linguistic repertoire, whether the languages are foreign languages learnt in school, minority languages or other home languages. I have developed the belief that language approaches and practices made by teachers should incorporate and embrace students' linguistic repertoires, recognizing them as valuable resources that enhance language learning. This perspective will undoubtedly shape my future language teaching approaches in my own English and Spanish classrooms.

References

Barreng, R. L. S. (2021). *Language use in bilingual classrooms in Norway: A study of language use in six bilingual classrooms in two lower secondary schools* [Master's thesis]. University of Oslo.

Befring, E. (2015). *Forskningsmetoder i utdanningsvitenskap* [Research Methods in Educational Sciences]. Cappelen Damm Akademisk.

Beiler, I. M. R., (2021). *Multilingualism as a resource in English writing instruction: opportunities and obstacles in five linguistically diverse classrooms in Norway* [Doctoral thesis]. University of Oslo.

Berthele, R. (2021). The Extraordinary Ordinary: Re-engineering Multilingualism as a Natural Category. *Language Learning*, *71*(S1), 80–120. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12407

Blikstad-Balas, M. & Klette, K. (2021). Video i klasseromforskning [Video in Classroom research]. In E. Andersson-Bakken & C. Dalland (Eds.) *Metoder i klasseromsforskning: forskningsdesign, datainnsamling og analyse* (pp. 153 – 166). Universitetsforlaget.

Brevik, L. M. (2015). *How teachers teach and readers read. Developing reading comprehension in English in Norwegian upper secondary school* [Doctoral thesis]. University of Oslo.

Brevik, L. M. (2019). Gamers, surfers, and social media users: Unpacking the role of interest in English. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, *35*, 596-606. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12362

Brevik, L. M. (2022a). Medforskning i lærerutdanningen [Co-research in teacher education]. *Bedre Skole 1*(2022), 52–57. https://www.utdanningsnytt.no/bedre-skole-fagartikkel-forskning/medforskning-i-laererutdanningen/317792

Brevik, L. M. (2022b). The Emergent Multiphase Design: Demonstrating a Fully Integrated Approach in the Context of Language Research in Education. In A. Onwuegbuzie & J. H. Hitchcock (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook for Advancing Integration in Mixed Methods Research* (pp. 196-212). Routledge.

Brevik, L. M., Olsen, R. V., & Hellekjær, G. O. (2016). The complexity of second language reading: Investigating the L1-L2 relationship. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *28*(2), 161-182. https://doi.org/10125/66899

Brevik, L. M., Flognfeldt, M. E. & Beiler, I. R. (2020). Livsmestring, mangfold, relevans - Engelskfaget etter fagfornyelsen [Life skills, Diversity, Relevance – English subject after Curriculum Renewal]. *Bedre skole*, 1, 46 -51.

Brevik, L. M. & Rindal, U. (2020). Language Use in the Classroom: Balancing Target Language Exposure with the Need for Other Languages. *In TESOL Quarterly*. *54*(4), 925-953. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.564

Brevik, L. M., Rindal, U., & Beiler, I. (2020). Language use in English lessons: Monolingual, bilingual and multilingual approaches. In L. M. Brevik & U. Rindal (Eds.) *Teaching English in Norwegian classrooms: From research to practice* (pp. 93 – 116). Universitetsforlaget.

Brevik, L. M. & Mathé, N. E. H. (2021). Mixed methods som forskningsdesign [Mixed Methods as research design]. In E. Andersson-Bakken & C. Dalland (Eds.) *Metoder i klasseromsforskning: forskningsdesign, datainnsamling og analyse* (pp. 47 – 87). Universitetsforlaget.

Brevik, L. M., Eiene, S. M. Ø., Cohen, C., Molway, L., & Funova, A. (19 July, 2023). *Multiple voices and perspectives: Comparing students' language resources to actual language use across countries and contexts.* Paper presentation at the AILA 2023 World Congress, Lyon, France

Calafato. R. (2021). Teachers' reported implementation of multilingual teaching practices in foreign language classrooms in Norway and Russia. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. *195*, 103401. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2021.103401

Cenoz, J. (2013). Defining Multilingualism. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *33*, 3-18. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719051300007X

Cenoz, J. (2017). Translanguaging in School Contexts: International Perspectives. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 16*(4), 193–198. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1327816

Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D. (2014). Focus on multilingualism as an approach in educational contexts. In A. Blackledge & A. Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy* (pp. 239-254). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-7856-6_13

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Minority languages and sustainable translanguaging: threat or opportunity? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *38*(10), 901–912. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2017.1284855

Christison, Krulatz, & Sevinc. (2021). *Supporting teachers of multilingual young learners: Multilingual Approach to Diversity in Education (MADE).* Springer. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-66022-2_15

Clyne, M. (2017). Multilingualism. In *The Handbook of Sociolinguistics* (pp. 301–314). Blackwell Publishing Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405166256.ch18

Collen, I. (2022). *Language Trends 2022: Language teaching in primary and secondary schools in England.* https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/language_trends_report_2022.pdf

Cook, V. (2001). Using the First Language in the Classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 57*(3), 402-423. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.3.402

Costley, T., & Leung, C. (2020). Putting translanguaging into practice: A view from England. System. *92*, 102270–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102270

Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment.* Cambridge University Press. https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume*. Council of Europe Publishing. https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five Approaches* (2nd edition). SAGE.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and methods approaches (4th edition). SAGE.

Creswell, J., & Miller, D. (2000). Determining Validity in Qualitative Inquiry. *Theory Into Practice*, *39*(3), 124-130. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip3903_2

Cummins, J. (2008). Teaching for transfer: Challenging the two solitudes assumptions in bilingual education. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (pp. 1528- 1538). Springer US. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_116

Cunningham, C. (2020). When 'home languages' become 'holiday languages': teachers' discourses about responsibility for maintaining languages beyond English. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 33*(3), 213–227. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2019.1619751

Department for Education. (2014). *English programmes of study: key stage 4 – National curriculum in England*. https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-english-programmes-of-study

Department for Education. (2022). Academic year 2021/22: Schools, pupils and their characteristics. Retrieved 01.05.23 from: https://explore-education-statistics.service.gov.uk/find-statistics/school-pupils-and-their-characteristics

Education First (2022). EF English Proficiency Index – Ranking of 111 Countries and Regions by English Skills. https://www.ef.com/ca/epi/

Eriksen, H. & Svanes, I. K. (2021). Kategorisering og koding i intervju- og observasjonsforskning [Categorization and coding in interview and observational research] . In E. Andersson-Bakken & C. Dalland (Eds.) *Metoder i klasseromsforskning: forskningsdesign, datainnsamling og analyse* (pp. 287 – 304). Universitetsforlaget.

Flognfeldt, M. E. (2018). Teaching and learning English in multilingual early primary classrooms. In K. Palm & E. Michaelsen (Eds.), *Den viktige begynneropplæringen: En forskningsbasert tilnærming* (pp. 229–248). Universitetsforlaget.

Flognfeldt, M. E., Tsagari, D., Šurkalović, D., & Tishakov, T. (2020). The practice of assessing Norwegian and English language proficiency in multilingual elementary school classrooms in Norway. *Language Assessment* Quarterly, 17(5), 519–540. https://doi.org/10.1080/15434303.2020.1827409

Fohr-Prigent, E., Eiene, S. M. Ø., Brevik, L. M., Haukås, Å., Cohen, C., Funova, A., & Grung, S. (19 March, 2023). *Multiple voices and perspectives: Comparing students' language resources to actual language use across countries and contexts.* Paper presentation at the AAAL 2023 Conference, Portland, Oregon, USA

Foreign Language Centre. (2023). *Elevene sitt valg av fremmedspråk på ungdomsskolen 2022-2023* [Pupils' choice of foreign language in lower secondary school 2022-2022].

Frønes, T. S. & Pettersen, A. (2021) Spørreundersøkelser i utdanningsforskning [Surveys in educational research]. In E. Andersson-Bakken & C. Dalland (Eds.) *Metoder i klasseromsforskning: forskningsdesign, datainnsamling og analyse* (pp. 167 – 208). Universitetsforlaget.

García, O., Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & Torres-Guzmán, M. E. (2006). *Imagining multilingual schools : language in education and glocalization*. Multilingual Matters.

García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging : language, bilingualism and education.* Palgrave Macmillian.

Greene, J. C. (2007). *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. Wiley & Son

Grønmo, S. (2015). *Samfunnsvitenskapelige metoder* [Methods in social science]. Fagbokforlaget.

Hall, G. & Cook, G. (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language teaching*, *45* (3), 271-308. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000067

Haugen, H. Østbø, & Skilbrei, M.-L. (2021). *Håndbok i forskningsetikk og databehandling* [Handbook in research ethics and data processing]. Fagbokforlaget.

Haukås, A. (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. (2022) Who Are the Multilinguals?. In *Multilingualism and Identity* (pp. 281–298). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108780469.014

Haukås, Å. (2023) Språkvanar og syn på fleirspråklegheit [Language habits and attitudes towards multilingualism]. *Utdanningsnytt*. Retrieved 08.04.23 from: https://www.utdanningsnytt.no/bedre-skole-fagartikkel-flerspraklig/sprakvanar-og-syn-pa-fleirspraklegheit/342074

Haukås, Å. Storto. A., & Irina Tiurikova. (2021). The Ungspråk project: Researching multilingualism and multilingual identity in lower secondary schools. *Globe*, *12*, 83–98. https://doi.org/10.5278/ojs.globe.v12i.6500

Haukås, Å., Storto, A., & Tiurikova, I. (2022). School students' beliefs about the benefits of multilingualism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2022.2075001

Iversen, J. (2017). The role of minority students' L1 when learning English. *Nordic Journal of Modern Language Methodology, 5*(1), 35–47. https://doi.org/10.46364/njmlm.v5i1.376

Jenkins, J. (2015). Repositioning English and multilingualism in English as a Lingua Franca. *Englishes in Practice, 2*(3), 49–85. https://doi.org/10.1515/eip-2015-0003

Johnson, B. R. (2013). Validity of Research Results in Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Research. In B. R. Johnson & L. Christensen (Eds.)*, Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Approaches* (pp. 277–316). Sage.

Kemp, C. (2009). Defining multilingualism. In L. Aronin & B. Hufeisen (Eds.), *The exploration of multilingualism* (pp. 11–26). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/aals.6.02ch2

Klette, K., Blikstad-Balas, M., & Roe, A. (2017). Linking Instruction and Student Achievement. A research design for a new generation of classroom studies. *Acta Didactica Norge, 11*(3), art.10. https://doi.org/10.5617/adno.4729

Krulatz, A., Dahl, A., & Flognfeldt, M. E. (2018). *Enacting multilingualism : from research to teaching practice in the English classroom*. Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Krulatz, A., & Torgersen, E. N. (2016). The role of the EFL classroom in maintaining multilingual identities: Issues and considerations in Sør-Trøndelag public schools. In S. Keyl, C. Amanti, J. Alvarez, & E. Mackinney (Eds.), *Critical views on teaching and learning English around the globe* (pp. 53–68). Information Age.

Kvernbekk, T. (2013). Philosophy of science : a brief introduction to selected topics: Categorization, justification, and the relation between observation and theory. In B. Johnsen (Ed.) *Research project preparation within education and special needs education : introduction to theory of science, project planning and research plans* (pp. 35–59).

Lanvers, U. (2015). *Language learning in English secondary schools today: a bottom-up 360 view of student, teacher and management perspectives* [Paper presentation]. Language Learning and Teaching of the British Association of Language Learning, Edinburgh.

Lanvers, U., Hultgren, K., & Gayton, A. M. (2019). 'People can be smarter with two languages': changing anglophone students' attitudes to language learning through teaching linguistics. *Language Learning Journal, 47*(1), 88–104. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2016.1196384

Lo Bianco, J. (2014). Domesticating the foreign: globalization's effects on the place/s of languages. The Modern Language Journal, 98 (1), 312–25. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2014.12063.x

Long, R., Danechi, S. & Loft, P. (2022). Language teaching in schools (England). House of Commons Library. https://commonslibrary.parliament.uk/research-briefings/cbp-7388/

Lorenz, E., Krulatz, A., & Torgersen, E. N. (2021). Embracing linguistic and cultural diversity in multilingual EAL classrooms: The impact of professional development on teacher beliefs and practice. Teaching and Teacher Education, 105, 103428. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2021.103428

Luoto, J. M. (2023). Comparative education and comparative classroom observation systems. *Comparative Education*, 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/03050068.2023.2173917

Marshall, S., & Moore, D. (2018). Plurilingualism amid the panoply of lingualisms: addressing critiques and misconceptions in education. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 15*(1), 19–34. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2016.1253699

Mcauliffe, M. & Triandafyllidou A. (Eds.), 2021. *World migration report 2022*. International organization for migration (IOM).

NESH. (2022). *Guidelines for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities* (5th. Ed.). The Norwegian National Research ethics Committees.

Neuner, G. (2004). The concept of plurilingualism and tertiary language didactics. In B. Hufeisen & G. Neuner (Eds.), *The plurilingualism project: Tertiary language learning - German after English* (pp. 13–34). Council of Europe Publishing.

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training. (2013) English subject curriculum (ENG1-03) [Expired]. https://www.udir.no/kl06/ENG1-03?lplang=http://data.udir.no/kl06/eng

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training. (2019). *Curriculum in English (ENG01-04)*. Established as a Regulation by the Ministry of Education and Research, 15 November 2019. https://www.udir.no/lk20/ENG01-04

Osborn, M. (2004). New methodologies for comparative research? *Oxford Review of Education, 30*(2), 265–285. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305498042000215566

Patton, M. Q. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Services Research, 34*(5), 1189–1208

Richards, L. (2015). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide* (3rd edition). SAGE.

Rindal, U. (2020). English in Norway: A language and a school subject in transition. In L. M. Brevik & U. Rindal (red.) *Teaching English in Norwegian classrooms: From research to practice* (pp. 23 – 42)*. Universitetsforlaget.

Rindal, U. (in press, 2022). English in Norway Download English in Norway. In K. Bolton (Ed.), *The Encyclopedia of World Englishes*. Wiley Blackwell.

Ruiz, R. (1984). Orientations in language planning. *NABE Journal, 7*(2), 15–34. https://doi.org/10.1080/08855072.1984.10668464

Saldaña, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd edition). Sage.

Seltzer, K. (2019). Reconceptualizing "Home" and "School" Language: Taking a Critical Translingual Approach in the English Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 53*(4), 986–1007. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.530

Sieber, J. & Tolich, M. (2013). *Planning ethically responsible research* (2nd edition). SAGE. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781506335162

Statistics Norway. (2022). 12272: Children from linguistic minorities (M) 2015–2022. Retrieved 15.05.23 from: https://www.ssb.no/en/statbank/table/12272/

Statistics Norway. (2023). *Facts about immigration.* Retrieved 15.05.23 from: https://www.ssb.no/en/innvandring-og-innvandrere/faktaside/innvandring

Storch N., Sato M. (2020). Comparing the same task in ESL vs. EFL learning contexts: an activity theory perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 30*, 50–69.

Šurkalović, D. (2014). Forbereder grunnskolelærerutdanningen engelsklærere for undervisning i engelsk som tredjespråk i Norge? [Does primary school teacher education in English prepare teachers for teaching English as a third language in Norway?] *Acta didactica Norge*, *8*(2). https://doi.org/10.5617/adno.1129

Szymczyk, A., Popan, C., & Arun, S. (2022). Othering through language: English as an Additional Language in England's educational policy and practice. *Studies in Ethnicity and Nationalism, 22*(2), 117–131. https://doi.org/10.1111/sena.12372

Tashakkori, A., Johnson, B., & Teddlie, C. (2020). *Foundations of mixed methods research : integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences* (2nd edition.). SAGE.

Tishakov, T. & Tsagari, D. (2022) Language Beliefs of English Teachers in Norway: Trajectories in Transition? *Languages, 7*(2), 141-163. https://doi.org/10.3390/languages7020141

University of Oslo. (2021). Language use and instruction across contexts (LANGUAGES). Retrieved 25.04.23 from: https://www.uv.uio.no/ils/english/research/projects/languages/index.html

Weekly, R. (2018). Attitudes, beliefs and responsibility for heritage language maintenance in the UK. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *21*(1) 1–22. https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2018.1554324