

Teacher Awareness of Own Language Practices

*A study on beliefs and practices regarding L1 and L2 use in
the English subject classroom on the lower secondary level in
Norway*

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UNIVERSITETET I OSLO

Vår 2019

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Master's Thesis in English subject didactics

Department of Teacher Education and School Research
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UNIVERSITY OF OSLO
Spring 2019

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Abstract

There are documented variations in how, when, and the extent to which Norwegian English subject teachers use and allow the majority L1 (Norwegian), and use and promote L2 (English), in their classrooms. The present study aims to investigate what two such teachers on the lower secondary level report about their own language practices, and how these reports coincide with data on their actual practices. Additionally, it aims to explore whether these reports and practices reflect a specific language ideal. The overarching research question of the study is: *How aware are two Norwegian English teachers of their own language practices, and do their beliefs and practices reflect language ideals?*

In order to investigate this the study employs three methods of inquiry: (i) qualitative teacher interviews containing an element of stimulated recall, (ii) video observation, and (iii) a qualitative questionnaire.

The qualitative data informing this study was analyzed using thematic analysis.

The participants of this study have previously participated in the video research project LISE, and were sampled on the basis of having been identified to demonstrate different language practices. Video recordings of the participants' English lessons were made available to this study, and a selection of recorded events were used as audiovisual stimuli in the teacher interviews, as well as analyzed as part of the data informing the study. Quantitative data, collected by LISE, regarding the participants use of L1 in the observed English lessons was also compared to the qualitative findings.

The findings of the study suggest that the participating teachers are aware of how much of each language they use in their respective classrooms, and, to a certain extent, what influences their choices. When presented with questions regarding specific language functions and what language they are likely to use in situations pertaining to such functions, their reports were more likely to diverge with the other data. Additionally, the study found that only one of the participants' data displayed an identifiable language ideal based on the assumptions made about a language ideal.

Sammendrag

Det er dokumenterte variasjoner i hvordan, når, og hvor mye norske engelsklærere bruker og tillater norsk, og bruker og fremmer engelsk, i klasserommene sine. Denne studien har som mål å undersøke hva to engelsklærere på ungdomsskoletrinnet rapporterer om sine egne språkvalg og språkpraksiser og hvordan denne rapporteringen sammenfaller med data som antyder deres faktiske språkpraksis. Videre, har denne studien som mål å utforske om rapporteringen og språkpraksisen reflekterer et bestemt språkideal. Problemstillingen er: *Hvor klar over sin egen språkpraksis er to norske engelsklærere, og reflekterer oppfatningene og språkpraksisene deres språkidealer?*

For å undersøke dette benytter studien seg av tre metoder: (i) kvalitative lærerintervjuer som innbefatter *stimulated recall*, (ii) videoobservasjon, og (iii) et kvalitativt spørreskjema.

Den kvalitative dataen som informerer studiet ble analysert ved bruk av tematisk analyse.

Deltagerne i denne studien har tidligere deltatt i videoforskningsprosjektet LISE og danner utvalget på grunnlag av å ha blitt identifisert å demonstrere forskjellige språkpraksiser i engelskkllassene sine. Videoopptak av deltagerens engelskklasse ble gjort tilgjengelige til denne studien og et utvalg videoklipp ble brukt som audiovisuelle stimuli i lærerintervjuene, samt analysert som en del av datagrunnlaget for studien. Kvantitative data, innhentet av LISE-prosjektet, som omhandler deltagerens bruk av Norsk i de observerte engelsktimene, ble også sammenliknet med studiens funn.

Studiens funn antyder at lærerne er klar over hvor mye av hvert språk de bruker i sine respektive klasserom, og, til en viss grad, hva som påvirker valgene deres. Funnene antyder også at deltagerne er mindre klar over sin egen språkbruk når det gjelder spesifikke språkfunksjoner og hvilket språk de i hovedsak bruker i situasjoner der de benytter seg av disse språkfunksjonene. Videre, antyder funnene at bare dataen til én av studiens deltagere viste et identifiserbart språkideal, basert på studiens antagelse om språkidealer.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express gratitude to my supervisor Pia Sundqvist for her invaluable feedback on the project, and positive attitude throughout — both definitely helped me in the process of writing this thesis. Furthermore, I would like to thank co-supervisor Ulrikke Rindal for her excellent assistance and feedback during the process of researching, and writing this thesis. Next, I would like to thank Lisbeth M. Brevik – project coordinator of the LISE project – for being very helpful when met with questions about anything related to the LISE project, research, structure, and formalities. Your help has been indispensable. A special thanks goes to Bjørn Sverre Gulheim for his guidance in the ILS video lab, and his technical help in extracting and encrypting video data.

I would like to give a big thanks, and a high-five to Vilde Matilde “Iceman” Skram for her help, and motivational support during this project — it was truly invaluable.

I would also like to thank my parents, Per Tveiten and Vigdis Jæger Hellevang, for being great parents, and my brothers Ove Hellevang and Ola Tveiten for being pretty decent brothers.

Finally, I would like to thank Martine Kristiane Beatrice Hjelkrem Tan for being my favorite person, and for making me a better one.

Oslo, May 2019

Kyrre Hellevang Tveiten

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1 Introduction

I have, since I was young, been interested in languages, and that interest is certainly a contributing factor to me wanting to become a language teacher. Another contributing factor have been the teachers instructing me in language subjects – especially English – throughout my own education. My English teachers on the secondary levels have, in my experience, had a relatively similar approach to how, and how much they used English in their classrooms. This approach has been to use almost exclusively English, and I was for a long time under the impression that this approach was ubiquitous on the secondary level. I was therefore surprised and intrigued when I encountered both empirical evidence that suggested otherwise, as well as theory that supported different approaches to the one I was familiar with.

Unfamiliar territory is a cause for exploration, and this, coupled with the fact that there is a dearth in studies on the topic of teacher beliefs and awareness of own language practices and ideals, motivated me to choose this as the topic for my thesis.

1.1 The LISE-project

The choice of topic and participants was also informed by the research project Linking Instruction and Student Experience (LISE). LISE is a video research project, and a follow up study to Linking Instruction and Student Achievement (LISA). The LISA project was a study with 49 participating schools (schools 01–49), and the LISE project followed five of these (schools 02, 07, 09, 13, and 17) and added two (schools 50 and 51) (Brevik, 2019). Initiated in 2015, parallel to the LISA-project, the LISE study has filmed four to six lessons in each subject, in each classroom — totaling 300 filmed lessons. Professor Kirsti Klette is the project leader of LISE, and Associate Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik is the project coordinator. The project's information page describes the aim of the project in the following way:

In LISE researchers examine the link between methods of teaching, how students perform, and their view on how the subjects mathematics, Norwegian (L1), English (L2), French, Science and Social studies are being taught in 9th and 10th grades in Lower Secondary School. (UiO, 2017)

My encounter with LISE through the English didactics MA program at the University of Oslo was my introduction to topics, participants, and data material serving as the foundation for this MA study.

1.2 The English language in a Norwegian context

English has a unique position as a language in Norway. Traditionally regarded as a foreign language (English as a Foreign Language, EFL), English has in the last decades shifted towards a status akin to an unofficial second language (English as a Second Language, ESL) (Rindal, 2016). Rindal and Piercy (2013) explain that “[t]he status of English in Norway is no longer that of EFL, but not quite ESL or [English as a Lingua Franca] either, and seems thus to be caught between English paradigms.” (p. 212).

Norwegians use English in communication with native and non-native English speakers alike, as international travel and exposure through a variety of media increases (Graedler, 2002). English has also become more common as a working language in large companies and in places of higher education in Norway (Hellekjær, Doetjes, & Trandem, 2007; Ljosland, 2008).

1.2.1 The English subject curriculum

The position English has in Norway as a whole has led to the English subject curriculum in Norway reflecting the abovementioned trends. An example of this can be found in the *purpose section* of the current curriculum (LK06):

English is a universal language. When we meet people from other countries, at home or abroad, we need English for communication. English is used in films, literature, songs, sports, trade, products, science and technology, and through these areas many English words and expressions have found their way into our own languages. When we want information on something of private or professional interest, we often search for it in English. In addition, English is increasingly used in education and as a working language in many companies. (UDIR, 2018).

Being able to use English for communication, then, becomes increasingly important in the Norwegian context. This is demonstrated by the focus on communication on recent additions to the curriculum, like the *Framework for basic skills* (FFBS), citing: “From primary to secondary education students proceed from mastering basic oral communicative skills to developing more varied, distinct and precise ways of expressing themselves orally, thus moving towards cognitive academic language proficiency.” (UDIR, 2013, p. 6). Moreover, the first of the *core elements* of English in the upcoming curriculum (LK20) is

communication, and a section called *change* stipulates: “It will become more important to emphasize English as a working language and as communication between people who don’t have English as a first language.” (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2018, my translation).

The paragraph above illustrates that one of the main aims in the English subject in the Norwegian school system is to ensure English communication skills. That brings us to communication *in* the classrooms. The previous Norwegian curriculum, *Læreplanverket for den 10-årige grunnskolen* (L97, 1996), explicitly states, in the section about the English subject’s place in the school system, that “[c]ommunication in the classroom shall mainly occur in English” (L97, 1996, p. 224, my translation). The same is not the case for the current curriculum (LK06). While not necessarily problematic, it does leave it up to the individual teacher to decide and encourage and/or enforce how much English is spoken in his/her classroom. Whether or not the lack of a coded guideline on the matter has affected how much English is used in English subject classrooms is difficult or impossible to ascertain, and certainly not what the present study attempts to investigate. Recent research does, however, reveal that there is significant language variation in classrooms on the lower secondary grade levels in Norway (Brevik, Rindal & Beiler, in press; Mahan, Brevik & Ødegaard, 2018). This begs the question: how do the teachers that teach English on these levels reflect on how, and how much they use English in their classrooms?

1.3 Research statement

The present study considers both theoretical and empirical aspects of language use in the English subject classroom. The study investigates how two Norwegian English teachers on the lower secondary level report on their own language practices, how these reports relate to observed practices and the measured data collected by LISE, and if language ideals can be identified in the participating teachers’ reports and practices. This was achieved through analyzing video data and selecting video events, using the video events as stimuli in interviews with the participants, having the participants answer a questionnaire to supplement the interview data. The findings from this analysis were compared with quantitative data regarding the participants’ measured language practices, collected by LISE. The findings are then discussed in light of theory and research on how beliefs may influence teachers’ language practices, different approaches to language in the English subject classrooms in Norway, theory on input, and code-switching.

The overarching research question of the study is as follows:

- *How aware are two Norwegian English teachers of their own language practices, and do their beliefs and practices reflect language ideals?*

In order to investigate this, the research question is divided into three RQs:

- RQ1: *What do the teachers report as their language beliefs and practices?*
- RQ2: *How do findings from the teacher reports compare to the actual practices of the teachers?*
- RQ3: *Does the participants' data reflect a specific language ideal?*

The methods employed to investigate these questions are (i) qualitative teacher interviews with stimulated recall, (ii) video observation, and (iii) a questionnaire. The sample consists of two English teachers teaching on the lower secondary level in Norway (year 10), as well as twelve video events (six of each teacher) sampled from video recordings of their English subject lessons. Additionally, the study contains comparisons of some of the findings of the present study with quantitative data regarding the same participants, collected and quantified by the LISE project. The small scope of the study may preclude its findings to have any significant impact on the field on its own, but its role as a part of a larger research context might mediate this 'fait accompli' somewhat. The study should be seen as an in-depth look at the participants, and its findings as specific implications of the context they appear in.

1.4 Outline of the thesis

Following this introduction, chapter 2 contains the theoretical framework, in which literature and empirical research relevant to the study is presented. In chapter 3, the methods and data used in the research pertaining to this study are presented. In Chapter 4, the findings this research produced is presented, and they are subsequently discussed, in light of the aforementioned theory, in chapter 5. The final chapter, chapter 6, contains the conclusion, and suggestions for further research. The sources that are referenced in the thesis follow next, and copies of the material used in the research are available as four *appendices* — comprising the last pages of this document.

2 Theory and previous research

This chapter presents the theory and previous research comprising the theoretical context for the present study. It is divided into five main sections: Teacher cognition (2.1), Input and teacher talk (2.2), Code-switching versus translanguaging (2.3), Language approaches (2.4), and Prior research (2.5). Research that supports the concepts and theories presented in their respective sections will be referenced in said sections. In the last section – 2.5 *Prior research* – empirical research that ties more directly into the topics and context of the present study, is presented.

2.1 Teacher cognition

Both *teacher awareness*, and *teacher beliefs* – two operative terms in this study – are related to *teacher cognition*. This MA thesis will use a broad definition of *teacher cognition*: a complex network of knowledge, beliefs, thoughts, and ideas that serves as the foundation of teachers’ strategies and practice. This definition is inspired by Borg (2006, p. 272) — a renowned scholar on teacher cognition.

Research on teacher cognition draws on a tradition going back more than 40 years, and began as an alternative to the *process-product* approach to studying classrooms that was dominant in the early 1970s — that is, attempting to causatively link teacher and learner behavior (process) with the learning outcome (product) (Borg, 2006). As developments in cognitive psychology highlighted the influence thinking has on behavior, and as teachers were recognized to have a more active and influential role in educational processes than previously thought, teacher decision making and cognition became central areas of interest in educational research (Borg, 2006; Calderhead, 1996; Carter, 1990). Studying teacher cognition is important because teaching is not solely behavior, but rather *thoughtful* behavior. One of the first instances of this sentiment being put into writing was by the U.S. National Institute of Education in 1975:

it is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what they think [...] To the extent that observed or intended teaching behaviour is “thoughtless”, it makes no use of the human teacher’s most unique attributes. In doing so, it becomes mechanical and might well be done by a machine. If, however, teaching is done and, in all likelihood, will continue to be done by human teachers, the question of relationships between thoughts and action become crucial. (National Institute of Education, 1975, p. 1)

Studying cognition is not easy or unproblematic, however, and Kagan (1990) provides four problematic aspects of the endeavor in her article *Ways of Evaluating Teacher Cognition: Inferences Concerning the Goldilocks Principle*. First, there is the problem of ambiguity — the term *teacher cognition* is invoked to refer to several different concepts, including:

teachers' interactive thoughts during instruction; thoughts during lesson planning; implicit beliefs about students, classrooms, and learning; reflections about their own teaching performance; automatized routines and activities that form their instructional repertoire; and self-awareness of procedures they use to solve classroom problems. (Kagan, 1990, p. 420)

Borg (2006) remarks on terminological proliferation in teacher cognition theory by stating that “in the absence of a shared conceptual and terminological framework, it is likely that similar labels will continue to be used with different meanings, and different terms will be used to refer to the same constructs” (p. 272).

A second problem Kagan (1990) identifies is that teacher cognition is difficult – or impossible – to assess directly. This is because teachers can hold certain ideas and beliefs unconsciously or, possibly, do not possess the language to express their thoughts. She goes on to suggest accessing these cognitions indirectly through processes like extended interviews and *stimulated recall*, and to “infer underlying beliefs from the data generated by these tasks” (Kagan, 1990, p. 420).

The last two problems with studies on teacher cognition that Kagan (1990) presents, are related to how they are time consuming, and also that rendering comparative judgments about teachers' cognitions is difficult and problematic. The first of these challenges causes such studies to often focus on a relatively small sample (1–12 participants). The latter challenge is of little relevance to studies that are purely descriptive, but can be an immediate problem for studies attempting to directly use findings to promote teacher growth. The crux of this issue is that such studies need to establish useable guidelines for what constitutes good or bad reflection — something many believe is completely subjective (Kagan, 1990).

2.1.1 Awareness and language choices

The term *awareness* is related to cognition and cognitive processing, but can be challenging to define because it “can be defined in relation to a variety of factors such as cognitive

capacity, introspection, attention and/or voluntary control mechanisms” (Roberts, 2011, p. 13). Roberts (2011) goes on to define *awareness* in relation to another term used to describe cognitive processes: *consciousness*. He ends up – although tentatively – with “consciousness directed towards a given goal”, or “the focused application of consciousness” (p. 14). The term *language awareness*, in the present study, is defined as *consciously held assumptions about own language use*.

Theory and research suggest that a teacher’s *awareness of own L1/L2 use* can affect how a teacher uses language in an L2 learning-setting. Levine (2011) posits a condition for productive and useful L1 use in L2-teaching by arguing that teachers “can and should be aware of, reflect critically on, and in some ways, explicitly manage the ways in which the L1 and L2 are used in the classroom” (p. 9). The implication of this condition is that conscious awareness of L1 and L2 use, as well as the ability to critically examine one’s own use, is important if a teacher is to adjust their language use appropriately. This notion is supported by, for example, Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009), in that they argue that “the native language [L1] must be used systematically, selectively and in judicious doses” (p. 86). A lack of awareness of language use in the classroom can, according to a study by Polio and Duff (1994), lead to “inconsistencies” by the teachers (p. 320), such as urging students to use the target language (TL), but not necessarily doing so themselves. This was caused – according to Polio and Duff (1994) – by the investigated teachers’ lack of awareness of the how, when, and the extent to which they used L1 in the classroom (p. 320).

2.1.2 Teacher beliefs and language ideals

Teacher beliefs can be defined – broadly – as implicit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, academic content, and teaching methods (Kagan, 1992). Research has found that teachers’ beliefs usually reflect the nature of instruction the teachers provide in practice (Kagan, 1992). A major reason teachers’ beliefs affect their practice is that they have to rely on a personal belief system when they become uncertain, because they lack specific guidelines. In other words: “In a landscape without bearings, teachers create and internalize their own maps” (Kagan, 1992, p. 65).

A counter argument to the notion that teachers are very much reliant on – and influenced by – their beliefs, can be that what is described in the above is in reality teachers’ professional

knowledge — not merely beliefs. What has to be considered, then, is that Kagan’s definition and explanation are grounded in a rather conservative epistemological perspective:

‘knowledge’ is *beliefs* until it can be proved objectively or affirmed through consensus of opinion. This means that most of what we regard as a teacher’s professional knowledge is in fact more accurately described as *teacher beliefs* (Kagan, 1992).

Teacher beliefs are relevant to how teachers use language in English subject classrooms. This argument is based on two circumstances: Firstly, the documented variation in Norwegian teachers’ use of – and attitude towards – L1 and L2 use in the English subject classroom (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming; Haugen Mehl, 2014; Hoff, 2013). And, secondly, that “this variation between classrooms seems to be dependent on the teacher’s language ideals, rather than the students’ language competence” (Brevik, et. al., in press, p. 2).

An *ideal* is a conception of what is most desirable – “a standard or principle to be aimed at” (Ideal, n.d.) – suggesting that a teacher’s *language ideal* can be understood as how a teacher most desires the use of language to be in their classroom. When used in theory and research on language education, *language ideal* is sometimes defined by its application — for example in Brevik, et. al. (in press, p. 6): “In these classrooms, the teachers demonstrate a monolingual ideal, pressing for their students to use English.” This way of using the term, to refer to a teacher’s observed desire to implement a certain language use in their classroom, seems to coincide with how some language researchers refer to *ideological beliefs*. An example can be found in Polio and Duff (1994, p. 324, emphasis mine): “it was not necessarily because of their *ideological beliefs* about [L1] vs. TL use, but rather because of their own L2 limitations that teachers provided more FL input.” In order to attempt to identify factors that relate to a *language ideal*, this study assumes that a teacher’s language ideal is tied to a teacher’s desire to implement in their classroom a certain language use.

2.1.3 Stimulated recall

In the section on cognition (2.1), I mention Kagan (1990) presenting *stimulated recall* as a method for accessing teacher cognitions indirectly (cf. p. 420). Stimulated recall is an introspective method and entails using stimuli of an event – that is, something that reminds the interviewee of the event – in interviews, and asking the interviewee about thought

processes they had during said event (Gass & Mackey, 2017). Gass and Mackey (2017) explain stimulated recall in more detail as follows:

stimulated recall methodology is a technique in which participants are asked to recall thoughts they had had while performing a prior task or while they had participated in a prior event. It is assumed that some tangible (perhaps visual or aural) reminder of the event will stimulate recall of the mental processes in operation during the event itself and will, in essence, aid the participant in mentally reengaging with the original event. In other words, the theoretical foundation for stimulated recall relies on an information-processing approach whereby the use of, and access to, memory structures is enhanced, if not guaranteed, by a prompt that aids in the recall of information. (Gass & Mackey, 2017, p. 14)

Introspective methods are perhaps best known from psychology (cf. Schultz & Schultz, 2012, pp. 67–77, 88–100), but they are certainly not without precedent in educational and language research. Indeed, stimulated recall has its origins in educational research (Gass & Mackey, 2017), and was originally developed by Bloom (1953) as a means to investigate students' thoughts during lectures and discussion sessions. Stimulated recall use in a more similar context to that of the present study, can be found in, for example, Peterson and Clark (1978). They used stimulated recall to evaluate teaching effectiveness by showing teachers 2–3-minute segments of their own teaching and then asking questions about their actions, thoughts, and strategies.

Figure 2.1 is an adaptation of a model in Henderson and Tallman (2006, p. 77), showing how the process of stimulated recall produces information from two sources simultaneously in the interviewee: both *recall* and *hindsight report*, because two prompts serve as catalysts for the thoughts the interviewee produces: *interviewer question* and *stimulus*¹.

¹ *artifact* in the original source material

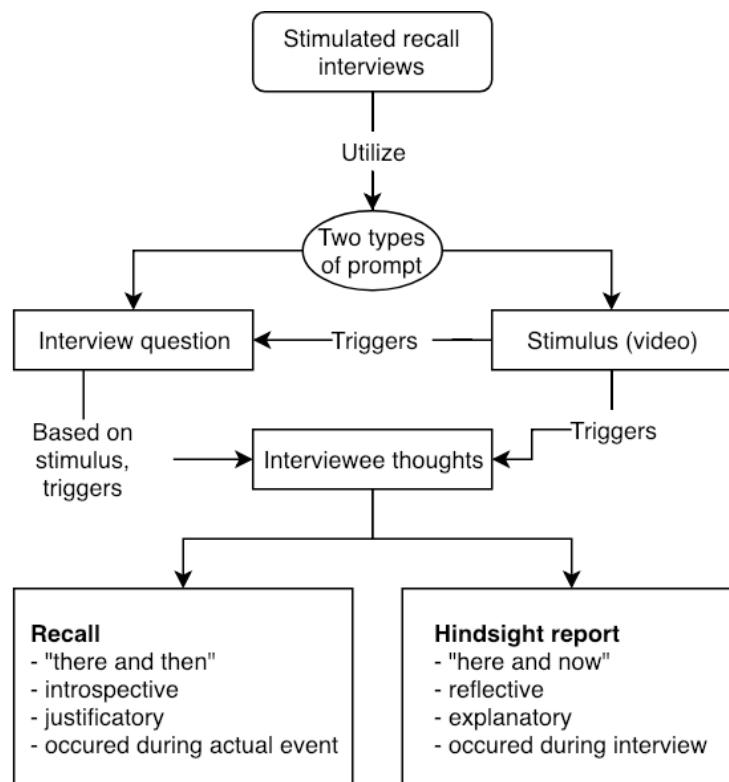


Figure 2.1 Types of prompts and thoughts accessed in stimulated recall (adapted from Henderson and Tallman, 2006, p. 77)

Achieving the production of both *recall* and *hindsight report* is not without its challenges, however. Gass and Mackey (2017) outline several factors that affect the chances of reliably inciting *recall* — the production of which is the main objective of the stimulated recall-process. Factors include, but are not limited to, how much time has passed from the time of the event used as stimulus to the time of the interview, how strong the stimulus is, how the interview questions are phrased, and if the interviewee is aware of the stimulated recall method before the interview, and has prepared.

More on how stimulated recall was employed in the present study can be found in section 3.5.2 *Teacher interviews*, and a discussion on how the study adheres to the factors affecting reliability can be found in section 3.7.2 *Reliability* — both in the *Methods and data* chapter.

2.2 Input and teacher talk

Input can be regarded as one of the main components of language learning. Ellis (1997) defines input as “the samples of a language to which a learner is exposed” (p. 5). This is a

broad, but uncontroversial definition. Some scholars, however, seek to further divide input in order to identify input that is likely to benefit the learner. Gass and Selinker (1994), for example, distinguish between *input* and *intake*. They describe input as “all exposure to the language” (Gass & Selinker, 1994, p. 200), similar to Ellis (1997) above, but this includes exposure that is not actually internalized — that is, it “goes in one ear and out the other” (Gass & Selinker, 1994, p. 200). *Intake* – by contrast – is internalized and therefore contributes to actually learning the language. What Gass and Selinker (1994) is essentially arguing is that not all input leads to learning. If the input is to be beneficial for the progress of a learner’s language proficiency, the input has to be adapted to that specific learner’s level of understanding.

This notion can be argued to be founded in Krashen’s (1981a, 1981b) *input hypothesis*. Krashen (1981b) stresses the importance of *comprehensive input* (CI) – input the learner can understand – and argues that there is a difference between ‘learning’ and ‘acquiring’. He also argues that “acquisition is far more important than learning in second language performance” (Krashen, 1981b, p. 54), and that a learner can only acquire a language through exposure to CI. The input hypothesis is formulated as: $i + 1$. The ‘i’ represents the level of understanding the learner is currently at, and ‘1’ represents what the learner is ready to acquire (Krashen, 1981b).

Research on oral input in language education suggests that *teacher talk* – utterances by the teacher – comprises 69–75% of oral activity in the classroom (Cook, 2001; Ellis, 1994; Levine, 2011). The implication of these numbers is that teacher talk is very much the main source of input in the classroom.

2.3 Code-switching versus translanguaging

Within the realm of theory and research on language and education, there exist different, and sometimes conflicting, paradigms and perspectives. One such conflict is the dichotomy of *translanguaging* and *code-switching* — or rather that a translingual perspective rejects the notion of code-switching being an actual phenomenon (MacSwan, 2017).

In linguistics, *code-switching* is a speech-style where a speaker alternates between two or more languages (or varieties of languages) between or within sentences (MacSwan, 2017;

Milroy & Muysken, 1995). McKay (2002) suggests a broader definition, positing that “[s]uch shifts in language or language variety [...] can also occur when one speaker uses one language and the other uses another” (p. 131). This broader definition, suggesting that code-switching happens between speaker utterances, is interesting, but may be hard to reconcile with (or distinguish from) a teacher – for example – purposefully answering in English to a question posed in Norwegian, as a reminder to speak English in class. The present study will therefore adhere to the narrower definition presented above (cf. MacSwan, 2017; Milroy & Muysken, 1995). Teachers have been identified to use code-switching in a variety of different situations and for a variety of different reasons, and not always consciously (Sert, 2005). The identified code-switching functions this study employs are presented in section 2.5.1.

Some scholars, (e.g., García and Otheguy, 2014; Makoni and Pennycook, 2007; Otheguy, García and Reid, 2015; Pennycook, 2006), dispute the foundation that code-switching is built on. They posit that languages cannot be separated into distinct entities on the basis that they (the aforementioned scholars) reject the concepts *individual multilingualism* and *discreet languages*, and argue that any bilingual individual has an “internally undifferentiated, unitary linguistic system uniquely configured as an *idiolect*, or individual language” (MacSwan, 2017, p. 168, original emphasis). This argument is based on a translingual perspective, in which speakers that communicate using words across different languages access and employ multiple semiotic resources, but only through one individual language system — a process called *translanguaging* (García & Li Wei, 2014). In short, in a translingual perspective, code-switching cannot exist because there are no *codes* – plural – to switch between.

MacSwan (2017) asserts that denying the existence of multilingualism and code-switching is problematic, especially because it undermines the empirical basis for rejecting a negative perspective on language mixing. Important and frequently cited works (e.g., Cook, 2001; Durán & Palmer, 2013; Fuller, 2009; García, 2009; García, Flores & Woodley, 2015; Gort, 2012; Grosjean, 1982, 2010; Martínez, 2010; Valdes-Fallis, 1978) that support a positive view on bilingualism would have to be reassessed and reevaluated if code-switching is deemed to not be an actual phenomenon. This weakened empirical support can, according to MacSwan (2017), consequently lead to more reductionist views on bilingualism gaining traction in the field of linguistics, and by extension negatively affect the views on bilingual learners in education.

A translingual perspective is perhaps better suited in a different context than the present study appears in. If this study examined second language acquisition (SLA) in a context where the target language was also the majority language (e.g., in a study on immigrants to Norway learning Norwegian as an L2), a translingual perspective could possibly have been more appropriate. Given that this is not the case, this thesis will consider, and outline, the translingual perspective in this chapter on theory (e.g. in section 2.4 on language approaches, below), but will not consider or explore the suggestion that there is no such thing as code-switching, and as such will adhere to the definition of code-switching, presented at the beginning of this section.

2.4 Language approaches

Brevik, et. al. (in press) outline three approaches to language use in ELT. These three are *the monolingual approach* (2.3.1), *the bilingual approach* (2.3.2), and *the multilingual approach* (2.3.3). The two former have been recognized as the most common approaches in ELT in Norway for some time (Dahl, 2015; Drew & Sørheim, 2009). The latter – the multilingual approach – is comparatively newer and can be argued to be viewed from two different perspectives (Brevik, et. al., in press) — a *multilingual perspective* (Cummins, 2001, 2008) and a *translingual perspective* (García & Li Wei, 2014; see also section 2.3 on code-switching and translanguaging).

2.4.1 The monolingual approach

A monolingual approach to ELT involves aspiring to use English as much as possible in the English subject classroom. Consequently, it often involves aspiring to avoid using the students' first language (L1) (Chambers, 1991; Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2008; Howatt, 1984; Yu, 2000). This approach has roots going back to the late 1880s in France and Germany, to the *direct method* that “imitated the way children learn their first language, emphasizing the avoidance of translation and the direct use of the foreign language as the medium of instruction in all situations” (Yu, 2000, p. 176).

In the article, *Promoting use of the target language in the classroom*, Chambers (1991) states that “[t]he belief that the foreign language should be used as the teaching and learning medium appears to be shared by many teachers and yet, despite this commonality of intent, practice varies greatly” (p. 27). She goes on to review extensive research carried out in

Scotland by Mitchell (1988). In said research, teachers were surveyed on what they considered as *the communicative approach*, and interviewed about what they considered to be appropriate uses for foreign language in foreign language classrooms. Based on this research, Chambers (1991) postulates:

The nature of the problem underlying the use of the FL as a medium of instruction in the classroom is twofold. From a practical point of view, the undertaking is perceived by many teachers as a difficult one which can be approached in a systematic and practical way if one is determined to do it. However, such determination needs to be supported by a firm belief that the endeavor contributes significantly to the language learning. (Chambers, 1991, p. 28)

The teacher's determination is highlighted as a factor necessary to achieve the goal of using the foreign language as the everyday means of communication, and goes on to add that planning well is also especially advantageous (Chambers, 1991, p. 31).

Although the research and theory presented above are older – and the context is dissimilar to the Norwegian context – some of the findings and conclusions are echoed in more recent and context appropriate literature. According to Ellis (2008) there is a general consensus among applied linguists that extensive TL input is crucial for language learning. This is echoed by Dahl (2015), who argues that exposure to the target language is the main source of language learning. Other examples include, Grim (2010) and Turnbull (2001) who posit that aspiring to use the target language only, might prevent teachers from relying too heavily on the L1 in the classroom. While not completely against L1 use in an L2-classroom, Turnbull (2001) argues that the quality of teaching may decline significantly if L1 is used extensively: “It seems logical to argue, then, that the more students are exposed to L2 input, the more they will learn” (Turnbull, 2001, p. 533). Moreover, when it comes to non-academic aspects of the L2-classroom, the scholars arguing for a monolingual approach promote the opportunity to use the L2 in an authentic setting — for example when using language for *task instruction* (Harbord, 1992) or *classroom management* (Hellekjær, 2001).

2.4.2 The bilingual approach

A bilingual approach opens for and, indeed, welcomes the systematic use of L1 in ELT (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2008). Both Cook (2001) and Cummins (2008) present two concepts that are very similar. Cook (2001) refers to it as

“language compartmentalization” (p. 407), and Cummins (2008) labels it a “two solitudes assumption” (p. 65). The two terms essentially describe the belief that L1 and TL should be kept rigidly separate in foreign language teaching. Furthermore, they identify this belief as one of the contributing factors that L1 use is viewed negatively in foreign language teaching. They go on to argue that there is very little research that supports this belief, and that using the learners’ L1 can be favorable when learning an L2, exemplified by Cook (2001):

Learning an L2 is not just the adding of rooms to your house by building an extension at the back: it is the rebuilding of all internal walls. Trying to put languages in separate compartments in the mind is doomed to failure since the compartments are connected in many ways. (Cook, 2001, p. 407)

Cummins (2008) presents *teaching for transfer* — that is, “teaching bilingual students by means of bilingual instructional strategies that acknowledge the reality of, and strongly promote, cross-language transfer.” (p. 65). In other words, using strategies when teaching L2 that make use of the fact that the L1 can be a helpful tool when learning an L2. The theoretical rationale for *teaching for transfer* derives from “(a) the role of pre-existing knowledge as a foundation for learning ... and (b) the interdependence of proficiency across languages” (p. 67). These aspects of language learning will, henceforth, be referred to as (a) *Prior knowledge*, and (b) *Interdependence across languages*.

According to Cummins (2008), bilingual students’ prior knowledge can be accessed through their L1s in order to aid them when learning an L2. *Prior knowledge* – in this instance – is not just the more superficial information or skills that a student has picked up in a previous learning setting, but also the in-depth and identity-creating experiences that is engrained in the student’s cognitive functioning (p. 68). Making use of this prior knowledge, then – even if not in the TL – may make available these deep-seated cognitive abilities in the learning of the TL.

Interdependence across languages ties directly into the above ‘house building-analogy’ by Cook (2001). In succinct terms, the concept suggests that when learning a new language there is a reciprocity in development between the L1 and L2 because the learner is advancing their conceptual and linguistic proficiency when learning an L2, thus progressing both their L1 and L2 proficiencies. This is based on the assumption that although surface aspects of language

like pronunciation and fluency are different and separate between languages, a common cognitive/academic proficiency ties language together on a deeper level (Cummins, 2008, p. 68). Cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) is a term that was developed by Cummins (1979), and refers to the ability to employ language as a tool, using abstractions in a sophisticated manner, for learning in an academic setting. CALP is often seen in relation – and contrast – to Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), which refers to the language skills needed to interact in social situations (Cummins, 1979).

Further empirical research that supports the notion of *interdependence across languages* can be found reviewed in Baker (2001), Cummins (2001), Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders & Christian (2006), as well as in studies by Thomas and Collier (2002), and Verhoeven (1991).

2.4.3 The multilingual approach

A multilingual approach entails opening up ELT to accommodate a variety of languages influencing and benefiting language learning (Brevik, et. al., in press; May, 2014). In the Norwegian context, such languages could include one of several Sámi languages, National Minority languages like Kven, Romani or Romanes, or a language from a different country of origin in the case of, for example, international migrants to Norway (Šurkalović, 2014).

The origins of the theory on multilingualism, can – at least – be traced back to Kachru's (1994) critique of how second language acquisition (SLA) research and theory were unidimensional, and that the native speaker was idealized as the norm — framing SLA- and ELT-research and theory accordingly. This, in combination with globalization and a much more diverse society (dubbed *super-diversity* by Vertovec, 2007), sparked a movement that lead to a *translingual perspective* on multilingualism (May, 2014, p. 1; cf. McSwan, 2017, above). Proponents of this theoretical perspective aim to:

[challenge] bounded, unitary, and reified conceptions of languages and related notions of “native speaker” and “mother tongue”, arguing instead for the more complex fluid understandings of “voice”, “language as social practice”, and a related “sociolinguistics of mobile resources”. (May, 2014, p. 1)

Perhaps because of its relative recent emergence in mainstream linguistic theory, the concept endures quite a bit of *terminological proliferation* — that is, having several terms for the

same concept or construct (Borg, 2006). Examples of these include *codemeshing* (Canagarajah, 2011), *flexible bilingualism* (Creese & Blackledge, 2011), and *metrolingualism* (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010).

I argue that the divide between the translingual and multilingual perspectives is mainly an ideological one, but as outlined in the section on *code-switching and translanguaging* (2.3), they do differ theoretically as well. Cummins (2009) ties the multilingual approach and bilingual approach together by listing some points arguing for “bilingual instructional strategies or *translanguaging*” (p. 319, original emphasis). These points include instances of, for example, translation skills, pre-existing knowledge, and encouraging L1 use, found in multilingual theory literature, which fit with his *teaching for transfer*-theory (outlined in 2.4.2).

2.5 Prior research

A limited amount of research has been done on how languages are actually used in English subject classrooms in Norway (Brevik, et. al., in press), but the aforementioned LISE-project has researched the topic, as well as served as the foundation for MA studies prior to the present one. Some definitions and findings from the LISE-project, as well as two MA studies and one article that are particularly relevant as context for this study, will be presented in this section.

2.5.1 LISE code-switching language functions: *the LISE functions*

The LISE-research has identified, and operates with, eight language functions related to code-switching in L2 instruction. These appear in Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) as “L1 (Norwegian) Functions” (p. 7), and are divided into *academic functions* and *non-academic functions*. Table 2.1 shows how Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) describe these functions. The functions will be referred to throughout the present thesis, and for the sake of brevity and consistency, they will from here onwards be referred to as *the LISE functions*.

Table 2.1 L1 functions in L2 instruction as identified by LISE (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming, p. 7)

Academic functions	
Function	Description
Scaffolding	“Teacher or students use L1 to offer or request guidance, explanations, or translations (immediate or delayed), remedy students’ apparent lack of comprehension, bridge communication gaps and reduce ambiguity by focusing on meaning (Crichton 2009, Edstrom 2006, Grim 2010, Moore 2013, Polio & Duff 1994)”
Metalinguistic explanation	“Teacher shifts to L1 for grammar instruction or focus on linguistic forms through explicit explanations, with L1 use at the lexical level, over a sequence of utterances (Edstrom 2006, Grim 2010, Polio & Duff 1994)”
Task instruction	“Teacher uses L1 to give task instructions for activities or procedures (Grim 2010, Polio & Duff 1994)”
Terminology	“Teacher uses L1 to provide subject-specific terminology or clarify vocabulary, providing brief L1 equivalents or vice versa, incl. translations, with L1 often restricted to single words or phrases (Edstrom 2006, Lee & Macaro 2013, Macaro 2001, Polio & Duff 1994)”
Domain switch	“Teacher uses L1 to refer to a domain that is not specific to the English subject in order to discuss a matter relevant to the L2 topic (Edstrom 2006), such as biology or issues discussed in history lessons”
Non-academic functions	
Function	Description
Practical information	“Teacher uses L1 to give information or instructions not related to the L2 subject (e.g. reminders about school trips), the amount of L1 ranging from brief instructions to longer sequences of utterances”
Class management	“Teacher uses L1 for classroom management, e.g. manage students’ classroom behavior or reprimand students for talk, misconduct, etc. (Edstrom 2006, Grim 2010, Polio & Duff 1994)”

Empathy/solidarity	“Teacher uses L1 to develop closeness or interpersonal relationship with students and to show understanding as part of natural digressions in the classrooms (Crichton 2009, Edstrom 2006, Grim 2010, Polio & Duff 1994)”
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These coded functions have been used in the LISE research to – amongst other things – investigate how much the participating teachers use each function in the observed classrooms. The following graph (Fig. 2.2) illustrates how the L1 use is distributed between the different language functions in the different classrooms measured by LISE. The classrooms relevant to the present study have their designation highlighted with a red rectangle.

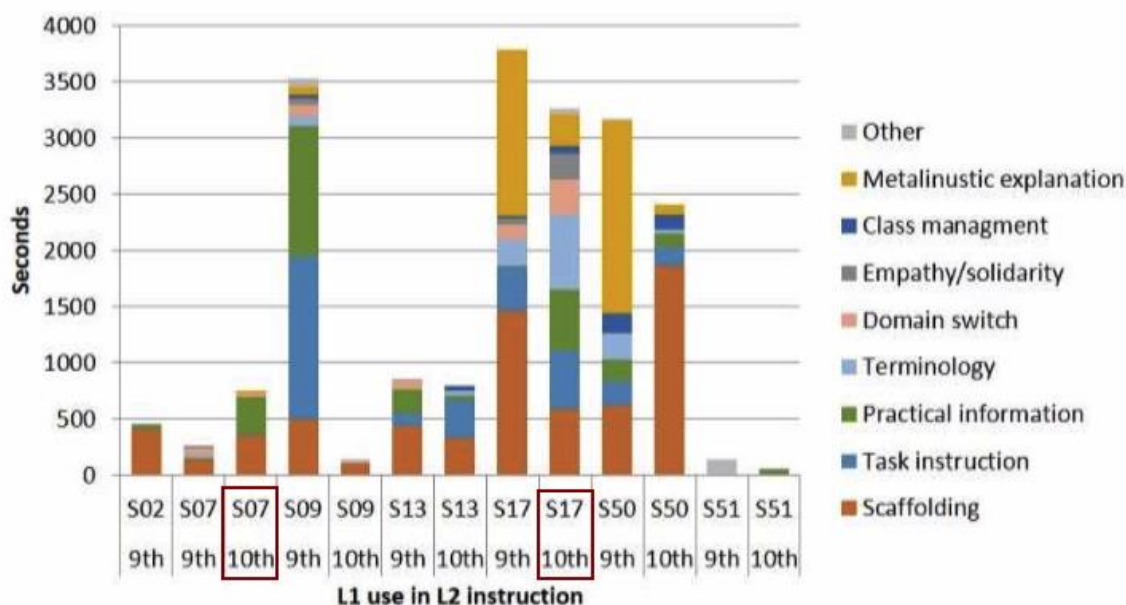


Figure 2.2 Distribution of L1 use in L2 instruction between LISE language functions in seconds (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming, p. 10, used with permission). Classrooms relevant for present study highlighted.

2.5.2 Other particularly relevant studies

Two relatively recent MA studies that explore teacher L1 use in Norwegian English subject classrooms are Hoff (2013), and Haugen Mehl (2014).

Hoff (2013) set out to compare L1 (Norwegian) use in EFL classrooms at lower secondary (year 8) and upper secondary (year 13) levels, as well as to explain the variation in L1 use in these classrooms. In order to research this, she conducted interviews with six teachers (three teaching lower secondary, and three teaching upper secondary), and observed and recorded

six lessons where she both categorized and quantified L1 use. Hoff (2013) found that L1 use was relatively inconsistent across the classrooms (and necessarily among the teachers). The contributing factors to this variation, she found, were “connected to a combination of the teachers’ proficiency levels, their L1/L2 attitudes, their ability to adjust their L2 in teaching, and their perception of their students’ comprehension” (p. III).

Haugen Mehl (2014) investigated teachers’ and students’ attitudes towards code-switching in English subject classrooms in Norway. Her aim was to examine how these attitudes influence teachers’ degree of code-switching. Her study was inspired by Hoff’s (2013) proposal that more research should be done on the students’ perspective, as well as on other levels of ELT. Her sample consisted of six teachers – three from lower secondary (year 10), and three from upper secondary (year 11) – as well as eight students. Haugen Mehl (2014) found substantial variation in the participating teachers’ attitudes towards code-switching. She also found considerable differences between how the individual teachers used code-switching in their own teaching practices. These variations were mostly found between the individual teachers, and not necessarily between the levels of teaching (year 10 vs. year 11). Perceptions of students’ proficiencies, the teachers’ teaching philosophy, and teacher experience were suggested to be the factors contributing most to the variations.

A study that was conducted in the United States, which served as inspiration for Hoff (2013), is Grim’s (2010) study *L1 in the L2 Classroom at the Secondary and College Levels: A Comparison of Functions and Use by Teachers*. Grim (2010) aimed to develop a more complete taxonomy of teachers’ L1 use than what he had found in literature on L1 use in L2 instruction, and to look at the difference in L1 use between High School (HS) teachers and college instructors.

Grim observed eight college instructors and three HS teachers, and ended up with six categories of L1 use: (1) Metalinguistic explanation, (2) Task instructions, (3) Class management/discipline, (4) Empathy/solidarity, (5) Immediate translation, (6) Delayed translation (Grim, 2010, pp. 197–203)

Grim also observed that while HS teachers used L1 for task instruction and class management/discipline, college instructors did not “encounter any need [to use L1 for these functions]” (Grim, 2010, p. 204). Conversely, HS teachers did not use L1 for metalinguistic explanations, while college instructors did.

3 Methods and data

In this chapter the choices of methods used to collect data, and investigate my research question, will be presented and explained. In the following, I will describe my research design (3.1), present the sampling process and participants (3.2), explain the operationalization of the LISE functions presented in the previous chapter (3.3) describe the development and piloting of the interview guide (3.4), account for how the data was collected (3.5), and explain how it was analyzed (3.6). Finally, in this chapter, I will discuss the credibility and ethical considerations regarding this MA study (3.7).

3.1 Research Design

The design of the present study examines qualitative data from three sources: (i) teacher interviews, (ii) observation of video material, and (iii) a questionnaire — the latter of which was used to supplement the data from the interviews. Furthermore, it uses quantitative data from one source: LISE-data on how the participating teachers use L1 and L2 in their classrooms (Fig 2.2; Fig. 3.2).

John Creswell (2014) explains that qualitative research is “an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 4). Being that the present study involved exploring teachers’ language beliefs, practices, and awareness, it became clear that the study needed to have qualitative data underpinning the research. Because any understanding regarding this topic would have to be garnered by investigating the intersection of what teachers report, what can be inferred from what they report, and their actual practices in the classroom — combining teacher reports from interviews and a questionnaire, video observation, and quantitative data presented itself as a suitable approach for achieving such understanding. The interviewing process also employ audiovisual stimuli in the form of video events of the participating teachers during English subject lessons. The choice to implement such a method in the interviews was – in part – informed by the intersection of data it creates when the participants answer questions about the observable events present in the video material.

Mixing qualitative and quantitative data and methods is called mixed methods research design. Depending on the definition, the design presented can be regarded as *mixed methods*.

The following definition by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007), would put the design of the present study within the realms of mixed methods:

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e. g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007, p. 123)

Creswell (2014), on the other hand, specifies that for a research design to be considered mixed methods, the study employing said design would need to *collect* both quantitative and qualitative data. It should therefore be noted that the study is based on qualitative findings, given that the quantitative aspect is data collected outside of the present study – making it secondary data – and is employed as a basis for comparison (see section 3.2.1).

Because this study is partly based on data already collected through separate research, and wholly based on participants of said project, this study aims to expand on – or add to – this earlier research. There are caveats, however. In the present study I used some of the taxonomy – that is, codes/categories – that has been established by the researchers in the LISE-project, but my application and operationalization of said codes is not identical to how the referenced LISE studies operated. I also coded inductively, developing codes that are not present in the LISE-material. More on these caveats is presented and discussed in sections 3.3 *Operationalizations of the LISE functions*, and 3.6 *Analysis*.

The structure of selecting, collecting, structuring and analyzing the data for this study can be divided into ten steps:

1. Developing the research question
2. Selecting participants
3. Observing video and selecting audiovisual stimuli
4. Creating and piloting an interview guide
5. Carrying out interviews
6. Supplementing the interviews with a questionnaire
7. Transcribing interviews

8. Analyzing data from interviews and questionnaires
9. Analyzing video data
10. Comparing and contrasting own findings to quantitative findings from LISE

Figure 3.1 is a model of the present study's research design, how it relates to the LISE project, and how it uses participants and data from the LISE project. Because this model is rather intricate, a legend explaining what the different shapes and colors mean, is presented below.

Legend for Figure 3.1:

- Ellipses represent *processes*.
- Squares represent *tools/data/participants/findings*.
- Arrows represent the *application of tools/data/participants/findings* in a *process*.

- Blue color signifies *procedural processes*.
- Pink color signifies *video*.
- Purple color signifies *participant involvement*.
- Light orange color signifies *unprocessed data*.
- Dark orange color signifies *processed data/findings*.

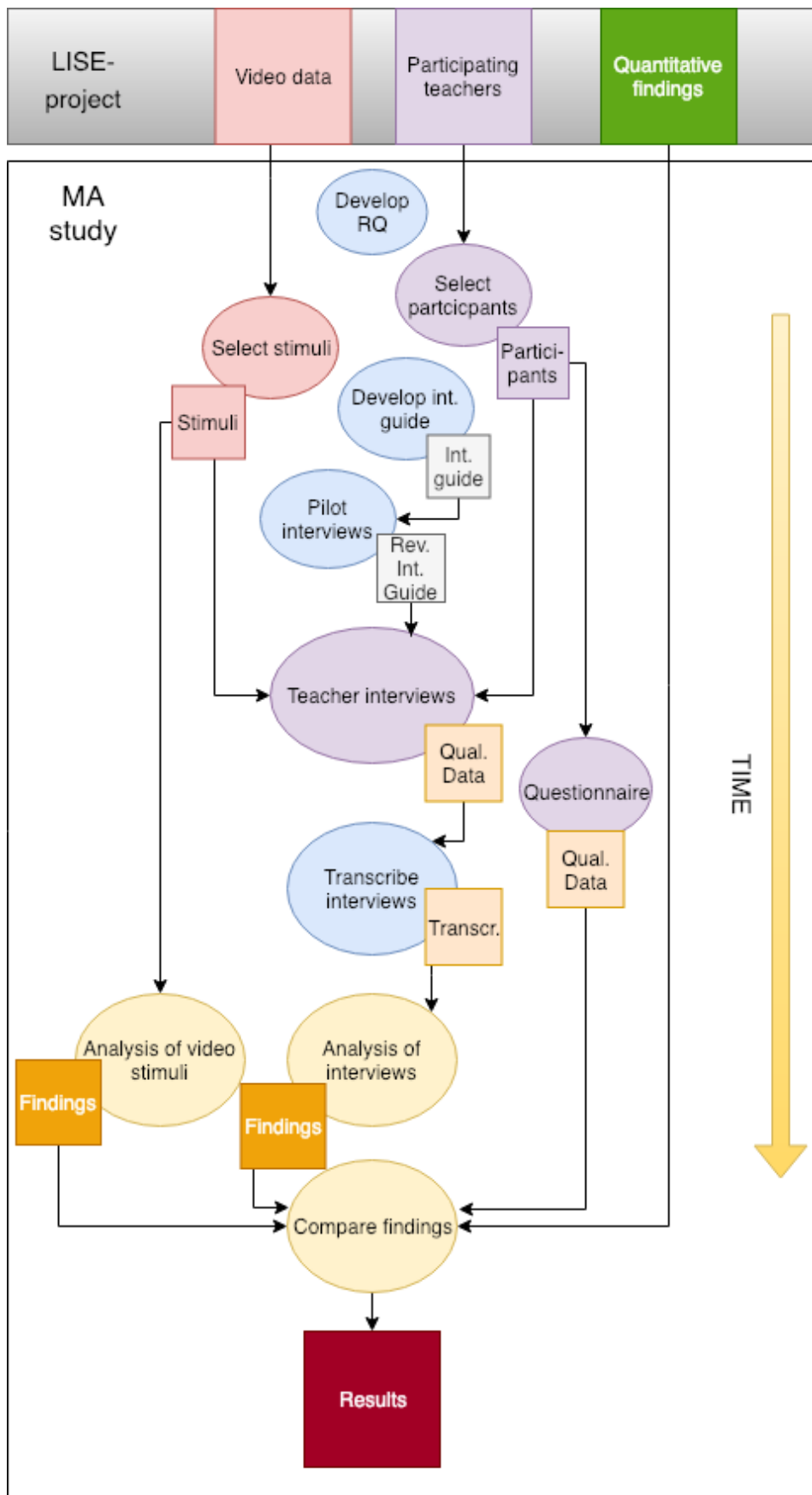


Figure 3.1 Model of the research design and this study’s relation to the LISE project.

3.2 Participants and sample

The participants in this study are two lower secondary English teachers in two different schools, in two different municipalities, in south-eastern Norway. The schools and teachers in question have – as mentioned – participated in the LISE-project prior to the present study.

Selecting a sample started with the video material. This study was partly established because I was introduced to the material through viewing, transcribing, and coding one of the videos in the video material from the LISE-project. The LISE-project has – at present – seven participating schools (Brevik, 2019), and 13 unique English subject classrooms were filmed. Because of the limited scope of this MA thesis, a smaller sample had to be established. Aiming to achieve in-depth understanding of the research topic, a sample of two teachers were selected and asked to participate in the present study.

The teacher in the aforementioned video I transcribed, later became one of the participants in this study, referred to as *Thea*. The second participant was chosen – in part – due to his difference to the first participant in age, and experience — Thea being older and more experienced. This second participant is referred to as *Michael*. In the LISE-project data their schools are referred to as S17 for Thea, and S07 for Michael, and I will use the same designations in this thesis. Table 3.1, below, contains an overview of the participants.

Table 3.1 Participating teachers (based on, and adapted from, Brevik, 2019, p. 6)

Pseudonyms	School designations	(Observed) Grade	Age	ECTS* credits in English	Experience as teachers
Thea	S17	10	40–49 years	61–90	21 years
Michael	S07	10	20–29 years	61–90	7 years

*ECTS = European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System

The participant sampling process presented above can be described as *purposive* — meaning that the participants were selected because they were deemed probable to provide the best data to answer the research questions in the present study with a limited number of participants (cf. Creswell, 2014, p. 189). The participants' observed difference in amount of

L1 used in the English subject classroom informed the sampling process. The quantitative findings from the LISE project on L1 (Norwegian) use in the participating schools, found that the 10th grade in S17 presented relatively high L1 use compared to the average. The 10th grade at S07, conversely, showed L2 use in line with most of the other measured classrooms, but also showed a not insignificant amount of both languages used in relative rapid succession. Figure 3.2, borrowed from Brevik, et. al. (in press, p. 9), illustrates this.

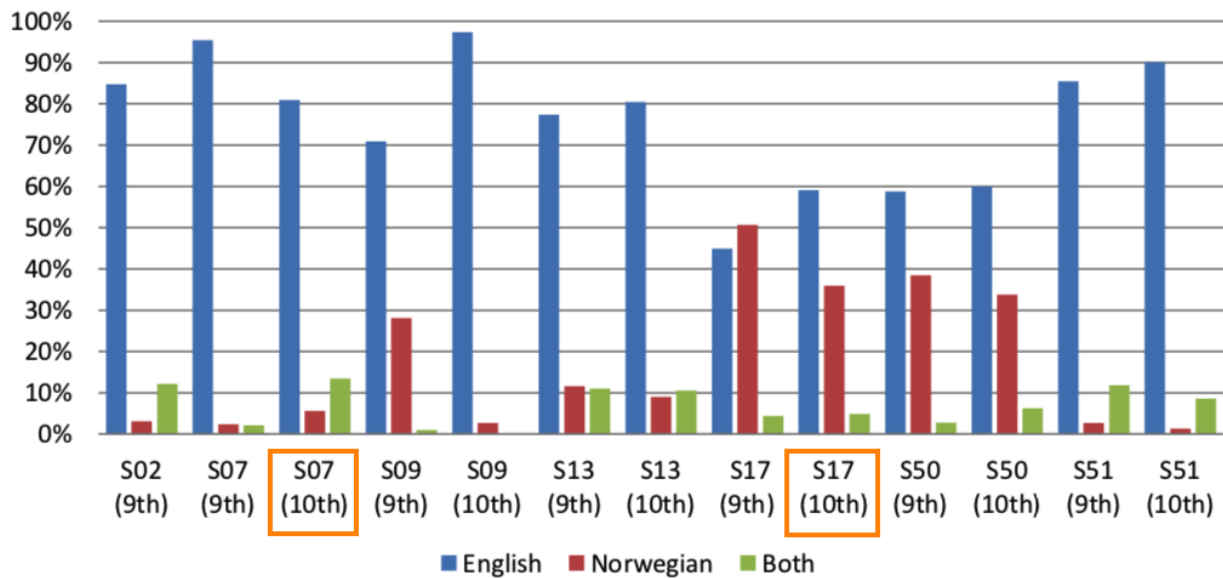


Figure 3.2 The relationship between L1 and L2 use in the LISE classrooms (Brevik, et. al., in press, p. 5, used with permission). Classrooms relevant to this study highlighted.

3.2.1 On the use of secondary data

The term *secondary data* is applied to data used for research if that data has not been collected specifically for that research (Dalland, 2011).

Two sets of data used in this study can be categorized as secondary data. The video events of the teachers – that are both used as stimuli, as well as analyzed for language functions – were selected from a data set that was not collected specifically for the present study. The same is true for the quantitative data, used as comparison for what the teachers report on specific language functions. This quantitative data is also the result of processing the video data it is based on. This quantification was not done by me, creating another level of distance between that data and this study.

Dalland (2011) argues that re-analyzing qualitative secondary data, outside of the research context they were originally intended for, can be rewarding. The rationale behind this argument is that re-use of data can give a researcher access to richer and more comprehensive data material than they are able to collect as part of their own research process. Despite the positive aspect of access to richer and more comprehensive data material, the re-use of data is not often employed as a method in qualitative research (Dalland, 2011). This can be explained – in part – by some epistemological issues that act disinclining towards the employment of the method (Andersson & Sørvik, 2013; Dalland, 2011).

The epistemological issues are connected to the appropriateness of the use of the data outside of its intended context, as well as in the context of the study it is re-used in (Andersson & Sørvik, 2013). I argue that such issues are alleviated, to a large extent, regarding the video data used in this study, by how said data is used. After the analyzation of the data and selection of stimuli, the video data is, in a sense, controlled by the participant when it is used as stimuli. The understanding the video data contributes to, is, thus, created in the analysis done in the present study *with* the reports from the subjects appearing in the videos.

3.3 Operationalizations of the LISE functions

The *LISE functions* (presented in section 2.5.1) have influenced many of the methodological decisions in the present study. The descriptions of the functions that exist within the current LISE material have been developed for use in observational research — making them accurate, but also relatively elaborate. Because the present study involves the participating teachers answering questions about their language choices when presented with scenarios meant to represent the various language functions, there arose a need to adapt the descriptions for the current study. The original descriptions provided in the theory chapter have therefore served as foundation for the operationalization of the functions for this study. The operationalizations are presented in table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Operationalizations of the LISE functions

Academic functions	
Function	Operationalization
Scaffolding	Explaining or elaborating on a subject-related topic, or guiding the students at the beginning a task
Metalinguistic explanation	Instructing grammar or other linguistic elements
Task instruction	Giving instructions to tasks the students are to undertake
Terminology	Explaining what a word means in order to expand the students' vocabulary
Domain switch	Talking about a different subject than English
Non-academic functions	
Function	Operationalization
Practical information	Giving practical information in the classroom, e.g. about a class excursion or keeping the classroom clean
Class management	Managing student behavior or reprimanding students
Empathy/solidarity	Talking to students about personal things, e.g. that the students have been feeling ill or that they have won a football game

These functions was used for their original purpose – coding L1 functions – in the present study, but will also be applied to L2 use — given that this study investigates the teachers' practices in both languages.

3.4 Developing and piloting the interview guide

The development of the interview guide (Appendix 1) was informed by Creswell's (2014) suggestions for inclusions in what he calls an *interview protocol* (p. 194). Furthermore, the interview guide was constructed with a semi-structured interview in mind (Seidman, 2013). The aim of a semi-structured interview is to allow the interview to have a less structured, more free form. The rationale behind this aim is to promote a more flowing, less hampered interview process, allow for tangents and follow ups, and consequently possibly richer data — that is, data, and subsequent representation of the data in text form, that better reveal the complexities and richness of what is being studied (Given, 2008).

As previously mentioned, one part of the interviewing process involved showing the participants video events of themselves teaching – as stimuli (Gass & Mackey, 2017; see also section 2.4.2) – to use as a foundation for specific situations in which the participants use language in different ways. Because of the restricted access I had to the video material – and ethical considerations concerning anonymity – using the same video events when piloting the interviews as I would in the actual interviews was unfeasible. I instead used two videos containing English language teaching in Norway, one where a teacher is demonstrating Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), exclusively in English², and one where a teacher is demonstrating English verb tenses in, mostly, Norwegian³. I piloted the interview guide by setting up mock interviews with two students in the secondary teaching training program (Lektorprogrammet). I made sure that the two had experience as English teachers because of the nature of the questions and research aims. These aforementioned videos were used as placeholders for the actual video events, and the participants in the pilot study were asked the same questions that I was planning to ask the participants in the MA study. While piloting the interviews, I also took notes.

After completing the interviews, I conducted meta-interviews with the students in the pilot where I asked them about the interviewing process and whether they had any suggestions for changes or adjustments. Based on their feedback I changed some aspects of the interview guide. Most significantly, perhaps, was that the feedback led me to include more direct questions about the teachers' views on language use in an ideal English classroom, for example: *Do you think it is important that your students speak as much English as possible in the ELT classroom? Why/why not?* (Appendix 1).

3.5 Data collection

As shown in the section on research design (3.2), the qualitative data for this study comes from three sources: (i) video recordings of English subject classroom, (ii) teacher interview, and (iii) teacher questionnaire.

Because the interviews involved the use of video stimuli, an initial video event sampling had to be undertaken before the interviews could take place. These events were selected from a

² <http://www.coreproject.no/films/clil-social-sciences-in-english/>

³ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZSY9RpZCYSI>

sample of a total of eleven recordings. However, the events selected stem from six of these recordings — two video recordings from S07 and four from S17. The actual extraction of the events was done at the Teaching Learning Video Lab (TLVlab) at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research at UiO. At my request, a lab engineer at TLVlab copied the events onto an encrypted and password-protected (BitLocker)⁴ external drive for me to use in the interviewing process.

3.5.1 Selecting audiovisual stimuli — video observation

Video observation was chosen as a method because observation “offers an investigator the opportunity to gather “live” data from naturally occurring social situations” (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, & Bell, 2011), something that is advantageous when investigating the present study’s research questions. Other factors were the availability of the video material, and the fact that the selected video events were to be used as stimuli in the interviewing process. Klette (2016) also points out the advantages of using video observation in research on education, stating: “Video documentation has proven especially powerful in the investigation of teaching and learning, as it enables more precise, complete, and subtle analyses of teaching/learning processes” (p. 1) — the prospect of achieving *precise, complete, and subtle* analyses of the participants’ language practices was deemed advantageous for this study.

An important factor informing the selection of stimuli was if and how the events exemplified the LISE functions (3.3). Other than the LISE functions, the selection was informed by the present study’s aim to investigate the teachers’ reports on their own language practices in general. The taxonomy of functions developed by LISE was, thus, used as a guide, but other aspects of the teachers’ language use were also considered when selecting — such aspect include: the teachers’ choice of language when asked a question in Norwegian by a student, and the teacher explicitly or implicitly telling a student to speak a certain language.

The stimuli used for Thea’s interview totaled 2 minutes and 24 seconds more than the stimuli used for Michael’s interview. This is illustrated in Table 3.3.

⁴ <https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/windows/security/information-protection/bitlocker/bitlocker-overview>

Table 3.3 Number and length of audiovisual stimuli employed in the teacher interviews. Length in minutes and seconds.

Participant	Number of events	Total length of stimuli	Longest event	Shortest event
Thea	6	09:46	02:45	00:36
Michael	6	07:22	02:52	00:11

An information sheet containing codes applied to, and notes related to, the videos are available in Appendix 4.

3.5.2 Teacher interviews

Employing *qualitative interviews* as a method was deemed an appropriate for this study because it is a method suitable for eliciting insight to the beliefs and thoughts of the interviewees (Richards, 2015; Seidman, 2013). Using a mix of both closed and open questions was intended to produce both patterns regarding the use of specific language functions, as well as emerging ideas regarding language use in general (cf. Richards, 2015, p. 47).

The two interviews were conducted in September, 2018. The interview with Thea took place in a meeting room outside of her school, while the interview with Michael took place in a meeting room at his school. The interviews were conducted in Norwegian. Both the settings and the interview language were chosen on account of comfort and practicality for the participants (cf. Richards, 2015, p. 48), and both interviews were recorded as audio. Table 3.4 shows the length of each recording.

Table 3.4 Length of audio recordings of teacher interviews in minutes and seconds.

Participant	Length of audio recording of interview
Thea	43:08
Michael	33:20

The difference in length in the interviews can be attributed to two things: First, and foremost, the difference in length of the teachers' answers to the posed questions. Secondly, there was a slight difference in total length of the stimuli presented to the participants (see Table 3.3).

There were some differences in the questions posed to the participants – mainly on account of the use of unique stimuli for each participant – as well as minimal differences in the number

of follow-ups and tangential questions, on my part, during the interview process. The teachers' length when answering did differ somewhat, however. This is illustrated in the transcriptions of the interviews as well, with the transcription of Thea's interview totaling approximately 1000 words more than the transcription of the interview with Michael.

After the formalities preceding the interviews – that is, going through the consent form (Appendix 2), presenting the purpose of the study, and the structure of the interview, etc. – the interviews were divided into two phases: the first phase focused on introducing the teachers to the interview as well as asking general questions establishing thoughts on language ideals, and the second on yielding data with the aid of stimulated recall.

Phase one: Introduction and establishing language preference

Phase one was itself divided into two sections. The first was an introductory section where the participants were asked about backgrounds as teachers and how they use English outside of a professional setting. This first section was intended to facilitate a comfortable introduction to the interview-setting, as well as establishing some background information about the participants (Seidman, 2013). The second section covered language- use and choices in the classroom in general. An example of a question from this section is: *In what types of situations do you think it is least important to use English? Why?* The intention in this second section was to lead the participants towards the theme of language use and to ascertain the participant's attitudes towards student language use as well as their own language use.

Phase two: Stimulated recall

The second phase of the interviews utilized, as mentioned, video stimuli. The participants were shown video events of their own teaching, and asked questions – after each of the six events – about the event shown in the event. The first question after watching each of the events was a general question, for example: *What is the first thing you think about after viewing this clip?* Following this, a more specific question was posed, for example: *Is there a specific reason you speak Norwegian/English in this event?* The aim of this phase was to use the video events as a tool to access and support the teachers' reflections on their choice in use of language in the classroom.

In order to get the participants to provide reliable reports of the thought processes behind their choices and practices when using language in the classroom, having the participants engage in introspection was necessary. Reporting on their own preferences, practices and choices is, in and of itself, an introspective undertaking for the participants, but by employing an introspective method to aid the process, the goal was to strengthen the accuracy of their answers. Instead of having the teachers only report on hypotheticals, having them report on actual past events seemed advantageous, and this is supported by Gass and Mackey (2017):

It is difficult enough to gain awareness of mental functioning; trying to recall past instances might prove particularly troublesome. Running commentary and stimulated recall, we argue, may be more reliable. (Gass & Mackey, 2017, p. 4).

3.5.3 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are useful for obtaining information about participants' perception (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). In order to achieve a baseline to compare to the actual teacher practices, I opted to send the participants a short questionnaire where they reported if they mainly use English or Norwegian in certain given situations. The descriptions of these situations are the operationalizations of the LISE functions, presented in section 3.3. The questionnaire was sent to Thea and Michael three and two days, respectively, after the interviews were conducted. This was done because after an initial review of the interview data, I determined the need to ascertain more conclusive responses to the questions about the LISE functions.

3.6 Analysis

As mentioned in the section presenting the research design for this study (3.1), investigating the study's research question requires information on both what the participating teachers report, what can be inferred from these reports, as well as information on the actual practices that they are reporting on. This led to a rather *holistic* approach to the interpretation of the information garnered from the three qualitative data sets of the study. A holistic approach entails viewing the parts as interconnected, and explicable only as a whole. In order to be able to view the parts as a whole, however, the information in the parts needs to be identified and structured. This structuring was done through coding — labelling the bits of information

with applicable and manageable concepts (Saldaña, 2016). In the following, the process of coding (3.6.1) and interpreting (3.6.2) the data collected for this study, will be presented.

After selecting the video events, conducting and transcribing the interviews, and receiving answers on the questionnaire, the study operated with these three data sets:

- i. Video events ($n=12$)
- ii. Interview transcriptions ($n=2$)
- iii. Answers to questionnaire ($n=2$)

Any reference to *data set(s)* refers to one or all of these. References to a participants' *data* – for example, 'Thea's data' – means all data from these three sets that pertain to Thea.

3.6.1 Coding

Saldaña (2016) provides a definition of *codes*, revealing how their application is advantageous in qualitative research: “A code in qualitative inquiry is most often a word or a short phrase that symbolically assigns summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attributes for a portion of language-based or visual data.” (p. 4). When undertaking a coding effort, it is common to divide into two main methods of coding: *deductive coding*, and *inductive coding*. When coding deductively, you operate with an already established taxonomy (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) — a list of codes, relevant to your research topic, which you apply to the data. When coding inductively, the codes are identified through the process of investigating the data (Miles, et. al., 2014), and are thus informed by the data, as well as applied to it. This is sometimes referred to as ‘codes emerging from the data’, but that can be argued to be a misnomer — “coding *is* analysis” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 56, original emphasis), and the researcher plays an active role in an analytical process (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The inductive codes did not form in a theoretical vacuum either — their identification (a term I believe more aptly describes how inductive codes are created) was, thus, influenced by both epistemology and theory.

Video data

When I reviewed the video recordings of the participants' English lessons for the present study, the recordings had already been coded for L1 functions. A major difference, however, between the application of the LISE functions in the original coding effort, compared to my

own, relates to the L1-nature of the codes in the original LISE coding and material. The LISE functions were only applied to instances of L1 (Norwegian) in the original material, whereas during the coding for the present study, I applied the functions to instances of English and – in a few cases – other languages, as well.

While observing the video material, I could identify a majority of the functions – sometimes a combination of two or even three functions – in the events used for stimuli in the interviews. Events identified as containing several functions were coded as such (see Appendix 4).

Teacher interviews

The audio recordings of the interviews were transcribed in their entirety, and the transcriptions were subsequently loaded into the data management tool NVivo 12⁵. Using the tool, the data was organized and coded. The coding process involved both deductive and inductive coding. Utterances that were identified as linked to the LISE functions, and/or prompted by the stimuli representing the LISE functions, were coded as such. Items of data that were identified as interesting, were, tentatively, labelled with a code. The codes were later revised when performing a second cycle coding — that is, going through identified codes, and revising if needed (Saldaña, 2016).

Questionnaire

The eight questions on the questionnaire were exclusively based on the operationalizations of the LISE functions, and the resulting answers were, thus, coded with the corresponding LISE function. Each respective set of answers to the questions were also coded as a unit based on if and how they related to any of the themes or sub-themes presented in Table 3.5 in the following section.

3.6.2 Interpretation

In order to interpret the coded material, I opted to employ *thematic analysis*. Braun and Clark (2006) describe thematic analysis as a common method for analyzing qualitative data. Their definition of thematic analysis is the following:

⁵ NVivo 12 Pro product page: <https://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo/nvivo-products/nvivo-12-pro>

Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail. However, frequently it goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic (Braun & Clark, 2006, s. 79)

In other words, thematic analysis does not require strict organization of the data sets onto which it is applied, aims to produce themes which describe the data in rich detail, and can be applied to interpret several aspects of the research topic. This flexible nature fits well with both investigating the data sets of this study both individually and separately, as well as holistically. Braun and Clarke (2006) also present a step-by-step guide to performing a thematic analysis in six steps. These steps are:

1. Familiarizing yourself with your data
2. Generating initial codes
3. Searching for themes
4. Reviewing themes
5. Defining and naming themes
6. Producing the report

(Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

The initial familiarizing and coding – steps 1 and 2 – were described in the previous section on coding. Steps 3–5 produced the following themes and sub-themes presented in table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Themes and sub-themes identified through thematic analysis

MAIN THEMES	SUB-THEMES
Language aim	Maximizing English use
Language approach	Allowing Norwegian use
	Norms
	Scaffolding
Language choice	Student(s) specific
	Situation specific

The themes are organized into *main themes* and *sub-themes*. The main themes are organized from top to bottom in order of how ‘removed’ they are from the practices in the classroom. That means that this study considers a teacher’s *language aim* to be further from what happens in the classroom than *language approach*, and *language choices* denote the actual decisions taking place in the classroom. The sub-themes are only organized on how they relate to the main themes they border. *Maximizing English use* is a sub-theme that was identified as pertaining to both the main themes *language aim* and *language approach*, and therefore it borders both main themes.

The product of step 6, *producing the report*, in Braun and Clark’s step-by-step guide, is presented in the *Findings* chapter — chapter 4. The themes themselves will be discussed in the *Discussion* chapter — chapter 5.

3.7 Credibility and ethical considerations

Qualitative research is intrinsically interpretative, and the inquirer is typically involved with the participants during the research process. This has consequences for validity and reliability in qualitative studies, and introduces a range of ethical concerns (Creswell, 2014). These concerns – and considerations made during this study to meet these concerns – will be presented and discussed in this section. The considerations pertaining to validity and reliability are – in large part – based on suggestions in works by Creswell (2014), and Johnson and Christensen (2017). The section on ethical considerations, that follows, is mainly based on Ryen (2016).

3.7.1 Validity

Johnson and Christensen (2017) define validity in research as a quality that makes the research “plausible, credible, trustworthy, and therefore defensible” (p. 298). They go on to list types of validity that are important in qualitative research, and I will comment on four such types: *descriptive validity*, *interpretive validity*, *internal validity*, and *external validity*, and how I have worked to strengthen each type. These four were chosen because they are the most relevant for the present study. The order in which they are presented are chosen due to how they appear in Johnson and Christensen (2017).

Descriptive validity refers to the accuracy of the reported and described events in the research — that is, to what degree the descriptions in the research matches with the actual events (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). An effective way to ensure descriptive validity is to employ *multiple investigators* in the research. Such a procedure entails having more than one individual observe and interpret the data the research is based on (Johnson & Christensen, 2017).

This study actively employs the use of multiple investigators. Fellow MA student on the LISE project – Vilde Matilde Skram – has reviewed the transcriptions of the interviews and cross-checked them with the audio recordings. A way this study makes *multiple investigators* achievable in the future is that the audio recordings of the interviews have been uploaded to the secure LISE data server, making the transcriptions available to other researchers, as well. This availability is the case only for researchers with special access to the LISE material, through an affiliation with the project, however. The results and findings of this study concerning the video data can, thus, be cross-checked by other researchers at a later stage, as well. Since the video data is part of a larger research project with multiple researchers involved, my interpretations and descriptions can be compared to the data they are based on.

Interpretive validity refers to how well the researcher is able to portray the participants' perspectives and meanings (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). Johnson and Christensen (2017) identify *participant feedback* (also called *member checking*) as the most important strategy to ensure interpretive validity. This strategy involves sharing your interpretations with the interpreted individuals — that is, having the participants review your interpretations of their viewpoints. They also present using *low-inference descriptors* in your reporting as a valuable strategy to obtain interpretive validity. *Low-inference descriptors* means reporting statements/responses/utterances with as little interpretation, on the researchers' part, as possible. Quoting the participants verbatim is the descriptor with the lowest inference (Johnson & Christensen, 2017).

This study has been subject to participant feedback on the teacher interviews, as the transcriptions have been sent to the participants for review and feedback. On the subject of using low-inference descriptors, the issue of translation makes itself relevant, as the interviews were conducted in Norwegian and transcribed in Norwegian. For the purpose of

accessibility – and general modern research etiquette – the participants are quoted in English, and are therefore translations from Norwegian.

Both Creswell (2014) and Johnson and Christensen (2017) recommend *triangulation* as a means of strengthening validity. Creswell (2014) explains triangulation as examining evidence from multiple sources, while Johnson and Christensen (2017) add using multiple investigators, methods, and theoretical perspectives, to the list of ways to triangulate. Triangulating is especially important for the *internal validity* of a study — how justified the researcher is in determining cause-and-effect relationships in their research (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). Often, however, qualitative research does not aspire to identify cause-and-effect relationships (Johnson & Christensen, 2017), and this study falls into this category, as it is descriptive in nature, not explanatory — although answering RQ3 does entail suggesting some possible explanations.

This study examines multiple sources using multiple methods to strengthen validity. This includes the use of stimulated recall in the interviews, as it is also a means of triangulation (Gass & Mackey, 2017) — adding another dimension to the data collection process. Two aspects of the present study that may lessen its validity are (i) its limited sample, and (ii) researcher bias. Firstly, a sample of two participants weakens the study's *external validity* — the degree to which the findings and results of a study can be generalized or are transferable (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). Both in *internal validity* – mentioned above – and in *external validity*, qualitative research is often considered weak (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). By and of itself, this study is weak in transferability because of its narrow scope and purposive sampling. It aims to establish particularistic knowledge rather than universalistic knowledge, however, and it can be argued that by virtue of being a part of a much bigger research project (LISE), its external validity is somewhat strengthened. Secondly, going into this research project, I had a personal preference in language approach in ELT — a *bias*. In my (albeit limited) experience as an English teacher, I have mainly adhered to a monolingual approach, and this has – to me – seemed as the preferable approach. It can be argued, then, that I myself have a possible monolingual ideal, which can be problematic when researching language ideals. After reading theory and doing research, however, my conviction to this approach and ideal has ameliorated somewhat. I have definitely strived to not let the bias color the research, but it bears mentioning, nonetheless.

3.7.2 Reliability

Qualitative reliability is defined by Creswell (2014) as “[something indicating] that the researcher’s approach is consistent across different researchers and different projects” (p. 201). Reliability is a type of *trustworthiness* that is based on the researcher’s ability to convey and/or prove that their research is consistent and stable. The reliability of this study is strengthened by, for example, using codes that have already been established by other researchers (the LISE researchers), double-checking transcripts to ensure accuracy, and checking any codes that were produced inductively with a fellow researcher (Vilde Matilde Skram). These procedures are in line with the reliability procedures presented by Creswell (2014, p. 203).

There are some aspects of how stimulated recall was used in this study that may weaken reliability. Gass and Mackey (2017) explain that stimulated recall is most reliably used when it is applied close to the event it is investigating. This is not the case in this study. The events that are used as prompts were filmed more than one year prior to the interviews. This long interval between event and recall does not benefit the reliability of the results from the stimulated recall process because — as Gass and Mackey (2017) point out: “When the delay is long, one often compensates for a lack of memory by “filling in” the memory gap, often based on what is expected” (p. 46).

Moreover, in order to ensure *recall* and not *hindsight report* (see Fig. 2.1 in the theory chapter), the questions posed to the interviewees should be phrased in a certain way. Gass and Mackey (2017) suggest phrasing the questions in a way that elicit thoughts that the interviewee had at the time of the original event, and not at the time of the interview. Examples include: “What were you thinking when she said x?” and “What were you thinking when you shook your head?” (p. 50). The questions posed to the participants in the present study vary in their adherence to these stipulations.

Two aspects of how stimulated recall was used in the present study that are in line with Gass and Mackey’s (2017) suggestions, pertains to the type of stimuli used, and how/if the interviewees were prepared for the stimulated recall process. Firstly, audiovisual stimulus is considered strong stimulus — this strengthens reliability. Secondly, the interviewees were not prepared in advance of the interviews, only notified before the second phase of the

interviews. This means that they did not have the opportunity to come prepared to the process, which is considered advantageous when using stimulated recall in interviews (Gass & Mackey, 2017).

Despite these strengthening aspects, the issues of amount of time passed, and phrasing of the questions – presented above – suggest that I cannot assert that the elicited responses in the present study are viable representations of the thoughts the participants had at the time of the original event. The use of stimulated recall in this study must thus be seen as a tool to aid introspection, strengthen accuracy, and elicit cognitive processes at the time of the interviews, rather than a tool to elicit cognitive processes the participants had at the time of the original events.

3.7.3 Ethical considerations

Ryen (2016) identifies the three most frequently raised ethical concerns in Western research guidelines as following: (i) codes and consent, (ii) confidentiality, and (iii) trust (Ryen, 2016, p. 32).

Codes and consent refers to participants being informed about, and consenting to, the research they are part of (Ryen, 2016). Informed consent is one of the main pillars of research ethics (Befring, 2015). Given the participants' consent to participate in the LISE research, I was not required to obtain consent to use the video material in my research. For the interviews, however, I did. Before I conducted the interviews, I explained – to a degree – what I was researching, without going into too much detail as to lessen the probability to skew the results. The participating teachers were presented with a consent form that was a slightly modified version of the form they had signed for the LISE-project (with my name and contact-information added). They were informed that they could withdraw their consent at any point, and read and signed the form (Appendix 2).

Confidentiality refers to the fact that the researcher is required to protect the identity of the participants involved in their research, and involves anonymizing people and places (Ryen, 2016). Qualitative research can be said to have a proclivity for thick, rich descriptions which strengthens the validity and reliability of the research (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This can sometimes be at odds with anonymization efforts. It is important, then, to find a balance between the two — describing the sample and context enough, without threatening the

anonymity of the participants. In the present study, the participants and locations have been anonymized and given pseudonyms where appropriate. There is some description of the background of the participants that is suitable for establishing context, but an effort has been made to not reveal too many details.

In Norway, it is required by law to report research projects that involve the handling of personal information to the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD)⁶ for approval. Both the LISA project and the LISE project have such approvals that extend to MA students involved in the research. Since my research involved copying video events onto a removable disk, which left the premises of the ILS video lab, however, this had to be reported and approved as an extra measure.

“*Trust* [...] refers to the relationship between the researcher and the participants, and to the researcher’s responsibility to not ‘spoil’ the field for others in the sense that potential research subjects get reluctant to be studied” (Ryen, 2016, p. 33, emphasis mine). Even though the participants in this study had experience as participants from previous research (LISE), a potential sensitive issue here was the focus on the teachers’ own practices and that the teachers were asked about specific aspects of their own teaching. Therefore, the teachers’ integrity and self-image will – to a certain extent – be taken into consideration. This study does not aim to, nor attempt to, uncover problematic aspect of any teacher’s practices.

⁶ <http://www.nsd.no>

4 Findings

In this chapter, the findings and results of the study are presented. This is done in four main sections. In section 4.1, I will present the main findings of the present study. In the subsequent sections, findings informing the main findings will be presented, together with the evidence supporting them. Section 4.2 contains findings and evidence from the first phase of the teacher interviews. In the next section, 4.3, findings and evidence from phase two – the phase where audiovisual stimuli are used – will be presented. Section 4.4 showcases the findings from participating teachers' answers to the questionnaire.

In section 4.2 and 4.3, a significant number of quotes from the teacher interviews appear in the text. Each quote will be introduced with an explanation of which of the participants is the source of the quote along with the context the quote appears in. Instances of interviewer-utterances – appearing in order to contextualize the participants' utterances – will be preceded with 'K:' in the quotes. In these instances, the participants' quotes will also be preceded with the initial of their respective pseudonyms, 'T' for Thea, and 'M' for Michael. The quotes are translations from Norwegian, but I have strived to keep them as close to the original meaning and tone, while still making sentences and phrases relatively idiomatic in English. The quotes from the interviews also have a denotation [initial of participant] + [number], for example: 'T03' — this denotation will be used to refer back to the quotes in the discussion in chapter 5.

A note on the use of punctuation in the quotes: a normal ellipsis ... is used to denote pauses and interrupted phrases, and a bracketed ellipsis [...] is used to denote actual ellipses — that is, parts of the quotes that have been omitted due to, for example, lack of relevance, or sensitive personal information.

4.1 Main findings

In the following, the three main findings of this MA study will be presented. This will be achieved in three sub-sections, each pertaining to each of the three RQs.

4.1.1 Main finding 1 — Reports

The first key finding pertains to RQ1:

What do the participating teachers report as their language beliefs and practices?

This study found that Thea reported that although she aims to use English as much as possible in her English lessons, she knows she tends to switch to Norwegian at some point during her lessons. She did not report to have any rules for herself with regard to how much of any language she uses in her lessons. Furthermore, she reported that she believes her language choices are informed by both the *situation* — that is, the context of her utterances, for example the topic she is talking about, as well as the *student* — that is, her perception of the student or students she is interacting with, for example how proficient in English she believes the student to be. The thematic analysis identified *scaffolding* as the most common explanation for code-switching in Thea's data, but she also reported that an influential factor for switching to Norwegian could be her own uncertainty with certain topics. Thea did not report a significant difference in how likely she is to use one language over the other when prompted with the LISE functions as hypotheticals (i.e. in the questionnaire), and explained instead that her choice was very much dependent on the unique situation.

Furthermore, this study found that Michael also reported that he aims to use English as much as possible in his English lessons. His position on the matter appears stronger than Thea's — maximizing English use was identified as a recurring theme in his reports, and he did not report that he often switches to Norwegian. Michael also reported that he — as a rule — uses as much English as possible. Moreover, he reported that he believes choice of language is informed by the situation more than the student. The thematic analysis identified *scaffolding* as the most common explanation for code-switching in Michael's data as well. Michael's reports when it comes to what language he mainly uses, when prompted with the LISE functions as hypotheticals, contain references to the unique situation being a factor influencing language choices, but these references are not as marked as Thea's. Michael reported English as the language of choice in most instances, with *terminology* being the exception.

There are, then, some similarities between what the teachers convey when they reported on their own language practices, and the motivations behind their choice of language in certain situations. But the data also indicates that there are key differences — arguably more so than similarities, mostly pertaining to how consistently they reported inclinations to maximize English use, as well as some fundamental differences in what they reported as the factors influencing their choice in language in given situations.

4.1.2 Main finding 2 — Language awareness

The second key finding pertains to RQ2:

How do findings from the teacher reports compare to the actual practices of the teachers?

This study found that what the participating teachers reported as their use of Norwegian in their English lessons corresponds to a degree with the teachers' actual practices. This correspondence can be argued to be strongest on a superficial level, however — that is, with regards to the *amount* they use L1 and L2 comparatively. The analysis showed that this awareness can be argued to extend to awareness of whether they are more influenced by situation or student(s) in their language choices. Their awareness relating to use of LISE functions seems less clear, and the data suggests that Michael may underestimate how much L1 he uses for some functions, most notably *scaffolding*. In other words: the data suggests that the participants are aware of their own language use in the classroom on a somewhat superficial level.

Thea's reports indicating that she does not necessarily adhere to any specific rules or guidelines when it comes to language use, and the fact that she reported that she tends to switch to Norwegian during her lessons, corresponds with the quantitative LISE data. LISE found that her classroom had among the highest amount of L1 of the classrooms in the study — around 35% (Fig. 3.2). Thea's answers when she reported directly on the operationalized LISE functions, suggest that she does not believe that she uses Norwegian more often for any of the LISE functions than for another, and indicate that she does not strongly prefer to use one language over another in the given situations. This notion is backed up by the LISE data, which shows that her L1 use is spread relatively evenly among the functions (Fig. 2.2). The

thematic analysis identified *scaffolding* as a prominent theme in Thea's data as an explanation for several code-switching stimulus events. This coincides with the fact that four of six stimulus events that were shown to Thea were coded for *scaffolding*. Thea also reported, when asked directly, that she believes that her language choices are influenced by both the situation and student(s), and she did not indicate that one was more influential than the other. The thematic analysis of her data suggest that this notion can be regarded as accurate.

Michael reporting that he mostly uses English and only sometimes switch to Norwegian is also in line with what the quantitative data shows. When LISE measured the amount of L1 in Michael's classrooms, they found that around 5% of utterances were in Norwegian, with approximately 12% of both L1 and L2 together (Fig. 3.2). His reports on *how* he uses Norwegian cannot be described to be congruent with the measured data. Of the eight functions, Michael singles out the operationalization of *terminology* as the situation he regards as the one he would most likely use L1 in, and *scaffolding* as the function for which he is least likely to use L1. When his classrooms were measured, LISE found that his L1 use was primarily coded for *scaffolding* and *practical information* (Fig. 2.2). This does not account for the around 12% where both languages are used in rapid succession, however, which may or may not explain the discrepancy. The thematic analysis also identified *scaffolding* as a prominent theme in Michael's data, especially the data where stimuli was present. This coincides with the fact that three of six stimulus events he was shown were coded for *scaffolding*. Michael reported, when asked directly, that he believes that his language choice in the classroom is mostly influenced by the situation, rather than the student(s). The thematic analysis of his data indicates that this can be argued to be in line with actual events.

4.1.3 Main finding 3 — Language ideals

The third main finding pertains to RQ3:

Does the participants' data reflect a specific language ideal?

Based on the assumption that a language ideal can be identified by a teacher's inclination to encourage or enforce a certain language in the classroom (2.1.2), and analysis of the collected

data sets, this study found that out of the two participating teachers' data, only Michael's reflects a specific language ideal. This study tentatively suggests that Michael has a *monolingual language ideal* — based on his reported aim, combined with reported and observed practices and choices favoring the maximization of the L2 (English), and the comparatively small amount of evidence supporting a different language ideal. Although Thea's data was found — in some cases — to be in line with bilingual principles, this study found that her data is more defined by *not* being in line with monolingual principles. The absence of positively identifiable norms informing language practices, also contributed to this finding.

4.2 Teacher interviews — no stimuli

In phase one of the interviews, the teachers were asked the same questions with the goal of introducing the topic of language, and also to elicit reports on their language beliefs and practices without stimuli.

The findings and evidence, in this section, will be presented question by question. The questions themselves — in bold — introduce the findings and evidence for each question.

In the English classroom, do you think it is important that the students speak as much English as possible?

As presented in section 2.6, there is broad agreement in the theory on ELT that maximizing English use is advantageous when teaching and learning English. This is perhaps unsurprising, but it is, nevertheless, interesting to see how the participants responded to such a — seemingly — straightforward question. The question was also meant as a prompt for the teachers to reflect on, and reveal evidence indicating a language aim. Thea and Michael were mostly in agreement here. Yes, they do think that speaking English as much as possible is important. When asked to expand on her “yes”, Thea explained:

T01 *Yes. That is my intention when I enter an English subject classroom to teach English: I try to say that from here on, we're only going to speak English. We're going to try that, I always start with that. And then, somewhere along the way — I don't always know why I switch to Norwegian — maybe it's a mood, or that I see that someone doesn't understand fully, or if there's something that has to be explained, or if there are things that are so important that it's important that everybody register it, then I say it in Norwegian.*

Thea, then, sets out to have a classroom that communicates in English, but stated that she tends to switch to Norwegian at some point or another during her lessons. She was unsure of a universal reason behind this switch, but suggested a general mood, and/or a need to ensure comprehension as factors that inform the switch.

When elaborating on the same topic, Michael stated:

M01 M: *Yes. If you want to excel in something, you have to use it in practice. And especially important for me, when it comes to the students' use of English, is that they are often a bit afraid of speaking English. They write well and they have good vocabularies – the elementary schools seemingly do a good job there – but I experience that there isn't necessarily too much fluency, orally. They aren't used to formulate phrases for unknown settings, and then there is that tinge of fear they themselves express: that it's scary to speak English in front of others. I then think that I just have to – what is it called? – throw them to the...*

K: *Wolves?*

M: *The wolves, yes! Well, within appropriate formats so they get used to it, but essentially use as much English as possible.*

Michael connected maximizing English use to progression towards fluency, and advertised for having the students speak about subjects they are not necessarily familiar with in order to challenge them.

Do you have any guidelines or rules for yourself regarding your choice of language in the English subject classroom?

When attempting to identify conscious language rules or strategies, I opted to ask about guidelines or rules the teachers can point to that inform how they choose language when teaching English. Here, there is a divide between the two: Thea stated that she does not have any such guidelines, Michael responded that he does, and went on to clarify:

M02 M: *Yes, well, typically, I want to speak English as much as possible. Maybe some things in Norwegian if there's need to clarify, or in some explanations, but the language of communication on my part is normally English, and especially when the students ask questions in Norwegian, because then I figure that that's a good way of hinting at the fact that we're in an English subject classroom. In terms of level of difficulty, I try to be conscious of how difficult language I use. If I use words that I know the students think are difficult or*

challenging, I often pause, explain that word, probably not always enough, but I try to use a language that gives the students something to reach for, but that they also understand.

K: And do you have strategies for that — if you feel they're not understanding?

M: Yes, then I might pause, rephrase to simpler English.

Michael once again reported that he strives to maximize English use, but also that his choice of language is informed by the students' comprehension levels. There are, in particular, three aspects of this quote that stand out: Firstly, his comments on taking time to explain words is an example of *subject specific terminology* — that is, explaining a word to expand the students' vocabulary. Secondly, his comment on purposefully answering in English if a student asks him something in Norwegian. This is of interest to the present study because the way the teachers enforce and encourage language use, could be seen as a manifestation of their language ideals. When analyzing the interviews and coding inductively, this function was coded as *language specific prompt* — that is, prompting a student to use a certain language (English in the context of this study). Lastly, his answer to the question about strategies, reporting that he might choose to rephrase in simpler English to ensure comprehension.

In what situations do you think it is least important to use English?

In what situations do you think it is least important to use English? was a question intended to reveal if and how the teachers prioritize English in their classrooms. How the teachers reported on this is especially interesting when seen in light of the findings from the LISE-project that show how much the two teachers use L1 for the different codified language functions. Thea and Michael's answers are similar in regard to what they cited as situations where it is least important to use English, and it has to do mainly with level of difficulty.

Thea reported:

T02 *I'm thinking when we talk grammar, for example about building a sentence and the like, because the students so rarely encounter that kind of vocabulary. "Present continuous", for example — it's confusing. Students today have a certain amount— some trouble with remembering things like verb forms [...]*

Thea specifically singled out explaining grammar as a difficult aspect of language teaching, and one where she is especially open to switching to Norwegian. Explaining grammar (and other linguistic elements) is coded in the LISE research with *metalinguistic explanation*.

Michael reported:

M03 *Least important, to return to that subject: when the students become so challenged by the subject material that a large part can't follow or have lost their motivation somewhat. I have recently been drilling them a bit on some heavy grammar— no literary works, and it's obvious that when they're almost falling asleep from resignation and irritation, you have to revert a bit to Norwegian [...]*

Michael did not single out grammar (though he did start saying what appears to be “grammatical”—something before correcting himself), but his answer is similar to Thea's with regard to *challenging subject material* being what he reported as the factor that impact the importance of using English in a given situation. Furthermore, his answer suggests that he believes that language choice can have an effect on motivation in the students when they are faced with challenging material.

What do you think about students using other languages than Norwegian and English in class?

In order to obtain data on how the teachers reflect and report on *multilingualism* in the classroom, the question *What do you think about students using other languages than Norwegian and English in class?* was posed. The question prompted the following responses — Thea stated:

T03 *That is not an issue where I work, because there are extremely few students from foreign language backgrounds. Out of 260 students, there are maybe 6 students with other first languages [than Norwegian]*

An excerpt from the interview with Michael reads:

M04 K: [...] *do you have any experience with students in the English subject classroom using other languages between themselves?*

M: *No, but that has to do with the demographics of the school. We don't need to reveal which school it is, but it's fair to say we have a student body that is very homogenous, so that hasn't been a relevant issue.*

None of the participants reported experience with students using other languages than English and Norwegian in the English subject classroom, citing a lack of students from backgrounds other than ethnic Norwegian as an explanation. A consideration is in order regarding the above quotes: The word “issue” is a translation of the Norwegian “problemstilling”, used by both participants in their respective answers. These words may not have exactly the same connotations. It can be argued that “problemstilling” is somewhat more neutral than “issue”. I do not think that Thea and Michael’s answers are evidence suggesting that they view the possibility of multilingual classrooms unfavorably. I do, however, believe the answers suggests that without experience with foreign background students, the chance to reflect on the possibilities of a multilingual approach to teaching language seems limited.

4.3 Teacher interviews — with stimuli

The second phase of the interviews contained the aforementioned video stimuli. Because the stimuli are video recordings of the teachers’ classroom practices – and these are unique to the respective teacher – the stimuli did not demonstrate the LISE functions the same way for each teacher, and the selection of stimuli represents this fact. On account of the variation in stimuli, and subsequent difference in focus in the lines of inquiry, the findings and evidence in this section will be presented first for one participant, then the other — Thea first, then Michael.

In the following, the audiovisual stimuli will be denoted as *Event*, then a number (1–6), and then ‘T’ for Thea or ‘M’ for Michael, in square brackets. This reflects the designation used for the same stimulus in the information sheet for the stimuli (Appendix 4), as well as the order they appeared in during the interviews, and which participant’s data they are from.

4.3.1 Teacher interview, with stimulus — Thea

[Event 1T]

The first stimulus shown to Thea was from a session where she was going through some numbers on the whiteboard regarding teen pregnancy rates in Norway and Great Britain. The context of the event is that the class is in the process of reading a play, and working on tasks related to the play. The play has teen pregnancy as a central topic. The event was selected on the basis that Thea switches to Norwegian to explain some of the statistics — an instance of what can be considered code-switching to provide *scaffolding*. When asked to comment on the language in the event, Thea explained:

T04 *Yes, well there are a number of things I would have done differently. I would have had it on a screen so I could have seen it better. But I'm thinking that I started talking statistics and math in English so we had to start doing the math — that I find it a bit difficult maybe to start calculating percentages in English. I switched to Norwegian because of this, maybe.*

Thea reported being somewhat uncomfortable with providing and explaining calculations and statistics to her students as a possible reason for the code-switching in Event 1.

Since explaining the statistics and calculations can be considered evidence of *scaffolding*, I considered it interesting to use this event as a prompt to investigate how Thea perceived the students' general proficiency level in English in this class:

T05 K: *So, what do you think? How do you feel they fared in English?*

T: *We had one in the back who is a native speaker, lived in [country] for many years. Very strong student. And then we had a few other strong students, but it's also a class that weren't that active orally because they were unsure of each-other.*

Thea reported a class with a few notably proficient students, but also a class that were somewhat reserved in terms of oral activity on account of what she perceived as uncertainty of each-other. A final question pertaining to Event 1 was aimed at inciting introspection on the subject of intentional strategies:

T06 K: *Ok. Right. That part about switching when it comes to things that are a bit difficult, where they maybe don't quite follow: is that something you think about? Is that an intentional strategy?*

T: *No, I think maybe... or, I don't know. I'd think... the way I saw this [the stimulus] it was because I'd have more trouble explaining percentages in English. I think I'd confuse them more by talking about that in English. That I thought that I would have lost the ones that found it difficult to begin with. Because, it's a bit long. I should have had them either talking in pairs, or found something... or shown it better on a screen.*

This answer indicated that Thea does not necessarily believe her choice to switch to Norwegian in Event 1 was part of an intentional strategy. At the very least, it is evidence of her being unsure of how to categorize it herself, and reluctant to positively identify it as a strategy, also after being prompted on strategies.

[Event 2T]

The second stimulus was an event showing Thea asking questions to the whole class in English and receiving answers in both English and Norwegian. This event was selected as stimulus to investigate how Thea reported on the fact that the students answer in both English and Norwegian, without Thea commenting on the ones who answer in Norwegian. This could be argued to be a case of *allowing Norwegian use*, and reports on the topic is of value to the study.

T07 K: *[...] There was one that answered in English, it was a bit difficult to hear, but the first student answered in English, the second one answered in Norwegian. Is that something you often encounter?*

T: *Yes, it's often like... in the ninth grade I have now, most of them will answer in English. It has a very safe atmosphere, but in a class like this: if you want more people to participate, you can tell them that they can answer in Norwegian because then... if not, they won't answer. You can choose: if you want them to raise their hands again, and answer again, they will choose to not do it. And if that's the case I think it's better to allow them to answer in Norwegian, so that more of them can participate.*

Thea reported that in the class present in the stimulus, the atmosphere factors in on her leniency for allowing the students to answer in Norwegian. She explained that the decision is

informed by the choice of either enforcing the use of English or having the students participate.

[Event 3T]

The third stimulus event showed Thea asking a group of students a subject related question in English. One of the students answered in English, but the answer was sarcastic. Thea switched to Norwegian to tell him to knock it off and take it seriously. The event was selected because it exemplifies code-switching when performing the function *classroom management*.

T08 T: *Reprimand in Norwegian.*

K: *Yes. Is that something you think is common?*

T: *That might be, because you deviate a bit from... when you speak English, you are in a sort of English teacher-role, and when you switch to Norwegian to say: “you have to pull yourself together”, then you’re back in a classroom management-role — you seem more serious, maybe, or more sincere. I’m not sure, it might just be an automatic response. It would probably have worked as well in English, saying: “you must be serious now, you’re not twelve”.*

Thea explained how she believes that the different languages are connected with different roles: English for the English teacher-role, and Norwegian for the classroom management-role. She explained that using Norwegian seems more serious and sincere, but, after some deliberation, concedes that she’s not sure if that is actually the case.

[Event 4T]

In this event, Thea’s students were sitting in a circle. They received task instructions from Thea in English, but answered and asked her questions in Norwegian. Towards the end of the event, Thea was asked a practical question, and switched to Norwegian to answer it. The stimulus was selected as a means of investigating how Thea reflects on the difference in language choice between *task instruction* and *practical information*. In the case of the video event, when issuing a task instruction Thea spoke English even when the students were speaking Norwegian. When giving practical information, however, Thea switched to Norwegian.

- T09 K: *You start in English, and give them the whole instruction in English...*
 T: *And then you elaborate in Norwegian because you, sort of, see and sense that some don't quite get it [...]*
 K: *Right. But some of the practical information, or non-academic information are sometimes okay to say in Norwegian?*
 T: *Probably. And especially if the students ask in Norwegian it would be very natural to answer in Norwegian. And it may have to do with not knowing all the... like: "use F1, control, shift, this and that", you know, that kind of language — technical. It's easier to do that in Norwegian [...] it's faster to explain to the student also.*

When prompted on starting in English and switching to Norwegian in this event, Thea was quick to explain that it has to do with ensuring comprehension, but the fact that the switch to Norwegian doesn't happen in the *task instruction*-part of the event is overlooked. This response might have been a case of transfer from earlier in the interview, due to some of the previous events showing instances of Thea switching to ensure comprehension. Despite the interviewer's second question being a bit leading, Thea offered some insight into how she reflects on giving practical information in Norwegian, and why she does it: it is faster, and some practical information involving computers can be complicated in English.

[Event 5T]

The second to last stimulus was selected because it showed Thea interacting with multiple students and either instructing them in the task at hand (a writing session) or having more casual, personal conversations with other students about sports or health-issues. All of the instances were in Norwegian. Some of the information in this part of the interview has been omitted because it contains sensitive information regarding a student's health. This is, however, inconsequential to the information relevant to the present study.

- T10 T: *Also, he attended the English lessons because that was something he excelled in, and I wanted him to have a good experience. To feel that he contributed.*
 K: *But you spoke Norwegian with him here.*
 T: *Because, that was probably... I'm not sure if this was at the start of a period, end of a period, or what it was, but I was probably worried, and wanted to pay attention to: "OK, you're having more nosebleeds?" [...] I thought that it's important to get the correct information. He would probably have been able to have the conversation in English, but I*

thought it important for him to see what I saw in the situation – I don't know – that's what I think when I see it now. The other one with the feedback — that was because he didn't quite understand what he was supposed to do... or what the task was. So, I specified in Norwegian.

Thea stipulated reasons for the use of Norwegian in this event. She focused on two instances in the event, one of which can be described as a relatively particular instance — a student being ill, and her checking up on him. Isolated, this instance – and her report on it – is too particular to be used as evidence of Thea tending to switch to Norwegian in personal conversations. But the event showed her having personal conversation with other students than the one she describes in the above, also in Norwegian, lending more credence to a tendency to switch to Norwegian in *empathy/solidarity*-settings being the case. She also commented on a student she helps with his writing task, also in Norwegian, and cites ensuring comprehension as the factor informing her decision.

[Event 6T]

In this last event, Thea was in front of the whiteboard, and was reminding the students to use some of the vocabulary they had been going through previously when writing letters to the main characters in the play they had worked with. This was mainly done in Norwegian — the specific suggested words were relayed in English, then explained in Norwegian. The event was selected as stimulus because it can be categorized as an instance of the function *subject specific terminology* — that is, clarifying vocabulary, providing brief L1 equivalents or vice versa. After the video, Thea described the context, which is already presented above, and then added:

T11 *And that I once again use Norwegian here is because the task is written in Norwegian and that I want to ensure that everybody understands what they are supposed to do.*

Thea explained that the material was in Norwegian, which was a factor for her when choosing language in this event. Ensuring comprehension was, also here, described as an influencing factor. In order to investigate Thea's reflection on whether the students involved in the teaching situation, or the situation itself was most important for her when choosing language, a follow-up question was posed:

T12 K: *The choice of language, do you think it is more situation-dependent, or student-dependent?*

T: *Both. Yes, I think both. I mean, I know which students feel that it's okay to speak English, like the one who was sick, he loved speaking English and I spoke a lot of English with him. So, whenever he was in class, there was more English in use. And I think that was good for the others, because then they got to hear authentic English conversations. Because you rarely have those long conversations with the others. But then there are other students who you know don't think it's okay [to speak English], and then I switch to Norwegian. So, I think it's both student-dependent and situation... I mean relating to when I was going to explain statistics or elaborate on tasks, explaining grammar, yes. [...]*

Thea reported that both student and situation influence her, citing the example of a having conversations with a student whom she knew was very fond of speaking English prompting her to converse in English, and switching to Norwegian when she knew the student(s) was/were not comfortable. She went on to explain that it can also be very dependent on the situation, for example her switching to Norwegian when the subject is related to math or grammar. Thea then reflected on if her being comfortable with speaking English on a given subject is an influencing factor:

T13 *It probably doesn't have that much to do with me, well, if I were to explain the greenhouse effect in English I probably would have struggled more. I would have had to read up on it a lot in English to know that vocabulary. Maybe then I would have used more Norwegian, but things that you are comfortable teaching, then it's... then it doesn't matter if I speak English or Norwegian. But I think that math, I'll elaborate on. I find statistics and percentages difficult in Norwegian as well, so I'll definitely do them in Norwegian so I don't get lost.*

She found that it can sometimes be the case — difficult subject matter is easier to relay in Norwegian and is therefore often relayed in Norwegian, Thea suggested.

4.3.2 Teacher interview, with stimulus — Michael

[Event 1M]

Michael was first presented with an event showing him teaching his students about the Irish potato famine and Irish emigration to the US. This happened in English, but Michael switched at the end of the event to Norwegian to repeat some of the information regarding the

number of people in the US with Irish heritage. This event was selected to prompt Michael on code-switching to ensure comprehension of the subject matter at hand, coded as *scaffolding*. After watching the video, Michael explained:

M05 M: *Yes. Now this was a group that didn't need that last reiteration in Norwegian, but that was probably more to be completely sure that they got the gist of it here, that the... if not a paradox, but this point about the Irish culture having expanded... yes, well, it's been a long time...*

K: *Long time since you taught this, yes? But is it something you recognize yourself doing?*

M: *Yes [...] Those, kind of, funny points... yes to ensure the students are following — a bit like I mentioned earlier in this conversation: if I want to be completely sure that everybody is getting it, I may reiterate in Norwegian.*

Michael recognized himself in his actions in the video event: he'll sometimes switch to Norwegian if he finds it necessary to ensure comprehension, he reported. Interestingly, he noted that the class in the event was not really a class where anyone would necessarily need the code-switch. The switch could, then, be a case of *over-adjustment* — that Michael knows that reiterating in Norwegian is a good strategy to ensure comprehension, but did not — in this case — consider if these particular students need reiteration in Norwegian, at the time of the event.

[Event 2M]

This second event shows Michael in a short interaction with a student while writing a word on the whiteboard. Michael asked, in Norwegian, if the word is spelled correctly, the student answered that it was, but some other students chimed in, correcting the error. Michael then jokingly called the students “the experts”, in English. The event was selected because of interest in investigating how Michael would report on the event: if he would comment on the use of humor (*empathy solidarity*), the apparent application of the function *subject specific terminology*, or something else. The following is the questions and comments after the event:

M06 K: *Do you remember this event?*

M: *Not this one in particular, but I do recognize myself, I mean, this kind of thing happens often enough in my teaching... or rather, often enough that I recognize the situation.*

K: *Do you recognize... do you remember the student who you call an expert here? Is it random, or...?*

M: *Yes. Yes. I didn't quite catch which student it was [...] but yes, I could have said that to anyone.*

K: *Right, so this is more of a general...*

M: *Yes. A bit my way of communicating with the students.*

Michael identified his way of communicating as the defining aspect of the event. He did not remember the particular event, but did recognize his way of interacting with the students, and the general tone of the situation. It is difficult to ascertain if this is a case of code-switching for the sake of *subject-specific terminology*, but it can be argued to have that function.

[Event 3M]

The third event shown to Michael was one where he was comparing certain aspects of the electoral system in the USA to the one in Norway. Michael switched to Norwegian to inform them that they should know this because they have learned about the topic in social sciences lessons. This event was selected because it can be categorized as code-switching with the function *domain switch*. *Domain switch* in the English subject classroom is when a teacher specifically refers to topics and material from other subjects than English, when teaching English.

M07 M: *Yes. There was a lot of me here, and by that I mean a lot of... well if you follow my classes, you'd probably recognize many things present here, both connecting new knowledge to previous knowledge, drawing parallels... or drawing... comparing Norway and the USA, in this case, the ongoing communication with the students, attaching a PowerPoint to the reading material where applicable. So, it's very typical of how I operate.*

K: *Was there any particular reason you can imagine that cause you to switch to Norwegian right at the end there? How would you describe the switch?*

M: *Well, actually pretty similar to the previous ones, with... when there's 30 students there and... well, every one of them is capable of answering the question that I hurl at them. I did, however, change the question a bit there from [...] the original question is about "what happens November 8?", if I'm not mistaken, and then I start asking: "have you... you have learned this in social sciences". The reason is probably mostly to say to the students: "come on, you know this." It bears mentioning that this class could be a bit slow to get going in activities where I ask questions directly. They would probably respond better if they had talked to a classmate first, which is a reflection I have incorporated more throughout the years. So, it's mostly about underlining a point here: "come on people, we know this!"*

Michael again commented on the event being representative of how he himself views his own teaching. He mentioned how comparing cultures, connecting new knowledge with previous knowledge are aspects he regards as typical for him. He also reported that he views his switch from English to Norwegian mainly as a means of highlighting the fact that the present topic was something they had experience with and should therefore be able to comment on.

Michael also explained that the class is a bit unresponsive to direct questions.

[Event 4M]

The fourth stimulus shown to Michael was an event where he interacted with his students in a whole class situation, starting with getting the attention of the students after they have engaged in a writing session. The students were tasked with giving each-other feedback on what they have written. In this first part Michael spoke English. He next referenced a television show – also in English – then switched to Norwegian to make some jokes and parody what kind of feedback he does not want to hear from the students (feedback in Norwegian), before switching back to English to give them support. The event ended with Michael modelling some examples of feedback in English. This high-density event was selected due to it containing a variety of functions in a relatively short amount of time — 1 minute and 43 seconds. In the present research, the event has been coded to contain the functions *empathy/solidarity*, *task instruction*, and *scaffolding*. It was also selected to act as a prompt to ask Michael about his views on the students' level of proficiency in English, and if he believes his choice of language is mostly influenced by situation or by student. The following is what Michael had to report:

M08 M: *Compared to the national average, I'd say the level of proficiency is high. But I don't know if that is apparent in this particular recording, but it is a high proficiency class, it is.*

K: *But do you think... for you to... your use of English and Norwegian, and English rather than Norwegian or Norwegian rather than English — do you believe that is situation-based or student-based, mainly?*

M: *Situation-based. Mainly. In some cases, with some students [student-based]... not in that particular class. But mainly situation-based, and in this case it's when I imitate how the students... well, phrases I often hear. The reason I switch to Norwegian there is simply that when we are in a situation where they are tasked with giving each-other feedback, the students tend to start speaking Norwegian. I can tell them however many times: "do it in English", and after a while it gets better, luckily. But regarding when they are supposed to give feedback, I allow them – at least sometimes – to do it in Norwegian so that I'm sure they*

receive the message. Because they aren't that used to using assessment-language, so there's something to be said for being sure the students give each-other useful feed-forward, and then it's better... well, doing it in Norwegian makes the peer feed-forward better. That's why I imitate them in Norwegian, both to liven the mood, but also to be completely certain they understand what I mean.

Michael regarded this particular class to be high proficiency in English. He went on to explain that he believes his choice of language is mostly based on situation, rather than the student. Situations like having students give each-other peer feedback can – Michael reported – cause him to switch to Norwegian in order to model how he does not want them to give feedback — as shown in the stimulus. But he explained that he will sometimes allow students to give feedback in Norwegian because he believes that this can sometimes allow them to give better feed-forward to each-other. He recognized feedback as challenging to do in English for the students.

[Event 5M]

The second to last stimulus shown to Michael showed a conversation Michael had with a group of students that complained about how they have tests in foreign language subjects (French and German) too close to a science subject test. In an effort to convince the students that their oral foreign language tests do not need to be very difficult, and that they are more than capable of preparing for both tests, Michael proceeded to model some things the students can use in their tests. This modelling occurs between instances of Michael explaining how their language tests are not going to call for very complex constructs. This event was selected because it contains instances of four languages: Norwegian, English, French and German – Michael speaking in the latter three – as well as examples of three language functions: *empathy/solidarity*, *domain switch*, and *scaffolding*. The fact that Michael did not switch to Norwegian in this event is interesting, especially considering that the students spoke Norwegian in the first part of the interaction.

M09 K: [...] *I'm wondering: is this an anomaly or is this something you might also do with other students as well, or is it specific to this group of students?*

M: *Well, there are two circumstances here that I think are relevant: one is that they ask... well, they submit their complaints, or confessions, or whatever you would call it, in Norwegian. And I intentionally answer in English, because then the one girl actually starts*

answering in English. It takes four or five attempts before she does it, but in the end, she speaks English about how the French test is such and such [...]

Michael revealed that he actively tried to get the students to speak English by consistently speaking English himself in this event. Using language as a method to enforce a language ideal, or encourage use of a certain language, is coded in the present study as *language specific prompt*, as mentioned above in section 4.1. Michael went on to explain the second relevant circumstance he identified in the event:

M10 *[...] The other part of it is, let's call it, the learning environment — that is the students' experience of the school day. Here we see three to four minutes that in no way pertains to the task they have been given, but where I as... well as a teacher, as form-teacher⁷, who cares about these students, so if... I think that if I don't engage with their experiences, the rest of the activity will involve... well, then their minds are fixed on how much is happening. So, I choose to act [...] it's about seizing what the class gives me then and there — this will also typify a lot of the instruction. If I meet students that are grouchy, depressed, or sad because of something or the other, like workload. There's no point in continuing before you have addressed that issue [...]*

Even though this event does not have Michael switch from English to Norwegian, what Michael described indicates his emphasis on the *empathy/solidarity* in this event. He reported that in an effort to curtail the students' discontent, he spent some time engaging with their problem. Addressing the students concerns about things outside of the English subject classroom – he reported – will keep those concerns from becoming too much of a distraction in said classroom. On his modelling of sentences in French and German, Michael commented:

M11 *[...] I teach German as well. I don't know that much French or Spanish — I know enough to show... well, to try to rationalize a bit for the students what the level of difficulty really is.*

Throughout the event, Michael explained to the students that the level of difficulty in their upcoming tests is not that high, and tried to prove this by modelling some hypothetical sentences. Modelling sentences falls under the category of *scaffolding*. The instances of

⁷ Norwegian: *kontaktlærer*

Michael modelling sentences in the event seem somewhat particular to the specific context, but Michael's own reporting does not indicate that the event displayed a very rare occurrence.

[Event 6M]

The final stimuli shown to Michael demonstrated another case of Michael using a language other than English or Norwegian in his English subject lesson — this time Spanish. A student asked Michael a question in Norwegian, and Michael answers in Spanish – albeit not completely grammatically correct – jokingly telling the student that he does not speak Norwegian. When the student seemed a bit confused, he reiterated in English that he does not want the student to speak Norwegian. This event was selected as stimulus because it can be categorized as another case of what I call *language specific prompt*, and it is interesting to further investigate what Michael reports on how he uses language this way. When asked about him telling his students that he prefers them to speak English, Michael had this to say:

M12 *Yes. I'm very insistent on that, and that's definitely a case of habit. And the students surely become fed up with me nagging them, but I have rather big ears, move around a lot, can throw out a comment across the classroom... well, preferably in English, though: "excuse me? I'm hearing some Norwegian words, what's up?" So, yes, during oral activities, I'm very alert [...]*

Michael's report indicates that him telling his students that they should speak English rather than Norwegian is definitely common, but doing it in Spanish is probably less so. When asked if he has other strategies than explicitly telling the students to speak English, and to elaborate on the abovementioned throwing out a comment across the classroom, Michael responded:

M13 *[...] I definitely try to move around a lot, move between the different groups. If I hear Norwegian, I might not engage the student immediately. I consider the individual student. If it's a student that does it on account of, let's call it laziness, who doesn't have any problems with expressing themselves in English, it can go like: "Hey, what's going on? I can still hear..." But with others it might be more sensitive, more challenging. That calls for going up to them and helping them get started with their English. And if I hear Norwegian, I always answer in English precisely to, one: remind them what it... well, what language we're supposed to use, and two: to give some... to help them on their way. If that makes sense.*

This answer indicates that the individual student seemingly is a factor for how Michael enforces his language preference in the English classroom. Students that in Michael's opinion should be able to express themselves in English are told to do so if he hears them speaking Norwegian. Students that may be less comfortable with speaking English are not given a pass to speak Norwegian, but rather helped on their way instead of directly being told to switch.

4.4 Findings from questionnaire

As mentioned in the methods-chapter, the participants were not explicitly asked about all the functions coded in the LISE research during the interviews. In order to achieve a baseline to compare to the qualitative LISE data, the participants were sent a short questionnaire where they answer if they mainly use English or Norwegian in certain given situations. The descriptions of these situations are operationalizations of the eight LISE functions. In the following, the participants' answers will be summarized.

4.4.1 Questionnaire — Thea

Thea answered similarly to all the scenarios in the questionnaire. She stated that her choice of language in any of the given situations would be dependent on the particular context they appear in. For example, regarding *scaffolding*, Thea answered that she most often uses Norwegian when she elaborates on a subject related topic, but most often English when guiding the students at the beginning of a task. Similarly, on *metalinguistic explanation*, *task instruction*, *terminology*, *domain switch*, *practical information*, and *empathy/solidarity*, Thea did not report to separate the languages based on the situations described in the questions, but states that the individual factors, unique to the setting and respective student, informs her choice in language. Her answer to the question on language choice for *class management* is similar, but here Thea explained that she is likely to use English to settle the class down in a whole class situation, but Norwegian when reprimanding a student one-to-one. A quote that exemplifies her answers is: “*Everything is dependent on the context then and there, this isn't something I 'always' do*”.

In summary, Thea's answers indicate no strong preference – or rather no strong reported preference – when reflecting on what language she opts to use in the situations inspired by the language functions identified in the LISE research.

4.4.2 Questionnaire — Michael

Michael's answers regarding language used for *scaffolding*, *metalinguistic explanation*, *task instruction*, *domain switch*, *empathy/solidarity*, and *class management* were similar: mostly English. Even though Michael reported that he mostly uses English for most of the situations, there are caveats. In the situations representing *scaffolding*, *practical information*, *empathy/solidarity*, and *class management*, Michael cites the unique situation informing the language choice as well. Factors that may incite Norwegian use in these situations include a student's low proficiency level for *scaffolding*, the seriousness of the situation in regards to *empathy/solidarity*, and the type of misbehavior he has to correct regarding *class management* — repeated and/or serious infringements reportedly call for Norwegian, for example. The only situation for which Michael reported an even split between Norwegian and English is the operationalization of *terminology*. Two examples from Michael's answers, the first on *classroom management* and the second on *scaffolding*.

“That’s why my answer has to be that I more or less always correct/reprimand students in English, but that I exceptionally (maybe once every two hours) use Norwegian”.

“Mainly English – only Norwegian in exceptional cases where the task at hand either is very challenging, or the student has a very low level of proficiency. I adjust the difficulty of the English so that most things can happen in English. In short: English 98 percent of the time.”

In contrast to Thea, then, Michael separated more distinctly between his language practices in the given situations in his answers. His answers indicate a strong preference for English in most situations, and also that he believes he uses English almost exclusively for some functions.

5 Discussion

In the previous chapter, I presented how Thea and Michael reported on their own language practices, how these reports compared to their measured language practices, and if the data suggests they demonstrate language ideals. The themes that were identified from the thematic analysis of the data created the foundation to the findings answering the RQs. In this chapter, these themes will be discussed — both how they relate to the evidence presented in chapter 4, and in light of the theory and research presented in chapter 2.

When analyzing the data thematically, the bits of information identified as relevant for this study were grouped in six sub-themes. These six sub-themes were then grouped in three main themes. These three are (i) *language aim* (5.1), which can be considered to be an overarching aim for language use in the classroom, (ii) *language approach* (5.2), which can be described as how their reports and practices relate to the language approaches presented in section 2.4, and (iii) *language choice* (5.3), which refers to the specific choices made in the classroom with regards to language use.

In section 5.4, the findings specifically related to language ideals and RQ3, will be discussed, and in 5.5, didactic implications will be discussed.

References in the format ‘initial + number’, for example: ‘M07’ – are references to the quotes in the previous chapter. ‘Event + number + initial’, in brackets, for example: ‘[Event 6T]’, are references to the stimulus events.

5.1 Language aim

The teachers’ language aim is characterized by how the teacher aims to have both themselves and their students speak – in terms of L1 or L2 use – during an English subject lesson. This may seem synonymous with a *language ideal*, but – as mentioned in sections 2.1.2 and 4.1.3 – this study adheres to a definition of *language ideal* that can be understood to be identified by the teacher’s implementation of the language aim in their classroom.

5.1.1 Maximizing English use

Both participants reported to have an aim of using English as much as possible. This aim corresponds with what contemporary theory on ELT suggests: maximize the use of L2 (Cummins, 2008; Dahl, 2015; Ellis, 2008; Hellekjær, 2001; Turnbull, 2001). When Thea reported that “That is my intention when I enter an English subject classroom to teach English: I try to say that from here on, were only going to speak English.” (T01), it was regarded as evidence supporting an aim to maximize English. Michael reported: “*Yes, well, typically, I want to speak English as much as possible.*” (M02), and this can be argued to be in a similar vein to Thea’s quote. That particular quote only relates to himself, and not the students in his class, but the reported data contains several instances of him reporting that he has the same aim for his students, for example in M01 and M12. Both aims coincide with what Chambers (1991) posits: “[t]he belief that the foreign language should be used as the teaching and learning medium appears to be shared by many teachers” (p. 27), and Polio and Duff (1994), “teachers have some sense, then, that using the TL as much as possible is important” (p. 324) — claims which are still relevant in newer literature according to, for example, Ellis (2008) and Dahl (2015).

It is important to note that the abovementioned quote from Thea continues: “*We’re going to try that, I always start with that. And then, somewhere along the way – I don’t always know why I switch to Norwegian*” (T01). I argue that this mitigation is not indicative of a different aim than what Michael reported, however, and that it is rather Thea being aware of her actual use of language — that is, that she uses quite a bit of Norwegian in her English lessons.

5.2 Language approach

Based on the language approaches to ELT presented in section 2.4: *the monolingual approach, the bilingual approach, and the multilingual approach*, it is possible to discuss if and how the teachers’ language practices (reported and observed) coincide with the principles of the different language approaches. How the teachers’ language practices coincide with such principles was used to investigate their adherence to a specific language ideal. The level of congruency between the teachers’ reported language practices and actual language practices was regarded as evidence of *awareness of language practices*.

5.2.1 Maximizing English use

Maximizing English use was identified as a sub-theme for both *language aim* and *language practices*. A difference, however, is that for language practices, more instances of data coded for maximizing English use was identified in Michael's data compared to Thea's data. This is true for the reported data — for example in M01, M02, M09, M12, and M13, for the video events — [Event 5M] and [Event 6M], and it was identified by LISE in the measured classrooms (Fig. 3.2). I regarded this congruency of data as evidence for awareness of language practices, but only on a relatively superficial level — the rationale being that it indicates awareness about *how much* of a language is used, but not *how* or *when* it is used (cf. Polio & Duff, 1994, p. 320). Michael's inclination to enforce and encourage English use in his classroom was regarded as evidence supporting the identification of Michael having a *monolingual language ideal*.

Without extrapolating too much, it is possible to consider the relative absence of identified *maximizing English use* instances in Thea's data, as a factor that corresponds with the similar absence in the observed video data, and the implications of the LISE data, which showed Thea's observed lessons to contain a relatively high amount of Norwegian on average (Fig. 3.2). This implies that Thea has a similar – to that of Michael – awareness of her language practices on a superficial level. This congruency is less clear, and weaker than that in Michael's data, however, because it can be argued to be based on the absence of evidence. This makes the implications less reliable, but in the context of this study, it was still regarded as a pattern.

5.2.2 Allowing Norwegian use

The theme *allowing Norwegian use* refers here to the teachers letting the students to use Norwegian in English lessons — that is, not telling the student to speak English in the classroom when they speak Norwegian. This does not necessarily reflect their own language use, but is instead a factor related to their language practices in the classroom in general.

The data and findings reflect that both participants allow Norwegian to some degree. This is not surprising, and Cook (2001) describes this akin to nature retaliating on human expansion: “*Naturam expelles [sic⁸] furca, tamen usque recurret*: like nature, the L1 creeps back in,

⁸ The correct Latin is “*expellas*”

however many times you throw it out with a pitch-fork.” (p. 405, original emphasis). The reasoning behind allowing Norwegian, and the situations in which it occurs, vary between the participants, however.

Starting with Michael, his reports indicate that his language practices can be considered multifaceted. Firstly, there were several reports supporting maximizing English, mentioned in the previous section, combined with the observed instances of *language specific prompts* — that is, when he told a student either directly or indirectly to speak English. A direct prompt is exemplified in [Event 6M], and evidence of indirect prompts can be found in, for example, M02: “*but the language of communication on my part is normally English, and especially when the students ask questions in Norwegian, because then I figure that that’s a good way of hinting at the fact that we’re in an English subject classroom.*” An *indirect language specific prompt* is, thus, attempting to enforce or encourage a specific language without explicitly telling the student to speak that language.

Secondly, some evidence in Michael’s reporting reflects allowing Norwegian, exemplified in M08: “*But regarding when they are supposed to give feedback, I allow them – at least sometimes – to do it in Norwegian ... doing it in Norwegian makes the peer feed-forward better.*”, and in M03: “*I have, recently, been drilling them a bit on some heavy grammar– no literary works, and it’s obvious that when they’re almost falling asleep from resignation and irritation, you have to revert a bit to Norwegian*”. Noteworthy proponents of a bilingual approach, for example Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009), emphasize that L1 must be “used systematically, selectively, and in judicious doses” (p. 86) in a bilingual approach. M08, especially, seems to reflect this notion. M03 and M08 were regarded as evidence that suggest a less clear monolingual ideal, but isolated, the evidence was regarded as too weak to suggest Michael not having a monolingual ideal.

In Thea’s case, *allowing Norwegian use* is more prevalent in the data — specifically in the observed and measured data. The relatively high L1 use on average in her observed lessons does indicate allowing a significant amount of Norwegian. Two of the video events also support this notion: [Event 2T] and [Event 4T]. In the former of the two Thea received answers in both Norwegian and English, but did not comment on or otherwise acknowledge that someone is not speaking English. The same is true for the latter example, but here, Thea also switched to Norwegian herself. A quote explaining the rationale behind the switch can

be found in the quote related to this event, T09: “*especially if the students ask in Norwegian it would be very natural to answer in Norwegian*”. This is a comment to non-academic language use, specifically, however, so it does not necessarily indicate that this is evidence relevant for all instances of repertoire with the students. This sentiment is, nevertheless, a break with monolingual principles. Hellekjær (2001) argues that teachers should “avoid continual lapses into Norwegian, the command of what may be called *classroom management* language is also a must” (p. 192, emphasis mine), and Polio and Duff (1994) argue that classroom management instruction in the L2 represents “the most authentic and natural communication in the classroom” (p. 322), based on their research.

The fact that the participants did not convey any reflections on a multilingual alternative to the dichotomy of English and Norwegian in the classroom (T03; M04) is perhaps not that surprising. As previously mentioned, I believe the answers suggests that without experience with foreign background students, the opportunities to reflect on the possibilities of a multilingual approach to teaching language are probably relatively limited. The teachers’ answers – I argue – are strong evidence towards neither participant adhering to a multilingual ideal to language in the English subject classroom, nevertheless. Michael’s use of French, and German in [Event 5M], and Spanish in [Event 6M] can possibly be argued to be weak evidence suggesting a multilingual tendency, but the language use seemed particular to a very specific context, and more related to non-academic functions, *empathy/solidarity* and *class management*, respectively, than to functions that promote learning specifically.

5.2.3 Norms

A *norm* is defined as something that is usual, typical or standard (Norm, n.d.). It is common in linguistics to use *norm* when discussing strict rules applied to language or language learning (e.g. Levine, 2011, pp. 3–17). This is not the intended meaning of the term in this study. The term *norms* was used to code instances of what was deemed reported or observed *rules/guidelines*, *strategies*, and *roles* related to the participants’ language practices.

Chambers (1991) identifies planning and determination as important factors allowing a teacher to achieve their language aim — in the case of Chambers (1991), that aim is to use the target language as much as possible. This study employed the terms *rules*, *guidelines*, and *strategy* in the interviews with the participants with the aim of eliciting salient features of

planning and determination in the teacher reports. The findings are discussed in the following.

Out of the two participating teachers, Michael is the only one who confirms that he views speaking as much English as possible as a rule, and that he uses at least one strategy that supports his language aim: rephrasing difficult English in simplified English (M02). The aforementioned *language specific prompt* that can be identified in Michael's data can also be argued to be relevant to conscious rules that Michael wants to adhere to. Michael also alludes to a role in his interview: the *form-teacher role* (M10) (*kontaktlærerrolle* in Norwegian). However, this role was identified through analysis, and not explicitly referred to as a role by Michael himself. The reason it was deemed interesting is the fact that Michael seemed to connect being a form-teacher with a close relationship to the particular students he was form-teacher for. Michael mentioned this in connection with what he called engaging with "the students' experience of the school day" (M10). This engagement, which is non-academic, being conducted in English [Event 5M] could be argued to be evidence for Michael again adhering to monolingual principles. This argument is based on the suggestions by, for example, Harbord (1992) and Hellekjær (2001) emphasizing the importance of L2 use in non-academic situations in the classroom.

When asked about strategy directly, Thea did not confirm that the language use in question was part of a strategy (T06). The question in the interview with Thea was phrased differently than for Michael however — it was more closed, asking about an instance of codeswitching for the purpose of *scaffolding* in [Event 1T] particularly. Thus, even though she did not identify that particular instance as a conscious strategy, that does not mean it can be regarded as evidence suggesting she does not use strategies. It was also interesting to note Thea's suggested division of roles: an *English teacher-role* and a *classroom management-role* (T08). She identified this possible dichotomy when commenting on [Event 3T] where she initiated a conversation with a group of students in English, but switched to Norwegian to tell a student, who did not take it seriously, to take it seriously. She went on to suggest that she feels she seems sincerer and more serious when using Norwegian for *classroom management*. This division is clearly more in line with bilingual principles, than monolingual ones (cf. Cook, 2001 vs. Hellekjær, 2001).

5.3 Language choice

This study investigated the particular choices the participating teachers make regarding language use, while teaching. This was achieved both by analyzing how the teachers reported on the operationalizations of the LISE functions, how they were observed to use said functions (in this study), as well as the L1 use of the functions measured by LISE. Additionally, the participants were asked more general questions about influences on their choices of language, and these answers were also analyzed.

5.3.1 Scaffolding

One of the aims of asking the participants about the LISE functions – or rather, the scenarios used as operationalizations of the LISE functions – was to garner data on the teachers’ awareness of their own language practices on a more detailed level than the aims and practices presented above. Repeated mentions of, or allusions to, *ensuring comprehension* as a suggested reason behind a specific code-switching event, or a hypothetical code-switching scenario, were identified in the teacher reported data sets. Similar reporting was identified by Haugen Mehl (2014) and Hoff (2013) in their respective studies. Quotes containing such mentions or allusions were coded in the thematic analysis as *scaffolding* — given that part of the description of *scaffolding* is “[to] remedy students’ apparent lack of comprehension” (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming, p. 7, citing Crichton, 2009; Edstrom, 2006; Grim, 2010; Moore, 2013; Polio & Duff, 1994). The LISE-project also found that the most frequent function coded for L1 use in the observed lessons was *scaffolding*, at 40% (Brevik, et. al., in press, p. 9).

The quotes coded for *scaffolding* in this research were: T01, T06, T10, T11, and T12 for Thea — M02, M03, M05, and M08 for Michael. This could at first glance look like evidence suggesting that the participants identify *scaffolding* as the function for which they are most likely to switch to Norwegian in general. This data is, however, influenced by the stimuli, and therefore relate to specific events in some cases. Out of the six stimulus events each participant watched, four of Thea’s, and three of Michael’s were coded for *scaffolding*. When precluding the answers that most likely were influenced by the stimuli, a more muted result is apparent: only T01 remains for Thea — M02 and M03 for Michael. Something that *can* possibly be inferred from this correspondence is that the participants seem to identify what the researcher has coded as *scaffolding* relatively reliably. When presented with stimuli coded

for *scaffolding*, Thea's comments to these events were coded for *scaffolding* in three out of four instances. The same was true for Michael in two out of three events coded for *scaffolding*. Furthermore, the one event where Michael's reports were not coded for *scaffolding* were comments on [Event 5], which can be regarded as somewhat of an outlier given that the *scaffolding* takes the form of modelling sentences in German and French.

Michael was also found to possibly underestimate the amount of L1 he uses for *scaffolding*. This finding was based on the apparent discord between his answer on the questionnaire regarding *scaffolding* (see section 4.4.2), and the results from the measurements of frequency of L1 functions by LISE (Fig. 2.2). Michael reported that he believes that he uses English 98% of the time when ensuring student comprehension, the LISE research found that *scaffolding* was one of two functions that Michael used L1 for the most in the observed lessons. This was regarded as evidence suggesting lower awareness of language use on a specific level.

5.3.2 Student(s) specific vs. situation specific

Both participants were asked whether they believe their language choices to be more related to the student or students they interact with when choosing what language to use in any given situation, or if the situation the choice occurs in is more influential. *Student(s) specific*, thus, refers to the aspect of a teacher's perception of students' proficiency in the TL influencing their choice of language in (Haugen Mehl, 2014; Levine, 2011). *Situation specific* refers to other aspect of the context that can influence language choice. One such previously identified aspect is, for example, *teaching grammar* (Brevik, et. al., in press, Haugen Mehl, 2014; Levine, 2011).

Michael reported that he believed *the situation* to be a more influencing factor than *the student(s)* regarding his choices. This is backed up by other reports on how he chooses language in relation to the recorded video material. He reported that certain events, which might seem very particular to a certain student or group of students – for example, [Event 2M], [Event 5M], and [Event 6M] – were not necessarily very particular to those respective students and groups of students. His comments and explanations related to the stimuli also have a relatively *general* quality to them — that is, he rarely tied his choice of language in any event to the particular student(s). An interesting example of this is his report in M08 on

[Event 4M]. This report can appear somewhat ambiguous and contradictory. Michael commented on an event in which he switches to Norwegian to imitate the type of student peer feedback he does not want to hear: “*and in this case it’s when I imitate how the students... well, phrases I often hear. The reason I switch to Norwegian there is simply that when we are in a situation where they are tasked with giving each-other feedback, the students tend to start speaking Norwegian*” (M08). He explained that the situation called for this because he believes that peer feedback is a situation in which students often switch to Norwegian. This is, ostensibly, a case of Michael using Norwegian to get the students to use English, which I find interesting. Seemingly unrelated to the event in question, however, he then explained that he sometimes allows Norwegian use in similar situations but with other students (mentioned in section 5.2.2), something that seems to contradict with the above. However, that is in relation to allowing students to use Norwegian, and not related to his own choice of language.

Thea suggested that she is both influenced by the situation and student(s) when asked about it directly (T12). Analysis of her data suggests that this notion seems to be in accordance with her actual practices. Examples of evidence that support this notion can be found, for example, in [Event 3T] where she switches to Norwegian to reprimand a student, and she explained that the switch pertains to *class management-role*, thereby suggesting that the switch had more to do with the situation than the specific student. She also reported in T12: “*he loved speaking English and I spoke a lot of English with him. So, whenever he was in class, there was more English in use*”, which suggests her using English more with this particular student, and continues: “*But then there are other students who you know don’t think it’s okay [to speak English], and then I switch to Norwegian*”. The notion of both situation and student(s) being influential is further supported by her use of Norwegian in [Event 5], where she interacts with the same student she mentions speaking a lot of English with in the first quote from T12. She explained that this was more of an exception because they were talking about the student’s health (*empathy/solidarity*), which once again pertains to the specific situation. Lastly, Thea reported (before seeing any stimuli) that she considered instructing grammar as a situation where she views it least important to use English (T02), and that situations where she, herself, is challenged by the material such as percentages (T04; T13), or the greenhouse effect (T13).

5.4 The question of language ideal

Does Thea not have a language ideal? The answer to that question is: this study did not identify one based on the criteria it operated with, but that does not mean that Thea does not have one. Various factors must be considered when discussing the finding presented in section 4.1.3. One such factor is that qualitative research is interpretative. Another factor is that the implication of this study is merely that it found that the specific data it investigated, as a representation of Thea's beliefs and practices, did not demonstrate the features of a language ideal based on a relatively strict definition.

Whether or not (i) the data can be considered sufficient to make a general claim about language ideals, and (ii) the definition it operated with is appropriate, are interesting to consider. Firstly, the data cannot be considered sufficient to make a general claim, and, that is not the aim of the study. Secondly, the assumption that a *language ideal* can be identified by if/how it is reported and observed to be implemented, does have its limitations. Language choice in classroom communication for teachers “usually has to do with preventing students from using their first language (L1)” (Levine, 2011, p. 3), and this can possibly cause terms related to such choices to be more easily identifiable in a monolingual perspective. However, a broader definition that could possibly make efforts to promote a bilingual approach to teaching more salient in qualitative data, was not found in the literature review for the present study. The assumption this study bases its use of *language ideal* on, was, thus, not considered to be problematic or incomplete.

The suggestion that Michael demonstrated an identifiable monolingual language ideal also has a caveat: The *comparatively small amount* of evidence that was found to coincide with bilingual principles does not mean *no amount*. As explained in section 5.2.2, however, the evidence was not considered sufficient to warrant an alternative suggestion.

5.5 Didactic implications

This study has through rich descriptions of events and reports investigated how the participating teachers relate to their own language practices and choices in their classrooms. This can hopefully shed some light on these teachers' rationales in terms of how these rationales inform the teachers' approaches to language, and the more specific choices they make in their own teaching. Considering *teacher-talk* have been found to comprise the

majority of all oral activity in a classroom (Cook; 2001; Ellis, 1994; Levine, 2011), the teachers' language choices in the ELT classroom has implications on the input the students receive. Quality input is important for language learning (Gass & Selinker, 1994). Michael's reflection in M05: "*Now this was a group that didn't need that last reiteration in Norwegian*" may be just be a quick throwaway comment, and it was not found to be significant of Michael's language use. But to me it is a reminder that it may be easy to get stuck in patterns of language usage because you operate within certain norms without thinking about the specific student group you are engaging, and what their level of proficiency actually is.

A further implication of the findings can be argued to suggest the need for more critical reflection surrounding allowing Norwegian use in the English subject classroom. Levine (2011), a notable proponent of L1 use in L2 learning advocates strongly for the importance for such reflection:

it is not sufficient to simply 'allow' the L1 a role in the classroom in the absence of critical reflection about it, for unchecked it will be used most frequently in communicative contexts that might undermine rather than support maximal L2 use." (Levine, 2011, p. 100)

I argue that more critical reflection on when and for what Norwegian is allowed in the classroom, can possibly make the use of Norwegian in the classroom more compatible with the focus on English communication skills in the current and next curricula (UDIR, 2013; Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2018). Being aware of one's language use is not the same as critically assessing if one's language use promotes language learning.

6 Conclusion

The present study aimed to answer: *How aware are two Norwegian English teachers of their own language practices, and do their beliefs and practices reflect language ideals?*

In order to investigate this, the research question is divided into three RQs:

- RQ1: *What do the teachers report as their language beliefs and practices?*
- RQ2: *How do findings from the teacher reports compare to the actual practices of the teachers?*
- RQ3: *Does the participants' data reflect a specific language ideal?*

The methods employed to investigate these questions are (i) qualitative teacher interviews with stimulated recall, (ii) video observation, and (iii) a questionnaire.

Additionally, some of the findings resulting from the analysis of the reported data (the interview data and the questionnaire data) were compared to quantitative data produced by previous LISE research.

The study found that the participating teachers, which were selected specifically because they had been observed to use language differently, reported relatively different beliefs and practices when asked about them both with and without stimuli. The information inferred from their reports coincided with the observed data and the LISE-produced measurements to a certain degree. This was most noticeable regarding the amount each language was used — less so regarding specific language functions. Of the data pertaining to each participant, only one was found to reflect a specific language ideal, although this can be attributed to a relatively strict definition of language ideal.

6.1 Suggestions for further research

Studying teacher beliefs and awareness of language is difficult, and claiming reliable implications can be problematic. I suggest that further studies on such matters investigate a larger sample of participants, and focus more closely on the more specific aspects of language use like the LISE-project's identified L1 functions, or the this study's suggested

dichotomy of teachers' being influenced mainly by the specific situation or specific students. I also suggest that the implementation of stimulated recall in interviews would be more effective in eliciting introspection if it can be employed closer to the event the stimuli represents, as per Gass and Mackey's (2017) suggestions.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 — Interview Guide

Appendix 2 — Consent form

Appendix 3 — Questionnaire

Appendix 4 — Audiovisual stimuli information sheet

Appendix 1 — Interview guide

Intervjuguide

Semistrukturert intervju – sannsynlig at spørsmålene eller rekkefølgen utvikler seg i løpet av intervjuet og mellom intervjuer. Det blir gjort lydopptak av intervjuene, og disse lydopptakene vil bli transkribert.

Forberedelse/introduksjon

Formaliteter

Mål: Sikre at deltakeren vet nok til å samtykke, forstår hva deltakelse innebærer og hvordan intervjuet vil foregå

- Intervjueren presenterer seg selv kort
- Gjennomgang av samtykkeskjema
 - o Forklare anonymitet og gi dem kontaktinformasjon for å sikre at de vet at de kan trekke seg ved en senere anledning
- Presentere hensikten med studien og understreke at vi er interessert i deres opplevelse, intensjonen er å lære om hva de mener og det er derfor ikke mulig å svar feil e.l.
- Forklare gangen videre i intervjuet, vi skal snakke litt og så skal vi se et klipp fra klasserommet deres fra da dere ble filmet og så kommer vi til å spørre om litt flere ting

Intervju: første sekvens

Bakgrunn

Mål: Spore lett inn på læreryrket og engelskfaget

- Hvor lenge har du jobbet som lærer?
- Hva var det som førte til at du ble lærer?
- Liker du å undervise i engelskfaget?
- Hva bruker du engelsk til på fritiden?
- Hva bruker elevene engelsk til på fritiden (tror du)?

Om språkbruk i klasserommet generelt

Mål: Lede lærere inn på temaet om språkbruk og høre hva læreren mener om språkbruk blant elever og av seg selv generelt

- Synes du det er viktig at elever snakker mest mulig engelsk i engelskklasserommet? Hvorfor/-ikke?
- Hva synes du om at elevene snakker andre språk enn norsk og engelsk i engelskklasserommet? Hvorfor/-ikke?
- Hva med din egen språkbruk i klasserommet, har du noen retningslinjer for deg selv her?
- I hvilke situasjoner synes du det er minst viktig å bruke engelsk? Hvorfor?

Intervju: Recall og refleksjonsdel

Mål: Bruke videoopptak som verktøy for å få tilgang til og støtte lærerens refleksjoner rundt språkvalg i klasserommet

- Hva er det første du tenker på når du ser dette klippet?
- Hvordan syns du elevene i denne klassen mestret engelsk?
- Er det noen spesiell grunn til at du valgte å snakke norsk/engelsk her?
- Er dette en bevisst strategi? Hvilket språk bruker du som regel mest av når du...
 - o forklarer eller utdyper et faglig poeng, eller veileder studentene i oppstarten av arbeid med en oppgave (*scaffolding*)
 - o underviser i grammatikk eller andre språklige elementer (*metalinguistic explanations*)
 - o gir instruksjoner til oppgaver elever skal gjøre (*task instruction*)
 - o forklarer hva et ord betyr for å utvide elevenes vokabular (*terminology*)
 - o snakker om et annet fag du også underviser i (*domain switch*)
 - o gir praktisk informasjon i klasserommet, f.eks. om en skoletur eller rydding av rommet (*practical information*)
 - o snakker med elevene om personlige ting, f.eks. at de har vært syke eller at de har vunnet en fotballkamp (*empathy/solidarity*)
 - o håndterer elevens oppførsel i klassen eller irretsetter elever (*class management*)
- Hvor typisk er dette klippet for din bruk av norsk og engelsk i denne klassen? Tror du at din språkbruk i denne klassen skiller seg fra din språkbruk i andre klasser, for eksempel den du underviser i nå? (*Minne læreren om hvilket trinn han/hun har sett opptak fra og spørre om dette skilte seg fra året før/etter (relevant i S07), eller om dette var spesielt nettopp fordi det var dette trinnet (relevant for S17).*)

Er det noe annet du vil fortelle før vi avslutter? / Er det noe jeg ikke har spurt om som du synes er viktig? / Er det noe du tenker på som vi kan snakke om nå?

Etter intervjuet

Mål: Sikre at deltakeren har fått vite at de har gjort det som var forventet av dem, få samtykke til å ta kontakt på ny

- Takke for deltakelse
- Sikre at kontaktinfo er riktig og spørre om jeg kan ta kontakt ved en senere anledning
- Dersom de ønsker – forklare hvorfor studien gjennomføres og gi ytterligere informasjon om hva som skjer videre. Fortelle at det er et viktig bidrag til forskningen!

Appendix 2 — Consent form

Til elever og lærere

Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleutvikling

Postboks 1099 Blindern
0317 Oslo

Telefon: 22 85 50 70
Telefaks: 22 85 44 09

LISE – Linking Instruction and Student Experiences

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å følge opp videostudien av undervisning på ungdomstrinnet ved å intervjuere elever og lærere om denne undervisningen. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål

I løpet av skoleårene 2015–2016 og 2016–2017 filmet vi undervisningen i ulike klasserom for å undersøke undervisning i ulike fag på ungdomstrinnet, og nå ønsker vi å sammenligne denne undervisningen med læreres og elevers erfaringer og synspunkter. Dette er et prosjekt som involverer en forskergruppe bestående av både etablerte forskere og masterstudenter som får tett oppfølging underveis. Det vi lærer fra denne studien vil være kjemperelevant kunnskap for lærerstudenter og lærere, og vi ønsker å også bruke materialet i undervisning og kursing av disse.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleforskning (ILS) ved Universitetet i Oslo (UiO) er ansvarlig for prosjektet, ved prosjektkoordinator for LISE-prosjektet, Lisbeth M Brevik.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta som pilot?

Du får spørsmål om å delta fordi du har en deltakerprofil som vil ligner de potensielle intervjudeltakerne. I det pågående forskningsprosjektet vil vi svært gjerne vil undersøke nærmere ulike aspekter som er relatert til undervisning som ble filmet. For å sikre at dette fungerer på best mulig måte ønsker vi å pilotere intervjuene og nå vil vi gjerne intervjuer deg for så å høre om dine erfaringer og synspunkter for å kunne gjennomføre best mulig intervjuer.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

Hvis du velger å delta i prosjektet, innebærer det at du blir intervjuet av en av forskerne i LISE-prosjektet, eller en av masterstudentene som skriver sine masteroppgaver som del av LISE-prosjektet. Intervjuet vil være relatert til undervisningen fra videostudien og vil dreie seg hvordan du opplever ulike aspekter av undervisningen og mulige forklaringer på valg som ble gjort i de filmede timene.

Det er frivillig å delta

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykke tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle opplysninger om deg vil bli anonymisert. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger

Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket. Prosjektgruppen og ansvarlig for datalaben ved ILS vil ha tilgang til opplysningene om deg. Navnet ditt og kontaktdataene dine vil bli lagret på et adgangsbegrenset, passordbeskyttet og sikkert område på ILS sin Teaching Learning Video Lab. Du vil ikke kunne gjenkjennes i publikasjonene som er knyttet til prosjektet.

Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes i august 2020. Da vil lydopptakene og transkripsjonene av intervjuene anonymiseres. De vil også lagres på det adgangsbegrensede, passordbeskyttede og sikre området på ILS sin Teaching Learning Video Lab.

Dine rettigheter

Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg, å få rettet personopplysninger om deg, få slettet personopplysninger om deg, få utlevert en kopi av dine personopplysninger (dataportabilitet), og å sende klage til personvernombudet eller Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?

Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke. På oppdrag fra ILS har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Med vennlig hilsen

Lisbeth M Brevik
Førsteamanuensis, ILS

Ulrikke Rindal
Førsteamanuensis, ILS

Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om forskningsprosjektet LISE, og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til følgende:

- Ja, jeg godtar å delta i intervju med lydopptak
- Ja, jeg godtar at det tas bilde av meg slik at intervjuet mitt kan kobles til videodataene
- Ja, jeg godtar at opptakene brukes til undervisning/kursing av lærere/lærerstudenter ved UiO
- Nei, jeg ønsker ikke å delta*

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet, ca. august 2020.

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

(Oppgi epost her hvis vi kan kontakte deg på nytt i forbindelse med intervjuet)

All deltakelse i prosjektet er frivillig, og du kan når som helst trekke ditt samtykke uten noen grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysninger bli anonymisert.

Dersom du har noen spørsmål til studien, vennligst ta kontakt med ansvarlig Masterstudent Kyrre Hellevang Tveiten. Tlf.: 990 56789, e-mail: kyrreht@uio.no.

Appendix 3 — Questionnaire

Noen avsluttende spørsmål:

Hvilket språk bruker du som regel mest av når du...

- 1 forklarer eller utdyper et faglig poeng, eller veileder studentene i oppstarten av arbeid med en oppgave?
- 2 underviser i grammatikk eller andre språklige elementer?
- 3 gir instruksjoner til oppgaver elever skal gjøre?
- 4 forklarer hva et ord betyr for å utvide elevenes vokabular?
- 5 snakker om et annet fag du også underviser i?
- 6 gir praktisk informasjon i klasserommet, f.eks. om en skoletur eller rydding av rommet?
- 7 snakker med elevene om personlige ting, f.eks. at de har vært syke eller at de har vunnet en fotballkamp?
- 8 håndterer elevs oppførsel i klasserommet eller irttesetter elever?

Appendix 4 — Audiovisual stimuli

information sheet

THEA					
Video	Timestamp	Language(s) spoken by teacher	Observed function(s)	Reason for interest	Additional notes
S17EN01T_L [Event 1]	00:04:34:05– 00:07:19:18 Length: 2:45	ENG+NOR	Scaffolding	The teacher has a class discussion and repeats some numbers in Norwegian. Interesting to know if she thinks this was necessary. The students seem to be paying attention and understanding.	The topic is teen pregnancy. Could more “embarrassing” topics have an effect on how much/little Norwegian is used?
S17EN01T_L [Event 2]	00:07:27:16– 00:09:45:02 Length: 2:18	ENG	Scaffolding	This is a segment of questions and answers. The teacher prompts in English, some students answer in Norwegian, some answer in English.	[Allow Norwegian]
S17EN02T_L [Event 3]	00:17:04:08– 00:17:40:05 Length: 0:36	ENG+NOR	Class management	The teacher initially asks a group of students a question in English. One student answers sarcastically in English, and the teacher switches to Norwegian to tell him to knock it off.	Does the teacher think that class management is more effective in Norwegian? The student is asked what his advice to a pregnant teenage girl is. He answers “poison”, and the teacher tells him to take this seriously.
S17EN04T_L [Event 4]	00:19:01:16– 00:20:04:05 Length: 1:03	ENG+NOR	Task instruction/Practical information	The students are in a circle. They receive instructions in English, but continuously ask and answer in Norwegian. When asked a practical question in Norwegian towards the end the teacher also switches to Norwegian.	[Allow Norwegian] Looks like the teacher tries to have the class discussion in English, but she does not enforce the use of English when the students speak Norwegian.

S17EN05T_L [Event 5]	00:07:12:08– 00:09:16:00 Length: 2:04	NOR	Task instruction/empathy/scaffolding	Interesting event where the teacher interacts with multiple students in different ways, all in Norwegian.	
S17EN05T_L [Event 6]	00:23:00:00– 00:24:00:24 Length: 1:00	NOR+ENG	Scaffolding/terminology	The teacher uses Norwegian to suggest English words the students can use in their essays	

MICHAEL					
Video	Timestamp	Language(s) spoken by teacher	Observed function(s)	Reason for interest	Additional notes
S07EN02E_L [Event 1]	00:13:38:10– 00:13:56:19 Length: 0:18	ENG+NOR	Scaffolding	Teacher switches to Norwegian (seemingly) to ensure comprehension.	After talking about the Irish potato famine and emigration to the US, the teacher switches to Norwegian to repeat how many of Irish descent there are in the US compared to in Ireland.
S07EN01E_L [Event 2]	00:35:24:03– 00:35:35:03 Length: 0:11	NOR+ENG	Subject-specific terminology + Empathy/Solidarity	The teacher asks a student how a certain word is written in English. He asks in Norwegian, but switches back to English to call him an expert.	The student gets the spelling wrong, but the teacher reassures him in English.
S07EN01T_L [Event 3]	00:05:07:08– 00:07:13:21 Length: 2:06	ENG+NOR	Domain switch	Prompting students on prior knowledge/learning from social sciences first in English, then in Norwegian.	
S07EN02T_L [Event 4]	00:47:44:21– 00:49:37:10 Length: 1:43	ENG+NOR	Empathy/solidarity + task instruction + scaffolding	Interesting switch between languages and language functions. Starts by getting attention in English, then referencing a TV show in English, then joking and parodying the students in Norwegian, then being supportive and instructing in English and finally modelling in English.	High content density within two minutes. Asking the students to put on a fake smile and show him their fake smiles to grab attention after a writing session. Lots of interaction with students and riffing on their relationship with the teacher.

S07EN02T_L [Event 5]	00:55:46:04– 00:58:37:20 Length: 2:52	ENG+FRA+GER	Empathy/solidarity + Domain switch + scaffolding	The teacher models sentences that the students can use on their foreign language tests in both French and German, all while commenting and encouraging in English.	[Maximize English] The teacher has a conversation with a group of students that are complaining about test being too close to one another (Science and French/German). The teacher tries to convince them that it's not too difficult to fill their FL-tests with content. He then proceeds to give examples in both French and German on how they can answer.
S07EN01E_L [Event 6]	00:52:52:05– 00:53:10:04 Length: 0:18	SPA+ENG	Class management (Language specific prompt)	The teacher receives a question in Norwegian and answers in Spanish and then in English with the intent of telling the student to not speak Norwegian.	[Maximize English] The phrase in Spanish is incorrect. He says “No habla Noruega” which translates to “He/she doesn't speak Norway”. It's difficult to ascertain exactly what he was going for. My guess is “No hablo Noruego”, “I don't speak Norwegian”.