

Student voices

*Influences and preferences regarding L1 and L2 use in the
English classroom from the perspective of six students*

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UNIVERSITETET I OSLO

Vår 2019

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Department of Teacher Education and School Research

Faculty of Educational Sciences

UNIVERSITY OF OSLO

Spring 2019

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Trykk: Reprosentralen, Universitetet i Oslo

Abstract

This thesis centers on language use in L2 English classrooms from the perspective of the students. Within a larger body of research on L1 use in L2 classrooms, a study from the Linking Instruction and Student Experience (LISE) project (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming) demonstrates what languages are present in English classrooms in lower secondary school in Norway, and in particular how L1 is used. However, information about the students' views on language use in those classrooms is limited. This thesis is looking to include the student voice through a qualitative study with six student participants from two English classrooms that were a part of the original LISE project. The classrooms differed greatly in terms of how much L1 Norwegian and L2 English were used. The present study has a twofold goal; it seeks to increase knowledge about the participating students' language preferences for a number of different L1 functions described by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) (e.g., *scaffolding* and *metalinguistic explanation*), as well as to explore what the participating students reported as influencing their spoken language in their respective English classroom.

Using carefully selected clips from LISE video data (e.g. a video sequence in which a participant spoke up using L1 Norwegian), the participants were interviewed using stimulated recall (Gass & Mackey, 2017). This method is proposed as a helpful way to guide self-reflections.

The findings indicate that there was a discrepancy between commonly reported L1 practices in research and the students' reported language preferences, which connected to how the participating students believed they best learn English. This divergence was especially visible with regard to teaching grammar, where all six participants preferred English to L1 Norwegian. They also reported strong support in favour of accepting code-switching in the L2 English classroom. Furthermore, the interviews revealed that each student was able to list several influences on their spoken language in the classroom and that the teachers' language practises were the most important variable. The reported influences align with research on *willingness to communicate* (MacIntyre et.al., 1998)

The implications are of an optimistic nature, as the findings can be read as suggestions for what a teacher can modify in order to optimise language use for maximum learning.

Sammendrag

Denne oppgaven handler om språkvalg i L2 Engelsk klasserom, sett fra et elevperspektiv. Som en del av en større forskningskontekst som omhandler bruk av L1 i L2 klasserom, har en studie fra Linking Instruction and Student Experience (LISE) prosjektet (Brevik & Rindal, forestående) demonstrert hvilke språk som er til stede i engelsk klasserom på ungdomstrinnet i Norge, og særlig hvordan L1 blir brukt. Det er likevel begrenset informasjon om elevenes syn på hvordan språk brukes i de klassene. Denne avhandlingen ønsker derfor å inkludere elevstemmene gjennom en kvalitativ studie med deltakere fra to av engelsklassene som var en del av LISE-prosjektet. Klassene hadde svært ulik bruk av L1 norsk og L2 engelsk. Denne studien har et todelt mål; studien ønsker å styrke kunnskap om deltakernes språkpreferanser for ulike L1 funksjoner som beskrevet av Brevik and Rindal (forestående) (e.g., ‘*scaffolding*’ og ‘*metalingvistisk forklaring*’), samt å utforske hva elevene rapporterer at påvirket det muntlige språket deres i deres respektive engelsktimer.

Deltakerne ble intervjuet ved bruk av nøye utvalgte klipp fra LISE video data (e.g. en sekvens hvor en deltaker snakker L1 norsk) for metoden ‘stimulated recall’ (Gass & Mackey, 2017). Denne metoden er særlig egnet for å guide selvrefleksjon.

Studiens funn indikerer at det er et avvik mellom praksis for L1 bruk som fremstilt i forskning og deltakernes oppgitte språkpreferanser, som er knyttet til hvordan deltakerne opplever at de selv lærer engelsk best mulig. Dette avviket var spesielt synlig når det gjaldt grammatikkundervisning, hvor alle seks deltakerne oppga en preferanse for engelsk heller enn L1 norsk. De var også i favør for aksept for kodeveksling i L2 engelsktimer.

Videre avdekket intervjuene at hver av elevene kunne oppgi flere påvirkende faktorer på deres muntlige språk, og at lærerens praktisering av språk var viktigst av disse faktorene. Faktorene som ble rapportert kan sees i lys av forskning på ‘*willingness to communicate*’.

Implikasjonene fra studien er optimistiske av natur, ettersom funnene kan sees som forslag til ting en lærer kan modifisere for å optimalisere hvordan språk brukes for å fremme læring.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Pia Sundqvist, who has given me helpful feedback, relevant suggestions and careful comments throughout the process. Thank you for believing in my project and for your encouragement. I would also like to thank my co-supervisor Ulrikke Elisabeth Rindal for her useful feedback and guidance, especially with regard to the gathering of the data and the LISE material. Their comments and advice has without a doubt been instrumental in the completion of this thesis.

I would also like to express my gratitude to the LISE project for allowing me access to their video material, especially Project Coordinator Lisbeth M. Brevik. Thank you for your support, comments and advice, your insight has been both helpful and motivational. Likewise, I want to thank Bjørn Sverre Gulheim at the TLVlab at ILS, for teaching me to use the digital tools needed for the project and providing support at the lab.

I am also grateful for the EDID-gang; Annie, Mette, Øystein, your insights and knowledge continue to inspire, Rakel, thank you for believing in me, to Ahmed for being a pace car towards the end goal and finally a big thanks and thumbs up to Kyrre "Maverick" Tveiten, your knowledgeable, logical insights and encouragement has made this process 'such fun'.

To my friends, especially Hannah, Coral and Siw, thank you for being there during the work. I also want to express my thanks my family, I am so grateful for your help with excel, translations and your never-ending encouragement.

Last, but not least, I would like to thank the six student participants, whose responses make up the core of this project. Thank you for taking time and for your responses, you have been incredibly helpful and I am very grateful. You also gave me so many tips for teaching in general (I will never wear slogan t-shirts when teaching, I promise) and I truly learned a lot from each of you.

Oslo, May 2019,
Vilde Matilde Skram

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1 Introduction

During a practise placement period, a group of student teachers met up to talk about their teaching experiences so far, discuss challenges and share ideas. A fellow student teacher raised the question of “what languages do your students speak during lessons?”. This spurred a lengthy conversation where it became apparent that as a group, the student teachers had very different experiences and beliefs about language use in the English classroom.

Furthermore, it also became apparent that all the student teacher had experiences with students that were reluctant to speak up during lessons, using English. The following spring, as part of a masters course in English didactics (EDID4001), the MA students were introduced to the video research project Linking Instruction and Student Experiences (LISE). As part of the coursework, a lesson was transcribed and analysed, where an exchange between a teacher asking a question in English and a student answering in Norwegian raised curiosity and inquiries: Why does the student answer in Norwegian?

Looking to research for answers to this question, it became apparent that there were no straight-forward solution, as there is an on-going debate about what role L1 should have in an L2 classroom (e.g. Crichton, 2009; Macaro, 2001; Moore, 2013; Polio & Duff, 1994; García & Li Wei, 2014). Furthermore, in a Norwegian context there are studies that showed that L1 use varies and can be beneficial when used purposefully (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming; Hoff, 2013), studies that explore code-switching (Haugen-Mehl, 2014), attitudes towards accents (Rindal 2014; Rindal & Piercy, 2013; Hopland, 2016) and translanguaging (Warsame, 2018).

There were however no studies, to my knowledge, that had simply asked the students “why do you use English/Norwegian when you speak up during lessons?”. This thesis will therefore do just that, as it is believed that the student perspective can hold important information about what influences students spoken language in the English classroom. Furthermore, Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) have identified L1 functions, but there is limited evidence of whether the students prefer their teacher to use L1 or L2 for each individual function, so including the student voice on this matter also became a priority. The latter is also in line with the aim of the LISE project, where instruction is linked to student experience (Hjeltnes, Brevik, & Klette, 2017).

1.1 The LISE-project

This thesis is written using material and previous research from the video research LISE project, which is led by Professor Kirsti Klette and Associate Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik is the project coordinator. Initiated in 2015, the LISE project is a follow up study of the Linking Instruction and Student Achievement (LISA) project (Hjeltnes, Brevik, & Klette, 2017). The LISA project encompass 49 participating schools (schools 01–49). The LISE project includes five schools from LISA (S02, S07, S09, S13, and S17) and an additional two schools (S50 and S51) (Brevik, 2019).

The LISE project has recorded between four and six lessons in both 9th and 10th grade for the subjects English, French, Norwegian, Mathematics, Science, and Social studies. This totals to 300 filmed lessons (Hjeltnes, Brevik, & Klette, 2017). The project's aim is to “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).

1.2 English in Norway

Norwegian adolescents are comparatively highly proficient speakers of English (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). Following the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001), which describes language competence, most lower secondary students in Norway would be placed at an intermediate level (Brevik, 2017). This could be related to education, as English is a common core subject in Norway and taught from the first grade throughout VG2 in upper secondary school. That said, having previously held a place as a foreign language, the status of English is argued to be in transition and could be regarded as an unofficial second language in Norway (Rindal, 2016). This is reflected in educational policy documents, where English is set apart from other foreign languages, such as Spanish or German, referred to as a global language (Udir, 2013).

Additionally, it is known that learners English language attitudes and behaviour suggest that English could be part of their identity repertoire (Rindal & Piercy 2013, p.213). Furthermore, research on Extramural English (EE) suggests that learners spend hours engaged with English outside school (Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2016). In sum, it is possible to claim that a student's

relationship with English is no longer as simple as mastering a skill (Rindal, 2016) and that having communicative competence is necessary for participation in Norwegian society today.

1.3 Research questions

As mentioned, the goal of this study is twofold; it looks to increase knowledge about the participating students' language preferences for the different L1 functions described by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming), as well as to explore what they report as influencing their language use in the English classrooms.

To achieve this aim, it was necessary to operationalise it through two research questions (RQs):

(1) What are the students' reported language preferences with regard to the L1 functions as proposed by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming)?

(2) What do the students report influences their spoken language in the English classroom?

It should be noted that '*students*' refers to the participants in this study. As this thesis is written as part of the LISE project, the focus is on lower secondary school.

1.4 Thesis outline

This thesis is comprised of six chapters, this introductory chapter included. Chapter two presents the relevant theory and previous research. Chapter three presents the methods and materials, as well as highlights some ethical concerns and a note on the credibility of the present study. In chapter four, the results are presented, before some main findings are discussed in chapter five, applying the aforementioned theory. The sixth and final chapter is a brief conclusion, where implications of the present study and suggestions for future research are provided.

2 Theory and prior research

This chapter will be made up of a literature review which includes the theoretical framework of the study. It has six parts; the English subject curriculum (2.1), input, output and second language acquisition (2.2), code-switching (2.3), language(s) in the English classrooms in Norway (2.4), the willingness to communicate model (2.5), before prior research (2.6).

2.1 The English subject curriculum

As mentioned in the introductory chapter, English is a common core subject that is present throughout primary and secondary education in Norway (*see section 1.2*). At the time of writing, the English subject curriculum is under revision, but not finalised and the current curriculum, the National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion (KL06) will therefore be the primary reference.

Preceding the current version, the English subject curriculum of L97 specifies that “*classroom communication should primarily be done in English*” (own translation) (KD 1997, p.238). In both the current and proposed English curriculum, there are no such explicit directions for teachers with regard to language use (Udir, 2013, 2019). There is however a strong focus on oral interaction and *communicative competence*, both in the general goals of KL06 and the core elements of the proposed curriculum (Udir, 2013, 2019). Both curricula also have competence aims reflecting the aforementioned communicative goals, for example “*express him/herself in writing and orally in a varied, differentiated and precise manner, with good progression and coherence*” as found after year 10 in KL06 (Udir, 2006, 2013).

Furthermore, both curricula have competence aims that explicitly mention the student being able to “*express oneself fluently and coherently in a detailed and precise manner suited to the purpose and situation*” and “*use patterns for pronunciation, intonation, word inflection and various types of sentences in communication*” (Udir, 2006, 2013). However, as discussed by Simensen (2010), there is no information on how *fluency* or *patterns for pronunciation* should be taught or assessed, nor are there explicit guidelines of what these concepts *mean*.

In brief, the English subject curricula and competence aims are open for interpretation, leaving most of the decisions regarding methods, language and teaching approaches to the

teachers (Krulatz et al., 2016). While it may be beneficial to have the possibility to adapt one's teaching to each group of students, the lack of set guidelines can also lead to complications and challenges, both for the teacher and students. This has been highlighted in recent research, where it has been shown that assessment practices varies greatly (Bøhn, 2016; Cosabic, 2016; Yildiz, 2011; Borch-Nielsen, 2014), and that there are varying perceptions of accent and its importance (Bøhn, 2016; Hopland, 2016, Rindal, 2013). Students are preoccupied with assessment (Blikstad-Balas & Brevik, 2014) and criteria of assessment ideally need to be clear and easily available for the students (Blikstad-Balas & Brevik, 2014, p.3). The lack of set guidelines with regard to language and assessment is therefore a challenge for English teachers and could, in turn, create uncertainty for learners (Bøhn, 2016).

2.2 Input, output and second language acquisition

While the curriculum values communicative competence, the question still remains on how best to teach English. This relates to on-going debates about second language acquisition (SLA) and the place of L1 in L2 instruction (Ellis, 1997; Ortega 2009; Crichton, 2009; Macaro, 2001; Moore, 2013). Second language acquisition is a broad term that encompass varied and sometimes competing theories on the process of acquiring a second language (Ellis ,1997; Gass, 1997; Ortega, 2009).

Input can be defined as “*the samples of language to which a learner is exposed*” (Ellis 1997, p.5). Though most researchers agree that input in the target language is important (Polio & Duff, 1994; Grim, 2010), its role in language acquisition and what form it should have is not yet agreed upon (Ellis, 1997). Perhaps the most cited support for input is Krashen's *input hypothesis* (1985), part of his *monitor model*. The *input hypothesis* argues that all comprehensible input will facilitate acquisition (Krashen, 1985). Other researchers (Corder, 1967; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Block, 2003) view *input* and *intake* as separate processes, where the first is simply the total amount of exposure, whereas the latter, *intake*, is what the student internalises and thus learn from.

Likewise, the researchers disagree about the role of *output* (Ellis, 1997). *Output* can be seen as students' language production (Swain, 1985), defined by Ortega (2009) as “making meaning and producing messages” (p.62). Models such as the *input-interaction-output*

hypothesis (Gass,1997) and the *output hypothesis* (Swain 1985, 1995, 2005) argue that output is highly valuable and necessary for language learners. Swain's model (1985) builds on the concept that learning a language requires students' production of coherent and contextually appropriate output (Swain ,1985,1995). It also poses the concept of *pushed output*, where a teacher would 'push' a student to produce comprehensible output, in which *comprehensible* is understood to include grammatical, sociolinguistic and discourse features (Swain 1985, 2005).

Though there is an interest in the *products* of SLA (Cook, 2001), the output hypothesis requires the understanding that *output* is not equal to *product*, i.e. what the student has learned and instead understand it as part of the acquisition process (Swain, 1985). The argument is made that output allows for self-monitoring, reflection and noticing gaps in one's language competence, along with the opportunity to attempt to correct and consequently increasing the potential for learning and SLA (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Long,1996; Kormos, 2006).

2.3 Code-switching

That said, *output* does not necessarily have to mean that a learner speaks in English only. Cook (2001) argues that banning L1 from L2 instruction might lead to the compartmentalisation of languages and hence not acknowledge that code-switching “occurs naturally among bilinguals” (Macaro 2005, p.64; Cook, 2001).

The term code-switching itself has several definitions and could be viewed as an essential part in a body of research on bi- and multilingualism, as much as a linguistic feature (MacSwan 2017, e.g. Cook, 2001, 2008; Duran & Palmer, 2013; Fuller, 2009; Simensen 2007; Garcia, 2009; Garcia, Flores, & Woodley, 2015; Gort, 2012; Grosjean, 2010; Martinez, 2010). In broad terms code-switching can be understood as alternating between two or more languages, or variety of languages, within or between sentences (MacSwan 2017; Levine, 2011, p.50, Milroy & Muysken, 1997, p.7). Scholars have also attempted to further categorise code-switching, both based on its features, like Gumperz' (1982) definitions on situational and conversational code-switching (c.f. Gardner-Chloros 1997), Poplack's (1980) three types of code-switching, by its functions (Auer 1984; Levine 2011; Macaro 2001; Grim 2010) and its effects (Lin, 2013).

The present thesis will adopt a broad definition of code-switching, as proposed by McKay (2002), where the term

refers to the change of language or a language variety by a speaker or writer. Such shifts in language or language variety can occur within a sentence or at a sentence boundary and can also occur when one speaker uses one language and the other uses another (p.131)

This understanding has been chosen as it is explicit in its inclusion of instances where the speakers use different languages, which could happen within the classroom setting.

2.3.1 A note on translanguaging

Though code-switching may seem like a well-established theory, there are still those who offer conflicting perspectives, with some scholars favouring *translanguaging* (García & Kleifgen, 2018; García & Li Wei 2014). Having gained influence within recent years, García & Li Wei (2014) defines the term by the process taking place when a linguistic repertoire is used. While *translanguaging* may seem closely linked to code-switching, scholars supporting the theory would disagree (García & Kleifgen, 2018; Otheguy, García and Reid, 2015; Pennycook, 2006). As argued by MacSwan (2017), this is because a translanguaging perspective fundamentally reject the concept of code-switching. As explained by Warsame (2018):

“In other words, language as we know it is socially constructed and distinguished from one another. The idea of translanguaging, however, contradicts this division of languages. It involves the notion that there is one linguistic repertoire, instead of many separated into socially constructed languages” (p. 20)

Scholars favouring translanguaging theory would thus argue that code-switching is impossible, because there cannot be a “switch” as there are no separation of languages for the bilingual individual (García & Kleifgen, 2018). This has been disputed by MacSwan (2017), who propose a multilingual perspective, where individual multilingualism is understood to be integrated in a psychological sense and universal. This perspective is built on earlier works by García (2009, p.45, 2011, p.147) where code-switching is simply a part of translanguaging, along with other bilingual practises such as translation or borrowing (MacSwan, 2017).

While this thesis will mainly refer to code-switching, translanguaging has nevertheless contributed greatly to the understanding of language mixing in the classroom, problematised the conventional understandings with regard to language teaching and encouraged a more

inclusive approach to linguistic diversity (MacSwan, 2017; García & Li Wei, 2014; Warsame, 2018). There are also similarities between translanguaging and Cook's (1992) concept of multi-competence, by which she means "the overall knowledge that combines both the first language and the L2 interlanguage (that is) the knowledge of two languages in the same mind" (Cook, 2008, p. 15).

As argued by Bernales (2014), following Cook's (1992) understanding of internalised languages could mean that within the L2 classroom, it is less important whether the student use their L1 or L2 and more interesting to look at when they "choose to externalize what is in their minds; that is, whether they make the choice of using language (whichever they have available in their minds at the moment of communication) or whether they choose to remain silent" (Bernales, 2014, p.3). In the present thesis, exploring what influences the students spoken behaviour is therefore a central theme.

2.4 Language(s) in the English classrooms in Norway

There is an on-going debate about use of L1 in L2 classrooms (Crichton, 2009; Macaro, 2001; Moore, 2013; Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). Research shows that the amount of L1 used by a teacher often relies on professional judgement (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming), where amongst others, a deciding factor is the teacher's assessment (Tsagari & Diakou, 2015; Macaro, 2001) or beliefs about students' language needs (Cook, 2001; Crichton, 2009; Edstrom, 2006; Hoff, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011).

As demonstrated by Hoff (2013), a teacher's beliefs about their students' proficiency levels can at times be incorrect, which could entail unnecessary use of L1. Though use of L1 could support comprehension (Cook 2001), Polio and Duff (1994) claim that "practices where the L1 is used to reduce the frustration level of the students may be short sighted" (p. 323). Further on, as noted by Grim (2010); "one dilemma with supporting the presence of the L1 in particular cases is that teachers might choose to use it in unnecessary cases and therefore limit L2 input" (p. 207).

Looking at how language can be used in classroom, there are three main approaches in English language teaching, as outlined by Brevik, Rindal and Beiler (in press). These three approaches are named after the way language is used within the classroom setting and are the

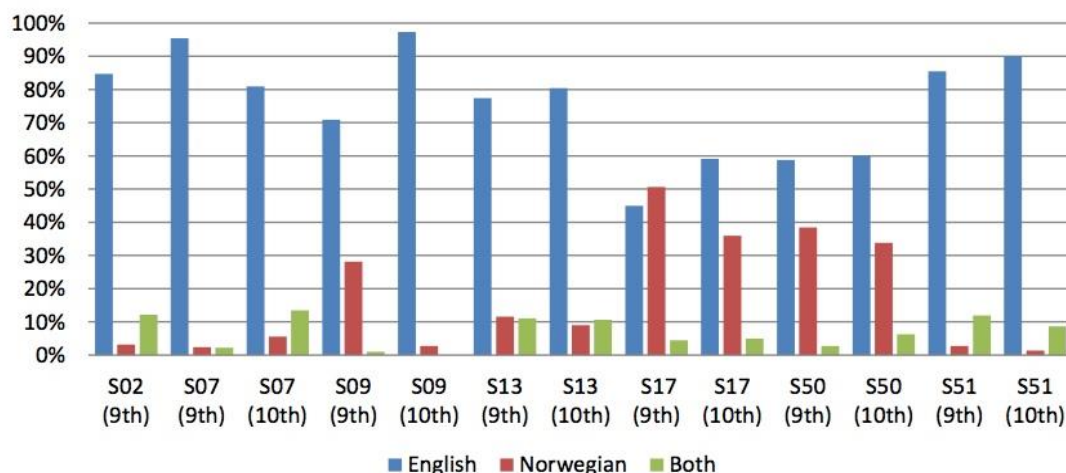
monolingual, bilingual and multilingual approach respectively. The monolingual approach believes that the L2 classroom should be dominated by a single language, namely the target one (Chambers, 1991; Howatt, 1984; Phillipson, 1992). A bilingual approach is based on a systematic use of L1 in L2 teaching and accepting of code-switching (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2008), while a multilingual approach involves the inclusion of a variety of languages present in a classroom (Brevik, Rindal and Beiler, in press).

Macaro (2001) argues that a monolingual approach could stifle reflective teaching practices, while other arguments focus on allowing students to use all their resources, also those connected to L1 and arguing that using L1 well does not prevent L2 learning (García & Li Wei, 2014; Ortega, 2009; Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2001; Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Verhoeven, 1991). A multilingual approach could also ensure that the teacher is not simply enforcing a mainstreamed system and unintended assimilation by only allowing Norwegian as the L1 to be used (Dewilde & Skrefsrud 2016, p.1034).

Studies show that the choice of approach can be linked to the teacher's own language ideology (Brevik, Rindal & Beiler, in press) and that a monolingual or bilingual approach are the most commonly found in English classrooms in Norway (Dahl, 2015; Drew & Sørheim, 2009). Supporting this, LISE study (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming) examined the use of languages in English lessons across seven lower secondary schools, with 60 hours of lessons. They found that English was used 77% of the time, while Norwegian was used 16% of the time, while the remaining 7% of the time saw interchangeable use of both languages (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). The study found no other languages used. The results could arguably be seen as support for the notion that most teachers of English in lower secondary use a monolingual approach.

That said, Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) discovered that there were large variations in how much English was used across the different classrooms, which is shown in Figure 2.1.

Fig. 2.1: Amount of spoken language in the LISE classrooms, divided by school (S) and grade. Used with permission (Brevik & Rindal forthcoming).



2.4.1 L1 functions within the classroom

This thesis is looking to investigate the students reported language preferences with regard to the L1 functions proposed by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) and thus follow their description of each function. Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) found that L1 use in L2 instruction could be understood by its functions and divided into two main categories; academic and non-academic functions. These functions were validated with the help of frameworks from prior research by Polio and Duff (1994), Macaro (2001), Edstrom (2006), and Grim (2010). These functions are as following (cited verbatim from 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 a 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)”

The functions also vary in usage. Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) found that the academic functions were the most common, totalling at 81% of the usage. Furthermore, the study presents the following Fig.2.2 that describes how the different L1 functions are used across the LISE classrooms:

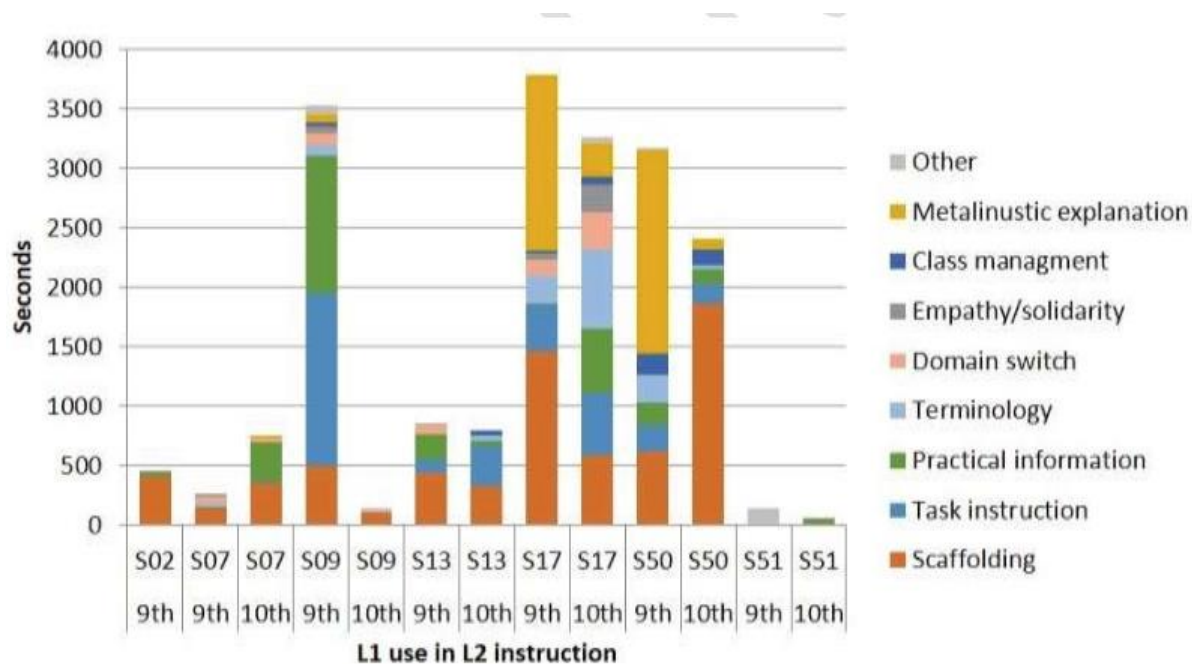


Fig. 2.2: L1 functions across the LISE classrooms, separated by grade and school (s). Time shown in seconds. Used with permission (Brevik & Rindal forthcoming, p.10)

2.4.2 Student opinion on L1 use

Research shows that students judge their L1 as having a place in the L2 classroom (Tsagari & Diakou, 2015; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Moore, 2013; Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming) and believe it to be useful, although to what extent and in what situations is still not agreed-upon variables (Lee & Macaro 2013; Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). The latter will be a central question for the present study. Interestingly, the results from Duff and Polio (1990) found that regardless of the actual amount, which varied, students were generally content with their teachers use of L2 (p.158).

As part of their study, Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) also conducted a student survey, where the students anonymously rated the following two statements by occurrence; “My English teacher uses Norwegian to help us understand” (asking how often the students find their teacher’s use of L1 Norwegian to be helpful, i.e. not commenting on how often the teacher uses Norwegian) and “I find it easy to understand my teacher when he/she speaks English” (p.8). A 1-5 scale was used, asking if they never, rarely, sometimes, often, or always experienced these situations. The results are displayed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Mean Responses (Scale 1.0 to 5.0) to Survey Items 1 and 2, with SD in parentheses, and amount of Norwegian Use for the seven schools (9th Grade (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming, p.15)

Schools	S02	S07	S09	S13	S17	S50	S51
Item 1*	3.47 (0.99)	4.22 (0.80)	3.67 (0.86)	3.63 (1.07)	4.07 (0.96)	4.19 (0.74)	3.20 (1.08)
Item 2**	4.18 (0.95)	4.56 (0.70)	3.91 (1.09)	4.63 (0.60)	4.53 (0.64)	4.74 (0.53)	4.88 (0.33)
Norwegian use	3 %	2 %	28 %	12 %	51 %	38 %	3 %

* The English teacher uses Norwegian to help us understand

** I think it is easy to understand the English teacher when s/he speaks English

As can be seen from Table 2.1, more than half (58%) the students report that their teacher use Norwegian to help them understand always or often, and 33% convey that it occurs sometimes. Likewise, a large majority (88%) expressed that they could easily understand their teacher’s English always or often. Noteworthy, Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) found a correlation where “students in classrooms with more Norwegian use reported that they experienced that their teacher uses Norwegian to help them understand more often than students in classrooms with less Norwegian use” (p. 16). The exception is S07, a classroom with the least Norwegian used (2%) and yet the highest score of professed helpfulness. For the present study, where S07 is one of two schools being part of the study, this is very

interesting and it will thus be interesting to see what the student participants answers with regard to L1 use and influences on their own language.

2.5 The Willingness to Communicate model (WTC)

Producing comprehensible L2 output can be beneficial for learning an L2 (Swain, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Cook, 2001). That said, a high level of competence is not necessarily the same as successful communication (cf., Yashima, 2012). As teachers may be familiar with, some students may be talkative in other situations or have excellent results from exams and still choose to remain silent within the classroom (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2013). Understanding the influences on spoken language is part of the aim for this thesis and in order to understand the results, the framework of willingness to communicate (WTC) (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément & Noels, 1998) seems relevant and WTC as a model will be thus be briefly reviewed in this section.

Originally introduced in relation to native language use (McCroskey & Baer, 1985), WTC was understood as the operationalisation of a personality trait (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). Shifting the focus to L2 learners, MacIntyre et al. (1998) defined WTC as an individual's "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (p. 547). Today WTC is commonly used as part of SLA research and its significance lies in that the concept combines different fields of research like psychology, linguistic, educational research and pedagogy in an collective effort to understand the communicative dimensions of language (Zhang et. al., 2018; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015).

Having previously been argued to be a trait (McCroskey and Baer, 1985), i.e. a part of someone's personality, MacIntyre et al.(1998)'s definition of WTC alludes to a more complex view where WTC is both a trait and a state, dynamic and highly situational (Zhang et al., 2018; Peng & Woodrow, 2010)¹. This dynamic nature is also valuable from a pedagogical viewpoint, as studies on increasing WTC recognises variables that a teacher can modify (Kang, 2005; Aubrey, 2011; Cao & Philip, 2006). This dual nature is similar to the way both motivation and anxiety is believed to be experienced by learners (Dörnyei, 2005).

¹ It is important to remark, as illustrated by Zhang et al. (2018) that the lack of a cohesive nomenclature is a challenge for WTC researchers, as there are both various terms are used to describe the same variable and the same term used to describe different variables (2018, p.227).

In their original WTC model, MacIntyre et al. (1998) proposed a pyramid shaped model (see Fig. 2.3) where the six layers can interact to influence L2 communication in either a positive or negative way. In total their model encompass more than 30 variables that could explain use of L2 in a Canadian ESL context (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

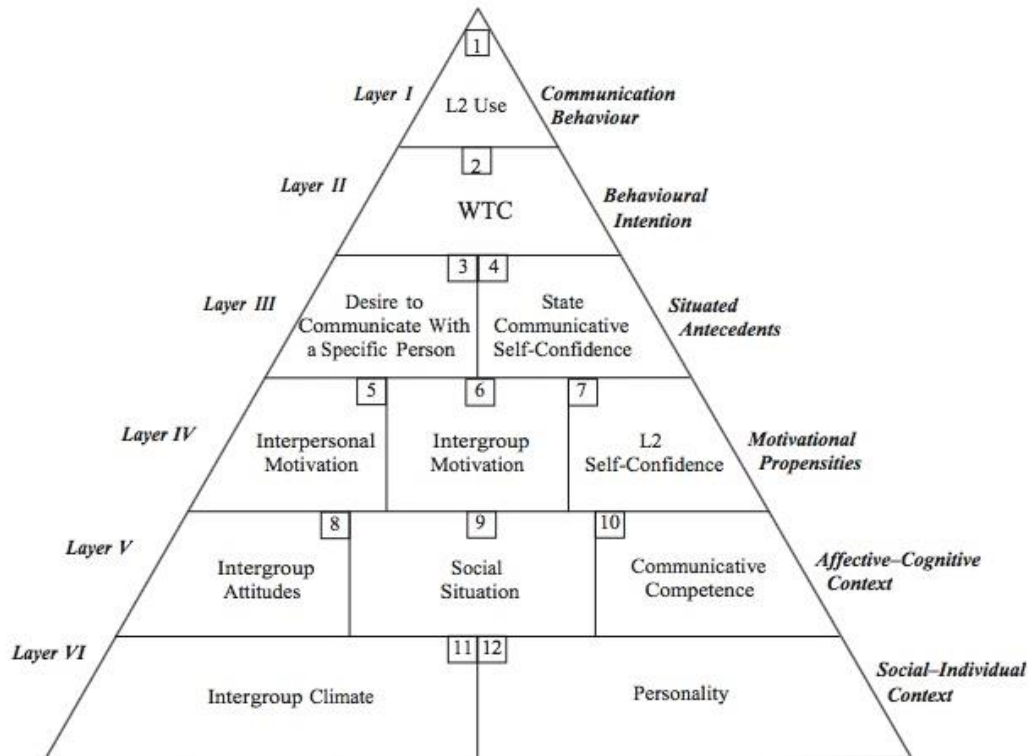


Figure 2.3 The pyramid model of WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

While it is recognised that the model may not be an exact fit for any language learning context, it is still highly useful for the present thesis in the sense that it encompass a large amount of potential variables that could influence students WTC (Dörnyei, 2005; Fushino, 2010; Wen & Clément, 2003). Further on, the model has spurred further research that compliments or support the WTC model, most of which understands WTC as a dynamic process and some of which have found additional variables (e.g Cao, 2006, 2011; Cao and Philip, 2006; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre, Burns & Jessome, 2011; MacIntyre and Legatto, 2011; Peng, 2012; de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009).

Interestingly, MacIntyre et al. (2003;1998) found that WTC in L1 and L2 is not transferrable and should be regarded as independent, although some of the same variables will likely be at play. That said, the main variables that influence or predict WTC are presented in Table 2.2

Table 2.2 Main and subordinate variables in WTC, an overview

Main variable	Description and subordinate variables, with sources
Teacher	The teacher is a main influence on the students' WTC (MacIntyre et al. 2001). There are also a plethora of variables connected to the teacher including, but not limited to: the teacher's involvement, attitude, immediacy (Wen and Clément 2003; Fallah 2014), teaching style and classroom management (Cameron, 2013; Peng, 2012; Riasati, 2012; Zarrinabadi, 2014; Lee, 2009; Wen and Clément 2003). Further on, importance is also placed on the student's relationship to the teacher (Cao, 2011; MacIntyre et al., 2011), a teacher's method for allocating time for tasks, feedback and error correction (Zarrinabadi, 2014; Kang, 2005), as well as the teachers non-verbal expressions, which often is interpreted differently (Zarrinabadi 2014)
Interlocutors	Interlocutors include the teacher. WTC is influenced by familiarity to interlocutors (Kang, 2005; Riasati 2012), the social support they provide (MacIntyre et al., 2001), along with their participation and cooperation and the speaker's perception of this feature (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Riasati, 2012), and in some cases, the demographic features of the interlocutors, like their L2 proficiency, gender, age, appearance, and in some cases ethnicity (e.g Cao, 2011; Eddy-U, 2015; Kang, 2005; Riasati, 2012).
Perceived competence	Research on WTC found that perceived competence is more influential than actual competence, both with regard to the L2 and topical knowledge (MacIntyre et al., 1998, Hasimoto 2002). Further on, a major influence is also how students perceive their classmates' competence (MacIntyre et al., 2011; Cao, 2011), which can have both a positive and negative effect on WTC.
Motivation	Can be both internal and external (Dörnyei 1994). Motivation can also be predictive of WTC, directly/indirectly (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre and Charos, 1996).
Attitude/feeling	The student's attitude to L2 is a strong predictor of WTC (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). WTC is also affected by feelings, like excitement (Kang 2005), communication anxiety (Baker and MacIntyre, 2000, 2003; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima, 2002; Liu 2002), a feeling of ease (Liu & Littlewood, 1997) or embarrassment (Liu, 2002). Another variable is perceived relevance, which applies both to L2 learning as a whole, but can also vary on a situational level, e.g. in regards to task (Aubrey 2011; Cao & Philip 2006).
Context	Influences and predictors include sense of security (Kang, 2005), classroom atmosphere, co-created by both classmates and teacher (Eddy-U, 2015; Lee, 2009; Riasati, 2012), classmates, where both relations (see interlocutors above) and their behaviour are influential (Peng 2012; de Saint Leger & Storch, 2009), as well as class cohesiveness (e.g Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Khajavy, Ghonsooly, Hosseini, Fatemi, & Choi, 2014; Peng, 2007; Wen & Clement, 2003). Class size is also a variable within the context feature (Wen and Clément 2003).

Task	WTC increase if the topic is interesting and/or familiar (Cao, 2011; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2016; Riasati, 2012), where prior knowledge, both in regards to L2 vocabulary or factual knowledge can be a variable (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2016; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). The type of activity (Cao, 2011; de Saint Leger & Storch, 2009; Eddy-U, 2015; Ghasemi, Kermanshahi, & Moharami, 2015; Peng, 2012) and preparation time before being required to speak (Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006; Riasati, 2012; Zarrinabadi, 2014; Zhong, 2013) can also influence WTC.
Assessment	While this is an under-researched influence (Zhang et al, 2018), Riasati (2012) argues that being assessed increase feelings of anxiety for some students and thus influence their WTC, while Eddy-U (2015) argues that it promotes WTC as students' want for good grades increase their WTC.

2.6 Prior research

At the present time, there is limited research on the topic of how languages are used within the English subject classrooms in Norway and the thesis' will largely build on Brevik and Rindal's (forthcoming) work. That said, most of the recent studies focus on the teacher within the English classroom. In the Norwegian context, the following studies has informed this thesis; Bollerud (2002), Hoff (2013), Haugen Mehl (2014), Iversen (2017) and Warsame (2018). Likewise, while there has been a multitude of studies using WTC and L2 internationally (e.g. Aubrey 2011; Cao & Philip 2006; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2001; Zarrinabadi, 2014; Kang 2005), the topic is less frequent in the Norwegian research literature and to knowledge, there is no studies that looks at secondary school English classrooms and WTC. The present thesis has therefore also drawn inspiration from international projects and especially the work of Bernales (2014).

Bollerud's M.A thesis (2002) investigated to which extent Norwegian was used in the English teaching in Norway and why. Though a qualitative endeavor, the study reveals that Norwegian was used fairly frequently and that the main reasons for this were the teachers' proficiency levels, their formalized competence and the varied English skills amongst their students (Bollerud 2002). This thesis is of interest to the present study as it suggests that while the L97 may have been more explicit about language use, the language practices within the classroom still varied.

Hoff's M.A. thesis (2013) is similar to Bollerud's, but is written after the introduction of the National Curriculum for Knowledge promotion (LK06) and its lack of specific guidelines regarding language. Hoff's thesis "examines how the first language (L1) is used in EFL instruction in lower and upper secondary school, and examines the explanations of the variations in use". This was done through observation and interviews, which resulted in findings that showed inconsistent L1 use, both between classrooms and amongst teachers (Hoff, 2013). The reasons for using L1 were comparable to what Bollerud (2002) found, and were "connected to a combination of their proficiency level, their L1/L2 attitude, their ability to adjust their L2 in teaching, and their perception of their students' comprehension" (Hoff, 2013:III).

Both Bollerud's and Hoff's work were focused on the teacher's practices and language use. In her thesis, Hoff noted that more research on the students' perspectives was needed, which Haugen Mehl (2014) cites as part of her inspiration for her master's thesis. Her thesis explores "what attitudes and opinions can influence the teachers' decision to either utilize or avoid code-switching in the English learner classrooms in Norwegian schools" (Haugen Mehl 2014, p.III). Her sample mainly consist of teachers, but also include eight students that were interviewed in groups. While the main findings of the thesis seem to be linked to the teachers and their personal experiences of teaching a language, Haugen Mehl also includes findings related to the student perspective. She found that "the students view code-switching as an important learning tool, especially for the weaker students. They maintain that to switch languages is helpful when the teacher is clarifying something or wants all the students to understand something" (2014, p.90).

Iversen (2017) examined minority students' use of their L1 in the English classroom in Norway, with attention paid to *how* they used it and what their opinion of said usage was. While some of the minority students found using their L1 to be a resource and could explain different methods of application, the majority of the participants *did not* see using their L1 as beneficial (2017). Iversen also sets his clearest finding as the lack of support given by the teachers, suggesting that there is a need to improve English teachers competence with regard to multilingualism (2017).

Lastly, the master's thesis of Warsame (2018) should be included as relevant prior research. The thesis differs from the others because it includes an intervention lesson including

translanguaging practices developed by Warsame, with the main goal of investigating a specific teacher and their students' experiences of said lesson (Warsame 2018). The findings shows that both teachers and students found the use of L1 valuable and a resource for learning (2018). Furthermore, Warsame found that “the use of the students' identities and language in the English lesson contributed to a positive change in behaviour, engagement and motivation” (2018, p.V). The theoretical framework for Warsame's thesis is built around *translanguaging*, which as discussed above, is perhaps less suitable for the present thesis, but nevertheless important for possible implications from the study and thus important to acknowledge (2018).

Bernales's (2014) doctoral thesis explored the WTC framework in relation to the dichotomy between L2 and L1 use in a mixed-methods research design that included stimulated recall. Bernales' dissertation investigated both predicted and self-reported participation and found influencing factors that align with WTC research (2014). The study also raise important questions of what classroom participation entails and how internal thought processes play into language learning (Bernales 2014). A main argument is the need to nuance WTC with a *willingness to participate* (WTP) model. Bernales (2014) argues that a dynamic situational understanding of the WTC model could offer insights in what she refers to as students' *willingness to participate* (p. 140). She suggests that the original WTC model does not account for instances where the student inhabits antecedents of WTC, state communicative confidence and a desire to communicate (MacIntyre et al.,1998), but chooses to not speak up due to other reasons, such as allowing peers to speak.

This, Bernales (2014) suggest, happened in her study and misinterpreting such instances as a lack of WTC would be a mistake, as she understands it as something separate from a lacking WTC. Similarly, she argues, there are instances where a student is participating in silence, which is an under researched topic within SLA, and a WTP. That said, while the study is similar to the present thesis, it is on a much larger scale, using both qualitative and quantitative methods. It has been an important inspiration, as it strengthens the usefulness of stimulated recall as a method for accessing student cognition.

3 Methods and material

This chapter will present and describe the research design and methods employed to answer the two RQs: (1) *What are the students' reported language preferences with regard to the L1 functions as proposed by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming)?*, and (2) *What do the students report influences their spoken language in the English classroom?*. The following sections will first describe the research design chosen for this MA thesis (3.1), before presenting the participants (3.2). The data collection and research tools employed will then be addressed (3.3), followed by the method of analysis (3.4). The last part consists of a discussion of the ethical concerns (3.5) and ends with a note on the credibility of the study (3.6).

3.1 Research design

In order to achieve the research goal of this thesis, it was important to define researchable questions (Firebaugh, 2008). Firebaugh (2008) suggests that when attempting to understand a social phenomenon, it is necessary to understand the what before one can ask why (pp. 3-4). Applying Firebaugh's approach to this thesis entails asking the participating students what they consider to be their preferred language for the proposed L1 functions (RQ1) and to be influencing their choice of spoken language (RQ2), rather than asking why they speak English or L1 Norwegian.

Once the research questions were defined, it became apparent that the research subject lends itself to an explorative approach, as the goal is to gain insight into the student perspective and self-perceived speech behaviours during English class. Exploratory research can be defined as:

A broad-ranging, purposive, systematic, prearranged undertaking designed to maximize the discovery of generalizations leading to description and understanding of an area of social or psychological life (Stebbins, 2001, p.3)

Moreover, the thesis places an importance on the investigation of a human experience, central in Creswell's (2014) definition of qualitative research:

(...) a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures; collecting data in the participants' setting; analysing the data inductively, building from particulars to general themes; and making interpretations of the meaning of the data (Creswell 2014, p. 246).

A qualitative approach suits this study's intention of exploring and investigating a human phenomenon. Building on this, interviews and stimulated recall are both considered suitable methods for this purpose as they can provide rich information from the students' perspective and allow the researcher to gain access to verbalised reasoning for observed speech behaviours. Kvale and Brinkmann (2015) notes that the qualitative interview is essentially an exchange of viewpoints and that an interview can facilitate rich descriptions of the participant's thoughts, experiences and emotions.

Because the research question for this study was developed based on quantitative data previously collected through the LISE-project and involves participants from the original project, the overall design mimics the explanatory-design-follow-up explanation model developed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007). This model is typically two-phased, where the collection and analysis of quantitative data reveal results that needs additional expansion or explanation, which then is procured through qualitative methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p.73). Furthermore, this study employs some of the taxonomy established in the quantitative analysis of the LISE data. A divergence from the explanatory-design-follow-up explanation model is that the interpretation of the qualitative data is done independently and there is no interpretation of combined results. In this sense, this project is arguably an expansion study that employs the existing quantitative results as background information rather than an element for direct comparison. Following Stake (1995) the study could arguably be called an instrumental case study to better understand the issue at hand; the lack of information about the student perspective of language use in English classrooms.

To summarise, this qualitative study is based on semi-structured interviews with six students from two schools from the LISE project. A stimulated recall method was used, which entailed showing the participants video clips of themselves participating vocally in their English class. The videoclips in questions were edited and originate from the LISE material and thus act as secondary data (see section 3.3.1). For ease of reading, these edited videoclips will be referred to as stimuli and the method will be detailed in section 3.3.2 and 3.5.

In brief terms, the research design can be understood in three phases; (1) pre-interview procedures, (2) data collection and (3) analysis of data, from which the results were developed. An outline of the research design is presented in Figure 3.1.

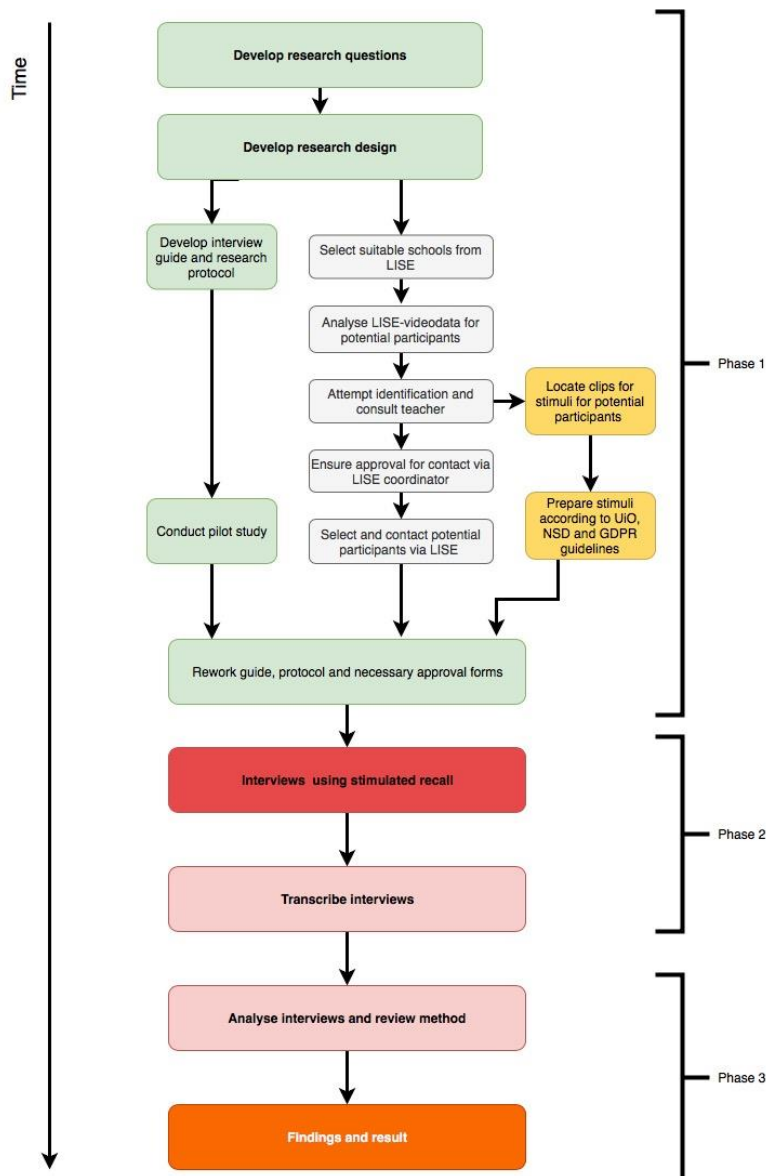


Fig.3.1 Research design

For the first phase, the starting point was the development of the research questions, which then led to the development of a research design. Following this, there were three necessary sequences before proceeding with the interviews. The main process, represented by the green boxes in Figure 3.1, had the goal of developing the tools for the interviews (see section 3.3). Simultaneously, the researcher also needed to find appropriate participants, as represented by the white boxes (see section 3.2). The last segment was to prepare stimuli for recall (the yellow boxes). The finalised preparation process resulted in the commencement of the second phase, data collection (see section 3.3.4). The third and last phase is the analysis of the data (see section 3.4). Detailed descriptions of the participants, research tools, data collection, and data analysis are given in the sections below.

3.2 The participants

This section will detail the process of sampling the participants and present the final selection of six students.

The forthcoming article by Brevik and Rindal presents the results of a video analysis of the LISE material where it was found that there were noticeable variations in the amount of Norwegian used in the different English classrooms across the seven schools included in their study. Following these results, it was decided that two schools should be selected for this thesis' exploration of the student perspectives on the language practises in their English classroom. Because the main rationale for conducting this thesis study was the lack of information about students' opinions, using purposeful selection at the process, participant, and site level in order seemed appropriate (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Dalen, 2011). In order to capture the maximum variation on case characteristics (e.g. Creswell & Poth, 2018; Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Miles & Huberman, 1994), one school should use English extensively, whereas the other should have a higher presence of Norwegian. Based on these criteria, one suburban (S07) and one rural (S17) school was selected, from different school districts in the Eastern part of Norway. The designations are from the LISE-project.

Brevik and Rindal's (forthcoming) study found that English is the predominant language used in English lessons at S07, whereas the class from S17 has a higher presence of Norwegian. The decision to only use the video material from the students' 10th grade was made to increase the likelihood that it was the language practice for the participants' final year in secondary school that was discussed. This was deemed necessary for successful stimulated recall, as timing is of the essence (Gass & Mackey, 2000) and it was believed that it would be easier for the participants to recall events in the 10th grade as that was closer in time. The aspect of timing of stimulated recall is further discussed in the section on validity.

3.2.1 Sampling the participants

Due to the limited scope of this master's thesis, a sample of three participants from each classroom was considered suitable. Having selected the schools, the 10th grade video material (comprising of four lessons from S07 and five from S17) was analysed using InqScribe, a transcription software that allows timestamping. Timestamping in this sense means that the researcher can press a button, either on the keyboard or using a foot pedal, to

select and record the exact location in the video or audio file that an utterance or event occurred. Using a software for this purpose can make it easier to create an overview of the video material.

In order to identify potential participants, the following two criteria were used:

1. The student should speak out loud and audible in the video material a minimum of three times (not counting monosyllabic answers such as “huh” or “no”).
2. The student had to be fully visible in the frame, as stimulated recall was to be used.

From these criteria, a list of students was compiled and the video material was re-watched to listen for names, to enable identification. For S07, this was especially complex, as the teacher used nicknames for the students. Identification was also challenging for S17, because several students had the same names. It was therefore decided that consulting the respective teachers would be a more efficient approach, contact provided via LISE.

To ensure the anonymity of potential participants, the teachers were first asked to identify all students from a still picture from the video material. The teachers then provided guidance in the form of identifying students that were unavailable for interviews (e.g., some studied abroad), resulting in a list of potential names from each school. The teachers were not made aware of the final selection to ensure the anonymity of the participating students.

The list of names was compared to the findings from the initial video analysis, and an additional criterion was set: the participants should have different speech behaviours. This criterion was vaguely formulated on purpose, enabling a prioritisation of students who had displayed different speech behaviours, including (but not limited to) a higher or lower influence of Norwegian language use, speaking up more or less in whole class situations, and speaking more or less with the peer sitting next to them.

The finalised list was brought to LISE researchers, where the names were checked against the previously collected signed forms of consent. Initially believed to be a straight forward matter, this proved challenging, as several of the potential names had not approved future contact. Some students had approved contact, but forgotten to leave full contact details or checking the box for ‘approving contact’. Being mindful of ethical concerns, only students

who had filled out the form as intended were considered for inclusion in the present study. Eventually, initial contact with six participants was established via LISE and interviews could be arranged.

3.2.2 The participants

Table 3.1: The student participants

School	Gender	Pseudonym	Observed speech behaviour	L1
S07	Male	Ewan	Vocally active in class, observed speaking both English and Norwegian	Norwegian
S07	Male	Pete	Less vocally active, observed speaking both English and Norwegian	Norwegian
S07	Female	Skylar	Very vocally active in class, only one observed instance of Norwegian, use English almost entirely	Norwegian as primary L1. Speaks another language fluently with mother, but does not consider this her L1.
S17	Male	George	Less vocally active in class, observed speaking both English and Norwegian	Norwegian
S17	Female	Olivia	Vocally active in class, observed speaking both English and Norwegian	Norwegian
S17	Female	Mary	Vocally active in class, observed speaking both English and Norwegian	Norwegian

The column *observed speech behaviour* represents the criterion “*the participants should have different speech behaviours*”, as the final sampling was made based on speech behaviours. While not a statistical analysis, it presents their level of spoken activeness displayed in the video material, including whole-class or peer talk.

3.3 Data collection and research tools

Following Maxwell (2013), data collection refers to methods used for obtaining data material for a study. This section will make a note on the use of secondary data, before describing the research tools employed for data collection.

3.3.1 Use of secondary data

Video data has many benefits for educational research (Blikstad-Balas & Sørvik, 2014) and for this thesis, the LISE video material was accessible for use as secondary data that both informed the sampling (see section 3.2.1) and acted as stimuli (see section 3.3.2). The videos were filmed using the LISE methodology (Klette, Blikstad-Balas, & Roe, 2017), with two cameras positioned at the front and back of the room, along with two microphones; one for the teacher and one positioned to capture student sounds. The below image illustrates the set up:



(Image credit: UiO, 2017)

While using video data allowed for re-watching and transcription as part of the sampling process, it entails the reuse of data, collected by other researchers. While there are obvious advantages to using videodata, there are also some concerns (Dalland, 2011). It is important for qualitative researchers to know the participants, context and research sites (Maxwell, 2013). Arguably, the recordings do not hold all information about these things and an observer, present in the classroom at the time of filming, may have a more complete understanding of the classroom situations (Andersson-Bakken, 2015).

However, while there was no way to influence the recordings, Dalland (2011) argues that it is possible to construct data from existing material. In accessing the LISE material, this thesis sought to inform the sampling process and create stimuli. This would have been impossible to do within the scope of the thesis without the provided material.

3.3.2 Stimulated recall and stimuli

The goal of this study is to learn more about the students language preferences with regard to the different L1 functions and what they report influences their spoken language during English lessons. Answering the RQs requires data that includes the students’ perspective and, thus, interviews seemed to be a suitable method. That said, the RQs demand introspection on part of the participating students. For this reason, the study chose to employ stimulated recall, one of many introspective methods and typically used for data elicitation in second language research (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Originally developed by Bloom (1953), the method is based on verbal, retrospective reporting and the data is the participants’ own statements about the way they organise and understand information (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.18). It essentially aids participants to “recall thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event” (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p.17).

While asking a participant to reflect aloud is an introspective undertaking, the use of stimulated recall can strengthen the accuracy of such reflections (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p.5). Using audio-visual stimuli in the form of video clips can function as an aid for participants to access their memory of an event and thus enable them to verbalise thoughts and reflections (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Figure 3.2 (adapted from Henderson and Tallman, 2006) illustrates that by using both interviewer questions and artefacts (stimuli), stimulated recall can essentially gather information through both recall and hindsight reports.

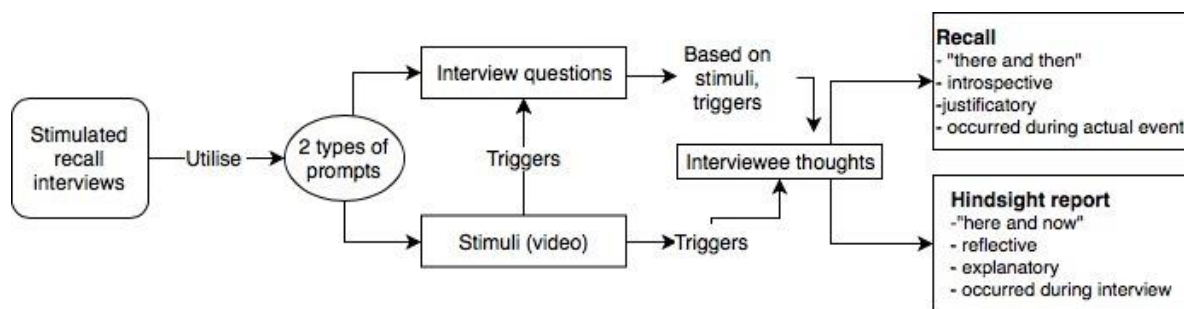


Figure 3.2 Stimulated recall. Adaptation of original from Henderson and Tallman (2006, p. 77)

Whereas some stimulated recall research is based on participants’ spontaneous thoughts with little direction given by the researcher, other researchers have used prompts and questions to guide participants’ reflections (Rassaei, 2014; Bernales, 2014; Gass and Mackey, 2000). Based on this information, stimulated recall seemed like a useful method to gather rich data from the interviews and because the research question was specific, the interviewer would use prompts to steer the participants’ recall and hindsight reports

While it is impossible to know whether recall actually works, as it supposedly triggers mental processes unavailable to the researcher, Gass and Mackey (2000) suggest that certain types of stimuli can increase the likelihood of the participant being able to recall an event. Within the hierarchy of stimuli, audio visual (e.g. video) is the strongest form of support a researcher can give (Gass and Mackey, 2000).

Research protocol

To best utilise the method, a simple research protocol was developed based on the advice of Gass and Mackey (2000). The research protocol can be found in Appendix 2. The decision to make this a separate document from the interview guide was to ensure that both the practical considerations of implementing stimulated recall and the questions needed for gathering data would be easily accessible for the researcher during the interview.

Creating the stimuli

The process for preparing stimuli to be included in the recall interviews entailed: (1) selecting appropriate sequences, (2) evaluating the sequences and (3) making any necessary edits. The outline of the process of preparing the stimuli was as follows:

(1) *Selecting appropriate sequences*: Having analysed the video material for the sampling of participants, noting down speech behaviour and timestamps, this step entailed re-watching sequences to locate suitable stimuli for the interviews.

Due to ethical concerns regarding the privacy of the participants' classmates, a deciding factor for suitability was sequences where only the participant in question and/or the teacher were speaking. This was done to avoid identification of a classmate based on their voice. The occurring event in the lesson was also taken into consideration. This was especially important in the case of S17, where the current topic during the video recorded lessons was sensitive (teen pregnancy). Knowing that the participants might not be familiar with watching themselves on film and wanting to avoid further unease necessitated a careful selection of video sequences.

For the final selection, between five and ten sequences for each participant were chosen. Where possible, this meant sequences that illustrated different situations; the student raising

their hand, the student speaking to a peer, the student answering a question etc. The selection also tried to include the student using English, Norwegian and both languages.

(2) *Evaluation*: For this step, the selection from the previous step was reviewed with the goal of having stimuli that presented a broad spectrum of the particular student's behaviour to increase the accuracy of the students' recall and ensure that any interesting language behaviour was discussed. This also meant comparing sequences to generally observed speech behaviour, to ensure the participants would recognise themselves and their behaviour in the final selection. The final selection was discussed with LISE-researchers (see section 3.5).

(3) *Necessary edits*: The finalised list of sequences were then edited, first cut, i.e. editing the original video file to create short snippets of videos. These shorter clips were then further edited to adhere to existing privacy guidelines, by applying a blurred effect to everyone but the participant in question. The files were stored on a secure LISE server and an encrypted disk; the latter was used for the interviews.

The stimuli

A brief overview of the finalised stimuli is given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Overview of stimuli for recall in interview per participant

Participant	Nr. of clips	Types of clips used in Stimulated Recall interviews
Ewan	4	Ewan was observed using mainly ENG, with some Norwegian code-switches, mainly at a lexical level. Some instances of full sentences in Norwegian. Selected clips show whole class participation and one-to-one discussions with the teacher.
George	3	George was observed used both English and Norwegian, but he rarely code-switched. Chosen clips includes him participating in whole class situations, discussing with the teacher one-to-one and participating in group work.
Pete	4	Pete was observed speaking English and some Norwegian, sometimes as lexical code-switching, but mainly used in full sentences. The clips selected shows him talking in whole class discussions and talk to the teacher one-to-one
Skylar	3	Skylar had only one observed occurrence of speaking Norwegian in the LISE material, but the sequence was not suitable for

		stimuli. Selected clips show whole class participation and one-to-one discussions with the teacher.
Olivia	4	Olivia was observed speaking as much Norwegian as English, with some code-switching sequences. Clips include answering questions in whole class situations, talking to the teacher and giving spontaneous comments in whole class setting.
Mary	3	Mary was observed to speak both English and Norwegian, but she rarely code-switches. The clips selected for her include her asking the teacher a question, speaking up in whole class situations and participating in whole class discussions.

Stimulated recall as a method was thought especially suitable for the exploration of the second RQ; *what do the students report influences their spoken language in the English classroom*. To ensure spontaneous verbalised recall (Gass & Mackey, 2000), the participants were not made aware of the selected clips prior to the interview.

3.3.3 The interview guide and pilot interviews

When conducting qualitative interviews, it is essential to decide what type of interview format to use and for this study, the semi-structured approach was deemed most applicable (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015). Additionally, individual interviews rather than group ones were considered appropriate, taking into to consideration both the topics covered, but also a concern that the participants from the same school would know each other. As the use of L1 in class might be linked to perceived level of competence, a group setting would potentially be influenced by inter-personal relationships and possibly fear of losing face in front of peers (Goffman, 1974).

The pilot interviews

As the researcher had no previous training in conducting interviews or using stimulated recall, a pilot was clearly necessary (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Three pilot participants of the same age as the “real” participants were selected and interviewed individually at the university on separate dates. The pilot interviews consisted of two parts; an interview followed by a meta conversation where the interviewer and interviewee reflected on the process.

As the pilot students were not part of the LISE material and thus lacked material for stimuli, two different methods were utilised. After having obtained permission, pilot student 1 was filmed speaking informally to the interviewer prior to the beginning of the interview, using L1 Norwegian and English. For the two other pilot students, public video data from classrooms were shown, provided via the Youtube-channel of the Norwegian National Centre for Foreign Languages in Education [Fremmedspråkssenteret].

The main goal of the pilot study was to train the interviewer, as well as to highlight areas of the interview guide that needed to be reworked or refined, and this goal was achieved. A major revision was the way the interviewer followed-up responses, where the first pilot student was subjected to a strategy of very objective and short responses to avoid researcher's influence (Creswell, 2014). This was not appreciated by the pilot student, who expressed a strong negative view. Dalen (2011) notes that a strategy of acknowledgement can aid younger participants in their willingness to verbalise their thoughts, with the interviewer being more 'present' and engaged than with older participants. This approach was tested for the two other pilot students, using responses like "thank you for sharing that". This was well received and thus implemented as part of the guide.

Another main revision was to allocate more time than first expected, especially for the stimulated recall. This is in line with Gass and Mackey's (2000) advice; since the participants were not given training in recall methods, they might need more time than expected to verbalise their thoughts. For some participants, the recall may occur as they speak, while others may need to remain silent and think about their answer, which the interviewer need to accommodate for. The other main revisions are highlighted in the subsection below, presenting the interview guide.

The interview guide

Following the recommendation of Kvale and Brinkmann (2015), an interview guide was developed (see Appendix 1). As the interviews were intended to be semi-structured, the guide was organised thematically and had mainly open-ended questions. The interview guide enabled the researcher to conduct controlled, but not rigid interviews. An overview of its contents, along with the revisions made after the pilot, is given in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Overview of interview guide with revisions made after pilot interviews

section	Content/purpose	Revisions (pilot interviews)
Introduction	Included the formalities; allowing the participants to freely give their consent (see App. 3 for blank copy), informing them about the project and an overview of the interview procedure	Being even more explicit about there being no wrong answers and ensuring awareness of anonymity by explicit explanations about access
“Warm up”	Open-ended, general questions about their relationship with English. Goal: establishing contact between researcher and participant,	Allocating more time to reduce nervousness, due to unfamiliar setting and stay informal
Stimulated recall and introspective reflection	Included early to maximise the recall effect of the stimuli and ensure that any reflections the participant developed during remainder of the interview could be verbalised in time. Open-ended questions related to RQ2	Explicitly telling the participants to watch the clips twice. Adding prompt for class environment and Dalen’s (2011) strategy of acknowledgment
Proposed L1 functions	Relates to RQ1. Some questions about teacher’s language practice to warm up. Presents the functions as scenarios to make them recognisable for the participants, asking them if it is more or less important to use English in the given scenario.	If participant struggles to verbalise importance, using a scale of 1 (not important) to 5 (very important) to help the participants place a value on their answer.
Post-interview	Formalities; expressing gratitude; information about how data is used/stored; contact details	None

Language used for interviews

While the video data from the LISE-project confirmed that all six participants could speak English, the videos were not enough to confirm the level of competence or whether the participants would be comfortable in vocalising introspection in English. The pilot participants reported that they preferred interviews in L1 Norwegian and not being given a choice of language as that felt like pressure to speak English. The interviews were thus conducted in Norwegian, based on the pilot study and supported by the findings of Gass and Mackey (2000), where interviews conducted in the participants’ L2 provided significantly fewer comments than those conducted in the participants’ L1 (p. 98).

That said, as this thesis is written in English, the quotes used in text would have to be translated. While there are strategies to avoid loss of meaning and to keep the wording

similar, translation entails interpretation and it is more difficult to report citations verbatim (Nikander, 2008). Valuing transparency, any longer quotes throughout the text is given identification numbers, corresponding to the original citation located in Appendix 4. Further on, it should be noted that since the interviews were in Norwegian, the interview guide was also in Norwegian, for ease of use.

3.3.4 The semi-structured interviews

The interviews with the participants were done individually and on different dates. The participants were given the option of meeting the researcher at their current school or at UiO, where three participants chose their respective schools and three the university. To avoid time constraints or conflicting schedules, the participants were informed that the interview would last anywhere between one and two hours, and that there was no obligation to stay longer than they wanted to. The interviews were audio-recorded, with permission from the participant, and transcribed using InqScribe.

The average length of the interviews was 75 minutes. When a participant mentioned nervousness or acted in a manner that conveyed hesitancy, the researcher would allocate more time for the initial sequence of establishing contact through informal chat to ensure that (1) the participant understood that s/he was free to withdraw her consent and (2) that she/he felt comfortable enough to seemingly speak freely with the researcher. During the interview, the researcher allowed the participants to diverge from the interview guide, to avoid interrupting recall. This resulted in a variation of how time was spent during the interviews. To exemplify; Pete spent 5 minutes on the warm up conversation, but had longer silences during the recall, while Mary spent 14 minutes on initial chatter, but responded immediately during recall.

Having made away with the formalities and the initial warm-up chat, the researcher introduced the video player and made sure the participant was able to use it. The participants were then given the option of looking at a transcript of the video clip to enable them to follow the dialogue more easily and to accommodate participants that might feel less comfortable watching themselves on video (Gass & Mackey, 2000), however only Skylar chose to do so. To enhance sound quality and give the participant some privacy, they were offered earplugs.

Gass and Mackey (2000) advise that the participant should watch the stimuli more than once, as most will be unfamiliar with viewing themselves in a video recording and recall might take time. All the participants were thus given the option of viewing the stimuli several times and were explicitly instructed to watch it a minimum of two times, which they all did. Several chose to watch one or more of the stimuli clips for a third and even a fourth time. The researcher kept quiet until the participant had removed the earplugs and spoken out loud. Several simply said “yes”, taken to indicate their readiness. The researcher then asked the participant to describe what they had seen in the clip, as per the interview guide. All participants responded, however they placed importance on different aspects of the video clip; Ewan noticed the content of the lesson, whereas Olivia mentioned her own accent. To direct the recall, the researcher offered the prompt “did you notice what language you were speaking?”. After their first time hearing the prompt, three participants had to re-watch the clip before answering, while the remaining three could answer immediately. For the following stimuli, all the participants anticipated the focus and steered the conversation towards speech practices, rendering the prompt unnecessary.

The remaining time of the interview followed the interview guide, allowing the participants to respond and the interviewer to follow up where necessary. The follow-up questions often attempted to expand or explore something the participant had said, using phrases like “when you say X, could you explain what you mean by that?”.

The end of the interview was marked by the researcher asking each participant if there was anything they would like to share or that they thought could be important for the interviewer to know about. After this, the researcher asked the students if they would like to know more about the project, before thanking them for their time and participation.

3.3.5 Transcription

As mentioned, the interviews were audio recorded, enabling transcription. This work was done at Teaching Learning Video Lab (TLVlab) at ILS, UiO, which is a safe site, suitable for working with sensitive material. The transcriptions were done using the software InqScribe. To get an overview and become familiar with the data (Cohen et al., 2011), the interviews were transcribed in full except for the initial chat to “warm up” the participants (not part of the analysis).

The transcriptions were done in Norwegian and with limited standardisation of language. Dialectic terms were kept, in an attempt to retain the student’s voices. That said, the transcriptions will never be completely objective and represents “artificially constructed language” (Kvale, 2001), changed from oral to written form. This is a reduction of the raw material, which may entail loss of information. To minimize loss, the transcriptions were thoroughly checked against the audio files (Kvale & Brinkman, 2015).

3.4 Analysing the data

A data analysis should enable a shift from describing the data to presenting discovered patterns and meanings (Twining et al., 2016). For this study, the analysis of the data started after the interviews had been conducted and the process will be accounted for in this section.

As noted by Kvale and Brinkmann (2015), the content and goal of a study determine how the material is analysed (p. 199). The material in this study is the interview data, which consists of audio recordings and transcriptions and the total amount of data collected through the interviews are shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Total amount of data collected for MA

Method	Data	Participants	Quantity
Interview	Audio recordings	Students ($n = 6$)	446 minutes (avg: 75 min; r: 54-86 min)
	Transcriptions	Students ($n = 6$)	67 373 words (avg: 11 228; r: 8887 – 14759)

The analysis was done using a software called NVIVO. A qualitative approach was taken, using both inductive and deductive coding. It was also decided that the interviews should be analysed for each research question in turn, as they necessitated different approaches. As the method of stimulated recall is less commonly used in prior MA thesis’ in English didactics at UiO, reviewing the success of the method was also part of the analysis.

To answer the first RQ, the responses for scenarios representing the proposed L1 functions from Brevik and Rindal’s forthcoming study on the LISE material was analysed. The analysis consisted of gathering the responses for the respective functions in separate categories, before comparing the responses and inductively developing codes that represented the students’ language preference for each proposed L1 function using in vivo coding (Given, 2008). The codes will be presented in the results chapter (see section 4.1).

For the second RQ, the data material consisted of the responses from the interview, including the stimulated recall sequences. Due to the lack of prior research on the topic within a Norwegian context, the initial analysis of the data consisted of inductively coding the students' responses, while writing memos where questions, ideas and possible inter-relations between responses were stored. This stage led to close to 200 codes, which were then reviewed and through comparison, organised in larger groups by theme (Given, 2008). Each group was then reviewed in turn, comparing codes and re-coding where necessary. Patterns that established relationships between the overarching themes were also noted down. At this stage, the audio recordings were also revisited to ensure that the transcriptions conveyed the responses accurately.

This resulted in a finalised set of categories, which were compared to existing theory and reviewed with a deductive lens. Applying theory to categories meant re-naming a few of them to better convey their meaning, however, due to the exploratory nature of this study it was more important to ensure that the codes and categories were adjusted to the students' responses. The data was then reviewed to check for missed information.

3.5 Ethical concerns

Heeding Maxwell's(2013) advice, awareness of research ethics and following ethical guidelines has been a main goal throughout this MA study. Furthermore, transparency has been an overall objective for the project, as it is listed as a main principle for research ethics (Cohen et al., 2011). To achieve the goal of transparency, it is necessary to discuss the ethical aspects of the project, before looking at its credibility.

Norwegian law dictates that any research studies concerned with personal information need to be reported and in some cases approved. Guided by this, the present study, as a part of the LISE-project, has been approved by the Norwegian Data Protection Official for Research (NSD). The methods and handling of data have followed the NSD guidelines, as well as the ethical guidelines for research set out by UiO. This entailed that the initial contact with all participants prior to the commencement of the study was done by LISE researchers.

In line with the Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee's requirements, any study on the LISE project is based on the participants' consent, which must be "freely given, informed and in an explicit form" (NESH, 2016). All participants gave written consents prior to the interview starting, using a form developed by the LISE project (see App. 4). None of the participants were under the age of 15 (the NSD 1 classification for being 'vulnerable') and parental consent was not necessary.

Necessary steps were taken to ensure that the participants had no risk by participating in this study, including limiting information to ensure participants anonymity (NESH, 2016). For the anonymity of the participants in this thesis, all names are pseudonyms. The decision to use the LISE descriptors for the schools also ensures privacy. While the researcher is aware of the student participants' current school, information about their education programme has been omitted to minimise risk of identification. The participants were not made aware of each other and while their former teachers were consulted during the sampling of participants, the final selection of students was not shared with the teachers.

The consent form used for the initial collection of the LISE video material allowed the LISE researchers to show the video material to teacher students and teachers in training, however it did not include allowance to show the video material to fellow classmates. Further, only some of the students present in the LISE video material had approved contact for future research, meaning that asking for a third-party approval for the present study would be both time-consuming and potentially overstepping an ethical boundary. The teachers participating in LISE had signed a different consent form and could, thus, be shown in clips. This meant that the present study could not use the videos in original form as stimuli.

To overcome this methodological and ethical problem, different approaches were discussed. The solution was to find sequences where only the participant and/or teacher was speaking and blur the image to only show the participant in question. Blurring entails editing the video using a software, in this case Adobe Premier Pro, to apply a filter that distorts the image to avoid recognition, while leaving the participants visible. During the interviews, an encrypted disk and laptop from the TLVlab was used to show the stimuli. This was deemed necessary, as most modern laptops will store information about a file if opened and the edited video material (stimuli) would still be considered sensitive. Similarly, the audio recorder was loaned to avoid recording the audio on a personal phone. An online audio recorder provided

by the University acted as a failsafe to avoid loss of data. The participant and the researcher tested the audio equipment together, with the researcher briefly introducing the equipment and playing back a short audio to ensure that the participant felt comfortable with how it worked.

To avoid potentially harmful or sensitive information that was not purposeful for the study, questions of a sensitive nature was not asked and any comments of the kind was instantaneously deleted (Creswell, 2014). Further, when in doubt regarding ethics, the study has chosen to err on the side of caution, as suggested by Dalen (2011) in studies involving young participants.

3.6 Research credibility

While there has been a discussion on the standards by which qualitative studies should be judged in terms of trustworthiness, it is still an important part of any research study (Johnson 2013;Creswell, 2014). Qualitative validity necessitates the utilization of certain strategies to increase the accuracy of the findings, whereas qualitative reliability is concerned with the consistency of the researcher's approach (Creswell, 2014) and this section will address the applied strategies to enhance the reliability and validity of this study.

3.6.1 Reliability

Put simply, reliability is “concerned with how consistently you are measuring whatever you are measuring” (Ary et al., 2010, p.239). Kvale and Brinkman (2015) describes interview reliability as the question of whether a different researcher could have produced the same answers from the interviews.

Scholars on qualitative interviews agree that leading questions is a main concern during any interview, while consistent and neutral questions reinforce the reliability (Dalen, 2011;Kvale & Brinkman,2015). Accordingly, the majority of the questions in the interview guide is open-ended and neutral, and they were asked in the same order for each interview. In addition, the research protocol detailing the method of stimulating recall was developed in a manner that allowed consistency for each interview. Choices to ask follow-up questions or allow the participant to share spontaneous thoughts were made on the spot and is thus not apparent from the guides. It is believed that these adjustments were made in a manner that retained

reliability, although these choices could arguably cause difficulty for exact duplication of the interviews. That said, the researcher is confident that the choices increased the authenticity and inter-human aspect of the interview and thus produced representative and extensive data.

With regard to both the interview and the following transcription, there are several human errors that can occur, such as mishearing, misinterpretation or cultural differences and language influencing the interpretation (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006). A high quality audio recorder was used to avoid issues with sound quality and the accuracy of the transcriptions were checked with a fellow masters' student on the LISE project, who was given access to anonymised versions of the audio files and transcriptions. Similarly, any longer quotes used in the thesis were double-checked and the originals in Norwegian appear in Appendix 4 (see section 3.3.3).

While the transcriptions are considered accurate, they do not convey the inter-human relations and body language that occurred during the interviews to the full extent. The reliability could thus potentially have been increased if the interviews had been filmed, which would also have been beneficial to understand the effectiveness of stimulated recall, as several of the participants had expressive body language during the stimulated recall sequences. That said, filming an interview would cause another layer of concerns, with regard to credibility, but also ethical ones.

3.6.2 Validity

Validity in qualitative research is often described as a study's trustworthiness or authenticity and refers to the attempt of assessing accuracy; whether the study has investigated what it claims to investigate and whether the findings are accurate (Johnson, 2013, Creswell, 2014). The section will follow Creswell's (2014) chosen term, validation, as this "emphasis a process" (p. 250) and will report the strategies and procedures employed to strengthen the validity of the present research study.

This is a qualitative study, which means that with regard to the external validity, or generalising validity, statistical or direct generalisation cannot be made. That said, there is a possibility of transferability or naturalistic generalisation, where later researchers can compare the results of this study to another population based on shared characteristics

(Johnson 2013, p.306). This demands rich descriptions, in other terms; giving enough detail so that readers or researchers can compare the participant sample, information and results to a different context to either compare or reproduce the study (Creswell, 2014). For this reason, the author has chosen to give extensive information about the methods and participants.

In regard to the internal validity, a main concern is potential researcher bias (Johnson, 2013). The term is understood to mean that a researcher obtains results that correlates with their opinion, although the bias could interfere at any stage during the research; through the sampling of participants, during the interviews, within the transcription and analysis or in the way the researcher presents their results (Johnson 2013; Creswell, 2014).

A similar concern is the possibility of researcher influence during the interviews and the accuracy of the portrayal of meanings attached by participants to what is being studied by the researcher (Dalen 2011; Johnson 2013). To deal with the former first; in the interview setting, there can be a discrepancy in power in the sense that the interviewer holds the power and dictates the conversation (Creswell, 2014). Maxwell (2013) refers to this as reactivity; the way the researcher influences the participants. It is therefore essential to acknowledge that while the researcher took several steps to limit the influence of the researcher on the participants' answers, the conversation is asymmetrical (Creswell, 2014; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015). For example, the researcher is older and while the participants were given the opportunity to conduct the interviews at their present school, three chose to meet the researcher at the University of Oslo; a location unknown and possibly intimidating.

Further, the method of stimulated recall requires the researcher to carefully consider any choices made in relation to verbalisation; how much time is allocated and how the researcher should respond to avoid influencing the participants (Gass and Mackey, 2000). Table 3.5 gives an overview of the employed strategies to strengthen the validity.

Table 3.5 Validity strategies employed in this MA project

Validity strategy	Application (when, how, why)
Reflexivity (Johnson, 2013; Creswell, 2014)	Continuous, active and critical self-reflection, where the aim is to locate, monitor and attempt to control biases. Done throughout the project, partly by using a detailed and critical research diary, to avoid researcher's bias

Critical friends (Johnson, 2013)	Used throughout the project, but especially important for transcriptions, analysis and results. Done to avoid researcher's bias and to ensure accuracy in translation, analysis and links to prior research.
Peer review (Johnson, 2013)	To minimise the risk that the author's assumptions have influenced the findings and presentation of this study. Again, done to limit bias and ensure accuracy of reporting.
Member checking (Johnson, 2013)	During interviews the interviewer attempted to ensure that the participant's responses were understood correctly and clarify meaning. Done to increase clarity and avoid misinterpretation of responses.
Piloting interviews (Gass & Mackey 2000; Dalen, 2011)	Done prior to "real" interviews, trained the researcher in interview practise and highlighted aspects that needed revision. Limits human error
Not interrupting participants during verbalisation (Gass & Mackey 2000; Kvale & Brinkmann 2015)	Interruptions or cutting off verbalisation could be perceived as implicit feedback about what the researcher is looking for or make the participant feel that their response is uninteresting (Gass & Mackey 2000). The participants were therefore not interrupted during their responses. Done to limit researcher's influence and avoid loss of information

There are also aspects of the method of stimulated recall that needs to be addressed with regard to validity. These considerations are related to the recall support (stimuli) and the wider context for the procedure. This will be done using Gass and Mackey's (2000) classification scheme for stimulated recall as a guide. An adapted illustration of the scheme can be seen in Figure 3.3 where the classification of the stimuli and procedure used in this thesis is illustrated:

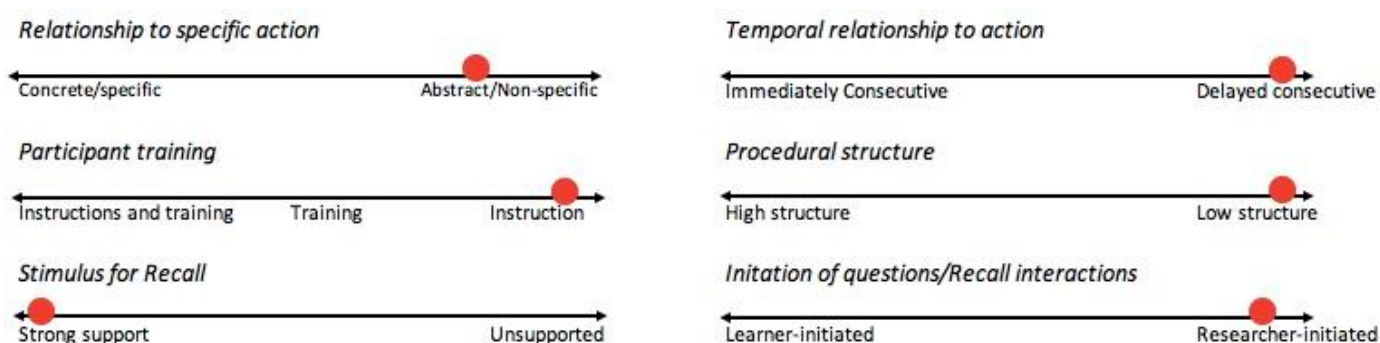


Fig. 3.3 Classification of stimuli and procedures for introspection used in the thesis (adapted from Gass & Mackey, 2000)

Gass and Mackey (2000) makes the following specific recommendations, based on their classification scheme, indicating that certain points are of more importance (pp. 54-55):

1. Temporal relationship to action (timing): Data should be collected as soon as possible after the event which is the focus of the recall. For this thesis, the recall was delayed and non-recent, as the participants are presented with stimuli and asked to recall events from more than a year ago. This is a potential limitation, in that the verbalised report made by the participant might be an interpretation of a memory, rather than an actual recall. The decision to use stronger stimuli, in the form of video and transcript, was made as an attempt to limit this interference.

2. Stimulus for recall (strength): The stimulus should be as strong as possible. It is noted that if the recall is delayed, a video along with a transcript would be suitable, which is what was done for this thesis.

3. Participant training: The participants should be minimally trained, which the thesis adhered to.

4. Structure: How much structure is involved will be dependent on the research question. Less leading or focusing will generally ensure less susceptibility to researcher interference. The thesis used interviews, a low structure instrument, but following the research topic, had some focusing with regard to the recall.

4 Results

The goal of this study is to increase knowledge about the participating students' opinion on the L1 functions described in the forthcoming article by Brevik and Rindal, as well as exploring what they perceive as influencing their language use in the English classrooms in lower secondary school. The interviews uncovered a lot of information, however what the different student participants valued and chose to speak about differed. Some chose to give spontaneous comments or additional information, whereas others did not. That said, the study's main purpose was to explore and this chapter will present the results and analysis of the main findings from the six student interviews.

There are two main findings that answer the two research questions; the students' opinion on the different L1 functions from Brevik and Rindal's study (forthcoming), where the main finding is that the students' language preference for the activities is rarely L1 Norwegian. This will be looked at in more detail in the first part of this chapter. The second finding is the students' perceived influences on their spoken language in class. The student participants saw the teacher as a main influence on their choice of language, however their reasoning differed. Further on, they also viewed class environment, relations to interlocutor, type of task, topic, motivation as influences. The second section of the chapter will present these results.

4.1 What are the students' reported language preferences with regard to the L1 functions?

This section provides the findings to the first *RQ*: *What are the students' reported language preferences with regard to the L1 functions as proposed by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming)?*

The section begins with a presentation of the codes developed for representing language preferences for the functions, before an overview of the analysed responses is given. The section will then look more closely at each function and its responses.

4.1.1 The developed codes for language preference

During the interviews, the six student participants were presented with predefined scenarios representing the different functions for L1 Norwegian use identified by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming). The students were then asked if it was more or less important that the teacher used English for the given scenario displaying a specific function (see Appendix 1 for

interview guide). Their responses was analysed, which resulted in the following codes; “Norwegian preference”, “English – strong preference”, “English – mild preference”, “prefers both”, “no strong preference or context dependent”. This section will run through the codes.

“Norwegian preference”

During the interviews it became apparent that the participants understood the question to mean that if the teacher was not to speak English, or that it was less important to speak English, the teacher would be speaking Norwegian, as exemplified by this quote by George, having been asked about the scaffolding scenario:

That is somewhere in between, I feel, it is like, it is not that important really, it could, English could work, but often a lot of people don't follow everything and then maybe, because then it isn't so and then they like, have to ask what [hæ]what are vi doing now, like, and then they have to explain again in Norwegian. So I feel like, that scenario works in English, but I feel like it could work well in Norwegian as well, because then at least everyone would know what we are doing (G1)

The above quote is understood to be George saying that in the given scenario, English could work, but he offers Norwegian as the choice, when the question posed asked if it was more or less important for the teacher to use English. This understanding of the question was present in all the interviews and was likely a product of having talked about Norwegian versus English previously in the interviews. This entails that the data collected enabled an analysis of two values for each scenario; the first being how important it was that the teacher used English in a given scenario and the second being what language they preferred the teacher to use, be it English, Norwegian or both.

“Norwegian preference” is therefore a code representing an answer where the student stated that (s)he preferred the teacher to use Norwegian in a given scenario.

“Prefers both”

The code “prefers both” is used when the student responded that both languages could be used or when switching between them would be preferential, as illustrated by Ewan’s response for the scaffolding scenario:

I: (...) I wonder if it is more or less important that he (the teacher) speaks English in that situation, where he is guiding your work during a task?

Ewan: It would have worked if he replied in Norwegian as well, but there is no... Both works very well, especially right there (E1)

The question of separating “both” from “switching between NOR and ENG” was asked, but it was deemed too difficult to ascertain whether the participants referred to switching between the two languages or simply that both languages could work. While the interviewer tried to ask for clarification during the interviews, this did not produce the necessary responses and the category “both” will thus stand. As part of the presentation of each function, it will be highlighted if a participant had an explicit opinion that switching was preferred.

“English – strong preference” and “English – mild preference”

Similarly, in an effort to report the participants’ meanings as accurately as possible, it felt important to avoid representing them as very assertive or certain when their answers were less certain or given used hedging. As a result, the analysis of responses for the predefined scenarios saw the need for two codes when the students’ reported that they preferred English for a certain scenario, namely a “strong preference” or a “mild preference”.

The “strong preference” code was given when a participant answered very assertively, as illustrated by the following answer from Olivia, having been asked about the practical information scenario:

Olivia: English.

I: English?

Olivia: Yes!! Really!! (O1)

The researcher understood Olivia to be very certain that she preferred English for the given scenario, as her answer was given immediately and with enthusiasm and the response was coded as a strong preference for English.

The “mild preference” code was given when the students were less assertive in their answer and/or hedged. This code can be illustrated by the answer Mary gave when asked about the *task instruction* scenario:

Mary: Eh. I don't think it is that important to use English in that scenario, but at the same time it is like, if you say nå skal vi gjøre denne oppgaven [now we are going to do the following task], it could unconsciously be misunderstood to mean you can do it in Norwegian.

I: Yes, as the teacher...?

Mary: Uses Norwegian and says [vi skal gjøre denne her oppgaven], even if the task text and task itself is like in English, you could speak Norwegian whilst doing it, while if

you say that we're gonna do this task toda it will be more like, then everything should be in English, right. Even when you are speaking about it. (M1)

“No strong preference or context dependent”

For some of the scenarios, one or more of the participant responded clearly that (s)he had no preference or that it would be so dependent on the context that they found it hard to give a clear answer. This meant that their response did not fit within the prior codes. While originally two separate codes, the two differing opinions were combined as they had the same effect – there is no set language preference for the specific scenario. When used for a function, a short explanation of the response will be given in the respective section for said function.

4.1.2 Overview of responses with regard to L1 functions

In their forthcoming article, Brevik and Rindal presents the functions used in this thesis as an analysis of the L1 use found in the LISE classrooms². This study is looking to increase the information about said functions, by exploring the language preference of six students that were present in two of the classrooms at the time. It is the researcher’s belief that the results will contribute to understand what students perceive as helpful in their language learning, which in turn can have didactic implications. This will be further dealt with in the next chapters, Discussion and Conclusion.

Overall, the combined numbers indicate that English (combining the codes “English: strong preference” and “English: mild preference”) is the most common answer for language preference (55% of the answers). The second most common answer was both languages (24%). The participants’ L1 Norwegian was only occasionally preferred (14%). The remaining responses were those that reported “no strong preference or context dependent” (7%). While this is interesting in the sense that it can indicate that the L1 is used in instances where the students’ prefer English, it does not relate enough information and it is important to separate the responses by proposed L1 functions to get a more complete picture. Figure 4.1 is used as an illustration:

² The function *class management* is not present in the data sampling (interview guide), nor does it appear in the results of the current thesis, as it was developed by Brevik and Rindal at a later stage than the thesis’ data sampling occurred.

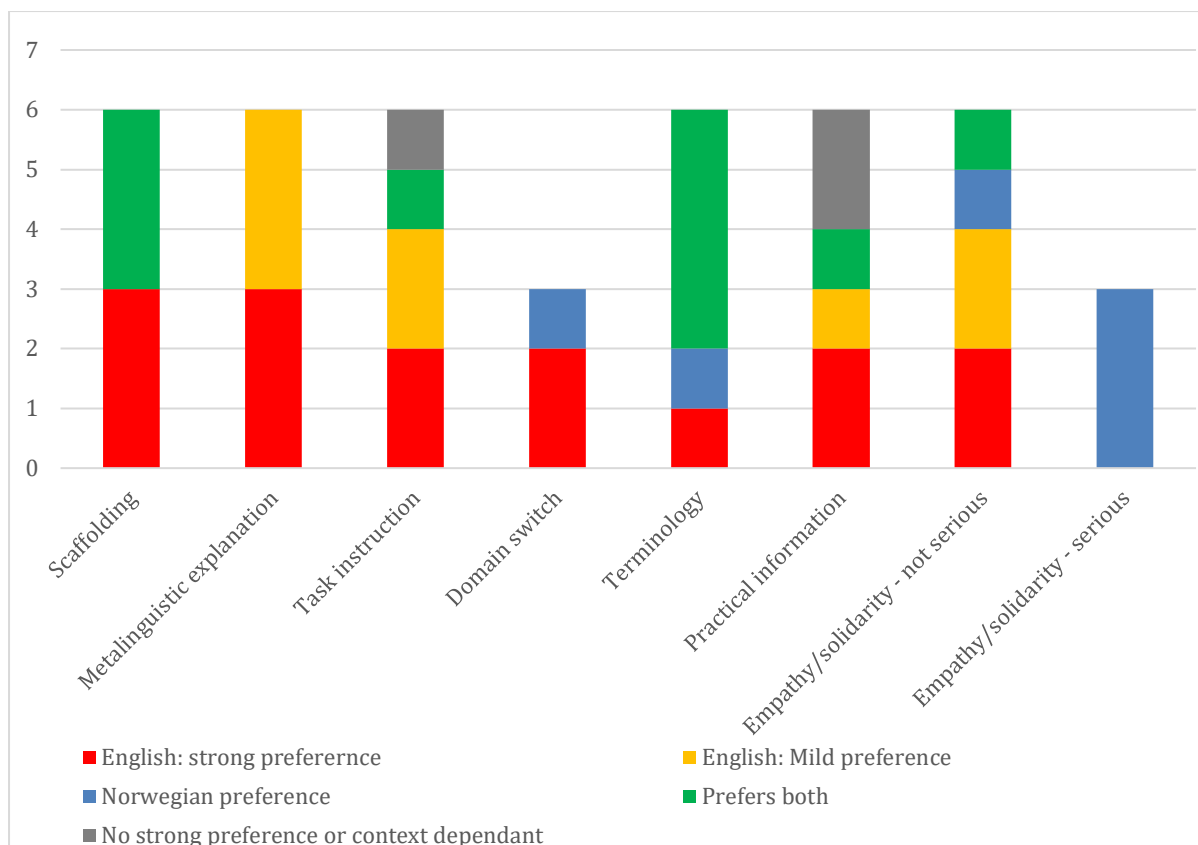


Figure 4.1: Overview of language preference by number of students/proposed L1 function

As can be seen by Fig. 4.1, only three students answered the scenario about domain switch, and the category is therefore not comparable to the same extent as the others. Further on, there are two determiners for empathy/solidarity, one called not serious, answered by all participants and another termed serious, answered by three participants. These determiners on the original category was imposed by the three student participants, who separately defined a need for this distinction. This will be further dealt with in the presentation of the results for the category empathy/solidarity (see section 4.1.9).

That said, the main takeaway from Fig. 4.1 is that there seems to be a discrepancy between what language is being used (L1 Norwegian) and which language the students would prefer for each scenario. Noticeably, L1 Norwegian is rarely the preference and only the sole preference for the *empathy/solidarity – serious* category (see section 4.1.9 for more details). Equally interesting is the findings for *metalinguistic explanations*, which as described in the literature review is commonly conducted in L1. The students collectively agree that they prefer English for this scenario and their reasoning will be highlighted in the respective section (see section 4.1.4).

Having said this, Fig. 4.1 only shows the combined data, when the results reveal two groups of students differ in their responses. Figure 4.2 below presents an overview where the student participants' responses for the functions are separated by their school:

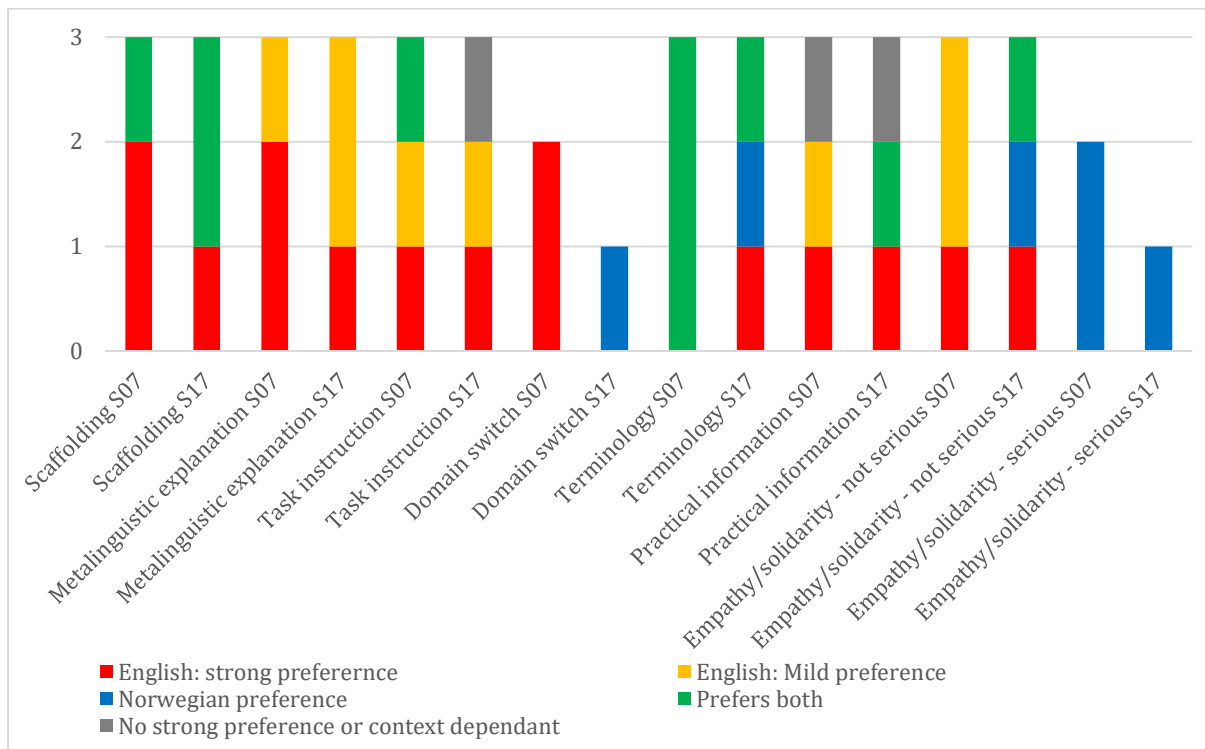


Figure 4.2 Overview of responses per proposed function separated by school

The three students from S07, where Norwegian was less commonly used, were as mentioned Ewan, Pete and Skylar. Looking at their responses cumulated, they reported a preference for English 60% of the time (having combined the two codes for English). Their second most common response was a preference for both languages (25%), while Norwegian (10%) and no strong preference or context dependent (5%) were less common answers.

The group, Mary, Olivia and George, from S17 where Norwegian was more commonly used, differed in their responses compared to the S07 students. While English was still the more common preference, answered 47% of the time, it was less dominating compared to the findings from S07. The S17 group also shared a preference with S07 for “both languages” as the second most common answer (26%). Furthermore, they had a slightly higher preference for Norwegian, at 16% and also saw a larger response of not having a strong preference or context dependent, at 11%.

While the sample is obviously too small to make any statistical generalisations, it is interesting that the students' preference seem to align with the general practices of their classrooms. While this thesis' goal is not to compare the two teachers of S07 and S17, nor evaluate language approaches taken, understanding what language learners prefer and find helpful can be beneficial for educators. The topic will also be revisited in the discussion, as it is interesting if the students' language behaviour shows a class norm. That said, the goal of the thesis is to explore the students' opinion and thus, to look more closely at each category, where the students response will be separated can be beneficial to better understand the above-mentioned tendencies as it might help shed light on their reasoning for their answers. The following subsections will therefore present the results from each category in turn.

4.1.3 Scaffolding

The function of scaffolding in L1 describes scenarios where the teacher ensures that the students have understood the content, offering support in various forms (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). The results from this thesis show that for both groups of students, the preferred language for this kind of situation is either English or using both Norwegian and English.

The coding of the students' individual responses are presented in Fig. 4.3 below:

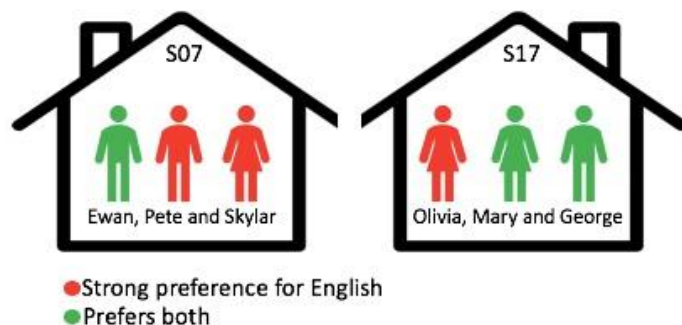


Figure 4.3 Scaffolding responses

As can be seen in Figure 4.3, the two groups had a similar pattern, where two of the students were in agreement, while one had a deviating answer. For S07, this is Ewan, who explained that while he was comfortable with English, it would probably work equally well with Norwegian, mentioning that if the teacher asks in English, he would respond in English. Pete preferred English, as he finds that it is important with “coherence”[sammenheng] in the sense that if he is learning about the American revolution, his knowledge will be in English and thus the teacher should provide scaffolding in English in order to ensure coherence. Skylar also agreed that English is the preferred language, which she explained by the following:

I think it is important. Because it sets the, vi talk English even more and that gets them...It strengthens the expectation I think? I write in English and it is good to talk about it in English and it is like, when you are going to work [after finishing school], getting feedback and talk in English will happen, and that is what you are practising, indirectly. To have that conversation, as it is a rare occurrence to have a teacher talking to a class in everyday life, but it is conversations. (S1)

This response could mean that Skylar is thinking of life after graduating and understands English to be a skill that she needs for future employment. In that sense, she understands a scaffolding scenario to be a place where she can practice conversational skills, as well as more formal ones such as giving and receiving feedback.

For S17, Olivia's response was the different one, as she explained that it was important for the teacher to use English, but that the teacher should be mindful of vocabulary and check that the students have understood by asking them. She added that a strategy could be to repeat the sentence, but with simpler vocabulary to make it more accessible. Interestingly, George shared a similar proposal; it is important that everyone understands. However, his argument was that both languages could work in the scenario because the teacher often has to repeat in Norwegian to ensure comprehension;

So I feel like, that scenario works in English, but I feel like it could work well in Norwegian as well, because then at least everyone would know what we are doing (G2)

However, for S17, Mary's response was perhaps the most detailed, as she reasoned that while both languages could work, the language choice should depend on the type of scaffolding, where she use the terms technical and content related to differentiate. She explained that content related information, such as learning about the American election, should be given in English, while the technical information should be given in Norwegian:

Mary: Ehm. So for the most technical, I felt that was more important to get that in Norwegian really

I: And by technical, you mean?

Mary: Like, for example how you write a good introduction, where it was, that was in English as well, but then you risk that a lot of people did not catch that specifically and that is a shame for the writing itself, yes. (M2)

Mary's response can be understood in the same terms as both Olivia and George, where comprehension was the deciding factor for what language the teacher should use in the

scenario. Similarly, relevance and coherence, as suggested by Skylar and Pete were also important factors for deciding which language to use in a scaffolding scenario.

4.1.4 Metalinguistic explanations

Metalinguistic explanations comprise scenarios where the teacher shifts to L1 to teach grammar or work with linguistic forms through explicit explanations, typically for longer stretches of time (Brevik and Rindal, forthcoming). The results from the interviews reveal that all the students, from both schools, are in agreement that they prefer English. They differ in their assertiveness and reasoning, but nevertheless their preference for English contrasts to L1 being the language typically used for this activity (see Theory chapter). This will be further discussed in the next chapter (see section 5.1.3). The responses from the students follow the same pattern as for scaffolding, where each school has two students in agreement and one with a differing opinion.



Figure 4.4 Metalinguistic explanations

As can be seen by Fig. 4.4, for S07, it was Pete who had a different opinion to his two former classmates, while for S17, Olivia was still persistent in her differing response. To an extent it could be possible to allocate part of an explanation for Olivia's answer to her general attitude in the interviews, where she was generally very much in favour of using English as much as possible and explained that for her, this was important in order to learn. This was also her reasoning for the metalinguistic category, where she repeated her predicament that while strongly preferring English, the teacher should be mindful of the vocabulary used and adapt the language to the present class.

Mary however, was less assertive and explained that it is only kind of important to use English. She highlighted the need for examples of "good English" [god engelsk] and was of

the opinion that in order to learn, volume training and actually using the grammatical features rather than simply memorising them is vital. George shared this notion and explained “to just learn grammar without learning or seeing it in use; that is not always the easiest thing” (G3). He mentioned that it could potentially work to compare to Norwegian, but was reluctant to say that both languages would work.

For S07, Pete explained that for younger students, using both languages or Norwegian would be beneficial, as they may not be able “to think in English” and thus could have “a rule in Norwegian, in your mind, and could use that”. However, for older students, he favoured using English and simply translating a term if necessary. He explained this in relation to needing to know information in English to be able to understand and answer test questions. While feeling more strongly that the teacher should use English to teach grammar, Ewan agreed with Pete that translating a single word can be beneficial. However, he explained:

I thought it was really good that he [the teacher] used words in English that we did not fully comprehend or that we were to learn, because then we could use, either by copying what he said or change it slightly, so that we could, we like got examples of how we could use the words, which makes it easier to use them later ourselves (E2)

Skylar felt strongly that English is important in this scenario, because using Norwegian could ruin the concept of an English speaking norm that she repeatedly referred to. Further on, she explained that as long as the students are able to comprehend most of what the teacher says, doing metalinguistic explanations in English would mean that:

You learn it using English, you learn how to learn something in English, you learn how to explain something in English, how I can adapt to new terms and new concepts in English that does necessarily not follow that recipe you have in your book (S2)

She was however mindful that not all students will be at the same level of proficiency in English and suggested to split the class or adapt the language to a single student one on one if necessary, as grammar is important, but keeping the English speaking norm alive is more so.

For all the participants, it was the use of the English language that seems to be central and that teaching grammar as something separate from the actual use of the language makes it more inaccessible.

4.1.5 Task instruction

Task instruction describes scenarios where the teacher use L1 for instructions on activities or procedures (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). The results from the interviews are shown in Fig.4.5.

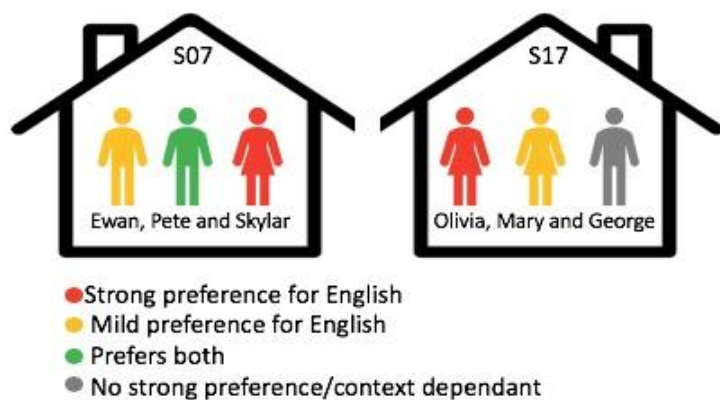


Figure 4.5 Task instruction

The results showed that the students differed in their opinions for this scenario. For S07, Ewan simply felt that it was just ordinary to do this in English, whereas Pete suggested to say it in English and then repeat in Norwegian if necessary. The deciding factor for this was comprehension. Skylar on the other hand, felt strongly in favour of using English for this type of activity, again connecting it to the skills she perceived as required for future employment:

Skylar: It is like, if you are working, you will often receive instructions and then you need to be able to receive instructions in English

I: Yes, so it is actually relevant?

Skylar: Yes, because when you receive instructions, it is a whole new skill, it relates to being able to translate words and abstract concepts into action and that is also something you need to practice. (S5)

As can be seen by her quote, Skylar understands *task instruction* to be a different way of using language than simply listening and that the skill of receiving instructions needs to be practiced.

For the group from S17, the answers were also shorter. George stated that it did not matter, he would not learn anything from the teacher using English in the scenario anyhow, whereas Olivia answered simply that the teacher should always try in English. Lastly, Mary explained that while English was not that important, using Norwegian could cause the students to believe that they could speak Norwegian during the task and in that regards, it was better to stick with English.

4.1.6 Domain switch

Domain switch is used for scenarios where the teacher use L1 to reference another academic domain, for instance information from another subject (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). This category is incomplete, as not all the participants answered, as illustrated in Fig. 4.6



Figure 4.6 Domain switch

As can be seen by Fig. 4.6, both students from S07 reported a strong preference for English, citing it as more natural and cohesive. Mary from S17 however, explained that it would be better to use Norwegian, as that would enable her to locate the information from another subject more easily in her mind. She explained this by not being used to think of social science information in English, and if the teacher use Norwegian, she can envision her social science teacher in detail, hearing their voice and thus remind her of the information required.

4.1.7 Terminology

Terminology describes instances of L1 use where the teacher provides subject-specific terminology or vocabulary clarification, often through L1 equivalents or through translation (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). The results from the interview shows that all the S07 students preferred both languages for this activity, while the group from S17 was split in their preference. Figure 4.7 shows the results:

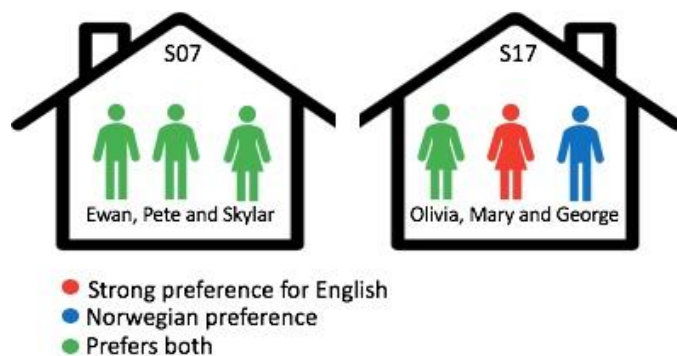


Fig.4.7 Terminology

Ewan, Pete and Skylar preferred the use of both languages and gave fairly similar explanations, where they individually explained that the teacher should give the Norwegian translation, before explaining the definition in English, as it was important to know the meaning in English as well. Skylar also reasoned that a Norwegian translation would rarely hold the exact same meaning as the English word and that learning a words meaning in English would help her ability to “think in English”.

From S17, Olivia shared the abovementioned explanation. George however, felt that explaining in Norwegian would ensure better comprehension and that using English would be “clumsy” [klønete]. Mary was the only student who felt that using English was important for this activity, and her reasoning was as follows:

Mary: Because then you could use the vocabulary you already have. To describe something. And it is common to have difficulties, for example in Norwegian, Norwegian [subject] teachers use large chunks of primary and secondary school to like “yes, but how would you explain this word. A thing, right, yes”. (...) Sometimes you will need to explain something in English and then that is, then I think it is healthy to have practiced explanations, or having been exposed to explanations and used a vocabulary (...). (M3)

4.1.8 Practical information

Practical information is a non-academic function where the teacher use L1 to communicate class activities, such as seating or information about trips etc (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). For this function, the students were split in their preferences, as illustrated by Fig. 4.8.

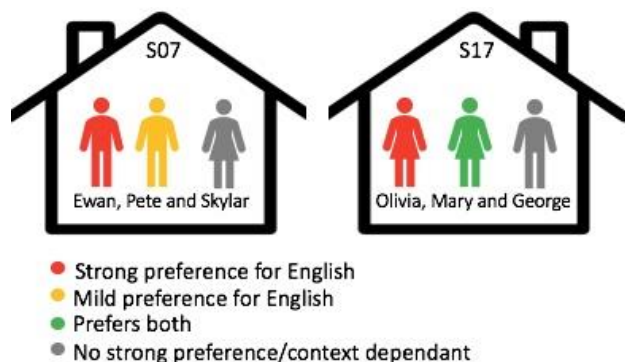


Fig. 4.8 Practical information

As can be seen by Fig. 4.8, Ewan and Pete from S07 felt that it would be appropriate to use English and reasoned that practical information could be examples of everyday use of English and hence be useful for the students. Ewan felt more strongly about this and added that it was important to not deviate from an English speaking norm, that Skylar also

referenced. She refused to set one language as more preferential, citing that it was completely context dependent and that if an English speaking norm was in place, using Norwegian would not be a problem as it was not strictly subject related. If an English speaking norm was not in place, she felt that using English would be more beneficial to strengthen the norm and lead by example.

George similarly refused to set a specific preference, with the reasoning that the teacher was likely going to have to repeat the message, as people was less likely to pay attention for these kinds of messages. Mary suggested to use both, “like they do on trains”, whereas Olivia asserted that it was important to use English, as the more English the better.

4.1.9 Empathy/solidarity

Empathy/solidarity describes situations where the teacher uses L1 to develop close closeness and build relationship, or to show understanding (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming).

As previously mentioned, while all students gave responses for this category, three students, Pete, Skylar and Mary posed a need to differentiate situations where the topic was a more serious matter, such as illness. Individually, they explained that it would be better to clearly separate such private matters as not being part of the lesson. Skylar described it as insensitive to use English for the more serious conversations, as it could be seen as the teacher making a teaching moment out of a serious matter. She explained further:

(...) It is not a part of the lesson and it is so distinctive that it does not matter that you use Norwegian, or else it could feel like you are using it [the serious topic] to teach something and that is a little distasteful (S3)

The students seemed to understand the use of English as equal to the utterance being part of the lesson. In line with this, Pete, Skylar and Mary reported that for instances of more serious talk, it would be better to use Norwegian. Pete mentioned that this would also help the student explain with more ease, as a sensitive topics such as illness could be difficult to explain precisely in English.

For talk of a more ordinary kind, the students used examples such as being late, talking about computer stuff or general conversations relating to their interests, the students were divided in their language preference. Figure 4.9 reports their responses:

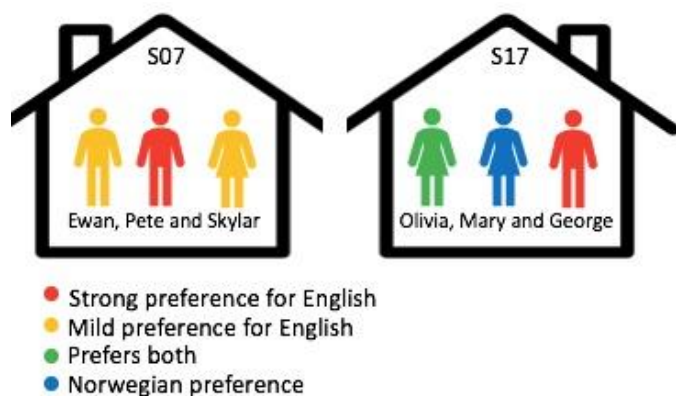


Fig. 4.9 Empathy – non serious

As can be seen by Fig. 4.9, the students from S07 preferred English. Ewan and Skylar were less assertive, while Pete explained that this was a good opportunity to practice “everyday language”, which he believed to be relevant for his life outside school.

This notion was shared by George from S07, who also mentioned that he liked that the teacher showed an interest for him as a person. He also suggested that people would be more likely to use English to talk about something they were interested in. Olivia preferred both languages and explained that it happened that she would use Norwegian for this kind of talk, because it was not strictly class related, but that for some interests, such as books she had read, it was easier to use English as the books were in English.

Mary was the only student who preferred Norwegian for both types of the empathy/solidarity situations. For talk of a more ordinary kind, she reasoned:

Mary: I think it could be done in Norwegian. If not, you would feel that it is part of the lesson

I: Yes?

Mary: And then it is like, if you first hear someone speaking and the teacher comes over and says “did you play any match today?”, it is like is this an assessment situation? And then people will turn around and it becomes more tense, rather than being interpersonal (M4)

She further explained that this related to the dual role of the teacher, as both a teacher and a person, describing it as confusing if the separation of these roles were blurred. In situations such as assessment it was important to Mary that the teacher stayed in the role of teacher, and Mary explained that if this was not the case, it would be harder for the teacher to build relationships with the students as students have expectations to how a teacher should behave.

Following this, Mary understood English as being the language of the teacher, while Norwegian was the language of the person. This is also relevant for the second RQ.

4.2 What do the students report influences their spoken language in the English classroom?

This section presents the findings to RQ2: *What do the students report influences their spoken language in the English classroom?* The data material that was used for the analysis was the responses from the interviews, both to questions posed and responses from the stimulated recall.

The most commonly cited influence on the students' choice of spoken language was reported to be the teacher. Other influences were reported to be motivation, both external and internal, the class environment and peer relationships, the topic, the student's perceived level of competence and speaking strategies, along with classroom norms. The students will be described in the order in which they were interviewed, starting with the group from S07.

4.2.1 Ewan

Ewan's main reported influences were the teacher, class norms, interest and motivation, as well as grades. He evaluated his level of competence in English as good, explaining that lower secondary had "finetuned" his abilities and seen a shift from mentally translating between Norwegian and English to thinking primarily in English during lessons. He reported to mainly use English during lessons, often planning ahead in his mind before speaking up. Ewan had a good relationship with the teacher in lower secondary school and that because the teacher used English extensively, so did he. He explained:

He was very encouraging to always attempt to speak English (...) and if we said a Norwegian word, he would translate it and that made it a lot easier to speak English all the time (E3)

Ewan noted that while he tried to only substitute words in Norwegian, sometimes he would switch and finish a sentence in Norwegian as that felt easier, which he reasoned was due to his level of competence. He used a strategy of simplifying his sentences or find different words before making the switch to Norwegian. Ewan said their teacher had clarified that

speaking English would only count positively towards grades, which Ewan cited as influential, as he felt motivated by achieving good grades.

An interesting topic would increase his motivation and therefore his participation. The language, he explained, was less important for the decision of speaking up, only accounting for “bonus points”. He shared that he sometimes refrained from speaking if he felt unsure about his answer or the topic in general. Ewan mentions that having a positive class environment likely contributed to students using English when answering.

Lastly, Ewan explained that while the teacher had established a norm for using English in whole class, the language for peer conversations depended on what role Ewan chose; for someone he did not know, he could use English to signal his abilities and interest for the subject, to show that he was paying attention and to seem clever. This was not necessary with peers that knew him well, he explained, as they already knew his level of English and he could thus use Norwegian.

4.2.2 Pete

Pete’s main reported influences were motivation, in the form of grades and perceived relevance, interest, the teacher and his language use, and class norms. He reportedly had a good relationship to his English teacher in lower secondary, explaining him to be “inclusive” and “engaging”. Pete evaluated himself to be proficient in English, finding the subject relevant and enjoyable, which he credits to his teacher, who Pete reported to have structured the lessons to include student participation. Pete remembered the teacher as rarely using Norwegian during class.

Pete described that he typically was active during lessons, partly due to finding the topics interesting and relevant, but also, like Ewan, finding that participating could influence his grades positively. Further on, he explained that using the English language was important for learning it, which he felt motivated to do because of its relevance for life outside school. He noted that participation also made classes more interesting, which increased his motivation. He reported to primarily have used English and again, similar to Ewan, explained that using a Norwegian word in place of an English was not an issue in their class. Pete also credits the teacher for using English almost exclusively, as this made him prefer English as well.

Pete shared that it was a little awkward to speak English with his peers and explained that using Norwegian was a habitual thing, as he was used to solving tasks or have small talk in Norwegian from other subjects at school. He explained that the tasks in English lessons at times were similar to those from other subjects and that it was simply a habit to use Norwegian to solve it, but he noted that they often switched to English once they got going.

In general, Pete explained, the class environment was accepting of mistakes and in whole class, there was a collective norm for using English. He mentioned that had the class environment or norms been different, this could have affected his language choice during lessons.

4.2.3 Skylar

Skylar's main reported influences were the teacher, her motivation and class norms. By the teacher, she explicitly valued his extensive use of English and his interest and engagement during class. Skylar considered herself proficient in English and reported to rarely use English during lessons. She was less motivated by grades than Ewan and Pete and cited other sources for motivation as more important. She felt strongly about English being useful for both future studies and employment, as well as finding it more suitable for written work. She explained that it was a relevant subject as "you can always get better and if you are not actively using it, you lose it" and felt that she learned most by actively using it during lessons.

Skylar reported being more active when the topic was relevant and interesting, explaining that if the teacher was interested, her own interest would increase, resulting in more English use. Skylar described that she, like Pete, enjoyed class participation as this made lessons more fun. She reported using both languages in her mind when planning her speech; she would find key points using Norwegian, before using English to think of appropriate terms and develop her argument.

Skylar explained that there were different speech norms within the classroom. For peer speech, she reported to typically use Norwegian, due to habit and that their relation was in Norwegian. She explained that if she felt an expectation from her peers to use English when

speaking to them, she would have done this. She was unsure how to create such an expectation. Likewise, she felt that her relation to her teacher held a separate speech norm and if the two spoke alone, she would use the same language as her teacher.

The last norm, for whole class situation, was something Skylar made repeated references to during her interview. She explained that such a norm was created from the first lesson, where it was clear that their teacher expected them to speak in Norwegian. She cited him asking students to repeat in English if Norwegian was used and she adhered strictly to the norm, as breaking it was to go against an unspoken consensus. In one of the stimuli clips, the teacher posed a question in Norwegian in a whole class setting, which Skylar answered in English. In conversation about this, she explained that she got confused when the teacher broke the norm:

Because in the classroom, the teacher sets the rules and is the leader and has the authority and then it is like, if I have learned, if my brain understands it to be a norm that we speak English and then the leader does not, I become, I guess I do not know how to react? (S4)

She further likened it to the way people get irritated if someone sneaks ahead in a queue and suggested that her response in English was a way to signal to the teacher that speaking Norwegian was not the accepted norm. She understood the teacher to be the main influence in the class, as whichever language practice a teacher have would likely be adopted by the class.

4.2.4 George

George's main reported influences on his choice of language during class were the teacher, motivation in the form of grades and perceiving English as relevant. He evaluates that he is competent in English and reported to only use English when necessary, by which he meant in situations where the teacher was listening. He described himself as fairly active during whole class situations, answering in English, as he believed this could increase his grade. He also mentioned that he would sometimes use English to answer a question posed in Norwegian could impress the teacher, explaining that he thought their teacher liked it when he used English. He mentioned that if the topic felt relevant or interesting, he was much more likely to willingly participate.

George also noted that for sensitive topics, he was less likely to speak up, as it felt awkward to talk about those topics in front of his classmates. George explained that the class of S17 had known each other for a long time, which meant that it was possible to predict how some students would react if someone said something out loud. While he reported to be unaffected by this and could easily speak English during lessons because he did not care about the others' opinions, he explained that for others, it mattered, meaning they would be reluctant to use English during lessons. George was also of the opinion that the level of competence in the class varied and thought the teacher sometimes used Norwegian to ensure comprehension. In line with this, George also explained that he would sometimes switch to Norwegian to ensure that his peers understood; in one of the stimuli clips, their teacher had given an instruction in English and George explained:

I: If you could describe what is happening during the clip?

George: (...) It was someone who had not been there and then [teacher] said [in NOR] "yes, then you know what to do", but he did not know, so I just said what you should do in Norwegian so he would better understand it maybe (G4)

George felt strongly that being asked to use a certain accent deterred him from speaking up more often, as that felt "fake" and "wrong", citing this as an issue for oral assessment, where he believed the teachers to expect you to speak in a certain manner. He shared that for him, achieving good grades was the main reason for speaking English during class and thus also considered the teacher's perceived expectations as an influence on his language choice, as the teacher sets the grades.

4.2.5 Olivia

Olivia's main reported influences on his choice of language during class was the teacher, perceived level of competence, perceived relevance, motivation and class environment. Olivia described being highly interested in English and that because of her dreams for the future, she was persistent in wanting to improve her competence. She explained that in hindsight, she had been overconfident in her English abilities during lower secondary, and therefore often felt like she "did not need to" participate and could relax during lessons.

For Olivia, the teacher's language practises was an important influence on her own language use, as she described the teacher as a speech model, from whom she could learn vocabulary. Furthermore, Olivia explained that she preferred the teacher to be consistent in their choice of language, as unexpected switches between Norwegian and English "is a little annoying, it is

really, even if you do not think about it, it [class] is where you learn”(O2). During the interview, Olivia repeated the concept that the more English, the better, as this increased her motivation, which in turn increased her confidence in using the English language. She was confident that English was relevant, but at times felt that the tasks given in lessons were less so.

Olivia also clarified that during secondary school, she would largely adapt her language to the interlocutor; she would follow the teacher’s language practices, but also adapt when speaking with peers. If she perceived her peer to be a proficient speaker, she described herself as more likely to use English herself to not be viewed as ‘less than’. Likewise, she reported using Norwegian if she perceived her peer as less competent in English, she would use Norwegian to not be viewed as supercilious.

This was also related to the general class environment, which Olivia described as good, but that conforming and not being different was important. This meant, she explained, that she had at times chosen to not speak up or used Norwegian to avoid speaking English during lessons, especially if she perceived the vocabulary as difficult, she would try to stay silent and not be seen nor “get caught” [bli tatt]. She clarified that when solving tasks in pairs, Norwegian would typically be used, switching to English when the teacher listened.

She further shared that while she had purposely taken on the role as “class clown” and that she at times, if she felt confident about knowing an answer, was likely to just spring a comment on the class without raising her hand, often making an attempt at using English.

4.2.6 Mary

Mary reported that the main influences on her choice of language was the teacher, the class environment and norms, perceived level of competence and familiarity with topic.

She explained that she had learned English later than usual and reported being nervous when speaking English in class. She said she participated often out of habit, however if the topic was familiar or interesting, and she felt confident about her answer, this would increase the likelihood that she spoke up.

She noted that “no matter how bad I have been, it has not stopped me from speaking up, just to say something”. She reported that she would plan her speech in English ahead, but often found herself being stuck when asked to speak, due to a mixture of nerves and excitement and then sometimes switched to Norwegian. Mary also noted that she sometimes would participate to be nice to the teacher, especially if no one else raised their hand.

Mary explained that to an extent, she found solace in presentations settings, where she could memorise a script. However, this made her feel like a “bluff” and she explained that while her classmates thought her English to be good:

I felt that every time I stood up there and like talked (...) and had a presentation and I did really well, I felt like I was just bluffing. Because, it was like, it was all memorized, all was just memorized, all was just mom and dad's words that I had got help with, right and their correction of how to pronounce things afterwards, so it was all just like an act. (M5)

Furthermore, Mary described that the norms within the classroom influenced her language choice; if the teacher spoke English, she was more likely to do so, but it was important that her peers also used English, as she reported being reluctant to be the sole speaker of English. In order for a norm to be functional, she noted that the teacher needed to be a clear classroom leader and that a good teacher was able to provide precise feedback on her language practices. This, she explained, increased her motivation, as she could then correct her language and get a sense of achievement for mastering something. Mary was less motivated by grades than the other students and mentioned that she at times felt like her grades were undeserved, which decreased her motivation.

She explained that while she enjoyed English, she liked it less as a school subject, due to assessment situations, especially those where peers were presented.

5 Discussion

Chapter four presented the findings for the two RQs that operationalised the twofold aim of this study, where the first part centred around the proposed functions and the latter part dealt with the students as individuals. The findings can be summarised as follows:

- 1) The students' responses for the different L1 functions indicate that there is a discrepancy between what Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) propose regarding how L1 is used in English classrooms and the responses from the students who participated in the present study. This is especially relevant for the function called *metalinguistic explanation*, where the students were in agreement of their preference for English. The students' responses for the function empathy/solidarity equally differed from the description from Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming).
- 2) Comparing the combined reported language preferences with regard to the functions, there is a difference between the student group from S07 to the group from S17, though the reason for this is not clear.
- 3) The students reported numerous influences on their spoken language during English lessons, and the teacher was mentioned most often. Other influences were reported to be motivation (both external and internal), the class environment and peer relationships, the topic, the student's perceived level of competence and speaking strategies, along with classroom norms.

The following sections will discuss these findings in light of relevant theory and previous research. The first section will compare the analysed responses with regard to the functions with the findings from Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming), before looking at the specific functions *metalinguistic explanation* and *empathy/solidarity* in more detail. The next section addresses the reported influences on spoken language, where the role of the teacher and class atmosphere will be the main discussion points.

5.1 What are the students' reported language preference with regard to L1 functions?

In their study, Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) found that for the 10th grade lessons from the LISE material, S07 saw English used around 80% of the time, followed by the use of both languages at 15% of the time, with the remaining 5% being use of Norwegian. In contrast, for S17, English was used less, around 60% of the time, with a markedly higher use of Norwegian at around 35%, and only using both languages 5% of the time. Having analysed the use of L1 Norwegian, the authors show that for S07, it was used for the functions of scaffolding, terminology, practical information and domain switch, while for S17, all the described functions occurred. It should be noted that the function terminology might be underrepresented, as their study only categorised utterances that lasted for three seconds or longer. As a result, a frequent practise of explaining an English term through translation equivalents in Norwegian may be omitted from their coding (forthcoming, p.12).

Combining this knowledge of language use with the results from the present study, there arguably seems to be a discrepancy between what language is used in the English classroom and what the students report as language preferences, as the findings from the present study show that students from both S07 and S17 preferred English to other languages with regard to the functions. Before looking at this discrepancy in more detail, it is interesting to add that while the divergence was present in both student groups, there was also a difference in the students' responses, which arguably could be linked to the general language practises of each classroom the students belonged to.

As described in the previous chapter, the cumulated answers from the participating students from S07 preferred English 60% of the time, followed by a fairly strong preference for the use of both languages (25% of the time). The S07 participants rarely preferred Norwegian (10%). This pattern is similar to the way language was used in their classroom (cf. Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming), where English use was fairly dominant and the use of both languages more common than the use of Norwegian. Similarly, the participating students from S17 showed a slightly lower (but still common) preference for English (47%), which was in line with a lower English use in their classroom. However, their response pattern diverged from the observed language use in that the S17 participants reported a stronger preference for both languages, something which was rarely observed in their filmed lessons. The S17 group did

report a stronger preference for Norwegian (16%) than the S07 group, though the difference was less pronounced than that of the observed language practises (S17 saw a fairly common use of Norwegian, Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming).

While the somewhat aligning patterns is interesting, the reader is asked to keep in mind that the present study is not an evaluation of the way language was used by the teachers in the observed English classrooms. This means that the interview did not question the participating students about their opinions of the observed language use, but instead focused on the activities represented by the function, in order to better understand what the students preferred as regards language use. The comparison should therefore be seen as part of a contextualisation of the findings. To add to the context, it seems relevant to look at the questionnaire findings from Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) (see section 2.4). While the questionnaire was anonymous, the general findings indicate that students in both S07 and S17 reported believing their teacher used Norwegian to help them.

Acknowledging that most students found the use of L1 helpful could possibly seem at odds with the findings of the present study, where English was by far a more commonly reported preference than L1 Norwegian. To address this concern, it seems likely that the results instead suggest that there is a difference between a student's reported language preference on the one hand, and his/her opinion of practise on the other. Essentially, it is possible to imagine a scenario where the student finds the teacher's language practise helpful, while still holding the belief that a different practise would be preferred. The present study reports on the latter, the preferred practise, which may have implications for future teaching practises (see section 6.1.1).

Looking at the reported preferences in detail, three functions will be discussed closely: *terminology*, *scaffolding*, *metalinguistic explanations* and *empathy/solidarity* (both non-serious and serious). The function of terminology will be addressed first, as this category relates to both *scaffolding* and *metalinguistic explanations*.

5.1.1 Terminology

As shown in the results, the students from S07 were in agreement that for terminology, both languages (L1 Norwegian and TL English) should be used. The explanations given by the

students from S07 describe a preference for a teacher giving a Norwegian translation, before giving the definition of the word in English – a practice justified by a need to understand the English meaning. From their answers, it was clear that they perceived that there would be a difference between a Norwegian and English meaning. This practise is similar to what Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) suggest, that is, the teacher would give a one-word translation in Norwegian. Further on, the participants from S07 also reported their teacher do this if they code-switched during spoken language, something they saw as beneficial.

The students from S17, however, were not in agreement on their language preferences; Olivia believed that both languages should be used, while George was of the opinion that Norwegian was best suited and Mary held a strong preference for English. It is Mary's response that is of most relevance to the current discussion, as she reasoned:

Mary: Because then you could use the vocabulary you already have. To describe something. And it is common to have difficulties, for example in Norwegian, Norwegian [subject] teachers use large chunks of primary and secondary school to like "yes, but how would you explain this word. A thing, right, yes". (...) Sometimes you will need to explain something in English and then that is, then I think it is healthy to have practiced explanations, or having been exposed to explanations and used a vocabulary (...) (M3)

Her explanation has two interesting points: 1) the practice of explaining a word can also be found in her L1 Norwegian and her reasoning could suggest she views it as a skill that can be practiced, and 2) in order to be able to explain something herself, she views it as necessary to have been exposed to explanations and having to use existing vocabulary.

To address the latter point first; Mary's explanation is in a sense confirmation that L2 input is important for students when learning a language, which is an agreed-upon fact by SLA researchers (Cook 2005; Grim 2010). Stretching the argument a little, it could thus be claimed that if L1 was used for a longer explanation of a term, as Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) found in their classroom analysis of the LISE material, it would deprive Mary of valuable L2 input (Grim, 2010). If this is the case, an approach using both languages (preferred by four of the other participants) may be more beneficial, as the L1 use would then be limited, but still offer some scaffolding aiding comprehension (Grim, 2010; Polio & Duff, 1994).

The first point made by Mary is equally relevant, as she essentially compares her L1 to her L2 and finds that a skill in the former is also present in the latter. Bialystok (2001) argues that children speaking an L2 have a sharper view of language compared to those who does not. Likewise, Cook (2005) suggests that there are cognitive changes in an L2 speaker's mind compared to a monolingual speaker, which is believed to benefit the bilingual speaker. This relates to what Cook (2005) describes as the internal goal of language learning, where the aim is to aid the mental development of the learner's mind. To an extent, the national English subject curriculum in Norway could be said to adhere to such goals, for instance through competence aims where the students should be able to “*identify significant linguistic similarities and differences between English and one's native language and use this knowledge in one's own language learning*” (Udir, 2013).

While Mary is not describing how or if she makes use of her knowledge from her L1, she shows an awareness of there being similarities in the language practices. Further, she has strategies for how she can achieve the skill in her L2 English, through practice. A central question would therefore be whether it would have been beneficial for Mary to have a comparison of the two languages, as such a practice has been argued to use students' prior knowledge to transfer proficiency across languages (Cummins, 2008). Furthermore, the practice of comparing languages could strengthen students' understanding of concepts and be beneficial for further development of metalinguistic strategies (García & Li Wei, 2014; Cummins, 2008). Supporting such an understanding is the notion that most of the students saw the use of both languages as beneficial for the terminology function. George is the exception, as he preferred L1 Norwegian. That said, his reasoning of English being “clumsy” [klønete] for the purpose of terminology could potentially be an expression of past experiences. It would have been interesting to ask whether he could have envisioned using English in a purposeful way for this activity, which was regrettably not done.

In short, it seems that word-level translation of key terminology can be viewed as a strategic use of L1 Norwegian (cf. Lee and Macaro, 2013) and as adhering to the reported language preference of at least four of the participating students, as they preferred the use of both languages.

5.1.2 Scaffolding

In their study, Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) suggest that scaffolding is a function which represents ‘helpful use of L1 Norwegian’. They suggest that the function aligns with findings from prior research and reference immediate and delayed translation (Grim, 2010), lack of comprehension (Polio & Duff, 1994), and focus on meaning (Crichton, 2009). The findings from the present study could be said to be somewhat in agreement with their suggestion.

Pete, Skylar and Olivia reported a strong preference for English, while Ewan, Mary and George claimed a preference for both languages. George explained that it was important to use both languages to ensure comprehension (cf. Polio & Duff, 1994). Mary’s response was more detailed, where she explained that she preferred English for more content-related scaffolding, while for technical information, where she used the example of how to write a good introduction, she felt that it was more beneficial to use L1 Norwegian. Her response seems to indicate that learning a technical skill, such as writing, was important enough to warrant the teacher ensuring comprehension through use of L1 and is thus, as for George, in line with Polio and Duff (1994). In brief, the language use preferences of the latter group thus agree with research that shows that using L1 for scaffolding purposes is helpful.

Since Pete, Skylar and Olivia reported a preference for English, it is possible to suggest that using the L2 could also be viewed as helpful in a scaffolding scenario, or at least as an indication of different students having different language needs. Olivia’s response was formulated around comprehension, suggesting that the teacher needed to be mindful of vocabulary and check that the students have understood by asking them. Her suggested strategy to increase comprehension was to repeat the utterance in simpler terms, still using English. This practice is not unlike what Mary described for terminology, a function closely linked to scaffolding (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming), where using one’s existing vocabulary was key. This may be in agreement with Polio and Duff’s (1994) beliefs about beneficial learning: “It is the very process of repetition and modification (e.g. simplification and paraphrasing) that we believe facilitate language acquisition” (p. 322).

That said, both Skylar and Pete had responses that were centered on other considerations. Skylar viewed scaffolding as an activity where she could indirectly practice skills she would need later in life, such as in a working environment. This means that scaffolding activities

were opportunities where Skylar could practice authentic language use. As a consequence, it seems reasonable to assume that using L1 for longer stretches would limit Skylar's learning. However, during the interview Skylar, like her former classmates, described how helpful it was that the teacher allowed them to substitute a Norwegian word that he would then translate after they had finished speaking, similar to what Grim (2010) calls delayed translation. Skylar's strong preference for English may thus be connected with her understanding of this type of code-switching being a regular and beneficial occurrence (Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Cook, 2001). If that is the case, it seems possible that Skylar was not directly opposed to using L1, but was reporting a preference of using L2 as much as possible, a view supported by research (Källkvist, Gyllstad, Sandlund, & Sundqvist, 2017; Lee & Macaro, 2013; Grim, 2010; Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming).

5.1.3 Metalinguistic explanations

While the reasoning above can be claimed to also be relevant to the function *metalinguistic explanation*, there is a divergence between practice and reported language preferences that needs to be addressed.

Research shows that for activities encompassed by the function *metalinguistic explanation*, such as teaching grammar, it is common to use L1 (Tsagari & Diakou, 2015; Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2005; Levine 2003; Malmberg, 2000; Polio & Duff 1994; Franklin, 1990) and some scholars argue it supports L2 learning (Cook 2001, 2005). However, Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) found that in most of the LISE classrooms, Norwegian was rarely used for *metalinguistic explanations*. In their discussion, they suggest that using L1 for longer stretches "might not be necessary to ensure students' comprehension" (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming, p. 18) and also suggest that it is possible that the use of L1 is understood by the students to mean that the content is more difficult.

Although the students all expressed a preference for English for *metalinguistic explanation*, corroborating Brevik and Rindal's argument, their reasoning varied. Pete's response is interesting, as his explanations can be seen as aligning with some research on L1 use.

Pete explained that for younger learners, teachers using both Norwegian and English for *metalinguistic explanations* could be beneficial (cf. Grim, 2010; Polio & Duff, 1994). Further,

Lee and Macaro (2013) also suggest that L1 use may be beneficial for younger learners, supporting Pete's belief. Pete said that younger learners may not be able to "think in English", but they could have "a rule in Norwegian, in your [their] mind, and could use that". Pete's proposal that a younger learner could use a grammatical rule they know from Norwegian and apply it when using English, is essentially supporting the proposition that proficiency might be transferable across languages (Cummins, 1981; Cook, 2005). He was clear in his statement that for older learners, such as those in lower secondary, it was more beneficial to use English and simply translating a term if necessary. This is in line with Young (1993), who suggests that L1 use changes as a learner becomes more knowledgeable and proficient.

The former part of Pete's reasoning, "think in English", is a matter of more complexity. While several of the other participants report a similar concept of "thinking in English", it represents a topic that is both central to SLA and highly debated (e.g. Macaro, 2005; Cook, 2001; 2005; García & Li Wei, 2014; MacSwan, 2017), as it connects to how languages work in our minds. Though it is beyond the scope of this thesis to address such matters, it may be worthwhile to note that several of the participants seemed to have a clear concept of 'being able to think in English'. On a similar note, Skylar's response could indicate that she viewed concepts learned in English as something separate from concepts learned in Norwegian and she described learning "how to learn something in English". This seems to indicate that she has an understanding that learning is not a uniform experience or skill across languages. While it would be interesting to gain a fuller understanding of what she meant, for the purpose of this study, her preference for English is the most important part of her explanation.

Ewan and Mary both shared responses that indicated that they viewed the teacher as a speech model; Mary emphasising the importance of examples of "good English" and Ewan stating plainly that he believed it was "really good" that their teacher used words they did not fully comprehend, as this enabled the students to copy their teacher's speech, making it easier for them to use it later on. In short, it seems that the students valued grammar being taught in a setting where they were both given explanations and examples of use in L2.

A note on comprehension levels and use of L1

The question of when to use L1 is central to SLA research (see chapter 2), but in short, unnecessary use of L2 could deprive learners of valuable L2 input and hinder, rather than aid, their learning (Grim, 2010; Hoff 2013; Polio & Duff, 1994). The results from the present study could arguably be seen as indicative of overuse of L1, though the reader is asked to keep in mind that the students were also mindful that the teacher should be able to simplify their L2 speech (Olivia, Skylar) and that the students were of the opinion that word-level code-switching was beneficial. Furthermore, as explained by Ewan, the teacher using words in L2 that were unfamiliar was not a hinderance to his learning. The final comment on comprehension relates to Mary and Olivia. Both perceived their proficiency level of English as low during lower secondary. Nevertheless, both girls reported a preference for English multiple times and shared a belief that L2 input was valuable to their learning. Akin to research (Duff & Polio, 1990), it is therefore possible that increased use of L2 would not distress students (p.158). Consequently, such an understanding suggests that perceived comprehension level might not be an accurate indicator of whether L1 use is beneficial.

5.1.4 Empathy/solidarity

The last function that diverged from the descriptions given by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming) was empathy/solidarity. The main reason was that three of the students (Mary, Pete and Skylar) imposed a clarification of the function, where they saw a need to distinguish more serious talk (for example, about topics such as illnesses) from less serious talk (such as small talk during lessons, see section 4.1.9). For the latter category, small talk of a more informal kind, all the student participants agreed that it was important that the teacher took an interesting in them as people rather than students, which is reflected in the description of the empathy/solidarity function (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). That said, their language preference was not always L1 Norwegian.

Research has shown that L1 is typically used for the function of empathy/solidarity (Crichton, 2009; Edstrom, 2006; Grim, 2010; Polio & Duff, 1994). Mary was the only student whose reported language preference was in line with this discourse, as she felt that the teacher should use Norwegian for both more serious conversations and small talk during lessons. She explained that if English was used, it would feel like it was part of the lesson and thus, she could be assessed in a situation where the goal was to build interpersonal

relationships. This is in line with research highlighting that students place importance on assessment and what is being evaluated (Blikstad-Balas & Brevik, 2014, p.3). Pete and Skylar were the two other students who saw a need to differentiate between serious and non-serious conversations. For serious conversations, both Pete and Skylar agreed with Mary that Norwegian was preferred. Pete noted that it would be easier for a student to explain a serious topic with ease if Norwegian was used, while Skylar described that using English could make a serious matter part of the lesson, which she described as “distasteful” [ekkel]. It is noteworthy that both Skylar and Mary describes the teacher using Norwegian as a way to assert that a situation is not an evaluation or assessment. Mary made it clear during her interviews that she preferred it to be clear when they were being assessed, which is in line with research (Blikstad-Balas & Brevik, 2014).

That said, for small talk or conversations relating to their interests, the students from S07 were in agreement that they preferred English to be used. Pete viewed this as an opportunity to practice “everyday language” [hverdagslig språk], similar to how Levine (2003) argues that students found it rewarding and worthwhile to be challenged to communicate in English.

To summarise, it seems that the students link the English language to a learning context and using Norwegian signals that something belongs to a more personal realm and should, as a consequence, be clearly separated from the lesson. This could also be argued to link to their perceived influences on choice of language, which will be dealt with in the following section.

5.2 What influences the students’ choice of spoken language?

The national English subject curriculum does not explicitly regulate the teacher’s or students’ language use in the English classroom, though the main purpose of teaching English is building communicative competence (Udir, 2013). Communicative competence entails being able to use the English language (Cook 2001), which in turn arguably requires the learners to produce comprehensible output (Swain, 1995; 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). That said, as noted by Peng (2016), “learning and speaking a second language may not necessarily be the same enterprises” (p. 84), and learners that achieve good grades in their written work, may choose to not speak up during lessons.

The second research question was an attempt at trying to shed further light on this matter by asking the participants what they considered as influencing their choice of language when speaking in the English classroom. As shown in chapter four, the students reported numerous influences, where the teacher was reported as a main influence, along with class environment, relations to interlocutor, type of task, topic and motivation. The analysis of these results showed that while the students reported different aspects of these influences as important, the overall trends could be connected with and located within literature on willingness to communicate (WTC) (see chapter two).

Looking at the findings from the present study in relation to the WTC model is helpful as it encourages a micro-level focus, where the process surrounding L2 communication is looked at from a student perspective (MacIntyre, 2007). This is similar to the argument made in favour of learner agency, a concept linked to WTC, where it is argued that while the dichotomies of second language learning versus foreign language learning is helpful at a macro level, they run the risk of missing out on information from the micro-level of the learner and the context (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Such an understanding is also important as it views the context as something that can be manipulated rather than a static part of a learner's experience (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). In the context of the present study, this entails that the reported influences on spoken language to a large extent can be seen as something teachers can modify, to effectively encourage students to use the L2 in the English classroom.

Arguably, WTC should be of interest to communicative language teaching (CLT), which puts an emphasis on learning through communicating (Ellis, 2008) and communicative competence is a primary goal of English teaching as set out by the national subject curriculum (Udir, 2013). It is known that WTC may fluctuate (Kang, 2005) and should be viewed as a dynamic rather than static concept and several variables are known to affect WTC (see chapter two). As this thesis includes a small sample of students, highlighting the parallels in the students' responses to the body of research connected to WTC allows the results to be understood in a larger context. The similarities further suggest that despite the size of this study, it seems likely that other students may share the participants' beliefs about what influences their choice of language when speaking up in the English classroom. In the following discussion, the students' reported variables will be discussed in relation to two of the main reported influences, that is, the teacher and class environment. The choice to

do so is because these variables can be seen in relation to, and at times encompassing, several other reported variables. It should also be noted that while WTC is mainly concerned with L2 output (Bernales, 2014; MacIntyre et al. 1998; Cao & Philip 2006), its origins are in literature on L1 communication (e.g. McCroskey & Baer, 1985). As the students reported influences on spoken language, rather than influences on their use of spoken L2 English, the present study makes use of a WTC discourse in an extended sense.

5.2.1 The teacher

During the interviews, the students explained that they were likely to mimic the language choice made by their teacher, making him or her their main influence. The S07 students explained that using English was made easier as their teaching allowed code-switching on a word level, a common speech trait amongst bilinguals (cf. Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Cook, 2001). Being accepting of code-switching thus allows authentic language use (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming), but the practice can also be seen as a way of scaffolding or supporting the students (Grim, 2010), in the WTC framework represented by the term *teacher immediacy* (Cao, 2011; Fallah, 2014). The term refers to verbal and nonverbal behaviour that shows encouragement, confirmation and is believed to increase motivation and confidence (Fallah, 2014). The students were in agreement that the practice lowered the bar for using L2, and Ewan explicitly related this to the teacher's encouraging behaviour (e.g. Kang, 2005; Zarrinabadi, 2014). Mary also noted that she perceived precise feedback as motivational (c.f. Dörnyei, 1994), as she could then correct her language, achieving a sense of mastering something. Kang (2005) explains that the manner in which the teacher provides error-correction is influential on students' WTC, though it is likely that the manner in which feedback is given is important (Dysthe, 2013).

Furthermore, the translation practice by the S07 teacher could essentially be argued to acknowledge the students as L2 speakers in their own right (Cook 2001, 2005). The findings suggest that feeling accepted for how they use language when speaking aloud is important for their general attitude towards speaking up in the English classroom. To illustrate, George reportedly felt frustrated and less likely to speak up if he was asked to use a certain accent. Likely linked to his L2 identity (Dörnyei, 2009), his change in attitude decreasing his desire to communicate is both understandable and similar to reports found in work by Yashima and colleagues (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). That said, he was also of the opinion that

while teachers may expect a certain accent, they were also the ones that graded you. Grades were a motivating factor for George, as well as for Ewan, Pete and Skylar, and they reported that being more motivated would increase their use of L2 (cf. MacIntyre et al., 2001). Though grades may be viewed as an extrinsic goal, Dörnyei (1994) notes that if extrinsic goals are *self-determined* and *internalised*, they can combine with or become intrinsic goals (p.276). Further on, though there is a correlation between intrinsic motivation and learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 1994), some students will still rely (some only partly) on extrinsic goals, such as grades (Sundqvist & Sylvén 2016, p.89). This was to an extent the case for George, who reported that he found grades the main motivation for speaking English during lessons.

The teacher-student relationship was also an important influence. During the interviews, the students from S07 repeatedly mentioned how much they had liked their teacher at S07 and they perceived that he genuinely enjoyed it when they used L2, which made them more likely to do so. A good relationship between the teacher and students is essential (Klette 2013; Drugli, 2012) and can possibly be strengthened through the use of L1 (Polio and Duff, 1994), although the present study has shown that language preference varies for individual students. Good interpersonal relations can also make class management easier (Grim, 2010), in turn strengthening the students' WTC (MacIntyre et al., 2011, Cameron, 2013; Peng, 2012; Cao, 2011; Riasati, 2012; Zarrinabadi, 2014; Wen and Clément 2003).

5.2.2 The class atmosphere

Class management clearly contributes to the learning environment of any classroom. In line with general pedagogical advice for class management (Dysthe, 2013) and the Quality Framework (Udir, 2013), a relaxed, respectful and inclusive class atmosphere or learning community, co-created by the teacher and students, is a highly influential variable for WTC (Eddy-U, 2015; Lee, 2009; Riasati, 2012; Kang, 2005). In order for a class environment to increase students' WTC, there are multiple variables that interrelate. All of this was reflected in the participating students' responses.

To illustrate, the S07 students agreed that there was a perceived speech norm for whole class situations causing them to choose English. From S17, where such a norm was not in place, Mary explained that she shared this view, as she was very much reluctant to be the sole speaker of English. This meant that if her peers all used Norwegian, so would Mary. This

behaviour relates to the way interlocutors affect language use within the classroom (MacIntyre et. al., 2001; Kang, 2005; Riasati 2012), where familiarity, class cohesiveness and the classmates behaviour are important (Peng 2012; de Saint Leger & Storch, 2009).

Mary's reluctance to stick out further mimics a finding from Peng (2012), where communication behaviour is linked to "constructing oneself as other-directed" (p.211). The concept of "other-directed" stems from Wen and Clément (2003), where it is used to describe Chinese students. However, as reported by Peng (2012), it can be used to understand L2 learners' need to conform and not behave too differently from other students, which is understood to be what Mary is referring to. The same behaviour was reported by Olivia, who, although putting on a "class clown" attitude, reported changing her accent to mimic her peers and chose silence in situations in which she felt insecure. Staying silent can often mean that the learner wants to avoid embarrassment or humiliation (Duff 2002, p.312; Løkensgard Hoel, 1993). As suggested by Kang (2005), a sense of security in the classroom is essential for WTC, where language students feel that mistakes are allowed. Such an atmosphere can be accomplished through good class management (Klette, 2013, p. 187). That said, it is likely that different students will have different reaction to the different activities; some prefer whole class conversations, while others prefer to talk in small groups (Cao and Philp, 2006).

The students' answers mirror this difference in how they report choosing to speak up in whole class situations. To exemplify, Ewan, Skylar and Mary all shared a concept of wanting to speak up, choosing to speak English, because they felt that they had something that could contribute to whole class learning. Mary, who claimed to be an anxious speaker of English, even suggested that the habit of wanting to share information was stronger than her fear of using English in front of the others. This can be understood as the students feeling responsible for delivering information (Kang, 2005) and that their familiarity or confidence related to the topic increased their WTC (Cao, 2011; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011). Similarly, George shared that he was more likely to use English if he perceived the topic as interesting or relevant. Consequently, teachers may increase L2 use during whole class discussions if they choose topics with great care.

The students reported that when speaking with peers, Norwegian was often used, which means that if increased use of L2 is the goal, peer talk might not be effective. Looking at the findings of the present study Skylar reported there were different speech norms for peer-talk

compared to whole class discussions. When speaking to peers, she explained, there was not the same expectation that English should be used and she thus chose Norwegian, as this was the language she used for communication with peers outside the English classroom. Again, this can be seen as complying with a supposed ‘accepted’ group behaviour (Peng, 2021). Pete shared that while he knew his classmates well, it had felt a bit awkward to speak English in class (cf. de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009). He said he was likely to choose Norwegian if asked to speak with his peers.

Interestingly, Ewan described that he would choose Norwegian if familiar with his peers, but English when the interlocutor was unfamiliar. He would use English in attempts to impress his interlocutor and to show himself as someone interested in school. Research has found that L2 students are concerned with the impressiveness of their speech (de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009; Kang, 2005), and George similarly claimed to use English for this purpose, although in situations where the teacher was the respondent. Rindal (2019) found that students sometimes would use a certain accent to impress their teacher. Interestingly, George seemed to share a similar behaviour, but without the aspect of accent. Like Ewan, it was the decision to use English rather than Norwegian that established the impressiveness.

In the case of George, the influential variable was the possibility of positive impact on his grades; whereas for Ewan, it was linked with his relationship to the interlocutor and may be understood both in terms of WTC, but also with regard to Ewan’s L2 identity. Research on L2 identity argues that learners have a possibility to “appropriate more desirable identities” (Norton & Toohey 2011, p.414; Dörnyei, 2009). It is possible to imagine that Ewan used the opportunity of communicating with someone unfamiliar to show himself in what he perceived as a good light; someone interested in school and with a good proficiency of English.

The abovementioned example illustrates that students language behaviour will differ, based on a plethora of variables, which can be understood in light of different theories connected to SLA. The main advantage of WTC is that the model combines information from various fields of research, to form an overview of influences. In addition, most of these influences are variables that a teacher can modify to increase students’ use of L2.

6 Conclusion

Within the larger body of research on L1 use, this thesis is admittedly a small addition with a sample too small to make any generalisations or statistically valid claims. That said, the twofold aim of the thesis was to increase knowledge about the participating students' language preferences for the different L1 functions described by Brevik and Rindal (forthcoming), as well as to explore what the students reported as influencing their language use in the English classrooms. As demonstrated, this aim has been reached.

The successful use of stimulated recall revealed that the students reported that they preferred English to any other language for the investigated functions. This finding is in contrast to how L1 is used in English classrooms today (Brevik & Rindal, forthcoming). Furthermore, this thesis has shown that the students have an awareness of what they consider to be influencing their language choice for speaking up during English lessons and that these findings are largely variables that can be modified by the teacher, which will be discussed in the following section.

6.1.1 Implications of the present study

From both a teaching and a research perspective, this thesis highlights the importance of including the students' voices in classroom discourse. With regard to research, the findings presented shows that assumptions made about how L1 is used and generally believed to be beneficial for learning, can be more nuanced. The existing knowledge can be expanded upon by asking the students for their perspective.

The main implication of this study is related to teaching. By increasing our knowledge about students' language preferences and perceived influences, the thesis points to the importance of teachers being mindful of students' language needs. The findings related to the first RQ is not a 'final truth', as different students will likely hold different language preferences. That said, the findings suggest that teachers cannot assume that L1 is the preferred language choice for certain classrooms activities, such as *metalinguistic explanations*. Likewise, the teacher should not assume that using English for showing *empathy/solidarity* is the better choice. Reflection on how L1 is used and involving the students in the language practices present in the classroom seems like a more productive endeavour for any English teacher.

Likewise, the findings for the second research question showed that the teacher should take responsibility of building a speech environment which draws upon the main principles of WTC. To exemplify, by ensuring group cohesiveness and selecting topics which interests or are familiar to the students, the teacher can modify the speech environment, which can result in increased use of L2 (Cao & Philip, 2006; MacIntyre et.al. 1998).

6.1.2 Future research

A limitation of the present study is that it had a fairly homogenous sample, especially with regard to language, as all participants shared Norwegian as their L1. Having said so, multilingualism was not highlighted in the study, but it is nevertheless a central topic for consideration for teachers, as many Norwegian classrooms encompass learners with various language backgrounds (Pran & Holst, 2015). There are also numerous researchers who highlight the inclusion of L1 use in the English/language classroom as a way of differentiating teaching for pupils with a minority L1 (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014; Engen, 2014; Cummins, 2008). The study is also limited by the fact that the participating students were all from the Oslo areas (geographical proximity). It would therefore be interesting to extend the study by including students with different backgrounds and from different areas of Norway.

Further research is also needed in order to understand what the students mean by “thinking in English”, as this is central to better understand concepts such as *translingualism* and *code-switching*. Likewise, it would be very interesting to do a stimulated recall study, where WTC was investigated across a few lessons and different variables were modified.

6.1.3 Concluding remarks

The process of writing this MA thesis had been educational, from a research perspective, as well as from a professional one. Through both the theoretical work and the practical (data collection etc.), it became clear to me that there is an enormous potential for learning by involving and asking the students about their opinion. Though the subject matter was languages, it seems likely that the students would have been able to offer valuable insight into other parts of their learning experience in school as well. This will without doubt influence the chosen teaching approaches in the fall and the commencement of a new school year, where my role as a student will be replaced with that of being a teacher.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – Interview guide

Appendix 2 – Research protocol

Appendix 3 – Sample of blank consent form

Appendix 4 – Quotes in Norwegian

Appendix 1: Interview guide

Intervjuguide elever

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. og understreke at dette på ingen måte er knyttet til karakterer eller vurdering
- 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 engelsk som tema

- Kan du fortelle litt kort om deg selv, har du valgt en spesiell linje på VGS, har det vært stor forskjell fra ungdomsskolen til videregående, generell trivsel på skole
 - o Hvilket språk regner du som ditt førstespråk eller morsmål?
- Hva synes du om engelsk? Hva synes du om engelskfaget?
- Hvordan vil du beskrive ditt eget nivå i skriftlig engelsk? I muntlig engelsk?
- Hvorfor tror du vi lærer engelsk på skolen? Synes du det er et relevant fag for deg?
- Hvordan pleide engelsktimene deres å være på ungdomsskolen? Hvordan er de nå?

Intervju: Recall og refleksjonsdel

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

- Nå skal du få se det filmklippet vi snakket om. Vi kan se på det flere ganger og du har lov å trykke på pause hvis du vil.

(Viser hvordan man trykker på pause, viser filmklipp 1 gang)

- Spørsmål for å åpne for hukommelse og ta vekk fokus fra det å se seg selv på film: Husker du at dere ble filmet i klassen?
- Nå skal vi se klippet en gang til.

(Viser klippet på nytt)

- Kan du fortelle meg hva du så i klippet her? I klippet så det ut som [(tilpass klipp, f.eks du valgte å si noe på norsk/engelsk)], det er spennende!
- La du merke til hvilket språk som du brukte?
- Hvordan bestemmer du deg for hvilket språk du skal bruke når du skal si noe?
- Hva synes du om å [snakke engelsk i timen / svare på spørsmål på engelsk (tilpass klipp)]?
- Hvordan bestemmer du deg for når du vil si noe?
 - o Er det noe som kan påvirke valget ditt? Hva da?
 - o Pleier du å tenke på hvilket språk du skal bruke for å si noe?
 - o Bruker du norsk/engelsk av en spesiell grunn?
 - o Er det noe forskjell på om du skal snakke med lærer eller den du sitter ved siden av? Når pleier du å bruke engelsk? Hva med norsk?
- Hvordan synes du at du lærer mest engelsk? Har språkvalget ditt noe påvirkning på dette?
- Har du latt være å si noe fordi du ikke ville snakke engelsk noen gang? Kunne det vært gjort annerledes på noen måte? Ville du sagt noe hvis du kunne snakket norsk?
- Så hvis jeg har forstått deg riktig er det X (tilpass) som påvirker språkvalget ditt.
 - o (Hvis deltakeren ikke har nevnt dette allerede):
 - Har klassemiljøet noe å si for hvilket språk du snakker? Hvis ja: På hvilken måte da? Hvis nei: hvorfor ikke det?
 - Har motivasjon noe å si for hvilket språk du snakker? Hvis ja: På hvilken måte da? Hvis nei: hvorfor ikke det?
- Tror du at det om du velger å snakke norsk eller engelsk har noe å si for læreren?

- Har det noe å si for ditt språkvalg om læreren snakker engelsk eller norsk?
Hvis læreren snakker bare til deg? Hva med til alle?

Intervju: Om lærerens språkbruk i klasserommet

- Hvorfor tror du læreren innimellom byttet mellom norsk og engelsk?
- Kan du huske om du noen gang tenkte på at læreren din (ikke) brukte norsk i engelsktimen?
- Hadde dere regler for hvilket språk dere skulle bruke i klasserommet?
 - Hvis ja: Hvorfor tror du dere hadde disse reglene? Hvordan fungerte de? Var du enig i reglene? Hvorfor det?
 - Hvis nei: Hva synes du om å ha regler om snakking i klasserommet? Ville du hatt regler – isåfall hvilke? Hvorfor det?
- Hvis du tenker sånn generelt på engelsktimer, er det noen situasjon du synes det er mer eller mindre viktig at læreren snakker engelsk? For eksempel når læreren...(beskriv eller vis klipp)
 - forklarer eller utdypet et faglig poeng, eller veileder deg i oppstarten av arbeid med en oppgave (*scaffolding*)
 - underviser i grammatikk eller andre språklige elementer (*metalinguistic explanations*)
 - gir instruksjoner til oppgaver dere skal gjøre (*task instruction*)
 - forklarer hva et ord betyr for å utvide vokabularet deres (*terminology*)
 - snakker om et annet fag han/hun også underviser i (*domain switch*)
 - gir praktisk informasjon i klasserommet, f.eks. om en skoletur eller rydding av rommet (*practical information*)
 - snakker med elevene om personlige ting, f.eks. at de har vært syke eller at de har vunnet en fotballkamp (*empathy/solidarity*)

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 og at jeg har et bilde av dem som jeg kan bruke til å sammenligne med videoklippet

- Takke for deltakelse
- Spørre om å få ta et bilde av deltakeren, sikre at kontaktinfo er riktig
 - o 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: Research protocol

Research protocol for stimulated recall interviews

Equipment checklist:

Audio-recorder w/charger	
Laptop w/charger	
Encrypted disk	
Earplugs	

Pre-interview procedure:

1. Set up laptop; check power, open clip and test sound
2. Set up audio recorder, check sound.

During interviews (follow interview guide):

1. Introduce audio recorder and perform sound check with participant present
2. Once introduced to stimulated recall, show participant the laptop and make sure they can navigate easily
3. Ask the participant to open the VLC software and check that they know how to play, pause and adjust volume.
4. Offer them earplugs for privacy and instruct to watch at least twice.
5. NB! Look away while the participant views clips. Await their response before commenting.
 - a. If they remain silent or express difficulty in recalling events, use prompts:
 - i. Kan du beskrive det klippet du nettopp så?
 - ii. Hvilke språk var med I klippet?
 - iii. Hvilket språk brukte du? Hva med læreren?
 - b. If they speak without prompt, do not interrupt

Post interviews:

1. Ensure that all equipment is turned off
2. Once at TLVlab, move audio file to safe storage on LISE.
3. Change clips on encrypted disk for next participant

Eventualities:

- If participant is visibly *not* comfortable with watching the stimuli make the following suggestions;
 - o Read transcripts rather than watch the videos
 - o I can leave the room and return once you have finished watching
 - o Skip the videos (contact supervisor post-interview if this happens)

Appendix 3: Sample of blank consent form



UNIVERSITETET I OSLO
DET UTDANNINGSVITENSKAPELIGE FAKULTET

Til elever og lærere

Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleutvikling

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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 intervju elever og lærere om denne undervisningen. I dette skrevet 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 klasserommet ditt 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?

Du får spørsmål om å delta fordi du også deltok i videostudien, og vi svært gjerne vil undersøke nærmere ulike aspekter som er relatert til undervisning som ble filmet. I forbindelse med videostudien oppga du kontaktinformasjon og samtykket til å bli kontaktet for en oppfølgingsstudie, og nå vil vi gjerne intervju deg for å høre om dine erfaringer og synspunkter.

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 skrevet. 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.



UNIVERSITETET I OSLO

DET UTDANNINGSVITENSKAPELIGE FAKULTET

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 prosjektkoordinator, Førsteamanuensis Lisbeth M Brevik (l.m.brevik@ils.uio.no, telefon 22 85 63 30/ 900 36 500)

Appendix 4: Quotes in Norwegian

S17

GEORGE

- G1/G2:

Der er det et sånt sted i mellom føler jeg da, det er sånn, det er ikke så farlig egentlig, det kan, det går an å snakke på engelsk, men ofte er det jo mange som ikke får med seg alt og da kanskje, for da er det ikke så, og så liksom må dem spørre hva hæ hva skal vi gjøre nå liksom, og så må dem forklare igjen på norsk da. Så jeg føler sånn, det scenarioet går på engelsk, men jeg føler at det kunne gått fint på norsk og, for da hadde hvertfall alle fått med seg hva vi skulle gjøre

I: Ja. Hva hvis det hadde vært noe de skulle si spesifikt bare til deg?

George: Nei, da hadde det gått fint på engelsk, da hadde vært samma egentlig

I: Så det går på forståelse, rett og slett?

P2: mmm

- G3

For det å bare lære grammatikk uten å lære eller se det i praksis, det ikke så lett alltid

- G4:

I: Hvis du ville beskrive hva som skjer i det klippet?

George: (...)var en som ikke hadde vært der da og så sa jo bare [teacher] ja, da veit dere hva dere skal gjøre, så, men han visste jo ikke det, så jeg bare sa hva du sku gjøre på norsk sånn atn sku skjønne det bedre da kanskje

OLIVIA

- O1:

Olivia: Engelsk

I: engelsk?

Olivia: Ja! Egentlig!

- O2

Selv om jeg ikke tenkte på det før, men når jeg ser det i ettertid, så er det jo sånn man lærer det, altså hvertfall sånn når jeg foretrekker det da, å ha engelsk rundt seg hele tida

MARY

- M1

Mary: Eh. Jeg synes det ikke er så altfor viktig med engelsk der, men samtidig så er det liksom, om man sier nå skal vi gjøre denne oppgaven, så kan det da underbevisst misforståes med at man kan gjøre den på norsk

I: Ja, for det at læreren...?

Mary: Bruker da norsk og sier at vi skal gjøre denne her oppgaven, selv om oppgaveteksten og oppgaven i seg selv er liksom på engelsk, så kan du snakke på norsk mens du gjør den, mens om du sier da at we're gonna do this task today, så går det mer på liksom, da skal alt være engelsk, ikke sant. Selv når man snakker om det

- M2

Mary: Ehm. Sånn med det mest tekniske, så følte jeg at det var mer viktig å ha det på norsk egentlig.

I: Og med det tekniske da tenker du på?

Mary: Sånn f.eks hvordan man skriver en bra innledning, hvor det var, det gikk på engelsk også, men da risikerte man at veldig mange ikke fikk med seg akkurat det og da var det litt synd, for skrivingen i seg selv ja

- M3

For da kan man bruke det vokabularet man har fra før av. For å beskrive noe. Og det er ofte at man, eh, har vanskeligheter f.eks på norsk, norsklærere bruker jo store deler av mellomtrinnet og ungdomstrinnet for å liksom, ja men hvordan vil du forklare dette ordet her? En ting, ikke sant, ja. Og man tar også går fra, det hender jo at man skal forklare noe på engelsk og da er det, da tror jeg at det kan være sunt at man kan ha trent seg på forklaringer, eller ha blitt utsatt for forklaringer og bruke et ordforråd. Selv om man liksom har fått beskjed om at bruk fagbegrep, så må man jo noen ganger forklare de fagbegrepene for andre

og om man bare sier at its that thing thats stuff like, ehm yes, ja. Så skjønner man ikke så veldig mye ut av det, selv om man vet selv hva det betyr. Så jeg tror det hadde vært bedre.

- M4:

Mary: Det synes jeg kan gå på norsk. Fordi hvis ikke så føler man at det er en del av undervisningen.

I: Ja?

Mary: Og da er det slik at om man først hører at noen tar og så snakker om læreren kommer bort og sier did you play any match today, så blir det sånn er dette en vurderingsituasjon? Og da snur folk seg også og da blir det litt mer sånn anstrengt, i stedetfor at det blir mellommenneskelig.

- M5

Jeg følte at hver gang jeg stod der oppe og liksom snakket eller om jeg eller hver gang jeg snakket og hadde presentasjon og jeg gjorde det knallbra, så følte jeg at jeg bare bløffet. Fordi at det var liksom, det var bare innøvd, alt var bare innøvd, alt var liksom mamma og pappa sine ord som jeg hadde fått hjelp med ikke sant og så deres retting av hvordan jeg uttalte ting etterpå, så alt var bare liksom skuespill

S07

EWAN

- E1

I: (...) jeg lurte på om det er mer eller mindre viktig at han snakker engelsk i den situasjonen, hvor han på en måte veilder deg med en oppgave?

Ewan: Det hadde nok fungert om han svarte på norsk også. Men det er ingen..Begge fungerte veldig fint, akkurat hvertfall der!

- E2

Jeg synes det var veldig fint at han brukte ord på engelsk som vi ikke helt forstod da, eller som vi skulle lære, for da kunne vi bruke, enten kopiere nøyaktig det han sa eller prøve å

gjøre det om litt, sånn at vi kunne, vi fikk liksom eksempler på hvordan vi kunne bruke ordene da, som gjør at det er enklere å bruke de selv senere

- E3

Han oppfordret veldig til at vi alltid skulle prøve å snakke engelsk hvis det var det vi skulle si og det var ikke verre enn at vi sa et ord på norsk og så oversatte han det (I: ja?) og det gjorde det veldig mye enklere å kunne snakke engelsk hele tiden.

SKYLAR

- S1

Jeg tror det er viktig. Fordi det setter sånn derre, vi snakker engelsk enda mer og det får dem..(*something happens off recorder, laughter*). Det setter forventningen sterkere tenker jeg? Jeg skriver jo på engelsk og det er fint å snakke om det på engelsk og det er sånn, det er jo når du skal jobbe, så er det med å få tilbakemelding og snakke tilbake på engelsk og det er jo det man øver på der, indirekte. Å ha den samtalen, det er jo veldig sjelden til vanlig at du har den der læreren snakker ut i klasserommet opplevelsen, men det er samtaler.

- S2

da lærer du det med engelsk, du lærer det med å lære deg noe på engelsk, du lærer hvordan forklarer man noe på engelsk, hvordan kan jeg tilpasse meg nye begreper og nye konsepter på engelsk som ikke følger den derre oppskriften du har i boka

- S3

det her er ikke en del av undervisningen og da er det så disktinkt at det har ingenting å si at du sier på norsk, eller så kan det føles som at du bruker det for å lære bort noe og det er litt sånn ekkelt

- S4

For i klasserommet så er det jo læreren som setter reglene og er ledern og har autoriteten, og da blir det liksom, hvis jeg har lært, at hjernen min oppfatter det som en norm at vi snakker engelsk og så gjør ikke den som leder det det, så blir jeg, så antar jeg at jeg ikke helt visste hvordan man skulle reagere på det?

- S5

Skylar: Ja, og så er det sånn at hvis du jobber så mottar du ofte instruksjoner og da trenger du å kunne motta instruksjoner på engelsk

I: Ja, så det er faktisk relevant?

Skylar: Ja, for når du får instruksjoner så er det en helt ny egenskap igjen, da går det på å oversette ord og abstrakt konsept til handling og det er også noe du må øve på.