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Language use in L2 English classrooms in Norway

A comparative study across eight years and five lower secondary schools in Norway

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Language use in L2 English classrooms in Norway

A comparative study across eight years and five lower secondary schools in Norway

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Abstract

Language use in the L2 English classroom has been the subject of ongoing debate and previous research has found considerable variation in L1 use in L2 English classrooms. The present study is a part of the LISE (Linking Instruction and Student Experiences) project and aims to investigate language use, and functions of language use, comparing it to previous research within the project in order to add the perspective of time. This study aims to further investigate the aforementioned variation in language use between classrooms by comparing the findings of the present study to previous research in order to identify possible patterns for variation. The overarching research question for this study is therefore: *What characterizes use of L1 in five L2 English lower secondary classrooms in Norway over time?* Note that the findings and discussions of the present study focus mostly on the language choices made by the teacher, although students' language are also part of the analysis.

In order to investigate my research question, I have analyzed video data from five lower secondary schools in Norway by: (i) time stamping according to languages used, and (ii) revisiting instances of L1 to investigate their functions. At each school, four to five consecutive lessons were filmed each school year. The five schools also participated in Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study, allowing for comparison between data collected in 2015-17 and 2019-21.

The findings revealed that language use during English lessons has stayed largely the same across five years (2015-20), suggesting that the variation in L1 use in L2 classrooms are to a certain extent patterned. Although the findings to a large extent confirms the findings of Brevik and Rindal (2020), the present study reveals details in the language practices of the English teachers. As in Brevik and Rindal (2020), English remains the dominant language used, and considerable variation between classrooms was identified. The comparison between classrooms revealed variation to be tied to individual teacher choices and not school cultures. In line with prior research, this study found limited evidence of references to languages other than L2 English and L1 Norwegian. The findings also showed that the distribution of functions for L1 use remained largely the same over time, however, there was less evidence of *metalinguistic explanation* and more *empathy/solidarity*, suggesting that choices regarding L1 use are made strategically to respond to different student groups. A closer look at one school in which the same teacher was filmed across eight years, teaching three different classes, revealed differences in language use between grades 9 and 10. Although the amount of L1 used was the

same in both grades, the teacher made use of more functions for the L1 in grade 9 than in grade 10, suggesting a strategic development of language use across time for the same student group. These findings indicate that variation in L1 use in L2 classrooms is due to teachers responding to student needs, as hypothesized by Brevik and Rindal (2020).

The patterned variation in L1 use revealed in this study highlight the importance of teacher awareness of their own language practices and of research related to judicial use of L1 in L2 classrooms. The findings show that the teachers in the present study largely accomplish such strategic use of the L1, but not so much with other languages that might be represented in students' linguistic repertoires.

Sammendrag

Språkpraksis i klasserommet i engelsktimer har vært tema for pågående debatt og tidligere forskning har funnet betydelig variasjon i bruken av L1 i L2 engelsk klasserom. Denne studien er en del av LISE (Linking Instruction and Student Experiences) prosjektet og målet med masteroppgaven er å undersøke språkbruk, og funksjoner av språkbruk, og sammenligne dette med tidligere forskning i prosjektet og legge til et tidsperspektiv. Denne studien sikter mot å undersøke den nevnte variasjonen mellom klasserom i ytterligere grad ved å sammenligne de relaterte funn med tidligere forskning for å identifisere mulige mønstre. Det overordnede forskningsspørsmålet er derfor: *Hva kjennetegner bruk av norsk i det engelske klasserommet på ungdomsskolenivå i Norge over tid?* Merk at funnene og diskusjonen i denne studien fokuserer i stor grad på språkvalgene som gjøres av læreren, selv om elevers språkbruk også er en del av analysen.

For å undersøke forskningsspørsmålet har jeg analysert videodata fra fem ungdomsskoler i Norge ved å: (i) tidsstemple for hvilke språk som ble brukt og (ii) gå tilbake til tilfellene av norskbruk for å identifisere deres funksjon. På hver enkelt skole ble fire til fem påfølgende skoletimer filmet hvert skoleår. Disse fem skolene deltok også i Brevik og Rindals (2020) studie, noe som gjorde det mulig å tillegge analysen til denne studien sammenligning over tid med data fra 2015-17 og 2019-21.

Funnene viste at læreres språkbruk har forblitt lik i stor grad i fem år (2015-2020), noe som indikerer at L1 bruk i L2 klasserommet er mønstret til en viss grad. Selv om funnene i betydelig grad bekrefter funnene i Brevik og Rindal (2020), har denne studien identifisert detaljer i språkpraksisene til engelsklærere. Som i Brevik og Rindal (2020) er engelsk fortsatt det dominante språket, selv om betydelig variasjon mellom skoler ble identifisert. Sammenligning av variasjon mellom klasserom viste at variasjonen er knyttet til individuelle lærervalg ikke skolekultur. I tråd med tidligere forskning, fant denne studien begrenset bevis for referanser til andre språk enn L2 engelsk og L1 norsk. Funnene viste også at distribusjonen av norskfunksjoner har forblitt den samme i stor grad, dog mindre bevis for *metalingvistisk forklaring* og mer *empati/solidaritet* som kan tyde på at språkvalg vedrørende bruk av L1 gjøres strategisk i respons til ulike elevgrupper. En nærmere undersøkelse av én skole hvor den samme læreren ble filmet fem skoleår avslørte differensiering i språkbruk mellom 9. og 10. trinn. Selv om mengden L1 bruk forble den samme på begge trinn, tok læreren i bruk flere funksjoner for

L1 på 9.trinn enn 10.trinn, noe som indikerer strategisk utvikling av språkbruk over tid for samme elevgruppe. Dette funnet indikerer at variasjon i L1 bruk i L2 klasserommet er tilknyttet læreres respons til elevbehov, som teorisert i Brevik og Rindal (2020).

Mønstret for variasjon i L1 bruk som ble funnet i denne studien understreker viktigheten av læreres bevissthet over egne språkpraksiser og forskning relatert til rettslig bruk av L1 i L2 klasserom. Funnene viser at lærerne i denne studien oppnår strategisk bruk av L1 i stor grad, men i liten grad med andre språk som kan være representert i elevenes språklige repertoar.

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1.0 Introduction

Previous research has shown that there is considerable variation concerning teachers' language use in the classroom (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). Consequently, there is an ongoing debate on language use in the L2 classroom, specifically in relation to the role of the L1 (Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Hall & Cook, 2012; Macaro, 2001). Additionally, Norway implemented a new national curriculum in 2020 which emphasizes multilingualism. Both the current and previous curricula provide teachers with autonomy regarding contents and methods in the classroom, which includes language use during English lessons. A perspective allowing language use to be examined over time could provide valuable insight into possible patterns for teachers' language practices. Therefore, this MA thesis investigates teachers' language use in five L2 English lower secondary schools in Norway, with a particular focus on the functions of the L1 and compares these findings to Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study of language use.

1.1 The LISE project

This MA study is written in the research project Linking Instruction and Student Experiences (LISE), as a co-researcher (Brevik, 2022; Eriksen & Brevik, 2022). LISE is a longitudinal research project using mostly video data (Brevik, 2019; Brevik & Rindal, 2020; UiO, 2022). The sample in the LISE project consists of seven schools, five of which were sampled from the LISA (Linking Instruction and Student Achievements) project (Klette et al., 2017). Data for the LISE project has been gathered in three rounds: Round 1 2015-2017, Round 2 2019-2021, and Round 3 2021-2023.

I first encountered the LISE project through the English didactics MA program at the University of Oslo. It was through said encounter I was introduced to the themes, participants and data material which serve as the foundation for my MA study.

1.2 English in the Norwegian context

A shift in the status of English in Norway over the past decades in addition to the implementation of the new national curriculum (LK20), means the English subject in Norway has undergone a transition which is perhaps ongoing. Both English use and proficiency have

increased among the adolescent population in Norway, and some even claim English as an important second language for their identity (Rindal, 2014; Rindal & Brevik, 2019). In other words, one could say English is uniquely positioned akin to an unofficial language in Norway (Rindal, 2016). Rindal and Piercy (2013) claim that English is caught between two paradigms in Norway (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). Namely, English no longer has a status as a foreign language (EFL) but is not quite a second language (ESL) or simply English as a Lingua Franca. The dynamic tendency English possesses in the Norwegian context begs the question: has teachers' language use in classrooms changed with time as the status of English has changed? Although the status of English has not changed tremendously since 2015, it is relevant to the present study in the sense that Norwegian students are proficient enough for English to be used as medium of instruction. This does not mean that it should be used exclusively, as research shows benefits of L1 use in L2 instruction. Additionally, research has also shown identity work in the L2, and one could therefore imagine that personal issues could be dealt with in English. However, the present study found and increase in such interactions in the L1.

The present study is a contribution to the academic discourse of the L1 in the L2 classroom debate. Many researchers agree that the L1 has a place in L2 instruction. The dispute regards how the L1 is used and in what capacity. According to Tishakov and Tsagari (2022) the monolingual approach to language use has been widely used by English teachers in Norway but is now on a slightly downward trajectory. Also, the use of additional languages to the L1 and L2 has also been emphasized to a greater degree in recent years and is integral in LK20 both overall and in the English subject specifically. Language use in the classroom, as this study will show, is closely linked to the teacher. The choices a teacher makes regarding their language practices is influenced by the sum of their related experiences (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022). Such experiences will vary between individuals, meaning variation in practices should also vary, which this study will illustrate.

1.3 Research statement

This MA study investigates teachers' language use in five lower secondary schools in Norway using video data from LISE collected in 2019-21, in order to compare with a similar study by Brevik and Rindal (2020) which used 2015-17 LISE data from the same schools. This comparison, separated in time, provides a new perspective on teachers' language use over time in order to say something about possible patterns thereof. Data from one of the sampled schools

was also collected by LISE in 2021-23 (S07). At this school the teacher was the same in all LISE data, and therefore 2021-23 data from this school is also included. This presents a unique opportunity to investigate *one* teacher's language use over time (2015-2023), providing additional depth to the inquiry. This teacher is also the only teacher filmed by LISE after the implementation of the current curriculum (LK20). Based on the above, the research question in this MA study is as follows:

> *What characterizes use of L1 in five L2 English lower secondary classrooms in Norway over time?*

The investigation of this was achieved through analysis of video observation data, specifically timestamping for languages used and then revisiting instances of L1 use to investigate the functions of L1 use. The findings of this analysis were compared with Brevik and Rindal's (2020) results and discussed in light of theory and other prior research on language use in the L2 classroom.

The methods employed in this study to investigate the research question above are (i) quantitative timestamping of video data identifying how much time was spent on different languages and (ii) qualitative coding of instances of L1 to investigate the functions of L1 use. The sample includes five lower secondary schools in Norway (grade 10). The most recent data (2021-23) from S07 also includes grade 9. The present study in itself has a limited scope and therefore perhaps preclude the findings from having a considerable impact on the field of English didactics on its own. However, its role as a part of the larger research context provided by LISE might mediate this, especially paired with the added perspective of time the present study provides.

1.4 Thesis outline

Following this introductory chapter, the theoretical framework will be presented, herein literature and prior research relevant to this MA study. Chapter 3 outlines the methods of this study, including a section on research credibility. In Chapter 4 the findings of this study are presented and subsequently, in Chapter 5, discussed in light of theory and prior research. The final chapter, Chapter 6, contains the conclusion as well as the didactic implications of the

present study and suggestions for future research. A full reference list appears in immediate succession to Chapter 6.

2.0 Theory and prior research

In this chapter I will present the theoretical framework for my MA study. This study focuses on language use and variation in language practices and approaches. Therefore, I will present my theoretical framework in following four sections: L1 in L2 classrooms (2.1), Input versus output (2.2), Language approaches (2.3), and LK20 the curriculum renewal. (2.4). Prior research which supports the theories presented will be referred to in their respective sections, and the final section (2.5), which is reserved for prior research of thematic relevance to the present study.

2.1 L1 in L2 classrooms (in Norway)

In this MA thesis, I will use the term *L1* to refer to the language of schooling, which is shared between teachers and most students, which is Norwegian in this case. The status of English in Norway has been shifting in recent years, and the term *L2* or *L2 English* is occasionally preferred to *EFL* (English as a foreign language) or *ESL* (English as a second language) (Rindal, 2020; Rindal & Brevik, 2019). The use of *L2* serves to emphasize English's standing as an additional language for Norwegian language learners, as it is learned and used in addition to one or more L1s (Rindal, 2020). English teachers in Norway have autonomy of language choice in their classrooms which in turn leads to variation of practices. Additionally, it has led to an ongoing debate which considers L1 use in L2 classrooms.

2.1.1 The L1 in the L2 classroom debate

There is an ongoing debate regarding the role of the L1 in the L2 classroom, which can be dated back to the late 19th century (Brevik & Rindal, 2020; Hall & Cook, 2012; Macaro, 2001). This debate encompasses everything from whether the L1 has a place in the L2 classroom, to how much L1 should be used and in what way. Disagreements in this debate can be drawn to two extremes: one believes the L1 is an imperative and practical tool for students' L2 learning, and the other believes the L1 is disturbing or harmful to students' L2 learning (Cook, 2001; Grim, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012).

From the late 19th century until quite recently, the monolingual approach has been widely endorsed and practiced in language education. This was, and for some still is, based on the

belief that the best way to learn a target language (L2) was to only use that language, as the language of schooling (L1) only confused matters and took focus away from the target language (Brevik et al., 2020; Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012; Krashen, 1985). Some claim L1 use deprives learners of the L2 (Chambers, 1991; Ellis, 1984). It is also believed that L2-only "makes the language real" (Macaro, 2001, p. 531) because it allows learners to experience unpredictability which in turn develops their "in-built language system" (Macaro, 2001, p. 531).

By the late 19th century, the focus had shifted from the grammar translation approach, which focused on abstract rules, to a more communicative form of language teaching. The goal was now to engage with native speakers in environments which only use the target language (Hall & Cook, 2012) which was believed to mimic the way students learned their L1s (Brevik et al., 2020). Furthermore, this goal was reinforced by both schools and publishers who distributed teaching products to be used worldwide by teachers who were native speakers (Rindal, in review). Language learners' need to communicate in multilingual contexts and skills such as codeswitching or even translation, were not prioritized. This monolingual ideal prevailed through most of the 20th century, but according to Cook (2001) students' own language was still being used in the L2 classroom, especially if a language was shared between students and the teacher.

Counterarguments to the monolingual approach are based on a variety of elements, such as cognitive theories relating to linguistic systems, but also linguistic diversity as it relates to social justice. Several researchers have found that if we understand bilingual speakers as having a single system for language knowledge, then comparison between the different languages in a given speaker's repertoire can lead to efficient language learning (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2008; Widdowson, 2003). Moreover, bilingual speakers have been found not to separate strictly between languages outside school, therefore making them separate them in school could possibly create an unnatural disconnect between the languages. During the 20th century, the bilingual approach emerged more prominently. It was based on the belief that the L1 is an asset rather than a liability in L2 classrooms, because L2 learning will occur so long as L2 input is present in the classroom (Macaro, 2001). The view of the L1 as an asset was linked to the relationship between an individual's L1 and their respective identity (see Sections 2.3.2 and 2.3.3), as well as the activation of their language repertoires and therein the entirety of their cognitive abilities (Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012). The L1 in the L2 classroom debate provides insight into different assumptions on appropriate language use, which could inspire

and affect the different language approaches and practices teachers choose, and is therefore relevant for this MA study of teachers' language use.

2.1.2 Codeswitching versus translanguaging

Codeswitching is included in this section because it is relevant to the L1 in the L2 classroom debate, in the sense that codeswitching facilitates the use of the L1 and the L2 simultaneously. Language use involving codeswitching is more natural both in terms of learning and producing language (Hall & Cook, 2012). Some argue that codeswitching between the L1 and the L2 creates a learning environment in which students feel more safe and therefore able to engage and contribute in a more critical way (Arthur, 1996).

Instances in which two languages appear in the same social interaction can be described as *codeswitching* (Li Wei & Wu, 2009). In more recent years, *translanguaging* has been used to describe instances where features from more than one language are drawn on be it spontaneously or intentionally (Cenoz, 2017; García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014). Translanguaging is therefore more focused on the speaker and their respective language repertoire, whereas codeswitching focuses on the languages themselves (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). There are analytical implications to the distinction between codeswitching and translanguaging. If one wanted to examine what languages are being used for a given purpose it relates to codeswitching, whereas if one wanted to examine how bilingual or multilingual speakers access and use their respective language repertoires it relates to translanguaging. In this MA study, I choose to use codeswitching as the MA study examines L1 use in the L2 English classroom, which in the Norwegian context means Norwegian use nearly always.

The use and extent of use of codeswitching might vary significantly across speech communities (Langmann, 2001). The change of language by a speaker which occurs with codeswitching can, according to McKay (2002), appear within a sentence, at a sentence boundary or between speakers in a given interaction. If one understands codeswitching to include language changes between speakers as McKay (2002) suggests, that might make it problematic from a teacher's perspective. Specifically in instances where a teacher purposefully responds to a student in English to remind them to speak English as well. The present study, however, considers codeswitching in its entirety as described above.

The translanguaging perspective is built on a foundation which to some extent disputed codeswitching. Some scholars claim that languages cannot be so distinctly separated (García & Othegy, 2014; Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Othegy, García & Reid, 2015; Pennycook, 2006) and argue that any bilingual person has a sort of individual language or idiolect which does not internally differentiate between the two languages (MacSwan, 2017). Within a translanguaging perspective, speakers might communicate with words and semiotics across languages, but through their own singular, individual, language system (García & Li Wei, 2014). Moreover, here codeswitching cannot occur because the translanguaging perspective eliminates plurality of codes in their singular language system. According to MacSwan (2017), the denial of codeswitching and multilingualism which is inherit in the translanguaging perspective is problematic for several reasons, but chiefly because it undermines the empirical evidence for rejecting negative perspectives on mixing languages. Several integral and frequently cited works which are positive towards bilingualism would have to be reevaluated if codeswitching was indeed deemed not to exist. By way of explanation, one cannot rely on codeswitching supporting a positive view of bilingualism whilst denying multilingualism and codeswitching exist. According to MacSwan (2017), choosing the latter weakens the empirical support for a positive view of bilingualism which in turn could weaken the status of bilingualism in linguistics. By extension, this could also hurt the views on bilingual learners and bilingual learning.

The translanguaging perspective is arguably better suited in another context than the one this MA resides within, largely due to the fact that as a pedagogical principle drawing on students' L1 can be beneficial for the development of language proficiency. On this basis, the present study will consider the translanguaging perspective in theory only (see Section 2.3), but not entertain the suggestion that codeswitching does not exist and therefore adhere to the definition of codeswitching from the beginning of this section. Codeswitching is arguably particularly relevant for the present study as the analysis is concerned with the registration of speakers switching between languages, how much time is spent on each language, and for what purposes speakers switch between the L2 and the L1. Such an analysis presupposes viewing languages as somewhat separate entities.

2.2 Input versus output

Quantities of input and output is often a heavily weighted argument for those who favor and argue for an English-only or monolingual approach (Barreng, 2021). The new English subject curriculum in Norway (see Section 2.4) values communicative competence. The question which persists related to this communicative competence in the curriculum and the L1 in the L2 classroom debate (2.1.1) is how to best teach English.

Input can be defined as "the samples of language to which a learner is exposed" (Ellis, 1997, p. 5). Input is often regarded as a main element in language learning and is in second language acquisition (SLA) theory linked to a learner's receptive skills. Examples of input are listening (to a teacher, radio, music etc.) and reading (novels, commercials, social media etc.). The majority of input students experience in the L2 classroom is related to teacher talk (Cook, 2001; Ellis, 1994; Levine, 2011), but researchers question whether this is sufficient input in the classroom (Ellis, 1997; Levine, 2011). Some argue in favor of adaptation of input to the students' specific needs rather than excessive use of teacher talk (Gass & Selinker, 1994). That is because although the definition of input above is broad and uncontroversial, some scholars have sought to further separate input into the kind that aids learning and the kind that does not. Gass & Selinker (1994) have done so and differentiate between *inpu*t and *intake* where input is not internalized but intake is. Their definition of input is similar to Ellis' (1997) above, however, they argue that not all input is internalized by the learner and some "goes in one ear and out the other" (Gass & Selinker, 1994, p. 200). In essence, Gass and Selinker (1994) argue that not all input leads to learning which is why it needs to be adapted to student needs. Input in the form of teacher talk is closely related to the language practices of the teacher, and thereby relevant to the present study. It is also these practices which facilitate for opportunities for output.

Output is believed to push learners to "process language more deeply" (Swain, 2000, p. 99) exerting higher effort than with input, and is in SLA linked to a learner's productive skills. Examples of output are speaking and writing. Ortega (2009) stresses the importance of output as it pushes learners to "engage by necessity not only in comprehending and negotiating messages but also in making meaning and producing messages" (p. 62) which is an integral part of language use and therein language learning. Swain (1985) emphasizes the importance of using the target language actively in a meaningful context as vital to language learning and also states that students do not reach near-native proficiency through input (teacher talk

specifically) alone. According to Swain and Lapkin (1995), language output or active use directly contributes to language acquisition. Therefore, in order to achieve coherent and appropriate proficiency in the target language, output is absolutely vital (Swain, 2005). Still, it is crucial to note that output does not equal product (Cook, 2001; Swain, 1985), but rather facilitates for learner reflection and self-monitoring gaps in one's own language competence whilst providing opportunities where increase in SLA can take place (Swain & Lapkin, 1995)

2.3 Language approaches

Language use in classrooms often relies on a given teacher's professional judgement (Brevik & Rindal, 2020) or their beliefs and language ideals (Borg, 2013; Kagan 1992). There are no official guidelines for language use in the English subject curriculum in Norway, which could be a contributing factor to variation in language practices in the L2 English classroom. Such practices have been shown to vary in the past (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). This is indicative of variation in teachers' beliefs about appropriate language use and language ideals, which play a role in influencing their language use in the classroom, in addition to students' language needs (Brevik et al., 2020; Cook, 2001). Please note that this MA does not investigate these beliefs and ideals as it only uses observation data. This MA does, however, use teacher beliefs and ideals to discuss the teacher practices that emerge from the video data as they relate to theory and previous research. Such research on teacher beliefs has historically considered the monolingual and bilingual approaches to language learning (Hall & Cook, 2012). Brevik et al. (2020) outline these two as well as third approach to language use in language teaching. First is the monolingual approach (2.3.1), which is based on immersion in the target language and maximizing target language use. Second is the bilingual approach (2.3.2), which encourages purposeful use of both the language of schooling and the target language. The monolingual and bilingual approaches have been the most common in English language teaching in Norway for some time (Dahl, 2015; Drew & Sørheim, 2009). Third is the multilingual approach, which is comparatively newer than the former two. The multilingual approach can also be understood from two distinct perspectives: a multilingual perspective (Cummins, 2001, 2008) and a translingual perspective (García & Li Wei, 2014).

2.3.1 A monolingual approach

A monolingual approach to language learning is based on immersion in the target language, and the idea that the best way to teach a language is without reference to languages other than the target language (Brevik et al., 2020; Rindal, in review). For the L2 English classroom that would mean maximizing student opportunities to hear and speak English. The monolingual approach is based on the belief that this immersion, or *English-only* as it is often called, is the best way to improve English proficiency (Brevik et al., 2020).

According to Brevik et al. (2020), English-only in English instruction is likely derived from *the direct method* (Cummins, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012), which was a reaction to *the grammar-translation method.* The grammar-translation method focused on abstract rules whereas the direct method sought to imitate the manner in which children learn their L1s (Brevik et al., 2020) and to avoid using translation and the language itself as the medium in teaching at all times (Yu, 2000). These ideas are also reflected in the *audiolingual method*. This method was introduced around the same time English became mandatory as a school subject in Norway and also simultaneous with communicative language teaching. The principles in these methods therefore had a big impact on how English was being taught in Norwegian schools from the beginning (Simensen, 2011).

The principles of a monolingual approach did not necessarily aim to forbid the students' L1 but rather ignore its existence (Cook, 2001), thereby still keeping teachers from relying too heavily on the L1 (Grim, 2010; Turnbull, 2001). In the Norwegian context, establishing a monolingual English classroom can be challenging as Norwegian is often a shared language, though it is not always a student's L1. Students are therefore able to communicate in Norwegian and do not strictly need to use English to communicate even in English lessons. A monolingual approach therefore requires the teacher to "strongly encourage or enforce communication in English if the students use Norwegian or other languages" (Brevik et al., 2020, p. 96). Despite these challenges, the monolingual approach has been a leading trend for language use in L2 classrooms in Norway, and it is still a practice which some teachers aim to execute (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022; Tveiten, 2019).

Chambers (1991) states that despite the broad acceptance of a monolingual approach among teachers, their individual practices still vary greatly, and theorizes:

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

Chambers (1991) is underlining the importance of the teacher in the establishment of a monolingual approach to language learning, which again is particularly challenging when the students (and teacher) share another language than the target language. The findings Chambers (1991) discusses are older, and somewhat dissimilar to the context of L2 English in Norway, however, some of the conclusions are echoed in more recent literature and more similar contexts (e.g., Tveiten, 2019). For instance, Ellis (2008) claims there is a consensus in applied linguistics that considerable input in the target language is vital in language learning. This sentiment can also be found in Dahl (2015), who emphasizes target language exposure. Turnbull (2001) says that although the L1 has a place in the L2 classroom, a heavy presence of L1 use could affect the quality of teaching negatively.

2.3.2 A bilingual approach

A bilingual approach to language learning is characterized by teachers and students using the target language as well as the language of schooling in target language instruction (Brevik et al., 2020). This might occur spontaneously or intentionally. As seen in Tveiten (2019) not all teachers of L2 are equally conscious of their language practices.

A bilingual approach emphasizes the view that positive transfer between knowledge and skills in different languages is indeed possible. Moreover, in this approach students' preexisting language skills in the language of schooling, usually the L1, become an active resource in language learning to a higher degree than in a monolingual approach. Cummins (2008) presents theory to support this strategic use of the L1 in the L2 classroom as "teaching for transfer" (p. 65). According to Cummins (2008), teaching for transfer means using bilingual strategies for bilingual language instruction thereby promoting cross-language transfer. Two overarching elements form the basis for Cummins' (2008) theory: (1) "the role of preexisting knowledge as a foundation for learning" (p. 67), and (2) "the interdependence of proficiency across languages" (p. 67). This preexisting knowledge in (1) does not simply refer to superficial

knowledge or skills a student might possess outside language learning, but rather also includes the entirety of the experiences they have which in some way have aided in shaping their respective identities as well as cognitive functioning (Cummins, 2008). Interdependence of proficiency across languages (2) ties directly into Cook's (2001) house-building analogy:

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

What both Cummins (2008) and Cook (2001) are suggesting is that there is some mutuality in development between L1 and L2. This is because the growing conceptual and linguistic proficiency of an L2 learner in the L2 also contributes to their L1 proficiency, thus benefits both L1 and L2 learning. This is based on the assumption that although languages may differ on the superficial level, the deeper more cognitive or academic aspects of language learning are more universal, for which there is support in a plethora of empirical research (see: Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2001; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders & Christian, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002; Verhoeven, 1991). The CULP model (Common Underlying Language Proficiency) is based on this same idea that languages which appear distinct on the surface will have shared attributes because the same linguistic building blocks make up the foundation (Carlsen, 2020).

Several studies have also shown that bilingual or multilingual speakers do not separate the languages they know in everyday communication outside the school context (Brevik, 2019; García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014; Li Wei & Wu, 2009). Therefore, an insistence on a monolingual classroom could create a disconnect between how students use and learn languages in and out of school, particularly for bilingual and multilingual speakers. The key, according to Cook (2001) and Macaro (2005) is not to prevent L1 use in the classroom as they argue it does not in turn prevent target language acquisition. Teachers should rather encourage target language use as much as possible, perhaps avoiding the harsh divide between school and life that a monolingual approach can create.

It is worth noting that the bilingual approach only considers the target language and language of schooling (Krulatz et al., 2016). Studies have shown that students' language learning benefits if they are able to draw on the entirety of their language repertoires (García & Li Wei, 2014).

In lieu of this, there is an argument to be made for allowing several languages into the English subject classroom and L2 English teaching, i.e. a multilingual approach.

2.3.3 A multilingual approach

A multilingual approach is in part an extension of a bilingual approach, but a multilingual approach expands from the target language and language of schooling to encompass all languages present in the classroom (Brevik et al., 2020). A multilingual approach is characterized by the teacher aiming to both affirm and build on each student's language repertoire, in order to make it a resource in target language instruction (Beiler, 2019; Cenoz, 2017; Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Cummins, 2008; García, 2009; Krulatz et al., 2018; Krulatz & Iversen, 2019; Šurkalović, 2014). It is important to note that this does not mean the teacher is expected to know all the languages their students could potentially bring into the classroom with them (Brevik et al., 2020). Furthermore, the multilingual approach is designed to activate language resources the teacher does and does not share with their students by using translanguaging pedagogically (Beiler, 2019; Cenoz, 2017; Krulatz et al., 2018). Still Šurkalović (2014) suggests that L2 teachers could benefit from gathering knowledge at least on a general level of those language backgrounds they perhaps encounter more frequently. Perhaps the most prevalent argument for the multilingual approach is the avoidance of the aforementioned separation between language use in and out of school which a monolingual, but also a bilingual, approach might create. Moreover, once students are allowed to draw on *all* the languages they know, they also access all their cognitive resources which in turn could help them feel more equipped to display their knowledge and language skills alike (Cummins, 2008; García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014).

In the Norwegian context, there is a plethora of languages that could be present in a given classroom and thereby accessible through a multilingual approach. Among these languages are Sami languages, National Minority Languages (Kven, Romani, or Romanes), Norwegian Sign Language, languages of more recent immigrants and languages taught in schools (Brevik et al., 2020). There is an argument to be made for the visibility of minorities and therein minority languages in education, which the multilingual approach considers by default. For students to feel safe and seen enough to learn, it is important not to outlaw parts of their identity which might be connected to language or culture (Canagarajah, 2013; Cenoz & Gorter, 2014). Especially as theory argues that the presence of more languages aids in L2 learning. Also, the

language resources a multilingual approach aims to mobilize is not limited to the students' knowledge of different languages, but also varieties of languages and modalities such as gestures (García & Li Wei, 2014). This further emphasizes the resources for learning which lie perhaps dormant in a given student with the mono- or bilingual approaches.

The origins of the theory which inspired the multilingual approach can be traced back to 1994 and Kachru's critique of both theory and research related to second language acquisition (Tveiten, 2019). Kachru (1994) claimed these to be unidimensional with the native speaker of the target language as the ideal, which in turn framed theory and research related to both second language acquisition and English language teaching. This alongside an increasingly globalized world and much more diverse societies birthed the idea of a translanguaging perspective on multilingualism which aims to challenge.

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

Despite the theoretical high praise given to the multilingual approach, research on English teaching in Norway has yet to find many examples of it in practice. Some exceptions do exist (see Beiler, 2019; Krulatz & Iversen, 2019), but it seems the monolingual and bilingual approaches still are the most popular amongst Norwegian English teachers. The development in Norway suggests movement away from nativeness as an ideal (Rindal, 2020). As previously mentioned, the translanguaging perspective as a pedagogical approach drawing on students' L1 can be beneficial for the development of language proficiency. My discussion is in line with this, although my analysis is not in line with using the translanguaging perspective as an analytical framework. This is due the present study's particular focus on the switching from one language to another.

2.4 The Renewal of the Knowledge Promotion (LK20)

In 2020, Norway implemented the new school curriculum, the Renewal of the Knowledge Promotion (LK20). LK20 is competency-based which means it focuses on competencies rather than traditional subject-specific content, thereby developing students' skills, knowledge, and attitudes across a range of subject areas (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training

[NDET], 2019). LK20 also aims to be inclusive, taking into account student backgrounds and the diverse needs that follow, thereby providing an education which is accessible to everyone. Overall LK20 is designed to equip the students with the skills, knowledge, and attitudes they require in order to be active and engaged citizens of their country but also the world in a global society which is rapidly changing. (NDET, 2019). Particularly important for the present study is the teacher autonomy embedded in LK20. In LK20, teachers are given autonomy regarding choice of contents and methods for teaching the competence aims outlined in it (NDET, 2019). LK20 recognizes teachers as uniquely qualified based on their profession and placement to make decisions about how to teach and assess their students in the manner most prudent. Teachers are to make these decisions about their practice, including language use, based upon their knowledge of the curriculum, their expertise in their respective fields and the needs of their students (NDET, 2019).

The current English subject curriculum in Norway was implemented in 2020 as a part of LK20. The English subject curriculum, just like LK20 overall, is competency-based. The focus is on development of students' skills and proficiency rather than content knowledge of the English language. In line with this, the English subject curriculum favors a communicative approach to language learning, meaning using the language appropriately for various purposes is preferred to learning grammar rules and vocabulary. The English subject curriculum and the core curriculum both say that students are supposed to experience knowing several languages as a resource and strength (NDET, 2019). Additionally, there is a competence aim in the English subject which says student are to compare English to other languages (NDET, 2019). These other languages are not specified and thereby not limited to comparison with Norwegian.

As in LK20 overall, differentiation is important also in the English subject. Teachers are to adapt their teaching to meet individuals' and groups' needs, accounting for their backgrounds, interests, and abilities. Differentiation in the English subject also extends to the language practices in the classroom. Namely, one way to differentiate is to draw on students' life worlds which extends to their linguistic experiences and repertoires. Overall, the English subject curriculum aims to prepare students to use English effectively across contexts and borders. (NDET, 2019).

2.5 Prior research

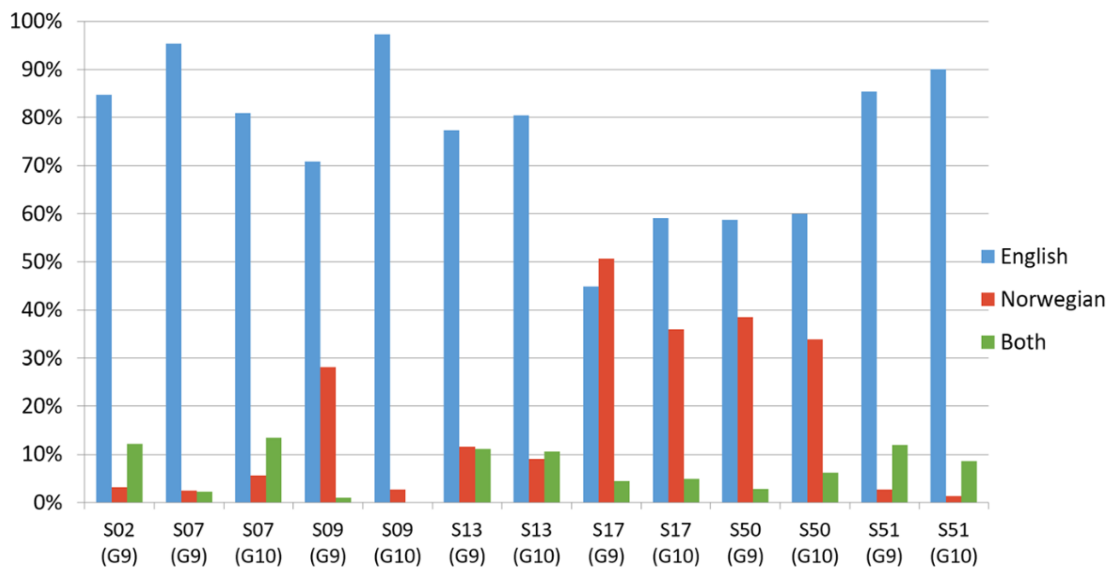
In this section, I will present the Brevik and Rindal (2020) study from the LISE project, which investigated language use in the L2 English classroom in Norway. The study described various functions of L1 use, which are outlined in the following section. The findings of the study are also presented briefly. This is relevant for the present study because the same framework of analysis used by Brevik and Rindal (2020) is used in my MA study, applied to more recent data. Brevik and Rindal (2020) used data from 2015-17, the present study has analyzed 2019-21 (see 3.1 for overview of LISE data).

2.5.1 Language use in 2015-17

Brevik and Rindal (2020) found that of a total of 60 hours of English lessons, from seven different lower secondary schools, English was used 77% of the time and Norwegian was used 16% of the time. The remaining 7% was spent on the use of both languages interchangeably. The presence of other languages than Norwegian and English was too lacking to warrant an entire percentage point. Brevik and Rindal (2020) also found that language use varied considerably between classrooms, and that this was more dependent on the teacher rather than the students. The languages the teachers used were mostly the target language (L2 English) or the language of schooling (L1 Norwegian) or the combined use of both. Other languages were hardly observed apart from the occasional word or phrase. This is depicted in Figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1

Percentage distribution of language use for all schools (S), divided by grade (G) in LISE Round 1. Reprinted with permission from Brevik and Rindal (2020, p. 936)



As depicted in Figure 2.2 above, the study found that there were considerable variations between classrooms, which suggests that the language approach in the classroom is teacher dependent. Based on language distribution, classrooms were labeled *high frequency English* or *high frequency Norwegian* (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). High frequency English classrooms used the target language extensively (77-97%), whereas high frequency Norwegian classrooms incorporated longer stretches of pedagogical Norwegian use (28-51%). The study also found that three of the four teachers who used the most Norwegian, had the most teaching experience, whilst the fourth had the least experience. This seems to suggest individual teacher's considerations of language use are based on student needs. According to Brevik and Rindal (2020) all the teachers in their study encouraged the students to speak English. This was a more common practice in high frequency Norwegian classrooms. The findings related to next to no Norwegian use in several classrooms support the claim that the monolingual approach is still being used by some teachers of L2.

The study also found that negotiations regarding language use were more common in high frequency Norwegian classrooms. Such negotiations were related to student requests for the teacher to speak Norwegian or inquiring whether they were supposed to speak English themselves. In high frequency English classrooms, students responded in English to a higher

degree. Although the study found that the teacher in high frequency English classrooms occasionally made references to other languages, students only used English and Norwegian. These findings indicate that the teacher's language used influenced that of the students (Brevik & Rindal, 2020).

2.5.2 The LISE functions & English survey items

The LISE research team identified eight language functions which relate to the use of L1 in L2 teaching (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). These functions represent for what purposes Norwegian is used during English lessons. The functions are divided into two main categories: academic and non-academic. Table 2.1 below shows how the functions are described by Brevik and Rindal (2020).

Table 2.1
L1 functions in L2 instruction as identified by LISE (Brevik & Rindal, 2020, p. 934)

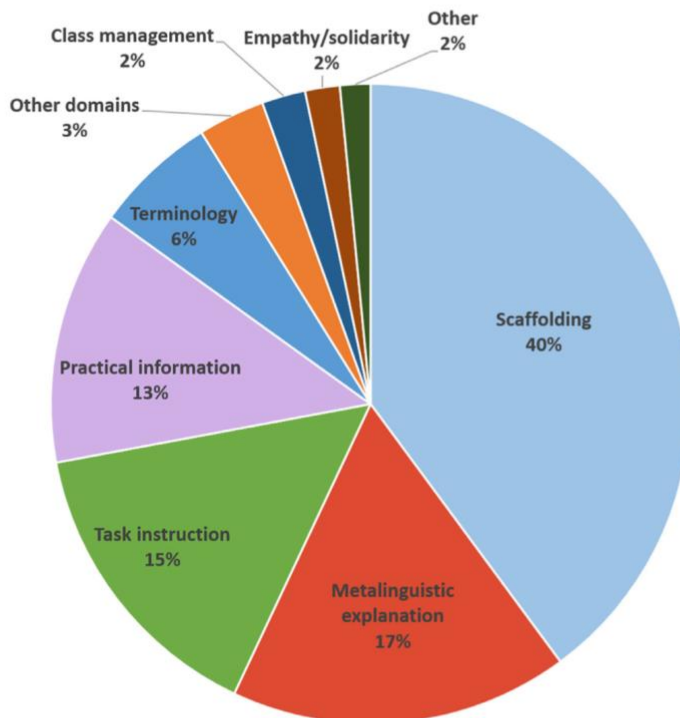
Academic functions	
Scaffolding	Teacher uses the language of schooling to offer guidance, explains/expands a teaching point, bridges communication gaps, reduces ambiguity, or offers translation for students' lack of comprehension in the target language. Includes student responses to teacher follow-up and teacher responses to student questions (e.g. Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994)
Metalinguistic explanation	Teacher uses the language of schooling to focus on linguistic forms through explicit explanations (e.g.. Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994)
Task instruction	Teacher uses the language of schooling to give task instructions for an activity or procedure (e.g. Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2001)

Terminology	Teacher uses the language of schooling to provide new subject-specific terminology or vocabulary clarification (e.g. Lee & Macaro, 2013; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994)
Other domains	Teacher uses the language of schooling to refer to another domain about a matter relevant to the target language topic.
Non-academic functions	
Practical information	Teacher uses the language of schooling to give information or instruction unrelated to the target language subject (e.g. Grim. 2010)
Class management	Teacher uses the language of schooling to manage students' behaviour in the classroom, lack of student concentration, talk, or misconduct (e.g. Macaro, 2001; Grim, 2010; Polio & Duff, 1994).
Empathy/solidarity	Teacher uses the language of schooling to develop closeness with students, to show understanding, or for relationship building related to their private lives (e.g. Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994)

These functions have been used in LISE to investigate how much time the participating English teachers spent on each function. In Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study they found that the participating schools in LISE Round 1 collectively distributed their Norwegian use, as shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.2

Distribution of functions for Norwegian use in English lessons for all schools combined in LISE Round 1. Reprinted with permission from Brevik and Rindal (2020, p. 940).



In a student survey, the students were asked to what degree the teacher used Norwegian to help them understand and to what degree they find their teacher easy to understand when speaking English. The survey results for these items in Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study can be seen in the figures below, where I have highlighted the S07 results in yellow. The reason I have highlighted S07 is because in addition to the data from 2019-21, I used 2021-23 data from S07 in my analysis. S07 is in outlier here as a high-frequency English classroom with a high score for the perceived helpfulness of Norwegian use. This makes further analysis of this teacher's language practices prudent.

Figure 2.3

Percentage distribution of answers to survey item 1 “The English teacher uses Norwegian to help us understand” divided by school (S). Reprinted with permission from Brevik and Rindal (2020, p. 943).

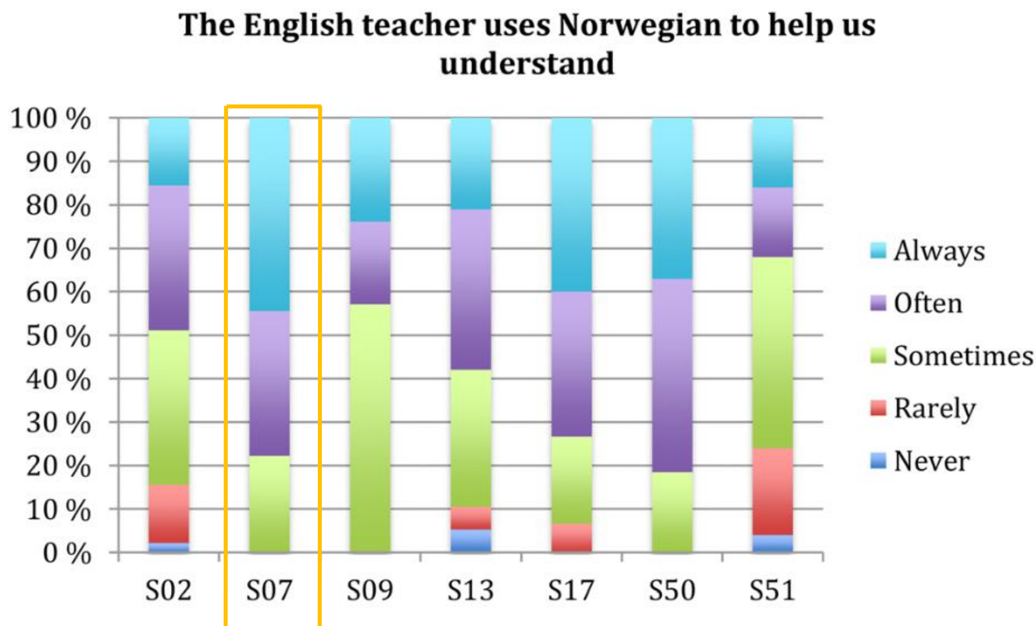
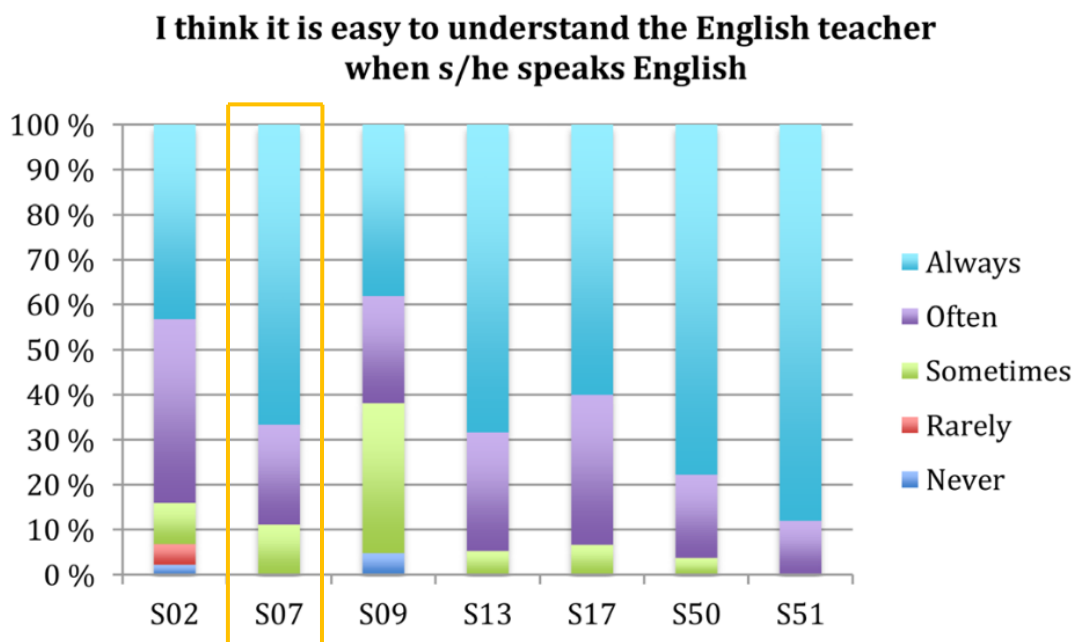


Figure 2.4

Percentage distribution of answers to survey item 2 “I think it is easy to understand the English teacher when s/he speaks English” divided by school (S). Reprinted with permission from Brevik and Rindal (2020, p. 943).



2.5.2 Prior relevant MA studies

An MA study that was part of the LISE project, Tveiten (2019), studied two teachers' reported language practices and how these correspond with data on their actual practices. This study also investigated whether any language ideals could be linked to the two teachers' practices or reports of practices, understanding a language ideal as the perceived golden standard for language use by a given teacher in the classroom to which that teacher aspires. Tveiten (2019) found the teachers to be aware of their own language use, meaning how much time they spend on each language, and that they are to some extent aware of what influences their language choices. The study also found one of the teachers to have a clear language ideal, the basis of which was assumptions about language ideals in theory. Using the understanding of language ideals mentioned above, the findings in this study presented evidence which supported one teacher having a monolingual language ideal (Tveiten, 2019). The teacher with this language ideal wanted language use in their classroom to be monolingual (i.e., only L2) and the other teacher in the study was not found to have such a clear language ideal.

Another MA study that was part of the LISE project, Skram (2019), studied language use from the perspective of six students, herein influences and preferences concerning both L1 and L2 use in the L2 English classroom. This study sought to examine these students' views on language use in the L2 English classroom. Skram (2019) found that teachers' language choices for some functions (for example task instruction) did not always align with the students' preference in the situation. The study found this to be connected to student beliefs on how they learn language best, and that their language preferences changed according to functions. The study also found that the students were positive towards codeswitching as this allows for authentic language use.

Barreng (2021) wrote her MA study as part of the ETOS (Evaluation of bilingual Training Opportunities in Schools) project, studied the language use in six bilingual classrooms at two schools on the lower secondary level. This study found there to be considerable differences in language use across classrooms, both across physical classrooms and individual lessons. Most of the classrooms used English predominantly and found language use to be teacher dependent. The study found one school to use other languages for academic purposes, whereas the other mainly did for non-academic interactions with students. On this basis, Barreng (2021) theorizes

that the schools "pertain to different student needs" (p. 62), further strengthening the finding that language use in the classroom is teacher dependent.

2.5.3 This MA study

The topic of language use in the L2 English classroom in Norway remains a research interest as time has progressed and the new school curriculum (LK20) has been implemented. This MA study investigates the same themes as Brevik and Rindal (2020) with more recent data, both leading up to and after the implementation of the new school curriculum, in order to evaluate possible developments or trends in language use in the lower secondary L2 English classroom in Norway over time. In the present MA study, video data from 2019-21 and 2021-23 has been analyzed, in order to compare with Brevik and Rindal's (2020) findings from 2015-17. At one school (S07), the same teacher is filmed at all three stages in time. Therefore, I have taken a closer look at S07, investigating how this one teacher compares to the overall LISE findings.

3.0 Methodology

In this chapter, I will present the methods used to investigate my research question: *What characterizes use of L1 in five L2 English lower secondary classrooms in Norway over time?* First, I give a brief presentation of the LISE project (3.1) which my study is a part of, followed by my research design (3.2) and a discussion of my sample (3.3). Next, I discuss the data material (3.4) and analysis (3.5). Lastly, I consider the credibility of my research (3.6) by discussing reliability, validity, and ethical implications of my study.

3.1 The LISE project

The LISE (Linking Instruction and Student Experiences) project is a longitudinal research project using mainly video data (Brevik, 2019; Brevik & Rindal, 2020; UiO, 2022). The aim of the project is to "gain new knowledge about naturally occurring instruction over time in English, French, social studies, science, mathematics and Norwegian" (UiO, 2022). The sample in the LISE project consists of seven schools; five schools sampled from the LISA (Linking Instruction and Student Achievement) project (Klette et al., 2017), as well as two additional schools sampled for more variation (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). Data for the LISE project has been collected in three rounds in grades 9 and 10; specifically, Round 1 was collected in 2015-2017, Round 2 in 2019-2020 and Round 3 in 2021-2023 (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

Overview of English subject data collected for LISE.

Round 1		Round 2	Round 3	
2015-2016	2016-2017	2019-2021	2021-2022	2022-2023
Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 10	Grade 9	Grade 10
7 schools	6 schools	5 schools	1 school	1 school

The project leader is Lisbeth M. Brevik. LISE has been approved by the National Center for Research Data. I became familiar with the project through the English didactics MA program at the University of Oslo, where my fellow students and myself were introduced to the data material and invited to be part of the LISE research team as co-researchers (Brevik, 2022; Eriksen & Brevik, 2022).

3.2 Research design

This study employs a mixed methods (MM) research design. Mixed methods research designs are particularly suited for classroom research as they cater to examination of complex social phenomena where people operate in a given context and the objective is to study the people as well as the context in which they are operating (Brevik & Mathé, 2021). Such designs combine qualitative and quantitative methods, thereby enabling the researcher to examine what is occurring as well as how often or to what degree it is occurring (Brevik & Mathé, 2021).

The aim of my study is to analyze video data from English classrooms in LISE Round 2 (2019-2020) and Round 3 (2021-2023) to replicate a previous study by Brevik and Rindal (2020) that used video data from English classrooms in LISE Round 1 (2015-2017). The aim is to examine and compare the language practices in five schools in Rounds 2 and 3 with language practices in the same schools from Round 1. On average 4-6 lessons were filmed in each classroom at all schools each school year.

In 2015-17, five of the seven original lower secondary schools participated, and I will therefore compare these five schools across 2015-17, 2019-21 and 2021-23. In 2021-23, data was collected from one school only (S07) to create a longitudinal case study where the same English teacher was filmed in all three rounds, facilitating for exploration of how one teacher's language practices might develop over time. Data from S07 has been collected during the LK06 curriculum (2015–2017), during the last year before the LK20 was in force (2019–2020) and the first year after its implementation (2021–2023).

This MA study, using a mixed methods design (Brevik & Mathé, 2021), has both quantitative and qualitative aspects. I use video data, which is qualitative by nature, but my analysis is largely quantitative. The first phase of my study provides an overview of languages used during English lessons, as I start by time stamping the video data according to languages spoken in the classrooms. This analysis identifies the duration of the various languages, which is measurable, and not open to interpretation. The second phase provides more detailed and in-depth information about the L1 use in these classrooms, and this is where I re-examine the instances coded as spoken Norwegian (L1) and apply various codes for the functions of that exchange. Although this is also measurable, there is a greater degree of interpretation that goes into allocating a function to a situation. This analysis looks at the language use on a deeper level as

it describes what is actually occurring when the language is being used and not simply what language is being used, or how often. These phases make my MA study a *sequential* mixed methods research design (Brevik & Mathé, 2021).

Table 3.2

Phases in my mixed methods research design

Phase 1	Phase 2
Language overview	**Detailed L1 use**
Time stamping of the video data, identifying instances of spoken Norwegian.	Re-examination of the previously identified instances of spoken Norwegian and coding them according to L1 functions.

Table 3.3 provides an overview of my MA study. It shows that the comparison between Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study of LISE 2015-17 data and my analysis of 2019-21 and 2021-23 will be used to answer my main research question. It also provides a concise introduction to the analytical aspects of my study, which will be explained in further detail later in this chapter (Section 3.5).

Table 3.3

Overview of my mixed methods research design

Research question	Data material	Analytical entity	Analytical concepts
What characterizes teachers' use of L1 in the L2 English lower secondary classroom in Norway over time?	Video recordings of 29 English lessons at five lower secondary schools. 2019-21: 21 lessons 2021-23: 8 lessons	Time: spoken language Quantity: how many (duration also accounted for) of the instances coded as Norwegian were used for different L1 functions defined by Brevik and Rindal (2020)	Duration analysis of language use in the classroom

3.3 Sampling

My study is part of the LISE project, and my data material is therefore sampled from the English classrooms in the LISE data. The LISE project included seven schools (S02, S07, S09, S13, S17, S50, S51) filmed in Round 1: 2015-2016 (9th grade) and 2016-2017 (10th grade), five of these schools (S07, S09, S17, S50, S51) were filmed in Round 2 2019-2020 (10th grade), and one of the schools (S07) was filmed in Round 3: 2021-2022 (9th grade) and 2022-2023 (10th grade). For the present study, I sampled the five schools in Rounds 2 and 3. 2019-21 did not have data from S02 and S13 due to Covid19, and those schools are therefore not part of my sample.

In three schools (S07, S09, S17), the same English teacher was filmed in 10th grade in 2015-17 and 2019-21, while the remaining classes had different teachers across rounds. For S07, the same teacher was indeed filmed in all rounds of LISE. Data from this school was therefore sampled from all three rounds in order to explore this one teacher's development in regard to language use over a longer time period (2015-2023). Table 3.4 shows an overview of my sample, including when the data was collected and in what volume. Note that for 2015-17 data,

I gained access to the coded video files from Brevik and Rindal (2020). I coded 2015-17 data from one school (S07) as well for consensus coding purposes, in order to ensure my understanding of the L1 codes by comparing my analysis to the coded file.

Table 3.4

Overview of sampled video-recorded lessons for my MA study (*N*=29)

Round	Year/grade	School	Lessons
2	2019-2020 10th grade	S07	4
		S09	4
		S17	5
		S50	4
		S51	4
3	2021-2022 9th grade	S07	4
	2022-2023 10th grade	S07	4

3.4 Data material

In this section, I will discuss the data material presented above. I discuss the use of classroom video recordings (3.4.1) for school research and for my study in particular. Because my data is sampled from the LISE project, I will also discuss the use of video recordings as secondary data (3.4.2).

3.4.1 Classroom video recordings

Classroom video recordings are a popular method in school research. One of the greatest advantages of videos are the ability to watch them several times, as opposed to observing *in-situ* without recording (Blikstad-Balas, 2017). The possibility of rewatching videos, makes them particularly suited for use as secondary data, and allows for the same lesson or situation to be observed with a new lens or perspective. Additionally, it allows me to return to my data repeatedly to make sure my interpretations and explanations of situations are as accurate as possible (Blikstad-Balas, 2017).

Moreover, Cohen et al. (2011) highlights that video data “offers ‘live’ data from naturally occurring social situations” (p. 456). This makes it possible for researchers using secondary data to still observe *in situ* and avoid relying on second-hand accounts. It is also particularly important for my study as the aim is to gather data on language use in the classroom as it occurs naturally. Despite their frequent use in school research, video data can only capture so much as it is bound by the camera positions in the classroom. This can lead to marginalization or magnification of elements, which could potentially be problematic (Blikstad-Balas & Sørvik, 2015). In my study however, the research focus is spoken language making the audio more significant than the camera angles. However, the situational overview provided by the video contributes to the researcher’s understanding of the entirety of the situation which is important in coding for functions of language.

Video data in LISE was collected using two cameras and two microphones (Brevik, 2019; Brevik & Rindal, 2020). One camera was positioned in the back of the classroom facing the teacher, the other was positioned in the front of the classroom facing the students. One microphone was attached to the teacher, and another was placed toward the middle or back of the room, except for one school where dictaphones were placed on student desks. This setup makes it easier to focus the research on the teacher’s language use or teacher’s dialogue with students as the most discernable audio is from the teacher microphone.

3.4.2 The use of secondary data

Using secondary data entails (re)analysis of data material collected by someone other than the researcher themselves. The innate purpose of using secondary data is not to replicate a study, even though that is what I am doing in part. Primarily, re-use of data collected for another purpose is to analyze the data from new and different perspectives (Andersson-Bakken & Dalland, 2021; Corti, 2007; Dalland, 2011).

A potential limitation of using videos as secondary data can be its inability to capture the entire situation, especially considering that qualitative data is contextually bound. Some claim that it is impossible to grasp the entirety of such contexts without having partaken in them. Given that I was not present in the classrooms, from which the recordings that comprise my data were made, I do not know the teachers and students personally, which some might claim is a weakness in my study (Bishop, 2014; Mauthner et al., 1998). Others, however, claim that the

context in question is created between the researcher and the data regardless of whether that researcher collected the data themselves (Moore, 2007). Blikstad-Balas and Klette (2021) also claim that it is near impossible to capture the complexity of a teaching situation in the classroom whilst observing *in situ*, indicating that a researcher's presence isn't necessarily crucial.

I will be using secondary data exclusively in this study. This secondary data consists of video recordings made for the LISE project, and transcriptions of these recordings. Although I have not collected my own data from the LISE project, I have collected video data for another research project (EDUCATE) at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research (ILS), which uses the same video design (Brevik et al., 2023). I therefore gained first-hand experience with video recordings, which provides valuable insight into the difference between what is captured in video recordings compared to in situ observations. Based on my engagement as a co-researcher in the EDUCATE project, I was given access to data collected for the LISE project for my MA study.

3.5 Data analysis

The data analysis in my study can be divided into two phases, corresponding to my research design (see Table 3.2). Table 3.5 outline the steps I took to analyze the data. I started by watching all 29 recorded lessons, in order to familiarize myself with the data. I then watched the video data from 2015-17, which was already coded to ensure my understanding of the codes. This is crucial for the comparability between my study and Brevik and Rindal's (2020). I proceeded to timestamp all the lessons in my sample accounting for languages spoken (see Table 3.6). After that, I went back into each lesson and coded for L1 functions. I went on to organize my data in excel spreadsheets in order to create diagrams of my findings and explore patterns of language use over time (2015-2023).

Table 3.5

Step-by-step overview of my data analysis

Phase 1	**Phase 2**
Language overview	**Detailed L1 use**
Step 1 Watch all 29 selected English lessons to prepare for coding.	Step 1 Re-examine all lessons and identify L1 codes and code them according to the same functions as Brevik and Rindal (2020), see Table 3.6.
Step 2 Meet with the research assistant who had coded the 2015-17 video material alongside the authors (Brevik & Rindal, 2020) to go through the coding manual I was going to use.	Step 2 Create similar diagrams of the results from the coding of 2019-21 as the ones made by Brevik and Rindal (2020) for Round 1, to compare the results.
Step 3 Look through coding from 2015-17 video data to ensure common understanding of codes and thereby comparability.	Step 3 Create diagrams for S07, all three rounds, in order to identify patterns for language use.
Step 4 Code all lessons for duration of languages spoken (see Table 3.6).	

3.5.1 Coding

In order to structure video data into manageable portions, coding is invaluable (Saldaña, 2016). Generally, coding can be categorized as either inductive or deductive. I took a deductive approach to my coding, as my study in part is a replication of Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study and therefore used the same codes for language use as well as L1 functions namely: scaffolding, metalinguistic explanation, task instruction, practical information, terminology, other domains, class management, empathy/solidarity and other (see table 3.7). By using the same codes as Brevik and Rindal (2020), my study is suited to expand on prior research and to be expanded on in future research (Miles et al., 2014).

Before coding for the aforementioned L1 functions, I time stamped the lessons whilst coding for languages spoken (see table 3.6). As all codes used in my analysis are previously applied to research, a coding manual was followed. The language codes I used are exclusive duration codes, meaning that a code is active so long as someone is speaking in the classroom (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). Thereby, the time spent on each language is also accounted for. Additionally, only one code is active at a time and therefore instances could occur where they appeared to be conflicting, meaning instances where the function of L1 use was not immediately clear. In these situations, I consulted the coding manual and/or researchers whom had used the same codes, in order to confirm whether my interpretation was correct. The language codes were active when the teacher spoke, when the teacher interacted with a student or other staff and when the teacher was actively listening to student interactions. Once such interactions stopped the codes were deactivated, meaning silent time in the classroom was not coded. If the teacher left the classroom, possible discourse was not coded. Table 3.6 shows an overview of the language codes I used for timestamping.

Table 3.6

Overview of language codes

Code	Description
English (TL)	Spoken English. Instances in which there are single words or short phrases in Norwegian, but the discourse as a whole is in English, has been coded as English.
Norwegian (L1)	Spoken Norwegian. Instances in which there are single words or short phrases in English, but the discourse as a whole is in Norwegian, has been coded as Norwegian.
Both	Quick codeswitching between English and Norwegian, lasting for more than 3 seconds. Mostly used for students responding in Norwegian whilst the teacher speaks English (but also in other situations).
Other	Spoken language that is not English or Norwegian, regardless of length of utterance.

Once all the lessons were time stamped with the above codes, I moved on to examine the events coded as spoken Norwegian (L1). Those events were then coded again according to the aforementioned functions used in Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study. The aim of the study is to

examine teachers' language use, so instances coded as Norwegian where the teacher did not speak were not coded according to these L1 functions. An overview of these functions is seen in Table 3.7.

The L1 functions can be separated into two main categories: academic and non-academic (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). The academic functions encompass language use directly related to the English subject. The academic functions are: *scaffolding, metalinguistic explanation, task instruction, practical information, terminology,* and *other domains* (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). *Scaffolding* was used when the teacher spoke Norwegian whilst attempting to ensure student understanding. *Metalinguistic explanation* was used for exchanges about linguistic concepts. *Task instruction* was used for explicit instructions either before or during a class activity. *Practical information* was used when information or instructions pertaining to matters not related to the English subject were discussed. *Terminology* was used for explanations and descriptions of the meanings of terms. *Other domains* was used for discourse about other subjects than English. The non-academic functions encompass language use unrelated to the school subject (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). The non-academic functions are: *class management, empathy/solidarity* and *other. Class management* was used for comments on student conduct in the classroom. *Empathy/solidarity* was used for exchanges about inter-personal subject matter such students' interests, well-being etc. *Other* was used for exchanges not pertaining to any subject or class and that does not fit in any of the above categories.

Table 3.7

Overview of L1 functions (Brevik & Rindal, 2020, p. 934).

Code		**Description**
Academic functions	Scaffolding	Exchanges used to ensure student understanding
	Metalinguistic explanation	Exchanges about linguistic concepts such as grammar, pronunciation etc.
	Task instruction	Explicit instructions either before or during an activity
	Practical information	Information or instructions pertaining to matters not related to the English subject
	Terminology	Explanations/descriptions of the meanings of terms
	Other domains	Discourse about other classes than English where the subject matter is relevant for target language instruction

Non-academic functions	Class management	Comments on student conduct in the classroom
	Empathy/solidarity	Exchanges about inter-personal subject matter such as students' interests, well-being etc.
	Other	Exchanges not pertaining to any subject/class and that does not fit in any of the above categories

After I had coded all L1 Norwegian events according to the above functions, I rendered the results into tables and diagrams in excel for visual presentation and further analysis for both language codes and L1 functions. I also consulted transcriptions of the lessons, in order to highlight a particular event in the data, to ensure understanding and thereby increase trustworthiness (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). I utilized the Teaching Learning Video Lab (TLVlab) at UiO to code the video data in the InterAct software. I received training in the use of InterAct by engineers at the TLVlab.

3.5.2 Video recordings and InterAct

For using the software InterAct, the video files were made accessible to me at the TLVlab. I imported them into the software in order to code and analyze. Since the LISE data was filmed using two cameras at once: one facing the students and one facing the teacher, I opted for viewing of both cameras in InterAct, which allows the researcher to watch both video feeds simultaneously whilst observing/coding. The overview provided by both angles enables the researcher to obtain a greater understanding of what is transpiring in the classroom as a whole and therefore also in isolated incidents. I used the coding manuals I was given by the LISE research team to create code files in InterAct and apply them to the video recordings. Once I had coded all lessons for both language use and L1 functions, I transferred the statistics rendered from my coding from InterAct to Microsoft Excel. In Excel I organized the results into tables, figures, and diagrams which I used to explore patterns in the data. The findings that emerged from this process are presented in Chapter 4. Findings.

3.6 Research credibility

In this section, I will discuss the credibility of my research. In order to do so I will consider the reliability and validity of my study, as well as ethical considerations. According to Gleiss and Sæther (2021), reliability is concerned with the quality of the research process as well as the

study’s trustworthiness whereas validity is concerned with the quality of the data material as well as the interpretations and conclusions of the researcher. Brevik (2015) describes reliability as the “accuracy and transparency needed to enable replication of the research” and validity as the “trustworthiness of the inferences drawn from the data” (p. 46).

3.6.1 Reliability

Reliability is sometimes connected to a study’s repeatability, meaning whether or not the research process is described and executed in such a way that it can be repeated by others. According to Brevik (2015), qualitative research is in itself impossible to repeat because people are involved, and one cannot replicate for instance the atmosphere in a classroom which has the potential to influence the data. This challenge is addressed in my study even though my data is qualitative because videos allow for repeated observation, and if relevant, also by several researchers. Also, my analysis is largely quantitative even though my data material is qualitative, using mixed methods and it is precisely the development in language use (or lack thereof) my study seeks to uncover. Using qualitative data in this manner is a benefit as the videos might provide further insight into the quantitative results.

The coding manuals I used in my study were developed for the LISE project and have already been employed in a study by Brevik and Rindal (2020), which I am partly replicating. Because I was not there when the videos were filmed and I did not do the initial coding, my interpretations of the situations might not be entirely accurate and my interpretations of the codes could vary slightly from the LISE research team. In order to counteract this, I was trained in coding by the LISE research team and was given access to the previously coded LISE videos from S07 Round 1. That way, I could code the same videos and compare the results to ensure common understanding or what is called *intercoder reliability* (Gleiss & Sæther, 2021).

3.6.2 Validity

In my MA thesis I have taken certain measures to ensure the validity, or trustworthiness, of my study. The quality of the data material is strengthened by being collected for the larger LISE research project. All video recordings used in my study are available to the LISE team. The coding manual I used was employed in Brevik and Rindal’s (2020) study of LISE Round 1.

This adds to the transparency of my study, as the reader may evaluate the trustworthiness of the present study through the presentation of my data analysis (Johnson & Christensen, 2017).

Descriptive validity emphasizes “factual accuracy of the account as reported by researchers” (Johnson & Christensen, 2017, p. 300). In order to strengthen the descriptive validity of my study, I described all codes used for each phase of my data analysis in addition to the coding process itself furthermore increasing transparency. Also, examples related to the L1 functions codes are presented as part for my findings in chapter 4. Findings.

External validity refers to “the extent to which the result of a study can be generalized to and across populations of persons, settings, times, outcomes and treatment variations” (Johnson & Christensen, 2017, p. 293). The external validity of my study is strengthened by the variation in the data set. Meaning I have analyzed 29 video recorded English lessons for my study from different schools, with different teachers and students all varying in age and gender. I have also compared my results to Brevik and Rindal’s (2020) results, which used a similar data set also with the aforementioned variations. This comparison also allows me to see how these results behave with time.

I utilized peer review (Creswell & Miller, 2000) in order to strengthen the validity of my study. Upon initial completion of coding for L1 functions, I had a higher than normal (>2-3%) value for the *other* function. I compiled a list of *other*-scenarios which I wasn’t entirely confident I had coded correctly and wrote them down as hypothetical scenarios. I presented these scenarios to two fellow students familiar with the L1 functions and asked them to code the scenarios accordingly. After this, ten scenarios remained which were still indefinite. I brought these scenarios to the LISE research team. We went through the remaining ten scenarios and ended up changing codes on two after reaching consensus in understanding of the codes. This strengthens the validity of my findings as well as the comparability of my study with Brevik and Rindal’s (2020) original study of L1 functions.

Another important aspect of the validity of a study is researcher reflexivity. Creswell and Miller (2000) explain this as “for researchers to self-disclose their assumptions, beliefs, and biases” (p. 127). I have, as described above, collected video data for the EDUCATE project at the Institute for Teacher Education and School Research (ILS), meaning that I have experience with data collection of classroom videos using the same video design, even though I did not

collect the data I used in this MA thesis, and was therefore given access to use data collected for the LISE project in my MA study. Additionally, I have spent considerable time viewing my data, making observations, and also coding. Therefore, I can claim to be familiar with my data material despite not having collected it myself as well as being familiar with the process taken to collect such data. My motivation to do this research came from the new curriculum (LK20), which focuses on intelligibility in English interaction rather than elements such as intonation, inflection, and sentence structure (NDET, 2013, 2019). By extension, this made me curious to research whether teachers could have changed their language practices over time, perhaps even prompted by the new curriculum. Regardless of the new curriculum, I believe the findings of such a study could contribute insight into English teachers' language use in the Norwegian lower secondary classroom, and perhaps reveal established patterns or need(s) for further research thereby contributing to the field of English didactics. These beliefs have the possibility to influence me as a researcher and is something I have needed to be aware of in the process of data analysis.

3.6.3 Ethical considerations

In any research project, it is vital to ensure participants right to privacy and voluntary participation. Their willingness to participate in research should not impact them negatively. The LISE project team collected written informed consent from all participating teachers and students, including parents of students below the age of 15 (NESH, 2021). Students whom did not consent being filmed were placed in camera blind-spots. This further entails blurring the video feed if any non-consenting student entered the video frame as well as cutting the audio if their voices were captured while speaking. Therefore, spoken time of such students are not part of the audio and therefore not the coded material in this study.

I have used the secure network provided in the TLVlab to view and code all my secondary video data. The location is significant for the protection of data and participant privacy. All persons with access to the TLVlab must sign an ethical declaration in this respect, as the lab is used by persons from different research projects, thus ensuring confidentiality.

4.0 Findings

In this chapter I will present the results of my data analysis. The findings indicated three main patterns. First, language use in all participating schools combined showed that the distribution between languages, meaning how much of spoken language was spent on each language, has largely remained the same since 2015-17 (4.1). Second, the distribution of L1 functions, i.e. functions for Norwegian use in the classroom (see 2.5.1), also resemble the findings from 2015-17, though the function *metalinguistic explanation,* which had the second highest value in 2015-17 is now the smallest function (4.2). Third, data from S07 revealed that although the amount of L1 use remained the same, L1 use was distributed between more functions in grade 9 than in grade 10 (4.3).

The present study is comparison of language use to another study by Brevik and Rindal (2020). Therefore, I will refer to this study throughout this chapter even though this is not customary in an MA thesis findings chapter.

4.1 General pattern for language use in L2 English classrooms in Norway?

In this section, I will present my findings related to language use in the L2 English classrooms I have examined. First, I will show how the distribution between languages, meaning how much of spoken language in the classroom is used on Norwegian, English and other languages respectively, remains unchanged from 2015-17 to 2019-21. Second, I will show the changes in distribution between the L1 functions from 2015-17 to 2019-21, where metalinguistic explanation appears to have virtually disappeared. Third, I will show how the S07 teacher differentiates their language use between grades 9 and 10.

4.1.1 Distribution between languages unchanged

The languages used as well as the time spent on each is largely unchanged since 2015-17. English remains the dominant language overall at 81% of spoken time in the classroom. English was also the most frequently used language in each school, which corresponds to findings from 2015-17. Norwegian remains at 16%, just like in 2015-17. Instances of both languages have decreased some from 7% to 3% of spoken time in the classroom. Other languages were virtually

not detected apart from a word or phrase here and there, mainly in German, Spanish and French. Such phrases could be a teacher comment to students like "Ich habe keine Ahnung" instead of "I have no idea". Occasionally, these other languages had an academic function, usually by the teacher asking the students if they understood, consistent with the *scaffolding* function. However, more commonly other languages were used for non-academic functions such as *class management* or *empathy/solidarity*.

Figure 4.1 shows that the distribution between languages remained largely unchanged in 2019-21 compared to 2015-17. Although instances of other languages were detected both times, they are too infrequent to reach 1% in 2019-21, just like in 2015-17, and remained at 0%. Most of the cases involving other languages than English or Norwegian were more like the comments to students, as mentioned above, and not so much an integrated part of the lesson or the teaching.

Figure 4.1

Percentage distribution of language use in all schools combined for both 2015-17 and 2019-21, side by side.

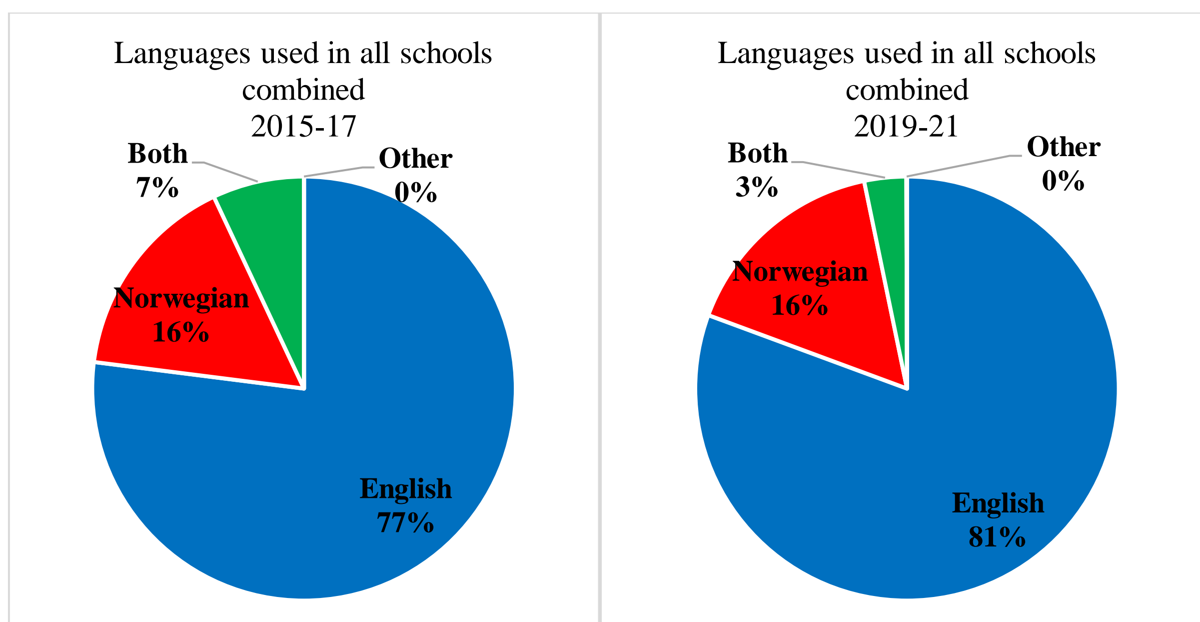
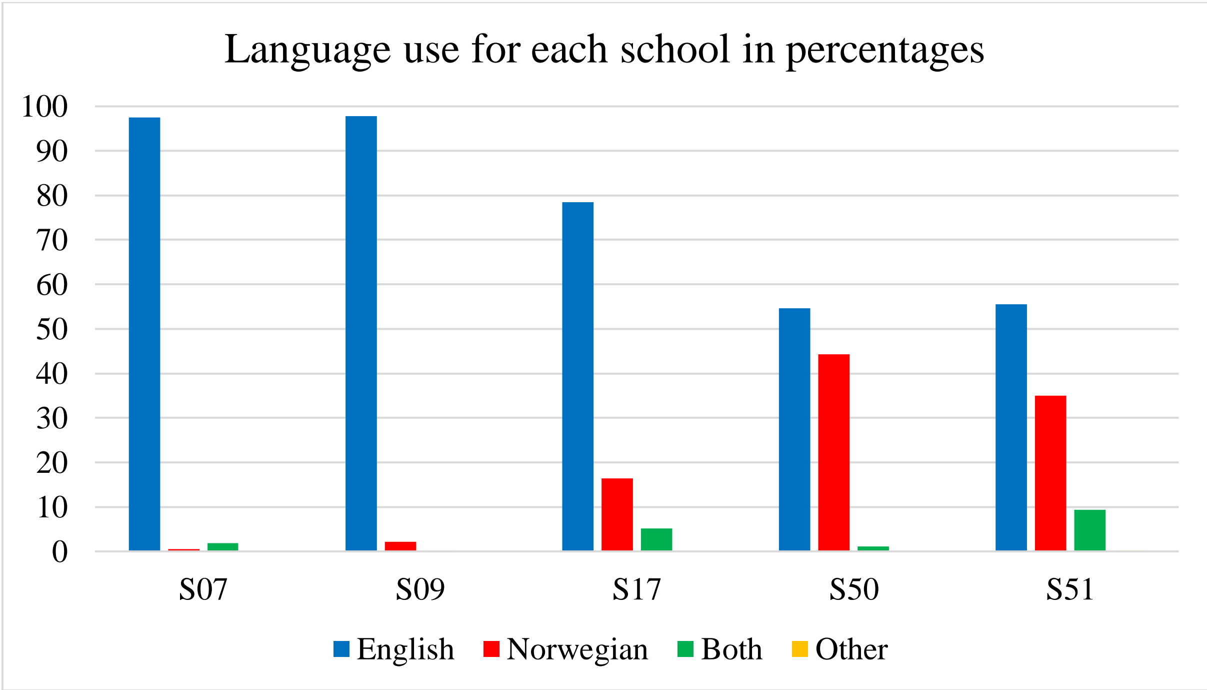


Figure 4.1 depicts similar results for 2015-17 and 2019-21, although the video data was collected several years apart. Although the overall pattern remains the same, there is still notable variation between schools. It is worth noting that different teachers were filmed in 2015-17 and 2019-21 (see 3.3 Sampling). Because the teachers are different, teacher practices do not necessarily have anything to do with this pattern. There are also variations within the same

school, indicating school culture does not influence language use either. Findings also show variations in language use for each school in 2019-21 (Figure 4.2) and 2015-17 (Figure 4.3), indicating how much spoken time was spent on each language at each school.

Figure 4.2

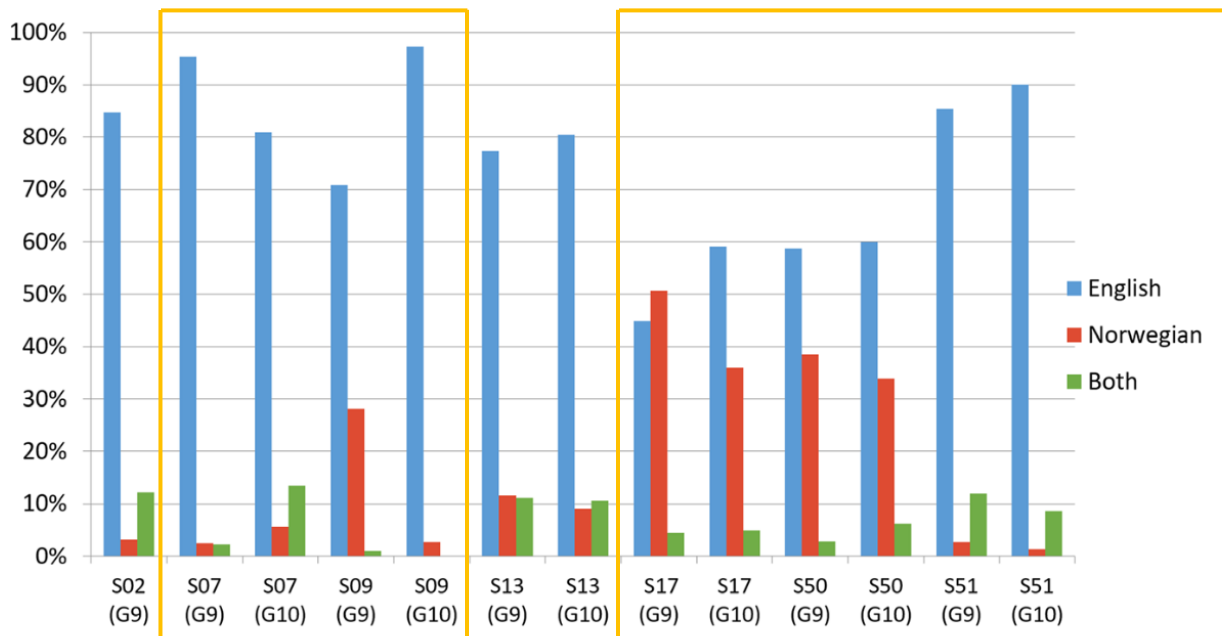
Percentage distribution between languages 2019-21 in all five schools



Overall, Figure 4.2 shows that English is the dominant language at each individual school but to varying degrees. In 2019-21, S50 and S51 had a considerably higher percentage use of Norwegian (35-44%) than S07 and S09 (1-2%). In other words, S50 and S51 are high-frequency Norwegian classrooms, whilst S07 and S09 are high-frequency English classrooms. These labels for categorization (high-frequency English/high-frequency Norwegian) serve to indicate what language is used considerably more in each school. However, it is important to note that language practices are more nuanced than these labels indicate (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). S17 closely resembles the overall results from 2015-17 (see Figure 4.3), with 16% Norwegian, 79% English and 5% other languages. Still, English is clearly dominant at 79% making S17 a high-frequency English classroom as well.

Figure 4.3

Percentage distribution between languages used in 2015-17 in all five schools. Highlighted by yellow boxes are the schools which also participated in 2019-21. Reprinted with permission from Brevik and Rindal (2020, p. 936).



The distributions for 2019-21 (see Figure 4.2) do not entirely correspond to Brevik and Rindal's (2020) categorization of high-frequency Norwegian and high-frequency English classrooms from 2015-17 (see Figure 4.3). Most schools remain where they were placed in 2015-17, apart from two schools, S17 and S51, which in 2019-21 changed category from high frequency English to high-frequency Norwegian and vice versa. The differences are illustrated in Table 4.1, indicating the changes in categorization since 2015-17.

Table 4.1

Overview of labeling for categorization of language use as high frequency English or high frequency Norwegian classrooms.

2015-17		2019-21	
High-frequency English	**High-frequency Norwegian**	**High-frequency English**	**High-frequency Norwegian**
S07	S17	S07	S50
S09	S50	S09	S51
S51		S17	

Note: Only the five schools that participated both times are considered for purpose of comparison. Schools which change categorization in 2019-21 are highlighted yellow.

Interestingly, in the two cases where the teacher remains the same in 2019-21 as in 2015-17 (S07 and S17 grade 10), some changes still occur in 2019-21 results. Whereas S07 remains a high-frequency English classroom, with more than 90% English in both rounds and where Norwegian as well as the both-category stay below 5%, S17 changes from being a high-frequency Norwegian classroom in 2015-17 (Norwegian use in 2015-17: >30%, 2019-21: 16%) to becoming a high-frequency English classroom in 2019-21 (English use in 2015-17: <60%, 2019-21: 79%). Along with S17, S51 is the only other school to move between categories. In 2019-21, S51 is found to spend nearly equal spoken time on English (55%) and Norwegian (44%) which is a drastic change from 2015-17 where English use was between 85% and 90%. However, there was a change in teacher, which might provide the explanation. In contrast, S09 and S50 where the teacher also changed, their respective categorizations did not. S09 remains a high-frequency English classroom with >95% English in 2019-21, which mirrors the grade 10 data from 2015-17. S50 remains a high-frequency Norwegian classroom at 44% Norwegian, which is slightly higher than in 2015-17 (34-38%).

In sum, the overall analysis of language use in the 2019-21 schools point to a tendency regarding how much English and Norwegian respectively that is being used in the L2 English classroom in Norway, especially considering Norwegian use which has remained at exactly 16% since 2015-17. Although the overall analysis points to a tendency, there are considerable variations in language use between schools in 2019-21, which was also the case in 2015-17. The variations in language use between schools are similar in some cases to what Brevik and Rindal (2020) found in the 2015-17 data, but in some cases it was not. The differences are found not only across schools, but also within schools, and even within classrooms with the same teacher and in classrooms with different teachers.

4.2 Changes in use of L1 functions

In the following section, I provide an overview of the distribution of L1 functions in 2019-21 and compare these to 2015-17 (4.2.1). I will also present how the L1 functions were used at each individual school in 2019-21. Lastly, I will provide a section with a particular focus on the function *metalinguistic explanation* (4.2.3) which has changed notably since 2015-17.

4.2.1 Distribution of L1 functions across schools in 2019-21

This section deals with the percentage distribution of L1 functions across schools, meaning how much of spoken L1 in the classrooms collectively was used on each function. In order to make this as clear as possible I have included Figure 2.1 again, but this time side by side with the figure which I rendered after my analysis.

Figure 4.4

Percentage distributions of L1 functions across schools in 2015-17 and 2019-21 side by side.

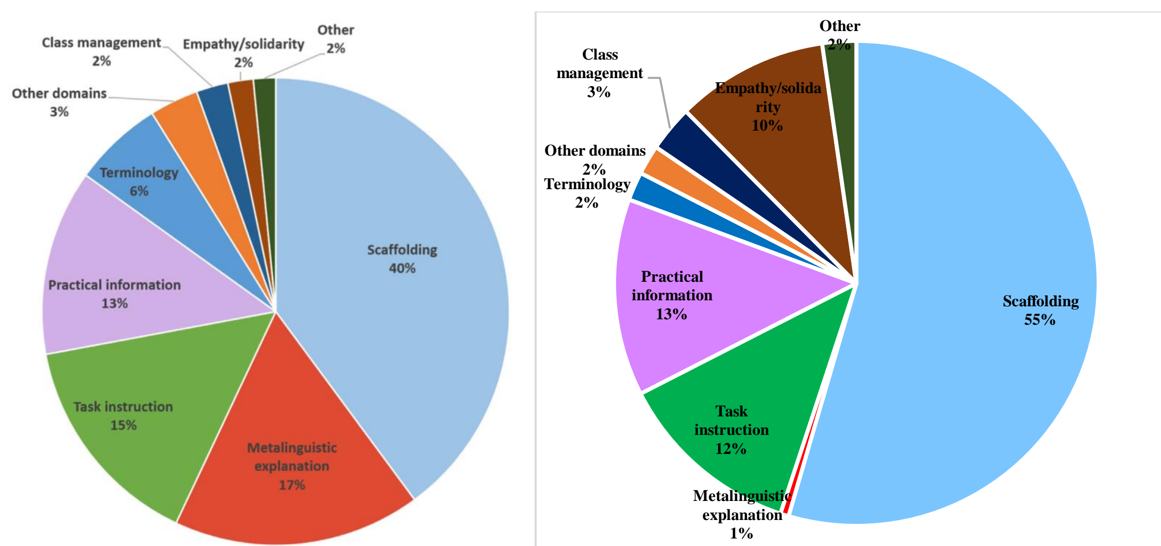


Figure 4.4 shows that the functions of the L1 have remained largely the same since 2015-17. Like in 2015-17, *scaffolding* remains the largest category, and now encompasses more than 50% of spoken Norwegian in the LISE classrooms. Instances of *scaffolding* were mostly explanations or continuations of teaching points, such as Excerpt 4A below. Note that all excerpts have been translated to Norwegian by me in brackets immediately following the Norwegian utterance.

Excerpt 4A: Example of L1 function *scaffolding* at S07.

Teacher (S07): *Let's just say that the ANC won the election by a landslide. Det har aldri vært mindre tvil om et valgutfall. Vi må huske at ANC representerer den mørke befolkningen, som er en klar majoritet i landet. Så det var ikke noe snakk om at the national party kunne vinne her. Så ANC tar en soleklar valgseier. [There has never been less doubt about the outcome of an election. We have to remember that the ANC represents the black population, which are a clear majority in the*

country. So there was never a chance that the national party could win. So ANC grab a clear electoral victory.]

In Excerpt 4A the teacher continues their utterance by switching from English to Norwegian to explain why the party won the election and what it means to have a landslide victory, in order to ensure student understanding. Practices of ensuring student understanding could also have been exemplified by instances of teacher translations of their own utterances or providing additional information either to a group or the whole class.

Task instruction also remains a large function at 12%, which is only a slight decrease from 15% in 2015-17. Instances of *task instruction* relate to explicit, subject-specific instructions related to a concrete task or assignment either preceding the activity or during. This was often prompted by student questions related to solving a given task, like below where the students were tasked to write a type of log from the lesson, and one student is wondering from which perspective they are to write the prompt they have been given:

Excerpt 4B: Example of L1 function *task instruction* at S17.

Student (S17): *Skal vi ta som hvis vi var gravide, eller? [Should we do it as if we are pregnant, or?]*
Teacher (S17): *Nei nå skal du ta som du personlig. *Navn*, nå har du fått vite at den dama du var sammen med forrige helg, eller to uker siden, er blitt gravid. Hu har ringt deg og sagt: nå er jeg gravid, hva skal vi gjøre? Hvem forteller du da, først? [No, now you are doing it like yourself personally. *Student name*, now you have learned that the lady you were with last weekend, or two weeks ago, is pregnant. She has called you and said: now I am pregnant, what are we going to do? Whom do you tell first?]*

Here the student has posed their question about the execution of the task in the L1 and the teacher in turn uses the L1 to provide the necessary instruction as prompted. The prelude to the exchange in Excerpt 4B was brief instruction to the task in English by the teacher. Therefore, it is possible that once a student had a concrete question about the task and uttered in the L1, the teacher switched to the L1 because the student did, perhaps perceiving the student behavior as signaling they did not understand in part because the initial instruction was in the L2. Even though the purpose of this exchange might have been to ensure student understanding of the task, it is still *task instruction* and not *scaffolding* as the purpose of the exchange in Excerpt 4B cannot be observed in the video. The actual utterance is an explicit task instruction rendering its categorization as such. Instances of *task instruction* could also be less task specific than in

Excerpt 4B. For instance, it could be related to what tasks on a worksheet the students were to work on and in what order, like here:

<u>Excerpt 4C: Example of *task instruction* at S09.</u>

Teacher: *Ja, da har jeg delt oppgaveheftet med dere. Der finner dere alle oppgavene. Dere svarer på en a, en b også velger dere på oppgave to. [Yes, I have now shared the worksheet with you. You will find all the tasks there. You will answer one a, one b and then you will choose for task two.]*

Excerpt 4C is still subject-specific and explicit task instructions, but not as content specific as Excerpt 4B. The key remains for the utterance to be subject specific in order to be *task instruction* rather than *practical information*, which is another one of the bigger L1 functions.

The *practical information* function has remained at 13% in 2019-21, and thereby remains one of the largest functions as well. Instances of *practical information* mostly consisted of attempts to locate objects, or other exchanges related to learning resources such as stationary, books, computers and so on. This is depicted by the excerpts below:

<u>Excerpt 4D: Examples of L1 function *practical information* at S51 and S07.</u>

Teacher (S51): *Hvor er ukeplanen? [Where is the weekly plan?]*

Teacher (S07): *Har du en blyant jeg kan låne? Sjansen for at jeg ikke får den tilbake er stor. [Do you have a pencil I could borrow? There is a great likelihood I will not get it back.]*

Most commonly, instances of *practical information* like in Excerpt 4D occurred during student work with a given task as the teacher was making their rounds in the classroom. In cases where a *practical information* utterance or exchange was related to the lesson as a whole or matters students needed to be aware after a lesson was concluded, these typically occurred either at the beginning or end of the lesson, not as the teacher was making their rounds.

Terminology has decreased to 2% in 2019-21, from 6% in 2015-17. Instances of *terminology* were clarifications of subject-specific terms, such as:

<u>Excerpt 4E: Example of L1 function *terminology* at S17.</u>

Teacher (S17): *Life skills. Det kan man jo snakke om som det å mestre livet. [One can talk about that as managing life.]*

Instances such as Excerpt 4E were typically brief as depicted. Most often, instances of *terminology* were prompted by student questions relating to a given term, although teachers occasionally provided clarifications such as Excerpt 4E without being asked to do so.

Other domains decreased slightly, to 2% in 2019-21 from 3% in 2015-17 thereby remaining as one of the smallest categories. Instances of *other domains* are characterized my containing reference to another subject, while remaining academically relevant in one way or another. The clearest example of this, is reference to another school subject, such as below:

<u>Excerpt 4F: Example of L1 function *other domains* at S07.</u>

Teacher (S07): *Dere lærte om dette her i fjor i samfunnsfagen det er jeg hundre og nittiåtte prosent sikker på. [You learned about this last year in social studies, I am one hundred and ninety percent sure of this.]*

Examples of *other domains* are not limited to reference other *school* subjects like in Excerpt 4F, but might also include other subject relevant domains. For instance, in Excerpt 4G below the conversation about condoms in English class is academically relevant to the topic for the lesson even though this particular piece of the exchange is not necessarily directly fruitful for the learning prompts at hand. The class was going to be reading a text about unplanned pregnancy, and the teacher had therefore placed condoms on the students' desks at the beginning of class as a clue to what was to come.

<u>Excerpt 4G: Example of *other domains* at S17.</u>

Teacher (S17): *Åssen er utløpsdatoen på den? [What is the expiration date on that?]*
Student: *Tjue tjue-en. [Twenty twenty-one.]*
Teacher: *Oioi, da får vi ... [Wow, then we will ...]*
Student: *Hvordan får du tak i sånne på kort varsel? [How do you get ahold of those on short notice?]*
Teacher: *Husker du ikke jeg fortalte i går? At vi har bestilt to tusen kondomer for to år siden? [Do you not remember I told you yesterday? That we ordered to thousand condoms two years ago?]*
Student: *Ja [Yes]*
Teacher: *Ja [Yes]*
Student: *Så det betyr tre tusen i år da eller? [So that means three thousand this year then, or?]*
Teacher: *Hehe ja, vi får bestille litt, jeg tror vi bruker opp fra to år tilbake, det lageret der. [Hehe yes, we will order some, I think we will use what we have from two years back first, that store.]*

Another smaller L1 function is *class management,* which has increased to 3% in 2019-21 from 2% in 2015-17. Instances of *class management* took several forms, but their purpose remained to regulate or comment on student behavior in the classroom. This can be seen in Excerpt 4H below where the teacher is ushering a group of students to their seats, as class has started, and they are not yet seated:

Excerpt 4H: Example of L1 function *class management* at S07.

Teacher (S07): *Og så er vi på egen plass når timen begynner. [And then we are in our own seats once class starts.]*

Occasionally instances of *class management* are more contextually bound, like in Excerpt 4H. In other cases where students used inappropriate vocabulary or gestures, or made excessive noise, a comment from the teacher is reactive rather than proactive in accordance to the context like in Excerpt 4H.

The *empathy/solidarity* function has increased considerably to 10% in 2019-21 from 2% in 2015-17. The instances of *empathy/solidarity* most often related to student interests out of school, but also their general well-being. In Excerpt 4I below is an example of a teacher acknowledging a student's growth over time, and communicating this to them:

Excerpt 4I: Example of L1 function *empathy/solidarity* at S07.

Teacher (S07): *Du har vokst veldig det siste året, vist mye mer av deg selv. [You have grown a lot this past year, shown much more of yourself]*

Conversations between teachers and student could occasionally veer in the direction of out of school interests such as sports or TV shows, but also displays of solidarity like in Excerpt 4H. Such exchanges were mostly what this function comprised. The teacher at S07 particularly, made regular use of this function.

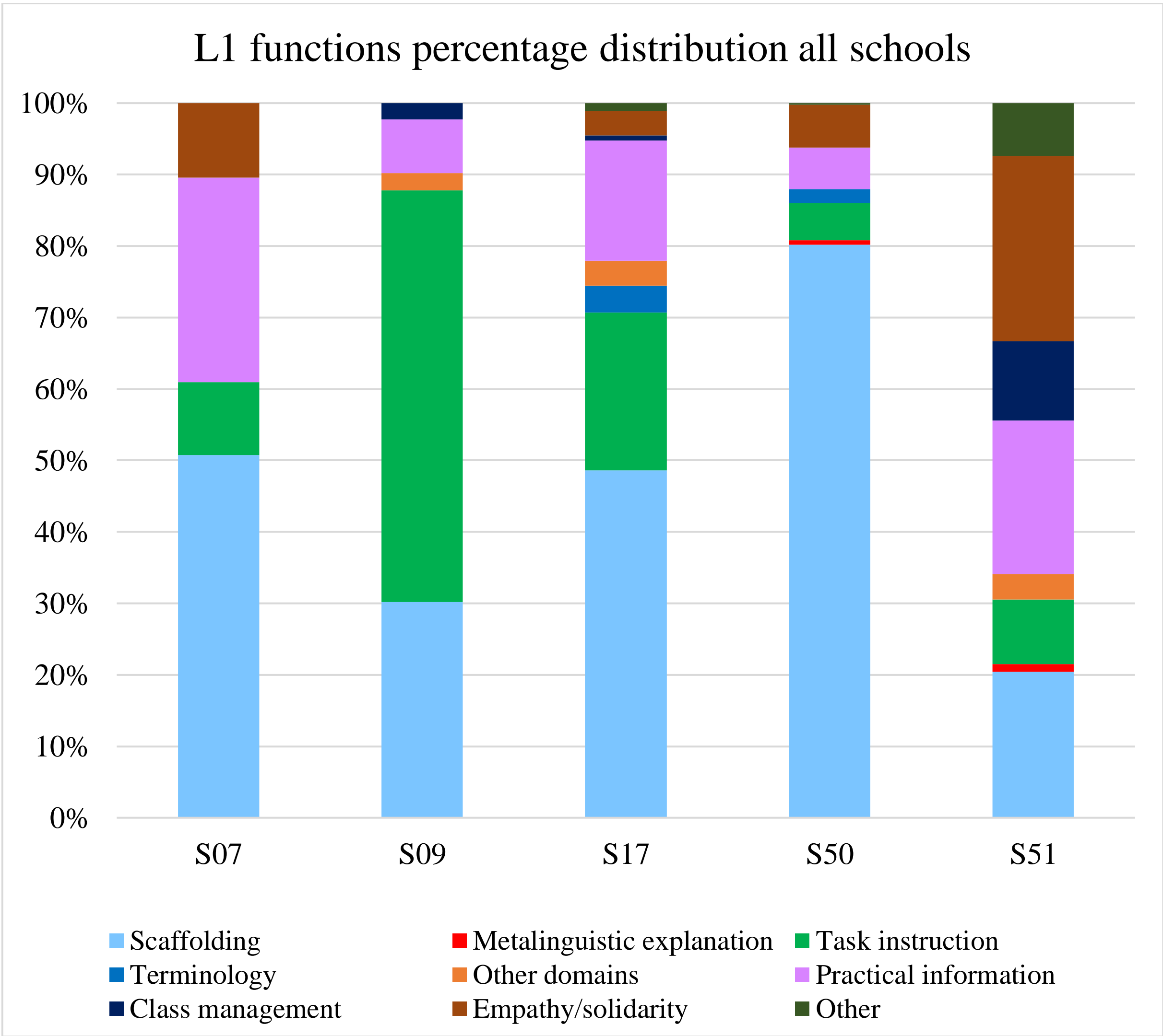
4.2.2 Variations in use of L1 functions between schools

Akin to overall language use, there is also variation in how each individual school makes use of the L1 functions. As shown in Figure 4.5 below, both high-frequency Norwegian classrooms (S50 and S51) divide their L1 use amongst a high number of functions. S50 had 44% spoken Norwegian, distributed between six functions of eight possible. S51 had 35% spoken

Norwegian, distributed between seven of eight functions. In contrast, high-frequency English classrooms like S07 and S09 make use of less L1 functions at four (S07) and five (S09) of eight (excluding *other*). S17, which is also a high-frequency English classroom (79%), made use of all the L1 functions except *metalinguistic explanation*, and is therefore an exception to the overall pattern here. One could argue that S17 is in part an exception to the categories high-frequency English/Norwegian as well, as it is a high-frequency English classroom with more Norwegian (16%) than other schools in the same category (S07 = 1% & S09 = 2 %).

Figure 4.5

Percentage distribution of L1 functions for all 2019-21 schools separately.



Though the number of functions used varies, all schools have instances of three functions, namely: *scaffolding, task instruction* and *practical information.* This aligns with these three functions being the largest in 2019-21 overall (see Figure 4.4). *Scaffolding* encompasses 20-

80% of L1 use. The lowest (20%) and the highest (80%) values for *scaffolding* are both found in high-frequency Norwegian classrooms. Whereas high-frequency English classrooms register 30-51% *scaffolding. Task instruction* encompasses 5-58% of L1 use. Lastly, *practical information* encompasses 6-29% of L1 use.

The *empathy/solidarity* function increased to 10% from 2%, and S51 had quite high values for this function (25,95%). However, one of the lessons filmed at this school was a work session with a substitute teacher. If this lesson is removed from the statistics, this value decreases. S07 had 10% *empathy/solidarity* and as described above in 4.2.1, this teacher often engaged students in conversation about their out of school interests, especially when these interests were shared between student and teacher. S09 had no events in this code. The remaining schools had values between 3 and 6 percent.

4.2.3 Metalinguistic explanation virtually gone in L1

The *metalinguistic explanation* function, is the one which changed most distinctly in my analysis from 2015-17. In 2019-21, *metalinguistic explanation* only encompasses 1% of L1 use for all schools combined, whereas in 2015-17 this value was 17%. This function encompasses instances in which linguistics like grammar or pronunciation are discussed. The following two excerpts (4J and 4K) depict examples of this function from two different schools.

Excerpt 4J: Example of *metalinguistic explanation* at S50.

Teacher (S50): *Her er det do. For hvis det hadde vært entall, så hadde det vært does. [Here it is «do». Because if it had been singular, it would have been "does"]*

Excerpt 4K: Example of *metalinguistic explanation* at S51.

Student (S51): *Når bruker man everybody og når bruker man everyone? [When do you use «everybody» and when do you use «everyone»?]*
Teacher (S51): *Der *i teksten* er det everybody. [There *in the text* it is «everybody».]*

Excerpt 4J illustrates an example in which a teacher is instructing a student on conjugation of the verb "to do", explaining how plurality plays a role in doing so. Excerpt 4K is a little different, as it is prompted by a student inquiring about propriety of term choice. The teacher

does not respond with an explicit explanation but uses the teaching materials they are using to provide a correct example the student can then model after.

As shown in Figure 4.5 above, the distribution of *metalinguistic explanation* between schools revealed the function only occurred in the L1 in high-frequency Norwegian classrooms (S50 and S51). In both S50 and S51 *metalinguistic explanation* only accounts for 1% of L1 use.

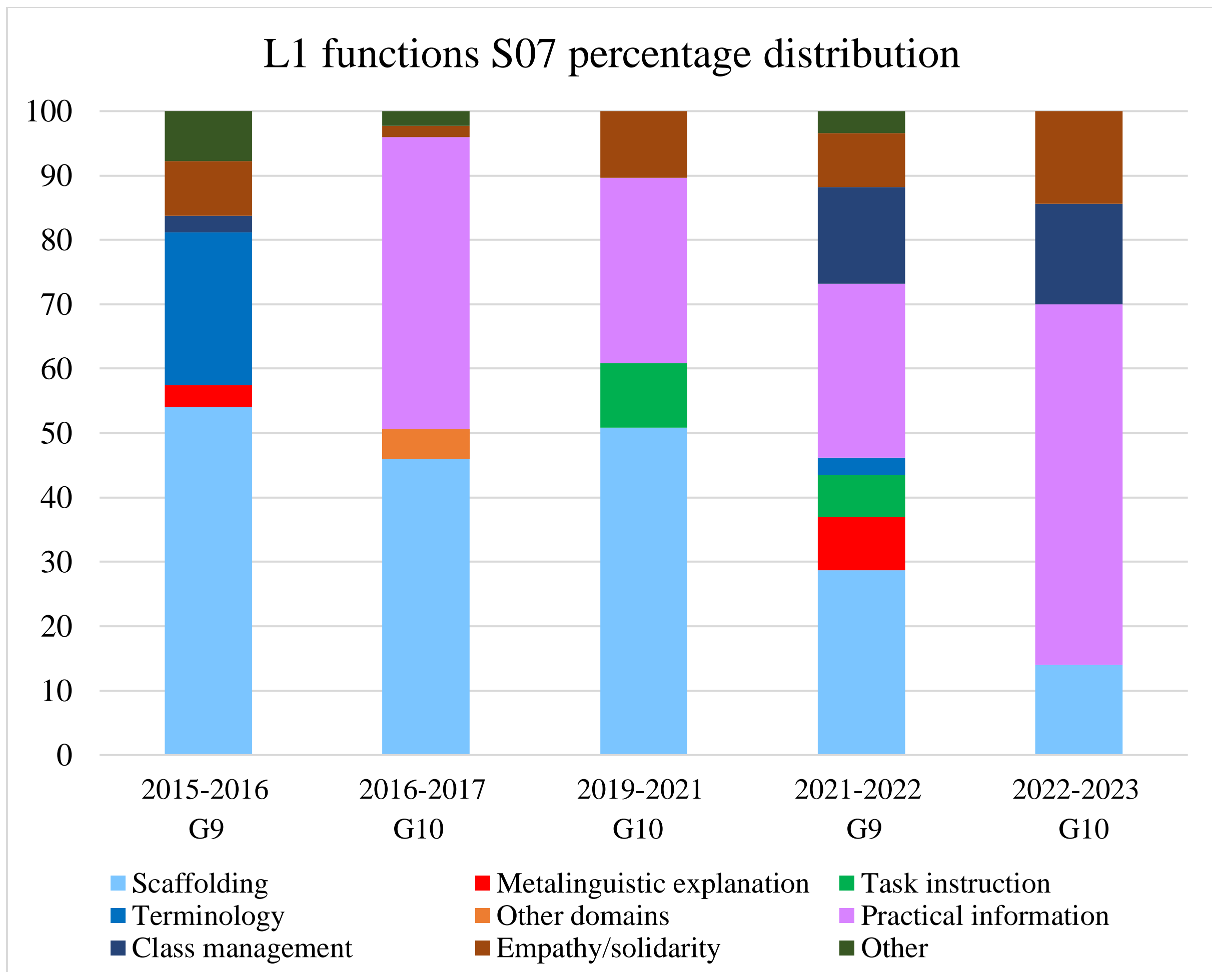
4.3 Differentiation between grades in S07 L1 functions

In this section, I will provide a closer examination of S07, which provided English lesson data for LISE in all three rounds of the project. In 2015-17 and 2021-23 data was collected from grades 9 and 10, whilst in 2019-21 data was only collected from grade 10. In the English lesson data from S07 the same teacher was filmed each time, providing a unique opportunity for case study over time.

In S07, L1 functions are distributed between a higher number of functions in grade 9 than grade 10. Grade 9 data was collected with a six-year gap, yet the same pattern can be identified. Figure 4.6 below shows that grade 10 data from S07 suggests L1 use is distributed between four functions on this level of schooling (excluding *other*). Although we only have 10th grade data from 2019-21, it fits the pattern suggesting distribution between fewer functions in 10th grade as only four are identified.

Figure 4.6

Percentage distribution of L1 functions in S07 for all rounds of LISE, indicated by year, divided by grades (G = grade) nine and ten.



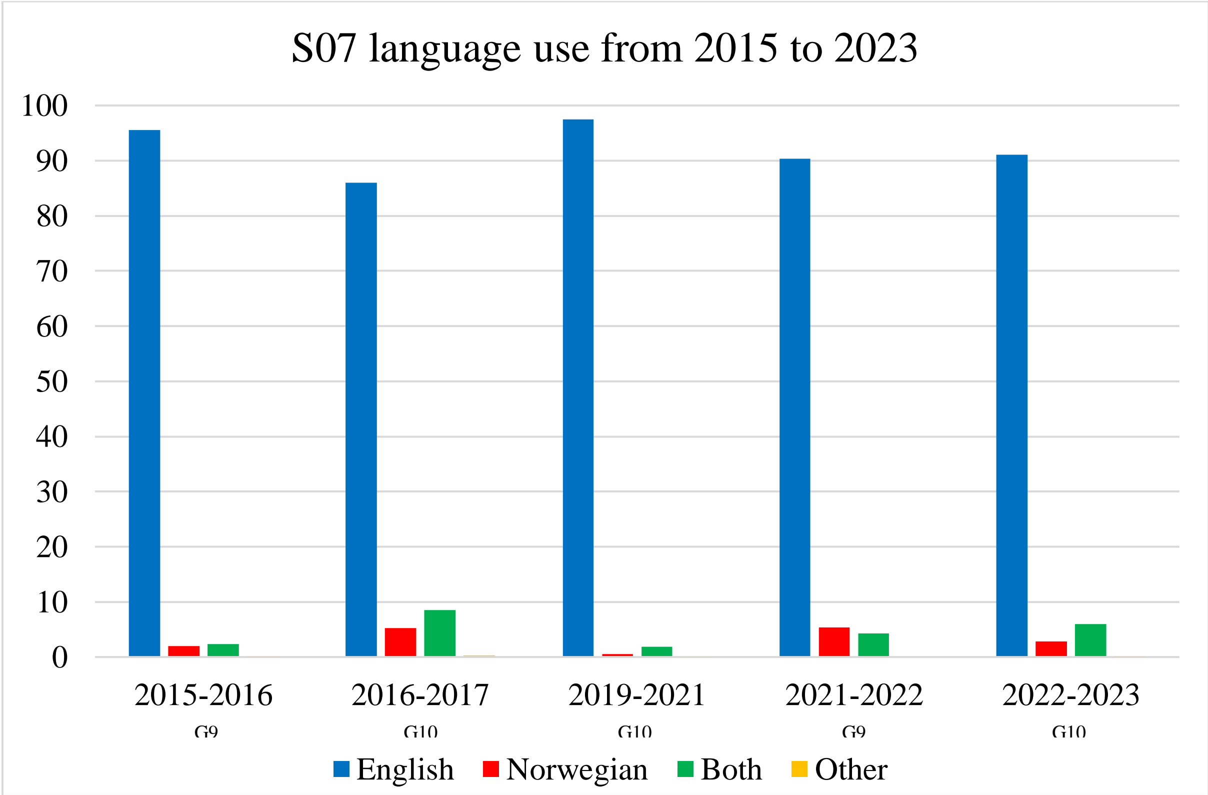
In all three grade 10 classrooms at S07, three of the four functions are common between them, namely *scaffolding, practical information,* and *empathy/solidarity*. The fourth function varied: 2016-17 *other domains*, 2019-21 *task instruction*, 2022-23 *class management*. The three aforementioned functions the S07 10th grades have in common correspond to three of the four largest overall functions for 2019-21 (*scaffolding* 55%, *practical information* 13%, *task instruction* 12%, *empathy/solidarity* 10%).

Figure 4.6 also shows that *metalinguistic explanation,* which decreased from 17% in 2015-17 to 1% in 2019-21, only appears in data from grade 9 at S07. This is yet another example of differentiation between grades. Additionally, since 2019-21 data was only collected in grade 10, this pattern suggest that results for this function might have been affected if grade 9 data was present for those years as well.

Considering how more L1 functions were represented in grade 9, on could assume that L1 use is higher in grade 9 as well. Figure 4.7 below shows that this is not the case.

Figure 4.7

Percentage distribution of languages spoken in S07 in all rounds of LISE indicated and divided by year of data collection and grades (G = grade).



There are slight differences between grades, however, these do not follow a pattern related to grade level suggesting that these adaptations are likely related to something else. In 2015-17, grade 9 had 2% Norwegian and grade 10 had 5% Norwegian. In 2019-21, grade 10 had 1% Norwegian. In 2021-23, grade 9 had 5% Norwegian and grade 10 had 3% Norwegian. Grade 9 therefore has Norwegian use of 2-5% and grade 10 has 1-5% making them equal.

Moreover, S07 remains a strongly high-frequency English classroom for both grade levels, which suggests a tendency for language use in this classroom across a minimum of eight years.

5.0 Discussion

The findings presented in the previous chapter indicated consistency in language use and functions of language use over time and across classrooms. I found that English seems to be the dominant language during English lessons, and overall language use across classrooms in 2019-21 largely resembles that of 2015-17. Similarly to 2015-17, there was variation in language use between schools in 2019-21 which led to classrooms being labelled as either high-frequency English or high-frequency Norwegian. Although some schools kept their respective labels from 2015-17, some did not, suggesting that variation in language use across schools did not follow the teacher nor the school. The previous chapter also showed that functions of L1 use had not changed substantially from 2015-17 to 2019-21 apart from one function which stood out clearly, namely *metalinguistic explanation.* Furthermore, data from S07 revealed a possible differentiation between grade levels when it came to the number of L1 functions used. Although the amount of L1 remained the same for grades 9 and 10, more functions were in use in grade 9 than grade 10. Based on these findings, I will argue that teachers' language practices seem to be based on their professional judgment about their students' needs. In this chapter I will discuss the main findings considering theory and previous research presented in Chapter 2 in order to investigate my research question:

> *What characterizes use of L1 in five L2 English lower secondary classrooms in Norway over time?*

Throughout this chapter, I will discuss the participating teachers' language use, particularly their L1 use, regarding the amount but also its function in the classroom. Comparing my analyses of observation data from 2019-2021 and 2021-2023 to the findings in Brevik and Rindal (2020) provides the opportunity to investigate language use over time. Norway has released and implemented a new school curriculum (LK20) since Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study, adding the changing learning aims of the English school subject in Norway as an element to the discussion.

In order to discuss the findings of this study thematically, I have divided my main findings into themes which correspond: Language use (5.1), L1 functions (5.2) and the role of the teacher (5.3).

5.1 Language use

This study found that English was the dominant language in the sampled L2 English classrooms. Prior research has shown that English is the dominant language in L2 English classrooms, aligning with the aforementioned finding. Explanations for this include that it is due to assumptions and views regarding appropriate language use to maximize L2 language learning (Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012). Still, language use might vary greatly between classrooms (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). The findings of the present study align with these statements, as this study found English to be the clearly dominant language even though there was notable variation in language use between classrooms.

5.1.1 A general pattern for language use

This MA study found that English was used extensively by all teachers and was the dominant language in all participating classrooms. English was used 55-98% of the time with a total of English use at 81% across classrooms. This aligns with Brevik and Rindal's (2020) 2015-17 finding that English was used 77% of the time across classrooms. A key result for the present study was the Norwegian use across classrooms, which came out at 16% just like in Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study. Producing the same result for spoken Norwegian in 2019-21 as in 2015-17 could point to for a general pattern of language use in lower secondary English classrooms. Furthermore, this is strengthened by there being teacher changes across as well as within schools between times of data collection.

5.1.2 Language approaches across classrooms

The findings suggest that the nature of variation in language practices between high-frequency English and high-frequency Norwegian classrooms is a mono- versus bilingual approach. The high-frequency English classrooms, with the exception of S17, exhibit language use which resembles the principles of the monolingual approach, a derivative of the direct method (Cummins, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012). In these classrooms the students are given considerable exposure to the target language through immersion, reflecting a monolingual approach to language use (Brevik et al., 2020; Cummins, 2008; Ellis, 1997; Hall & Cook, 2012). S17, though a high-frequency English classroom with 79% English use, uses more L1 than the other high-frequency English classrooms at 16% Norwegian use as opposed to 1-2%. S17 students

were also immersed in the target language and encouraged to use the L2 on occasion, but L1 use seemed a more integrated part of the teaching here. The S17 teacher made use of all L1 functions but one, suggesting a less restrictive approach to the L1 than the other high-frequency English classrooms which only made use of about half of the L1 functions. therefore, one might argue that although a high-frequency English classroom, language use in S17 resembles a bilingual approach to a larger degree than other classrooms within the same category, whilst also sharing attributes with the monolingual approach. This indicates that although the monolingual approach might be on a downward trajectory (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022), it is still practiced in Norwegian schools.

The high-frequency Norwegian classrooms divide the spoken time more evenly between the L1 and the L2, consistent with a bilingual approach to language use. Such an approach is believed to be best suited for teaching for transfer (Cummins, 2008), meaning enabling students to access their full cognitive abilities, as well as their identities, in both the L1 and the L2. Students in the high-frequency Norwegian classrooms in this study were also substantially exposed to the target language, but to a lesser degree than the high-frequency English classroom which, as shown, were largely monolingual. Research suggests that languages do not exist separately in the mind for bilingual and multilingual speakers, suggesting that a language approach which prohibits the use of L1 has the potential to create a disconnect for learners in how they use language in and out of school (Brevik, 2019a; García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014; Li Wei & Wu, 2009). This is not to say the high-frequency English classrooms in this study create this disconnect, as they do employ other languages beyond the L2. Simultaneously, the high-frequency Norwegian classrooms in this study use Norwegian nearly half the time which some might argue is too much. Nearly 50% L1 could indeed be excessive and arguably less strategic use of the L1 than 1-2% as in the high-frequency English classrooms.

English is a mandatory school subject in Norway. Therefore, one could argue that all students in Norway are bilingual because Norwegian is the language of schooling and English is taught from grade 1. Additionally, many students choose an additional language in grade 8. Norway is also a multicultural society with immigrants of different generations as well as families with mixed nationalities. In 2023, 19,9% of the Norwegian population is either immigrant or Norwegian-born of immigrant parents (Statistics Norway, 2023). Moreover, the population's linguistic profile has approximately 220 languages represented (Svendsen, 2021). In which case, a student might be speaking up to several languages at home that are neither Norwegian

nor English. In sum, bilingual and multilingual speakers are more common than not in the Norwegian context. Therefore, one could argue that the possible disconnect between school and the rest of life that a monolingual approach to language learning can create, is particularly unfortunate in most modern societies which reflect this linguistically diverse demographic. Furthermore, this suggests that languages other than the L1 and L2 which are included in students' linguistic repertoires should also be given a place in the classroom. As this study has shown, and will continue to show, the language practices in the classroom are largely directed by the teacher. Therefore, providing teachers with tools to use other languages than the L1 and L2 strategically could benefit students' target language learning.

Although instances of other languages than L1 and L2 occurred in several classrooms, they appeared too particular to the given context to be indicative of a multilingual tendency. This aligns with findings by Tveiten (2019) who showed that the LISE teachers he interviewed did not convey any reflections about "a multilingual alternative to the dichotomy of English and Norwegian in the classroom" (Tveiten, 2019, p. 70). Furthermore, instances of other languages mostly had non-academic functions solidifying their role outside the teachers' conscious language practices for second language acquisition. Additionally, the languages referenced in the data which were not L1 Norwegian or L2 English were high-status languages like French, German and Spanish which are offered as separate school subjects in Norway. This mostly aligns with findings from Brevik and Rindal (2020), although they also found some Arabic use. Such multilingual references rarely prompted students to draw on their own linguistic repertoires beyond the L1 and the L2, further suggesting a possible limited use of strategic multilingualism in the participating teachers' language approaches.

The use of English as the dominant language is not odd in an L2 English lesson and is possibly connected to the use of English as a language of communication as well as instruction. If that is the case, it promotes language use in authentic situations aiding students in developing their communicative competence, which the national curriculum emphasizes. Although English is dominant in this context, the question remains why virtually no other languages than Norwegian are used. This could be linked to status among languages. There is a hierarchy among languages (Røyneland et al., 2018). Such a linguistic hierarchy poses a possible threat for discrimination if it reflects differences pertaining to socioeconomic status or cultural background. In the L2 English classrooms in Norway, English has a high status pertaining to its position as a lingua franca and as the language of instruction. Norwegian does not necessarily hold a higher status

than English in the L2 English classroom but does perhaps have higher status than other languages as it is the language of schooling (Beiler, 2019).

5.2 L1 functions

Similarly to overall language use, the findings from the analysis of L1 functions in the 2019-21 data revealed largely the same results as in Brevik and Rindal (2020), with only a few exceptions. As argued above regarding language use, the repeated pattern of L1 functions indicates a possible consensus among teachers for the purpose of the L1 in the L2 English classroom. The most noticeable developments from 2015-16 to 2017-19 were to the functions *metalinguistic explanation* and *empathy/solidarity. Metalinguistic explanation* decreased to 1% in 2019-21 from 17% in 2015-17 and *empathy/solidarity* increased to 10% in 2019-21 from 2% in 2015-17.

5.2.1 Decreasing function: explicit grammar instruction on a downward trajectory?

Metalinguistic explanation decreased considerably from 17% in 2015-17 (Brevik & Rindal, 2020) to 1% in 2019-21. There is a possibility for randomness in this finding, for instance there could have been a lesson on grammar after the conclusion of filming in which this function would likely have been used more frequently. However, according to studies from K-12 classrooms, four consecutive lessons provide "sufficient information to obtain a first overview of teaching quality" (Klette et al., 2017, p.10). In both the present study and Brevik and Rindal (2020), 4-5 consecutive lessons were filmed at each school. Although no definite claims can be made about what is included and what is not in the lessons which do become part of research, the general pattern that emerges from the data across time suggests that minor differences from 2015-16 to 2017-19 warrants discussion.

Setting aside the possibility of coincidence, there are several possible explanations for the decrease in this function. First, the presence of metalinguistic explanations in the L2 English classroom does not need to have decreased or disappeared as a whole even though it is not occurring in the L1. Rather, they could be occurring in the L2 to a greater degree than before. Second, the topics and tasks discussed in the video recorded lessons might not facilitate for much metalinguistic explanation. Third, attitudes towards the necessity of *metalinguistic*

explanation might have developed. As stated above, no conclusions can be drawn from this data material alone, but it is possibly a fruitful avenue to explore in future research.

The *terminology* function is perhaps the one which is most closely related to *metalinguistic explanation,* and *terminology* also decreased in 2019-21. This might indicate that formal language teaching is occurring in English to a higher degree now than in the past but could also simply be a product of the particular topics discussed in the sampled lessons. This is transferable to the increase of the *scaffolding* function as well. In 2015-17 *scaffolding* was 40% of L1 use, and in 2019-21 it increased to 55%. Classroom activities which were occurring in my sample facilitated for *scaffolding* more so than *metalinguistic explanation* and *terminology*. If classroom activates had not facilitated for *scaffolding* it would not necessarily have increased by 15%.

Research has showed that explicit grammar instruction should preferably linked to a specific teaching aim or prompt to have a positive impact, because standing alone it is not found to have much of an effect (Andrews et al., 2006; Myhill et al., 2012). The findings of the present study related to the decrease of functions like *metalinguistic explanation* and *terminology* could be indicative that such teaching is occurring to a lesser degree, at least in the L1. The fact that explicit grammar teaching still occurs, could be linked to the persistence of the monolingual approach to language use. Both of these could be examples of ideals from previous learning paradigms such as the monolingual ideal. The monolingual ideal is connectable to the grammar-translation method and the direct method (Cummins, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012). The former aimed to use the abstract rules of a language to teach it, whereas the latter aimed to emulate the way in which people learn their L1s (Brevik et al., 2020). The grammar-translation method thereby advocates explicit grammar teaching as the premier way to facilitate target language learning and the direct method advocates for immersion in the target language inspiring English-only or the monolingual approach. Although current research indicates neither of these methods to be ideal, they persist in the classroom (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022). The findings of this study indicate that the grammar-translation method and with-it explicit grammar teaching might be on a downward trajectory in the L1.

5.2.2 Increasing function: teacher support for students on an upward trajectory both academically and socially?

Scaffolding has had a notable increase from 40% in 2015-17 (Brevik & Rindal, 2020) to 55% in 2019-21, remaining the largest L1 function and now encompassing more than half of L1 use across LISE classrooms. This aligns with prior research related to effective use of L1 in L2 classrooms (Grim, 2010; Krulatz et al., 2016; Lee & Macaro, 2013) which deem *scaffolding* to be helpful in the L1. *Scaffolding* is an academic function which focuses on interactions which aid student comprehension, often prompted by student questions but also woven into the teaching. This function was present in all classrooms in this study, but to varying degrees, encompassing 20-80% of L1 use. Still, its appearance to such a considerable degree in all classrooms suggests *scaffolding* is perceived as an appropriate and effective function for L1 use by teachers, aligning with principles of efficient teaching developed from research.

Empathy/solidarity increased from 2% in 2015-17 (Brevik & Rindal, 2020) to 10% in 2019-21. Previous research has identified that establishing and developing student-teacher relationships through personal communication are common functions of L1 use in target language classrooms (Edstrom, 2006; Grim, 2010). Such interactions are encompassed by the *empathy/solidarity* function of the present study. This finding aligns with previous research, which has identified increased frequency for this function. However, Brevik and Rindal (2020) found that evidence for such language use was limited. They attribute the limited evidence to the high English proficiency levels of students in Norway, which in turn makes it possible for students to mediate their identities in English (Brevik & Rindal, 2020) therein limiting the need for the L1 in personal communication. The discrepancy between findings from 2019-21 and 2015-17 could be explained by teacher differentiation as there were considerable variation in the use of the *empathy/solidarity* function between classrooms. This study found that the *empathy/solidarity* function comprised 0-26% of L1 use across all schools. Also, variation between S07 classrooms across rounds of data collection showed 2-14% of this function. Collectively this suggests that, much like language use itself, teachers differentiate the use of *empathy/solidarity* in the L1 according to their perception of student needs.

5.3 The role of the teacher

As this study is focused on teachers' role in the classroom, it is worth considering in more detail. According to Tveiten (2019), the different roles a teacher might possess or perceive to possess, could influence their language choices. One of the teachers in Tveiten's (2019) study separated their duties as an English teacher and in classroom management into two separate roles. The teacher suggested that they used the L1 for classroom management in order to appear more sincere, alluding to more bilingual principles for language use (Tveiten, 2019). This study found the same teacher to practice in a high-frequency English classroom, but with more Norwegian use than other classrooms in the same category which aligns with more bilingual principles for language use. It is typical for bilinguals or multilinguals to draw on all the languages they know in a communicative setting as this is a characteristic of multilinguals' language use (Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Cook, 2001; Edstrom, 2006). Therefore, we should expect L2 English teacher to do the same. Such language practices could help to avoid the separation of language use in and out of school which a monolingual approach could create, as research has shown that bilingual and multilingual speakers do not separate the languages they know in everyday communication outside the school context (Brevik, 2019a; García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014; Li Wei & Wu, 2009). This study found limited evidence of such language use, as languages other than Norwegian and English were used less than 1% of the time. Even L1 use was limited to 1-2% in some classrooms. As outlined previously, there was considerable variation between classrooms and some used the L1 close to 50% of the time. Although there are good reasons to draw on students' L1, and other languages they may know, the lessons in this sample are ones which exemplify good reasons to use English as the medium of instruction. Therefore, using the L1 close to half of teaching time is perhaps not the most strategic choice, nor is banning the L1 from the L2 classroom.

Another role for teachers which Tveiten (2019) identified amongst his participants was the *form-teacher role* (Tveiten, 2019, p. 71), which the participant teacher connected to a closer personal relationship with the student for whom they were the form teacher. A form teacher (in Norwegian: kontaktlærer) is a teacher with the responsibility of managing the relationship between school and home for a set group of students. This teacher, who also appears in the present study (S07), also related the form teacher role to a connection with students' experience of the school day. Although such an interaction would fall under a non-academic categorization, the S07 teacher still had these conversations with students about their days etc. in English.

Tveiten (2019) found that this teacher had a monolingual language ideal. The present study found this teacher to have a monolingual approach to language use in the classroom, which aligns with Tveiten (2019). The present study also found that this teacher made considerable use of the *empathy/solidarity* function (10%) which aligns with the teacher's own perception of the form-teacher role. It is not clear if the S07 teacher was the form-teacher for the students in the 2019-21 data, but if so it would align with Tveiten's (2019) findings outlined above in this paragraph. If not, it might indicate that the principles the teacher associates the form-teacher role with, could influence their approach to other students as well.

5.3.1 Teacher autonomy in LK20

In the national curriculum in Norway (LK20), teachers are given autonomy regarding choice of content and methods for teaching according to the competence aims (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). This is consistent with the variation between individual teachers' language choices across classrooms uncovered in the present study as well as in Brevik and Rindal (2020). Variation in language use occur across and within classrooms in this study, which suggests that teachers make choices about language use based on their perception of student needs and/or proficiency. LK20 recognizes teachers as uniquely qualified based on their profession and placement to make decisions about how to teach and assess their students in the manner most prudent. Teachers are to make these decisions about their practice, including language use, based upon their knowledge of the curriculum, their expertise in their respective fields and the needs of their students, which is consistent with the findings of this study.

In the English subject curriculum as well as the core curriculum, it explicitly says that students should experience that knowing several languages is a strength (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017; NDET, 2019). An important premise for this is the students being able to access and use their full linguistic repertoires in the classroom, which it could be wise for the teacher facilitate for. This study found that although teachers made references to languages other than the L1 and L2, this rarely prompted students to do the same. Although such references to other languages did occur, the overall language approaches in the participating classrooms were not multilingual. This could indicate that in order for students to engage with multilingual references using their full linguistic repertoires, they must be part of the overall language practice or strategy of the teacher.

One of the competence aims in the English subject curriculum (NDET, 2019) says that students should compare English to other languages linguistically and be able to describe these differences, in line with the overall emphasis of multilingualism as a strength. The competence aim does not specify which languages, i.e. this is not limited to the comparison of English (L2) and Norwegian (L1). The present study only has data from one school (S07) after the implementation of LK20 in which this competence aim was introduced. This study found that language use follows the same pattern for language use as outlined throughout the rest of this chapter, and other languages than L1 and L2 were used less than 1% of the time. This suggests that this competence aim might be taught in a way that does not influence the language practices of the teacher at S07. There is an argument to be made in favor of modeling this comparison of languages to the students if one regards the teacher as a model of appropriate language use. As a multilingual speaker themselves, teachers of English in Norway could draw on their complete linguistic repertoire as they are teaching. In doing so they signal to the students that drawing on other languages is appropriate which might make them more inclined to do so themselves (Beiler, 2019; Brevik et al., 2020). Moreover, this could help them experience knowing several languages as a resource, as well as comparing the languages they know to English. Additionally, LK20 emphasizes differentiation as an integral part of the teaching of any subject. Differentiation is also relevant to this study as one way to differentiate is to draw on students' life worlds. This includes their linguistic experiences and repertoires.

5.3.2 Teacher cognition in language choice

According to Tishakov and Tsagari (2022), teachers do not adopt a language ideology as a set entity but draw influence from "various ideological structures and belief and all interrelated contextual levels, and they form their own dynamic belief system that guides their classroom practices" (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022, p.15). The sum of experiences a teacher has with the target language in and out of school, as a student, student teacher and teacher, will all influence their classroom practices, herein language use. These experiences will vary between individuals, as seen in the variation in language practices shown in this study.

Regardless of how much English was used, teachers at every school encouraged students to use English in the classroom. Tveiten (2019) found that the S07 teacher had a "monolingual language ideal" (Tveiten, 2020, p. 68) supported by their tendency to both enforce and encourage English use in the classroom. This teacher conveyed the monolingual approach as

their desired strategy for language use, teachers in Tishakov and Tsagari's (2022) study reported that they were "unable or unwilling to escape the influence of monolingual language ideologies in their teaching practices" (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022, p. 13). The long-standing dominance of such ideologies in society as well as language education might have contributed to rooting such beliefs in teachers' core beliefs which are bound to influence their teaching practices (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022). This could also explain that although the wording of LK20 emphasizes the benefits of multilingualism in the classroom, the monolingual approach is on a downward trajectory only slightly within the scope of the LISE project.

Although much weight has been placed on the advantages of bilingual and multilingual approaches in this discussion, there is an argument to be made in this case for the benefits of output. Output is believed to push learners to "process language more deeply" (Swain, 2000, p. 99), whereas input can be defined as "the samples of language to which a learner is exposed" (Ellis, 1997, p. 5). The quantities of both output and input are often a key argument in favor of the monolingual approach (Barreng, 2021). Output in the target language is integral for language learning because it is also an integral part of language use (Ortega, 2009), additionally output is believed to contribute to language acquisition directly (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Therefore, encouragements from teachers to students about using the target language, as mentioned above, are an important aspect of L2 English learning. However, theory does not imply that the presence of other languages in target language teaching impedes the facilitation for output, and language learning by extension, in the classroom.

5.3.3 Grade level differentiation

This study found that the S07 teacher differentiates the amount of L1 functions used based on grade level and student proficiency by extension. According to findings from Tveiten (2019) and Rindal (in review), the language practices of the S07 teacher are predictable and consistent to the students. This claim is supported by Brevik and Rindal (2020). In 2015-17 the S07 teacher was interviewed, and their students were given a survey. Findings from the interview and surveys show that what the teacher aims to do in terms of language use matches what the students perceive that the teacher is doing.

The findings related to functions of the L1 across classrooms at S07 indicate the teacher differentiating between grade levels. More of the LISE L1 functions were used in grade 9 than

in grade 10 (see Figure 4.6). Considering this, one could assume differentiation in language use, L1 specifically. However, findings for language use across S07 classrooms indicate similar practices in both grades 9 and 10. This means that although more L1 functions were used in grade 9, there was not more spoken time spent on the L1. This finding supports the argument that teachers make decisions about their language practices based on the students' needs.

In the overall analysis L1 functions across schools in this study, *metalinguistic explanation* was found to have decreased from 17 % in 2015-17 to 1% in 2019-21. In S07, the teacher only made use of this function in grade 9. Possibly, this teacher has identified the need for such a function to be present in grade 9 but not grade 10. Though data for such differentiation of the *metalinguistic explanation* function only exists for S07, this could be indicative of a cause for the overall results for the function's decreased value, as 2019-21 data only comes from grade 10. Regardless, this differentiation of L1 function suggests that the teacher makes choices about their practices based on perceived student needs.

6.0 Conclusion

This MA thesis has shown that teachers' language use during English lessons might be determined by choices made by the teacher to which there is an intuition or pattern. This claim is based on consistency in language use and functions of language use over time and across classrooms, as shown throughout this MA thesis. The findings of the present study confirm those of a previous study by Brevik and Rindal (2020), and a closer examination of the variation between classrooms revealed that such variation is tied to the individual teacher. Developments in the distribution of L1 functions across time suggest that the teachers' choices are made strategically in order to respond to students' needs, which confirms a hypothesis made by Brevik & Rindal (2020).

The language choices made during English lessons are not dictated by the national curriculum (LK20), which provides the teacher with a great deal of autonomy. Teacher education does not govern language choices during English lessons either, though influence might be originating here in a greater degree than the curricula. According to Tishakov and Tsagari (2022), teacher beliefs and cognition are influenced by the sum of their experiences with L2 English including their years as school children all the way up to teacher education, practice placement teaching and later their own professional careers as educators. Research (e.g., ref) suggests the greatest influence on teacher choices about language practices is the perception of student needs, which is supported by findings in the present study where the S07 teacher differentiates L1 functions according to the level of schooling.

This study found that teachers had monolingual or bilingual approaches to language use in which all teachers encouraged and/or enforced the use of the L2 to some degree. Prior research suggests that although there is variation between classrooms, the monolingual approach to language use has been dominant in L2 English instruction in Norway (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022). In this study, data from only one school (S07) is from after the implementation of the current curriculum (LK20) in 2020. The teacher at this school reported in a study by Tveiten (2019) that they had a monolingual approach to language use in the classroom. LK20 emphasizes multiculturalism overall but also in the English subject (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017; NDET, 2019). Students are supposed to experience knowing several languages as a strength (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017) and they are also supposed to compare English to other languages (NDET, 2019). LK20 says these other languages should include all

the languages the student knows, meaning this is not limited to comparison with Norwegian (L1).

6.1 Didactic implications

Considering the debate of L1 in the L2 classroom, there are no right answers pertaining to language use in the classroom, though some answers are perhaps supported to a greater degree by recent research. The English subject curriculum does not explicitly provide guidelines for language use, though elements outlined in Section 2.4 indicate an endorsement of multilingualism. Specifically, the curriculum references that students are supposed to experience that knowing several languages is a resource in their learning, and they are supposed to compare English to other languages. The wording of the latter specifies this to include all the languages a student may know, which means it is not limited to Norwegian. Tishakov and Tsagari (2022) highlight schools as "a key platform for the promotion of multilingualism as a resource in learning and across society and must work to stop the reproduction of standard monolingual ideologies" (p. 15). The main aim remains to build students' communicative competence in the target language, in which teachers have autonomy with regards to content and methods. This includes language choice, which requires teacher awareness about said choice in order to best benefit student learning.

The findings of this study indicate that there is a general pattern of language use among L2 English teachers across classrooms and schools, as overall language use and functions of L1 remained largely the same from 2015-17 to 2019-21. Furthermore, the findings indicate that teachers make decisions about their language practices based on their perception of student needs. This is because language use was not consistent with the same teacher or school, indicating the students as the influencer. Arguably, this indicates teachers are using the L1 in the way theory suggests, i.e. as needed by students. In turn, this means teachers make decisions about their practices quite dynamically. If teachers are to make such decisions, they need knowledge of theory and research in order to make strategic choices. Elements of such training exist in current teacher education and should, based on the findings of the present study and others, continue through the execution of the teaching profession. This is perhaps most critical in connection to the strategic use of languages other than the L1 and L2, as findings of this study indicate limited evidence of such, and the curriculum arguably requires it.

6.2 Suggestions for future research

Language use in the L2 English classroom in Norway has been studied through various perspectives. Still, it is not an exhausted avenue for research. The implementation of a new national curriculum in 2020 gives reason to investigate further. As discussed on several occasions throughout this thesis, LK20 emphasizes multiculturalism and the entirety of a students' linguistic repertoire being given space and attention in the classroom. My study only has data from one classroom after the implementation of LK20, and it would certainly be interesting to see a study with more LK20 classrooms in order to investigate whether language practices become more multilingual.

I argue that teachers make choices about their language use, in which choices the students are the likely influencers. This study found that language practices varied considerably. Tishakov and Tsagari (2022) highlight how the sum of a teacher's experiences with language throughout life forms their beliefs which influence choices about their teaching practice. It would be interesting to investigate how teachers make these choices. Such a study could involve interviews or surveys with the LISE teachers in combination with observation. The researcher could, for example, use video or other observation data as artefact in interviews with the teachers in order to investigate the correspondence between teacher practice and teacher cognition. This resembles what Tveiten (2019) did in his MA thesis. In Tveiten's (2019) study only two teachers were sampled, therefore a study with a larger sample could provide valuable insights. It could also be interesting to explore the sum of the teacher's experiences which Tishakov and Tsagari (2022) refer to, as this is supposed to influence the teachers' language choices and practices. A survey could be distributed to teachers regarding their experiences with language use in their own schooling, practice placements and so on, and view these against the participating teachers' actual language use in the classroom. Such studies could contribute to the field of English didactics by providing a more complete picture of language use by investigating the reasons behind the choices a teacher might make in this regard.

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