Master's thesis

NTNU
Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Faculty of Humanities
Department of Language and Literature

Fard, Sahand Mahmoudi

Teaching English as a third language at upper secondary school

A qualitative study based on interviews of five English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools

Master's thesis in MLSPRÅK
Supervisor: Dahl, Anne
May 2019

NTNU
Norwegian University of Science and Technology

Fard, Sahand Mahmoudi

Teaching English as a third language at upper secondary school

A qualitative study based on interviews of five English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools

Master's thesis in MLSPRÅK
Supervisor: Dahl, Anne
May 2019

Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Faculty of Humanities
Department of Language and Literature

Sammendrag

Nyere forskning på undervisning av engelsk som et tredjespråk viser at bruk av elevenes morsmål i engelskundervisning er til fordel for elevenes læringsprosess. Det er imidlertid gjort få studier i dette i norsk kontekst. Denne studien undersøker hvordan engelsklærere på videregående skoler opplever å undervise engelsk som et tredjespråk i engelsk som et tredjespråk til nylig ankomne ikke-vestlige innvandrere. Datamaterialet er samlet gjennom semistrukturerte kvalitative intervjuer. Resultatene viser at deltakerne ikke har blitt godt nok forberedt til å undervise engelsk som et tredjespråk, at deres læringsmetoder ikke er tilpasset tilstrømmingen av innvandrerelever til videregående skoler, og at innvandrerelever ikke er forberedt til vanlig undervisning i norske videregående skoler.

Abstract

Modern research on teaching English a third language has shown that utilization of L1 in instruction benefits the students' language learning process. However, few studies have been conducted in Norwegian contexts. This study aims to investigate how five English teachers at upper secondary schools experience teaching English as a third language to recently arrived non-western immigrant students. The data was collected through semi-structured qualitative interviews. The results show that the participants have not been adequately prepared to teach English as a third language, that their teaching methodology is not adapted to the influx of immigrant students at upper secondary schools and that the immigrant students are not prepared for regular English instruction at upper scondary schools in Norway.

Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I wish to thank my supervisor professor Anne Dahl for helping me throughout all the semesters I have worked on this thesis. She has lent a hand whenever I needed and has provided me with concise help and tips and answered all my questions whenever I have asked her. Without her, I would not be able to finish my thesis and I am forever grateful for all she has done for me, and the patience she has shown. She is truly my academic angel.

Secondly, I must thank my parents. Without them, I would not be able to collect the data for my interviews. Thank you, mom and dad, for lending me the cars whenever I needed to drive to my interviews.

I would also like to thank the participants of my study for taking time from their hectic lives as teachers to answer my questions. In addition to providing me the necessary data for the thesis, I have learned a lot from hearing your thoughts and opinions about many aspects of being a teacher.

Lastly, I wish to thank all my friends who have provided me with support and invaluable friendships. I am grateful all who have set aside time from their day to help me with the thesis, whether it be to provide feedback on sentences, paragraphs or chapters. Especially, I must thank Gustavo Góngora-Goloubintseff for helping me and answering all my questions regarding the thesis and academic writing.

With the submission of this thesis, I look forward to starting a new chapter in my life as *lektor*, albeit I will miss being a student. The student life has provided me with extensive life experience, timeless memories, and lifelong friends. Doing voluntary work has been a big element of my time as a student, and I would not be the person I am today without the time I have spent at Studentersamfundet.

Table of contents

1 Introduction

1.1 Background

In the past decade, there has been an increased number of non-western children and adolescents in European and Norwegian schools which has contributed to more culturally diverse classrooms (Bakken, 2003; Bakken & Hyggen, 2018; De Angelis, 2011). Ongoing conflicts in Asia and Africa created a migrant crisis for the European continent due to the substantial growth in the number of refugees and asylum seekers. As a result of the high number of recently arrived immigrants[1], the rapid increase of immigrant adolescents means that English is no more exclusively taught as a second language at Norwegian upper secondary schools, but also as a third language for a growing number of students. The present thesis defines *non-western* as Asia (including Turkey) and Africa as non-western continents. Although the term has been regarded as outdated due to political connotation (Høydahl, 2008), it is used in the present thesis mostly due to practical reasons in relation to the analysis of data.

Kachru's (1992) model of the three concentric circles is a standard model that provides a general visualization of the statuses the English language has in a nation: the inner circle, the outer circle, and the expanding circle. The inner circle includes nations where English is the native language, e.g. Great Britain. The outer circle represents nations where English is used as a second language at an institutional level due to colonization, e.g. India. The expanding circle illustrates nations where English is not the native language of the population but rather taught as a foreign language, e.g. continental Europe (Jessner, 2006). Increased multilingualism, as the outcome of globalization, challenges Kachru's (1992) placement of many European nations whose initial position is in the expanding circle. Among these are the Scandinavian countries where English is used as a language of communication internally and externally, and have unofficially adopted English as their second language (Jenkins, 2003; Jessner, 2006).

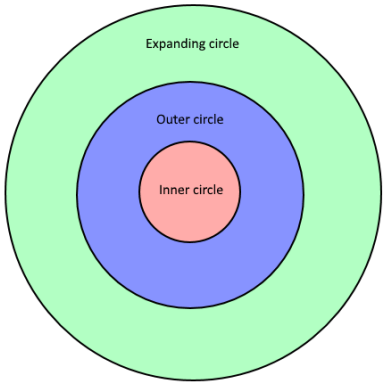


Figure 1: An illustration of Kachru's (1992) concentric circle model

[1] The Directorate for Education and Training (2012, p. 3) states that a definition of the time span of *recently arrived* should not be concretely dated, and that the term itself imply a certain time limit.

It is not an unusual phenomenon to speak or understand English as a second or third language in the world today or Europe in particular. English has gone from being a foreign language primarily used for international vocational communication, to become a language used for communication both inside and outside Norway (Nacey, 2013). English is no longer used daily exclusively by their native speakers. As a result of general high proficiency in European and Scandinavian nations, English is also used daily in countries where English has been adopted as an unofficial second language (Cenoz, 2003). Consequently, the "ownership" of English and to which extent only speakers from inner-circle countries are the default template for being a competent English speaker has been challenged by researchers on the field (e.g. Brutt-Griffler, 2010).

English is perceived as becoming increasingly common in daily use among young Norwegians compared to other foreign languages, e.g. German or French (Lambine, 2008) to the extent that it is "approaching the status of a second language" (Johansson, 2009 cited in Nacey, 2013). Norway is ranked "very high" in English proficiency and is in ranked fourth among 88 countries whose official L1 is not English (Education First, 2019). In addition, Norwegian 10th-graders are among those who have scored highest in linguistic and reading competence among European countries (Bonnet, 2004). Consequently, it can be a challenge for recently arrived immigrant students with no or little English education to meet the expectations English teachers have for their students at Norwegian upper secondary school. Although most Norwegian students learn English as a secondary language, English teachers in Norway should also be prepared to teach English as a third language because of the increased influx of immigrant adolescents.

1.2 Research questions

The studies conducted by Surkalovic (2014), as well as Dahl and Krulatz (2016), have been the primary inspiration for the current thesis (see section 2.3). The findings in Surkalovic' (2014) study indicate that in-training compulsory school teacher students are insufficiently prepared to teach English in multilingual classrooms. As a continuation, Dahl and Krulatz (2016) discovered that teachers at Norwegian compulsory school teachers do not feel prepared for the increased cultural diversity in their classrooms or to teach multilingual classes. Their study reveals that there is a need for "more knowledge and awareness about multilingualism" (translated, Dahl & Krulatz, 2016, p. 3) in Norwegian schools. To investigate this claim, the main research question designed for the current thesis is:

> *To which extent are English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools prepared to teach English as a third language to non-western students?*

In order to answer the main research question, the study is guided by three supplementary questions which will lead the discussion in chapter five:

1) *What are the thoughts and attitudes of English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools regarding teaching English as a third language to recently arrived immigrant students?*
2) *To which extent are the English teachers' practice and perception on multilingualism supported by existing language theories and research on the topic?*
3) *How can English teachers' perception of multilingualism and preparedness of teaching multilingual students affect multilingual students' learning outcome?*

1.3 Limitations of the study

Although the study showcases the reality of five English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools who teach English to multilingual students, the findings cannot be used as a general representation of all English teachers in Norway due to its small participant sample.

2 Theoretical framework

This chapter presents core topics in relation to teaching English as a third language to recently arrived immigrants. The chapter starts with introductions to how recently arrived immigrants are introduced to English at Norwegian upper secondary schools, previous research on teaching English as a third language from Norwegian and international contexts, and research on the use of the speakers' first language (L1[2]) in English foreign language (EFL) teaching. The last section of the chapter provides introductions to the definitions of multilingualism, including third language acquisition models and theories regarding how languages interact with each other. This chapter provides a theoretical background with which the results in chapter four will be discussed in chapter five.

2.1 The students' educational context

English is a core subject at compulsory school and in vg1 for all educational programs (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2008). The curriculum for English is heavily influenced by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Haukås, 2016). There are three common reference levels presented in the framework which are the basis for the competence aims for all curricula for the English subject in Norway: basic (A), intermediate (B) and advanced (C) (Council of Europe, 2011, pp. 21-42). The levels are further divided into two, e.g. A1 is lower basic level and A2 is higher basic level. The competence aims for vg1 for English are built on level B1. Students who are admitted to upper secondary schools are expected to have A2 to B1 proficiency in English, depending on the study program.

Recently arrived young immigrants to Norway may attend preparatory classes called *innføringsklasse* prior to entering regular classes. The preparatory classes are offered at two levels: compulsory school including lower secondary school, and upper secondary school (Directorate for Education and Training, 2012). However, all references to preparatory classes in the current thesis concern the upper secondary level exclusively. The preparatory class at upper secondary school includes up to six subjects including English, and the competence aims for the subjects at the preparatory class are based on curricula from compulsory school, i.e. tenth grade. The aim of the preparatory classes is primarily to prepare the students for regular education by focusing on developing Norwegian skills, including general and subject-specific vocabulary (see Rambøll, 2016, pp. 1-2). The secondary aim of the preparatory classes is to socially integrate the student. It is voluntary to accept the offer of preparatory classes granted by the Education Act §3-12 or to decline it and attend regular classes following Education Act §8-2 (Ministry of Education and Research, 1998).

Officially, attending the preparatory class officially counts as one year of the students' three years of right to education. However, each county can decide whether they wish to offer the course as a year 0 without spending any of the three years and if they wish to allow

[2] Correspondingly, L2 and L3 refer to second and third language.

the students to take the course up to two years instead of just one (Directorate for Education and Training, 2012; Ministry of Education and Research, 1998). At some schools, the English component in these courses is divided into different levels where the students can choose pathways according to their prior English knowledge. The ultimate aim is to raise the students' English competence to A2 or B1 at the end of the course (Akershus fylkeskommune, 2016). The Education Act §8-2 allows students to combine attendance at preparatory classes with regular English instruction and subsequently take the final exam (Rambøll, 2013; Thorshaug & Svendsen, 2014). The flexibility of combining preparatory class classes with regular instruction at upper secondary has shown to positively affect the students' social and academic integration (Rambøll, 2013).

Two comprehensive reports about recently arrived immigrant students at Norwegian upper secondary schools, by Thorshaug and Svendsen (2014) and Rambøll (2016), indicate that the preparatory classes do not always successfully prepare its students for English at vg1. Recently arrived immigrants experience English as one of the most challenging subjects because many have not had adequate formal education in English prior to their arrival in Norway (Rambøll, 2016). In addition, English teachers in vocational studies express that the English subject can be an "unnecessary barrier" (translated, Thorshaug & Svendsen, 2014, p. 82) toward the goal to graduation for recently arrived immigrants. The participants in the study by Thorshaug and Svendsen (2014) argues that no language knowledge beyond Norwegian is necessary to satisfactorily exercise the profession for which they are training at vocational studies. Consequently, the participants call for a system to make it easier for recently arrived immigrants to get exempt from the English subject. The participants have experienced situations where students did not receive their certificate of apprenticeship exclusively because they did not pass the English subject, which the participants believe is unwarranted (Thorshaug & Svendsen, 2014, p. 80).

2.2 Previous research on teaching English as an L3

There are few known studies on teaching English as a third language to recently arrived immigrants at upper secondary school in Norway. Thus, the current thesis presents three studies conducted in Norwegian contexts by Surkalovic (2014), Haukås (2016) and Dahl and Krulatz (2016), in addition to two relevant studies in international contexts. Although the Norwegian studies concern current and prospective teachers at compulsory and lower secondary school, they do nonetheless illuminate the absence of education targeted towards teaching students who have a different L1 than Norwegian.

Surkalovic (2014) investigated to which extent prospective compulsory teachers are prepared to teach English to students whose L1 is not Norwegian. The study revealed that most of the students in the compulsory school teacher education program do not possess the required knowledge and competence to teach English in a multilingual classroom (p. 15). Although she stresses that the participants of the study are still students in-training, Surkalovic (2014) is worried that the future English teachers at Norwegian compulsory school are insufficiently prepared for the potential linguistic diversity that the participants ultimately may encounter in class after graduation. In conclusion, Surkalovic' (2014) study reveals that the education program for compulsory teachers in Norway does not provide training directed towards teaching the growing number of students who do not have Norwegian as their L1.

The second study conducted in a Norwegian context is by Dahl and Krulatz (2016), who continued Surkalovic' (2014) study. Whereas Surkalovic (2014) study concerns *prospective* English teachers, Dahl and Krulatz (2016) investigated to which extent *current* English teachers at lower secondary schools feel prepared to work with children who have a different L1 than Norwegian. Dahl and Krulatz (2016) collected quantitative data based on the participants' self-reports from 176 English teachers and conducted focus interviews with four teachers from two different schools. Their research reveals that only 20% of the participants had training in relation to teaching non-Norwegian students, even though 67% felt prepared to work with them. The data also reveals that 70% of the participants wished for more knowledge regarding aspects of multilingualism and second language acquisition theory, and 85% of the participants expressed that they wanted more knowledge regarding teaching strategies for multicultural classrooms and access to resources related to adapted education. In addition, one of the participants specifically indicated that there is an inconsistency between research regarding teaching methods and how the methods work in practice (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016, p. 11). The findings by Surkalovic (2014) and (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016) have been a fundamental motivation for the research questions of the current thesis.

The third Norwegian study, conducted by Haukås (2016), discusses lower secondary school L3 teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and their pedagogical approach to L3 teaching. The study reveals that the participants make frequent use of their students' Norwegian (L1) and English knowledge (L2) when teaching L3, although they do not believe that being multilingual is automatically an advantage if the students are not also multilingually aware. Although the participants are positive to multilingualism, they are unaware of concrete benefits of being multilingual, other than that may be easier to learn new languages because one can see more connections (Haukås, 2016, p. 9). Consequently, the participants are hesitant to foster the students' multilingualism due to their limited knowledge about their students' L1.

One of the most recognized international studies within the field of teaching in multilingual classrooms is conducted by De Angelis (2011). Similar to the present study, De Angelis (2011) assesses teachers' beliefs on the role of prior language knowledge in learning a foreign language and the teaching practices that are used with multilingual students (p. 216). The study reveals that a large portion of the participants believes that frequent use of L1 delays the learning of English and that the use of home language can be a source of confusion for the immigrant student (p. 227). The participants are not familiar with how languages interact with each other, they do not utilize the students' heritage language and they have insufficient knowledge about why it can be useful to utilize the students' heritage language in class and how they can successfully utilize the students' L1 in their teaching. De Angelis (2011) shows through her research that the "presence of a large number of immigrant students in schools across Europe" (p. 217) creates a demand for teachers who recognizes the importance of understanding and acknowledging their students' heritage language.

Heyder and Schädlich (2014) investigated the beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy of German foreign language teachers at upper secondary school. They discovered that the participants are positive towards multilingual use in the classroom, but that most of the participants are hesitant to utilize their students' previous languages unless they are familiar with them. Although Heyder and Schädlich' (2014) study shares the same scope of the study as De Angelis (2011), Heyder and Schädlich (2014)

have expanded their participant sample to include teachers of all subjects and not only language teachers. Haukås (2016) believes that the contrastive findings between the two studies regarding the extent to which the participants are positive to use the students' L1 "may indicate that language teachers may have a higher awareness of multilingualism than teachers of other subjects do" (Haukås, 2016, p. 3).

2.3 The utilization of L1 in ELT-classrooms

English teachers in Norway use English and Norwegian as languages of instruction at upper secondary school. Depending on the study program, some teachers may expect their students to follow instruction exclusively in English. Tollefson (2007) criticizes an English-only approach to English language teaching, also known as the Direct Method, and advocates for using the students' L1 in the English classroom. He disapproves and criticizes policymakers and English language teaching professionals for promoting an English-only learning environment. Rather, he encourages them to advocate for using the English language learner's heritage language and culture in English language teaching (ELT). A proposition by Tollefson (2007) is that combining English language instruction with L1 maintenance could be an effective and beneficial method for teaching English. However, it is not given that all mother tongue teachers know English well enough to help the students with English.

Krashen (1996) argues that English-only instruction can be less constructive compared to literacy and schooling in L1. Particularly, he applies findings from research that argues *against* bilingual education as evidence *in favor of* it by referring to several cases where individuals have had success in second language acquisition (SLA) by virtue of L1 input (see Krashen, 1996, pp. 17-21). The three components he values as necessary for successful bilingual education are 1) previous knowledge about topics, which may be gained through the first language, 2) literacy in the first language and 3) competence in English. Krashen (1996) concludes by stating that the key to successful language education is comprehensible input.

Snow (1990) censures the educational policymakers' decision of promoting the use of Direct Method when teaching multilingual children in the U.S. In the same way as Krashen (1996) uses evidence against bilingualism as counterevidence, Snow (1990) disproves common arguments against the need of using the students' L1 in the classroom and rather advocates that using the students' native language in English language teaching maximizes achievement in English as well as the L1. In particular, she highlights three reasons for why acknowledging the students' heritage background is beneficial in an EFL-context: 1) it promotes the students' socio-cultural identity, 2) it takes advantage of cognitive and linguistic benefits to bilingualism, and 3) it utilizes the students' early literacy skills (Padilla, 1990, p. 46). Ultimately, Snow (1990) suggests that developing and fostering skills that are not language-specific may be even more efficiently acquired in the speakers' L1, and that language development is not necessarily reliant on isolated exposure to the target language (e.g. Direct Method).

According to Auerbach (1993, 2000), an English-only stance in EFL contexts is a political standpoint as well as pedagogical (Auerbach, 1993, p. 10). In accordance with Snow (1990) and Krashen (1996), Auerbach (2000) disagrees with the widespread use of the Direct Method in the EFL-classrooms and believe it is favors the student to use its L1 in ELT because it counteracts marginalization of the students heritage language and identity.

Correspondingly, utilizing the students' heritage language and culture in class when teaching English as a third language may induce English as a language and subject to be perceived as more including, motivating and comprehensible by the students, regardless of age. In a Norwegian context, English and Norwegian-only instruction may lead to a marginalization of the multilingual students.

2.4 Multilingualism

Multilingualism as an interdisciplinary research field which draws insights from neuro-, psycho-, and sociolinguistics (Cenoz, 2013a). Thus, different foci in studies concerning multilingualism may portray findings within the field as "heterogeneous or even disorganized" (Cenoz, 2013a, p. 13). With respect to the complexity of defining multilingualism, Cenoz (2013a) proposes three general positions to the definitions of bilingualism and multilingualism (Cenoz, 2013a, p. 7): (1) *bilingualism* as a generic term that traditionally has been restricted to two languages, but can also include more languages (V. J. Cook & Bassetti, 2011), (2) *multilingualism* as a generic term which refers to two or more languages (Aronin & Singleton, 2008), and (3) *bilingualism* and *multilingualism* as separate terms where the former refers to strictly two languages and the latter to three languages or more (de Groot, 2011). According to Kemp (2009), most psycholinguistic researchers use the third position to define the terms. Researchers within education and psycholinguistics tend to agree that "multilingualism is the ability to use three or more languages to some extent, whether these are in the same or different domains" (Kemp, 2009, p. 16) and that the definition does not imply equal proficiency in all languages known by the speaker.

Globalization through traveling, migration and digital communication has changed the role of multilingualism and has created an increased demand for research on the topic multilingualism. Cenoz (2013a) presents how research has affected the perspective of multilingualism to favor a holistic approach, in contrast to an atomistic stance. The *atomistic* approach to multilingualism measures languages individually "against the yardstick of the ideal native speaker of each of the languages involved" (Cenoz, 2013a, p. 12). In contrast, a *holistic* approach focuses on how languages interact with each other within the mind and how the speaker utilizes them. In modern multilingual research, the *holistic* approach is more common because it concerns the multilingual speaker as a person rather than languages as *ad hoc* components of knowledge. Despite that the holistic approach to multilingualism has challenged the atomistic approach since the late 1980s, Cenoz' conclusion is that both perspectives contribute to the research on multilingualism as it is "a phenomenon with its own characteristics" (Cenoz, 2013a, p. 14).

2.4.1 Language acquisition models

Third language acquisition (TLA) is a field of study that has been particularly useful due to the increase of diverse cultures within nations. It draws on many of the aspects of second language acquisition (SLA) but stands out as a separate field of study because it concerns more than two languages rather than only two. Particularly, research within the field of TLA has shown that all previous language knowledge influences the acquisition of a third language (e.g. Cenoz, 2001; Flynn, Foley, & Vinnitskaya, 2004; Jin, 2009; Lasagabaster, 1998). Although TLA concerns the acquisition of a *third* language, the research related to TLA is not limited to three languages and may also be applied to the acquisition of languages beyond a third.

Unlike SLA, where there are only two possible orders of language acquisition (L1 → L2, or L1/L2), acquisition of an L3 can be done in four ways. The languages can either be obtained sequentially (L1 → L2 → L3), simultaneously (L1/L2/L3), or in a combination of both (L1 → L2/L3, L1/L2 → L3) (Cenoz, 2003; Jessner, 2006). For a recently arrived monolingual immigrant who learns English at upper secondary school for the first time, the order of acquisition would be mother tongue (L1) → Norwegian (L2) / English (L3). To avoid complications, L1 → L2/L3 and L1/L2 → L3 are used as the default models to address TLA in the present study.

Cross-linguistic influence (CLI) is a holistic concept related to transfer between languages (Cenoz, 2001, 2013b; Jessner, 2008). A fundamental premise of CLI is that languages are not stored as separate compartments within the brain but are rather interconnected and influence each other. Consequently, all previously known languages affect learning of English of English as a third language.

The notion of *multicompetence* by Vivian Cook (1991) is an example of a holistic perspective on multilingualism (cf. section 2.4) and explains that multiple grammars in an individual mind are not exclusively separated from each other, but rather connected. The premise for multicompetence is based on the theory of Universal Grammar (UG) and the existence of a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) within the human mind (see Chomsky, 1965; V. J. Cook & Newson, 1996), i.e. that human beings have an innate ability and a mental capacity to generate grammar through input[3]. A quintessential part of the premise is the argument of Poverty of Stimulus (PoS), i.e. the ability to acquire correct grammar through input without being explicitly told the grammatical structures used to form the input (see Chomsky, 1986).

Furthermore, *multicompetence* proposes that one may also extract information from other grammars already existing in the mind in the same way that an individual may perceive and acquire grammar through auditive input (cf. PoS[4]). This holistic perspective on language is particularly relevant regarding multilinguals because it suggests that a speaker's access to information about grammar expands proportionally to its knowledge of all grammars known. Additionally, *multicompetence* supports that grammars affect each other regardless of the order of acquisition. In line with the premise of CLI, *multicompetence* rejects the argument that languages are exclusively separated within a speaker's mind, but rather that they are interconnected and interact with each other.

The cognitive effect of bilingualism has been a debated topic among researchers in the field. Earlier studies on bilingualism proposed that "bilingualism has a detrimental effect on intellectual functioning" (Peal & Lambert, 1962, p. 1). As a response to this conception, Peal and Lambert (1962) proposed through their study that bilingual children had a general intellectual advantage towards their monolingual peers in their study. As a result, research on the cognitive effects of bilingualism emerged from several countries (e.g. Balkan, 1970; Ben-Zeev, 1977; Ianco-Worrall, 1972; Torrance, Gowan, Wu, Aliotti, & Holtzman, 1970).

[3] Due to limitations of space, only a very simplified explanation of extensive field of UG, LAD and PoS is provided to provide context. The citations provide in-depth information on the presented topics.

[4] Cook (1991) refers to this as "the black box", which is based on the concept of LAD by Chomsky (1965), as an intermediate stage where input enigmatically transforms into grammar.

Lambert (1973) reviewed the emerging studies and discovered that bilinguals have a more diversified structure of mental intelligence and flexibility compared to their monolingual peers. Correspondingly, he developed two terms to explain in which contexts bilingualism could be considered as cognitively *additive* or *subtractive*: in contexts where the speaker would have developed a high competence level in their L2 at no expense of the L1, the speaker would experience *additive bilingualism*. Conversely, speakers who have had attained their L2 at the expense of the L1 would experience *subtractive bilingualism*. The significant elements that would ultimately affect cognitive abilities and language register were based on language proficiency, language status and use of the languages in the society.

The same elements that would decide to which extent language acquisition is *cognitively* additive or subtractive would also apply to which extent language acquisition could be additive or subtractive *linguistically*, although these are more reliant on societal factors (Cenoz, 2013a, pp. 5-6). Correspondingly, subtractive bilingualism can occur when the speaker's L1 is a minority language, has a low status in the community and must use majority language for communication. Considering that immigrant adolescents have at least one native language other than English or Norwegian prior to their arrival to Norway, it is more relevant for the current thesis to discuss the two terms with regard to multilingualism rather than bilingualism. Consequently, multilingualism can be subtractive if Norwegian dominates the immigrant's L1 in the language learning process, or if the speaker's native language is marginalized. For example, if the speaker does not maintain or gets exposed to its L1 after arriving in Norway, but instead focuses on learning and practicing Norwegian in its daily life. Conversely, multilingualism can be additive if the L1 is unaffected or positively affected as a result of the addition of Norwegian to the immigrant's linguistic repertoire.

2.4.2 The threshold hypothesis

In relation to Peal and Lambert (1962), Cummins (1976) developed the notion of *threshold hypothesis*. According to the threshold hypothesis, foreign language learning can only be beneficial after a certain level of linguistic competence is attained. Consequently, Cummins (1976) proposed that the speaker's competence in L1 must be above a certain threshold to be beneficial, and that learning an L2 while having proficiency in L1 below the threshold would lead to inadequate ultimate attainment in L2. However, there are two major critiques of the notion. Firstly, there is no common standard by which the threshold is defined. Secondly, the assessment of whether a speaker's linguistic *competence* is above or below the threshold relies heavily on the speaker's linguistic *performance*. Thus, the assessment of a speaker's competence level relies on subjectivity, i.e. the criteria the assessor believe are determining. The issue with an assessment based on subjectivity rather than a definition is that a speaker's performance may not be a direct indicator of the speaker's competence (e.g. Chomsky, 1965). Regardless, the hypothesis has been useful for research on the effect bilingual and multilingual learning may have on cognitive and linguistic development.

Chomsky (1965) proposed that there is a fundamental difference between linguistic *competence* and *performance*, as an extension of de Saussure's notions of *langue* and *parole* (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4). Linguistic *competence* is the language knowledge of the speaker, while the linguistic *performance* is how the language is being used. He exemplified the inconsistency between the terms with speakers who make errors in their native

languages, such as false starts, deviations from grammatical rules and changes of formulations mid-sentence. If the assessor cannot distinguish between a speaker's competence and performance, the verdict of a speaker's proficiency may be inaccurate. In the context of the current study, the assessors are the students' teachers. Thus, the verdict of the students' language proficiency assessment lies in the hands of their teachers' perception, knowledge, and awareness of how languages are connected. For example, it would be unfortunate if an uneducated assessor would draw direct connections between a student's poor performance in foreign languages to the linguistic competence in the student's native language(s).

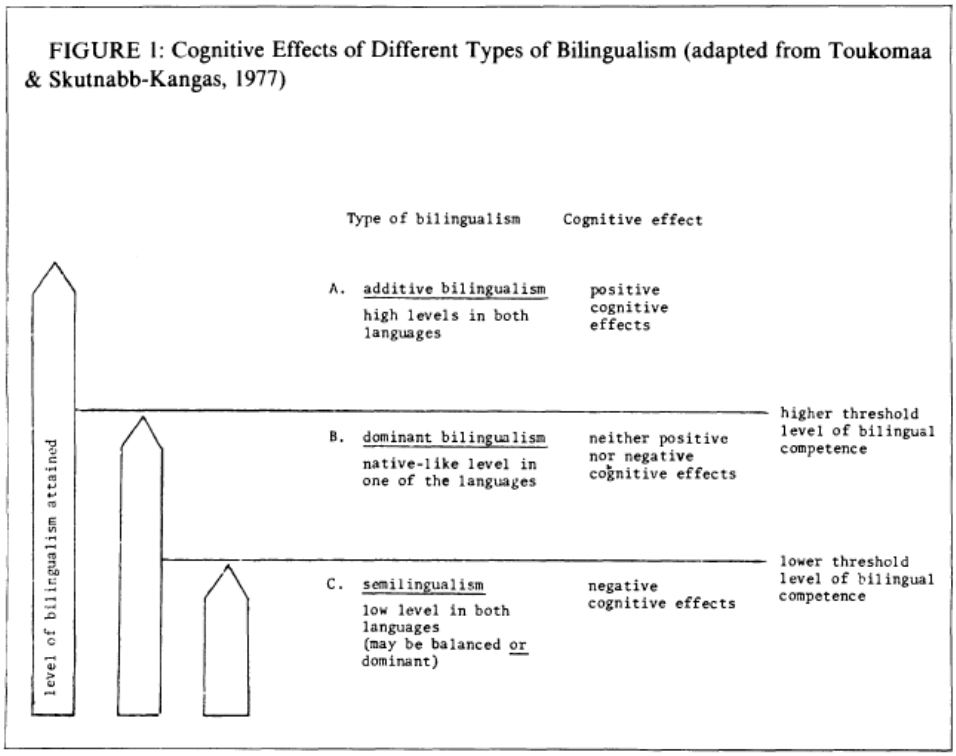


Figure 2: An illustration of the cognitive effects of different types of bilingualism by Cummins (1979, p. 230)

Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977) proposed that speakers with language proficiency below the lower threshold (Cummins, 1976) would remain in a *semilingual state*, which is characterized by being cognitively and academically detrimental for the speaker (Cummins, 1979, p. 228). The levels of bilingualism are therefore chronologically categorized as such (cf. figure 2): semilingualism, a state under the lower threshold in which the speaker has low proficiency in both languages and consequently would obtain negative cognitive effects; dominant bilingualism, a state between the lower and higher threshold in which the speaker would have native-like level in one of the two languages which in turn would neither positively or negatively influence cognition; and additive bilingualism, a state above the higher threshold in which the speaker had acquired high proficiency in both languages and consequently would achieve positive effects on cognition (Cummins, 1979; Toukomaa & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1977).

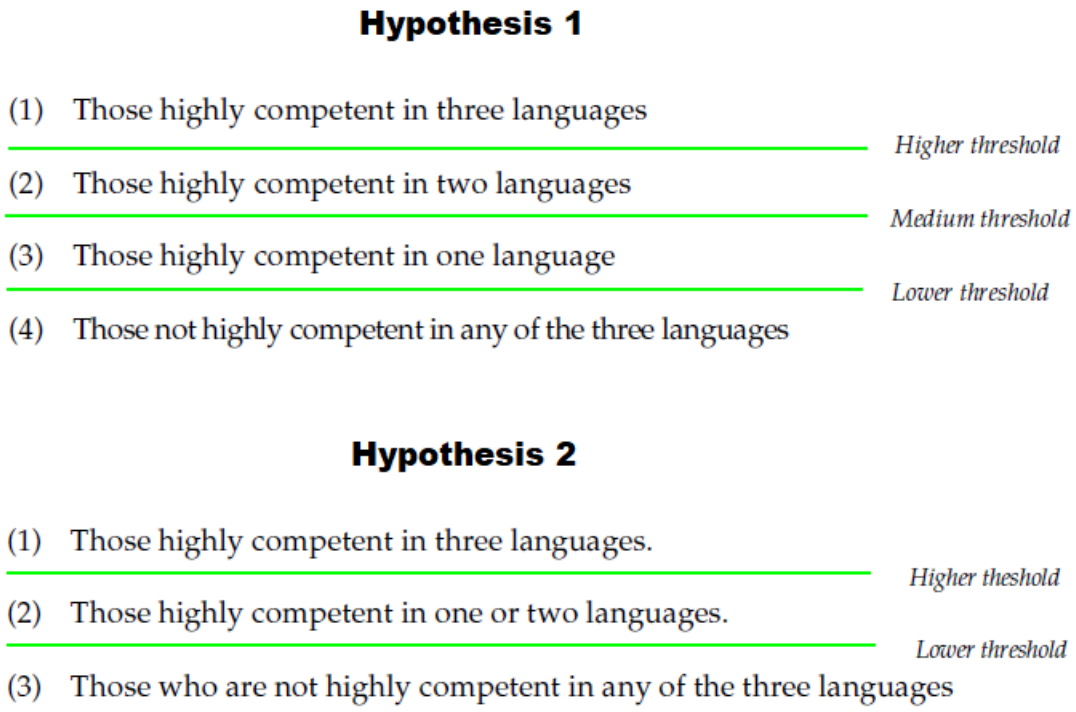


Figure 3: An illustration of Lasagabaster's (1998, pp. 122-123) two hypotheses of the threshold hypothesis' evolution to a trilingual context

The threshold hypothesis was originally designed for a bilingual context, i.e. when the learning context involves two languages. In order to find out how the hypothesis could be transferred to a multilingual context, Lasagabaster (1998) designed a study on the basis of Cummins' (1979) findings. Since a previous study had shown that a group of multilinguals had performed better than bilingual and monolingual adults in grammaticality judgment tests (Nation & McLaughlin, 1986), Lasagabaster (1998) investigated to which extent the threshold hypothesis could be applied to a three-language-in-contact school situation. Based on the initial threshold hypothesis, two hypotheses were made in which trilingual education could occur (cf. figure 3): (1) the threshold hypothesis is extended, i.e. there is an additional threshold and stage as a result of the added language, creating four stages separated by three thresholds, namely a lower, medium and higher threshold; or (2), the original format is maintained, and the additional language is added to the second stage, separated by the initial lower and higher thresholds. The results of the study indicated that the first hypothesis (1) remains doubtful and that the second hypothesis (2), in correlation to Cummins' (1979) initial model, is more likely to apply to a trilingual learning situation. In the context of the current thesis, the speaker can still be above the lower threshold even though it performs poorly in Norwegian, English, or both.

3 Methodology

The data was collected through semi-structured problem-centered qualitative interviews with five English teachers in upper secondary schools in Norway. According to Flick (2014), qualitative research is "oriented towards analyzing concrete cases in their temporal and local particularity and starting from people's expressions and activities in their local contexts" (Flick, 2014, p. 22). In the present study, the research analyzes the case of teaching non-western students from the upper secondary teachers' perspective.

The *problem-centered interview* is a method that includes four components: a short questionnaire (see Appendix B), an interview guide (see Appendix D), tape recordings of the interview and a postscript (Witzel, 2000, p. 4). The interview guide used for the present study contains approximately 90 questions, including follow-up questions. Furthermore, all questions could be followed up with verbal *probes*, i.e. spontaneous questions that were not originally written in the interview guide for the purpose of inviting the interviewees to expand on their response to either clarify or elaborate on their original responses (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 164).

The *semi-structured* format does not require a chronological order or bureaucratic use of a interview guide and is a method normally used to gather subjective theory where "the interviewees have a complex stock of knowledge about the topic under study" (Flick, 2014, p. 217). In contrast to *structured* interviews, also known as *standardized* interviews, the *semi-structured* interview is more dynamic and adaptive according to the situation, rather than rigid and static irrespective of the participants' responses.

The present study focuses on revealing honest subjective attitudes and beliefs. Thus, a *responsive interviewing model* was implemented. The goal of this model is to generate a depth of understanding, and focuses on a establishing a bond of trust between the interviewer and the interviewee (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 30), which also is an essential part of the problem-centered interview model (Witzel, 2000, p. 3).

3.1 The problem-centered interview

The *problem-centered interview* explores topics in depth with the participants. It also relies on creating a safe space of trust between the participant and the interviewer, in which information can be shared unfiltered and without being afraid of speaking outside politically correct contexts. This allows the participants to share thoughts and perspectives for which they may not have an arena to discuss due to fear of exposing thoughts and beliefs that they may perceive as unpopular or stigmatizing.

The interview questions may trigger a reflection process upon the participants' own practice in ways they may not have done before. The flexible pattern of questioning enables the interview to transition into a dialogue and enables the participants to elaborate on their original responses, in contrast to a rigid framework that does not adapt according to the participants' responses, e.g. a *questionnaire-centered* method. The intention of problem-centered interviews is to make the participants comfortable and create an unstrained flow

during the interviews. Flick (2014) states that following the interview guide too bureaucratically "might restrict the benefits of openness and contextual information" (Flick, 2014, pp. 209, drawing on Hopf, 1978). Correspondingly, to preserve the natural development of the conversation, the participants would not be interrupted if they raised a topic which was originally planned for later to talk about in the interview guide. In such cases, it is considered more appropriate to take advantage of the situation at hand and thus adapt to the situation by "taking up the topic and trying to get deeper into it" (Flick, 2014, p. 209), rather than inconsiderately proceed to the next question in the interview guide.

Ultimately, the problem-centered interview allows the participants to elaborate on topics which they find particularly interesting by following up with enthusiastic responses through probes outside the interview guide. In turn, this builds a sense of comfort between the participant and the interviewer which can lead to provide richer data from the interviews.

3.2 The interviews

All communication with the candidates was done in Norwegian, i.e. the short questionnaire (see Appendix B), the interview, and all e-mail correspondences. In the short questionnaire, the candidates were asked to fill out personal information such as name, age and where they work, in addition to their educational background and experience with teaching non-western students as English teachers.

All questions in the interview guide are open-ended and categorized into three main sections: *personal information and education*, *thoughts and attitudes*, and *experience*. The first section aims at gathering basic information regarding the participants' educational background and work history. The second category explores the teachers' thoughts and attitudes about language, such as the potential ultimate linguistic attainment for a student with non-western first language learning English in Norway, to what degree adequate Norwegian language skills is decisive for being able to participate in English classes at Norwegian upper secondary school, and which skills the participants believe a teacher who teaches English as an L3 should possess. Finally, the third category consists of questions about topics such as language and subject-specific experiences in the classroom, whether cultural background has an influence on language learning, and teaching methods.

The interviews were recorded with a tape recorder and conducted at the schools where the participants teach. The consent form that all participants signed prior the interviews (see Appendix C) states that all participation is voluntary and that they can abort the interview or withdraw from the project at any time if they wish to do so. The interviews lasted between 2h55m[5] and 6h14m. The total number of recorded speech time amounted to 21h22m. The recorded speech has been transcribed into approximately 140.000 words with the computer software f4transkript. Due to space limitations, the results presented in the chapter four are not a summary of all conversations, but rather a collection of selected consistencies and inconsistencies in the participants' responses regarding the research questions.

[5] *h* stands for *hour* and *m* stands for *minutes*.

3.3 Selecting the participants

The participants were selected through a *purposive sampling* process, which is a type of non-probability sampling (El-Masri, 2017; Flick, 2014, p. 175). The participants were carefully chosen based on location, age, education and teaching experience as an English teacher for non-western students. The sampling process was done in three stages. First, an invitation to participate in the study was sent to all 421 upper secondary schools in Norway by e-mail (see appendix A). The invitation was directed to the English teachers at the respective schools and was sent as blind copies to ensure anonymity. Then, the 52 English teachers who replied positively were asked to fill out the short questionnaire (see Appendix B), out of which 36 responded. Ultimately, five candidates were asked to participate in the study based on the responses.

All interview candidates in the present study teach English to non-western students at upper secondary school. A heterogeneous sample was chosen based on the responses to the short questionnaire. The ages are presented as *age groups* instead of the exact age with respect to the participants' privacy. The *academic qualifications* only show graduating accomplishments; courses or one-year academic programs are excluded from the list. Some of the participants received their academic degree before the Bologna Declaration came into effect in Norway in 1999, which standardized academic degrees between European countries into BA, MA, and Ph.D. (Askheim, 2013). An example from the current study is the *candidatus magisterii* degree, which is an outdated academic degree that corresponds to a bachelor's degree (Hansen, 2012). *Hovedfag* corresponds to a master's degree, *mellomfag* corresponds to a bachelor's degree and *grunnfag* corresponds to a one-year program. Accordingly, some teacher educations in Norway have a degree integrated into education. *Adjunkt* is a title of teachers at compulsory school who has an education corresponding to a bachelor's degree, which ultimately provides teaching competencies in three to four subjects. Correspondingly, the *lektor* education is an integrated 5-year teacher education at the university level, results in a master's degree and provides teaching competence in two subjects (Utdanning.no, 2019). All participants have completed general and subject-specific pedagogical education. The participants are presented individually in detail below the table.

Participant	Age group	County	Academic qualifications	Number of years as an English teacher at upper secondary
James	50's	Hedmark	Cand. Mag. (BA) + two MAs	30
Susan	30's	Buskerud	BA + MA	6
Michelle	20's	Oslo	Lektor (MA)	3
Arthur	60's	Troms	Adjunkt (BA)	24
Barbara	60's	Oppland	Teachers' college	30

3.4 The participants

3.4.1 Arthur

Arthur is in his sixties, works at a vocational upper secondary class and teaches English only in vocational classes. He is an *adjunkt* with *mellomfag* in English, as well as a *mellomfag* in physical exercise. He has taught vocational English at upper secondary school for 24 years and has 20 years of experience in teaching English to non-western students. He currently teaches English in a preparatory class (cf. section 2.1) in addition to regular classes at vg1[6]. The preparatory class is divided into two groups of ten students each. The interview was done in one session and lasted 3h37m.

3.4.2 James

James is in his fifties and has a *candidatus magisterii* degree with *mellomfag* in English and German, and *grunnfag* in Spanish. He later studied English and graduated with a master's degree. Additionally, he has a master's degree in career guidance and has completed other courses at different universities. He has taught English to non-western students in all thirty years throughout his teaching career. James have taught classes in the general study program previously but teaches English only to a vocational class at the of the interviews. Although he does not currently teach the preparatory classes, he has had students from these classes in his regular vg1 English classes. The interviews were done in three sessions and resulted in 5h29m recording time.

3.4.3 Susan

Susan is in her thirties and has a master's degree in English, a bachelor's degree in German, and pedagogical education through the Postgraduate Certificate in Education. In Norwegian, this pedagogical education is called *praktisk-pedagogisk utdanning* and is a one-year program at university that provides pedagogical education to those who have completed at least a bachelor's degree and a one-year program in subjects relevant for teaching at primary or secondary school. Additionally, Susan has completed a one-year program in social sciences along with *Norwegian as a second language*, which is a course at the university level. She has taught English to non-western students at upper secondary school all six years of her teaching career, and she currently teaches English at the two first years in the general study program. The three non-western students in her English class are the only non-western students at the school where she currently teaches, and they are all second-generation immigrants born raised in Norway. Nonetheless, Susan is a relevant candidate for the thesis due to her students' non-western first language. Her perspective regarding the research question is of interest because her current teaching situation extends the diversity of the participant sample. It is also of interest to observe in which manner her viewpoints are coherent with the other participants who teach recently arrived non-western students. The interview was done in one session and lasted 3h06m.

[6] Correspondingly, vg2 and vg3 are abbreviations for second and third year of upper secondary.

3.4.4 Barbara

Barbara is in her sixties and has been an English teacher at upper secondary for thirty years and has had non-western students during all years of teaching. She graduated from teachers' college with a *candidata magisterii*[7] degree and three *mellomfag*, one of which is in English. She has also taken English subjects through university and having attended courses through the county authority. She currently teaches non-western students in five vocational English classes: three vg1-classes and two vg2-classes. The school where she teaches has preparatory classes, and several of her students have come from these classes. On a side note, using a non-western mother tongue during class is banned at the school where she teaches because a student may "suddenly say something in their mother tongue which makes someone else inflame [because] they tease each other, provoke each other and try to control each other" (Barbara). The interviews with her were the longest and were done in three sessions. They lasted 6h14m in total.

3.4.5 Michelle

Michelle is in her twenties, has completed the integrated *lektor*-education with an MA in English and is in her third year working as an English teacher at upper secondary school. However, she did not teach non-western students during the first two years of her career. In addition to English, she has teaching competency in religion and Norwegian, as well as completing a one-year program in *teaching English as a Foreign Language*. In English, she teaches a class at vg1, a class at Social Studies English at vg3, and a support group. The support group is specially tailored to "save the [recently arrived immigrant] students within one school year so they can concentrate on other subjects in second and third grade" (Michelle) so they do not have to learn English in only two years. The students in her support group spend two hours a week Michelle, in addition to attending their regular English classes. Put differently, the school has dedicated extra resources to prevent these students from failing the subject because of their low level of English proficiency. Once the students have attained sufficient competence to follow regular classes, they are asked to leave the group. Her support group consists of nine students and all except one are non-western. This makes Michelle the only teacher among the participant sample who works with a class consisting of almost exclusively non-western students, which is not a preparatory class. The interview was done in one session and lasted 2h55m.

3.5 Ethical considerations

To ensure that privacy would be preserved, the participants were informed prior to the interviews that they would be anonymized in the publication of the thesis, and that all recordings will be deleted when the project is finished. Also, they were asked to not mention any students in an identifying manner during in the short questionnaire and the interviews. All of this was done in conjunction with the guidelines of the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD), at which the present study is registered.

[7] *Candidata magisterii* is the female equivalent to *candidatus magisterii*.

3.6 Challenges and limitations

There are some validity threats to the problem-centered interview. One of many interpretations of *validity* is "the degree to which results match as closely as possible the real state of the world" (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2014, p. 28, drawing on Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

The data gathered through the selected method in the present study relies on the openness of the interviewee, and it may not always be the case that the participants feel safe enough to expose all their thoughts unfiltered. The participants may feel morally obliged to not say anything offensive, or they may be intimidated by the sight and thought of a device that records everything they say and thus alters their behavior. This validity threat is referred to as the *Hawthorne effect* (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2014, p. 31). The participants may be afraid that their utterances can be traced back to them or that some questions are set up as traps to reveal uncommon, politically incorrect, or inadequate responses. Some questions can also touch upon a theoretical field about which the participants have limited knowledge, which consequently can make the participants reluctant to answer. Such situations can affect the rest of the interview and can in most unfortunate cases cause the participants to distrust the interviewer. Hence, creating a bond of trust and light mood during the interview is crucial for success, and the interviewer may have to balance between spending time on making the participants comfortable and asking relevant questions regarding the thesis. In these situations, the interviewer must make critical decisions about whether the participant should be given time to expand on a topic which may be irrelevant to the thesis or if the interview should proceed to the next topic and in turn risk to miss potentially relevant data from an enthusiastic response.

The dynamic development and transition between interview and dialogue may lead to the same questions from the interview guide being asked in a different order. In addition, the flexible style of interviewing may provide incomparable data due to spontaneous probes during the interviews if all participants are not asked the same questions. An example of this is if the third of five participants provides an unforeseen perspective of a topic with which the interviewee confronts subsequent participants but have not asked the first two about. Consequently, a flexible pattern of questioning may lead to inconsistent data due to the unchronological order of questioning, even though asking questions that seem natural at the moment may provide richer data.

4 Results

This chapter contains a presentation of selected tendencies and discrepancies between the participants' interview responses. In the first part, the consistencies are introduced with a relevant quote by a participant to illuminate the topic and then further explained. The second part follows the same pattern and presents an overview of the participants' perception of bilingualism and multilingualism, and to which extent they view themselves as bi- or multilingual. Due to the limitation of space, only the most prominent and relevant findings concerning the research questions are presented and only selected quotes are chosen to illuminate each consistency. The responses presented in this chapter are discussed in chapter five, where they are related to the theory mentioned earlier in the thesis.

All interviews were conducted in Norwegian, and the quotes are translations from Norwegian. The translations are as direct as possible to preserve the authenticity of the quotes. In addition, some quotes are formatted to provide an understanding of the context in which the quotes were uttered: bold text indicates emphasis in speech and brackets fill ellipsis' or replace pronouns with the respective noun to which they are referring in the quote's context. In correspondence with the interview guide (see Appendix D), *students* in this chapter refers to recently arrived immigrant students with a non-western mother tongue.

4.1 Consistencies

> "I think that 15-19-year olds are pretty much alike regardless of where they are from, with regard to the physical, mental and personal factors; everything that does not concern [school] subjects" (James)

The participants believe that the students' non-western linguistic background is irrelevant to how and to which extent they learn English as a third language in Norway. All participants mentioned that they have had students who had received both high and low grades regardless of their linguistic or cultural background and that there were no tendencies on whose grades were high or low based on their background. Correspondingly, Michelle and James specify that they do not draw any common denominators or see any such tendencies solely based on the students' background, and the other participants shared the same perspective.

> "Barbara: It is the English [language and culture] that is [the focus in class]. But one could probably remember to ask them a bit [about their background] to compare and draw in their language when comparing English and Norwegian. In that case, one could also include their culture in different areas.
>
> Interviewer: Do you think that would be effective [for their learning process]?
>
> Barbara: I think they would think it is nice. And then they would also have something to talk about in English if they are able to."

Although the participants do think that taking the students' L1 into consideration may be valuable in theory, none of them plan their instruction with consideration to the cultural diversity in class. They explain that that they do not utilize the students' background when teaching English because they have not been introduced to relevant literature on the topic in training or through their workplace and do not how to do effectively. Therefore, the participants do not focus on or pay attention to the students' background during classes because they do not believe it is significant for the students' learning outcome. Only Arthur includes his students' native culture in his preparatory classes, and that is when his students are eager to show their heritage background when culture is the topic of the class. The participants' teaching practice is based on general pedagogy rather than methodology relevant to facilitating third language acquisition. Consequently, the participants believe that it is more expedient to differentiate the students based on their English level rather than their nationality and language background.

> "I think it is good [to have separate classes for those with lower English competence] because then they start on the same level, they get the same follow-up, and they get lifted up together; they go through the educational pathway parallelly, so I believe it is an advantage that they are gathered in a group that is at the same level and have the same instruction" (Arthur)

All participants but Michelle believe that students with significantly lower English competence than others should be placed in separate classes. The suggestion of having separate classes is exclusively from a perspective based on improving the students' linguistic competence and making the learning progress as effectively as possible, without regard to social factors and a possible marginalization of the students. However, the participants who are in favor of the threshold are afraid to express it publicly due to potential consequences of being politically incorrect. In addition, the participants' responses indicate that political correctness has too much impact on how the schools are organized and that a focus on being politically correct may sometimes be at the expense of effective language teaching. The participants do not believe there would be any social disadvantages to the suggestions of the two suggestions, but rather argues for the opposite; the participants who teach recently arrived immigrant students believe that the students in the current education system may feel more alienated in a classroom with Norwegian due to the clear knowledge gap between the immigrant students and their Norwegian peers. For example, they believe that having separate classes for students with low proficiency in English can have a greater effect on the students' language learning process, as well as making the instruction easier for the teachers. According to the participants, these classes do not necessarily have to be reserved non-western students, although a natural result could be that the classes may consist of a high concentration of recently arrived immigrants due to their generally low proficiency level in English. The purport of the threshold is not to marginalize the students based on linguistic competence, but to prevent mutually unintelligible communication between the student and the teacher. In every respect, the participants want the best for their students' language development and only propose the suggestion because they believe that implementing them would maximize their learning potential of English as a third language.

> "[The students'] problem is not necessarily that they have learning disabilities, but rather that they have not learned [English]" (Barbara)

All participants except Susan express that the recently arrived immigrant students struggle with a basic understanding of the English language compared to what is expected at Norwegian upper secondary school. Barbara emphasizes that these students' initial low English competence increases the gap between higher and lower performing students and that her teaching practice becomes more complicated because she must adjust the content in class "without leaving anyone behind" (Barbara). Also, Michelle finds it challenging to teach basic English skills because that is not what her education has prepared her to teach. Consequently, James and Barbara believe that there is a fault in the admission system which serves teachers and students a disservice by prematurely admitting students to regular English classes.

> "You can learn English equally well regardless of what language you know, but I cannot help [the students if we do not share] a common language" (Michelle)

The participants believe that the absence of a common language with the students prevents them from helping their students. One of the questions the participants were asked was to which extent it is important that their students know Norwegian in relation to learning English as a third language at Norwegian upper secondary schools. All participants responded that it is important to know Norwegian, but only in terms of having a common language of communication between the student and the teacher. Michelle emphasizes that it is important that the students know Norwegian if they expect to get help and explanations from her. She adds that the common language in English classes in Norway usually is Norwegian because that is the language that the teachers intuitively return to "when English falls short" (Michelle). However, the participants emphasize that it is having a common frame of references which is important, not that the language in which they explain and help the students necessarily is Norwegian. In other words, all participants agree that a student can pass the English subject without knowing any Norwegian if the teacher also speaks a shared language, e.g. English. Barbara specifically adds that the problem of teaching non-western students arises when the student does not comprehend basic grammatical terms, such as word classes, and that limited Norwegian and English skills make the learning situation more complicated. In sum, the reason for why not knowing Norwegian in English classes may be a problem is because it may affect the extent to which the teachers are able to provide help, explanations, and elaborations to their students. Correspondingly, James, Susan, and Arthur believe that students should have acquired a minimum level of English or Norwegian prior to entering regular English instruction to avoid situations where the teacher and student are unable to understand each other due to the absence of a common language.

> "I believe that the cultural aspect is disruptive and developing at the same time" (James)

According to the participants, students arriving from non-western countries have a different world view compared to those from the Western world which creates a cultural gap that may complicate the students' learning process. The cultural shift may influence the students' progress in the English classroom because they must adjust to Western political systems, media, and "way of thinking" (Arthur). Arthur acknowledges the culture gap as the most challenging aspect for non-western students regarding learning English in Norway. He and Susan believe that receiving more knowledge about the students' cultural

background would contribute to understand their students' world view and identify their social and subject-specific challenges. Correspondingly, all participants empathized with the students' cultural challenges related to adjusting into a Norwegian learning setting, e.g. teaching practice, classroom discipline, and their perspective on female teachers. James and Barbara mentioned Chinese students as particularly disciplined, compared to Norwegian students. Conversely, James mentioned that African students tend to have a relaxed attitude towards deadlines and time frames, to which he referred as "Africa time". He also told that he once had to replace a female teacher who was teaching Iranian students because they reportedly did not respect her as a teacher due to her gender. In addition, Barbara tells that she must act firm and claim authority towards the non-western male students. The three latter examples demonstrate that a cultural gap can be challenging for students in a foreign environment as well as for teachers with foreign students.

> "The non-western students have a very positive attitude about learning English. There is no negativity there and they are actually very willing to work with [English] because they very much want to learn it, in contrast to the Norwegian [students] who have met many obstacles throughout their school progress and have developed a distaste for it and say that they hate the language. In such cases, it is nice to get non-western students who think it is great to learn [English]. They see that 'I need this, I must have this, I want this'" (Barbara)

Most participants mention that non-western students generally seem to show more motivation and interest in English compared to their Norwegian peers. The participants have observed that the girls generally are academically ambitious, while James also notes that the boys in most cases are academically unambitious. Despite the latter observation, all participants report that they mainly notice a higher level of motivation in non-western students, presumably because these students see the value of knowing English as a *lingua franca*. Arthur and James specifically mention that the students view English as an asset for work and social communication. Michelle supports Barbara's abovementioned quote and adds that it is easier to motivate the students in her support group because "they are so motivated by themselves and want to learn" (Michelle). Susan also reports that her non-western students have high ambitions and are very motivated to learn English.

4.2 Inconsistencies

The interviews revealed two significant inconsistencies in relation to the participants' responses. The first inconsistency concerns their sense of preparedness as a result of insufficient training through their education regarding teaching non-western students, and the second inconsistency is found in their definitions of *bilingualism* and *multilingualism*.

4.2.1 Sense of preparedness

The participants were asked if their teacher education has prepared them to teach students with a non-western mother tongue, to which they all responded that it has not. However, despite that they have not had any training or courses that focus on teaching this group of students, they have a different sense of how that has affected the degree to which they are competent or comfortable teaching recently arrived immigrant students. James,

Michelle, and Arthur feel that they are competent and comfortable teaching non-western students because they feel competent teaching English regardless of their students' background; their definition of a competent English teacher is not predicated on which culture their students are from, but rather their own teaching competence and skills.

By contrast, Susan and Barbara explicitly state that such knowledge is convenient or necessary for them to feel comfortable teaching non-western students. Barbara, who is one of the participants with the most experience in teaching non-western students, is particularly concerned about this. She expresses only four minutes into the first interview that "there should be done research on [teaching non-western students], and there should be more help to get for a poor teacher who is going to teach [non-western students, and] who has not received any introduction to this, because there is little introduction to get about this" (Barbara). She has also requested courses related to teaching multicultural students from the school administration, without having received an affirmative response. She remarks that the lack of knowledge regarding the students' foreign linguistic and cultural background makes it difficult for her to understand the reasons behind the students' incomprehension of English. The limited knowledge affects the degree to which she feels comfortable teaching these students due to her inability to understand them as persons from their respective culture of origin. Also, Susan believes that knowing the basic components of their students' non-western L1 would be beneficial because it would enable her to identify reasons for why the students are making certain mistakes in English. Consequently, both teachers express a wish for more education in relation to teaching non-western students to better understand their students' foreign culture and native language.

In sum, none of the participants have been prepared to teach non-western students, but the degree to which the lack of preparation affects the participants varies. Two of participants feel uncomfortable and inadequately competent to teach this group of students due to their limited knowledge about their students. The other three participants feel that more knowledge about the students' background is beneficiary, but not a decisive factor for the extent to which they feel comfortable teaching the students.

4.2.2 Bilingualism and multilingualism

This section presents the participants' deviating perceptions regarding the terms *bilingualism* and *multilingualism*. The responses reveal that the participants have inconsistent perspectives on the definition of a bilingual or multilingual speaker, the significance of the age of acquisition, and thresholds regarding proficiency levels. Correspondingly, this section presents each participant's responses with their respective thoughts and understanding of these topics.

4.2.2.1 James

"**Fluent** only means that [the communcation] flows" (James)

James believes that the only decisive criterion of qualification to become bilingual is to be able to communicate in two languages, preferably both written and orally. Consequently, students who have graduated from secondary school education meet this requirement: "when you have graduated from upper secondary school, then [he] look at it as that you are bilingual, at least if you have had English at vg3 as well. […] Because then you can apply for a job and say 'I know English and Norwegian'" (James). Additionally, he addresses

the notion of fluidity: "**fluent** does not need to mean **perfect**, but rather that it is **flowing**. I think there are many students who misunderstand what knowing a language fluently means" (James). He tells the students in his Spanish class that if they are capable of carrying a conversation about daily topics with a native speaker at any given point, then they may confidently say that they are Spanish speakers. Correspondingly, he mentions during the interview that the communicative ability is more important than being grammatically correct when speaking and refers to the competence aims in the curricula for *English* and *foreign languages*. Of all participants, James proposed the lowest proficiency threshold for qualifying as a bilingual speaker.

> "Many people are bilingual and all the other [languages] will just make them multilingual" (James)

According to James, the difference between being bilingual or multilingual is minimal in terms of proficiency levels and age of acquisition, and the only difference is that the prefixes indicate whether the speaker has communicative competence in two languages or more. His interpretation of the terms corresponds with de Groot's (2011) definition, i.e. bilingualism indicates that the speaker is fluent in two languages, and multilingualism indicates proficiency in three or more languages. In addition, he mentions that English is in a privileged role when it comes to these terms because it is a *lingua franca*. He also believes that "most people who have a certain [academic] degree or education are bilingual, because English is such a widespread language all over the world" (James) and that any subsequent languages they learn make them multilingual.

4.2.2.2 Michelle

> "One does not have to be a perfect native user in both [languages]" (Michelle)

Michelle share the same perspective on bilingualism as James regarding the emphasis on the communicative competence of the speaker and the lower proficiency threshold. She believes that a bilingual speaker is defined by its ability to intelligibly and independently communicate in two languages, and she emphasizes that one does not become a bilingual speaker by memorizing phrases and words. Michelle believes that one can be fluent in a language albeit having a notable accent or grammatical errors in speech and that one can be bilingual even though the speaker can only communicate orally in the second language. Moreover, she believes that age of acquisition does not play a factor in deciding to what extent a person is bilingual: "you can still be bilingual if you move to Italy, live there for thirty years and learn Italian. […] You do not need to learn [the language] from when you are young" (Michelle). Furthermore, she perceives *bilingualism* to treat with several languages, and not only two: "if you are *bilingual*, then it can be many different languages. So, if we use *tospråklig* [bilingual] as a translation of *bilingual*, then it is many languages, per definition" (Michelle). Consequently, she seldom uses *tospråklighet* [bilingualism] in Norwegian because she normally refers to *flerspråklighet* [multilingualism], e.g. "den flerspråklige klassa" [the multilingual class] or "de er flerspråklige" [they are multilingual]. Nonetheless, she underlines that these terms do not affect her daily life as a teacher in any aspect.

> "Being bilingual is to know both languages well while being multilingual is to know the other languages 'okay'" (Michelle)

Michelle does not consider the two terms to be different from each other except that the prefixes may indicate whether the speaker knows two languages, or three or more. Although she empathizes with the definition by de Groot (2011), she practices the definition by Aronin and Singleton (2008) by exclusively referring to *flerspråklighet* [multilingualism] in Norwegian. Her response to what the difference between the two terms is beside the prefix was "nothing, really" (Michelle). However, as she points out in the quote above, the speaker does not need to be highly proficient in languages after L2 in order to constitute a multilingual speaker.

4.2.2.3 Arthur

> "My understanding [of being bilingual] is that there is one language which is your optimal mother tongue that you understand completely based on your cultural background and language learning (L1). And then you have another language that you master completely (L2)" (Arthur)

Arthur provided the most intricate definitions of perspectives on bilingualism and multilingualism. He differentiates between a *foreign language* and a *second language* and considers an understanding of the target culture as a quintessential element for his definitions.

When defining a bilingual speaker, Arthur believes that cultural understanding is an equally important element as linguistic competence. He specifies that such cultural understanding may only be acquired through living and experiencing the target culture, due to "the small details you acquire by growing up in an environment where you attend school, have friends and have leisure activities" (Arthur). Such details may encompass idioms, colloquial language, and concepts that are characterized in the target culture. However, he would not consider someone from a colonized country as bilingual. He mentioned Kenya as an example, although Kenya has English as its second official language. His argument is that the Kenyan speaker do not have the cultural understanding of a native English speaker, regardless of its linguistic competence. The impression from the interview is that he defines a native English speaker as someone born and raised in an inner-circle country (cf. Kachru, 1992), though he did not seem to have any specific nations ranked above others.

Arthur distinguishes between being bilingual and having a second language. He defines *second language* as a language in which the speaker is able to "unproblematically carry a conversation on a relatively advanced level" (Arthur). Unlike his definition of being bilingual, it is not necessary to have experienced the target culture over time to have a language as a second language. Correspondingly, one can be a monolingual with a second language, e.g. Kenyans, according to Arthur.

In principle, Arthur believes that there is no upper limit for the age of acquisition in terms of becoming bilingual. However, early age of acquisition may be beneficial because the language will be learned and practiced naturally in vocational, educational and social environments as the speaker grows up. As the speaker gets older, living in the target culture to becomes increasingly important to the extent it can become bilingual. Arthur provided a comparison between a younger and older learner to illustrate his point:

someone who has graduated from upper secondary school with good grades in English may become bilingual only if the student has lived in an English-speaking country for two years or more. If the learner is older, the only way to fully learn the target language is by moving to a country where it is spoken, for at least twenty years. Additionally, the time it takes to become bilingual is dependent on individual factors, such as personal engagement and capacity to learn languages. Arthur believes that the speakers' linguistic learning outcome is dependent on the learners' involvement in the target community, participation in activities and personal development. Ultimately, Arthur believes that becoming a bilingual speaker depends on the extent to which the speaker has experienced the target language culture in the learning process.

> "[a multilingual is] a person who has acquired two or more foreign languages, masters them, and can use them use them as tools for work, e.g. at EU or UN." (Arthur)

Unlike the James and Michelle, Arthur believes that a multilingual speaker is defined by having learned several languages exclusively through education and with the aim of using them in an international context. Correspondingly, he believes that a student who has graduated from Norwegian upper secondary school with a good grade in Spanish may be considered multilingual due to its ability to use the language in vocational contexts, e.g. where the speaker must be able to communicate effortlessly with Hispanic companies and organizations. Despite Arthur's intricate responses, there is reason to believe that he has a lower threshold to linguistic proficiency of the second languages regarding his definition of a multilingual speaker compared the languages of a bilingual speaker, although the initial lower threshold for both labels is higher than the above-mentioned participants. In accordance with scholars' definitions of bilingualism and multilingualism, he defines the terms with regard to the definitions by Aronin and Singleton (2008).

4.2.2.4 Susan

> "To be bilingual is to have thorough knowledge about [the languages], while multilingualism is maybe [to not have] **that** thorough [knowledge about them] – that you actually just are familiar with more languages, then." (Susan)

Susan believes that one should know the second language approximately as the mother tongue and have a C1-C2 proficiency level to be labeled as a bilingual speaker. She also believes that it is essential that the second language is attained before age three. In the same way Arthur described, Susan does not believe that a student who has graduated with good grades in English from upper secondary can be automatically regarded as bilingual, due to the non-native learning context. In relation to this, she says that "[Norwegian adolescents] do not use English every day, even though they watch movies and listen to songs [in English]". It is uncertain whether she means that exposure to the English language through media does not count towards language learning, or that she means that the students do not actively engage in daily English communication. Moreover, Susan questions why the English subject is treated as *second language education* in Norway, considering that the language is learned in a non-native context. Therefore, per her definition, the acquired language is not a second language, even though she practices the Direct Method in class (cf. section 2.2). However, she does address that one cannot be bilingual in all domains and that a speaker always will have a dominant language.

> "I would not call myself multilingual even though I have knowledge about five languages; […] I have one mother tongue and several second languages or foreign languages". (Susan)

Susan's biggest issue regarding *multilingualism* and *bilingualism* as terms is the unclear distinction between *second language* and *foreign language*. Her first argument is that the second and third languages can both be fundamentally categorized as foreign languages. The second argument is related to unclear threshold levels, in which one must have high proficiency in a language to call it a *second language*. Thus, she says that she does not understand the difference between *second language* and *foreign language* as individual terms. She finds *multilingualism* contrastive and confusing as a term. According to Susan, whilst one must be highly proficient in several second languages to be considered multilingual, being multilingual can also include "speaking several foreign languages on a communicative level" (Susan).

Susan regards early age of acquisition of languages as quintessential to the definition of a bilingual and multilingual speaker. Accordingly, she does not consider herself as a bi- or multilingual because she has not learned the language from a young age. She emphasizes that she possibly holds a C2 level in English within the specific domains and areas that she has studied, e.g. that she knows complex English grammar better than the average native speaker: "I mean, it is a bit strange. Because on one side I have a high level in English, but [on the other hand] I have learned [the language] in a non-native situation; I am book learned in English, right. And [I] have learned [English] mostly outside an English-speaking country. So, it is difficult to call myself bilingual, even though I know that my [English] level is on a native speaker's" (Susan). Thus, she thinks it is difficult to define *multilingualism* because she predicates her definitions of *foreign language* and *second language* on having high linguistic proficiency. In sum, Susan's responses indicate that her perception of the terms *bilingualism* and *multilingualism* is in coherence with the definitions by de Groot (2011), i.e. that *bilingualism* concerns two languages and *multilingualism* concerns three or more.

4.2.2.5 Barbara

> "I ask my students (in English:) 'is English your second language?' and they reply (in English:) 'yes', [to which I respond] '(in English:) no, it's not; you learn English as a foreign language. It's not your second language. In India, they have English as a second language' (Barbara)

Corresponding to James, Barbara believes that the terms *bilingual* and *multilingual* principally displays the to which extent one speaks two or more languages. Unlike the other participants, however, she does not believe that the terms reflect the proficiency level in any manner. According to Barbara, being bilingual is exclusively defined by having learned two languages from an early age and with help from a native source, regardless of the ultimate attainment in either languages: "[being] bilingual does not mean that you are very good [in either language], but that you have learned two languages, but (sic) perhaps both equally bad" (Barbara). She believes that *bilingualism* as a term "is actually uninteresting" (Barbara) because it does not reflect the speaker's proficiency level in any languages, and thus questions its usefulness.

Barbara provides two examples of contexts in which a person can become bilingual, both of which concern age of acquisition. In the first context, she uses a child with two parents as an example: one of the parents speaks the official language of the country of residence, and the other parent is a foreign speaker. In this context, Barbara would consider the child to be bilingual because it would have been raised with speakers of two different languages. The other context she describes is when none of the parents speaks the official language in the country of residence. In that case, the child would become bilingual because it would speak one language at home while being exposed to and practice the official language outside the home. With respect to these examples, she does not consider herself as bilingual because she "does not at all feel fully trained in English" (Barbara) by reason of not having learned English in either of two contexts. As a result of not having learned English since an early age, Barbara feels that she has not had, nor will she ever, have the privilege of having the vocabulary of someone who has learned English from childhood: "I just want to say that I would really wish that I was bilingual. Imagine if I had learned English from when I was little" (Barbara). The vocabulary to which she refers, include words used in nature and everyday vocabulary, e.g. "zipper" (Barbara).

> "If you define a bilingual by having both languages as a mother tongue, then you can be multilingual by knowing several languages afterward" (Barbara)

In accordance with her perception of the label *bilingual*, she finds *multilingual* equally insignificant as a linguistic term because it only indicates that one has grown up with three or more languages without being an indicator of proficiency level in any of the respective languages. Hence, she does not consider ethnic Norwegians who learn English in the Norwegian school system as neither bilingual nor multilingual, even though they begin learning it at age six: "they are Norwegian, and they know several languages, but are they multilingual? I am very unsure about that" (Barbara). Her responses indicate that she defines *multilingualism* and *bilingualism* in accordance with the definitions by de Groot (2011).

4.3 Summary

The interviews in the current study reveal several consistencies and inconsistencies between the participants' responses. The inconsistencies are mainly connected to their sense of preparedness as a result of not having been prepared to teach English as a third language through their education and the understanding of *bilingualism* and *multilingualism*. The factors that the participants regarded as decisive varied between understanding of the target culture, communicative ability and age of acquisition. The responses indicate that Arthur is the only participant who defines the two terms according to Aronin and Singleton (2008), while the rest of the participants define them according to the definition by de Groot (2011). The consistencies between the interview responses indicate that the participants believe that:

- the students' motivation is a more significant determinant for their linguistic development than their previous cultural and linguistic background,
- the participants do not utilize the students' L1 into in class,
- the participants' teacher education has not prepared them to teach multilingual students,
- the participants' ability to help is dependent on the extent to which they have a common language with the student,
- the participants believe that separate English classes are beneficial for the students,
- the students' proficiency in English is lower than what is expected of their students at Norwegian upper secondary school,
- the students are motivated to learn English.

5 Discussion

In line with chapter four, *students* in this chapter refer to recently arrived immigrant students with a non-western mother tongue unless stated otherwise. By examining the data from interviews in chapter four and relating it to the contextual and theoretical background presented in the two first chapters, the current chapter investigates the following supplementary research questions:

1) *What are the thoughts and attitudes of English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools regarding teaching English as a third language to non-western students?*
2) *To which extent are English teachers' practice and perception on multilingualism supported by existing language theories and research?*
3) *How can English teachers' perception of multilingualism and preparedness of teaching multilingual students affect multilingual students' learning outcome?*

5.1 Inadequate student preparation

The most unexpected finding in the study is the extent to which inadequate preparation of the students' adjustment to regular English instruction affected the teachers' practice. As native members of a non-western culture, the students begin learning English at their arrival to Norway. As presented in section 4.1, the participants express that the students struggle with learning both languages, and that some also have difficulties adapting to Norwegian school culture and societal norms. The participants believe that it is unfair toward the recently arrived immigrant students to expect that they will achieve A2-B1 proficiency in English after only two years in preparatory classes, while they must attend several other subjects, learn Norwegian and adapt to Norwegian culture (cf. section 2.1). The participants' experience is that the students ultimately have neither learned English nor Norwegian well enough to follow the class successfully. In addition, the participants observe that the disparity in English proficiency between the student and their Norwegian peers creates a linguistic and cultural gap that is most visible when the immigrant students are in regular classes along with Norwegian students.

The participants' experience is that most non-western students have little to none previous English education from their home country. For example, Barbara and Michelle remark that many students have not been taught of basic concepts of grammar prior to arriving in Norway, and therefore lack a metalanguage, which complicates instruction. Normally, one of the prerequisites of being admitted to upper secondary school is to have graduated compulsory schools, in which they must pass the English subject (cf. section 2.1). To compensate for the missing education from Norwegian school, recently arrived immigrants are offered to attend two years of preparatory classes, after which they are automatically placed in regular English instruction. However, the participants experience that most students have not acquired the required English competence to successfully participate in class. One of the consequences of prematurely admitting the students to regular English instruction is that the students are unable to communicate in English. Consequently, the

students are unable to follow regular instruction in English classes and that the difference in competence between the students and their Norwegian peers creates a knowledge gap. The reports by Rambøll (2016) and Thorshaug and Svendsen (2014) support the findings of the current thesis; although the purpose of preparatory classes is to effectively integrate the students socially and academically, they do not successfully prepare the recently arrived immigrant students for English education at upper secondary school. As presented in section 4.1, James remarks that bypassing the prerequisite of English competence for upper secondary school by admitting students with lower proficiency to regular classes creates a pedagogical challenge related to comprehension and intelligibility.

Some of the participants suggest that there should be a language threshold for English or Norwegian that the students should have passed prior to being admitted to regular English classes (cf. section 4.1). The aim of the threshold is to avoid situations where the teacher and student are unable to understand each other due to the absence of a common language. Although a linguistic threshold to English classes may marginalize the students based on their background, the purport of suggesting the threshold is to prevent mutually unintelligible communication between the student and the teacher to be unproductive in a teaching situation. However, the participants who are in favor of the threshold are afraid to express it publicly due to potential consequences of being politically incorrect.

Correspondingly, the participants suggest that separate classes for those with significantly lower English competence would benefit the students more than being in regular English classes. In the current system, the students are being placed in classes in which they are unable to follow instruction, rather than being given the opportunity to improve their English skills with students at the same level and experience success in English language learning. Michelle's support group is an example of how additional resources must be implemented to compensate for the students' inadequate preparation for regular English instruction at Norwegian upper secondary school. In contrast to the argument regarding marginalization, Michelle tells that the students' attendance in her support group does not affect their social status at school, motivation, or individual sense of worth and achievement in a negative manner. On the contrary, the students in her class are motivated and appreciative of having the opportunity of being part of a class that exclusively aims to raise the students' competence level to what is expected of them from compulsory education. Consequently, the participants believe that students with low English competence should be in classes separate from regular instruction to maximize language learning and reduce the knowledge gap in class that may act as a catalyst for marginalization of the students' background and social status. An ideal solution to the problem, according to Tollefson (2007) is to combine L1 maintenance and English language teaching, but it is not given the L1 maintenance teachers knows English. Nonetheless, the participants believe that the restrictions of being politically correct prevents the schools from implementing level based English classes that would benefit the students socially and academically (cf. section 4.1).

The participants' responses indicate that political correctness has too much impact on how the schools are organized, which prevents them from implementing effective language learning initiatives. They believe that having separate classes for students with low proficiency in English can have a greater effect on the students' language learning process, as well as making the instruction easier for the teachers. According to the participants, these classes do not necessarily have to be reserved recently arrived immigrants, although the classes probably would mainly consist of recently arrived immigrants due to their

generally low proficiency level in English as a group. In relation to the suggestion of a linguistic threshold, the idea of having separate classes is exclusively from a perspective based on improving the students' linguistic competence and learning progress as effectively as possible, without regard to social factors and a possible marginalization of the students. The participants do not believe there would be any social disadvantages to the suggestions but rather argues for the opposite. The participants who teach recently arrived immigrant students believe that the students in the current education system may feel more alienated in a mixed classroom due to the clear knowledge gap between them and their Norwegian peers. In every respect, the participants wish the best for their students' language learning process and only propose these suggestions because they believe that implementing them would maximize their learning potential of English as a third language.

5.2 Inadequate teacher preparation

As presented in section 1.1, the influx of immigrant adolescents from non-western nations the past decade has contributed to increased linguistic diversity in the English classroom at Norwegian upper secondary schools. As a result, teaching English a third language becomes increasingly relevant in terms of adapting to the growing number of non-western students. The participants' teacher education has not focused on how to teach English to non-western students. As discussed in chapter 4, the lack of preparation through their education affects the teachers differently. Two of the participants feel insecure and uncomfortable as a result of inadequate preparation, while three of the participants' sense of comfort in teaching English a third language is unaffected. Due to inadequate education, the participants are unaware of the potential benefit L1 utilization may have for learning English as a third language. Consequently, the participants do not utilize the students' L1 in teaching. The studies conducted by Surkalovic (2014), Haukås (2016) and Dahl and Krulatz (2016) demonstrate that English teachers in Norway are inadequately prepared to teach English as a third language (cf. section 2.2). Correspondingly, international research (e.g. Heyder & Schädlich, 2014) show that teachers are hesitant to implement teaching methodology to their language instruction due to insufficient knowledge about effective ways to utilize the students' linguistic background, and that the influx of immigrant students to schools in Europe creates a demand for understanding the students' linguistic and cultural background. The correlation between the findings in the current study and previous research indicates that the teacher education programs do not prepare teachers for the linguistic diversity class. The lack of preparation may also lead teachers to feel uncomfortable teaching non-western students, because they do not know how to successfully approach the students.

The participants do not consider teaching English as a third language as its own field separate from ESL. The participants' responses in chapter 4 indicate that they do not feel that they are teaching English as an L3, but rather teaching English as an L2 to students with inadequate English competence. This perspective may be an indication of insufficient training on how languages acquired after L2 are holistically connected to all previous language knowledge. As presented in section 2.4.1, languages interact with each other inside a speaker's mind: CLI proposes a that previously known languages interact with each other, and *multicompetence* proposes that grammars are stored and connected to each other in the speaker's mind. Accordingly, it would be natural to teach English as a third language based a holistic view on multilingualism and through acknowledging the importance of utilizing all previous language knowledge, if the extent to which the languages can build on each other was known.

Accordingly, the interviews reveal that the participants do not have knowledge about how previous language knowledge affect each other besides being connected in one way or another. If the participants are unaware of the extent to which all language knowledge affects the acquisition of English, or how they can reap the benefits of their students' previous language knowledge when teaching a new language, the participants might miss a potential asset in the students' L1 that they can utilize when teaching English as an L3. In the most unfortunate case, the participants might believe that the students' poor performance in Norwegian and English is representative of their general linguistic capacity and their proficiency in the students' L1 (cf. section 2.4.1), which may contribute to a marginalization of the students' linguistic competence. According to James and Michelle, being fluent is not necessarily connected to have a high degree of knowledge about languages, but rather that the conversation flows effortlessly. On the other hand, Arthur, Barbara and Susan believes that age of acquisition and cultural understanding are essential factors to defining a bilingual or multilingual speaker (cf. section 4.2.2.). In order to provide teachers with consistent knowledge about the transfer of languages, the current study suggests that the teacher education need to have an increased focus on third language acquisition models to better prepare prospecting teachers of English to the new demographic of students.

The correlation between the research presented in section 2.2 and the findings in chapter 4 suggests that English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools are inadequately prepared to teach English as a third language to non-western students at upper secondary school through their teacher education. However, there is no indication that the participants do not want to adapt to the linguistic diversity in class, or that they are inherently unfit to teach English as a third language. As presented in section 4.1 and 4.2.1, the participants miss information about how to effectively teach non-western students and wish for education on the topic to improve as language teachers. According to Haukås (2016), language teachers may also be better predisposed to teach non-western students due to a higher awareness of multilingualism, compared to teachers of other subjects. An example from the current study is that Michelle successfully teaches English a third language to a group of non-western students, although she has not been prepared to do so. Thus, the reason for the inadequate preparation is because the institutions responsible for educating and preparing English teachers do not focus on how to teach non-western students. A consequence of inadequate preparation through education may cause English teachers to be assigned to teach a group of students who they are not prepared to teach, at a level at which they have not been trained for, e.g. Michelle's support group. Thus, the current study suggests that teacher education in Norway do not successfully prepare prospective English teachers for teaching English as a third language at upper secondary schools.

5.3 Utilization of L1

As presented in section 4.1, the participants report that there is no correlation between the students' academic progress and their cultural or linguistic background. On the contrary, they consider the students' individual factors, such as motivation and aptitude, as decisive factors for learning. In addition, the participants observe that immigrant students are motivated to learn English. As such, they assess the students' skills exclusively related to the competence aims because they consciously do not wish to stigmatize any students based on prejudices regarding nationality or linguistic background. All participants observe that the students are motivated to learn English because they see

the value of knowing English and have high ambitions. This shows that the students' poor linguistic starting point is irrelevant to how motivated they are to learn. Barbara compare the students with their Norwegian peers; while Norwegian students have a great starting point and may have created a distaste for learning English, the immigrant students have a poor starting point but are motivated to learn. Correspondingly, the participants enjoy facilitating the students, as much as the students enjoy learning English. The findings show that the educational context for utilizing the students' L1 is present. If the participants have knowledge about how to do so, they may capitalize on their students' motivation and enhance their learning process.

The lack of adequate training through teacher education prevents the participants in the current study from applying effective teaching methods when teaching English as a third language. As presented in section 4.1, the participants in the current study are positive towards multilingual use in the classroom, but they are hesitant to utilize their students' previous languages unless they are familiar with them. As a result, the participants do not consider the students' L1 when teaching English as a third language, and there is indication through previous research that it is common practice to not do so in Europe, including Norway (cf. section 2.2). In correlation with research shown in section 2.3, the participants' responses in section 4.2 indicate that three of the main reasons for not doing so is because they do not know how to utilize the students' L1 efficiently, they are unaware of the potential benefits of utilizing the students' L1 when teaching English as an L3, and they do not regard the utilization of the students' L1 as significant for teaching English as an L3 successfully. As mentioned in section 4.2, the participants express a wish for learning more about their students' previous language because they want to develop as English teachers and to be able to facilitate their students. As an example, it is important for Barbara to receive courses about her students' native background so she can be better equipped to understand and help her students and consequently be more comfortable teaching them English as a third language. Based on the coherency with previous research, the current study shows that the absence of methodology related to teaching English as a third language is due to lack of knowledge due to inadequate training and not an unwillingness to adapt to the increased linguistic diversity.

5.4 Sense of preparedness

The participants' definitions of bi- and multilingualism may affect their sense of preparedness regarding teaching English as a third language. As discussed in section 4.2, the two participants who do not believe one can become bilingual after early age of acquisition (Barbara and Susan) are also those who do not feel prepared to teach English as a third language, even though Susan has completed a course that focuses on teaching Norwegian as a foreign language. Conversely, two of the three participants who feel comfortable teaching English as a third language (Michelle and James) are also those who have the mildest threshold to the terms. Neither Michelle, James or Arthur have had courses directly targeted towards teaching any languages as a third language, but they all feel comfortable teaching English as a third language. Thus, the findings in the current thesis partly support Dahl and Krulatz' (2016) study; three of the participants in the current thesis feel competent teaching a diverse classroom although they have not been prepared to do so through their education. The findings may indicate a correlation between the criteria to how the participants define bi- and multilinguals and the extent to which the

participants are comfortable teaching English as a third language, i.e. if the criteria to being bi- or multilingual include rigid perceptions that are dependent on early age of acquisition, the sense of preparedness to teach English as an L3 may be lower. Thus, the participants' criteria for thresholds regarding bi- and multilingualism may be an important factor to the degree to which they feel prepared in teaching English as a third language, regardless of previous foreign language teaching education.

The participants' lack of preparedness to teach English to non-western students through teacher education affects the participants differently. Although two of the participants, Barbara and Susan, feel particularly uncomfortable and unqualified to teach English as a third language due to lack of training, the other three participants do not feel that way in relation to teaching English to non-western students. The other three participants feel competent and qualified in teaching English as a third language because they believe that an educated English teacher should be able to adapt to their students regardless of their cultural or linguistic background. As discussed in chapter 4, the students' linguistic and cultural background are irrelevant for Arthur, Michelle, and James. Conversely, Barbara and Susan expressed that education on how to teach non-western students is crucial for their sense of comfort and competency, particularly regarding what teaching methodologies to apply when teaching English as a third language. The only common denominator between the Barbara and Susan is that they do not identify as bi- or multilinguals due to not having grown up learning English as their L2 in an English native context. Thus, there might be a correlation between the degree which the participants' criteria to how they define *bilingual* and *multilingual* is rigid, and the extent to which knowledge about their students' cultural background determines the participants' sense of comfort and competency about teaching English as a third language. However, there is no clear correlation between the participants' sense of preparedness and their view on bilingualism and multilingualism.

5.5 Bilingualism and multilingualism

The lack of preparation through education is noticeable in the participants' responses to bilingualism and multilingualism. The participants define the terms *bilingualism* and *multilingualism* differently, and consequently, to which extent they view themselves as either one. James and Michelle emphasize the importance of communicative ability and describe the terms out of a holistic perspective, in contrast to Arthur, Susan, and Barbara who define the terms on atomistic grounds (cf. Cenoz, 2013a). James and Michelle believe that the main difference between *bilingualism* and *multilingualism* is their prefixes and that the important aspect of the terms is the ability to communicate in the languages, rather than the age of acquisition.

The findings in the current study show that the participants understand bilingualism and multilingualism differently, including which factors that define a bilingual or multilingual speaker. The interviews revealed that Barbara, Susan, and Arthur share the perspective on the ownership of English with Kachru's (1992) model, as discussed in section 1.1, and that they have a high threshold criterion to what it constitutes to be or becoming bilingual or multilingual. They believe that the potential of becoming bilingual speakers of English as L2 inherently is exclusive to those from nations in the outer circle. Given the three participants' supposition that Norwegian students can never become bilingual because they learn English in a nation from the expanding circle, it is natural to assume that the presumption also relates to recently arrived immigrant students. Arthur expresses that

becoming bilingual at a later stage in life is possible, but only if the second language is obtained in the context of an inner-circle country. Correspondingly, Barbara and Susan do not believe that English learned in a non-native context can be part of a fully competent fluent English speaker, although Susan remarks that she probably has more language competence than the average native English speaker (cf. 4.2.2.4). The question that remains is how the participants view their students in terms of English language learners, or for what purpose they teach English to the students, if their students will never become bilingual.

Conversely, the perspective on bilingualism and multilingualism by Barbara, Susan, and Arthur contrasts with modern research on the "ownership" of English, as discussed in section 1.1. In addition to being a *lingua franca*, English is used as a language of daily communication in Norway for private and vocational purposes. As presented in chapter 4, the common denominator between the three participants' responses is that they regard cultural understanding as an essential part of being bilingual. Thus, the responses indicate that Barbara. According to the theory regarding bilingualism and multilingualism presented in section 2.4, none of the definitions consider cultural understanding as a decisive factor to define the extent to which a speaker is bi- or multilingual. Thus, Susan and Arthur's thoughts about the ownership of English indicate that their knowledge regarding the two terms is outdated in comparison to modern linguistic research and that their rigid perception of the linguistic definitions of bi- and multilingualism prevents them to view themselves as bilingual or multilingual.

The participants' threshold criteria to bi- and multilingualism indicate that the participants may misjudge their students' linguistic capacity. Barbara and James are worried that the students will remain in a semi-lingual state due to inadequate English or Norwegian proficiency if they are prematurely admitted to regular English classes. For example, Barbara implicates that the students may stay in a semi-lingual state (cf. section 2.4.2) if they are unable to learn English or Norwegian due to low competency in their native language. At worst, disregarding the linguistic capacity of the students based on their performance in their L2 or L3 may lead to a marginalization of the students (cf. section 2.4.2).

The participants' view on bi- and multilingualism may reflect their knowledge about how previous languages interact with a speakers' mind and how it may affect their teaching practice. For instance, Barbara's interpretation of the terms is that they only provide an indication of the number of first languages a person has, without revealing any information regarding proficiency. Like Barbara, Susan believes that two criteria must be met to be considered bi- or multilingual: 1) having acquired the language(s) from at least the age of three and 2) having acquired the language(s) in a native-like environment. Acquiring languages after age three in a non-native environment adds languages to their linguistic repertoire but does not make the learner bilingual or multilingual. Although Barbara and Susan speak and teach at least two languages each, they do not consider themselves bi- or multilingual because they have not acquired their additional languages from birth or very early age. The discrepancy between the participants' definitions of bi- and multilingualism may reflect general unawareness regarding the complexity in teaching multilingual students (cf. Snow, 1990). In light of the research discussed in 2.4.2, Barbara and Susan's responses may indicate that their strict definitions of the terms reflect 1) little inadequate knowledge regarding how languages interact with each other, 2) limited

knowledge about the different language acquisition models and 3) to which extent it may be beneficial to utilize the students' previous language knowledge.

The participants' responses indicate a correlation between the criteria they hold to linguistic proficiency regarding bi- and multilinguals, and the extent to which they feel comfortable and competent to teach English as a third language. James and Michelle have the lowest threshold for proficiency regarding their definitions of the two terms and are also the participants who feel most comfortable and competent to teach English as a third language. In addition, James and Barbara are approximately at the same age and have the same amount of experience in teaching multilingual students, but contrastive perceptions on most points. This finding may indicate that age and number of years with experience are less relevant factors regarding their sense of preparedness.

The inconsistent perceptions of bilingualism and multilingualism indicate that the two terms have not had a satisfactory focus through their teacher education. Consequently, inconsistent views on the topic may lead to inconsistent teaching methodology. The findings in this section related to the participants' definitions are not in coherence with modern research, and the inadequate preparation of teaching English as a third language may lead to a marginalizing of the immigrant students.

5.6 Future research

The present thesis provides a wide presentation of topics related to the five interviewed participants based on a relevant theoretical framework related to third language acquisition, as well as previous research from educational contexts. Currently, there are not many studies concerning teaching English as a third language at Norwegian upper secondary school. This thesis is an addition to the field of research. However, the study does not go in-depth on all topics, but rather shows the complexity related to the context of third language teaching. In addition, the thesis focuses on the teacher perspective of third language acquisition. To complement the thesis' findings and enrich the field of research related to third language acquisition at upper secondary schools in Norway, the current study suggests that future research on the topic should examine the students' perspective of learning English as third language.

6 Conclusion

In the past decade, there has been an increased number of non-western children and adolescents in European and Norwegian schools which has contributed to more linguistically diverse classrooms at upper secondary schools. The demographic change has created a demand for knowledge about how to teach the non-western immigrants. To investigate how the change has affected English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools, the current thesis has inquired into the following research question:

> *To which extent are English teachers at Norwegian upper secondary schools prepared to teach English as a third language to non-western students?*

Based on qualitative interviews of five English teachers at upper secondary schools in Norway, the study demonstrates that the participants have not been prepared to teach English as a third language to recently arrived immigrant students. The participants' responses revealed that they are unaware of the potential benefits of utilizing the students' L1 in L3 instruction and do not adapt their instruction according to the students' previously known languages. However, the participants' lack of knowledge is not due to an unwillingness to learn, but rather unsatisfactory education provided by tertiary institutions responsible for preparing prospective teachers. The demand for knowledge about teaching English as a third language to ensure successful language learning grows in tandem with the number of immigrant students at upper secondary school grows. The largest discrepancy in their responses was regarding their criteria to what constitutes a bilingual and a multilingual. Correspondingly, the participants' inconsistent understanding of the two terms may affect their teaching methodology. Although the participants are unaware of teaching methodology directed toward utilizing the student's native language(s), they do express a wish for more knowledge about the topic. As discussed in chapter five, these findings in chapter four are consistent with previous research presented in chapter two.

In addition, unexpected finding of the interviews was that the participants reported that the students are not adequately prepared for regular English instruction at upper secondary school. The participants believed that many of the immigrant students are prematurely admitted to regular English instruction and proposed separated classes to reduce the knowledge gap between the immigrant and Norwegian students in regular English classes. Correspondingly, the current study indicates that there is a fault in the admission system and that their premature admission to regular classes creates a visible knowledge gap that may marginalize the students.

The study by Dahl and Krulatz (2016) was a fundamental inspiration for this thesis. In their study, they expressed that there is a need for more knowledge and awareness about multilingualism in Norwegian schools. The findings of the current study support Dahl and Krulatz' (2016) proposition; as discussed in chapter five, the interview responses and previous research on the topic indicate that there is a need for more knowledge and awareness about multilingualism in Norwegian schools to successfully provide prospective English teachers with the necessary competence to teach English as a third language at upper secondary to the new demographic of students.

References

Akershus fylkeskommune. (2016). Lokal læreplan for innføringsklasse for minoritetsspråklige (AOLOV0J---) 2015 - 2016. Retrieved from http://docplayer.me/storage/27/11492445/1526130994/EKTp54aXDFYl16P75WjM-w/11492445.pdf

Aronin, L., & Singleton, D. (2008). Multilingualism as a New Linguistic Dispensation. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 5*(1), 1-16. doi:10.2167/ijm072.0

Askheim, S. (2013). Bologna-prosessen. In *Store Norske Leksikon*.

Auerbach, E. R. (1993). Reexamining English Only in the ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 27*(1), 9-32. doi:10.2307/3586949

Auerbach, E. R. (2000). When Pedagogy Meets Politics: Challenging English Only in Adult Education. In R. D. Gonzalez (Ed.), *Language Ideologies: Critical Perspectives on the Official English Movement* (Vol. 1, pp. 177-204). Road, Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Bakken, A. (2003). *Minoritetsspråklig ungdom i skolen : reproduksjon av ulikhet eller sosial mobilitet?* (Vol. 15/2003). Oslo: Norsk institutt for forskning om oppvekst, velferd og aldring.

Bakken, A., & Hyggen, C. (2018). *Trivsel og utdanningsdriv blant minoritetselever i videregående* (8278941688). Retrieved from Oslo:

Balkan, L. (1970). *Les Effets du Bilinguisme Français-Anglais sur les Aptitudes Intellectuelles*. Brussels: Aimav.

Ben-Zeev, S. (1977). The Influence of Bilingualism on Cognitive Strategy and Cognitive Development. *Child Development, 48*(3), 1009-1018. doi:10.2307/1128353

Bonnet, G. (2004). *The Assessment of pupils skills in English in eight European countries 2002: a European project*. Retrieved from https://www.mecd.gob.es/dctm/ievaluacion/internacional/habilidadesingles2002.pdf?documentId=0901e72b8011054e

Brutt-Griffler, J. (2010). Bilingualism and English language teaching. In D. Wyse, R. Andrews, & J. Hoffman (Eds.), *The Routledge International Handbook of English, Language and Literacy Teaching* (pp. 428-241). London, UNITED KINGDOM: Routledge.

Cenoz, J. (2001). *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition : psycholinguistic perspectives*. In Bilingual education and bilingualism ;, Vol. 31. J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen, & U. Jessner (Eds.).

Cenoz, J. (2003). The Additive Effect of Bilingualism on Third Language Acquisition: A Review. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 7*(1), 71-87. doi:10.1177/13670069030070010501

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

Cenoz, J. (2013b). The influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition: Focus on multilingualism. *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 71-86. doi:10.1017/S0261444811000218

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax* (Vol. 11). Cambridge, Mass: M.I.T. Press.

Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of language: its nature, origin, and use*. New York: Praeger.

Cook, V. (1991). The poverty-of-the-stimulus argument and multicompetence. *Interlanguage studies bulletin (Utrecht), 7*(2), 103-117. doi:10.1177/026765839100700203

Cook, V. J., & Bassetti, B. (2011). *Language and bilingual cognition*. New York: Psychology Press.

Cook, V. J., & Newson, M. (1996). *Chomsky's universal grammar : an introduction* (2nd ed. ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.
Council of Europe. (2011). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment*: Cambridge University Press.
Cummins, J. (1976). *The Influence of Bilingualism on Cognitive Growth: A Synthesis of Research Findings and Explanatory Hypotheses. Working Papers on Bilingualism, No. 9* (Vol. 9).
Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children. *Review of Educational Research, 49*(2), 222-251. doi:10.2307/1169960
Dahl, A., & Krulatz, A. (2016). *Engelsk som tredjespråk: Har lærere kompetanse til å støtte flerspråklighet?* (Vol. 10).
De Angelis, G. (2011). Teachers' beliefs about the role of prior language knowledge in learning and how these influence teaching practices. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 8*(3), 216-234. doi:10.1080/14790718.2011.560669
de Groot, A. M. B. (2011). *Language and cognition in bilinguals and multilinguals: An introduction*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.
Directorate for Education and Training. (2012). *Innføringstilbud til nyankomne minoritetsspråklige elever*. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/globalassets/upload/lov_regelverk/veiledere/veileder_innforingstilbud_020712.pdf.
Education First. (2019). EF English Proficiency Index - Norway. Retrieved from https://www.ef.no/epi/regions/europe/norway/
El-Masri, M. M. (2017). Non-probability sampling: Non-probability sampling: The process of selecting research participants non-randomly from a target population. *Canadian Nurse, 113*(3), 17-17.
Flick, U. (2014). *An introduction to qualitative research* (5th ed. ed.). Los Angeles, Calif: SAGE.
Flynn, S., Foley, C., & Vinnitskaya, I. (2004). The Cumulative-Enhancement Model for Language Acquisition: Comparing Adults' and Children's Patterns of Development in First, Second and Third Language Acquisition of Relative Clauses. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 1*(1), 3-16. doi:10.1080/14790710408668175
Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Paradigmic Controversies, Contradictions, and Emerging Influences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed., pp. 191-216). California & London: Sage.
Hansen, T. I. (2012). cand.mag.-graden. In: Store Norske Leksikon.
Haukås, Å. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 13*(1), 1-18. doi:10.1080/14790718.2015.1041960
Heyder, K., & Schädlich, B. (2014). Mehrsprachigkeit und Mehrkulturalität - eine Umfrage unter Fremdsprachenlehrkräften in Niedersachsen. *Zeitschrift für Interkulturellen Fremdsprachenunterricht, 19*(1).
Høydahl, E. (2008). Vestlig og ikke-vestlig - ord som ble for store og gikk ut på dato. *Samfunnsspeilet, 22*(4), 66-69.
Ianco-Worrall, A. D. (1972). Bilingualism and Cognitive Development. *Child Development, 43*(4), 1390-1400. doi:10.2307/1127524
Jenkins, J. (2003). *World Englishes: a resource book for students*. London: Routledge.
Jessner, U. (2006). *Linguistic awareness in multilinguals: English as a third language*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
Jessner, U. (2008). Teaching third languages: Findings, trends and challenges. *Lang. Teach., 41*(1), 15-56. doi:10.1017/S0261444807004739
Jin, F. (2009). Third language acquisition of Norwegian objects: Interlanguage transfer or L1 influence? In Y.-k. I. Leung (Ed.), *Third Language Acquisition and Universal Grammar* (pp. 144-161). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
Kachru, B. B. (1992). World Englishes: approaches, issues and resources. *Language Teaching, 25*(1), 1-14. doi:10.1017/S0261444800006583

Kemp, C. (2009). Defining multilingualism. In B. Hufeisen & L. Aronin (Eds.), *The Exploration of Multilingualism : Development of Research on L3, Multilingualism, and Multiple Language Acquisition* (pp. 11-26). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
Krashen, S. D. (1996). Under attack: the case against bilingual education. In. Culver City, CA: Language Education Associates.
Kunnskapsdepartementet. (2008). *Språk bygger broer: språkstimulering og språkopplæring for barn, unge og voksne*. Oslo: Departementet.
Lambert, W. E. (1973). *Culture and Language as Factors in Learning and Education*.
Lambine, C. H. (2008). English isn't just a foreign language anymore. *Språk og Språkundervisning, 2*, 5-7.
Lasagabaster, D. (1998). The Threshold Hypothesis Applied to Three Languages in Contact at School. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 1*(2), 119-133. doi:10.1080/13670059808667678
Ministry of Education and Research. (1998). *Lov om grunnskolen og den vidaregåande opplæringa (opplæringslova)*. Retrieved from https://lovdata.no/dokument/NL/lov/1998-07-17-61.
Nacey, S. (2013). Metaphor in Europe. In *Metaphors in Learner English* (pp. 37-61). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
Nation, R., & McLaughlin, B. (1986). Novices and experts: An information processing approach to the 'good language learner' problem. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 7*, 41-56.
Padilla, A. (1990). *Bilingual Education: Issues and Strategies*.
Peal, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1962). The Relation Of Bilingualism To Intelligence. In (Vol. 76, pp. 1-23).
Rambøll. (2013). Kartlegging av innføringstilbud til elever som kommer til Norge i ungdomsskolelealder og som har få års skolegang før ankomst. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/globalassets/filer/tall-og-forskning/rapporter/2013/kartlegging-av-innforingstilbud_sluttrapport.pdf
Rambøll. (2016). *Evaluering av særskilt språkopplæring og innføringstilbud*. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/globalassets/filer/tall-og-forskning/forskningsrapporter/evaluering-av-sarskilt-sprakopplaring-2016.pdf
Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: the art of hearing data*. In.
Saldanha, G., & O'Brien, S. (2014). *Research Methodologies in Translation Studies*. London, UNITED KINGDOM: Taylor & Francis Group.
Snow, C. E. (1990). Rationales for Native Language Instruction: Evidence from Research. In A. Padilla, H. H. Fairhchild, & S. M. Valadez (Eds.), *Bilingual Education: Issues and Strategies* (pp. 60-74). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications/Corwin Press.
Surkalovic, D. (2014). Forbereder grunnskolelærerutdanningen engelsklærere for undervisning i engelsk som tredjespråk i Norge? *Acta didactica Norge [elektronisk ressurs], 8*(2), 17-17. doi:10.5617/adno.1129
Thorshaug, K., & Svendsen, S. (2014). *Helhetlig oppfølging: nyankomne elever med lite skolebakgrunn fra opprinnelseslandet og deres opplæringssituasjon*. In NTNU samfunnsforskning, *Rapport 2014 Mangfold og inkludering*.
Tollefson, J. W. (2007). Ideology, Language Varieties, and ELT. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International Handbook of English Language Teaching* (Vol. 11, pp. 25-36). Boston, MA: Springer US, Boston, MA.
Torrance, E. P., Gowan, J. C., Wu, J.-J., Aliotti, N. C., & Holtzman, W. H. (1970). Creative functioning of monolingual and bilingual children in Singapore. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 61*(1), 72-75. doi:10.1037/h0028767
Toukomaa, P., & Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1977). *The intensive teaching of the mother tongue to migrant children of pre-school age and children in the lower level of comprehensive school*. Helsinki: The Finnish National Commision for UNESCO.
Utdanning.no. (2019). Yrkesbeskrivelse - lektor. Retrieved from https://utdanning.no/yrker/beskrivelse/lektor
Witzel, A. (2000). The Problem-Centered Interview. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 1*(1).

Appendices

Appendix A: E-mail to participants

Hei!

Mitt navn er Sahand Fard, og er masterstudent i lektorutdanninga på NTNU Dragvoll. I masteroppgava mi har jeg til tenkt å intervjue engelsklærere i forbindelse med flerspråklige elever og engelsklæring, og jeg håper skolen deres kan hjelpe meg med dette. I den forbindelse vil jeg gjerne be om at denne e-posten blir videresendt til alle engelsklærerne på skolen deres, og at de ved en eventuell interesse bes kontakte meg på e-post (sahandmf@stud.ntnu.no) for ytterligere informasjon. Angående personvern, kan jeg med en gang nevne at personidentifiserende opplysninger vil bli anonymisert, herav inkludert navn, bosted og arbeidsplass, og at prosjektet allerede er godkjent av NSD.

I første omgang tenkte jeg å nevne dette kort for å høre om det er noen av lærerne deres som kunne være interessert i å delta i et slikt intervju. Interessen er selvfølgelig helt uforpliktende, og en eventuell deltakelse er på ingen måte bindende. Intervjuet er av typen kvalitativt, og kan forventes å vare i omtrent en time. Jeg vil forsøke å etterkomme lærernes ønsker og preferanser så godt jeg kan, både med tanke på tid og sted, slik at en deltakelse ikke skal være noen belastning. Jeg er veldig klar over at lærere har en travel hverdag, så jeg har lyst til å gjøre dette til en så positiv opplevelse som mulig.

Jeg håper denne e-posten kan bli videresendt til alle engelsklærerne på skolen, og at de bes kontakte meg ved en eventuell interesse. De trenger ikke å skrive noe utfyllende. Et "Hei. Jeg har mottatt e-posten angående masteroppgaven din og er interessert i å bli intervjuet." holder i massevis!

Mvh

Sahand Fard

Appendix B: Short questionnaire

Spørreskjema

Navn:

Alder:

Skole:

Fylke:

Kommune:

Utdanning:

Her kan dere godt også legge til eventuell tilleggsutdanning og kurs som vist i eksempelet. Jeg vil gjerne også vite årstallet på når dere tok utdanningen. Legg også gjerne til stedet der dere tok utdanningen, om det er greit for dere.

I hvor mange år har du jobbet som engelsklærer, og i hvor mange år har du jobbet som engelsklærer på videregående?

Gjerne inkluder også hvor dere har jobba, dersom dere har jobbet på forskjellige skoler.

I hvor mange år har du hatt minoritetsspråklige elever engelskklassene dine?

Her trenger dere ikke å inkludere nasjonaliteter. Med «minoritetsspråklige elever» mener jeg elever med et ikke-vestlig morsmål. Dere skal ikke nevne eller beskrive spesifikke elever på en identifiserbar måte. Dette er av hensyn til personvern.

Omtrent hvor mange minoritetsspråklige elever har du undervist sammenlagt?

Dere skal ikke nevne eller beskrive spesifikke elever på en identifiserbar måte. Dette er av hensyn til personvern. Med «minoritetsspråklige elever» mener jeg elever med et ikke-vestlig morsmål.

Omtrent hvor mange minoritetsspråklige elever finnes det på skolen der du jobber nå?

Med «minoritetsspråklige elever» mener jeg elever med et ikke-vestlig morsmål. Dere skal ikke nevne eller beskrive spesifikke elever på en identifiserbar måte. Dette er av hensyn til personvern.

Appendix C: Information sheet and consent form

MASTEROPPGAVE OM UNDERVISNING AV ENGELSK SOM ET TREDJESPRÅK I NORSKE VIDEREGÅENDE SKOLER

JANUAR – DESEMBER 2017

INFORMASJONSARK

Kontaktinformasjon til veileder:
Anne Dahl
73596794
anne.j.dahl@ntnu.no

Kontaktinformasjon til student:
Sahand Fard
91775231
sahandmf@stud.ntnu.no

Denne masteroppgava dreier seg om hvordan lærere opplever å undervise engelsk for elever med et annet morsmål enn norsk i norske videregående skoler, og i den forbindelse skal jeg utføre semi-strukturerte dybdeintervjuer av engelsklærere. Formålet med intervjuene er å få innsikt i lærernes erfaringer, kunnskaper og tanker om undervisning av engelsk som et tredjespråk.

Du kan når som helst trekke deltakelsen din, både før, under og etter intervjuet. All innsats skal være frivillig, så dersom du bestemmer deg for å trekke deg, vil all lagra data og informasjon om deg bli sletta deretter.

All data vil bli lagret i et arkiv hvor kun jeg har tilgang. Masteroppgava skal leveres og forsvares, men i begge tilfeller vil alle personopplysninger bli anonymisert slik at det ikke skal finnes noen personidentifiserende informasjon. Ved prosjektslutt vil all personidentifiserende informasjon bli anonymisert.

Dersom du har spørsmål om prosjektet, kan jeg nåes på e-post og telefon (sahandmf@stud.ntnu.no og 91775231).

MASTEROPPGAVE OM UNDERVISNING AV ENGELSK SOM ET TREDJESPRÅK I VIDEREGÅENDE SKOLE

SAMTYKKESKJEMA

1. Jeg har lest informasjonsarket som beskrev denne masteroppgava.

2. Sahand Fard har forklart meg hva masteroppgava dreier seg om, og hva som vil bli forventet av meg. Han har besvart eventuelle spørsmål på en tilfredsstillende måte. Jeg samtykker i organiseringen av masteroppgava som beskrevet på informasjonsarket.

3. Jeg er innforstått med at min deltakelse i prosjektet er frivillig og at jeg når som helst har rett til å trekke meg fra prosjektet.

4. Jeg har mottatt en kopi av dette samtykkeskjemaet og det medfølgende informasjonsarket.

Navn:……...……

Signatur:…….....

Sted:…….

Dato:……

Appendix D: Interview guide

Intervjuguide

eivm er brukt som en forkortelse for *elever med ikke-vestlig morsmål*

Personlig info og utdanningsbakgrunn

Generell utdanning

- Hvor og hva har du studert?
- Hva var motivasjonen din for å studere dette?

Utdanning retta mot å undervise *eivm*

- Føler du at lærerutdanninga di har gjort deg forberedt til å undervise *eivm*?
- Har du hatt noen form for etter-/videreutdanning i forbindelse med flerspråklighet?
- Føler du at du burde hatt mer utdanning innenfor flerspråklighet for å kunne være bedre rusta til å undervise elever med et ikke-vestlig morsmål spesifikt?

Jobberfaring

- Hvor lenge har du jobba som lærer?
- Har du jobbet som lærer andre steder enn der du jobber nå?
- Hvilke trinn og fag underviser du i dag, og hvilke har du undervist tidligere?

Tanker og holdninger

To- og flerspråklighet

Generelt

- Hva vil det si å være *tospråklig*?
    - Når kan man definere en person som to- eller flerspråklig, mtp. språknivå og -kompetanse?
- Er det vanlig at nordmenn er *tospråklig*?
    - Kan man ta det som en selvfølge at den yngre generasjonen nordmenn i dag er *tospråklige*?
- Hva vil det si å lære et språk som et tredjespråk?
- Hvordan er det forskjellig å lære et tredjespråk fra å lære et andrespråk?
- Det er gjort studier på at tidligere tilegna språkkunnskaper påvirker hverandre. Tenker du at dette gjelder i forbindelse med å lære engelsk som et tredjespråk? I så fall hvordan?
    - Vil tidligere språkkompetanse styrke eller hindre læring av nye språk?
- Vil det være vanskeligere å lære engelsk som et tredjespråk for en ungdom som skal lære seg norsk i tillegg?
- Det er vanlig å snakke om tospråklighet. Er det nødvendig eller nyttig å heller begynne å snakke om flerspråklighet istedenfor?

Tospråklige elever

Metalingvistisk bevissthet

- Har tospråklige elever bedre forutsetninger for å lære seg et nytt språk?
- Er tospråklige elever mer lingvistisk bevisste enn enspråklige?
- Har tospråklige elever utvikla seg strategier for å lære et nytt språk gjennom å være tospråklig?

Elevenes nivå og forutsetninger

Språklig påvirkning

- Er det viktig å kunne morsmålet sitt godt før man lærer et nytt språk?
- Er det nødvendig at elevene kan norsk når de skal lære og blir undervist i engelsk?

- Er det hensiktsmessig å la elever som ikke snakker flytende norsk delta i engelskundervisninga?
- Burde det være et minimumskrav i norsk for å bli plassert i en (vanlig) engelskklasse?
    - Hvilke fordeler og ulemper kan et slikt krav i så fall ha?

Simultanlæring av språk

- Blir læringsprosessen i engelsk mer komplisert dersom norsk og engelsk læres samtidig?

CLI

- Er flerspråklighet en fordel eller ulempe ifm. elever som lærer et tredjespråk (på en generell basis), som for eksempel norske elever som skal lære seg spansk?
    - Har elevens tidligere språkkunnskaper noen påvirkning på å lære engelsk som et tredjespråk?
- Kan elevenes andre språkkunnskaper (enn norsk og engelsk) brukes til å lære engelsk som et tredjespråk?
- Bruker *eivm* norsk som et mellomspråk når de lærer engelsk (i Norge)?
- Påvirker kompetansen i norsk eller morsmålet graden av hvorvidt *eivm* bruker et mellomspråk for å lære seg engelsk?

Code switching

- Hva sier kodeveksling om språkferdighetene til elevene?
- Veksler *eivm* mellom engelsk og morsmålet i engelsktimene, eller mellom engelsk, norsk og morsmålet? Hva sier dette i så fall om språkevnen/-forståelsen deres?

Teori i praksis

- Føler du at teori angående tospråklighet og språkundervisning er i samsvar med praksis?

Intelligens

- Er flerspråklige er mer intelligente enn to- eller enspråklige?

Lærers oppfatning av *eivm*s læringsopplevelse

- Hvordan opplever du at elevene opplever å lære engelsk som et tredjespråk?

Læreren

Lærers språkkunnskaper

- Hvor viktig er det at engelsklæreren kan norsk?
- Hva slags kunnskap og ferdigheter burde en lærer som underviser engelsk som tredjespråk ha?

Lærers kunnskap om andre språk(systemer)

- Tenker du at det er en fordel å ha kunnskap om ikke-vestlige språk ifm. undervisning av engelsk som et tredjespråk?

Foreldrenes språkkunnskaper

- Har foreldrene til *eivm*s språkferdigheter noen påvirkning på hvordan *eivm* lærer engelsk som et tredjespråk?
- Dersom foreldrene har dårlige engelskkunnskaper, føler du at du må gjøre ekstra for å kompensere for den manglende kunnskapen som finnes i hjemmet, mtp. undervisningsmetoder?
- Føler du at lærere må undervise *eivm* metoder for å lære engelsk/som et fremmedspråk, eller er de allerede vant med å lære seg et fremmedspråk selv?
- Vil det være et hinder for engelsklæringa mtp. bl.a. språkforvirring dersom det hovedsakelig er førstespråket til elevene blir snakket hjemme?

Erfaring

Klasse

Språkmangfold

- Hvordan har språkmangfoldet i dine tidligere og nåværende klasser vært?
- Hva er et ideelt antall *eivm* å ha i en engelskklasse, og hva er et ideelt antall elever å ha i en engelskklasse totalt?
- Er det noen tydelige forskjeller mellom klasser med stort språkmangfold i forhold til klasser med lite språkmangfold?
- Hvilke fordeler og utfordringer kan det være med en klasse med større språkmangfold sammenligna med en klasse med mindre språkmangfold?

Elever født i Norge med utenlandske foreldre

- Er det noen forskjell i engelsklæringa mellom elever som er født og oppvokst i Norge og ikke har norsk som morsmål og de med samme morsmål, men som er ikke er født i Norge?
    - For eksempel to elever med persisk morsmål, hvorav én er født og oppvokst i Norge og den andre er født og oppvokst i Iran.

Engelskfaget

Elevers utfordringer

- Hvilke aspekter ved engelskfaget har *eivm* minst og mest utfordringer med?
- Hvilke aspekter ved engelskspråket har *eivm* minst og mest utfordringer med?

Elevers engelskkunnskaper

- På hvilket nivå pleier *eivm* som regel allerede å ligge på i engelsk, og siden når har de som regel lært seg engelsk?
- Er det enklere for *eivm* å lære engelsk i Norge/det norske skolesystemet, sammenligna med hjemlandet? I så fall på hvilke områder og hvorfor?
- Er det vanskeligere for *eivm* å lære engelsk i Norge enn elever som har startet utdanninga si i Norge siden førsteklasse?
- Burde man (ideelt sett) starte med engelskundervisning på et lavere nivå for å forsikre seg om at elevene er i stand til å følge undervisningen på vg1?
- Har du erfaring med at *eivm* har svakere engelskferdigheter enn resten av klassen? Er dette i så fall en utfordring?
    - Burde man vurdere egne klasser for de med svakest ferdigheter?
- Er det forskjell i hvor mye engelsk nyankomne innvandrere fra «har med seg» fra hjemlandet?

Tendenser basert på elevers nasjonalitet

- Hvilke tendenser/fellestrekk er det blant elevene (som lærer engelsk som et tredjespråk) som plukker opp engelsk lettere, og hvilke er det blant de som tar det vanskeligst/har størst utfordringer?
- Hvordan er det å motivere disse *eivm* sammenligninga med norske elever, og hvordan påvirker dette deg som lærer?

Grupper

Er det noen tendenser i læringsmønster blant *eivm* som kan deles inn i grupper, og hvordan skiller de seg i så fall ut? For eksempel:

- Kjønn? F. eks iranske og syriske jenter.
- Nasjonaliteter? F. eks somaliere og egyptere
- Språkgrupper? F. eks Mandarintalende og arabere

Hvis ja, er det forskjell:

- i måten de studerer på?
- på resultatene de oppnår?
- på hvor effektivt de lærer?
- på skolekulturen deres?

Hjemmekultur og foreldres språkkunnskaper

Utnyttelse av kunnskap om elevers kulturbakgrunn

- I hvor stor grad bruker du norsk i engelskundervisninga?
- Påvirker *eivm*s kunnskap om norsk kultur evnen deres til å forstå kultur som beskrives i engelskfaget?
- Blir læringsutbyttet i engelskopplæringa påvirka av å anerkjenne elevenes morsmål og kulturopphav?

Morsmålsundervisning

- På hvilken måte kan morsmålsundervisninga påvirke elevenes evne til å lære engelsk som et tredjespråk?
    - Er det viktig med morsmålsundervisning for å kunne følge engelskundervisninga?

Undervisning

Undervisningsmetoder

- Finnes det områder i engelskundervisninga som har større fokus enn andre i forbindelse med undervisning av engelsk som et tredjespråk?
- Føler du at du må ta (ekstra) hensyn til språkminoritetsgruppa di når du underviser?
- Hvilke undervisningsstrategier tenker du har størst effekt for en elev som skal lære engelsk som et tredjespråk?
- Trenger elever som lærer engelsk som et tredjespråk tettere oppfølging enn de som lærer det som et andrespråk?

Utnyttelse av *eivm*s førstespråk i undervisninga

- Bruker du elevens andre språk i undervisningssammenheng? I så fall på hvilken måte?

Hensyn til *eivm*

- Må du bruke mer tid på å planlegge undervisninga når du har elever som lærer engelsk som et tredjespråk?
- Blir planlegginga av undervisninga mer krevende når man har en mindre gruppe som behersker verken engelsk eller norsk?
- Tilpasser du undervisninga di ut ifra det språklige mangfoldet blant elevene?
    - Bruker du konkrete undervisningsstrategier for en gruppe elever med et spesifikt førstespråk, f. eks. elever med arabisk førstespråk?
- Tar du utgangspunkt i konkrete offisielt utstedte undervisningsstrategier, som eksempelvis Språkpermen når du underviser engelsk til *eivm*?

Fokusområde i undervisninga

- Når du underviser engelsk til *eivm*, fokuserer du som regel i å utvikle skriftlig eller muntlig kompetanse?
- Er det på ett av områdene du føler er mer effektivt å fokusere på mtp. læringsutbytte?

Lærerens tilgang til ressurser

- Føler du at du har nok ressurser og kunnskap for å undervise *eivm*?
- Hvilke ressurser har du tilgang til, og hvilke syns du burde ha vært tilgjengelige for deg?

Appendix E: E-mail to participants (translated)

Hi!

My name is Sahand Fard, and I am a master student at the *lektor* education at NTNU Dragvoll. In my master thesis, I am going to interview English teachers regarding multilingual students and English learning, and I hope your school can help me with this. I would like to request this email to be forwarded to all English teachers at your school, and that they contact me at e-mail (sahandmf@stud.ntnu.no) for further information if they are interested in participating. Regarding privacy, I can immediately mention that person-identifying information will be anonymized, including name, place of residence and workplace, and that the project has already been approved by NSD.

Initially, I thought I would briefly present this to see if there are any of your teachers who could be interested in participating in an interview. The interest is of course not binding, and any participation is in no way binding. The interview is of a qualitative type and can be expected to last for about one hour. I will try to comply with the teachers' wishes and preferences as well as possible, both in terms of time and place, so that the participation will not be a strain in any way. I am very aware that teachers have a busy schedule so I would like to make this experience as positive as possible.

I hope this email can be forwarded to all English teachers at the school, and that they contact me if they are interested. They do not need to reply in detail. A "Hi. I've received the email regarding your master's thesis, and I am interested in being interviewed." is good enough!

Best regards,

Sahand Fard

Appendix F: Short questionnaire (translated)

Questionnaire

Name:

Age:

School:

County:

Municipality:

Education:

Here you may add any additional education and courses. I would also like to know during which years you studied. Also, feel free to add at which institution you studied, if you do not mind.

For how many years have you worked as an English teacher, and for how many years have you worked as an English teacher at upper secondary school?

Please do include where you have worked previously if you have worked at different schools.

For how many years have you had minority language students in your English classes?

Here you do not need to include nationalities. By "minority language students" I mean students with a non-western mother tongue. You should <u>not</u> mention or describe specific students in an identifiable manner. This is due to privacy.

About how many minority language students have you taught in total?

You should <u>not</u> mention or describe specific students in an identifiable manner. This is due to privacy. By "minority language students" I mean students with a non-western mother tongue.

About how many minority language pupils are there at the school where you work now?

By "minority language students" I mean students with a non-western mother tongue. You should <u>not</u> mention or describe specific students in an identifiable manner. This is due to privacy.

Appendix G: Information sheet and consent form (translated)

MASTER'S THESIS ABOUT TEACHING ENGLISH AS A THIRD LANGUAGE IN NORWEGIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

JANUARY – DECEMBER 2017

INFORMATION SHEET

Contact information for supervisor:
Anne Dahl
73596794
anne.j.dahl@ntnu.no

Contact information for student:
Sahand Fard
91775231
sahandmf@stud.ntnu.no

This master's thesis concerns how teachers experience teaching English to students with a mother tongue other than Norwegian at Norwegian upper secondary school, and in that regard, I will carry out semi-structured in-depth interviews of English teachers. The purpose of the interviews is to gain insight into the teachers' experiences, knowledge and thoughts about learning English as a third language.

You may at any time withdraw your participation before, during and after the interview. All efforts should be voluntary, so if you decide to withdraw, all the stored data and information about you will be deleted accordingly.

All data will be stored in an archive where only I have access. The master's thesis will be submitted and defended, but all personal data will be anonymized in both cases so that no person-identifying information will be presented. At the end of the project, all person-identifying information will be anonymized.

If you have any questions about the project, I can be reached by e-mail and phone (sahandmf@stud.ntnu.no and 91775231).

MASTER'S THESIS ABOUT TEACHING ENGLISH AS A THIRD LANGUAGE AT UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL

CONSENT FORM

5. I have read the information sheet that described this master's thesis.

6. Sahand Fard has explained to me what the master's thesis is about, and what is expected of me. He has answered all questions in a satisfactory manner. I consent to the organization of the master's thesis as described on the information sheet.

7. I understand that my participation in the project is voluntary and that I have the right to withdraw from the project at any time.

8. I have received a copy of this consent form and the attached information sheet.

Name:……...……

Signature:…….

Place:…….

Date:……

Appendix H: Interview guide (translated)

Interview Guide

eivm is used as an abbreviation for *students with non-western mother tongue*

Personal info and educational background

General education

- Where and what have you studied?
- What was your motivation to study this?

Education towards to teach *eivm*

- Do you feel that your teacher education has prepared you to teach *eivm*?
- Have you had any kind of supplementary teaching training in connection with multilingualism?
- Do you feel that you should have more education in multilingualism in order to be better equipped to teach students with a non-western mother tongue specifically?

Job experience

- For how long have you been working as a teacher?
- Have you worked as a teacher at other places than where you currently do?
- Which grades and subjects do you teach today, and what have you taught before?

Thoughts and attitudes

Bi- and multilingualism

General

- What does it mean to be *bilingual*?
  - When can one define a person as a bi- or multilingual regarding in terms of linguistic competence?
- Is it common for Norwegians to be *bilingual*?
  - Can it be taken as a matter of course that the younger generation of Norwegians today are *bilingual*?
- What does it mean to learn a language as a third language?
- How is learning a third language different from learning a second language?
- Research have shown that previously acquired language skills influence each other. Do you think this applies in the context of learning English as a third language? If so, how?
  - Will previous language skills strengthen or hinder the acquisition of a new language?
- Will it be more difficult to learn English as a third language for an adolescent who is learning Norwegian as well?
- It is common to talk about bilingualism. Is it necessary or useful to rather refer to multilingualism instead?

Bilingual students

Metalinguistic awareness

- Are bilingual students better predisposed to learn a new language?
- Are bilingual students more linguistically aware than their monolingual peers?

Students' level and predisposition

Linguistic influence

- Is it important to know one's mother tongue well before learning a new language?
- Is it necessary that the students know Norwegian, when they are learning and being taught in English?
- Is it expedient to allow students who do not speak Norwegian fluently to participate in English classes?
- Should there be a minimum requirement for Norwegian proficiency to be placed in a (regular) English class?
    - What advantages and disadvantages can such a requirement have?

Simultaneous language learning

- Does the learning process in English become more complicated if Norwegian and English are learned simultaneously?

CLI

- Is multilingualism an advantage or disadvantage with regard to students learning a third language (on a general basis), e.g. Norwegian students who are learning Spanish?
    - Do the students' previous language skills have any influence on learning English as a third language?
- Can the students' proficiency in other languages (than Norwegian and English) be used to learn English as a third language?
- Do *eivm* use Norwegian as an intermediate language when they learn English (in Norway)?
- Does the competence in Norwegian or the mother tongue affect to which extent *eivm* use an intermediate language to learn English?

Code switching

- What does code switching say about the students' language proficiency?
- Do *eivm* switch between English and their native language in the English classes, or between English, Norwegian and mother tongue? If so, what does this say about their language ability/understanding?

Theory in practice

- Do you feel that the theory regarding bilingualism and language teaching corresponds with teaching practice?

Intelligence

- Are multilinguals more intelligent than bi- or monolinguals?

Teacher's perception of *eivm* 's learning experience

- How do you feel that students experience learning English as a third language?

The teacher

Teacher's language skills

- How important is it that the English teacher knows Norwegian?
- What kind of skills and knowledge should a teacher of English as a third language have?

Teacher's knowledge of other language

- Do you think it is beneficial to have knowledge about non-western languages in relation to teaching English as a third language?

Parents' language skills

- Do *eivm*'s parents' language skills have any influence on how *eivm* learn English as a third language?
- If the parents have poor English skills, do you feel that you must do extra to compensate for the lack of knowledge at home, with regard to your teaching methods?
- Do you feel that teachers must teach *eivm* methods to learn English/a foreign language, or are they already accustomed to learning a foreign language?
- Will speaking the first language at home be an obstacle for English learning in relation to confusion of languages?

Experience

Class

language Diversity

- How has the language diversity of your past and present classes been?
- What is an ideal number of *eivm* to have in an English class, and what is an ideal number of students to have in an English class?
- Are there any clear differences between classes with a large linguistic diversity in relation to classes with little language diversity?
    - If so, what are the challenges and the benefits?

Pupils born in Norway with foreign parents

- Are there any differences in learning English between students who are born and raised in Norway and do not have Norwegian as their native language, and those with the same mother tongue but who are not born in Norway?
    - For example, two pupils with Persian mother tongue, one of whom was born and raised in Norway and the other was born and raised in Iran.

English course

Student's challenges

- What aspects of the English subject do *eivm* find least and most challenging?
- What aspects of the English language do *eivm* find least and most challenging?

Students' English skills

- At what level are *eivm* already in English, and since when do they usually have learned English?
- Is it easier for *eivm* to learn English in Norway/the Norwegian school system, compared to their home country? If so, in what areas and why?
- Is it more difficult for *eivm* to learn English in Norway than students who have started their compulsory education in Norway since the first grade?
- Should one (ideally) start with English teaching at a lower level to make sure that *eivm* are able to follow the teaching at vg1?
- Have you experienced that *eivm* has poorer English skills than the rest of the class? If so, does this create a challenge for you?
    - Should one consider own classes for those with poorest English skills?
- Is there a difference in how much English the recently arrived immigrants know prior to arriving to Norway?

Tendencies based on student nationality

- What are the trends/commonalities among the students (who learn English as a third language) who acquire English more easily, and what are the ones among those who find English most difficult/challenging?
- How is it to motivate *eivm* compared to Norwegian students, and how does this affect you as a teacher?

Groups

Are there any trends in learning patterns among *eivm* that can be divided into groups, and how do they differ in that case? For example:

- Gender? For example, Iranian and Syrian girls.
- Nationality? For example, Somalis and Egyptians
- Continents? For example, Africa and Asia
- Language groups? For example, Mandarin speakers and Arabs

If so, is there a difference:

- in the way they study?
- on the results they achieve?
- on how effectively they learn?
- on their school culture?

Home culture and parents' language skills

Utilization of knowledge about students' cultural background

- To what extent do you use Norwegian when you teach English?
- Do *eivm*'s knowledge about Norwegian culture affect their ability to understand the cultures described in the English subject?
- Does the learning outcome in the English language education become affected by recognizing the students' heritage language and culture?

Native language instruction

- In what way can mother tongue education affect the students' ability to learn English as a third language?
    - Is mother tongue instruction important to be able to follow English teaching?

Teaching

Teaching methods

- Are there areas in English teaching that have a greater focus than others in teaching English as a third language?
- Do you feel that you need to take (extra) consideration for the language minority group when you teach?
- Which teaching strategies do you think have the greatest impact on a student who is going to learn English as a third language?
- Do students who learn English as a third language need closer follow-up than those who learn it as a second language?

Utilization of *eivm* 's first language in teaching

- Do you use the student's other language in a teaching context? If so, in what way?

Considerations of *eivm*

- Do you spend more time planning classes when you have students learning English as a third language?
- Does the planning become more demanding when you have a smaller group who master neither English nor Norwegian?
- Do you adapt your teaching based on the linguistic diversity among the students?
    - Do you utilize specific teaching strategies toward a group of students with a specific first language, e.g. students with Arabic first language?
- When you teach you teach English as at third language to *eivm*, do you base your teaching on officially issued teaching strategies, such as *Språkpermen*?

Written and oral competence

- When teaching English to *eivm*, do you usually focus on developing written or oral skills?
- Is it in any of the abovementioned areas you feel is more effective to focus on regarding learning outcomes?

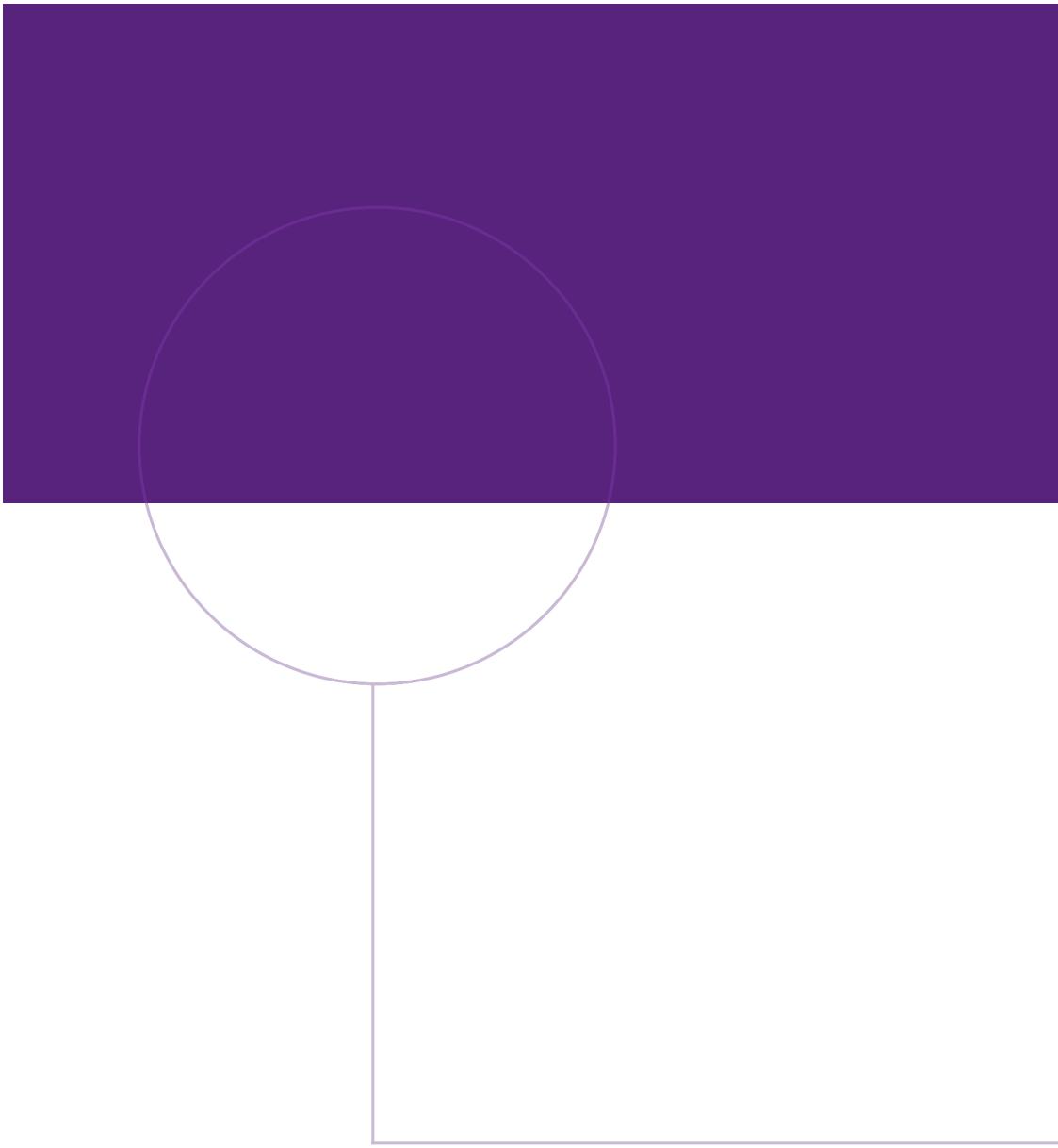
Teacher's access to resources

- Do you feel that you have enough resources and knowledge to teach *eivm*?
- What resources do you have access to, and what do you think should have been available for you?

Appendix I: Pedagogical relevance

Pedagogical relevance

The current thesis is relevant for teachers because it displays how five English teachers at upper secondary, with different amount of experience and education, experience teaching English as a third language to non-western students. The study reveals several aspects to how the teachers feel about the students, the school system and themselves. I have learned a lot from the interviews. By showing some of the prominent findings in the current thesis, I hope other pedagogues also may learn from my participants. The interviews also indicate that there is a big variety in the perception of bilingualism and multilingualism. Thus, the teachers who read this thesis, whether they are in-training or post-training, may reflect upon their own perception of the two terms and be inspired to discover more about the research on topic. Correspondingly, the theory chapter in the current study demonstrates important and relevant research about language acquisition models, previous research on teaching of English as an L3, and the important aspects of utilizing the students' L1 in third language learning. The discussion chapter reflects on the participants' responses and connects it to relevant theory. In all, the thesis provides a solid introduction on how to teach English as a third language, based on relevant theory and real experiences from Norwegian contexts.



NTNU
Norwegian University of
Science and Technology