UiA University of Agder

Master

Investigating Teachers' Use of L1 in L2 Teaching

A survey of English teachers' attitudes and perceived classroom practices in Norwegian lower secondary school

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Abstract

To date there has been limited research on the language use of English teachers in lower secondary schools in Norway. This quantitative cross-sectional study investigated the use of L1 Norwegian during L2 English language instruction in a mixed sample of practicing teachers (n= 217). The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between teachers' estimated quantity of L1 use for different purposes and their degree of satisfaction with their practice. In addition, the relationship between their attitudes towards L1 use, estimated L1 usage and satisfaction levels was examined. The participants completed an online survey asking them to estimate to what degree they use Norwegian in various academic and non-academic teaching situations. They were then asked to rate their level of satisfaction with their reported Norwegian usage for each situation. Participants were further asked to indicate their agreement with a series of statements designed to determine their attitudes towards the use of Norwegian in the English classroom.

Taken together, the results suggest that using Norwegian is common among lower secondary English teachers in Norway, but that there is considerable variation between teachers as to how much L1 they use and how satisfied they are with their usage. In general, the classroom situations where teachers use Norwegian more extensively are when explaining grammar, providing practical information, and correcting pupil behavior. Moreover, teachers were found to be more satisfied overall with their reported L1 use for non-academic purposes. The results also suggest that for most academic situations in the classroom, higher L1 usage is related to lower teacher satisfaction. The findings further propose that teachers' perception of pupil comprehension plays an essential role in their language choices. Teachers who indicated having four or more poor English comprehenders in their class reported significantly higher Norwegian usage than those who had three or fewer. Grade level of instruction and years of teaching experience showed no effect on either reported L1 use or satisfaction levels. Finally, the findings imply that most teachers believe their L1 use is strategic and serves specific purposes in the classroom. But despite this, many still express a desire to avoid using the L1, or at least to reduce it.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the problem

Language exposure is an absolute prerequisite for developing proficiency in a new language; equally important are opportunities for negotiation of meaning, and language production in interaction (Krashen, 1985; Swain, 1985; Pica, 1987; Long, 1996). In second/foreign language (L2) classrooms, teachers regularly face the pedagogical question of how to use languages appropriately. While teachers fulfill a crucial role in providing target language input (Harmer, 2015; Ellis, 2005), it is also essential that learners have a sufficient understanding of what is being taught, as repeated comprehension failures can have negative effects on learners' motivation and emotional well-being (Dulay & Burt, 1977; Krashen, 1988).

Internationally, much research has focused on language choice in L2 classroom discourse. Work in this field has shown that it is common practice for teachers to switch into the pupils' first language (L1) to aid communication. In the literature, this phenomenon is variously referred to as 'codeswitching', 'code choice', 'translanguaging' or 'bilingual pedagogy'. The practice of using L1 in L2 instruction has been examined in a range of educational settings worldwide over the past four decades, including observational research (e.g., Wing, 1980; Duff & Polio, 1990; Canagarajah, 1995; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Liu et al., 2004; Kim & Elder, 2005; Grim, 2010; Forman, 2012; Üstünel, 2016), longitudinal action-research (e.g., Edstrom, 2006), studies based on self-report (e.g., Schweers, 1999; Levine, 2003; Hall & Cook, 2013), or through a combination of methods (e.g., Polio & Duff, 1994; De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Makulloluwa, 2013).

This thesis sets out to address the issue of L1 use from the perspective of lower secondary English teachers in Norway. Researchers studying L2 teachers' language use have primarily focused on identifying how and to what extent teachers include L1 in their teaching (Levine, 2011). A consistent finding across studies is that teachers employ L1 in different amounts and for different purposes, such as to clarify meaning, provide translations, give instructions, explain grammar, manage behavior, or to connect with pupils and maintain positive teacher-learner relationships (Hall & Cook, 2013; Edstrom, 2006; Kerr, 2014). Another common observation across studies is that pupils' level of proficiency and comprehension tend to affect the nature and quantity of teachers' L1 use (e.g., Thompson, 2006).

Within the domains of bi- and multilingualism, the ability to switch languages is generally seen as a linguistic resource (Bialystok & Craik, 2010; Grosjean, 2012). However, although it is natural for people who know two or more languages to alternate between them

(Cook, 2005), the practice of including learners' L1 in L2 learning has historically been a contentious matter (Macaro, 2005). Much of the controversy in the so-called 'L1/L2 debate' stems from different assumptions about second and foreign language acquisition. As will be seen later, the principle of 'monolingual teaching' - exclusive L2 use - was long accepted to be the best and most effective way to teach a new language. While few would deny the importance of target language input, there is currently a greater emphasis on how teachers and learners can use their L1 purposefully to support language learning (Hall, 2018). There are still, however, conflicting views about the advantages and disadvantages among scholars and educators. The most common arguments in favor of using L1 is that it contributes to aid comprehension and to create a positive and safe learning environment, as the L1 is the language with which many learners feel most comfortable. A more critical view is the concern that it deprives learners of time they could spend practicing the target language (Kerr, 2019).

It is well-known that the relationship between attitude and behavior is a complex one. In addition to investigating teachers' practices, several studies have explored teachers' attitudes towards L1 use and found that teachers exhibit a variety of views regarding their own practices (e.g., Mingfa, 2011; Hall & Cook, 2013). Whereas some see pedagogical value in using L1, others regard it as a 'last resort' and seek to avoid it as far as possible. As Hall and Cook (2013, p. 10) note, "the extent to which L1 use occurs in a class depends on the attitudes of the teacher and learners towards its legitimacy and value". Within education, much research has gone into understanding how teachers' attitudes influence their teaching and classroom practice, and vice versa (Borg, 2018). Kagan (1992, p. 65) defines teacher beliefs as "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material". Li (2013, p. 175) maintains that teacher beliefs are "the strongest factors through which teaching behavior can be predicted and heavily affect pedagogical decision making in the classroom". If teacher perceptions about L1 use in the L2 classroom are likely to have an impact on the conscious and unconscious use of L1 in teaching situations, then teacher beliefs and attitudes should be investigated.

1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the relationship between teachers' perceived practices, satisfaction, and opinions regarding the use of L1 Norwegian in lower secondary English instruction. Despite its prominence in the literature internationally, the issue of L1/L2 use has received little empirical attention in Norway (Brevik, Rindal, & Beiler, 2020). In Norwegian schools, the number of pupils with a first language other than Norwegian is

increasing; however, the research so far suggests that Norwegian takes priority as the language of reference in the English classroom, as well as in the teaching of foreign languages (Haukås, 2016; Askland, 2019). Previous works have focused on teachers of primary school pupils aged 6-12 (Dahl & Vulchanova, 2014; Drew, Oostdam, & Van Toorenburg, 2007; Krulatz, Neokleous & Henningsen, 2016; Neokleous & Krulatz, 2018), and on teachers of secondary school pupils aged 12-18 (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). A limitation of these studies is that they relied on relatively small samples of teachers, the biggest sample being of 55 participants. The current study sets out to address this gap by adopting a quantitative research method which allows data to be collected from a larger sample.

This thesis focuses solely on English teachers working in the lower secondary level of schooling in Norway; grades 8-10th (pupils aged 13-16). This focus had two key motivations. Firstly, the one previous study of this group to date (Brevik & Rindal, 2020) was a qualitative inquiry with ten participating teachers, and therefore there are limitations on the generalizability of the data. Secondly, lower secondary school is a critical transitional stage in the education system. The use of marks (1-6) is implemented to assess pupils' written and spoken English skills from low to high performance. There is a greater focus on language learning; pupils can choose to take another foreign language class or an in-depth Norwegian or English class.

Several of the studies into L2 teachers' language use were conducted in teaching contexts where learners receive limited L2 exposure outside the classroom. One aspect that makes the Norwegian context interesting relates to the prevalence of English and its role in society. As a generalization, Norwegians tend to be portrayed as highly proficiency in English (Education First, 2019). Children are introduced to formal English instruction at age 5-6 in their first year of primary school. From here onwards, English remains a compulsory subject taught at scheduled hours throughout primary (grades 1-7) and lower secondary (grades 8-10). By 8th grade, this adds up to approximately 366 hours of English instruction (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013, p. 4). Furthermore, like most other learners of English in our globalized world, Norwegian pupils are exposed to significant amounts of English in their spare time through social media, gaming, music and TV series (Rindal, 2013; Sundqvist & Sylvén, 2016; Brevik, 2019).

In some countries, it has been common to define official best-practice guidelines regarding teachers' language use in L2 classrooms (Macaro, 2005). Some curricula, for example, prescribe exclusive use of English as the language of instruction. In the United States, The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) recommends that learning take place through the target language for 90% or more of classroom time (Cutshall,

2012). Practicing teachers in Norway are not under any external pressure to conform to an English-only policy. Neither the current English subject curriculum (LK06/13), issued by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, nor the newly revised curriculum taking effect August of 2020, include professional recommendations about the use of L1/L2 in English lessons. This means that these considerations are to be made by the teachers themselves. In sum, the aim of the current study is three-fold:

(1) to examine teachers' estimated quantity of Norwegian usage for various academic and non-academic teaching purposes; and whether their reported usage differs with teacher/learned-based factors, which will be explained in more depth later.

(2) to examine teachers' satisfaction with their reported Norwegian usage, how their level of satisfaction relates to nature of use; and whether satisfaction levels differ with teacher/learner-based factors.

(3) to examine what opinions teachers hold about Norwegian use in the English classroom; and how these opinions relate to their reported usage and satisfaction.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters. The present chapter has introduced the background and focus of the current study. Chapter 2 contains a review of relevant literature, first considering the role of L1 within language teaching methodology. Following this is a review of both international and Norwegian studies relating to the field of L1 use in L2 instruction. Chapter 3 describes the study design and procedures used to collect data. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. The fifth and final chapter provides a discussion of the results, limitations of the research, and concluding remarks.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Language teaching methods and the role of L1

Various teaching methods have throughout history influenced teachers' practices in L2 classrooms. As noted in the introduction, the debate surrounding what role learners' L1 should play in L2 instruction is largely a result of different language learning theories and approaches to how languages are best taught and learned. In what follows, I provide an overview of the most influential L2 teaching methods, before turning to a discussion of the findings of relevant studies.

To study grammar was long considered the optimal way to learn a new language. The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was the predominant approach in foreign language classrooms until the late 19th century (Song & Andrews, 2009). Learning via GTM primarily involved studying language forms and pupils were taught to infer the meaning of L2 utterances by systematically translating sentences into the L1. As Simensen (2007, p. 27) notes, the L1 is, in this case, relied on as "a positive and comparable system of reference in the learning of a new language". The shared L1 was used extensively as the medium of instruction both to explain grammar rules and new vocabulary items (Song & Andrews, 2009, p. 37). New vocabulary was merely learned through finding L1 equivalents in bilingual dictionaries or word lists, and through rote rule memorization (Rodgers, 2009, p. 345). GTM placed considerable emphasis on correct text comprehension and writing skills, but paid little attention to the ability to interact in the L2 (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 16). It has been argued that due to the little time spent talking in the L2, GTM mainly taught pupils *about* the target language, but not how to actively use it (Simensen, 2007, p. 28).

The Direct Method (DM) gained a foothold in the latter part of the 19th century and is often considered a reaction to the GTM (Benati, 2018). The DM focused on developing pupils' speaking and listening skills, and communication was regarded the purpose of language learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 27). Perhaps the most distinctive characteristic of the DM was its emphasis on conducting L2 teaching through the medium of the L2 (Song & Andrews, 2009, p. 23). Teachers avoided direct translation into the L1 as this was considered counterproductive. Instead, the meaning of new words was demonstrated through concrete objects, pictures, actions or association of ideas (Rodgers, 2009, p. 345). Teaching entirely in the target language was thought to establish direct links between the L2 utterance and the actions, states, and objects referred to (Simensen, 2007, p. 28). Pupils were urged to infer the meaning of L2 vocabulary without 'falling back' on their L1. As explained in Song and

Andrews (2009, p. 33), the DM was founded on 'natural language principles' and aimed to resemble L1 learning.

In the mid-20th century, the Audio-Lingual Method emerged. This type of language instruction had roots in behaviorism and assumed that L2 learning is a matter of acquiring habits (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 43). The Audio-Lingual Method proposed that pupils needed to 'overlearn' the L2 to use it automatically in communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 42). Teachers who adhered to this structural approach maintained that 'old' L1-habits would interfere with pupils' attempts to acquire the L2. The L1 was therefore largely avoided and emphasis was rather placed on creating new habits and responses required for communicative L2 situations (Mitchell & Myles, 1998, p. 24). Accordingly, lessons were spent mainly on spoken language structure drills where pupils could learn L2 habits through imitation and repetition (Drew & Sørheim, 2009, p. 25).

From the 1970s onwards, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) became a particularly influential approach within language teaching methodology. The driving force behind CLT was what Hymes (1971) coined as *communicative competence*, meaning the ability to use the target language for meaningful communication. Emphasis was placed on pupils' need for opportunities to produce language creatively (Drew & Sørheim, 2009, p. 26). CLT assumed that communication is not only the goal of language teaching, but the method of learning. It was considered important to provide pupils with opportunities where they could use the L2 to negotiate meaning and develop their communication skills. The use of communicative activities was thought to equip pupils in using their linguistic skills functionally and for different purposes. Activities such as information-gap tasks, role-play and simulation, or games that have some features in common with real communicative events (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 126). Contrary to the previous methods mentioned, there is less clarity about what exact role L1 has in CLT (Cook, 2008, p. 256). However, according to Song and Andrews (2009, p. 36), "at the very least, it [CLT] supports minimizing L1 use in language teaching". Larsen-Freeman (2000, p. 132) notes that judicious use of the L1 is allowed, although the L2 is important as medium of instruction.

2.1.1 Recommendations about language use

If one consults the didactic-oriented literature, opinions on language use differ. Since the rise of CLT, conflicting guidance has been issued surrounding L1/L2 use. A number of authors have advocated the principle of L2 maximization (e.g., Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Chaudron, 1988; Chambers, 1991; MacDonald, 1993; Meiring & Norman, 2002; Crichton,

2009, Moeller & Roberts, 2013). The central claim made in these publications is that teachers should aspire to make target language input comprehensible through the target language. In 1982, Krashen proposed the *Input Hypothesis*, which states that input in the L2 classroom must be comprehensible and should be slightly above learners' current ability. Krashen operationalized his hypothesis using the formula *i + 1*, whereby the 'i' represents learners' current proficiency level and the '1' represents a challenging L2 structure. According to Krashen (1982, p. 64), "the defining characteristic of a good teacher is someone who can make input comprehensible to a non-native speaker, regardless of his or her level of competence in the target language". Drawing on Krashen's input hypothesis, advocates of maximum L2 use have stressed the value of modifications strategies as a tool for achieving comprehensibility among learners. Teachers can aid comprehension by modifying their speech using verbal and non-verbal communication strategies. Macaro (1997, p. 93) provides a comprehensive list of such strategies, noting that teachers can adjust their L2 input by:

- repeating
- exemplifying
- speaking more slowly
- inserting longer pauses
- using a simpler vocabulary
- shortening the length of utterances
- using more of the same words
- exaggerating pronunciation of words or phrases
- stressing certain words or phrases by saying them louder than the rest of the utterance
- using a certain kind of vocabulary (e.g. cognates)
- contrasting the target word with another
- using marker words to trigger the topic/activity and its associated vocabulary
- using a set of key phrases at appropriate moments
- substituting one uttered phrase with another (paraphrasing)
- modifying syntax through word order (e.g. using canonical forms)
- modifying syntax through using more commonly used verbs
- using the present tense more
- modifying syntax through fewer subordinate clauses

In sum, teachers can adapt their speech via linguistic alternations (e.g., by reducing complex syntactic structures), as well as through paralinguistic adjustments, such as ensuring clearly articulated speech. Scrivener (2012) provides a perspective on input modification in mixed-ability classes, suggesting that the degree to which teachers adjust their L2 speech to the level of the class fall on a spectrum from 'highly graded' to 'ungraded'. This is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

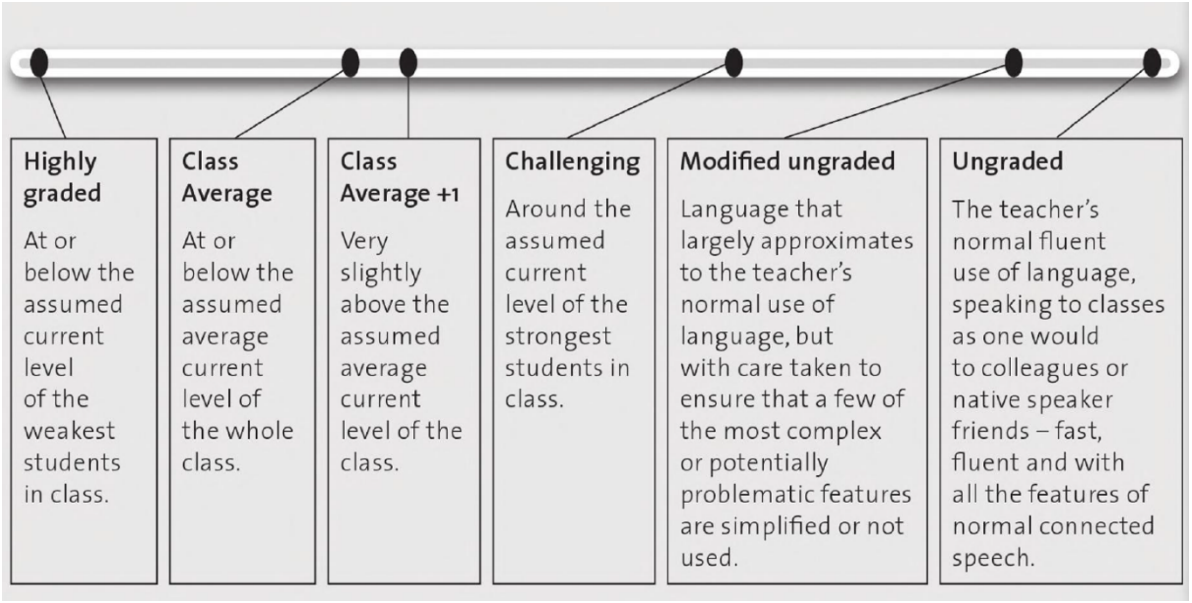

Figure 1. Degrees to which teachers modify their L2 speech. *Note*. This figure is adapted from Scrivener (2012, p. 68).

According to Krashen's input hypothesis, a switch to L1 reduces exposure to comprehensible input in the L2. Harmer (2007, p. 134) emphasizes that the use of L1 is counterproductive in communicative speaking tasks where the actual purpose of the activity is to use the L2 actively. As stated by Macaro (2005, p. 66), an argument often put forward is that switching to the L1 inhibits negotiation of meaning in the L2. Wong-Fillmore (1985) stresses the importance of contextualization, arguing that learners do not need to understand *everything* the teacher says and that they are likely to benefit from their attempts to infer meaning. Furthermore, Wong-Fillmore considers providing translations as having potentially negative effects; when pupils anticipate a translation to be delivered, they may disregard the teacher's L2 utterances (Wong-Fillmore, 1985, p. 35).

Chaudron (1988, p. 121) maintains that as many class situations as possible need to be carried out in the L2. He points out that pupils are given rich opportunities to learn through meaning-focused input when teachers use the target language for all types of classroom management purposes. Following up on this, Schultz et al. (2002, p. 4) argue that teachers should employ L2 for class announcements, on the assumption that this will signal to pupils that "the teacher takes L2 use seriously" and needs not resort to L1 for important messages. Similarly, Crichton (2009, p. 19) argues that teachers who avoid interacting with pupils through the L2 send contradictory signals about the value of speaking in the L2. In sum, the main arguments for maximizing L2 use are that it provides authentic language exposure and that L1 use deprives learners the chance to hear and use the L2 (Meiring & Norman, 2002, p. 33).

Reasons for using L1

While agreeing that target language input is important, other authors have called for a re-examination of the potential benefits of L1 in the L2 classroom (e.g., Atkinson, 1987; Harbord, 1992; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Butzkamm, 2011). Those advocating for the systematic inclusion of L1 in the L2 classroom propose that pupils' L1 can serve a supportive pedagogical role, both cognitively and socially (e.g., Antón & DiCamilla, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Sert, 2005; Macaro, 2005; Meyer, 2008; Turnbull & Dailey O'Cain, 2009; Kerr, 2014). Brown (2006, p. 510) states that when a speaker chooses to switch languages it is essentially a matter of the speaker's desire to achieve interactional goals. What factors then, influence teachers' decision about whether or not to use the L1 in L2 instruction? Kerr (2014, p. 18) provides six broad reasons why teachers may switch into learners' first language either deliberately or unconsciously:

1. *Alignment:* "by using the students own language, teachers can, in some ways, align themselves with them, to show that they are 'on their side'".
2. *Emphasis:* "switching from one language to another may give greater weight to what is being said".
3. *Need:* "the user [teacher or learner] lacks the necessary vocabulary for what they want to express. They may also lack the language that is needed for paraphrasing".
4. *Appropriacy:* "some things may seem to be better said in one language than the other".
5. *Economy:* "it is quicker and easier to code-switch than to stick to one language"
6. *Clarity:* "code-switching may contribute to better understanding of an intended communication".

Similar reasons have also been posed by other scholars, emphasizing different aspects. Ur (1991, p. 64) argues that the L1 may be more convenient with learners who are not yet sufficiently proficient to understand concepts that are difficult to explain in the L2. Cook (2001, p. 418) claimed that "rather than the L1 creeping in as a guilt-making necessity, it can be deliberately and systematically used in the classroom", and mentions specifically that when employing the L1, teachers are treating pupils as their 'real selves' rather than 'assumed L1 personas' (2001, p. 416). Claiming that naturalness is the key advantage of using L1 for personal contact with pupils, Cook mentions for instance that reprimands are perceived as a more 'serious threat' when delivered in the learners' L1. More recent publications have echoed Cook's views and acknowledged the potential functions of teacher L1 use.

Macaro (2009, p. 43) notes a role for the L1 to clarify terminology, arguing that providing L1 equivalents during reading exercises "lightens the cognitive load freeing up processing capacity to focus on the meaning of the text as a whole". Kerr supports the use of L1 for giving instructions (2014) and for various classroom management tasks (2019), noting that disciplining can be better when distanced from the target language because of its often negative affective response. According to Meyer (2008, p. 147), the L1 plays a crucial role in lowering pupils' affective filters. Arguing that the L2 classroom can be an intimidating place for pupils, the L1 may alleviate language learning anxiety and provide a sense of security. Kelleher (2013, p. 1) maintains that "if used sparingly and in a pre-planned way, the first language can play a positive role in the learning of a foreign language".

What is appropriate L1 usage?

A deliberate use of the L1 in the L2 classroom clearly requires teachers who are aware of their classroom practices. Song and Andrews (2009, p. 208) describe a language-aware teacher as someone who has "a principled, context-sensitive and student-sensitive understanding of when it might be appropriate/facilitative to use the L1, how it might be best to use the L1, and how much it might be appropriate to use the L1". Many scholars have discussed how to classify appropriate L1 use, and come up with more questions than answers. Turnbull (2001, p. 536) questioned how to decide what counts as an acceptable amount of teacher L2 and L1 use, and furthermore, when it is optimal for a teacher to use the L1.

Making generalizations about what qualifies as optimal L1 use is difficult because teachers operate within different class contexts with different learners. Edstrom (2006) claims that it is impossible to define a fixed and universal norm for L1 use due to its dependence on the demands of the situation. In a later article, Edstrom (2009, p. 15). maintains that "language teachers need to think through the countless variables they confront and learn to make principled decisions on the spot". Littlewood and Yu (2011) posit that the pedagogical benefit of using the L2 must be weighed against the potential security of using the L1. This viewpoint is supported by Kerr (2019, p. 17), who asserts that teachers' language choices must be guided by "a clear understanding of the relative advantages and disadvantages of L1 use".

Despite these considerations, however, there seems to be shared concern over the issue of arbitrary and excessive L1 use. As Chavez (2016, p. 131) succinctly puts it, "the most persistent reservation about L1 use in FL [L2] instruction is the worry that L1 use would proportionally reduce L2 use". A number of scholars warn against the uncritical use of L1 in L2 instruction. Grim (2010, p. 207) for instance, argues that a danger of supporting the use of

L1 is the potential for unnecessary use and thereby limited L2 input. In his advice to L2 English teachers, Scrivener (2005, p. 309) recommends teachers to exercise caution by using L1 only for clear purposes, and then returning to the target language, although it may be easier and more convenient to continue in the L1.

Although recommending a strategic approach in using L1, authors often recommend a judicious balance between L1/L2 use without further defining what this entails. Macaro (2005, p. 81) claims that general recommendations such as "use the L2 as much as possible" are inadequate, particularly for inexperienced teachers. In a more recent publication, Macaro recommends that teachers' L1 use should be confined, mainly, to *intra-clause codeswitching* instead of *inter-clause codeswitching*. This implies only using sporadic L1 words and expressions in L2 sentences as opposed to switching from one language to another for extended periods of speech (Macaro, Graham, & Woore, 2016, p. 16). Thus, according to Macaro, teachers should retain the L2 as the main mode of communication and limit L1 use to brief switches in otherwise L2 discourse. Having provided a general historical overview of the role of L1 in teaching methodology, and key viewpoints in the L1/L2 debate, I will now turn to describe the findings of existing studies on classroom practices in detail.

2.2 Investigations of teacher L1/L2 practices

Research on teachers' classroom practices has been undertaken across diverse educational contexts with learners of different language backgrounds and proficiencies. While some studies focus on teachers of young learners (e.g., Kang, 2008; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Rabbidge & Chappell, 2014), others focus on L2 instructors in university-level settings (e.g., Levine, 2003; Edstrom, 2006; Greggio & Gil, 2007; Manara, 2007; Ford, 2009; Song & Andrews, 2009; Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Cai & Cook, 2015, Chavez, 2016). A few studies have also examined student teachers in various L2 settings (Macaro, 2001; Bateman, 2008; Orland-Barak & Yinon, 2005). In what follows, I will review studies that have explored issues relevant to the current study namely: (1) the quantity of teacher L1 use; (2) the nature and functions teachers' L1 use; (3) factors influencing teachers' L1 use, and (4) teachers' beliefs and attitudes about L1 use. I will first consider international studies of language teaching, before turning to the current research focusing on the L2 English classroom in Norway. Lastly, I will introduce the research questions guiding the present work.

2.2.1 International research

Several of the early studies of L2 teachers' language use were case studies carried out during the 1980-1990s mainly in higher education settings (e.g., Wing, 1980; Guthrie, 1984;

Duff & Polio, 1990; Polio & Duff, 1994; Neil, 1997). Common to these studies was that they used classroom recordings or observations to quantify the ratio of L1 versus L2 use by the instructors.

Wing (1980) conducted a study on fifteen high school teachers of second-year L2 Spanish pupils in the United States, observing substantial variability in the teachers' practices. Overall, the L2 was used between 7-91% of the time. A classroom study by Guthrie (1984) examined the language use of six university lecturers of L2 French. Despite individual variations, five of the six participating instructors used the target language 83-98% of the time. In contrast, Neil (1997) found a larger range, with teachers' use of the target language varying between 33-97% of total class time. An extensive study by Duff and Polio (1990) on university-level instructors in thirteen different foreign language classrooms showed that the quantity of L2 use ranged from 10-100%. The teacher who exhibited the highest L1 use (90%) was found to underreport his own L1 use significantly. Considering external factors influencing the ratio of L1/L2 use, Duff and Polio suggested six possible factors that may have influenced the considerable variation between participants in their study: perceived cross-linguistic differences between L1/L2, departmental language guidelines, lesson content, the language used in textbook materials, formal teacher training, and finally, teachers' fear of communication breakdown (Duff & Polio, 1990, pp. 161-162). No data indicated a clear relationship between teaching experience and target language use.

Analyzing more carefully the underlying reasons for L1 use, Polio and Duff (1994) performed a follow-up study on six of the previous thirteen classrooms considered in Duff and Polio (1990). Their analysis resulted in four key findings. Firstly, the L1 produced by the teachers ranged from isolated lexical items - or phrases - to more extensive sequences of utterances (1994, p. 316). Secondly, the data yielded eight categories, each representing a purpose for which the L1 was used:

1. "classroom administrative vocabulary"
2. "grammar instruction"
3. "classroom management"
4. "to index a stance of empathy/solidarity"
5. "for L1 practice by the teacher with tutoring from the students"
6. "to provide translations of unknown L2 vocabulary"
7. "to remedy students apparent lack of comprehension"
8. "interactive effect involving students' use of English" (Polio & Duff, 1994, p. 317).

Of these, vocabulary clarification was the most common purpose of L1 use. Several of the teachers also seemed reluctant to teach grammar in the L2. A third key finding to emerge relates to lacking teacher awareness. When consolidating the classroom data with the teachers' perceptions of their practices, Polio and Duff noted that some teachers were unaware of the purposes for which they used L1 in their lectures. Finally, time-efficiency was found to be an additional factor influencing the teachers' L1 use. It was mentioned by participants in the study that codeswitching allowed for quicker conveyance of information and that more material could be covered.

A different approach to the investigation of L1 use was taken by Edstrom (2006). Through a reflective case study investigating her own teaching of L2 Spanish to L1 English American university students, she aimed to explore the relationship between her L1/L2-related beliefs and her actual language behavior in the classroom. Edstrom found that she used the L1 more than anticipated. Contrary to her preliminary estimate of using approximately 5-10% of the time, the actual percentage turned out to be 21%. Edstrom's L1 use was most prominent in situations associated with grammar instruction, classroom management, and when compensating for a lack of comprehension (Edstrom, 2006, p. 283).

Edstrom identified three main reasons that motivated her L1 use. The first reason was her sense of moral obligation towards students. Edstrom found that there were moments where her relational concerns about students as individual human beings transcended her concern for their language acquisition and that the responsibility to communicate respect and maintain a positive environment came before her belief in maximizing L2 use. The second reason concerned the multiple objectives of language teaching. Edstrom's rationale here was that certain objectives are challenging to achieve through the L2. As she noted: "In addition to equipping my students to become proficient users of Spanish, I want to help them recognize the difficulty of learning a language, better understand the relationship between language and the realities it describes, and avoid stereotypical ideas about Hispanic cultures" (2006, p. 287). The third reason motivating Edstrom's L1 use was 'sheer laziness'. In her data, she found instances of L1 use for which she had no clear motive. Edstrom herself argued that "laziness is pedagogically inexcusable" and that L1 use emerging from laziness must be discovered via careful self-analysis and ameliorated with "effort and strategic lesson planning" (Edstrom, 2006, p. 288).

In a comparative study, Grim (2010) examined the L1 use of 11 French high school and college instructors with varying backgrounds and teaching experience. In comparing the quantity of L1 use between the two levels of instruction, Grim found no clear differences.

Whereas one of the high school teachers' L1 use amounted to 71-72%, the other ten teachers used L1 between 0.1-25% in their lessons. Through comparing the purposes of L1 use, Grim found differences between levels of instruction. While all teachers used the L1 to show understanding and create a positive relationship with their students, only college teachers made use of L1 to focus on grammatical form. Grim noted that when teachers used L1 for metalinguistic explanation, they used it sparingly and quickly moved on to explain the content in the L2. Only high school teachers were observed to conduct class management and disciplining in the L1. This could, according to Grim, be due to university students being more mature and motivated. The teachers who used the L1 to manage students' behavior were pre-service teachers. Grim suggested that these teachers' lack of "class management experience might have influenced a relatively excessive use of the L1 to manage students' behavior" (Grim, 2010, p. 205).

Additionally, Grim observed that teachers used two types of translations: "immediate" and "delayed". Immediate translations occurred when the teachers provided L1 equivalents of L2 words or expressions without taking the time to ask learners for meaning or to check comprehension (Grim, 2010, p. 201). Delayed translations, on the other hand, were preceded by various prompts such as pauses, gestures, or comprehension checks. In his discussion, Grim indicated support for delayed translations, arguing that it "encourages learners to take time to think of a word and its meaning before it is translated" (2010, p. 206). Thompson and Harrison (2014) performed an analysis similar to that of Grim (2010). This study examined the relationship between teachers' level of education and years of L2 experience, and the amount of L1 used by 16 Spanish instructors in American universities. As did Duff and Polio (1990), Thompson and Harrison found no evidence of significant correlations between the teachers' L1 use and their level of education and experience, and thereby, the evidence on the matter seems conflicting.

Considering how experience and training might influence classroom decisions relating to choice of language, Macaro (2001) conducted a study on six student teachers during 14 lessons of L2 French. The focus of this investigation was to examine the student teachers' decision-making processes surrounding L1 use. Prior to data collection, the six participants were exposed to theoretical perspectives on L1/L2 acquisition and presented with three positions towards the issue of L2 exclusivity from an earlier study (Macaro, 1997):

1. *The Virtual Position*: "The classroom is like the target country. Therefore we should aim at total exclusion of the L1. There is no pedagogical value in L1 use. The L1 can be excluded from the FL [L2] classroom as long as the teacher is skilled enough".

2. *The Maximal Position:* "There is no pedagogical value in L1 use. However, perfect teaching and learning conditions do not exist and therefore teachers have to resort to the L1".
3. *The Optimal Position:* "There is some pedagogical value in L1 use. Some aspects of learning may actually be enhanced by use of the L1. There should therefore be a constant exploration of pedagogical principles regarding whether and in what ways L1 use is justified" (Macaro, 2001, p. 535).

In line with Guthrie (1984), Macaro observed overall low but variable amounts of L1 use, with teachers' percentage of L1 use comprising between 0-24% (2001, p. 538). Macaro found no indications in his data of correlations between the teacher's L1 use and lesson length or class level (2001, p. 537). Macaro notes that in spite of the variations in L2 use, none of the participating student teachers referred directly to the research involved in the training program when reflecting on their decision-making, and none of them showed clear reflections on the value of L1 use. Macaro concludes that decisions seem to be to a larger extent driven by personal beliefs than by research. Matters of personal beliefs and feelings in relation to L1 use is also mentioned in Edstrom (2006). The reflective journal entries contained a sense of guilt over the amount of L1 she spoke in her lessons. For example, in one of her diary entries, she noted that she felt "a little too free" with L1 and that she felt obliged to avoid using L1 as far as possible (Edstrom, 2006, p. 280). The matter of attitudes and personal feelings on teaching practices will also be considered further in the current study.

To summarize the case studies reviewed above, two key points can be made. The first is that teachers appear to vary in the amount they use L1. Secondly, teachers' purposes for using L1 remain relatively constant, although these may vary between teachers too (De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009). Large individual variation in L1 usage among teachers have also been observed in several other case studies not described here (e.g., Liu et al., 2004, Kim & Elder, 2005). One problem with small-scale case studies is that although they yield rich contextual insights, they have shortcomings concerning the generalizability of findings. Other researchers have collected self-report data to investigate aspects of teacher L1/L2 use in various settings (e.g., Sweers, 1999; Mitchell, 1988; McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Some of these studies have collected data from larger samples (e.g., Franklin, 1990; Dickson, 1996; Macaro, 1997; Levine, 2003; Crawford, 2004; Ceo-DiFranscesco, 2013), the largest being 2,785 participants (Hall & Cook, 2013). These studies have had various foci, but in this selection, teacher perceptions on L1 use in various situations and the factors that influence them have been the primary concern.

Franklin (1990) conducted a survey among L2 teachers in Scotland (n = 201). This study investigated teachers' perceptions of the difficulty of carrying out various teaching activities in the target language. According to the results, teachers generally found it most difficult to explain grammar through the L2. The large majority (86%) preferred to teach grammar in the L1. Moreover, the surveyed teachers perceived it relatively difficult to use the L2 in disciplinary situations, to correct written work and when explain meanings. The activities that were perceived as relatively easy to perform in the L2 were to organize the classroom, provide task instructions and chatting with pupils. The factors found to exert most influence on quantity of L2 use were pupil behavior, class size, and teachers' confidence in their L2 ability (Franklin, 1990, p. 107). Finally, a sizeable majority (79%) reported low ability pupils as an impediment to using the target language.

Dickson (1996) collected survey data from modern foreign language teachers (n = 508) in secondary schools in England and Wales. The aim of this research was to investigate teachers' beliefs in light of their estimated target language use. The data revealed three key factors which appeared to have the strongest impact on teachers' amount of L2 use. The first factor was disorderly pupil behavior. About two thirds (66%) perceived disciplining in the L2 as either *quite difficult* or *very difficult*. The second influencing factor was pupil ability. Perhaps unsurprisingly, teachers reported using higher amounts of L2 with higher achieving pupils than with lower achieving pupils. The surveyed teachers felt that persistent L2 use could alienate low proficient pupils and cause demotivation and anxiety; and that using L1 helped to maintain interest and good behavior among pupils. The third factor suggested to influence teachers' L2 use was large classes. In contrast, teacher-based factors such as teaching experience, linguistic confidence, fatigue or views about language use were found to exert less influence on the reported quantity of L2 used (Dickson, 1996, p. 23). Over half of all teachers (55%) reported that they found it *very difficult* to teach grammar through the L2 and about one third (34%) felt that it was *quite difficult*. Moreover, teachers also indicated that L1 could serve as more effective and time-saving.

Hall and Cook (2013) is the most extensive study to date considering the role of L1 in L2 English classrooms. This was a mixed methods study with 2,785 participating teachers in 111 different countries. Participants represented a variety of schools and learner age levels and varied in teaching experience and qualifications. The majority of the surveyed teachers (72%) expressed that they use pupils' L1 to clarify meaning either *sometimes*, *often* or *always*. Similarly, 61.5% reported explaining L2 vocabulary through the L1. Furthermore, 58.1% of teachers indicated that they employ L1 for grammatical explanations. Concerning classroom

management, 50.4% used L1 *sometimes*, *often,* or *always* to maintain discipline; and similarly, for building rapport and a good class atmosphere (53.2%). According to the survey, teachers reported using the L1 less frequently when giving instructions, correcting spoken errors, or when giving feedback on learners' written work. For each of the functions mentioned above, between 20-35% of teachers reported using only English.

While Hall and Cook's results demonstrated widespread use overall, there were variations related to the extent to which teachers used L1. Two key observations were made here. First, there was a statistically significant difference in the reported frequency of L1 use depending on the type of institution teachers worked in. Those teaching in state-sector schools indicated using the L1 more frequently than those working in private-owned schools. Hall and Cook also examined to what extent teachers' reported L1 use were associated with learners' English language level and found that teachers of lower-level learners reported a significantly higher frequency of L1 use than teachers of higher-level learners[1]. In addition to examining perceived practices, Hall and Cook (2013) explored the teachers' attitudes concerning L1 use in the English classroom. Of the 2,785 surveyed teachers, 96% agreed that English should be the main language used in the classroom and approximately one third indicated feeling guilty if languages other than English were used in the classroom. Moreover, a large proportion reported that they try to exclude L1 use (61.4%) and that they only allow L1 use at certain points throughout their teaching (73.5%).

Hall and Cook did not statistically test for differences in reported L1 use between different levels of teaching experience. However, qualitative interview data (n= 17) revealed "a strong tendency across the whole sample for the most experienced teachers to be more pragmatic and less dogmatic in their views on own-language use" (Hall & Cook, 2013, p. 24). Teachers with longer experience indicated that their choice to switch languages tended to be "a spontaneous response to a perception of student need" (Hall & Cook, 2013, p. 24). These teachers stressed that their situational judgment of pupils' comprehension was a more influential factor on their L1 use than principles, and that their decision to use L1 tended to be intuitive and mediated by close monitoring of pupils' mood and body language. By contrast, one of the least experienced teachers described how he aspires to be principled in maintaining a strict English-only policy. Interviewees also highlighted other motivations for using their learners' first languages, such as to intervene when pupils struggle with meaning, to confirm

[1] Hall and Cook defined 'lower-level' as beginner to pre-intermediate learners, and 'higher-level' as intermediate to advanced learners (2013, p. 23).

pupil comprehension, to ensure that weaker learners in mixed-ability classes do not fall behind, to reduce pupil anxiety, and to maintain control and interest in larger classes (Hall & Cook, 2013, p. 25).

In another survey among 273 L2 instructors in the United States, Ceo-DiFranscesco (2013) found a mismatch between teachers' goals for L2 use and their self-reported actual L2 usage. The majority (64%) indicated a desired usage rate of 80-100% target language use. Nevertheless, only 20% of respondents estimated their actual usage at this rate, hence suggesting that many teachers fall short of their goals. Qualitative responses from the surveyed instructors further indicated that some felt guilty for not teaching enough *through* the L2. One respondent commented that he felt like he was failing his students whenever using L1. Moreover, the study showed that teachers felt that certain factors prevented them from employing the target language as much as desired, such as large classes, varied proficiency levels within a group, lacking time, the difficulty to create rapport in the L2 or teacher's lack of linguistic ability (Ceo-DiFranscesco, 2013, p. 18).

Mohebbi and Alavi (2014) surveyed the L1 use of 72 L2 English teachers in Iranian private schools. Similar to Hall and Cook's (2013) study, teachers were asked to indicate to what extent they use the L1 for various functions in the classroom. They found that teachers employed the L1 most frequently to give feedback, teach new vocabulary and grammar, foster rapport, control behavior, when offering individual help, and lastly, for time-saving purposes. Overall, the abovementioned studies substantiate the previous claims from didactic literature, namely that teacher L1 use is a complex issue, encompassing both positive and negative attitudes among teachers. Furthermore, the studies suggest that variations in L1 usage among teachers can be attributed to a number of factors. These will be summarized in more detail later sections, after a review of research on the use of L1 in L2 English classrooms in Norway.

2.2.2 The use of Norwegian in the L2 English classroom

As mentioned earlier, there is a paucity of published data regarding how languages are used in English classrooms (Brevik, Rindal, & Beiler, 2020). This section firstly describes how the topic of language use is treated by the English subject curriculum in Norway, and secondly, what pedagogical advice is given about L1 use in textbooks for prospective and practicing English teachers. Lastly, findings from Norwegian studies addressing the use of L1 in L2 English classrooms will be reviewed. While some L2 English curricula internationally explicitly instruct teachers to use English exclusively or as much as possible, the Norwegian English curriculum as prescribed by Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training

(LK06/13 hereafter) does not mention teachers' language use in the classroom. A supplementary document to LK06/13 (*Veiledning til læreplan i engelsk*), with guidelines on how to work with the curriculum, does not provide any further recommendations. In LK06/13, there is only one reference pointing to the role of L1, found in the list of competence aims. It states that pupils should be able to: "identify significant linguistic similarities and differences between English and one's native language and use this knowledge in one's own language learning" (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013, p. 9). Although directed primarily at pupils, this does indicate to teachers that the L1 clearly has a role in the English classroom. However, how the aim should be met is not stated. The absence of such official guidelines on language use can best be attributed to the current curriculum's non-prescriptive nature and focus on methodological freedom. Previous curricula, by comparison, were more normative. The curriculum in the 1970s for instance *(Mønsterplan for grunnskolen 1974)* stated that "instruction should at all stages as far as possible take place in English so that every lesson becomes a series of natural listening and pronunciation exercises" [my translation] (Kirke- og undervisningsdepartementet, 1974 p. 148). Similarly, the curriculum issued in the 1990s (*Læreplanen 97*) recommended that "most classroom communication shall be in English (as cited in Bollerud, 2002, p. 24).

Turning now to the recommendations in the didactic literature, a review of English textbooks reveals that English teachers in Norway are issued with mixed advice regarding language switching (e.g., Simensen, 2007; Munden & Sandhaug, 2017; Drew & Sørheim, 2016). In Simensen (2007), monolingual teaching is listed as one of three fundamental principles for good L2 teaching. As discussed earlier, according to this principle, "the teaching itself, as well as the organization of [classroom] work should take place in the target language" (Simensen, 2007, p. 236). Simensen writes that teachers should "resist the temptation" to use L1 and that pupils should be expected to communicate in the L2. She further describes the importance of maintaining this principle because lacking continuity most likely will lead to L1 use among pupils. According to Simensen, the one situation where L1 use is justified is during formal grammar teaching in classes with pupils who are "not capable" of comprehending grammar instruction in the target language (2007, p. 236).

In Pihlstrøm (2013, p. 40), teacher L1 use is only briefly touched upon. As a comment to the following question: "Should grammar be taught in the mother tongue or in the L2 language?", the author claims that many teachers in primary and lower secondary use Norwegian when teaching grammar; though without referring to any studies which provide support for this claim. In contrast, Drew and Sørheim (2016, p. 58) explicitly recommend

teachers of 10 to 16-year-olds to use English "all or almost all of the time". They support this recommendation by arguing that pupils in this way grow accustomed to hearing and using the L2 in a natural way. Like Simensen (2007), Drew and Sørheim emphasize the need for consistency in target language use. They believe that when teachers use English consistently, "they send out an important signal to the pupils who will hopefully follow their example" (Drew & Sørheim, 2016, p. 58). They further suggest that when teachers rely too much on Norwegian, then pupils are likely to follow.

Similarly, Munden and Sandhaug (2017, p. 81) recommend that teachers always regard L2 as their primary option. Their advice is to speak English as much as possible when teaching lower secondary pupils. They support this advice by making a point about the widespread use of English in Norway, and argue that teaching L2 through L2 will demonstrate to pupils the usefulness of using the target language for communication. However, Munden and Sandhaug also note that teachers may employ pupils' L1 in situations where it seems necessary or beneficial (2017, p. 81). They nonetheless advise teachers not to routinely translate from English to Norwegian because, although some pupils will not grasp everything that is said, this will deprive them of the opportunity to comprehend English (Munden & Sandhaug, 2017, p. 82). Similar views are held by Krulatz, Dahl, and Flogenfeldt (2018), who maintain that teachers' practice of immediately translating instructions can cause pupils to develop the habit of not paying attention until the information is reiterated in Norwegian. These cautions are very much in line with the international didactic guidelines which were discussed in previous chapters.

Norwegian studies

Some Norwegian studies have focused on language practices (e.g., Dahl & Vulchanova, 2014; Drew et al. 2007) and attitudes of primary school English teachers (Neokleous & Krulatz, 2018; Krulatz, Neokleous, & Henningsen, 2016). Krulatz et al. (2016) conducted a survey of 55 teachers to investigate how much and for what purposes they use English when teaching pupils in grades 1 through 7. The results showed variation among participants. Teachers' self-reported English usage ranged from 15-75%. More than half the respondents reported using less than 55% English in their classroom communication. Moreover, the teachers' estimated amount of English usage was found to increase with the grade level of the class. Krulatz et al. hypothesized that teachers with university credits in English use English more regularly than those without and, correspondingly, that experienced teachers use English more than novice teachers. These assumptions were tested but no significant correlation was found between the

teachers' reported amount of English use and their years of teaching experience or amount of university credits. Regarding purposes of English use, Krulatz et al.'s findings indicated that, overall, English was used most often for everyday conversations and when giving praise. The surveyed teachers also reported using English quite frequently in situations involving announcements, routines, activities and instruction-giving. The purposes for which teachers reported less frequent use of English (and thus more L1) were classroom situations related to lecturing, classroom discipline, and the presentation of lesson plans and objectives (Krulatz et. al, 2016, p. 145).

A smaller study by Neokleous and Krulatz (2018) surveyed 24 primary teachers about their practices and attitudes regarding L1 use. All but two of the respondents reported using L1 Norwegian when teaching English. These teachers reported using L1 to explain unfamiliar words, teach grammar, deliver instructions and motivate pupils (Neokleous & Krulatz, 2018, p. 14). Their reasons for using L1 for these purposes were largely to ensure comprehension among pupils. One of the main findings of this survey was that, although nearly all teachers employ L1, several indicated that they aspired to "speak as much English as possible" and minimize their amount of L1 use. Building on the observations of previous research that L1 use may evoke a sense of guilt, Neokleous and Krulatz asked the teachers how they feel at the end of lessons if they have used languages other than English. About half of participants reported 'feeling ok', whereas the other half reported getting a 'negative feeling' or felt 'neutral' toward using a language other than English. Neokleous and Krulatz noted that, "teachers who reported negative feelings appeared to place blame on themselves" (2018, p. 17).

Only one study has investigated English teachers at secondary school level (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). This case study examined how teachers and pupils use languages during lower secondary English instruction. Participants were English teachers (n=10) and their pupils (n= 224) from seven different classrooms in grades 9 and 10, and data comprised video recordings of English lessons (N= 60). In their video analyses, Brevik and Rindal first observed and quantified which languages the teachers and pupils used. The types of spoken language sampled and coded were teacher speech, pupils' speech to the teacher and individual pupil-pupil conversations to which the teacher was listening. Of the total 60 lessons, Brevik and Rindal found that English was used 77% of the time, Norwegian 16%, and that a combination of both languages was used for the remaining 7%. The main finding emerging from their analysis was that, despite an overall low frequency of Norwegian usage, there were large variations in practices between the seven pupil groups. In three classrooms, which the researchers labeled "high-frequency Norwegian classrooms", between 34-51% of total spoken interaction was

performed in the L1. In the other four classrooms, the "high-frequency English classrooms", the proportion of L1 use was much lower (1-12%). Interestingly, the teachers in the high-frequency Norwegian classrooms were those with most and least English teaching experience (18-25 years and 1.5 years, respectively). Brevik and Rindal also examined what purposes teachers' Norwegian use served during the English lessons. The key finding emerging here was that the participating teachers employed Norwegian for eight academic and non-academic functions. Each of these functions are described in Table 1.

Table 1

Functions of L1 in L2 teaching

	Academic functions
Scaffolding	The teacher uses the L1 to offer guidance, explain/expand a teaching point, bridge communication gaps, reduce ambiguity, or offer translation for pupils' lack of comprehension in the target language. Includes pupil responses to teacher follow-up and teacher responses to pupil questions (e.g. Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994).
Metalinguistic explanation	The teacher uses the L1 to focus on linguistic forms through explicit explanations (e.g. Grim 2010; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994).
Task instruction	The teacher uses the L1 to give task instructions for an activity or procedure (e.g. Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2001).
Terminology	The teacher uses the L1 to provide new subject-specific terminology or vocabulary clarification (e.g. Lee & Macaro, 2013; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994).
Other domains	The teacher uses the L1 to refer to another domain about a matter relevant to the target language topic.
	Non-academic functions
Practical information	The teacher uses the L1 to give information or instruction unrelated to the target language subject (e.g. Grim, 2010).
Class management	The teacher uses the L1 to manage pupils' behaviour in the classroom, lack of pupil concentration, talk, or misconduct (e.g. Macaro, 2001; Grim 2010; Polio & Duff, 1994).
Empathy/ solidarity	The teachers uses the L1 to develop closeness with pupils, to show understanding, or for relationship building related to their private lives (e.g. Grim, 2010; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994).

Note. This table is adapted from Brevik & Rindal (2020, p. 10) with minor adjustments to match the terms used in this thesis.

On the whole, teachers' use of Norwegian occurred most often in situations related to 'scaffolding' (40% of the time), followed by 'metalinguistic explanation' (17%), 'task instruction' (15%) and 'practical information' (13%). The less frequent functions observed were 'terminology' (6%), 'other domains' (3%), 'class management' (2%), 'empathy/solidarity' (2%). While brief references to Norwegian were observed in all classrooms, long stretches of Norwegian usage were only observed to occur in the high-frequency Norwegian classrooms. In discussing their findings, Brevik and Rindal argue that "the major concern is not whether to allow other languages into the English classroom, but how to balance target language exposure with students' need for other languages" (2020, p. 21). They recommend a flexible attitude towards L1/L2 use and advise teachers to choose language approaches attuned to pupils' needs as "emerging or proficient target language users" (Brevik and Rindal, 2020, p. 25). A key limitation of this study is that it did not differentiate between teachers' and pupils' use of Norwegian. For example, in one of the high-frequency Norwegian classrooms where Norwegian was used 28% of the time, it is not clear how much was the teachers' speech. Also, while Brevik and Rindal's study provide rich descriptions of the ways in which teachers use L1, their study did not include the teachers' own perspectives. This is the focus of the current study.

2.3 The current study

As stated in the first chapter, the general aim of the current study is to examine the attitudes and perceived practices of lower secondary teachers in Norway regarding the use of L1 Norwegian in the L2 English classroom. To date, there has been no attempt to quantitatively investigate the practices and attitudes of lower secondary teachers in Norway. As reviewed above, the existing literature points to a number of factors that may influence teachers' language use in the L2 classroom. In summary, these factors can be classified according to four broad categories: (1) learner-based factors, (2) teacher-based factors, (3) situational factors, or (4) external factors. Learner-based factors include factors such as pupils' age, procifiency or comprehension ability. In contrast, teacher-based factors include various characteristics related to the teacher's perceived or actual L2 proficiency and competence, their degree of teaching experience, attitudes towards language of instruction, or 'laziness' (Edstrom, 2006). The third category, situational factors, may be factors varying from one lesson to another, such as time pressure, the perceived difficulty of L2 utterances or teachers' perception of learners' need. These factors depend on the nature of the content and activities of the lesson.

External factors include, for example, typological distance between L2/L1 or departmental guidelines regarding language use. While some previous research has suggested a link between L2 teaching experience and increased L2 usage (e.g., Pachler, Evans, & Lawes, 2007; Kim, 2008; Littlewood & Yu, 2011), there appears to be few studies examining the relationship between teaching experience and estimated L1 use. Moreover, there has to my knowledge been no previous attempt to directly link teachers' estimated amount of L1 use to their satisfaction. The main aim of the current study was to characterize quantitatively, the use of L1 Norwegian for different functions, and to examine how their usage relates to teachers' satisfaction levels and beliefs. The research questions guiding the investigation were as follows:

RQ1: How much L1 Norwegian do lower secondary English teachers report using for different academic and non-academic classroom functions in their lessons?

RQ2: How satisfied are the teachers with their reported Norwegian usage and does this vary for different functions?

RQ3: Do the teachers' L1 usage and satisfaction levels differ as a function of teacher and/or learner-based factors?

RQ4: What opinions do the teachers hold about Norwegian use in the English classroom and how do these opinions relate to their reported L1 usage and satisfaction?

To address these questions, the current study applied a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. This design is commonly used in second language education research (Benati, 2015). As Bryman (2012, p. 41) puts it, "choices of research strategy, design, or method have to be dovetailed with the specific research question being investigated". Considering the nature of the aims stated above, a survey approach was chosen for the present investigation for three main reasons. Firstly, it allows one to collect large amounts of data efficiently (Wellington, 2015, p. 191). Secondly, a survey can produce generalizable information, provided the sample is sufficiently large and representative (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 257). Finally, surveys permit one to examine relationships between variables (Muijs, 2011, p. 39). The following chapter describes more closely the methods used to recruit participants, as well as how the study was conducted.

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

The study aimed to recruit 100+ participants. To be eligible to take part, participants needed to be practicing English teachers working at the lower secondary level (grades 8, 9 and 10). Beyond this requirement, there were no inclusion criteria specified. Teacher participants were recruited through a mixed sampling strategy based on snowball and convenience sampling methods (e-mail circulation and online advertising). First, e-mail inquiries were sent to principals of 370 lower secondary schools in all eleven counties in Norway[2]. These e-mails included essential information about the research purposes and a hyperlink to the survey. The principals were asked if they could circulate the information to English teachers working in grades 8-10. The approach described here can be considered a 'snowballing' procedure. Recruiting participants through this method involves locating appropriate individuals who, in turn, can provide better access to the targeted participants (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 43). Among the total 370 e-mails sent, some principals confirmed having forwarded the e-mail, whereas others reported lacking capacity due to similar inquiries. The large majority, however, did not respond, which makes it difficult to ascertain to what extent intended respondents were reached.

As a second sampling strategy, an invitation to partake in the survey was advertised in three Facebook groups: (1) *Undervisningsopplegg* ["Teaching resources"], (2) *Engelsklærere* ["English teachers"], and lastly (3) *Common room*[3]. The first group is an informal teacher community with 60,000 members. The second group currently includes close to 13,000 members and is a platform where English teachers in Norway can exchange experiences, share teaching resources, or discuss matters related to language learning. The third group is also a platform for English teachers with 240 members to date. The survey link was distributed twice in *Engelsklærere* as an effort to maximize the response rate. In addition to the approaches described above, personal contacts were asked to advertise the survey link to the intended respondents. Participation in this study was thus entirely voluntary and without compensation.

[2] Schools were identified through the national school registry by UDIR (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training).

[3] The group's full name is *Common room – gruppe for engelsklærere og andre interesserte* ["Common room – group for English teachers and other interested persons"].

3.2 Questionnaire construction

The questionnaire used for the survey was designed especially for this thesis as there is no publicly available instrument in the Norwegian literature[4]. The questionnaire was developed following the guidelines provided by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) and the construction process employed five sequential steps: (1) drafting, (2) feedback, (3) translation, (4), piloting, and (5) finalization.

Step 1 [Questionnaire Design]: the type of information needed was identified and questions drafted. Given the research aims, it was crucial to construct questions that could elicit behavioral and attitudinal data from the sample. An initial draft of potentially suitable items was prepared, drawing on the literature described in Chapter 2. To determine appropriate scales of measurement, it was essential to consider the questionnaires already employed by works relevant to this thesis (e.g., Hall & Cook, 2013). Examining existing instruments was also important to identify whether there existed items that could be replicated in the survey. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 40) write that borrowing questions from established questionnaires may be valuable, as they [the questions] already have undergone piloting. All instructions and questions were drafted in English, in preparation for the feedback session in Step 2.

Step 2 [Feedback]: The initial draft of the questionnaire was discussed with a research group affiliated with The Experimental Linguistics Laboratory (ELL) at the University of Agder. This group included my supervisors and six other people with different academic backgrounds within bilingualism and second language acquisition. The input obtained during the feedback session provided useful pointers on how to improve the questionnaire further.

Step 3 [Translation]: The English working version of the questionnaire was translated into Norwegian. This is not to suggest that a survey worded in English would be problematic for Norwegian English teachers. Nevertheless, the decision to conduct the survey in Norwegian was made on the assumption that it could yield a higher response rate. The translation was proofread, as recommended by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 49), by two Norwegian English teachers to ensure the quality of the translation, that the instructions and questions were clear and had the intended meaning.

Step 4 [Pilot study]: The Norwegian-translated questionnaire was piloted by three practicing English teachers, one student teacher specializing in English and three personal contacts with little knowledge of the research topic. The purpose of the pilot study was to receive constructive feedback on layout, design, coherence, get indications of completion time;

[4] The questionnaires employed by Krulatz et al. (2016) and Neokleous and Krulatz (2018) were not supplemented in their publications. Also, these works addressed teachers in primary not secondary schools.

and most critically, to reveal potentially ambiguous questions and instructions. As Ary et al. (2014, p. 106) point out, pre-testing before collecting data may expose unanticipated problems and help the researcher determine whether the study is appropriate. The comments obtained from the pilot led to changes in the wording of some instructions and items, and one question was deleted because it resembled another.

Step 5 [Finalization]: In the last step, the questionnaire was finalized and put online. This involved creating an electronic format in SurveyMonkey. Several test rounds were carried out to ensure the survey worked adequately on different electronic devices before distributing it to the actual target group. The following section describes the final questionnaire and its content in greater detail.

3.3 The questionnaire

The final questionnaire comprised of 33 closed-ended items. The choice of a closed-ended format was made to obtain quantifiable comparable data conducive to statistical analysis. To minimize respondent confusion, as recommended by Wellington (2015), care was taken to find a sensible question order. In keeping with this notion, the questionnaire had four sections: (1) Teaching context, (2) Language use, (3) Opinions, and (4) Demographics. The full questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

3.3.1 Section one: Teaching context

The first section included ten classification questions about the respondents' teaching context, general teaching strategies, and practice relating to translation. The opening item was a multiple-choice question asking respondents what grade(s) they taught, as it was likely that the teachers could teach several English classes in different grades. To collect grade-appropriate data, respondents were then requested to decide on one specific pupil group and to have this class in mind throughout the questionnaire. Questions 2-6 were checkbox items, in which respondents were asked to provide some contextual information related to their chosen English class. This information included: grade level, size of class, proportion of low proficient pupils[5], proportion of multilingual pupils[6], and proportion of pupils finding it difficult to comprehend the teacher's English use. Identical response options were used for the latter three questions

[5] The question about proportion of low proficient pupils did not define what constitutes a low-proficiency level; this was left to individual judgement.

[6] Pupils with language backgrounds that include languages other than Norwegian.

(*none*, *1-3*, *4-6*, and *7+*). This information is important, as these contextual factors could influence both the amount and nature of Norwegian used.

Questions 7-8 dealt with the teachers' practice related to clarification strategies. These questions aimed to determine the general communication strategies employed prior to the detailed language use questions (see section 3.3.2 below). Question 7 concerned strategies employed to forestall communication breakdown. This multiple-choice question asked respondents to indicate what strategies they use when pupils do not understand what they say in English. Here there were three fixed answer choices and an additional response option titled "other strategies", where respondents could write strategies not covered. In question 8, respondents were asked to order the strategies from most to least used. Further, questions 9 and 10 elicited information about the teachers' usual practice related to translation. In question 9, respondents were asked to estimate how frequently, if at all, they switch from English into Norwegian to give translations relating to: (a) terminology, (b) instructions and (c) academic content. Response options were provided on a 7-point labeled frequency Likert scale ranging from never-always. In question 10, respondents were asked to indicate how many pupils they believe need those translations, choosing between the same categories as noted above (*none*, *1-3*, *4-6* and *7+*).

3.3.2 Section two: Language use

Section two comprised 16 paired questions intended to measure two areas of interest: (1) participants' estimated amount of Norwegian use for particular purposes, and (2) the degree of satisfaction felt with each reported usage. Estimated amount of Norwegian use was measured with the question: "How much Norwegian do you use [description of a teaching situation]?". After estimating their amount of Norwegian use, respondents were asked to indicate how satisfied they were with their reported amount. Level of satisfaction was measured with the question: "How satisfied are you with the amount of Norwegian you use in this situation?". Both questions were answered on an incremental 11-point percentage scale. This scale went from 0 to 100% in increments of 10. For the usage-questions, 0 corresponded to *I use no Norwegian* and 100 to *I only use Norwegian*, whereas for the satisfaction-questions, 0 corresponded to *very dissatisfied* and 100 to *very satisfied*. This distinction in meaning of endpoints was specified in the instructions provided. The motivation for asking participants to rate their satisfaction in each situation was to be able to break down their satisfaction for the different situations to get to the core of the matter. A total of 16 teaching situations were delineated a priori by drawing on Brevik and Rindal's (2020) categorical definitions presented

earlier in Table 1. As already established, the L1 fulfills various functions in L2 classroom discourse. Of the 16 items included, 9 related to academic functions and 7 to non-academic functions. Each single item was preceded by the question: "How much Norwegian do you use". The wording of each item and their corresponding function is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Survey items pertaining to teacher L1 use

Item	Corresponding function
Use of Norwegian for academic functions	
Q11. when reviewing complicated subject content	Scaffolding
Q14. when supervising pupils during tasks/activities	Scaffolding
Q16. when checking understanding in front of the class	Scaffolding
Q18. when checking understanding individually	Scaffolding
Q20. when giving oral feedback on tasks/tests	Scaffolding
Q23. when introducing a new topic or chapter	Scaffolding
Q17. when explaining grammar	Metalinguistic explanation
Q21. when giving instructions for tasks/activities	Task instruction
Q22. when explaining new words or expressions	Terminology
Use of Norwegian for non-academic functions	
Q15. when giving practical information or messages unrelated to subject matters	Practical information
Q12. when wanting to ensure attention and concentration among pupils	Class management
Q24. when reprimanding pupils and dealing with inappropriate behavior	Class management
Q13. when speaking to pupils about personal matters	Empathy/solidarity
Q19. when joking with pupils	Empathy/solidarity
Q25. when giving praise and recognition to pupils	Empathy/solidarity
Q26. when greeting and saying goodbye to pupils	Empathy/solidarity

As Table 2 shows, there was an uneven distribution of items for each function. The number of items included per function depended on the nature of the function. The scaffolding category arguably encompasses a wider range of classroom situations. Brevik and Rindal's categorization includes translation as part of the scaffolding function. In this study, teachers were asked about their translation practice in a separate question, as previously explained. Note that Brevik and Rindal's category "other domains" was excluded in this study. The last question in section two of the questionnaire assessed respondents' overall percentage of Norwegian use: "Overall, how much Norwegian do you speak in your English lessons?". This was a checkbox item, where respondents chose between the following six response options: *0%*, *1-10%, 11-30%*, *31- 50%*, *51-70%* or *More than 70%.*

3.3.3 Section three: Opinions

The third section included a multi-item attitude scale comprised of 12 constituent items. The scale intended to measure respondents' opinions regarding language use. An attitude scale provides "quantitative measurements of attitudes, opinions, or values by summarizing numerical scores given by researchers to people's responses to sets of statements exploring dimensions of an underlying theme" (Payne & Payne, 2004, p. 17). All constituent items were statements relating to the inclusion of Norwegian in English teaching. Both positive and negative oriented statements were included. The scale was introduced by the general question: "To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?". For each statement, respondents were asked to express their agreement on the same 11-point scale as previously used. Instructions stated that 0 corresponded to *totally disagree* and 100 *totally agree*. Three statements related to the teachers' perception of their own language use:

I feel confident about my English proficiency (#2),
I wish to speak less Norwegian than I do now (#3),
I feel guilty when using languages other than English in my lessons (#10),
I try to avoid speaking Norwegian in my lessons (#11).

Statements 10 and 11 were adjusted from Hall and Cook's survey (2013) and intended to provide complementary information relating to the teachers' satisfaction with their own Norwegian use. Three other statements referred to perceived benefits of using Norwegian:

The use of Norwegian increases pupils' comprehension of English (#4),
It is positive to use Norwegian to include everyone and to make sure everyone understands (#6),
The use of Norwegian leads to a lower-stress learning environment and makes pupils less anxious (#12).

One statement pertained to the perceived importance of time as a reason to use Norwegian: *It is important to use Norwegian in the classroom to save time* (#1). The remaining four statements alluded to other dimensions in the L1/L2 discourse, which prior literature has identified as important:

I use Norwegian strategically in my lessons (#5),
In teacher training, we were encouraged to use Norwegian (#7),
Decisions about how much and when to use Norwegian should be left to the individual teacher (#8), *The use of Norwegian is problematic in multilingual classes* (#9).

3.3.4 Section four: Demographics

The questionnaire's final section included six background questions to get a demographic profile of the sample. This section was placed last based on Dörnyei and Taguchi's (2010, p. 48) recommendation that personal-oriented questions should come at the end. The participants were asked their gender, age, first language, geographical region of practice, years of English teaching experience, and lastly, their amount of ECTS[7] credits in English. This information was collected to evaluate sample representativeness. Finally, the last question in the survey was an open-ended comment box where respondents could optionally write further comments. Given that the survey involved only fixed-answer items, it was useful to allow participants to elaborate on their answers if desired.

3.4 Data collection

The survey was conducted as an electronic questionnaire, using the web-based survey tool SurveyMonkey[8]. An online instrument was favored over the traditional paper-based format to get quick feedback and reach as many teachers as possible nationwide. A further advantage of electronic distribution is that it provides convenience for respondents to complete at their leisure (Ary et al. 2014, p. 414). The online survey was made available online mid-January of 2020 and remained open for two weeks.

The survey introduction page contained a short text describing the topic, purpose and significance of the research (see Appendix 1). Respondents were also informed about an expected completion-time of 10 to 15 minutes, that participation was voluntary and anonymous, and that consequently no personal identifying information would be collected. A potential advantage of anonymous participation is that it can yield more honest responses (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010, p. 17). It should be noted here that most SurveyMonkey collectors record respondents' IP addresses as metadata by default. It is possible, nevertheless, to disable the IP-tracking function. This measure was taken in the present study to ensure data anonymity, and hence that no identifying data were stored with the answers. Moreover, all items relating to teaching context and demographics had broad categories as response choices to avoid questions being identifiable (e.g., region instead of municipality). Since the survey was conducted

[7] ECTS is short for *European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System*. Teachers in Norway are required to have earned 60 ECTS credits to teach English in lower secondary schools. This competence requirement currently only applies to permanently employed teachers educated after 1. January 2014, but will apply to all permanently employed teachers from 2025.

[8] www.surveymonkey.com

anonymously, it was not required to obtain approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD).

The survey required a response to all questions. This decision was made to prevent missing data. Moreover, the questions did not offer response options such as 'no opinion', 'not applicable' or 'do not know'. Lavrakas (2008, p. 209) recognizes that respondents may choose such response options as "an alternative to completing the work necessary to choose a substantive response that they would otherwise be able to provide". One possible consequence of requiring answers and excluding not applicable/do not know alternatives is that respondents may feel forced to submit an answer that does not accurately reflect their opinion (Seale, 2012, p. 193). This in turn, may cause respondents to exit the survey early as they are forced to make a choice. In this study, it was essential that teachers gave an estimate of how much Norwegian they use in different situations. It was assumed that offering answer categories such as those exemplified above could potentially be treated as an 'easy way out' to avoid the reflection required.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Data handling

A total of 294 responses to the survey were registered, and of those 217 were completed. All incomplete responses (n= 77) were eliminated from the data analysis[9]. Data analysis was done in conformity with existing recommendations on quantitative data analysis within education (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Muijs, 2011; Ary et al., 2014; Creswell, 2008). The data handling was conducted in three key stages. First, raw data was exported to Microsoft Excel to check for correctness. In the second stage, all variables were given appropriate names and all nominal data variables were assigned numerical values. In the third stage, data was submitted to various statistical procedures: descriptive statistics, analyses of variance, correlational analysis, factor analysis and multiple regression analyses. These procedures were conducted using R Core Team (2019) and SPSS statistical software (version 25). In addition, the textual data obtained through the open-ended questions (Q8 and Q35) were first entered into Microsoft Word and then categorized thematically to look for commonalities.

4.2 Descriptive data

4.2.1 Participant demographics

The final sample comprised 167 females and 50 males[10] spanning all age groups, with the most represented group being those aged 25 to 34 years (n= 80). Table 3 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the final sample by number and percentage of responses. There was a broad geographical spread in the sample, with participants from each major Norwegian region. The vast majority (88%) indicated Norwegian as their L1. Furthermore, participants' length of English teaching experience varied across the sample, as did their number of ECTS credits. Participants' experience ranged from 0-2 years (19%) to 25 years and above (8%), with 6-14 years being most represented (28%). As for ECTS credits in English, more than half of the sample (55%) had exactly 60 credits, one-third had more than 60 credits and a smaller proportion (10%) reported having fewer.

[9] It should be mentioned here that a technical error occurred during data collection. I was informed twice that the survey froze at question number ten. Accordingly, it is not clear whether respondent drop-outs were due to technical errors or other typical attrition-related reasons like fatigue (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

[10] The number of male teachers in Norway is reported to be significantly lower than that of women (Statistics Norway [SSB], 2018). In her doctoral dissertation, Askland (2019, p. 58) suggests that males may be underrepresented among language teachers in Norway.

Table 3

Participant demographics

Characteristics	*n*	%
Sex		
Male	50	23
Female	167	77
L1[a]		
Norwegian	194	88
English	12	5
Other	14	6
Age range		
Under 25	8	4
25-34	80	37
35-44	61	28
45-55	50	23
Over 55	18	8
Geographical region of practice		
North	38	18
West	68	31
Central	28	13
East	48	22
South	35	16
Years of English teaching experience		
0-2	41	19
3-5	48	22
6-14	60	28
15-24	50	23
25+	18	8
ECTS credits in English		
<60	22	10
60	120	55
61-121	39	18
121-180	14	6
>180	22	10

Note. n = number of participant responses for each category. Percentages are valid percentages.
[a] Number of responses exceed $N = 217$ as three participants indicated both Norwegian and English.

4.2.2 Teaching context

Several participants reported teaching more than one grade level (n= 92) and the remaining taught only one grade (n= 125). As described in Chapter 3, participants were asked to decide on one particular English class, and then to provide some contextual information about their chosen class, as these factors could affect the amount and nature of Norwegian used. Contextual class characteristics are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

Contextual information pertaining to participants' English classes

Characteristics	*n*	%
Grade level		
8th grade	71	33
9th grade	74	34
10th grade	72	33
Class size		
0-15 pupils	27	12
16-20 pupils	45	21
21-25 pupils	71	33
> 25 pupils	74	34
Multilingual pupils		
None	42	19
1-3	127	59
4-6	33	15
7+	15	7
Pupils with low English proficiency		
None	1	0
1-3	94	43
4-6	91	42
7+	31	14
Pupils finding it difficult to comprehend the teacher's English use		
None	11	5
1-3	105	48
4-6	67	31
7+	34	16

Note. n = number of participant responses for each category. Percentages are valid percentages.

Overall, the data show that participants taught pupil groups of various size and composition. There was an approximately even number of participants representing each grade level (n= 71, 74 and 72 respectively). Although this is a result of chance, having even groups was particularly beneficial for subsequent statistical analyses. Regarding class size, about two-thirds of the sample (67%) reported having twenty-one or more pupils in their class. The majority (81%) had at least one pupil with a language background including languages other than Norwegian. As shown in Table 4, the most common was to have between one and three multilingual pupils. Data in Table 4 further show that about half the sample (53%) reported having 3 or fewer pupils who find it difficult to understand teacher English use, whereas the other half reported having 4 or more. Only one participant had no low proficient pupils.

4.2.3 Reported use of communication strategies

The bar chart in Figure 2 illustrates participants' responses to question 7, "Which of these strategies do you use when pupils do not understand what you say in English?". As can be seen, the large majority (88.5%) reported using Norwegian when their pupils do not understand what they say in English. Furthermore, one hundred and twenty-seven participants rated switching to L1 as their most frequently used communication strategy. Approximately half the sample (49%) indicated that they rephrase what they have said in English until pupils understand. Sixty-six participants reported paraphrasing as their most used strategy. A quarter of the sample (24%) ask other pupils in their class to translate.

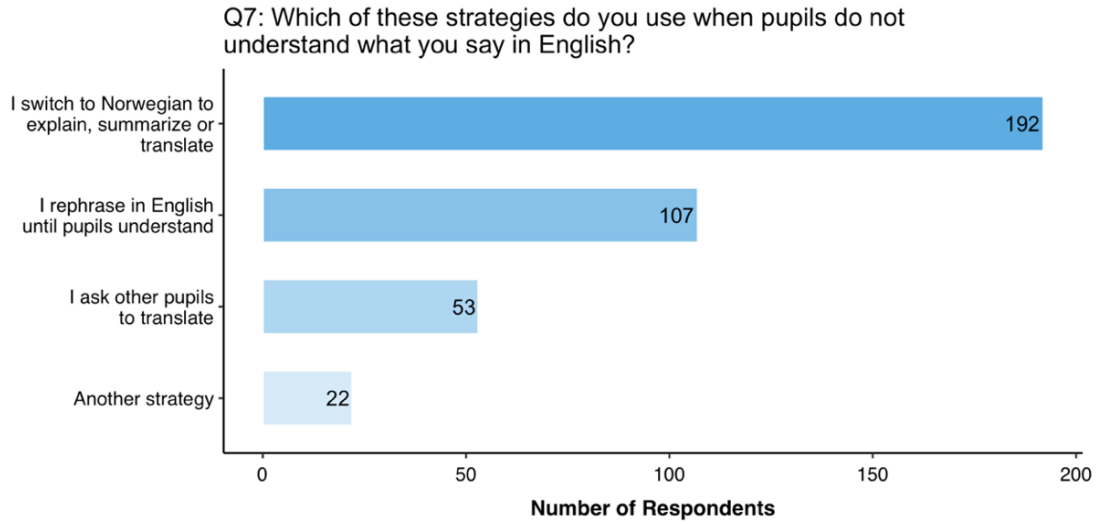

Figure 2. Bar chart of participants' reported use of communication strategies. The total number of respondents exceed N= 217 as respondents were free to choose several options.

Interestingly, only 27 of all participants said they use all three strategies, which is unexpected as these are all considered common communication strategies (Üstünel, 2016). A small minority (10%) reported using other strategies to aid their use of English in the classroom. Among the strategies mentioned were speaking at a slower pace; the use of realia; gesticulating, body language and miming; drawing, to write important and/or difficult words on the board, visualization through pictures and videos. One participant commented that he/she lets pupils "look up words themselves" (see Appendix D for all participant comments in Norwegian). More detailed data on participants' ratings of which strategy they reported using most frequently is provided in Appendix B (Table B1).

4.2.4 Reported use of translation

Figure 3 displays the distribution of participants' responses to question 9: "How often do you switch from English to Norwegian to translate the following?". Here participants were asked to rate how frequently they provide Norwegian translations of: (1) terminology, (2) instructions they have given, and (3) subject content they have already explained in English.

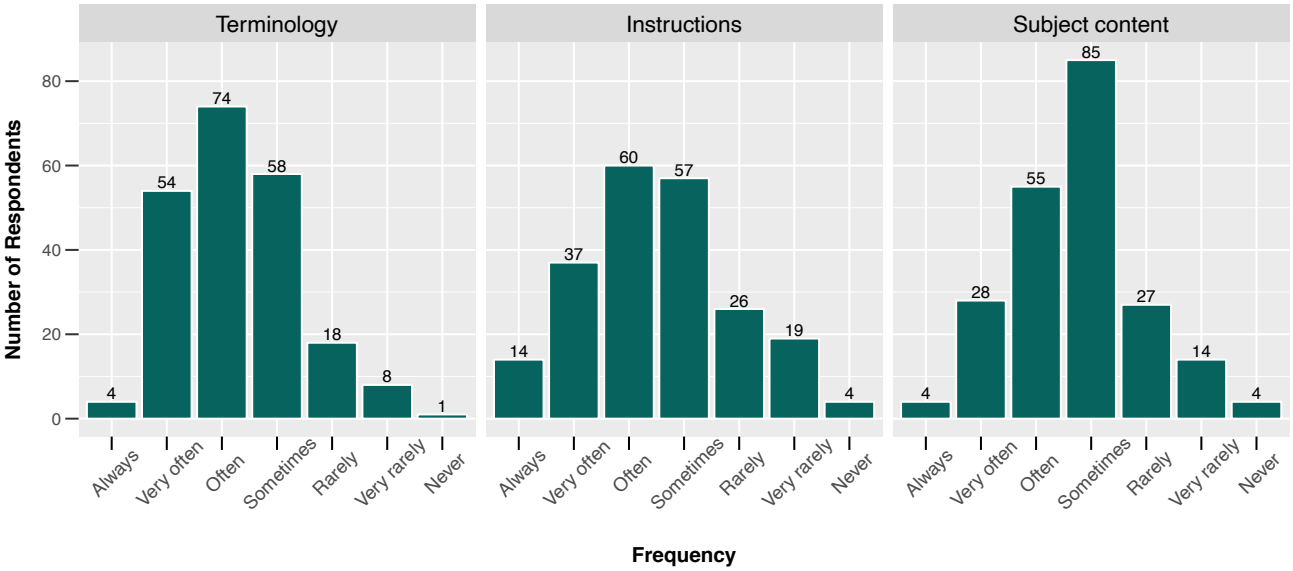

Figure 3. Bar chart of participants' reported use of translation.

Based on Figure 3, teacher-delivered translations appear to be common practice in lower secondary English classrooms in Norway. As can be seen, 61% of participants indicated switching into Norwegian to translate terminology *often*, *very often* or *always*; 27% stated they do it *sometimes*, and an even smaller proportion (12%) reported *rarely*, *very rarely* or *never*. A similar pattern was found for instructions, where 51% reported switching to Norwegian *often*, *very often* or *always*; 26% stated they do it *sometimes*, and 23% of participants either *rarely*, *very rarely* or *never* translate instructions. Furthermore, 40% of participants reported reiterating subject content through translation either *often*, *very often* or *always*; 39% *sometimes* and 21% *rarely*, *very rarely* or *never*. Moreover, in response to question 10 in the questionnaire: "Approximately how many pupils need Norwegian translations to follow your English lessons?", all answer options were used. Of all participants, 18 stated that no pupils in their class needed translations, almost half the sample indicated 1-3 pupils, 67 indicated 4-6 pupils, and 32 participants felt that seven or more pupils needed translations.

4.2.5 Estimated percentage of Norwegian use and satisfaction ratings

Turning now to participants' reported use of Norwegian, results show a high degree of variability within the sample. This is demonstrated in Figure 4, which illustrates responses to question 27 in the questionnaire. Here participants were asked to estimate how much Norwegian they speak overall in their English lessons. As can be seen, the most common ratio of estimated Norwegian use was 11-30 percent. Interestingly, a quarter of the sample (n= 57) indicated that they tend to speak Norwegian more than fifty percent of the time in their lessons.

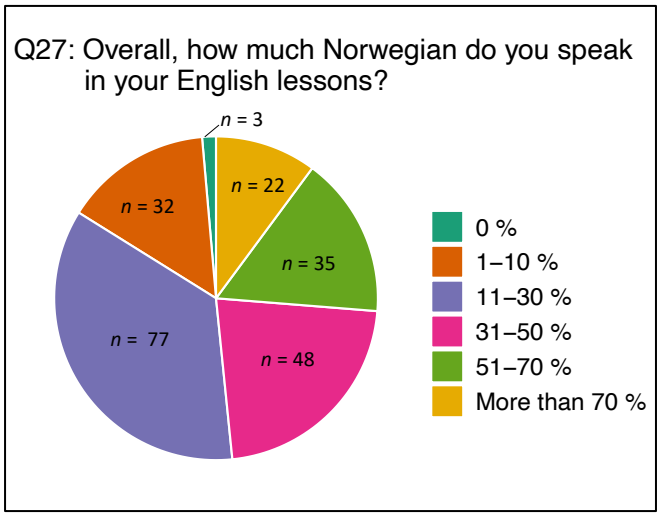

Figure 4. Pie chart displaying participants' overall estimated Norwegian usage.

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations of percentage of Norwegian use and satisfaction levels for questions 11 to 26 in section two of the questionnaire. Here participants were presented with sixteen situations, for which they were asked to estimate how much Norwegian they use. Answers were scored on an incremental scale of 0 to 100 percent, where 100 was *I only use Norwegian* and 0 was *I use no Norwegian.* Measures of central tendency and dispersion were calculated to determine the distribution of data related to: (1) participants' reported amounts of Norwegian use in academic/non-academic situations; and (2) their level of satisfaction with their reported usage.

Overall, the descriptive data presented in Table 5 illustrate that there was large within-sample variation. By comparing the values of standard deviation, it is clear that there is a high degree of dispersion in regards to how much Norwegian the teachers use and how satisfied they feel. A comparison of frequencies revealed that, for all teaching situations except one, there were participants who indicated that they use Norwegian exclusively for the given purpose. Furthermore, for all situations, there were participants who indicated using no Norwegian at all. Table 5 shows that the mean estimated percentage of Norwegian use is markedly higher in some teaching situations than others. Looking at the means for academic-related situations, one sees that the lowest mean of Norwegian usage was found for "introducing a new topic or chapter" and the highest for "explaining grammar". Another situation with relatively high ratings of Norwegian use was "giving oral feedback on tasks/tests".

Table 5

Descriptive data for participants' reported L1 usage and satisfaction

	Percentage of use		Level of satisfaction	
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Use of Norwegian for academic functions				
Q11. When reviewing complicated subject content	44.1	23.5	52.6	29.6
Q14. When supervising pupils during tasks/activities	43.4	25.7	53.4	30.0
Q16. When checking understanding in in front of the class	29.1	24.1	60.5	32.5
Q17. When explaining grammar	56.4	28.6	61.4	28.3
Q18. When checking understanding individually	39.0	27.3	59.8	30.4
Q20. When giving oral feedback on tasks/tests	53.0	33.3	62.2	30.2
Q21. When giving instructions to tasks/activities	33.3	25.3	60.9	27.9
Q22. When explaining new words or expressions	44.0	24.4	59.7	27.9
Q23. When introducing a new topic or chapter	23.4	23.4	65.8	32.0
Use of Norwegian for non-academic functions				
Q12. When wanting to ensure attention and concentration among pupils	31.7	29.6	58.2	35.4
Q13. When speaking to pupils about personal matters	50.8	33.3	63.8	31.0
Q15. When giving practical information or messages unrelated to subject matters	58.6	34.7	62.7	31.9
Q19. When joking with pupils	40.6	29.0	63.5	30.7
Q24. When reprimanding pupils and dealing with inappropriate behavior	60.0	33.6	66.7	30.7
Q25. When giving praise and recognition to pupils	31.8	25.9	63.0	30.5
Q26. When greeting and saying goodbye to pupils	16.2	25.8	69.9	36.9

Note. Means and standard deviations are indicated by *M* and *SD* respectively. For estimations of Norwegian usage in the questionnaire, a value of 0 indicated "I use no Norwegian"; 100 = "I always use Norwegian". For satisfaction ratings, a value of 0 indicated "very dissatisfied"; 100 = "very satisfied". Responses ranged between 0-100 for all variables except Q11 (Percentage of Use), which had a range of 0-90.

In considering the non-academic-related teaching situations, the lowest mean percentage was observed for "greeting and saying goodbye". This was the situation which had the greatest number of zero-ratings. In contrast, the highest mean percentage was found for "reprimanding pupils". Relatively high means are also seen for "giving practical information" and "speaking to pupils about personal matters". This could indicate that Norwegian is the language most closely associated with more emotionally-charged situations and teacher tasks that are independent of which subject is taught. The results also indicate variability in the participants' level of satisfaction with their reported Norwegian usage. As shown in Table 5, while the mean responses for satisfaction-related measures show less variation than for usage, the large standard deviations indicate variation across the sample. Participants were on average most satisfied with their Norwegian usage for "greeting and saying goodbye", with a mean

satisfaction of 69.9%. The lowest average satisfaction was found for Norwegian usage "when reviewing complicated subject content". It can be noted that for each question, fifty or less of participants reported levels of satisfaction lower than 30%.

4.2.6 Opinions about language use

Question 28 in the survey evaluated participants' agreement with twelve statements on aspects related to the use of Norwegian in English teaching. Their answers were rated on an eleven-point percentage scale from *totally disagree* (0) to *agree totally* (100). Table 6 shows the mean and standard deviation for each statement. As can be seen, the vast majority felt very confident about their English proficiency, with an average agreement of nearly 90%. Note that despite individual differences, participants largely agreed that they try to avoid speaking Norwegian and wish to speak less. In addition, there is a sense of guilt among some teachers regarding their use of Norwegian. Notably, teachers also largely agreed that their use of Norwegian is strategic and that teachers themselves must determine appropriate Norwegian usage. Furthermore, the data indicate that teachers generally agree on the value of using Norwegian to ensure that all pupils understand. Conversely, participants mostly disagreed that it is important to use Norwegian for time-efficiency in their lessons.

Table 6

Descriptive data for participants' opinions about language use

Variables	*M*	*SD*
1. It is important to use Norwegian in the classroom to save time	20.7	24.6
2. I feel confident about my English proficiency	89.2	17.4
3. I wish to speak less Norwegian than I do now	70.8	34.1
4. The use of Norwegian increases pupils' comprehension of English	42.3	28.0
5. I use Norwegian strategically in my lessons	69.7	25.2
6. It is positive to use Norwegian to include everyone and to make sure everyone understands	62.4	29.4
7. In teacher-training, we were encouraged to use Norwegian	17.2	24.5
8. Decisions about how much and when to use Norwegian should be left to the individual teacher	64.1	32.2
9. The use of Norwegian is problematic in multilingual classes	43.8	31.6
10. I feel guilty when using languages other than English in my lessons	45.8	36.5
11. I try to avoid speaking Norwegian in my lessons	68.7	29.9
12. The use of Norwegian leads to a lower-stress learning environment and makes pupils less anxious	51.2	33.3

Note. Mean values and standard deviations are indicated by *M* and *SD* respectively. In the questionnaire, a value of 0 meant "totally disagree" and 100 = "totally agree". Participants' agreement ranged from 0-100 for all statements except number 2, which had a range of 10-100.

4.3 Analyses

4.3.1 Factors influencing teachers' Norwegian usage and satisfaction

To investigate the observed variability within the sample, the study analyzed the role of three factors on percentage of Norwegian usage and satisfaction level. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for effects of three independent variables of interest: (1) *teacher experience*, (2) *grade level*, and (3) *number of poor English comprehenders* on usage and satisfaction scores as dependent variables. For these analyses, reported Norwegian usage and satisfaction ratings were averaged for each participant to yield a mean score to be used as input in subsequent ANOVAs. This procedure generated four scores per participant: (1) average rated Norwegian use for academic functions; (2) average rated Norwegian use for non-academic functions; (3) average rated satisfaction level for academic Norwegian use; (4) average rated satisfaction level for non-academic Norwegian use. A series of two-way ANOVAs were performed to examine the effects on usage/satisfaction ratings of different levels of the contextual factors for academic and non-academic functions. On average, participants' Norwegian use for academic functions (*M*= 41,0) did not differ from their use for academic functions (*M*= 41,5).

Effects of Teacher Experience

Level of teacher experience was grouped into three categories, with approximately equal number of participants: 0-5 years (n= 89), 6-14 years (n= 60) and 15+ years (n= 68). The first ANOVA tested the effects of Function (academic/non-academic) and Teacher Experience (0-5, 6-14, and 15+ years) on the reported percentage of Norwegian use. The means and standard errors are shown in Figure 5A. As can be seen, there is no evidence of a difference in percentage of use by Teacher Experience or by Function, and no evidence that Percentage of Use for different functions differed by Teacher Experience. The ANOVA confirmed this pattern, yielding insignificant main effects of Teacher Experience (F (2, 214) = .606, p = .55), Function (F (1, 214) = .148, p = .70), and the interaction of Teacher Experience and Function also failed to reach significance (F (2, 214) = 2.65, p = .073).

The means for Satisfaction Level are shown in Figure 5B. On average, satisfaction levels for academic functions (*M*= 59.6) are lower than for non-academic functions (*M*= 61,1), and this pattern is consistent across teacher experience. A similar ANOVA with satisfaction level as the dependent variable yielded a significant main effect of Function (F (1, 214) = 24.18, p < .000), but no main effect of Teacher Experience (F (2, 214) = .72, p = .49), and no Teacher Experience by Function interaction (F (2, 214) = .70, p = .50).

Effects of Grade Level

Two ANOVAs were run to test the effect of grade. The first ANOVA tested the effects of Function (academic/non-academic) and Grade (8, 9 and 10, see Table 4 for number per group) as a between subjects variable, on the reported percentage of Norwegian use. The means and standard errors are shown in Figure 5C. As can be seen, there is no evidence of a difference in percentage of use by Grade or by Function, and no evidence that percentage of use for different functions differed by grade. The ANOVA confirmed this pattern. The main effect of Grade was insignificant (F (2, 214) = .16, p = .85), as was the main effect of Function (F (1, 214) = .29, p = .59). The interaction of Grade and Function was also insignificant (F (2, 214) = 1.50, p = .22). The means for Satisfaction Level are shown in Figure 5D. Again, satisfaction levels for academic functions are lower than for non-academic functions, and this pattern is consistent across grade. There was again a significant main effect of Function (F (1, 214) = 26.55, p < .000), but no main effect of Grade (F (2, 214) = .558, p = .573) and no Grade by Function interaction (F (2, 214) = .013, p = .99).

Effects of Poor Pupil Comprehension

The final two ANOVAs were run to test the effect of Pupil Comprehension of English. The variable Pupil Comprehension was grouped into two categories, with approximately equal numbers of participants: 3 or less pupils with poor English comprehension (n= 116), 4 or more (n= 101). The first ANOVA tested the effects of Function (academic/non-academic) and Pupil Comprehension (3 or less pupils/ 4 or more pupils) on the reported percentage of Norwegian use. The means and standard errors are shown in Figure 5E. On average, percentage usage of Norwegian was lower for classes with 3 or fewer pupils with poor English comprehension (M = 35, 36) than for classes with 4 or more (M = 47, 48). However, there is no evidence of a difference in percentage of Norwegian use by Function, and no evidence that percentage of use for different functions differed by Pupil Comprehension. The ANOVA confirmed this pattern, yielding a significant main effect of Pupil Comprehension (F (1, 215) = 22.50, p < .000), an insignificant main effect of Function (F (1, 215) = .30, p = .59) and an insignificant interaction of Pupil Comprehension and Function (F (1, 215) = .04, p = .85).

The means for Satisfaction Level are shown in Figure 5F. We again observe that satisfaction levels for academic functions are lower than for non-academic functions, and this pattern is consistent across Pupil Comprehension. There was again a significant main effect of Function (F (1, 215) = 26.58, p < .000), but no main effect of Pupil Comprehension (F (1, 215)

= 2.67, p = .10) and no Pupil Comprehension by Function interaction (F (1, 215) = .000, p = .99).

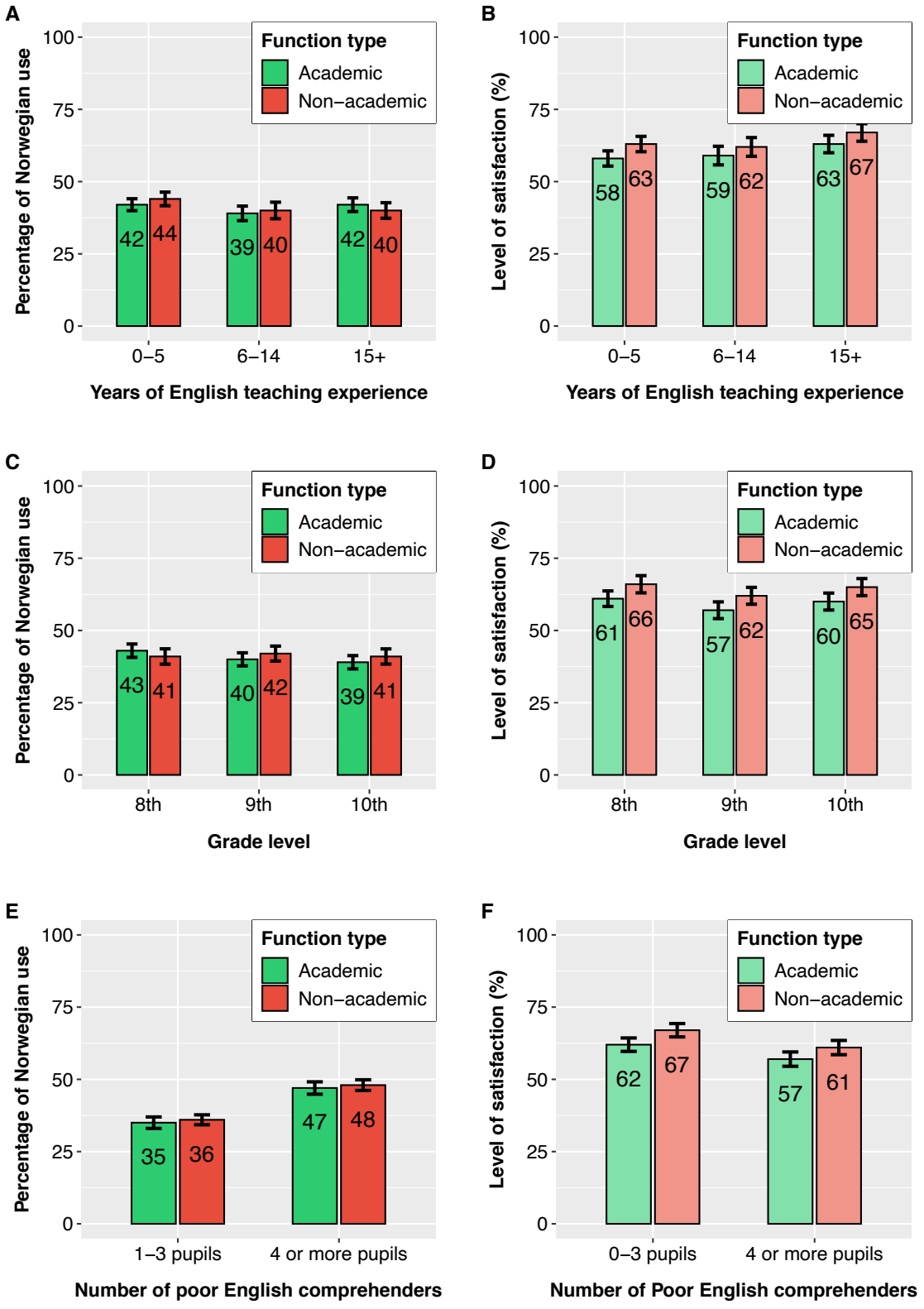

Figure 5. Bar charts of ANOVA results.

4.3.2 Relationships between reported Norwegian usage and satisfaction

To determine the relationship between participants' reported percentage of Norwegian use and satisfaction level, bivariate correlational analyses were performed for each of the sixteen paired questions relating to nine academic functions and seven non-academic functions in the questionnaire. As the data was non-normally distributed, correlations were calculated using Kendall's tau-b correlation coefficient (τ_b). Kendall's tau-b is a non-parametric statistical test intended to measure the degree and strength of association between two continuous variables at the ordinal scale of measurement (Vogt, 1999, p. 150). All sixteen paired use and satisfaction ratings were tested individually. For all significant correlations, p-values were significant at level $\alpha = 0.01$ (2-tailed). Overall, statistically significant correlations were weak to moderate in strength; the lowest observed correlation value was ($\tau = -.19$) and the highest was ($\tau = -.37$).

Academic functions

Scatter plots shown in Figure 6 display the results from the correlational analyses of the nine variables relating to academic functions. Each plot displays participants' estimated percentage of Norwegian use plotted against their level of satisfaction. The correlation analysis of measures related to academic functions revealed only negative associations between percentage of use and satisfaction level. As can be seen, seven out of nine correlations were significant. For most of the academic measures, higher reported use was significantly related to lower satisfaction; except for "when explaining grammar" and "when giving oral feedback", the two activities which showed the highest rated use (see Table 5).

Non-academic functions

Scatter plots displaying the relationships between teachers' satisfaction and reported Norwegian usage for non-academic functions are presented in Figure 7. The correlation analysis of measures related to non-academic functions also revealed a number of significant correlations. Moderate negative relationships were observed between satisfaction levels and reported Norwegian use for "ensuring attention and concentration", "giving praise" and "greeting and saying goodbye". However, in contrast to academic functions, the direction of the relationship with non-academic functions was not uniformly negative. Insignificant positive relationships were observed for the variables "reprimanding pupils", "speaking to pupils about personal matters" and for "giving practical information".

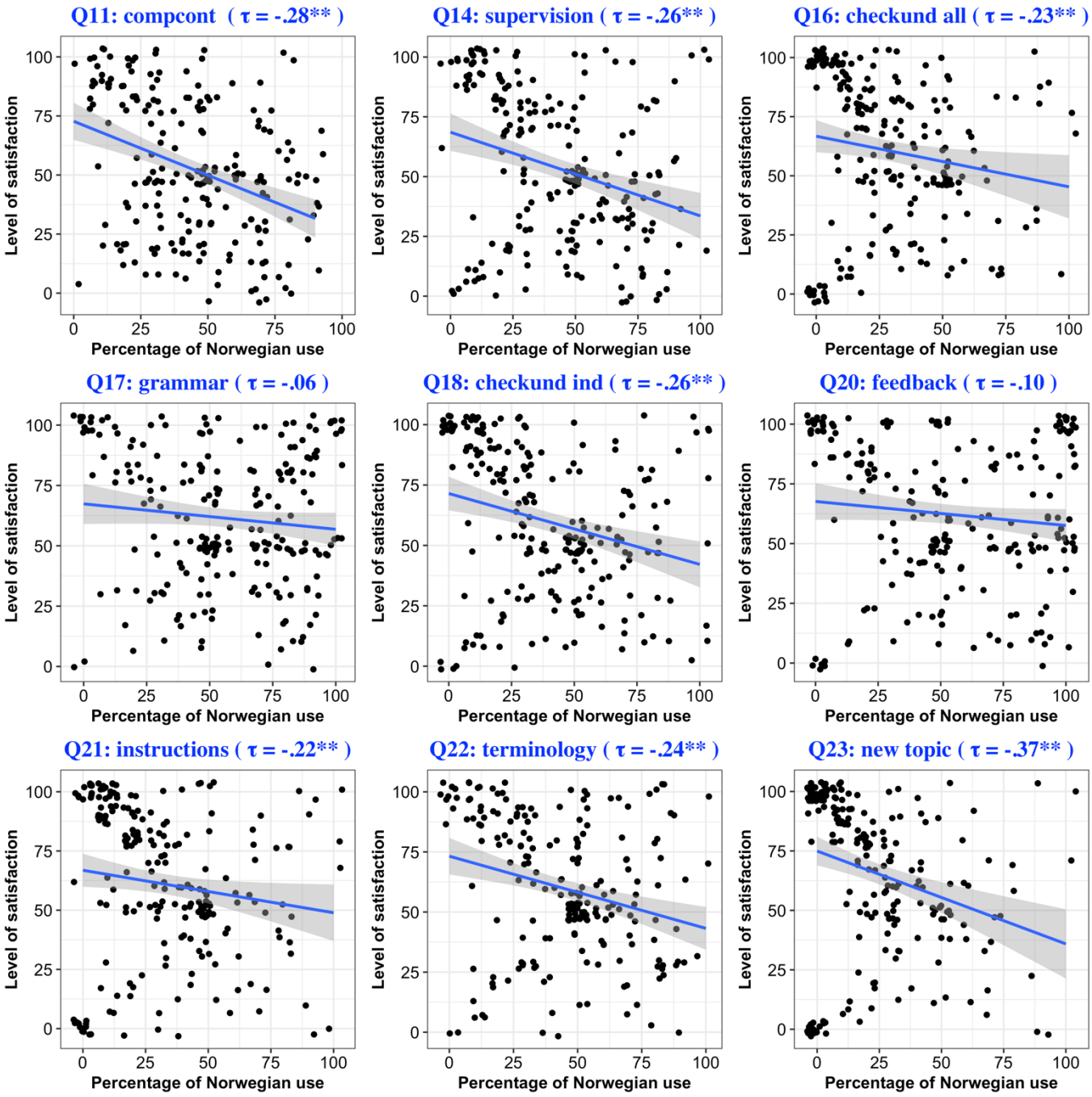

Figure 6. Scatter plots of relationships between teachers' satisfaction and reported Norwegian usage for academic functions. *Note.* The Kendall's tau-b test statistic provided in parentheses and denoted by the Greek letter τ. Correlations were statistically significant at $p < 0.01$ and are identified with two asterisks (**).

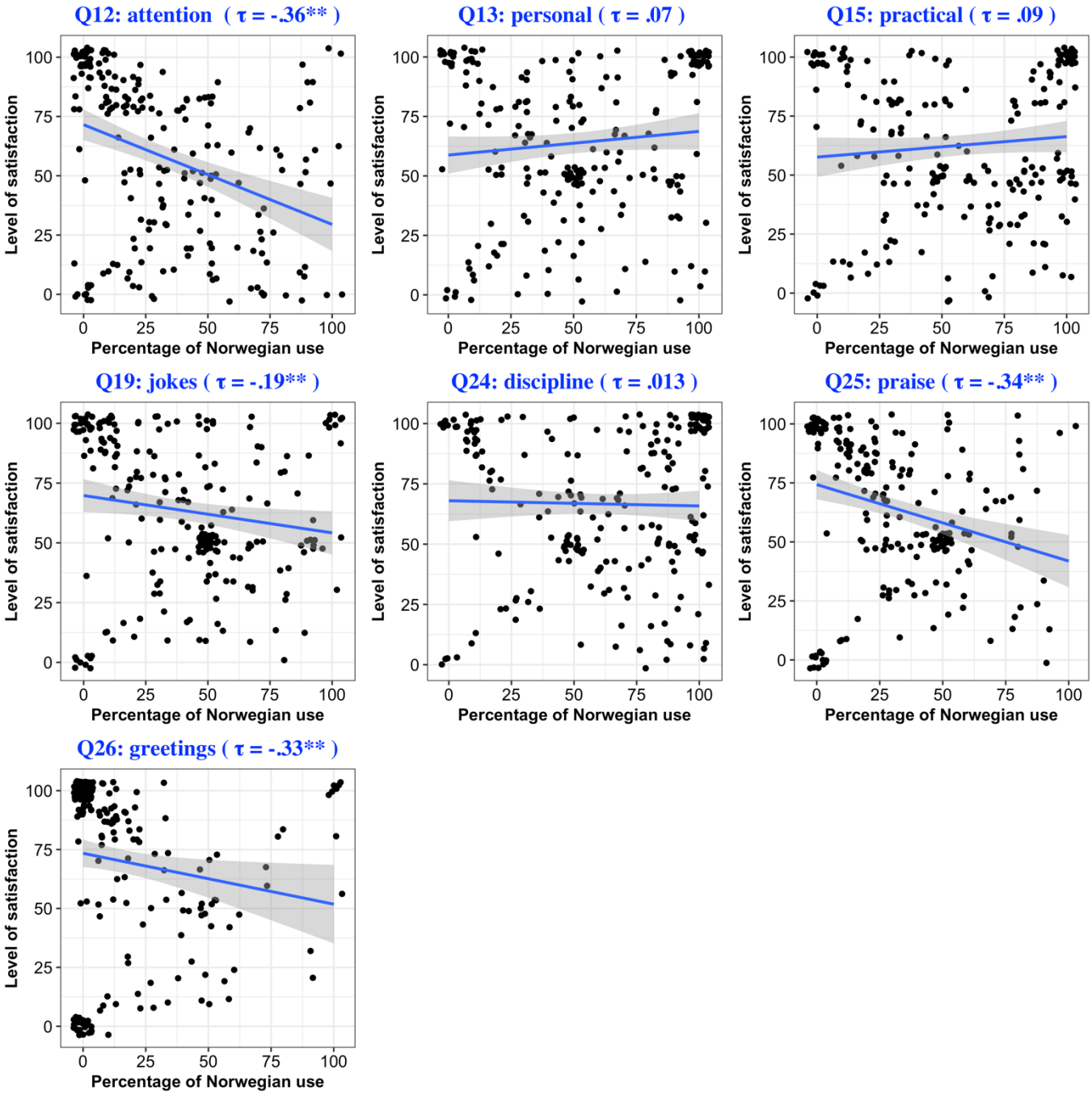

Figure 7. Scatter plots of relationships between teachers' satisfaction and reported Norwegian usage for non-academic functions. Note. The Kendall's tau-b test statistic provided in parentheses and denoted by the Greek letter τ. Correlations were statistically significant at $p < 0.01$ and are identified with two asterisks (**).

4.3.3 Factor analysis of usage and satisfaction ratings

Factor analysis is a data reduction method (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 674), and a statistical technique utilized to identify structures and commonalities in the relationship between study variables (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010, p. 91). It seeks to group and reduce study variables into a set of factors. An exploratory factor analysis, namely Principal Components Analysis (PCA), was used to detect factors in the current dataset. The data input submitted to a PCA included all sixteen paired usage and satisfaction ratings, as well as the data relating to number of poor English comprehenders within the class because it had a main effect in the ANOVA. A 33x33 correlation matrix was run and all variables showed at least one correlation greater than 0.3 with another variable. Cattell's scree test (Cattell, 1966) was used to determine the number of components. A scree plot is shown in Figure 8. The plot lines show a "cliff" followed by a sharp elbow into a more shallow "scree". The number of components above this elbow account for most variance (Courtney, 2013). Figure 8 clearly shows two factors above the elbow. These factors explain 53% of the variance. The factors loading on to each factor are reported in Table 7.

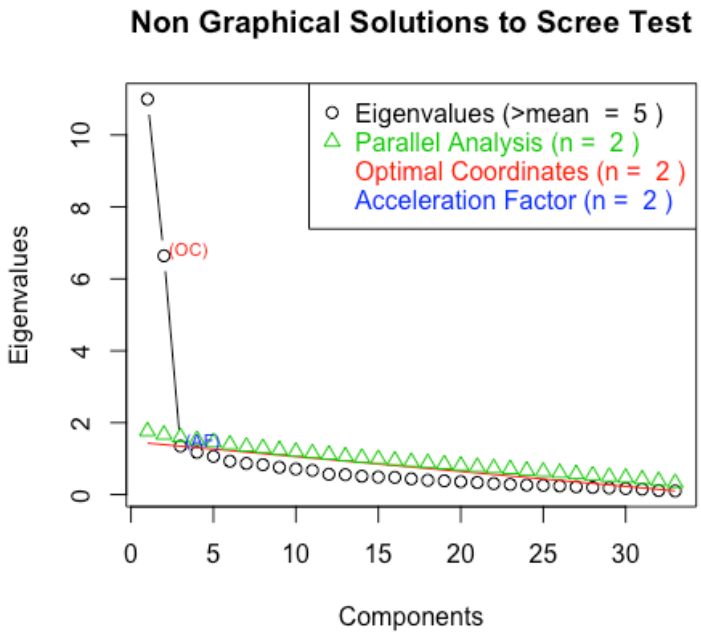

Figure 8. Scree plot of Principal Component Analysis results.

Table 7

Factor loadings identified by Principal Components Analysis

Factor 1: Satisfaction level		Factor 2: Percentage usage	
Study variable	Loading values	Study variable	Loading values
Q21_sat_instructions	0.86	Q14_use_supervision	0.77
Q18_sat_checkund_ind	0.84	Q25_use_praise	0.76
Q22_sat_terminology	0.83	Q19_use_jokes	0.76
Q23_sat_newtopic	0.83	Q16_use_checkund_all	0.76
Q16_sat_checkund_all	0.83	Q23_use_newtopic	0.74
Q14_sat_supervision	0.79	Q22_use_terminology	0.74
Q25_sat_praise	0.79	Q18_use_checkund_ind	0.73
Q17_sat_grammar	0.79	Q21_use_instructions	0.71
Q19_sat_jokes	0.78	Q11_use_compcont	0.7
Q12_sat_attention	0.74	Q12_use_attention	0.68
Q13_sat_personal	0.74	Q24_use_discipline	0.67
Q22_sat_feedback	0.72	Q17_use_grammar	0.67
Q24_sat_discipline	0.70	Q15_use_practical	0.64
Q26_sat_greetings	0.69	Q13_use_personal	0.62
Q15_sat_practical	0.66	Q20_use_feedback	0.59
Q11_sat_compcont	0.61	Q26_use_greetings	0.5
Q11_use_compcont	-0.14	Q6_prop_comprehension	0.4
Q12_use_attention	-0.15	Q13_sat_personal	-0.1
Q23_use_newtopic	-0.16	Q18_sat_checkund_ind	-0.11
Q25_use_praise	-0.16	Q16_sat_checkund_all	-0.11
		Q25_sat_praise	-0.11
		Q22_sat_terminology	-0.15
		Q14_sat_supervision	-0.16
		Q12_sat_attention	-0.22
		Q11_sat_compcont	-0.28
Proportion Variance	0.29	Proportion Variance	0.25
Cumulative Variance	0.29	Cumulative Variance	0.53

In order to decide on a name to describe each of the two factors, the nature of the variables which loaded on to each of them (both positively and negatively) were examined. Factor 1 accounted for 29% of the total variance and was defined by twenty variables in total; sixteen which loaded positively and four which loaded negatively. This factor was labelled *Satisfaction level* as it clearly relates to participants' reported levels of satisfaction in various situations. As Table 7 shows, those variables with the highest positive loading values are those relating to academic functions such as introducing academic content, giving instructions and checking understanding. A high degree of satisfaction with reported percentage of Norwegian usage in academic situations correlates negatively with degree of Norwegian use in both

corresponding academic situations and non-academic situations of a more personal nature, such as giving praise and ensuring attention.

Factor 2 accounted for 25% of the total variance and was labelled *Percentage usage* as the variables loading onto it predominantly relates to participants' reported percentage of Norwegian usage. This second factor was defined by twenty-five variables, seventeen which loaded positively and eight which loaded negatively. As Table 7 shows, the positive loadings are Norwegian usage variables involving a mixture of both Function types, with no clear differentiation between them. The negative loadings are variables related to satisfaction ratings. High levels of reported Norwegian usage for situations associated with supervision, praise-giving, joking and checking understanding correlates negatively with reported levels of satisfaction with usage for academic purposes such as reviewing complicated content, as well as non-academic purposes such as ensuring attention.

4.3.4 Relationships between opinions and Percentage usage and Satisfaction level

Individual participant levels of the two factors extracted by the PCA were entered into multiple regression models against the responses to the opinions in section three in the questionnaire. Each regression analysis explored which stated opinions significantly predict the levels of the factors *Percentage usage* and *Satisfaction level* (see Appendix C for full model outputs). The multivariate logistic regression model with the *Percentage usage* factor as dependent variable, and opinion statements as independent variables, revealed six significant associations. These are shown in Table 8. Six out of twelve statements significantly predict levels of the *Percentage usage* factor. Of these, three had a negative association with the factor, and three had a positive association. The statement "I feel confident about my English proficiency" correlated negatively with the *Percentage usage* factor, thereby suggesting that those teachers who indicated being less confident (i.e. lower agreement with the statement) had a higher score on the *Percentage usage* factor. There was also a negative correlation between participants' usage factor and the statement concerning the aspiration to avoid speaking Norwegian in English lessons. Thus, the more strongly teachers aspire to avoid the use of Norwegian, the lower their rated usage. Similarly, a negative relationship can be observed between participants' agreement with the statement "I use Norwegian strategically in my lessons" and their score on the *Percentage usage* factor. This means that the more teachers aim for strategic use of Norwegian, the lower their rated usage.

As Table 8 shows, the statement "I wish to speak less Norwegian than I do now" has a positive correlation with the Percentage usage factor. This result means that those who wished

to use less Norwegian had a higher usage factor. Positive correlations were also found for two statements relating to benefits of using Norwegian. First, the more teachers agreed that it is positive to use Norwegian for inclusion and making sure pupils understand, the higher their rated usage. Another statement which correlated positively with the Percentage usage factor is "the use of Norwegian leads to a lower-stress learning environment and makes pupils less anxious". Hence, the more teachers agreed with Norwegian being a way of relieving stress, the higher their level of Norwegian usage.

The multivariate logistic regression model with the factor *Satisfaction level* as dependent variable, and opinion statements as independent variables, revealed two significant associations, and one which was borderline significant. These are shown in Table 9. As can be seen, a significant effect was observed for the statement relating to feeling guilty. This statement is negatively associated with the *Satisfaction level* factor, meaning that the more guilt participants reported feeling about their Norwegian use, the less satisfied they were overall. A significant negative relationship was also observed between satisfaction and the statement "I wish to speak less Norwegian than I do now", meaning the more they wish to reduce their use of Norwegian, the lower their satisfaction. Finally, there was a borderline significant positive effect of "The use of Norwegian increases pupils' comprehension". This result implies that the more participants agreed with this statement, the more satisfied they were.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analysis for the Percentage usage factor

Predictor variables	*t-value*	*p-value*	
I feel confident about my English proficiency	-3.588	0.000417	***
I try to avoid speaking Norwegian in my lessons	-3.332	0.001025	**
I use Norwegian strategically in my lessons	-2.097	0.037197	*
The use of Norwegian leads to a lower-stress learning environment and makes pupils less anxious	4.710	4.59e-06	*
I wish to speak less Norwegian than I do now	4.614	6.99e-06	***
It is positive to use Norwegian to include everyone and to make sure everyone understands	2.302	0.022366	*

Note. Regression results were significant at levels: p < 0.000 (***), p <0.001 (**), p <0.01 (*), p <0.1 (‘.’).

Table 9

Multiple Regression Analysis for the Satisfaction level factor

Predictor variables	*t-value*	*p-value*	
I feel guilty when using languages other than English in my lessons	-3.116	0.0021	**
I wish to speak less Norwegian than I do now	-2.492	0.0135	*
The use of Norwegian increases pupils’ comprehension of English	1.825	0.0694	.

Note. Regression results were significant at levels: p <0.000 (***), p <0.001 (**), p <0.01 (*), p <0.1 (‘.’)

4.4 Teachers' own perspectives

The participants' free-text comments to the open-ended survey question provided more insight into the teachers' perspectives regarding factors affecting language use during English lessons. Due to space limitations, only a few selected responses will be mentioned here. All comments (n= 42) were in Norwegian and can be found in Appendix E. A number of the responses focused on the varying English proficiency levels between pupils. Several teachers reported having weak comprehenders in their class and attributed their Norwegian usage to the need to ensure comprehension. As one participant said: "*In classes of 25 pupils, where the* [average] *English level is very low, it is impossible to only use English*". This teacher further explained that he uses Norwegian to ascertain that all pupils benefit from his teaching. Concerning the latter, other participants stressed the importance of considering the class as a whole; and that decisions on how much Norwegian to use will depend on the needs of individual pupils, as well as classroom circumstances. One participant asserted that using Norwegian is "absolutely necessary" to manage classes with a challenging social climate. In her opinion, giving instructions, reprimands, or feedback in English does not contribute to effective classroom management, but leads to disruptive behavior and poor learning conditions among pupils.

Another recurring theme was the aim of maximizing target language use. For example, one teacher explained that his English usage had increased throughout the school year and that he aimed to "*only use English in the end"*. A few others made comments indicating that they ideally wish to follow a near-exclusive English approach, but that this ideal often is not compatible with classroom reality. As one teacher put it: "*I am of the opinion that everything should be in English, but it is not always feasible, unfortunately*". A similar ambivalence can be noted in the following statement: "*Unfortunately, I see some use of Norwegian as a necessity to move the pupils further*". This teacher emphasized that while her goal is always to only use English, she often experiences that too many pupils zone out when new concepts are not explained in Norwegian. A similar experience was reported by a newly qualified teacher, who indicated that her goal of only using English was not as easy to implement in practice. She explained:

> *I had an aim to speak English exclusively when I started* [teaching] *in the fall. I did it for a while but struggled a lot with the fact that many weak pupils in the class tuned out or did not catch the instructions.*

This teacher stated further that she attempts to phase more English into her lessons gradually. As illustrated by the quotes below, two other participants also stated a desire to be more consistent with their English usage, but that aspects such as poor understanding, or that pupils insist on using Norwegian, lead to more Norwegian use in general:

> *I want to speak English consistently during lessons, but I have some pupils who are so weak that they do not understand most of the high-frequency words in English, and I think I have to make sure they follow along and understand. It may be a form of misguided kindness* [snillisme], *they might learn more English if the teacher speaks English consistently during lessons. Another reason why Norwegian 'takes over' is that some pupils respond in Norwegian no matter what.*

> *I wish I spoke more English in my lessons. Every time I walk into the classroom, I have the attitude that "today we are going to speak even more English than in the previous lesson", but it often fails. I find it difficult to speak English when pupils respond in Norwegian. The pupils have a negative attitude towards speaking English as they 'do not understand', 'do not care', or are embarrassed by their own pronunciation and knowledge.*

Other reasons why teachers do not use English as much as they envision were also mentioned. One participant's comment touched on the influence of colleagues: "*I share a class with another teacher who rarely speaks English. This makes me speak less English in lessons than I would if I were alone with the class*". Another teacher made a similar note, saying that the contact teacher [of the class] encourages him to use more Norwegian than English. Finally, one participant underscored the low number of hours allotted to English teaching, and that she often feels that she does not have enough time to implement what she wants. She assumed that this time pressure plays into her decision about using Norwegian in various situations. Additional relevant comments from the open-ended survey question will be highlighted in the general discussion of results, to which we now turn.

5. DISCUSSION

This current investigation focused on the relationship between the attitudes of English teachers (n= 217) and their reported use of L1 Norwegian in lower secondary English instruction in Norway. Specifically, the study examined how these teachers' estimated L1 usage for different purposes were associated with their degree of satisfaction with their practice, and further, how their attitudes towards L1 use were related to their stated L1 usage and satisfaction. More broadly, and in line with existing evidence, the results from this research suggest that using Norwegian while teaching English is common among English teachers in Norway (Drew et al., 2007; Dahl & Vulchanova, 2014; Krulatz et al., 2016; Neokleous & Krulatz, 2018; Brevik & Rindal, 2020).

A key finding from the survey is that of considerable variation in the estimated amount of Norwegian use among teachers. This corresponds with the observational studies by Brevik and Rindal (2020), Grim (2010), and Duff and Polio (1990), who found large differences between individual teachers in different classrooms. In this study, only three of the 217 teachers surveyed claimed never to speak Norwegian in their English lessons. Most strikingly, however, was the observation that one-fourth of teachers (26.3%) reported that 50 percent or more of their classroom communication was in Norwegian. This is in spite of the fact that most lower secondary pupils have received English instruction since they were six years old. Nevertheless, this finding is in line with Brevik and Rindal's (2020) recent study, who also found high quantities of Norwegian usage. In three of their seven classrooms studied, Norwegian was spoken between 28–51 percent of the time. In what follows, I will discuss the results obtained with respect to the four research questions stated in Chapter 2.

5.1 Academic versus non-academic L1 usage

As discussed in Chapter 2, there is evidence that L2 teachers employ the L1 in different amounts for various purposes. The first research question of this study was to examine how much L1 Norwegian lower secondary English teachers report using for different academic and non-academic functions in their lessons. Overall, while Norwegian seems to be used in a range of classroom situations, the results suggest that teachers generally use Norwegian to a higher degree when explaining grammar, giving practical information and when dealing with disciplinary matters. In contrast, the lowest estimated Norwegian use across all purposes was seen for classroom greetings. This is perhaps not unexpected since this type of communication is rather straightforward, formality-based, and requires little complex use of English. However,

despite this general picture, there was wide variation between teachers considering how much L1 they employ in the various situations.

Interestingly, the ANOVA results demonstrated no significant differences between reported percentage of Norwegian use for academic and non-academic functions. Clearly, this indicates that the extent to which teachers use L1 is dependent on the nature of the situation, rather than simply whether it is an academic or non-academic function. For example, teachers' average reported use of Norwegian to explain grammar was more than twice as high as their reported L1 use for introducing new subject content, both of which are academic activities. The overall high reported use of Norwegian for explaining grammar aligns well with the findings of Franklin (1990), and of Hall and Cook (2013), whose results indicated frequent L1 use for this purpose among L2 English teachers globally. Moreover, metalinguistic explanations was the second most common function of Norwegian use among participants in Brevik and Rindal's (2020) study. In an article published in the Norwegian online newspaper "forskning.no", Brevik and Rindal comment on the value of English as a metalanguage, arguing that "it is unfortunate if, for example, the teaching of grammar takes place in a way that prevents students from learning to speak about the English language in English" (Heie, 2020).

Furthermore, teachers' reported use of Norwegian for disciplining was also relatively high. A plausible explanation for this finding could be that since disciplinary situations often are emotionally-charged, L1 may be taken as the more 'serious language', as Cook (2001) suggested. Perhaps some English teachers prefer Norwegian for dealing with disorderly behavior because switching languages gives greater emphasis to what is being said (Kerr, 2014). Furthermore, as pupils are most accustomed to being reprimanded in Norwegian in other school subjects, 'naturalness' might play a role in teachers' choice of L1 to manage behavior.

Another noteworthy observation is that the average reported Norwegian use for giving practical messages unrelated to the English subject was twice as high as the amount of Norwegian used to give instructions for class activities. This is interesting considering that both these situations are forms of class management, where teachers give messages that are important for all pupils to catch on to. One could ask what it is that makes teachers consider Norwegian more appropriate for discussing practicalities. One possible explanation is that providing practical information may be taken as a teacher-duty external to the lesson itself, compared with instruction-giving, which is clearly tied to the academic content.

As discussed earlier, there is much controversy associated with translation in second and foreign language classrooms. In this study, results indicate that teacher translations frequently occur during English teaching at lower secondary school. An essential question that

remains to be addressed is how these teacher-provided translations are realized in practice. In particular, it would be useful to know if teachers provide translations consistently as part of an established routine, or whether they do it judiciously in situations where it will promote learning. According to some authors (Grim, 2010; Drew & Sørheim, 2016; Munden & Sandhaug, 2017), teacher translations may have undesirable consequences if it occurs repetitively without giving pupils time to figure out the meaning. However, as others have suggested (Macaro, 2005; Kerr, 2014), translation may also provide clarity and contribute to better understanding among learners, provided that it is used purposefully.

5.2 Levels of satisfaction with L1 usage

As already noted, there appear to be no previous studies directly linking teachers' estimated amount of L1 use to their satisfaction. As such, the second research question aimed at examining how satisfied L2 teachers are with their reported L1 usage and whether their level of satisfaction varies for different functions. Overall, the surveyed teachers' satisfaction did not vary as much as their reported L1 usage, with average satisfaction ranging from 53-69%. Interestingly, however, their satisfaction levels were found to be differentiated by academic and non-academic functions. The ANOVA results revealed a significant main effect of function on satisfaction levels; it was seen that teachers reported averagely higher degrees of satisfaction with their L1 usage for non-academic purposes. Although speculative, it is possible that English teachers generally feel better about using Norwegian in classroom situations not directly related to subject matters.

This study found several significant correlations between teachers' reported L1 usage and their satisfaction with it. In general, the pattern of relationships between usage and satisfaction was more consistent for academic L1 functions than that for non-academic. Notably, for academic L1 usage, the direction of relationships was entirely negative, and all but two of them were significant. The strongest negative correlation was observed between teacher satisfaction and L1 usage for "introducing new topics". Results also demonstrated that teacher satisfaction decreased significantly with increased L1 usage for supervision of pupils, checking understanding, giving instructions and explanations of terminology and complicated content. Curiously, in contrast with the latter, the relationships between teacher satisfaction and L1 usage for "explaining grammar" and "giving feedback" failed to show significance. This result is interesting because these were the situations that had the highest-rated average use. Without drawing any firm conclusion, this could indicate that teachers find it more appropriate to use higher amounts of Norwegian in these situations.

Notably, the picture for non-academic functions was more mixed. Here, results indicated that as teachers' L1 usage goes up, their satisfaction goes down significantly in all but three cases. The strongest negative correlation was found between teacher satisfaction and L1 usage for "ensuring attention in the classroom". The study also revealed significant negative correlations between teacher satisfaction and L1 usage for praise-giving, classroom greetings, and joking.

No significant negative correlations were found between teacher satisfaction and L1 usage for "disciplining", "giving practical information" and "personal communication". In fact, the direction of these insignificant relationships was positive in nature. The positive direction of relationships for these functions is interesting because it clearly shows when teachers tend to find it more appropriate to use Norwegian more extensively. These three functions are functions teachers perform in any school subject; they are not exclusive to the English classroom. It is perhaps unsurprising that teachers are more satisfied with higher L1 amounts in these situations than those relating more directly to subject matters. To summarize, this study suggests that for academic situations, the less L1 teachers use, the more satisfied they are. Whereas for non-academic functions, there are clear suggestions that increased L1 usage for some purposes is not related to lower satisfaction. This is where some teachers seemingly feel better about using Norwegian and do not necessarily feel less satisfied if they use more L1.

5.3 Factors affecting variation in L1 usage and satisfaction levels

As seen in Chapter 2, there are several factors presumed to be associated with teachers' language choices during L2 instruction. The third research question of the current study was whether teachers' reported L1 usage and satisfaction levels differ as a function of teacher and/or learner-based factors. This study found a significant effect between the perceived number of poor English comprehenders in the teachers' classes and their reported Norwegian usage. Teachers who had four or more pupils in their class, with difficulty understanding teacher English use, reported using higher amounts of Norwegian than those who had three or fewer pupils with poor English comprehension. Thus, the higher proportion of pupils struggling to follow lessons in the target language, the more teacher L1 use to aid comprehension and resolve ambiguity. This finding adds further support to previous studies suggesting that teachers of diverse learner groups with many low-proficient learners use L1 more frequently than those with more homogenous learner groups (Franklin, 1990; Dickson, 1996; Hall & Cook, 2013; Ceo-DiFranscesco, 2013).

In contrast, there was no observable significant effect of grade level on the teachers' reported Norwegian usage. This is in line with earlier research by Macaro (2001) and Grim (2010), but contradicts Krulatz et.al (2016), who found that L2 use increased with the grade level of instruction. What this result might suggest is that lower secondary English teachers are primarily pupil-focused in their language choices, and that grade level in and of itself, does not determine how much or how little teachers switch languages. If this was the case, we would have observed more marked differences between the 8, 9, and 10th grade teachers.

As indicated earlier, there is scarce evidence in the Norwegian context regarding how teaching experience influences English teachers' language use. While Krulatz et al. (2016) found no effect of experience on reported L2 use among primary teachers, Brevik and Rindal (2020) observed that the lower secondary teachers who used Norwegian the most were those with longest (18-25 years) and least (1.5 years) English teaching experience. The current study revealed no significant effect of length of teaching experience on the amount Norwegian used. This result contrasts with that of Kim (2008), and Littlewood and Yu (2011), who found associations between teachers' teaching experience and their L1/L2 use. Naturally, other factors not examined by this study could also explain variation in L1 usage and satisfaction among teachers, such as various aspects relating to teachers' own competence (Ceo-DiFranscesco, 2013). The majority of teachers in the survey expressed high levels of confidence with their own English language proficiency. However, how their linguistic ability affects their classroom language choices would require further observation.

5.4 Teacher opinions and their relation to L1 usage and satisfaction levels

The fourth research question aimed to explore what opinions teachers hold about Norwegian use in the English classroom and how these opinions relate to reported L1 usage and satisfaction. Broadly, the current study seems to support the finding by Hall and Cook (2013) that teachers' attitudes towards L1 use are complex. Most notably, the results on teachers' opinions point to a possible incongruity between reported and desired classroom practices. A key finding of note is the suggestive evidence of discontent among some teachers over not using English enough. According to the survey, many teachers want to avoid speaking Norwegian in their English lessons and reduce their L1 usage. Meanwhile, results also showed an overall high agreement among teachers that they use Norwegian strategically in their English lessons. Although this finding resonates with Hall and Cook's (2013) survey results, it is somewhat paradoxical, as one would assume that using L1 strategically is positive. Thus, a question that arises is, if it is true that teachers perceive their L1 usage as intentional, why do

they hold negative attitudes towards their practices? This could be owing to what Widdowson (2019, p. 18) notes: "the deeply ingrained idea that foreign language teaching must focus exclusively on the foreign language".

The observations above, coupled with the results of negative correlations between L1 usage and teacher satisfaction, suggests that teachers wish to increase their L2 usage and decrease their use of L1. However, there are also clear suggestions that teachers see some benefits with L1 use. The vast majority of teachers in this study felt that some pupils in their class needed Norwegian translations to follow their teaching, and there was a reasonably high mean agreement (62%) that using Norwegian contributes to include everyone and ensure everyone understands. There are also indications that some teachers see L1 use as a means for lowering pupils' stress and anxiety levels, although the average level of agreement was somewhat lower (50%). Moreover, although time-efficiency is identified as a factor motivating teacher L1 use (Kerr, 2014), the majority of teachers in this study did not seem to consider time-pressure a justified reason for using L1, as the mean agreement with the statement that "using Norwegian is important to save time" was substantially low (20%). It is nonetheless possible that time-efficiency feed into teachers' language decisions unconsciously, as one participant suggested.

A final point to consider is the relationship between teachers' opinions and their reported L1 usage and satisfaction. The factor analysis resulted in two factors, one relating to teachers' L1 usage (*Percentage usage*) and the other to satisfaction (*Satisfaction level*). Collectively, these factors accounted for 53% of the total variance in the data. The subsequent multiple regression analyses showed significant correlations between teachers' factor scores and their opinions about L1 usage. Not unexpectedly, there was a negative correlation between the *Satisfaction level* factor and teachers' desire to reduce their current L1 usage, as well as their stated guilt over using languages other than English. This result implies that teachers who experienced a high degree of guilt for switching languages felt less satisfied overall with their use of Norwegian. As discussed in Chapter 2, the main concern associated with L1 use is the worry that it "proportionally reduces L2 use" as Chavez (2016) notes. Therefore, it is perhaps unsurprising that some teachers feel negative towards switching to the L1. However, echoing Macaro's (2005) views, one may question how useful it is for teachers to feel guilty about not using the target language exclusively, and to what extent successful English teaching can be measured against how much L1 the teacher uses.

However, there is also data suggesting that not all teachers desire to minimize their L1 usage, as teachers' stated wish to speak less Norwegian in their lessons was found to be

positively correlated with the *Percentage usage* factor. Also worth noting is the positive correlations between teachers' reported L1 usage and their agreement on the potential benefits of L1 use. The *Percentage usage* factor was positively associated with teachers' attitudes towards L1 as helpful in creating a lower-stress learning environment. Teachers who strongly agreed that using Norwegian contributes to making pupils less anxious were found to have higher L1 usage overall. Furthermore, *Percentage usage* also correlated positively with teachers' agreement with the statement that: "It is positive to use Norwegian to include everyone and make sure everyone understands". Contrastingly, the *Percentage usage* factor correlated negatively with teachers' stated aspiration to avoid L1 use in their lessons, Taken together, the results above seem to indicate that while some teachers ideally would want to use less L1, they also look to be responsive to pupil needs.

5.5 Limitations and further research

As with any other study, the current research has limitations that must be recognized. Firstly, as the data on teachers' language use were obtained through self-ratings and not verified by objective classroom data, one cannot rule out the possibility of 'reporting bias' (Wellington, 2015). Self-administered questionnaires rely on subjective perceptions, and as Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010, p. 8) note, respondents sometimes deviate from the truth intentionally when responding to questions. Possibly complicating things further is that, as discussed earlier, teachers may be unaware of what they actually do in their classrooms. Thus, what participants reported regarding their teaching practices may not be entirely accurate; they may have under- or overestimated their actual Norwegian usage.

Ideally, the study could have incorporated additional data methods to test the accuracy of teachers' self-report. Whereas self-ratings have proven to be rather reliable in studies of bilingualism (see Marian, Blumenfeld, & Kaushanskaya (2007) for review), there is to my knowledge limited evidence in the Norwegian context to prove how accurate teachers are in estimating their own classroom language use. A natural next step in testing the accuracy of teachers' self-report would be to first record the language use of a varied sample of teachers and then ask them to complete the questionnaire. This could give comparable data and useful pointers on how reliable self-report-based methods are. Future research could also investigate how pupils perceive their teacher's Norwegian use. It is evident from the current study that teachers' perceptions of pupils' comprehension are likely to impact their language choices in the classroom. An interesting issue which requires closer investigation is how teachers' impression of pupils' English language comprehension tie in with their *actual* ability to

comprehend. Although speculative, it is possible that teachers switch to L1 unnecessarily based on an unverified assumption that "the pupils do not understand". This is not to disregard the potential value of L1 use to aid in the comprehension of target language input, but as one of the participants in this study commented, "*when I use Norwegian in my teaching, it is often because I imagine that the pupils will then understand, but it is not certain they would have understood less if I had said it in English*".

Another potential limitation of this work relates to the scale of measurement used to obtain data on estimated percentages of Norwegian use in specific situations. A few of the comments received at the end of the survey suggest that some found it difficult to answer certain questions. For example, one participant mentioned that he could not always recall in what situations he uses Norwegian and that he, therefore, felt that several of his answers to the situation-specific questions were quite similar. A few others also said they wish there could have been a "do not know" option. It is worth acknowledging that for each of the situation-specific questions, there were one or several participants who rated their level of satisfaction as 0 percent (completely dissatisfied) when their reported usage was zero. While this is a somewhat unexpected answer combination, one has no basis for deciding whether it is a mistake or indeed what the person thinks.

Finally, future research should be conducted to better understand how teachers conceptualize strategic language use. A sizeable proportion of the participants in this study felt that they use Norwegian strategically in their lessons. It would be interesting to know exactly what techniques teachers employ to maintain a judicious balance between target language exposure and first language use. This information could be particularly valuable for novice educators who may benefit from the expertise of more experienced teachers. As has been discussed, the use of L1 must be situated. Therefore, to obtain knowledge that is transferable across contexts, it would be important to involve teachers working with a variety of class types.

5.6 Concluding remarks

In summary, the current study has extended the Norwegian literature in two key ways. First, by providing quantitative data on teachers' perceived Norwegian usage in specific teaching situations in the English classroom, and second, by presenting perspectives on how teachers' attitudes and satisfaction correspond with their perceived classroom practices. To conclude, the results of this research indicate that using Norwegian is common among lower secondary English teachers in Norway, but that there is considerable variation between teachers as to how much L1 they use and how satisfied they are with their usage. In general, the

classroom situations where teachers use Norwegian more extensively are when explaining grammar, providing practical information, and correcting pupil behavior. Moreover, teachers were found to be more satisfied overall with their reported L1 use for non-academic purposes.

The results suggest that for most academic situations in the classroom, higher L1 usage is related to lower teacher satisfaction. The findings further propose that teachers' perception of pupil comprehension plays an essential role in their language choices. Teachers who indicated having four or more poor English comprehenders in their class reported significantly higher Norwegian usage than those who had three or fewer. Grade level of instruction and years of teaching experience showed no effect on either reported L1 use or satisfaction levels. Finally, the findings imply that most teachers believe their L1 use is strategic and serves specific purposes in the classroom. But despite this, many still express a desire to avoid using the L1, or at least reduce it.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Teacher questionnaire

The use of Norwegian in English teaching (8th – 10th grade)

Welcome!

My name is Kamilla and I am a teacher student at the University of Agder. As part of my masters' thesis in English subject didactics, I am conducting a research study on how Norwegian is used in English teaching at lower secondary level. I would very much appreciate if you could help me by answering some questions. With this survey, I want to find out how you use Norwegian in your English lessons and what you think about it. There has been relatively little research in this area in Norway, so your participation will be valued.

- The questionnaire has four parts and should take no longer than 10-15 minutes to complete.
- All questions have fixed answer options.
- Your responses are anonymous. You will not be asked to share personally identifying information and your IP address is not stored with your answers.
- It is possible to receive a copy of the project results. If you are interested, you will find my contact information at the end of the survey.

Thanks in advance for your help!

Your teaching situation

Below are some questions about your current teaching situation. Please read the questions carefully and follow the directions provided.

1. **What grade(s) do you teach English in?** (you may tick more than one).

- ☐ 8th grade
- ☐ 9th grade
- ☐ 10th grade

Please read carefully: if you teach English in various classes/ different grades, please choose one of your English classes, and answer the survey with this class in mind.

2. **What grade level is this class?**

- ☐ 8th grade
- ☐ 9th grade
- ☐ 10th grade

3. **How many pupils are there in the class?**

- ☐ 0-15
- ☐ 16-20
- ☐ 21-25
- ☐ 26+

4. **Thinking about the pupils' English language ability; approximately how many pupils have a low level of proficiency?**

- ☐ None
- ☐ 1-3
- ☐ 4-6
- ☐ 7+

5. **Do any of the pupils have a language background that includes a language other than Norwegian?**

- ☐ None
- ☐ 1-3
- ☐ 4-6
- ☐ 7+

6. **Thinking about the pupils' language comprehension; approximately how many do you think are finding it difficult to understand you when you speak English during lessons?**

- ☐ None
- ☐ 1-3
- ☐ 4-6
- ☐ 7+

7. **Which of these strategies do you use when pupils do not understand what you say in English?** (you may tick more than one)

- ☐ I ask other pupils to translate
- ☐ I switch into Norwegian to explain, summarize or translate
- ☐ I rephrase in English until they understand
- ☐ Another strategy (please specify):

8. **Order the strategies you use from most to least used** (1= the one which you use the most)

	⇕ I ask other pupils to translate
	⇕ I switch into Norwegian to explain, summarize or translate
	⇕ I rephrase in English until they understand
	⇕ Another strategy

9. **How often do you switch from English into Norwegian to translate the following?** (put one tick per line)

	Never	Very seldom	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Always
Terminology (terms/words/expressions)							
Instructions you have given							
Subject content you have explained							

10. Approximately how many pupils in the class need/require Norwegian translations to follow your English lessons?

- ☐ None
- ☐ 1-3
- ☐ 4-6
- ☐ 7+

Your language use

Please read carefully: Norwegian is used in different situations and in different amounts in English teaching. The questions here are about your use of Norwegian in various teaching situations. For each situation, estimate how much Norwegian you use. You answer on a scale from 0-100, where 0 means *I do not use Norwegian* and 100 means *I only use Norwegian*. After this question you are asked to consider how satisfied you are with it. You answer on the same scale, but 0 means *very dissatisfied* and 100 *very satisfied.* Think about the same English class when answering.

11. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when reviewing complicated subject content?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

12. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when wanting to ensure attention and concentration among pupils?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

13. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when speaking to pupils about personal matters?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

14. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when supervising pupils during tasks/activities?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

15. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when giving practical information or messages unrelated to subject matters?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

16. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when checking understanding in front of the class?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

17. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when explaining grammar?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

18. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when checking understanding individually?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

19. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when joking with pupils?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

20. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when giving oral feedback on tasks/tests?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

21. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when giving instructions to tasks/ activities?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

22. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when explaining new words or expressions?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

23. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when introducing a new topic or chapter?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

24. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when reprimanding pupils and dealing with inappropriate behavior?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

25. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when giving praise and recognition to pupils?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

26. How much Norwegian do you use:

	Use no Norwegian **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Use only Norwegian **100 %**
when greeting and saying goodbye to pupils?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with how much Norwegian you use in this situation?	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

27. Overall, how much Norwegian do you use in your English lessons? Check the box with the most appropriate alternative.

- ☐ 0 %
- ☐ 1-10 %
- ☐ 11-30 %
- ☐ 31-50 %
- ☐ 51-70 %
- ☐ More than 70 %

Your opinions

Please read carefully: There are many opinions about language use among language teachers. Below are some statements about including Norwegian in English teaching. For each claim, indicate to what extent you agree or disagree. You answer on a scale from 0-100, where 0 means *totally disagree* and 100 means *totally agree.* There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. It is your own views that matter, so please answer as honestly as possible.

28. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Totally disagree **0 %**	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Totally agree **100 %**
It is important to use Norwegian in the classroom to save time	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel confident about my English proficiency	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I wish to speak less Norwegian than I do now	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The use of Norwegian increases pupils' comprehension of English	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I use Norwegian strategically in my lessons	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
It is positive to use Norwegian to include everyone and to make sure everyone understands	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In teacher-training, we were encouraged to use Norwegian	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Decisions about how much and when to use Norwegian should be left to the individual teacher	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The use of Norwegian is problematic in multilingual classes	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel guilty when using languages other than English in my lessons	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I try to avoid speaking Norwegian in my lessons	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The use of Norwegian leads to a lower-stress learning environment and makes pupils less anxious	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

About you

Below are five brief questions about you and your educational background. This information helps me get a general overview of those who completed the survey. You remain anonymous.

28. Sex:

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Other

29. Age:

- ☐ Under 25 years
- ☐ 25-34
- ☐ 35-44
- ☐ 45-54
- ☐ Over 55 years

30. Your first language (mother tongue):

- ☐ Norwegian
- ☐ English
- ☐ Other

31. Which region in Norway do you work?

- ☐ North
- ☐ East
- ☐ Central-Norway
- ☐ West
- ☐ South

32. Your working experience as an English teacher:

- ☐ 0-2 years
- ☐ 3-5 years
- ☐ 6-14 years
- ☐ 15-24 years
- ☐ 25+ years

33. How many credits do you have in English? (60 credits = 20 “vekttall”)

- ☐ Less than 60
- ☐ 60
- ☐ 61-120
- ☐ 121-180
- ☐ More than 180

34. Other comments (optional)

Here you may write comments or expand on your answers.

Click the finish button below to complete the survey.

Appendix B: Additional descriptive statistics

Table B1

Answer categories	Rating			
	1	2	3	4
I ask other pupils to translate	6,5 %	22,1 %	43,8 %	27,7 %
	(14)	(48)	(95)	(60)
I switch into Norwegian to explain, summarize or translate	58, 5 %	26,3 %	11,0 %	4,2 %
	(127)	(57)	(24)	(9)
I rephrase in English until they understand	30,4 %	46,1 %	22,1 %	1,4 %
	(66)	(100)	(48)	(3)
Another strategy	4,6 %	5,5 %	23,0 %	66,8 %
	(10)	(12)	(50)	(145)

Note. This table shows the complete data for question 8 in the questionnaire: "Order the strategies you use from most to least used (1= the strategy which you use the most). Number of responses is in parentheses.

Table B2

Variable	Grouping (*n*)	Academic functions		Non-academic functions	
		Usage	Satisfaction	Usage	Satisfaction
Grade level	8th grade (71)	43.13	61.27	41.21	65.67
		(20.55)	(21.92)	(24.21)	(23.82)
	9th grade (74)	40.32	57.12	42.22	61.83
		(19.12)	(26.18)	(21.00)	(24.72)
	10th grade (72)	39.48	60.46	41.11	64.90
		(18.85)	(26.49)	(21.67)	(26.68)
Number of poor English comprehenders	0-3 pupils (116)	35.27	62.07	36.01	66.60
		(19.10)	(25.30)	(21.55)	(25.64)
	4 or more pupils (101)	47.49	56.73	47.85	61.25
		(17.88)	(24.30)	(21.36)	(24.15)
Teaching experience	0-5 years (89)	41.49	57.62	44.05	63.37
		(19.13)	(23.54)	(22.92)	(23.49)
	6-14 years (60)	38.50	58.78	39.86	62.33
		(20.13)	(27.88)	(21.07)	(25.95)
	15+ years (68)	42.44	62.88	39.69	66.64
		(19.46)	(23.95)	(22.26)	(26.34)

Note. This table shows the means and standard deviations for reported Norwegian usage and satisfaction level for each of the groupings in the ANOVA analyses. Standard deviations are in parentheses. Values are rounded to one decimal place.

Appendix C: Output regression models

MODEL
SatisfactionEffects <- lm(RC1 ~ Q28_op_1_time + Q28_op_2_confEng +
Q28_op_3_wish_less_N + Q28_op_4_incr_cpmp + Q28_op_5_Stategic_use_N+
Q28_op_6_inclusion + Q28_op_7_encourage_use_N + Q28_op_8_individual_choice
+ Q28_op_9_prob_mulitlingual_class + Q28_op_10_guilt_use_NQ29_op_11_try_avoid_N+
Q28_op_12_lower_stress + Q33_experience, data = ppdata)
> summary(SatisfactionEffects)

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-2.8225	-0.4935	0.1409	0.6632	2.0100

OUTPUT REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE SATISFACTION LEVEL FACTOR
Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	0.3108775	0.5225056	0.595	0.5525	
Q28_op_1_time	-0.0017966	0.0032072	-0.560	0.5760	
Q28_op_2_confEng	0.0010482	0.0040507	0.259	0.7961	
Q28_op_3_wish_less_N	-0.0052932	0.0021240	-2.492	0.0135	*
Q28_op_4_incr_cpmp	0.0060025	0.0032883	1.825	0.0694	.
Q28_op_5_Stategic_use_N	-0.0042568	0.0031128	-1.368	0.1730	
Q28_op_6_inclusion	0.0005389	0.0034481	0.156	0.8760	
Q28_op_7_encourage_use_N	0.0010232	0.0029117	0.351	0.7256	
Q28_op_8_individual_choice	-0.0020723	0.0023035	-0.900	0.3694	
Q28_op_9_prob_mulitlingual_class	0.0031473	0.0021341	1.475	0.1418	
Q28_op_10_guilt_use_N	-0.0067463	0.0021648	-3.116	0.0021	**
Q29_op_11_try_avoid_N	0.0017052	0.0027368	0.623	0.5339	
Q28_op_12_lower_stress	-0.0006951	0.0025459	-0.273	0.7851	
Q33_experience	0.0792183	0.0576239	1.375	0.1707	

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.9608 on 203 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1324, Adjusted R-squared: 0.0768
F-statistic: 2.382 on 13 and 203 DF, p-value: 0.005396

MODEL

```
>UseEffects <- lm(RC2 ~ Q28_op_1_time + Q28_op_2_confEng + Q28_op_3_wish_less_N
+Q28_op_4_incr_cpmp + Q28_op_5_Stategic_use_N        + Q28_op_6_inclusion +
Q28_op_7_encourage_use_N +  Q28_op_8_individual_choice +
Q28_op_9_prob_mulitlingual_class + Q28_op_10_guilt_use_N    + Q29_op_11_try_avoid_N
+ Q28_op_12_lower_stress    + Q33_experience, data = ppdata)

> summary(UseEffects)


Residuals:
Min             1Q          Median          3Q          Max
-1.60145        -0.49308     -0.03612        0.45723     2.29156
```

OUTPUT REGRESSION MODEL FOR THE PERCENTAGE USAGE FACTOR

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	0.2720752	0.3888113	0.700	0.484877	
Q28_op_1_time	0.0016672	0.0023866	0.699	0.485616	
Q28_op_2_confEng	-0.0108159	0.0030142	-3.588	0.000417	***
Q28_op_3_wish_less_N	0.0072927	0.0015805	4.614	6.99e-06	***
Q28_op_4_incr_cpmp	0.0021785	0.0024469	0.890	0.374350	
Q28_op_5_Stategic_use_N	-0.0048582	0.0023163	-2.097	0.037197	*
Q28_op_6_inclusion	0.0059059	0.0025658	2.302	0.022366	*
Q28_op_7_encourage_use_N	0.0019821	0.0021667	0.915	0.361390	
Q28_op_8_individual_choice	-0.0020834	0.0017141	-1.215	0.225601	
Q28_op_9_prob_mulitlingual_class	0.0016417	0.0015881	1.034	0.302475	
Q28_op_10_guilt_use_N	-0.0009069	0.0016109	-0.563	0.574059	
Q29_op_11_try_avoid_N	-0.0067855	0.0020365	-3.332	0.001025	**
Q28_op_12_lower_stress	0.0089232	0.0018945	4.710	4.59e-06	***
Q33_experience	0.0348469	0.0428796	0.813	0.417360	

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

Residual standard error: 0.715 on 203 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.5196, Adjusted R-squared: 0.4888
F-statistic: 16.89 on 13 and 203 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

Appendix D: Open-ended responses for question 7

The table below includes participants' responses to question 7 in the questionnaire (in Norwegian). Here participants could write other strategies they use when their pupils do not understand what they say in English.

Participant	Response
1	Oversetter fra morsmålet sitt.
2	Kun norsk om eg ser at dei svakaste ikkje skjønar og etter å ha forklart på engelsk på ulike måtar.
3	Jeg bruker konkreter, kroppsspråk, skriver ned lexical og content words som er viktig for å forstå innholdet slik at elevene kan finne frem til disse i synonymordbøker eller ordbøker, bruker TPR også på dette trinnet [9.trinn], viser verb, baserer meg på elevenes morsmål, transparente ord, unngår false friends eller lexical teddybears.
4	Visualisering (skrive på tavle, peke i boka, supplere det jeg sier med bilder og illustrasjoner).
5	Viser/tegner sekvens på tavla, eller bruker tegn til tale.
6	Oversetter enkle ord som er vanskelige, men sier resten på engelsk.
7	Bruker bilder/video/overdrevet kroppsspråk/repetisjon.
8	Snakker sakte, viser med armene, gestikulerer. Det hender at abstrakte fremmedord får en norsk oversettelse av meg. Ellers foregår alt på engelsk; grammatikk, vurderinger, tilbakemeldinger, elevsamtaler etc.
9	Forklarer først på engelsk, tar enten å repeterer i klassen på norsk eller går å forklarer en-til-en.
10	Tegning, miming.
11	Varierer mellom å veksle på språk, oversette. Skriver stikkord på norsk på tavla. Går bort til den det gjelder for å forsikre meg om at de har forstått.
12	Mime.
13	Skriver f.eks. et vanskelig ord på tavla. Noen elever forstår bedre hvis de får se ordet i tillegg til å høre det.
14	Tegning, demonstrering.
15	Snakker engelsk hele tiden utenom når instrukser blir gitt. F.eks. for å forklare hvordan en oppgave skal løses.
16	Lar de slå opp ordene selv.
17	Har alternative opplegg på Ipad, tilpasset nivået slik at alle utvikler seg og ingen føler at de ikke forstår.
18	Jeg omformulerer til engelsk men veksler til norsk hvis de ikke forstår.
19	Vi har to lærere tilstede, så den andre læreren hjelper å oversette/forklare.
20	Repeterer sakte, eller tegner og skriver stikkord på tavla.
21	Tavlebruk.
22	Omformulering, tydelig sakte tale med gjentagelse av viktige ord. Spør om noen i klassen kan forklare hva det betyr på norsk.

Appendix E: Open-ended responses for question 34

The table below includes participants' responses to question 34 in the questionnaire (in Norwegian). Here participants could make any comments they wished.

Participant	Response
1	Noen spørsmål var litt vanskelig å forstå. For eksempel om jeg snakker norsk når det er noe personlig. Har det noe med engelskfaget å gjøre går det på engelsk, men hvis det er noe personlig om andre ting går det på norsk.
2	Det var flere ganger underveis at jeg tenkte at her burde det stått en utdypning, men kan ikke huske akkurat hva det var. Flere av svarene mine er avhengig av situasjonen i klasserommet og eleven(e). Når jeg bruker norsk i undervisningen er det ofte fordi jeg innbiller meg at elevene da vil forstå, men det er ikke sikkert at de hadde forstått mindre om jeg hadde sagt det på engelsk. Jeg skal sannelig undersøke dette litt i klassen min!
3	Eg har lyst til å snakke konsekvent engelsk i timane, men har nokre elevar som er så svake at dei ikkje forstår dei fleste høyfrekvente orda i engelsk, og tenker at eg må forsikre meg om at dei heng med og forstår, så då brukar eg ein del norsk. Det er kanskje ein form for snillisme, dei lærer kanskje meir engelsk dersom lærar konsekvent pratar engelsk i timane. Ein annan grunn til at norsken «tek over» er at nokre elevar svarer konsekvent på norsk, same kva. Då endar det med at norsken brer seg i klasserommet.
4	Jeg tok utdanningen min i [*anonymized*] og Nokut (som godkjenner utdanningen) sier ikke hvor mange studiepoeng man har...
5	Bruker norsk til å oppsummere og ved instruksjon av oppgaver og grammatikk. Ellers bruker jeg norsk kanskje noe mer hyppig i klasser hvor det er en del svake elever som har vansker med å forstå engelsk. Jeg prøver, prinsipielt, å snakke engelsk og fortelle i korte trekk på norsk i etterkant, for å forsikre meg at alle elevene har fått med seg det som er blitt sagt.
6	Jeg er nyutdanna, og hadde som mål å utelukkende snakke engelsk i undervisninga da jeg starta i høst. Jeg gjorde det en periode, men strevde mye med at mange "svake" engelskelever i klassen ramla av eller ikke fikk med seg instruksjoner. Derfor har det utvikla seg til at det blir mye norsk for å forklare innhold og arbeidsoppgaver i timene, men jeg forsøker å gradvis fase inn mer og mer engelsk i undervisninga igjen.
7	Flott vinkling av en masteroppgave!
8	Vanskelige spørsmål. Svarene ble bare sånn omtrent. Burde ha vært et alternativ med "vet ikke".
9	GTM er gammeldags og burde ikke brukes. De fleste elevene, selv de som ikke kan snakke så mye engelsk har gode ferdigheter i lytteforståelse.
10	Uklart hva som menes med "sjekke forståelse" da dette enten vitner om mangelfull forståelse av vurdering eller mangelfull forståelse av hensikten med engelskfaget. Generelt baserer jeg mye av min undervisning på CLT og er av den oppfatning at engelsk er utdannelsesfag, så vel som et nyttefag. Varierte metoder, variert innhold med historiske linjer og skepsis til lærebøkene gjør engelskundervisningen morsom, vellykket og givende.
11	I klasser med et utfordrende sosialt- / læringsmiljø er det i ungdomsskolen helt nødvendig å bruke norsk for å gjennomføre vellykket klasseledelse. Å gi instruksjoner, korrekser, tilbakemeldinger etc. på engelsk bidrar ikke til effektiv klasseledelse, og fører til mye uro og lavt læringstrykk.
12	Lykke til ;-)
13	Mine klasser består av innvandrere som tar grunnskoleutdanning, der ingen har norsk som morsmål.

14	Kommer veldig an på elevgruppe og tema. Spesielt grammatikk MÅ tas på norsk for at elevene skal henge med, men jeg har mange svake elever.
15	I klasser på ca. 25 der engelsknivået er svært lavt, er det umulig å kun bruke engelsk. Jeg bruker norsk for å sikre meg at flest mulig får et godt læringsutbytte, og differensierer hvem jeg snakker engelsk og norsk med i klasserommet, etter hva elevene selv vil.
16	Det er en kjempeinteressant tema! Jeg har vært engelsk lærer i de siste [*anonymized*] år, [*anonymized*] år i utlandet og [*anonymized*] år i Norge. Jeg har B1/B2 nivå i norsk og det kan være vanskelig for meg å forklare begreper og grammatikk på norsk av og til. Så prøver jeg å bruke så mye engelsk som mulig, også fordi norske elevene har sterkere forståelse i engelsk enn [*anonymized*] elevene, og jeg tror at de kan egentlig forstå minst 80% at alt jeg forklare på engelsk. Dessverre de liker ikke at jeg bruker engelsk i løpet av engelsk timene, og også kontaktlæreren og lederen oppmuntre oss å bruke mer norsk enn engelsk. Studentene liker ikke å snakke engelsk også, selv om det er veldig flink og har god uttalelse. Det går bra fordi jeg forstår at noe kan være veldig sjenert og usikker, men jeg vet at de kan forstå engelsk og jeg prøver å bruke det mer og mer. Bra jobb med spørreundersøkelse og lykke til med masteroppgave!! :)
17	Jeg søker å snakke engelsk så mye som mulig, men mange elever har hatt lite engelsk på barneskolen, noen ikke noe, og alle skal ivaretas i samme klasserom, også elever med språkvansker. Engelsk er et språk en del faktisk ikke forstår, og det er ikke slik at det er ekstra ressurser til de elevene som strever. Å snakke kun engelsk i timene blir derfor ekskluderende. Det ville vært interessant å visst mer om hvordan BARNESKOLENE jobber muntlig i engelsktimene.
18	Jeg bruker mest norsk på 8. trinn, noe mindre på 9. og omtrent bare engelsk på 10. trinn. Dette er både muntlig og skriftlig. Lykke til!
19	Jeg tenker det er viktig å se an hver klasse du har. I noen klasser kan du snakke engelsk hele tiden, i andre må du kanskje snakke mer norsk. Språk handler om kommunikasjon. Etter hvert med erfaring, ser man i hvilken grad norsk kan hjelpe elever heller enn sløve de. Å føle seg utrygg i språklæring hemmer veldig, derfor blir det en avveining hver time, i hver klasse på hvor mye man må snakke norsk for å optimalisere læringen i en sammensatt klasse. (Den norske enhetsskolen). Spennende oppgave du har, lykke til;)
20	Jeg har vært sensor i engelsk skriftlig og muntlig i mange år. Slik som nå, har jeg 3 klasser i engelsk. Og det varierer veldig hvor de er i forståelse (nasjonale prøver). Den ene klassen er merkbart mye svakere. Snakkes det bare engelsk, så faller, særlig svake elever, inn i egne tanker. En må hente dem inn igjen. Derfor veksler jeg mye mer mellom norsk og engelsk i denne klassen. Men når vi snakker med humor og om dagligdagse ting, så drar jeg på med typiske muntlige ord og uttrykk for å få dem til å forstå hvordan engelskmenn egentlig snakker i sin dagligtale. Det gjelder også å snakke saktere og bruke færre ord, for å få med de svakeste elevene. Noen klarer knapt å forme en setning. Lykke til.
21	Tykkjer spørjeskjemaet var rotete og vanskeleg å forstå.
22	Svarene mine ser kanskje veldig bastante og firkanta ut. Det jeg mener er at jeg bruker engelsk som kommunikasjonsspråk i engelsktimene. Dette gjelder alt: metakommunikasjon, spørsmål om å gå på do, humor osv. Spør elevene om noe som ikke har med skolearbeidet, tar vi det på engelsk om det er av en sånn art at det kan snakkes om mens de andre elevene hører. Er det av mer privat art, tar vi det på gangen, ofte på norsk. Grunnen til at jeg prøver å bare bruke engelsk er at jeg tror gjentatt eksponering for språket er en viktig læringsfaktor. Språket må ikke være noe vi øver på i bolker i løpet av timen, men noe som vi har rundt oss hele økta. Erfaringen min er også at det er en tendens til at elever er flinke til å holde monologer om emner, men har tydelig lavere kompetanse innen spontant småprat. Jeg har også fått respons fra mange elever om at de synes det er mindre skremmende å snakke engelsk i timene når vi aldri bruker norsk. Da har vi en kultur for at engelsktimene foregår på engelsk. Selvfølgelig legger jeg nivået langt ned for de som trenger det, men vi prøver å snakke

	om alt på engelsk. Et annet argument for å bruke engelsk hele tiden er at jeg ikke ønsker at elevene skal se engelsk som en "parallell" til norsk. Ved å tenke "bare engelsk" tror jeg engelske setningsstrukturer blir mer naturlige for elevene enn om de først skriver en norsk setning og deretter oversetter den til engelsk.
23	Hovedmålet for hver eneste time er at elevene skal høre, og bruke mest mulig engelsk. Jeg ber elevene om å bruke ulike strategier, f.eks. at det er lov å svare på norsk hvis de føler de ikke har ordforråd. Annen elev kan f.eks. oversette. De kan også gjenfortelle det andre har sagt, til og med gjenta svar de har hørt i klassen. Dersom vi skal gjennomgå noe nytt i grammatikk forklarer jeg først på norsk, så på engelsk. Minner de ofte på at det for noen kun er på skolen noen få timer de kan bruke engelsken så aktivt. Opplever at mange elever synes det er et kjekt og nyttig fag. Vet at noen elever opplever det stressende at mye foregår på engelsk, men de har anledning til å få forklart ting på norsk om det er nødvendig. Lykke til med interessant oppgave!
24	Eg er ein nyutdanna lærar som undervis i engelsk på 8. trinn, med andre ord, eg kom nett ut frå universitetet med ei masteroppgåve i handa. Det er ein heilt anna verden å undervise på ungdomsskulen, og eg blir stadig forundra over kor lågt språknivået er hjå enkelte av elevane mine. Ein har ofte mange idear om kva ein vil gjere og korleis ein ynskjer å forme klassen sin... Problemet er at kvar og ein av elevane ikkje er ein leirklump som utan vidare kan formast og endrast etter mine tankar. Dei må heile tida lurast og manipulerast til å gjere det dei skal, for dei er overtyda om kva dei vil og ikkje vil læra. Likeins blir ein då òg nødt til å bruke norsk aktivt i timane, for å vere viss på at ein ikkje sèt for høge mål (noko eg gjorde i byrjinga av undervisninga mi). Ein håpar alltids på å få flinke, høflige, og motiverte elevar når ein byrjar i gjerninga, men ein får dei elevane ein får. Håpet er at ein til slutt har lært opp elevar ein med glede sender vidare i verda. Takk for at du skriv denne oppgåva!
25	Bruk av norsk i timene er mer for å repetere og forklare allerede gjennomgått informasjon og fagstoff. Når det gjelder grammatikk er det norsk som brukes for det meste (bl.a. begreper tilhørende grammatikk og hva de heter på engelsk kommer inn underveis).
26	Kommer fra og var utdannet i [*anonymized*]...
27	Mange av svarene som gjelder spesifikke situasjoner føler jeg blir veldig like, da jeg ikke alltid klarer å ta igjen i hvilke situasjoner jeg bruker norsk.
28	Ikke at det har noe med undersøkelsen å gjøre, men timetallet i engelsk har mye å si for gjennomføringen av undervisningen. Siden timetallet i engelsk er såpass mye lavere enn norsk og matematikk, føler jeg at jeg ikke får tid nok til å gjennomføre alt jeg ønsker. Det spiller nok inn når jeg velger å bruke norsk i flere av situasjonene i klasserommet; rett og slett for å rekke over deler av pensum raskere.
29	Hvor mye norsk, som benyttes er avhengig av gruppen man har. Svarene jeg gir i dag er kanskje ikke riktige for "morgendagens" gruppe. Målet må være at en skal benytte kun engelsk, men i gruppen jeg har i dag vil det føre til at mange faller av. Andelen engelsk har vært økt utover skoleåret, og målet er å bruke kun engelsk til slutt.
30	Noen spørsmål var svært vanskelig å svare på. Savner en "vet ikke" knapp. Gjerne noen andre knapper, som ville klargjort hva en svarer på i større grad.
31	Jeg underviser i en klasse der mange elever er helt spesielt svake i alle fag. De er på nivå med elever på 3. trinn i barneskolen når det gjelder engelsk, men flere av dem har ingen diagnose. I andre engelskklasser bruker jeg mer engelsk, fordi elevene forstår mer, men jeg valgte å svare ut fra en klasse som jeg har ansvar for alene. Mine svar er dermed ikke representative for alt jeg gjør som engelsklærer.
32	Skulle hatt en vet ikke/uinteressant rubrikk.
33	Det er viktig å være et godt forbilde for elevene. Når læreren snakker mest mulig engelsk blir det mer naturlig for elevene å snakke engelsk. Vi kan jo ikke forvente at elevene skal produsere språk hvis vi ikke gjør det selv.
34	Dessverre ser jeg noe bruk av norsk som en nødvendighet for å drive elevene videre. Dette gjelder spesielt forklaring på og innlæring av grammatikk. Selvsagt forklarer jeg

	alltid dette på begge språk, slik får jeg så mange som mulig med i læringsprosessen. Målet er alltid kun å bruke engelsk i engelskundervisningen, men erfaring viser at for mange faller av hvis ikke nye begrep og noe nytt stoff også forklares på morsmålet. (Slik jeg også har måttet med tyskspråklige elever, altså brukt tysken til å forklare dem både engelsk og norsk.)
35	Jeg har bodd flere år i [*anonymized*] og er trygg på språket. Jeg opplever at min trygghet smitter over på elevene, og de tør å slippe seg mer løs og leke med språket, at vi tuller og har det artig med det å lære et annet språk. Den eneste grunnen til at jeg overhode snakker norsk i timene er når jeg ser at noen helt har falt av lasset og ikke forstår, selv når jeg forklarer det på en annen måte. Når vi sammenligner norsk og engelsk er det også naturlig å bruke norske ord. Lykke til i studiet! :-)
36	Det er stor forskjell om du jobber på 8. trinn eller på 10. trinn. Jeg opplever som engelsklærer at jeg må snakke mer norsk i engelsktimene i år, fordi mange elever på 8. trinn er usikre og ikke kan nok engelsk til å ta i mot instruksjoner ol. på engelsk. Mange av de elevene jeg har fått i år er for svake i engelsk og ville derfor ikke forstå nok til å ha et godt læringsutbytte ved gjennomgang av fagstoffet på engelsk. I fjor hadde jeg 10.trinn, og da snakket jeg engelsk minst 80 % av tida.
37	Deler klasse med en annen lærer som sjelden snakker engelsk. Det gjør det at jeg snakker mindre engelsk i timene enn jeg ville gjort om jeg var alene med klassen.
38	Alt av vurderingskriterier og læremål fra udir er på norsk. I noen situasjoner blir det dermed mer naturlig å slå over på norsk for å referere til disse i underveisvurdering.
39	Har to veldig svake elevar i denne klassa, skal dei ha utbytte må litt vere på norsk. I andre klasser som eg har hatt tidlegare, har 99% av alt foregått på engelsk. Ein må alltid tilpasse, men tek ikkje alltid omsyn til dei svakaste, dei får ofte ekstra støtte, men er dei med på lik linje med dei andre kan ein ikkje oversjå dei og dure på kun på engelsk. Her må ein sjå an gruppa som heilheit. Er av den meining at alt skal skje på engelsk, men det let seg ikkje alltid gjere dessverre.
40	Vi kjører «English zone» der både lærer og elever må snakke engelsk. Den gjelder alltid hele engelsktimen, men det er lov å spørre om unntak. Det er også unntak fra meg når en beskjed/vanskelig stoff repeteres kort på norsk (skjer ikke hver time).
41	Jeg kunne ønske jeg snakket mer engelsk i timene mine. Hver gang jeg går inn i klasserommet har jeg holdningen om at "idag skal vi snakke enda mer engelsk enn i forrige time", men det rakner fort. Jeg synes det er vanskelig å snakke engelsk da elevene svarer på norsk. Elevene har en negativ holdning til å snakke engelsk da de "ikke forstår ", "ikke gidder" eller er flaue over sin egen uttale og kunnskaper.
42	Det va vanskelig å vite hva % betød i den ene delen.