## Investigating the use of L1 in the L2 classroom

A mixed method study on pupils' perspective on the use of Norwegian in English teaching

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#### Abstract

Research into the field of code-switching and language use in the Norwegian English foreign language classroom has been scarce, and with no official recommendations of language use in Norwegian schools, practices vary from school to school, and teacher to teacher. Even rarer are studies into the perspectives and thoughts amongst pupils on the subject. This mixed method study investigates pupils' perspectives on the use of L1 during L2 teaching in Norwegian lower secondary school. The aim is to uncover pupils' thoughts on L1 use and their opinions on when Norwegian can be applied naturally or as a necessity into English teaching. Additionally, the research questions sought to disclose factors that may influence the language choices made by pupils during English lessons.

To answer the research questions, a mixed method study comprised of an online questionnaire, completed by 156 pupils attending lower secondary school, and in-depth semistructured interviews with 15 pupils attending the $10^{\text {th }}$ grade were conducted. A total of six schools volunteered for the study, five for the quantitative part (questionnaire) and one for the qualitative part (interviews).

The result of the study suggests that Norwegian is quite commonly used amongst Norwegian pupils during English foreign language lessons, and that they find it both useful and natural for L1 to be applied for certain contexts, i.e., it is natural or necessary for Norwegian to be used when they are provided with information not related to the subject, when the teacher explains an assignment, when working with new vocabulary or grammar, or when collaborating in pairs and groups. However, it seems the main reason behind the extensive use of L1 amongst pupils can be improved as they report the reason to be because it feels unnatural to speak English, or that it is simply easier to answer using Norwegian. Other reasons behind L1 are more easily forgiven, i.e., pupils are uncomfortable with pronunciation, they use Norwegian because the rest of the pupils do, or due to limitations in vocabulary. Moreover, the results imply that the language used by other members of class, as well as the teacher, has a significant impact and influence on the language choices made by the pupils. In other word, Norwegian should be used judiciously and there needs to be some thought behind it.


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### 1.0 Introduction

### 1.1 Background of the study

### 1.1.1 The English Subject in Norway

English was an optional subject in Norwegian schools for several years but became a compulsory subject in 1959 (Rindal, 2014; Drew \& Sørheim, 2016). The hours were few and they did not start teaching until the pupils attended their last years of elementary school. Progress needed to be swift and oral skills were more or less neglected (Drew \& Sørheim, 2016). Over the years the scope of English teaching was gradually expanded and with the L97 reform English became obligatory from the first year of school and the necessity of English skills was stressed as English is essential in order to understand and communicate with the world around us (Munden \& Sandhaug, 2017; Drew \& Sørheim, 2016). Today, English is one of three core subjects to be assessed in national tests (Munden \& Sandhaug, 2017). It is considered to be crucial when it comes to "...cultural understanding, communication, all-round education and identity development" (The Ministry of Education and Research, 2019, p. 2). Through their English education the pupils should be proficient in reading and writing as well as oral communication in English, making them equipped for working and social life after completed schooling.

The approach to teaching English has varied a lot over the years. For a long period of time, The Grammar-Translation Method was dominant in the Norwegian English foreign language (EFL) classroom where pupils translated sentences as a way of approaching a new language, and skills such as the ability to listen to or speak English were disregarded. Much of the reason being the teachers' lack of English proficiency (Munden \& Sandhaug, 2017; Drew \& Sørheim, 2016; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Rindal, 2014). However, the methods and emphasis of the subject changed with the new curricula. Though the written abilities were assessed in the exams, with the M74 curriculum, the aims were for pupils to be able to understand and speak English. The instruction under this curriculum started in grade four (Drew \& Sørheim, 2016). The M87 revision brought drama, roleplay and games to the classroom as it emphasised communication. Mistakes were considered a part of learning and creativity was encouraged (Drew \& Sørheim, 2016). From the late 90s, varied input was considered important and there was an added focus for the pupils to learn and understand how to learn a new language (Munden \& Sandhaug, 2017; Drew \& Sørheim, 2016).

Though the focus was on written knowledge and oral activity was scarce in the Norwegian EFL classroom in the past, today's EFL classroom is quite different. As mentioned above, it is considered important to be able to communicate and make oneself understood in English as it is the number one world language (The Ministry of Education and Research, 2019, p. 2). In Norway, English is a lingua franca, i.e., the language used when communicating with people that do not share their first language (L1) (Munden \& Sandhaug, 2017). In other words, the pupils will at some point face having to use English outside of school, either through work or travel, or maybe just when they go to the supermarket.

Norway is ranked as the fifth best country in the world when it comes to English proficiency in the EF English Proficiency Index, with an average level that is slowly rising (EF Education First, 2021, pp. 6,19). In a study by Bonnet (2002), competencies within English reading, listening, oral and writing were examined amongst pupils in lower secondary school in eight European countries. Additionally, teachers and pupils were asked about their attitudes towards English. The Scandinavian countries, along with Finland, scored relatively high and Norway placed within the top two in all four competencies. Moreover, English scored high amongst Norwegian learners both regarding likability and importance, as illustrated in table 1 .

## Table 1

## Likeability and importance of English

|  |  | Likeability of English |  | Total | Importance of English |  | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | (rather) dislike | (rather) like | N (=100\%) | less or not important | very or rather important |  |
|  |  | \% | \% |  | \% | \% | $\mathrm{N}(=100 \%)$ |
| Country | Netherlands | 22.7 | 77.3 | 1447 | 18.2 | 81.8 | 1443 |
|  | France | 28.7 | 71.3 | 1111 | 16.7 | 83.3 | 1112 |
|  | Spain | 38.5 | 61.5 | 2788 | 14.6 | 85.4 | 2836 |
|  | Finland | 10.4 | 89.6 | 1594 | 7.3 | 92.7 | 1596 |
|  | Denmark | 9.8 | 90.2 | 1434 | 4.0 | 96.0 | 1457 |
|  | Sweden | 3.9 | 96.1 | 1379 | 2.0 | 98.0 | 1380 |
|  | Norway | 11.2 | 88.8 | 1309 | 8.4 | 91.6 | 1307 |
| Total |  | 20.1 | 79.9 | 11062 | 10.6 | 89.4 | 11131 |

Retrieved from "The assessment of pupils’ skills in eight European countries". Bonnet, 2002, The European network of policy makers for the evaluation of education of education systems, p. 90.

### 1.1.2 Language use in the EFL classroom

Reading the results from table 1 implies a connection between liking the language and believing it to be important and the level of achievement. In Norway those numbers are within the top tier. However, through practice teaching and work as a substitute teacher, I have found it challenging to get pupils to participate and communicate orally through the use of the TL, English. Moreover, through observations of English lessons, L1 use by both teachers and pupils has been prominent. As language exposure, opportunities for language production and communication are considered essential for the development of language proficiency (Krashen, 1982; Duff \& Polio, 1990; Chambers, 2007), the amount of L1 versus TL use should be carefully considered. However, in order to create methods and implement strategies that will encourage the pupils' use of the TL, I believe it necessary to uncover the reason behind the language choices and hesitation towards using English while in English foreign language (EFL) classes.

Although some teachers aim to use as much L2 as possible, some code-switching will occur. I once asked a teacher about her use of Norwegian in a given context during EFL teaching, and she answered that she did not even notice that she had switched to Norwegian. According to Merriam-Webster, code-switching is defined as "the switching from the linguistic system of one language to that of another" (Code-switching, n.d.). In today's multilingual world, the mix of languages or dialects often occurs in conversation, and likewise, within education and the Norwegian EFL classroom. Cook describes code-switching as "going from one language to the other in mid-speech when both speakers know the same two languages" (2008, p. 174). A description supported by McKay (2002) who refers to code-switching as "change of language or a language variety by a speaker or writer. Such shifts (...) can occur within a sentence or at a sentence boundary and can also occur when one speaker uses one language and the other uses another" (p. 131). Code-switching and the borrowing of words to convey meaning is viewed as a communication achievement strategy when learning a L2 (Simensen, 2007). Code-switching is common for both teachers and pupils to use both the pupils' L1 well as the target language (TL) during foreign language teaching (Levine, 2011).

### 1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to investigate pupils' perspectives on the language use in lower secondary Norwegian EFL teaching. The study aims to uncover what factors may influence the pupils' decision on what language they themselves use, as well as their thoughts on Norwegian
and its function in EFL teaching. Previous research on language use amongst EFL teachers and pupils suggests that a considerable amount of language production is in L1 during EFL lessons (Swain \& Lapkin, 2000; Brevik \& Rindal, 2020) and that teachers choice of language may have a say in the language produced by the pupils (Thompson \& Harrison, 2014; Horasan, 2014). Yet, other findings support a desire amongst pupils that the majority of the language during L2 lessons should be the TL (Mahmoudi \& Amirkhiz, 2011; Levine, 2003). However, the emphasis has often been on older students rather than pupils attending lower secondary, and Norwegian studies on the perspectives of pupils and their language use are scarce.

Thus, the focal point of this thesis will be on pupils attending lower secondary school in Norway, i.e., grades eight to ten and aged 13-16. Though there is an increasing number of pupils with other L1s than Norwegian in Norwegian schools, research indicates that Norwegian is used as the language of reference in Norwegian EFL teaching and L2 classrooms (Haukås, 2016; Askland, 2019). Consequently, the languages discussed will be Norwegian and English, with Norwegian being referred to as L1 and English as L2. The motivation behind the sample group is twofold. Firstly, research into this age group is as mentioned scarce, with only two studies considering pupils attending lower secondary school in Norway (Brevik \& Rindal, 2020; Dahl, 2019). Secondly, for English teachers in Norway it is important to know how to promote TL use during EFL teaching, and to do so, one needs to uncover the reason behind the language choices made by pupils in lower secondary school.

As previously mentioned, Norwegians are deemed fairly capable when it comes to English proficiency (Bonnet, 2002; EF Education First, 2021) and pupils are introduced to formal English instruction from year one with English being a compulsory subject all through primary and lower secondary school (The Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). Moreover, English is present in the Norwegian day to day life and young learners are exposed to English through audio and audio-visual media, e.g., television where most programmes and commercials are subtitled and not dubbed, as well as by using English as a lingua franca while travelling or speaking to native and non-native speakers of English, e.g., through gaming and social media (Rindal, 2015; Brevik \& Rindal, 2020). With exposure to English being common in Norway, it would be reasonable to assume that pupils in lower secondary schools should be able to conduct themselves through the use of TL in EFL classes.

The development and research over the last couple of years lean towards including strategic use of L1 in L2 teaching, finding it a resource rather than a hindrance (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2011; Cook, 2001; Hall \& Cook, 2012). However,
recommendations on when and how to use L1 in the Norwegian EFL classrooms are virtually non-existent. The English curriculum provides competence aims and core elements from the subject that require the need to include some L1 when teaching the subject, for instance, when pupils are to "explore and describe some linguistic similarities and differences between English and other languages the pupil is familiar with and use this in one's own language learning" (The Ministry of Education and Research, 2019, p. 9). Yet, the curriculum does not provide any information or recommendations regarding the ideal amount of L1 to be used in the EFL classroom, nor the purpose it should serve. Consequently, there are significant variations in practices amongst schools and teachers. With teachers not knowing when or how to implement L1 into the teaching of English, it is reasonable for the pupils to have different ideas and views on the role of Norwegian in EFL teaching. In sum, the purpose of this study is three-fold:

1) To reveal which factors may affect the pupils and their language choices during EFL lessons, both when partaking in oral communication aloud in class and when working in groups or with a partner.
2) To examine what purposes L1 should be allocated during EFL teaching, as perceived as natural or essential by the pupils in lower secondary EFL classes.
3) To assess the influence of language choices made by teachers or other peers. To what extent does the language produced by others have an impact on the language produced by each pupil.

### 1.3 Structure of the study

The thesis consists of six chapters. The current chapter introduces the English subject in Norway before providing some background information and the purpose of the study. Chapter two reviews relevant literature related to the topic under investigation, including approaches to language teaching and previous studies, culminating with the research questions (RQs) for the present study. The third chapter explains the methodology used to obtain data to analyse and answer the RQs, description of the sample and participants, as well as consideration of the validity and reliability of the project. Chapter four presents the results attained through the sampling before the findings are discussed in connection to the literature in chapter five. Finally, chapter six sums up the discussion with implications and possibilities for future research.

### 2.0 Literature review

Chapter two presents relevant literature, starting with theoretical approaches to foreign language teaching and how languages are best learned before considering factors that may influence language choices made by pupils in lower secondary school. Lastly, the section reviews some previous studies on code-switching in foreign language teaching that ties to the current study.

### 2.1 How languages are taught

With limited recommendations on language use in Norwegian EFL classes, each teacher has the opportunity to consider what works best for them and the class they teach. When considering approaches to foreign language teaching, the monolingual and bilingual approach are often discussed. One could discuss a third approach, the multilingual approach, but for this paper, the monolingual- and bilingual approach are more relevant and will be the ones up for discussion.

### 2.1.1 The monolingual approach

Advocates of the monolingual approach believe that the pupils learn better and faster if they immerse themselves in the TL, i.e., when learning English, one should teach through the means of English (Chambers, 2007; Duff \& Polio, 1990; Krashen, 1985; McColl \& Thomas, 2021). The instructors implementing the monolingual approach believe that one should listen to and speak in English as much as possible and that this will improve the learner's proficiency. Hall and Cook (2012) describe the origin of the so called Berlitz method where Berlitz, without realising it, hired a man who only spoke French to teach his French class. It turned out that the pupils enjoyed his lessons and that they were a success, proving that it is possible to learn a language through the use of the language, with only gestures, facial expressions and pictures for assistance.

Simensen (2007) believes that in the monolingual approach "the teaching itself, as well as the organization of work in the classroom, should take place in the target language" (p. 236). Brevik and Rindal (2020) find the more challenging aspect of "English only" in the Norwegian classrooms to be that most of the pupils speak Norwegian, making the use of English for genuine communicative purposes redundant. There seems to be some consensus, however, that if one is to use the monolingual approach the responsibility lies mainly on the teacher to maintain the use of English, as communicating in the TL does not come naturally to the pupils (Brevik \& Rindal, 2020; Chambers, 2007).

### 2.1.2 The bilingual approach

In the bilingual approach, TL is supplemented by the use of the language of schooling, which in Norway is usually Norwegian, and the pupils' L1 is considered a resource rather than a hindrance in language learning (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2011; Cook, 2001). In the context of language learning, the term code-switching is often used to explain how one goes from one language to another when communicating with someone with whom one shares more than one common language (Cook, 2008, p. 174). In the Norwegian EFL classroom, codeswitching can be observed by both teachers and pupils. It can be used strategically, for instance when the teacher introduces new vocabulary or when working with grammar, or as an aid by the pupils when they do not recall the words they are looking for. Cook (2003) argues that it is impossible to exclude L1 from L2 teaching completely, as "both languages are in the same mind" (p. 7).

Though some believe L1 does not hinder L2 acquisition, it is still beneficiary for the pupils to use the TL as much as possible (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2005). The teacher may, however, use L1 judiciously and provide room for it, reducing the guilt some pupils may have when they need to resort to it (Cook, 2001). Moreover, the knowledge and access to categories one already possesses in the brain through learning L1, can be used when learning a new language to draw associations or provide necessary scaffolding (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2011). Finally, as the way we think and act are influenced by an inner voice and private speech, and these are usually performed in L1, the idea of excluding L1 from L2 teaching all together may be impossible and ill advised (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999).

### 2.2 How languages are learned

Cook (2008) believes it crucial to find an effective way of acquiring a second language as learning a second language can impact careers, personal lives, identities and ultimately people's future. Cook is not alone in his view on the importance of language acquisition. Consequently, the theories on how languages are learned are many.

One of the supporters of maximizing pupils' exposure to the TL is Stephen Krashen (1982) who believes that as in L1, L2 is mostly acquired and not learned. In other words, it happens implicitly and without any conscious thought. For this to be possible, one needs to be exposed to as much of the TL as possible. Though some may argue that one needs to "live in the country" if one is to achieve proficiency in a L2, Krashen believes that there is potential for a natural learning environment also in the EFL classroom as one has hours available to provide
and contribute to comprehensible input. Additional argument for the use and encouragement of English in the EFL classroom, is that the amount of input directed at the pupils is affected by their own involvement and use of TL. In other words, the more they talk or inquire in English, the more input they will get back in English. Additionally, the speaker has the opportunity to adapt or modify the language to make the input comprehensible if one sees that the listener does not understand. Though Krashen believes that one should aspire to use as much TL as possible, he deems it necessary for the input to be comprehensible. Krashen's Input Hypothesis is explained with the formula $i+l$ where $i$ represents the pupils' current competence and $l$ is input just beyond their level, i.e., new knowledge is acquired when pupils understand language that is a little beyond what they already know. Moreover, the input hypothesis proposes that spoken fluency is acquired by listening and reading, supporting the need to use TL while teaching, as listening to the TL is an important element in language acquisition (Krashen, 1982). Consequently, Krashen's view on language acquisition argues extensive use of TL in the Norwegian EFL classroom as language is acquired when one is exposed to it.

As a response to the input hypothesis, Swain (2005) developed The Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. Contradictory to Krashen (1982) who believes L2 acquisition to happen unconsciously and through comprehensible input, Swain's comprehensible output hypothesis advocates that the learners need to realise that there is a gap in their linguistic knowledge of L2. Upon noticing the aforementioned gap, the learners may modify their output, thus learning something new about the language. According to Swain, the function of output is threefold. First, there is The Noticing/Triggering Function where the learners realise some of the linguistic problems while producing the TL, as they are not able to convey what they would like to say. Secondly, there is The Hypothesis Testing Function which claims that the learners use the output as a "trial run", as to see whether they have succeeded in their intent through the received feedback. Lastly, The Metalinguistic Function argues that one learns through reflection on language produced by oneself or by others. However, Swain does not credit all language learning to comprehensible output, but rather "sometimes, under some conditions, output facilitates second language learning in ways that are different from, or enhance, those of input" (Swain \& Lapkin, 1995, p. 371). Swain's noticing hypothesis supports the argument that the Norwegian EFL classroom should facilitate an environment for output, as one learns as one tries to convey a message, fails, but then tries again, and eventually one finds the correct form and the message is received and new knowledge is obtained.

Swain's (2005) metalinguistic function originates with Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. The Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP) was introduced by Vygotsky and is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Vygotsky observed interaction between the learner and a "more knowledgeable other" to be effective in developing new skills, where the less skilled pupil would learn through the aid of a more skilful peer or other within the ZPD. As with Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis, the ZPD represents knowledge that lies just beyond what the pupil already knows. When discussing Vygotsky's ZPD, the term scaffolding often occurs. The concept derives, however, from the work of Wood, Burner and Ross (1976) and refers to the help provided by an adult or more skilful peer, enabling the learner to solve the current problem but is now often connected and seen in relation to ZPD. Further, Vygotsky (1978) found collaboration essential in learning and believed language to be a necessary tool when scaffolding learning. The Norwegian EFL classroom supporting Vygotsky and sociocultural theory should promote learning through collaboration, where the pupils help and learn from one another.

Another approach to language learning is provided by DeKeyser $(1998,2015)$ who investigates L2 acquisition as skill learning and considers practice to be an important factor in learning language, much the same as in acquisition of any other skill. According to DeKeyser (2015), skill acquisition has three stages: First, one acquires knowledge about the skill through observation, or more commonly through verbal communication or a combination of the two. Next, one acts on the knowledge, turning declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, i.e., it goes from theoretical knowledge to practical knowledge that is ready to be used when needed. Lastly, one needs practice for the procedural knowledge to be displayed with fluency and spontaneity, and eventually becoming automated. Though not explicitly mentioned by DeKeyser, with the three stages of skill acquisition in mind, the exposure to, and production of, English during EFL teaching is vital to language acquisition through skill learning.

Regarding observation in language learning, Bandura's social learning theory on modelling behaviour might be worth considering. According to Bandura (1971), most of the displayed behaviour that is learned comes "deliberately or inadvertently, through the influence of example" (p. 5), in other words, by observing and imitating the behaviour of others. Learners watch behaviour and the consequences that follow, selecting and discarding models based on whether or not they are successful. Furthermore, Bandura believes that a good model, or
example, would considerably shorten the process of acquisition, making it an effective way of teaching. Still, learners need to add some thought preceding the imitations, and modelling is governed by four interrelated subprocesses; attentional processes (whether or not the behaviour is noteworthy), retention processes (how well it is remembered), motoric reproduction processes (ability to imitate the behaviour), and reinforcement and motivational processes (the will to perform the behaviour) (Bandura, 1971). As acquisition of new language skills happens, in Bandura's eyes, when pupils observe and listen to the language used within the school environment, the teacher should promote the use of TL in the Norwegian EFL classroom.

As presented in this section, the theories and hypotheses on how languages are learned and acquired are numerous, and no one is absolute. Moreover, with no formal recommendations on how, when or if one should include the learners' MT in the Norwegian EFL classroom, it is no wonder that there is confusion around the subject, and that the practices vary from school to school (Neokleous \& Ofte, 2020). In addition, all pupils learn differently, supporting the necessity of implementing more than one approach to language learning.

### 2.3 What influences pupils' language choices

### 2.3.1 Language learning theory

There is a limited number of studies on why or when pupils use L1 in L2 teaching, but there are theories that can shed some light on what may cause pupils to choose as they do in regard to language use. In accordance with Bandura's (1971) social learning theory and modelling, the language choices made by teachers, other pupils and peers have an effect on the choices made by the pupils as they learn through the influence of example. For instance, if a prominent member of the class replies in Norwegian, then it would be easier for others to follow his or her example and do the same, especially if this goes without notice or any form of reprimand by the teacher. Moreover, the learners also try and imitate the pronunciation and inflexions made by their peers or the more skilled other. By this view, all input, i.e., the language that the learner is exposed to, may influence the choices they make with their own output (Thompson \& Harrison, 2014).

Other factors that can influence the choice of language use can be explained by the use of Krashen's (1982) monitor hypothesis and affective filter hypothesis. The monitor hypothesis examines three conditions that must be met in order for the pupils to edit their produced language effectively; time, focus on form and know the rule. In other words, pupils need sufficient time to think as well as they need to think about what is correct, and lastly knowing
the grammar and rules of the language. Too much focus on monitoring can lead to monitor over-users, pupils that try to monitor everything with the result of communication being hesitant and without any real fluency. The affective filter on the other hand, considers motivation, selfconfidence and anxiety where pupils with high motivation and self-confidence as well as low anxiety generally perform better in second language acquisition. If the affective filter is up, acquiring language is not possible and they tend to seek less input. The role of the teacher is to make the input comprehensible at the same time as nurturing a low anxiety learning environment which again helps keeping the affective filter low. When pupils participate using TL, one has the opportunity to provide error correction, i.e., correcting mistakes as they are made, with the hope that the pupil changes and later remembers the correct form of the rule. However, one faces the risk of raising the affective filter by excessive corrections, making it difficult for the pupils to receive input (Krashen, 1982).

### 2.3.2 Motivation and language learning

Motivation is a factor that often features in discussions of pupils and how they learn, and several theorists and scholars have considered how motivation affects learning (Krashen, 1982; Volet \& Jarvela, 2001; Bandura, 1997; Ryan \& Deci, 2009). While motivation is believed to be vital to learning, there are various factors that affect pupils' motivation. One that is frequently mentioned is Bandura's concept of self-efficacy. He defines self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Meaning whether or not pupils believe that they have the capabilities needed to complete the assignment or challenges they are met with. Pupils set goals and act according to the outcomes they anticipate, and efficacy beliefs affect how motivated they are for the given task. Moreover, one's beliefs of own efficacy play a part in determining what challenges to undertake, the level of effort one puts into the work as well as how long to persist in the face of difficulties. This means that, one needs to foster pupils' beliefs of selfefficacy, which again motivates them to solve given assignments (Horverak, Aanensen, Langeland, Olsbu, \& Päplow, 2020). However, the pupils need help to build their sense of efficacy and find meaning in their pursuits as well as the ability to regulate their motivation. "The major goal of formal education should be to equip students with the intellectual tools, efficacy beliefs, and intrinsic interests needed to educate themselves in a variety of pursuits throughout their lifetime" (Bandura, 1997, p. 214). Research has indicated that, regardless of cognitive ability, self-efficacious pupils are more successful in solving problems, managing their time better, are more persistent as well as they do not disregard correct solutions as easily.

Motivation is often divided into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. The psychologists Ryan and Deci developed Self-Determination Theory, SDT, to help explain and differentiate between the two. While Bandura and other theorists often consider the amount of motivation, in SDT the emphasis is instead on what type of motivation the pupils have (Ryan \& Deci, 2009; Ryan \& Deci, 2017). Fundamental to the theory is that people want to improve themselves by mastering the challenges they face, and that this is driven by an internal motivation to gain knowledge and independence rather than through external rewards (Ryan \& Deci, 2017). Moreover, research into the field of SDT shows that actual rewards tend to decrease intrinsic motivation while positive feedback related to performances leads to increased intrinsic motivation (Ryan \& Deci, 2009). Related to school, research shows that external events such as rewards and deadlines, as well as pressure concerning grades and low self-esteem correlate with low intrinsic motivation and may lead to the pupils giving up when facing challenges. In contrast, choices are important in SDT, and this indicates that pupils that are provided with choices have higher intrinsic motivation. In other words, teachers should not try to control the effort the pupils put into their work as it affects their intrinsic motivation. One should, on the other hand, provide choices, support, and a learning environment where pupils can grow, explore and develop their interests as SDT suggests that they are intrinsically motivated to learn. To foster intrinsic motivation is important as studies imply that pupils learn better when intrinsically motivated. Research also indicates that intrinsic goals, e.g., personal growth, lead to a deeper learning and better performances than goals that are extrinsic, e.g., goals related to grades, image, etc. (Ryan \& Deci, 2009).

### 2.3.3 Anxiety and language learning

Another important factor to consider is anxiety, more specifically language anxiety, and how it may affect pupils' oral participation in class. First to discuss anxiety as specifically related to language learning were Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). They put anxiety related to language learning within specific anxiety reaction to differentiate from those who are anxious in various situations. In other words, language anxiety occurs within learnings situations, i.e., the classroom. Young (1992) interviewed four scholars of second language education, Krashen, Omaggio Hadley, Terrell and Rardin, on the topic of anxiety in language learning. One of the questions was regarding what skills they found anxiety to be most perceptible within young learners, and they all believed speaking to be the skill that made the most people nervous. In the interview, Krashen refers to club memberships as a way of explaining why some learners
may be more anxious than others. If the learner feels a part of the group, the affective filter is down and anxiety levels are low, and acquisition and participation are possible.

### 2.4 Previous studies

There are several studies exploring practices of L1 use in the L2 classroom at various ages and competence levels. The emphasis has often been on teachers, their reported use, and perspectives on language use rather than the learners (e.g., Guthrie, 1984; Duff \& Polio, 1990; Polio \& Duff, 1994; Crawford, 2004; Edstrom, 2006; Kang, 2008; De La Campa \& Nassaji, 2009; Song \& Andrews, 2009; Grim, 2010; Inbar-Lourie, 2010; Rabbidge \& Chappell, 2014), though some include L2 learners, either by reporting their use of L1 or by including their perspectives on teacher's use of L1 (e.g., Guo, 2007; Cai \& Cook, 2015; Thompson \& Harrison, 2014). Although research in line with the current study might be scarce, the following section will provide an overview of studies relevant to the research questions stated for this paper, starting with international studies before going into Norwegian research.

### 2.4.1 Initiated L1 use

Thompson and Harrison (2014) studied the frequency of and reason behind the language choices made by teachers and students studying Spanish at a university in southwestern United States. They observed that the teachers' code-switching initialized the use and caused a higher percentage of L1 use by the students, suggesting that the language choices made my teachers have a significant impact on the students. Additional data provided on the contexts and purposes for code-switching showed that code-switching was most commonly used for clarification, grammatical concepts or translation of words and expressions. Although the research revealed that most code-switching is initialized by the teachers, the amount of TL used by teachers surpassed the students' TL use. Moreover, the reported TL use was not greater with students with presumed higher proficiency level of L2, supporting notions of limiting exposure to L1 during L2 teaching.

Horasan (2014) investigated code-switching amongst students and teachers at a preparatory school of a public university. As with Thompson and Harrison, Horasan found that teacher-initiated code-switching was quite high. Moreover, the participants showed a predisposition to switch language for whole sentences rather than code-switch single words as it requires less effort. When asked about the reason behind their code-switching, the main explanation provided by the students was their limited vocabulary knowledge, though inclinations were made that it was also used for floor-holding, sense of humour and to make
learning easier as well. The students also considered code-switching to be a survival skill, i.e., a necessity allowing them to provide meaning without communication being hindered or halted all together. However, both teachers and students felt that the amount of code-switching should decrease as their proficiency in the TL increases.

### 2.4.2 L1 use and collaboration

In a study by Swain and Lapkin (2000), the objective was to investigate how students utilize L1 when working collaboratively on a meaningful task. The participants were part of French immersion classes at the grade 8 level in Canada. By observing the students complete a dictogloss task and jigsaws in pairs, three main purposes for the use of L1 were recognized; 1) to move the task along, 2) focusing attention and 3) interpersonal interaction (p. 257). Most frequent use of L1 occurred when the students tried moving the task along through task management, e.g., discussing how to solve the assignment. Vocabulary search under focusing attention, e.g., as an aid to focus on form, came up second. The need for L1 also occurred greater with lower-achieving students. Though Swain and Lapkin were surprised by the amount of L1 use, being more than anticipated with L1 being used approximately one quarter of the turns on average, what was interesting was that that only $12 \%$ of these were "off-task" (p. 261). As a result, Swain and Lapkin conclude that the use of L1 can be beneficial for development in foreign language classes.

Another study examining collaborative interactions during L2 learning was carried out by Antón and DiCamilla (1999). The study was executed by the use of audio recordings of three collaborative sessions with adult learners of Spanish at the beginner level. The audio was transcribed in order to study the nature of the collaborative process and strategies that were implemented. After the data analysis, three important functions of L1 were presented; 1) as construction of scaffolded help, i.e., cognitive functions, 2) establishment of intersubjectivity, i.e., social functions when establishing a shared perspective on the task and 3) the use of private speech (pp. 237-243). Antón and DiCamilla observed L1 being used to establish a collaborative atmosphere and as a tool enabling the completion of the tasks the students were given. Consequently, they argue a place for L1 in language learning as thoughts and language are bound together, making L1 an invaluable tool in language learning.

### 2.4.3 L2 learners' perceptions

Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz (2011) examined the perceptions and attitudes on L1 use from both teachers and students of L2 at a pre-university school in Iran. Through observations and interviews, the researchers revealed the quantity of and attitudes towards L1 use. The students
selected for the interviews were chosen based on mid-term tests, providing both high- and lowachieving students of English. Interestingly, the interviews disclosed that the students, regardless of English proficiency level, felt that L2 should be the language most prominent during L2 teaching, one of the reasons being a lack of L2 exposure and English lessons at school being their only source of input. As the students recognized English as an international language, the motivation for learning it was present, and an excessive use of Persian (L1) had a de-motivating effect on them, and they saw it as a missed opportunity to learn.

In a case study conducted by Rolin-Ianzity and Varshney (2008), the objective was to investigate the role of L1 in L2 teaching from the students' point of view. A questionnaire was given to 52 students in beginner classes of French with optimized TL use. The results indicated that; 1) the students found L1 useful in understanding grammar and vocabulary, e.g., to access words and provide meaning, 2) the students were divided when asked whether they preferred L1 or TL for framework interactions, though the majority preferred TL when given instructions, 3) the students found excessive L1 use to be a disadvantage as it reduced their TL exposure and hinder acquisition of spontaneous language and pronunciation and 4) if used judiciously, L1 usage can avoid misunderstanding, confusion and better communication as it makes students more confident when they have a safety line.

A questionnaire study by Levine (2003) examined anxiety in relation to TL use amongst university students. A questionnaire was distributed to first- and second year foreign language students and teachers, trying to uncover; 1) estimated quantity of TL used, 2) importance of TL use and 3 ) experienced anxiety caused by TL use. In regard to anxiety triggered by TL use, Levine's study revealed that teachers perceived higher anxiety levels amongst the students than they themselves reported, though the reported anxiety level were still rather high with approximately $40 \%$ feeling anxious (p. 352). However, a strong majority of the students and teachers agreed or strongly agreed that it is a "worthwhile challenge communicating in the foreign language" (p. 351).

Chavez (2003 ) was interested in the students' preferences for when L1 or L2 should be applied for specific purposes during foreign language teaching. It was a questionnaire study conducted at a University in the United States amongst students enrolled in the first, second and third year. Viewing the results of the survey, under desired and observed language use, teachers tend to use the TL more frequently than desired by the students, while students reported using more L1 than desired. When asked when L2 was preferable, the results show an increase in desirability in year 3 with a larger range of tasks and purposes, whereas year 1 wanted
predictable and bound language. L1 was favoured when addressing more pressing matters of language learning, e.g., evaluation and grammatical knowledge.

Through the Tarclindy Project, Macaro (1997) studied TL use amongst teachers and pupils attending year 8 and year 9 in the UK. In addition to data collected from teachers through observation, questionnaires and interviews, the study comprised of 196 pupil interviews as well as 271 pupil questionnaires in order to caption the pupils' attitudes and perspectives. The data revealed that the pupils were split into two groups in relation to L 2 use by the teachers. The first group did not get flustered with large quantities of L2 use by the teachers, believing that they were learning even though they did not understand every word from context and what they already knew, while the other group reacted negatively, convinced that learning could only take place if they understood all that was being said. Moreover, if the L2 use was too extensive, pupils reported that they would shut off and only try and appear to be listening or understanding. Furthermore, the more able pupils wanted all communication and massages to be carried out in L2 at least twice before resorting to L1, while other pupils would just wait for the massages to be given in L1. When asked about "readiness to speak" or answer questions in class, only a few pupils uttered that as unproblematic. The rest expressed hesitations related to peer pressure or self-esteem, e.g., embarrassing to get it wrong or afraid of looking like a teacher's pet. Collaboration in pairs or smaller groups was preferred as it made them confident and comfortable, with the teacher walking around providing feedback and support. One pupil stated that "Helping your partner helps you learn" (p.135). However, some admitted using L1 when working in groups or with a partner, and for some, collaboration proved difficult in regard to staying with the assignments they were given.

### 2.4.4 Norwegian studies

A few studies have been conducted in Norway regarding language practices in the EFL classroom (e.g., Drew, Oostdam, \& Toorenburg, 2007; Mehl, 2014; Kjøstvedt, 2020; Brevik \& Rindal, 2020; Neokleous \& Ofte, 2020) and what is perceived to be the most effective ways of learning English (e.g., Dahl \& Vulchanova, 2014; Dahl, 2019; Tjetland, 2021). Studies at lower secondary school level have been carried out by Dahl (2019), Kjøstvedt (2020) and Brevik and Rindal (2020). However, Kjøstvedt (2020) reported practices of code-switching solely amongst teachers making it redundant for this study. Brevik and Rindal (2020) included both pupils' and teachers' use of L1 and the functions in which it was used. Through their research, they found that Norwegian was most frequently used for scaffolding purposes ( $40 \%$ ) whereas the reported L1 use in metalinguistic explanation, task instruction and practical information all came up
around $15 \%$. Albeit the study does not differentiate between teachers' and pupils' use of Norwegian, nor does it offer any reflection or perceptions on the use of code-switching.

Dahl (2019) investigated teachers' and pupils' perceptions on development of English oral skills, both in and outside the classroom. To gain the pupils' perspectives, a questionnaire was distributed amongst 96 pupils attending $9^{\text {th }}$ grade. The results show, amongst other, that the pupils believed their oral proficiency level to be quite high with an average of 6,79 out of 10. The scores were also high in regard to motivation in learning English, importance of learning English, and whether or not they felt comfortable speaking English aloud in class with a vast majority replying "often" closely followed by "sometimes" and "always" coming up third. The classroom activities the pupils believed were the most effective in improving their oral skills were group projects and receiving feedback from the teacher. Yet, they believed most of the improvement and learning came from extramural activities, e.g., gaming, watching movies and TV series.

Tjetland (2021) explored pupils' perspectives on practicing English oral skills, though at the upper secondary school level. To obtain the necessary information, Tjetland distributed a questionnaire focusing on the pupils' experiences and perceptions of oral English in the EFL classroom. The pupils participating disclosed that they believed oral skills to be the most important skill in the English subject as well as the skill they enjoyed practicing the most. Further, they believed the most effective way to improve their oral proficiency was through communication and interaction with other pupils. In order to communicate comfortably and without anxiety, the pupils believed that a supportive learning environment is important. Moreover, they considered conversation to be a natural and realistic way of practice the language, as they will probably need to do so in the future. Listening was another important aspect in improving their oral skills, e.g., through watching movies or TV series. Pupils believed this would help increase vocabulary, learn pronunciation, and listen to how the language is used in a natural setting. However, when asked about whether they feel anxious when speaking English or not, the answers vary, though the majority revealed anxiety either "sometimes", "often" or "very often" (Tjetland, 2021, p. 64).

Mehl (2014) included interviews with pupils attending first year of upper secondary in her study to help understand their attitudes on the use of code-switching in the EFL classroom. Overall, the interviews revealed that whether the pupils found it difficult to answer in English and participate in class or not depended on the class dynamic and whether they were comfortable with their pronunciation. They were expected to answer questions in English,
except when the answers required more complex language. In relation to the teachers and codeswitching, the pupils found that the teachers switched to L1 when they suspected that the pupils had not understood or if they had to emphasise the importance of a message. However, the pupils conclude that the majority of language spoken during EFL lessons, e.g., when going through homework or revising material, should be conducted with the use of the TL.

### 2.5 The present study and research question

As stated in the first chapter, the objective for this study is to investigate the pupils' perspectives on language choices and practices in lower secondary Norwegian EFL teaching. To date there has been no attempt on trying to uncover frequency and the reason behind the language choices made by pupils in lower secondary school in Norway. However, previous research and literature on the subject, as presented in the present chapter, suggests a number of factors that may influence the choices made in the EFL classroom and will be used throughout the study. To help investigate and answer the objective, these research questions (RQs) have been written:

RQ1: Which factors influence the choice of language amongst pupils in Norwegian lower secondary school during EFL lessons?

RQ2: When, if at all, do pupils in lower secondary school find it necessary or natural for teachers to include Norwegian when teaching English?

RQ3: Are pupils more prone to speak L1 during L2 teaching if the teacher or other peers use L 1 during the lesson?
To address the research questions, the chosen methodology for this study was a mixed method approach. For the quantitative portion of the research there was an online survey conducted amongst pupils in lower secondary school, whereas in-dept interviews with pupils in the $10^{\text {th }}$ grade were implemented for the qualitative section. The following chapter will outline the chosen methodology and how the study was conducted.

### 3.0 Methodology

The following chapter provides information on the research methodology for the present study. First, there will be a short explanation of the chosen research method, mixed method research, before the sample of the study is described. Then information about the piloting and the gathering of data is given before the delimitations of the study are considered. Lastly, the chapter reflects on the reliability, validity and ethical considerations of the project.

### 3.1 Mixed method research

In this study, a mixed research method has been employed. With quantitative research, one has the opportunity to determine patterns within the chosen demography, e.g., pupils, if a large enough number participate in the study, making the data representable, whereas qualitative research grants the researcher access to the contributors' minds and the reasons behind their choices (Mallette, Duke, \& Parsons, 2021). When one combines the two, one gets a mixed research approach. As the objective is to gather information on when and how the pupils apply L1 during L2 teaching, as well as understand the reasons behind the choices they make, to solely rely on either quantitative or qualitative research would not suffice, i.e., both survey research and semistructured interviews were implemented. As stated by Dörnyei (2007) "The strengths of one method can be utilized to overcome the weakness of another method" (p. 45).

Survey research aims to describe the characteristics of a group through gathering information from a sample of the intended group (Mallette, Duke, \& Parsons, 2021, p. 367). It involves a methodical way of collecting data, e.g., questionnaires, to produce statistics from a large number of participants. If the questions are created carefully and with the research questions in mind, the survey may offer a lot of information about pupils' perspectives on the language choices made in the EFL classroom. Survey research is, among other things, low cost and time effective (Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018; Mallette, Duke, \& Parsons, 2021; Dörnyei \& Taguchi, 2010). However, as the questions are closed and the participants are anonymous, it does not allow for additional gathering of data from the participants if any questions arise while analysing the results. Moreover, one may encounter another issue with the results not being representative if there is a lack of response in answering the survey (Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018).

Whereas survey research is a quantitative data collecting method, semistructured interviews are a qualitative research method, with the objective to sort and make the gathered information understandable (Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018). With the approach providing in-
depth data, one tries to discern patterns and recognize what lies behind the choices made by the participants through careful analysis (Mallette, Duke, \& Parsons, 2021). Since the interviews are semistructured, there is no set order for the questions to appear. However, one needs to have some questions prepared, either to aid the conversation along if needed or to make sure one gets the information required in order to answer the RQs (Dörnyei, 2007; Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018). Contrary to online surveys, semistructured interviews allow the researcher to ask additional questions if anything is unclear or if one would like the interviewee to elaborate on something one has found interesting (Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018). However, the methodology is time consuming, and one does not have the opportunity to collect information from as many participants as through, e.g., online surveys. Moreover, with the intended demography being pupils attending lower secondary school, another challenge could be to find participants and for them to answer the questions truthfully and without hesitation.

As qualitative or quantitative both have weakness when applied alone, the method I decided on was a mixed method research approach, allowing for a combination of the two as they complement each other.

### 3.2 Sampling

For the present study, a nonprobability sampling technique was used, i.e., convenience sampling. Wagner (2015) describes convenience sampling as analysing individuals who are "readily available and who the researcher has access to" (p. 86). Initially, for the quantitative part of the study, the aim was to use probability sampling techniques, allowing for the results to be generalized to a larger population. However, due to a lack of response from teachers at lower secondary school through random sampling, it proved necessary to target teachers and schools with whom the researcher already had contact. Though the results cannot be used to describe or generalize to a larger population, the participants attend different schools and the results from the convenience sampling may therefore be both valuable and interesting.

For the online survey the aim was to recruit a minimum of 100 participants. To be eligible for the study, the participants needed to be attending lower secondary school (grades 8, 9 and 10) and to be learners of English. In trying to find participants, teachers were targeted through a mixed sampling strategy of convenience sampling methods (online advertising and e-mails). First, an inquiry was advertised in two Facebook groups: (1) Undervisningsopplegg ungdomstrinn ["Teaching resources for lower secondary"] and (2) Engelsklarere [English teachers]. These are platforms where teachers can share experiences, volunteer teaching
resources or request people to share teaching methods and strategies they have found successful. One can also discuss matters related to different subjects and topics if one needs more input or would like another point of view. Together, the two groups are just shy of 30,000 members. Along with information about the study, a survey link and a QR code was distributed within the groups in an effort to find teachers willing to conduct the questionnaire with their pupils. Out of almost 30,000 members, only one teacher reported back that she had taken the survey with her class.

With the response being minimal through online advertising, a second method was implemented, and previous practise teaching teachers and schools were targeted through e-mail. The e-mail contained information about the project as well as the link and QR code for the survey, and the response was significantly higher when the teachers were contacted through email. After including this second approach to gather participants, the survey was completed by a total of 156 pupils from five different schools.

For the interviews, teachers listed as contact teachers in $10^{\text {th }}$ grade at a local lower secondary school were contacted, again through e-mail. Though the questionnaire was conducted amongst all grades in lower secondary school, allowing only pupils attending $10^{\text {th }}$ grade to participate in the interviews made it possible for them to consent themselves and to avoid the process of pupils having to get consent from their parents to participate. The e-mail contained an informative letter describing the study to be distributed amongst the pupils, contact information if there were any questions as well as a plea for them to ask their pupils to attend an interview during school hours. The teachers responded positively and a total of 18 pupils from three $10^{\text {th }}$ grade classes signed up to do the interviews. However, due to conditions surrounding Covid-19, the final number became 15 . The methods chosen to find participants, online advertising and e-mails, can be described as snowballing as the targeted audience were pupils and not teachers. The teachers were used to better access the targeted participants (Oppenheim, 1992; Creswell, 2014).

### 3.3 Piloting

Before one carries out a new project, it is important to pilot the research instruments and procedures (Dörnyei, 2007). After having written the questionnaire, fellow master students were asked to read through the questions, correcting any errors and providing constructive feedback on how to improve the questions. Subsequently, I conducted a test of the questionnaire with two pupils attending the $8^{\text {th }}$ and the $10^{\text {th }}$ grade in lower secondary school. Except from
noticing that it was not possible to hand in the questionnaire without answering the open ended questions, the testers had no problems with the survey. To avoid further misunderstanding with participants completing the survey, the question text for the open ended questions were changed, allowing pupils to type an " X " if they had no relevant information to add.

The same two pupils were used to give feedback on the interview guide through a test interview. When interviewing them, I decided to add more questions to the guide to build on the information provided. The trial run ensured that all questions were understandable and offered necessary information to answer the RQs set for the present study.

### 3.4 Gathering the data

### 3.4.1 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was constructed with the present study in mind. According to Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010), designing a questionnaire involves a series of steps and procedures one needs to implement to be successful. First, the general features of the survey such as length, layout and sensitive topics must be discussed. As the target group consists of pupils attending school, the questionnaire could not be too long as it would result in it being too much of an imposition to conduct for the teachers and the pupils would tire from answering. The study and RQs do not necessitate asking for sensitive information, making this a non-issue. Moreover, SurveyXact offers complete anonymity for the participants. Secondly, a first draft of the questionnaire was created and piloted as explained above.

The final questionnaire was carried out amongst 170 pupils attending five different lower seconary schools. However, 14 pupils only partially completed the survey and were deleted from the end results, resulting in 156 completed responses. The questionnaire sought to examine two of the three types of data explained by Dörnyei and Taguachi (2010), i.e., behavioral and attitudial questions. For instance, the questions asked the pupils to clarify when they themselves opt for Norwegian during EFL lessons, as well as the teachers' use of L1 and the pupils' perspectives on how and when L1 should be used.

The survey was written in Norwegian and comprised of 12 questionnaire items, two open-ended and ten closed-ended questions (Appendix 1). Most consisted of multiple choice ranging from never to always, whilst others allowed for more than one answer. It took about ten minutes to complete. SurveyXact was used to create, distribute and analyze the questionnaire.

### 3.4.2 Pupil Interviews

For the qualitative part of the present study, 15 pupils from three different $10^{\text {th }}$ grade classes were interviewed to explore their perspectives and beliefs of L1 use in EFL teaching. Originally, 18 pupils agreed to be interviewed, but due to Covid-19, seven pupils were not present on the days set aside for the interviews. However, four more pupils volunteered after a short introduction of the study, resulting in 15 pupils in total.

After consulting the teachers of the pupils, the decision fell on focus group interviews, one argument being time. The interviews took approximately 40 minutes and there was a limited number of lessons set aside for the interviews, i.e., there would not have been sufficient time to conduct the interviews properly with all 15 pupils one-on-one. Secondly, the pupils were not familiar with the researcher, making them somewhat timid when faced with doing the interviews one-on-one. With focus group interviews, one collects data through interviews with more than one interviewee at a time, which may be sensible if the participants are cooperative, time is limited, or the participants are hesitant in answering (Creswell, 2014, p. 240).

Before conducting the interviews, a detailed interview guide was written, ensuring the gathering of necessary and relevant information for the study. The questions were divided into four main categories; 1) the pupils' attitudes towards English, 2) the pupils' oral participation in class, 3) the teachers' use of L1 and 4) the teachers' use of L2 (Appendix 2). Within each category, relevant questions were incorporated. However, as this was a semistructured interview, more questions were added as the interview went along and answers needed clarification or to build further on some interesting statement made by the pupils.

Taking notes while conducting a focus group interview can be challenging as there is a lot happening at once (Dörnyei, 2007; Creswell, 2014). Therefore, to avoid missing out on any relevant information, the interviews were recorded and later transcribed for further analysis. Though time consuming, recording the interviews allows for the interviewer to be present and observe the interviewees, as well as it reduces the chances of the data being misinterpreted or forgotten (Creswell, 2014). As with the questionnaire, the interviews were conducted in Norwegian.

### 3.5 Data analysis

### 3.5.1 Analysing the pupil questionnaire

For analysing the collected data, different analysing procedures were introduced to help interpret the quantitative and qualitative data. Specifically, the data obtained through the pupil
questionnaire were analysed in SurveyXact. SurveyXact automatically creates tables and figures based on the answers, and provides intel on percentages, averages and so on, making it easier to analyse and read the gathered data. It also allows for the researcher to select variables, e.g., answers made by pupils who enjoy the English subject, and see what they have answered on the remaining questions. To avoid errors or missing data, the collected data was first cleaned, i.e., answers that were not completed were deleted (Creswell, 2014).

### 3.5.2 Analysing the pupil interviews

For the qualitative data acquired through the interviews, the qualitative process of data analysis described by Creswell (2014) was implemented. Firstly, the data were collected through interviews before being transcribed from audio recordings into a document with the aid of NVivo. Then the data were read through, creating a general sense of the material prior to coding the information. The data were then divided into text used for descriptions and text used for themes in the research report. As this method of analysis is primarily done with words, Dörnyei (2007) refers to the procedure as language-based analysis.

### 3.6 Delimitations

The present study only allowed for a rather small-scale investigation on the topic of L1 in the Norwegian EFL classroom. If possible, it would have been preferable with a larger scope of participants for the study to be representative (Dörnyei \& Taguchi, 2010). Moreover, observation of English lessons and teacher interviews could have been beneficial in order to create a holistic picture of L1 use in the Norwegian EFL classroom. However, due to time limitations set to conduct the study, and the present climate with Covid-19, certain restraints had to be accepted and the study carried out with the chosen methodological approaches for gathering material.

For the present study, 156 pupils conducted and completed the pupil questionnaire, and 15 pupils were interviewed through focus group interviews. Only pupils attending lower secondary in southern Norway participated in the study. Thus, the findings and results generalized through the data collected may perhaps not be generalized to a larger population of pupils in Norwegian lower secondary schools.

### 3.7 Reliability

In research, reliability is considered a synonym for "dependability, consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents" (Cohen, Manion, \& Morrison, 2011, p. 199). Moreover, Cohen et al. (2011) stress the need for accuracy and precision as one
should be able to yield corresponding results in a similar context later with a comparable group of informants. This corresponds with Dörnyei who argues that "reliability requires that the same results would be obtained if the study was replicated (2007, s. 57). Yet, with new researchers conducting the research at a later time, both the field of research and the people participating will appear different as they are constantly evolving, making a replication of a qualitative study challenging if one hopes to obtain the same results (Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018). However, as long as one considers how one could have affected the results and makes the research process transparent to others, one could argue for reliability of the study. With the aim of the study being to contribute with research within the topic of oral English communication, to make the study reliable, it was vital to implement quality instruments to gather material and produce analysis throughout the research project (Zohrabi, 2013). Bearing this in mind, the questionnaire and interview guide were created to best ask questions to answer the RQs set for the present study.

As a way of ensuring honest and valid answers, the participants did not get to see the questions before participating in the data collection. They did, however, receive a brief summary on the topic for the study, thus provided them with a general idea of what the questionnaire or the interview was about. With questionnaires, the researcher and the participants are not physically near one another, making the design of the questions and answers essential (Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018). As the pupils did not get to confer with the researcher, the questions and answers of the questionnaire needed to be understandable, as well as not being too long, making them lose concentration and becoming unmotivated to complete the survey. Through the interview guide, the researcher made sure that all the participants were, to some extent, asked the same questions. However, no interviews were the same as they were semistructured and allowing for follow up questions, making it improbable for another researcher to gather the exact same information or material.

An obstacle to overcome when conducting research, and in relation to reliability, is bias. Personal believes, attitudes and prejudice could cloud and affect how one conducts and reads the material. One should therefore strive to avoid misunderstanding and be careful in handling the material to avoid leading questions or looking for specific answers (Cohen et al., 2011). For the current study, the researcher implemented a questionnaire comprised of closed questions and answers that was thoroughly tested before being distributed. The interview guide was tested through a test interview and all interviews were recorded before being transcribed, making sure that all information was written down word for word for further analysis. As mentioned, the
participants were given a short introduction to the study, which again may result in social desirability bias, i.e., the participants would like to satisfy the researcher by answering to meet the perceived desire and expectations of the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 54). However, all pupils participating in the gathering of material were made aware about the importance of answering as candidly and honestly as possible, either at the beginning of the questionnaire or at the beginning of the interviews. Moreover, the interviews were conducted in Norwegian to ensure that the pupils could express themselves more easily.

### 3.8 Validity

Validity is, as stated by Cohen et al. (2011), one of the most important keys to effective research. When contemplating validity, one considers "the extent to which the data collection procedure measures what it intends to measure" (Seliger \& Shohamy, 1989, p. 188). According to Dörnyei (2007), justification of the chosen approaches determines the validity of mixed methods research, i.e., choosing an appropriate research design is vital before conducting the study. For the present study, a mixed method research approach of both quantitative and qualitative means of data collection was selected, as it suited the purpose and allowed for answering the RQs and the chosen topic.

As emphasised by Cohen et al. (2011), the questions used for both the questionnaire and the interview guide need to gather essential material to answer the RQs, i.e., one needs to ask questions relevant to the study. When designing and creating the questionnaire and the interview guide, the researcher had the RQs at hand, as well as conferring with the project's supervisor and other master students.

If the sample is sufficiently large to make it representative, the validity of the study is strengthened. For the present study, however, a nonprobability sampling technique was implemented, which is less generalizable for the larger population than if participants were randomly drawn (Cohen et al., 2011). The representativeness was not satisfactory as the five schools participating in completing the questionnaire all were from Southern Norway. The same can be said of the pupils partaking in the interviews. The 15 pupils were all from the same school, although different from the ones taking the questionnaire, resulting in a total of six schools participating in the study. As mentioned, because of the present situation and time frame, it was difficult to acquire more participants for the study. However, the total of 156 responses to the questionnaire, and a fairly equal division of the genders, provides some validity to the gathered material.

With the interviews being conducted in groups, there are some disadvantages regarding validity. A challenge may arise if one member dominates the interview, making it difficult for others to contribute (Cohen et al., 2011). The researcher tried to avoid this by asking some questions directly to the different pupils as well as encouraging them to reach out if they had any information to add to what was being said during the interview. Before conducting the interviews, the pupils' teacher was consulted, making sure that the group dynamic would be beneficial for all the group interviews, and no one would refrain from opening up in front of the other participants.

Though the researcher has sought to provide reliable and valid material on the topic of oral English communication, only pupils have been used as informants for the study. Moreover, only two means of data collection have been implemented. If there had been sufficient time and resources, one could have sought for triangulation as the research method with teacher interviews and classroom observations, as it is considered the most reliable and ideal way of gathering research material (Postholm \& Jacobsen, 2018). However, including too many sources, data collection methods and research designs is not recommended when working alone.

Transferability relates to validity and considers whether the results can be generalized to the wider population (Cohen et al., 2011). With the present study being a mixed method study, including a qualitative part difficult to replicate and produce the same data, as well as a quantitative part with a smaller and geographically restricted nonprobability sampling have been used, the transferability of the present study is rather limited.

### 3.9 Ethical considerations

An ethical principle in research is that the responsibility of the researcher lies firstly with the participants of the project, then the study and lastly with the researcher him or herself (Fontana \& Frey, 2000). One should in other words, always seek to protect the participants of the study, even if faced with a dilemma where it would prove better for the study to act otherwise. With the present study, information has been collected through questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaire was anonymous, and the ethical considerations are therefore deemed a non-issue. However, when conducting interviews, sensitive and personal information may come up, making it crucial to contemplate on the information collected and maintain anonymity for the involved parties.

Moreover, before any data was collected, the researcher needed approval from The Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD), to be allowed to conduct the study. As no personal information was needed from the pupils completing the questionnaire, the researcher only had to apply for the qualitative part of the study, concerning interviews with pupils. NSD emphasised that the pupils had to be provided with necessary information about the study to make them aware of what they were partaking in, that the researcher needed their consent before interviewing them, and that the participants anonymity and confidentiality of the data would be prioritized throughout the study. Approval was gained after NSD received the interview guide and information letter with additional consent form intended for the pupils (Appendix 2 and 3).

### 4.0 Results

The present chapter presents the results from the data collected through the qualitative and quantitative methods described in the previous chapter. Firstly, the results from the questionnaire will be presented, followed by a presentation of the information gathered through the pupil interviews.

### 4.1 Quantitative findings

The quantitative findings are the results of the pupil questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised a total of 12 questions. The majority were closed-ended questions with a limited option of answers and with various rating scales, whereas two questions were open-ended, allowing pupils to write and add information in relation to a previously asked question. The objective of the questionnaire was to gather information on Norwegian pupils' perception on the necessity of Norwegian during EFL lessons, as well as when Norwegian is used in EFL lessons.

### 4.1.1 Pupil questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed and completed by 156 pupils from five different lower secondary schools. The questionnaire was written in Norwegian as the aim was not to test the English skills of the participants, but rather having them understand and answer as correctly as possible. It has, however, been translated to the best of the researcher's abilities for the present chapter.

The first four questions targeted background information such as pupils' gender, grade, whether they enjoyed the English subject and whether they considered it important. The division of gender was fairly evenly distributed with 49 percent male, 46 percent female and 4 percent choosing "other gender identity". Of the 156 participants, 40 percent attended the $8{ }^{\text {th }}$ grade, 33 percent in the $9^{\text {th }}$ grade and 28 percent attended the $10^{\text {th }}$ grade.

## Figure 1

Q3: Do you enjoy the English subject?


Figure 1 provides answers to the question on whether the pupils enjoy the English subject or not. It does not appear to be the favourite subject of many pupils as neutral is the most frequent answer. However, only 18 percent answered that they only liked it to a small extent or not at all.

## Figure 2

Q4: Importance of the English subject


Question four comprised of two sub-questions on the importance of English. As one can see, with 87 percent, a vast majority of pupils find it fairly or very important to learn English, while 66 percent find the English subject in school either fairly or very important for their English learning.

The following question introduced the topic of Norwegian use in English teaching, offering some information on frequency of and perceptions on Norwegian use during EFL lessons.

Figure 3
Q5: Norwegian during English lessons


Question five, as depicted in figure 3 above, included four sub-questions. From the responses it is clear that the use of L1 is common from both pupils and teachers, with pupils' use reported from often to always by 75 percent of the pupils, and teachers perceived use to be just lower with 71 percent. Additionally, the overall perception is that there is a need for Norwegian during English lessons with 42 percent of the pupils stating that it is often necessary, 12 percent saying very often and 10 percent always. The final question on whether the teacher corrects the pupils' use of Norwegian or remind them to speak English provided more of a mix in answers and seemed relatively evenly divided on the rating scale with 56 percent stating that they are often, very often or always corrected on, whereas the last 44 percent answered rarely, very rarely or never.

The subsequent three questions concerned pupils' use of Norwegian during English lessons, including the frequency and the reasons behind their language choices.

## Figure 4

Q6: Why do you use Norwegian during English lessons? You can select several options.


On answering the question on why pupils resort to Norwegian during EFL lessons, the respondents could choose to select more than one reason. The most frequent replies were that it is simply easier with 65 percent, that pupils are not comfortable with their English pronunciation with 43 percent, and because others use Norwegian with 38 percent.

Figure 5
Q7: In which contexts do you use Norwegian during English lessons?


Question seven offered seven sub-questions, all on the context on when Norwegian is being used during EFL lessons. If one divides the scale between rarely and often, one can range the contexts in which Norwegian is being used from the most frequent to the least frequent one thus: 1) when talking with a partner or with a group about something not related to the subject, 2) working with a partner or group on an assignment, 3) asking the teacher questions about an assignment, 4) asking the teacher questions not related to the subject, 5) when forgetting the right words in English, 6) when talking one on one with the teacher, and 7) answering questions aloud in class. It is interesting to compare that 81 percent answered often or more on Norwegian use in pair or groupwork, whereas the number was only 44 percent when answering aloud in class.

Question eight was an open-ended question where the pupils were asked to write down other circumstances or contexts in which they would opt for Norwegian instead of English during lessons. Most pupils reply that their Norwegian use was well covered in question seven and that they did not believe there to be other contexts in which they would resort to L1, though some add to the list. For instance, several pupils state that they use Norwegian for all communication unless explicitly being told to use English. Others argue the influence of others and that they use L1 because classmates or the teacher uses Norwegian. A few explain their

Norwegian use as a consequence of not being good enough in English. Lastly, though it does not provide additional situations in which Norwegian is being used, some pupils used the opportunity to explain that Norwegian is being used simply because it is the more natural language choice and that it feels strange to communicate in English, even during EFL lessons.

The last four questions focused on the teachers' use of Norwegian with questions concerning when L1 is used by the teacher, when pupils perceive it natural or necessary for Norwegian to be used, and whether they feel influenced by the language choices made by the teachers.

Figure 6
Q9: When does your teacher use Norwegian during English lessons?


Question nine, as illustrated in figure six, offers seven sub-questions on teachers' use of Norwegian. Norwegian is most frequently used, as perceived by the pupils, when the teacher provides information not related to the English subject, whereas it is least frequently used when the teachers greet the pupils at the beginning and at the end of class. However, in nearly all contexts or situations, more than 60 percent of the pupils perceive that their teachers use L1 often, depicting a Norwegian EFL classroom highly influenced by Norwegian.

Question ten was the second and last open-ended question. The pupils were asked to add to the situations or contexts in which the teachers use Norwegian during English lessons. As with question eight, the pupils mostly believed the subject covered by the previous question. However, some statements are worth mentioning. Firstly, several pupils state that both languages seem to be equal, i.e., the teacher says the information in English first, before repeating in Norwegian afterwards. Secondly, pupils believe their teachers code-switch when observing that pupils struggle or get lost in what is being said, i.e., to make sure they all understand. Thirdly, the theme or topic up for discussion are suggested by others to affect the language choices, i.e., the tougher or more serious topics make the teacher opt for Norwegian. Lastly, there were pupils stating that the language of choice seems to be Norwegian, also regarding the teacher.

## Figure 7

Q11: When do you think it is necessary / natural for Norwegian to be used during English lessons?


When asked when it is natural or necessary for Norwegian to be used during English lessons, 74 percent replied "When the teacher gives us information not related to the English subject", closely followed by assignments being explained, introduction to new vocabulary and working in pairs or groups which all surpass 50 percent of the respondents. On the other side of the scale we find greeting pupils at the beginning and at the end of class with 25 percent.

Figure 8
Q12: If your teacher speaks Norwegian during English lessons, does this mean that you speak more Norwegian as well?


Question 12 was the final question and asked the pupils whether the teacher speaking Norwegian influenced their own language choices in the classroom. 48 percent responded that it is easier to speak Norwegian if the teacher does and that the class would usually follow the teacher's example, whereas 30 percent had not noticed or reflected on whether or not it had any effect on their own language choices. Sixteen admitted to using Norwegian regardless of the teacher and six percent claimed not to use Norwegian even if the teacher does.

### 4.2 Qualitative findings

The qualitative findings were gathered through interviews conducted with pupils attending their last year of lower secondary school, i.e., $10^{\text {th }}$ graders. The interviews were semistructured, allowing for the pupils to talk about what they deemed important and the researcher to ask follow-up questions. However, the researcher had written an interview guide to ensure that essential information was gathered. The objective of the interviews was to collect information on the reason behind the language choices made by pupils during EFL lessons.

### 4.2.1 Pupil interviews

A total of 15 pupils from three different $10^{\text {th }}$ grade classes were interviewed. Two of the $10^{\text {th }}$ grade classes presently share the same English instructor, while the third has a different one. After consulting the teachers, the interviews were conducted in groups. The pupils had received information about the study in advance and signed a consent form. Additional information and consent forms were distributed to the pupils' teachers as the pupils were asked questions about the teachers and their language use (Appendix 4). As with the questionnaire, the interviews
were conducted in Norwegian and later transcribed and translated to the best of the researcher's abilities for the presentation of the results.

### 4.2.1.1 Pupils' attitudes towards English

Of the 15 pupils that were interviewed, only three pupils thought of English as one of their favourite subjects, while the rest stated that they did not mind the subject. However, all interviewees did, to some extent, consider it important to learn English in relation to future jobs, vacations or simply when communicating with friends or family. Consequently, the English subject was perceived to be an important subject in school.

All the pupils reported using English outside of school, for various purposes. They all believed, however, that they met English outside of school every day. Two pupils had family in The United States that they visited somewhat regularly, while others had family or friends living abroad in other countries and used English as a lingua franca. The most frequent use of English concerned social media and other channels on the internet, e.g., newspapers or online books.

Pupil 1, third interview: Almost everything I read and write [communication] on the internet is in English because I talk with people from all over the world. Then it is very good to have a common language [English] that we all speak.

When confronted with questions about what they liked or disliked about the subject, there seemed to be some consensus amongst the pupils in both regards. The topics they were taught were of interest, at least for the past year or so, as they believed them highly relevant. This was a key component for success according to the pupils, as they were more focused when being thought topics that they could relate to and find a reason behind learning them. Grammar teaching, or others topic related to focus on form, were, however, highly unpopular amongst the pupils.

The pupils were asked whether they had any thoughts on how they acquired new knowledge best, or what activities they found most motivating in learning English. Reading and group projects were mentioned by several pupils, although audio-visual aids, e.g., movies and TV series, were repeated in all three interviews and perceived both interesting and educational in learning English by all interviewees, either as a tool in improving pronunciation and accuracy, or simply as a way of increasing vocabulary.

Pupil 4, third interview: It [movies] helps improve our pronunciation and if you want to acquire bigger words you can get them. I mean, if you want better words to use, like binding-words or to learn other words that provide the same meaning.

However, somewhat surprisingly, presentations were presented as a beneficial method of language learning by several of the pupils. Even by pupils not comfortable with the methodology of presenting in front of a class.

Pupil 2, third interview: Though I feel very stressed when we present in front of the class, and I am afraid of saying something wrong and that may affect my grade, I like it better than oral activities in class because I have the time to practice.

The pupils suggested solutions to avoid stress and anxiety for oral presentations, especially the ones where they are being assessed. One suggestion was modern technology, e.g., the pupils can pre-record their presentations, allowing them to edit and try several times if needed to provide a product they feel is up to par. Second, pupils should be allowed to present in smaller groups or only with the teacher.

Two pupils presented techniques or methods they themselves implemented when speaking in English, i.e., if they programmed their brain to think in English in stead of Norwegian, their English pronunciation and production appeared easier to them.

Pupil 2, group three: I think my brain is English all the time. When I speak to myself in the mirror in the bathroom, I am always using English. I think that is one of the reasons why I am so confident in my English and do not use a lot of time for formulating sentences.

### 4.2.1.2 Pupils' oral participation in class

It appeared clear that the language most frequently use by the pupils was Norwegian, regardless of teacher and class environment. They were, however, somewhat divided in terms of why they used Norwegian. Group one and two admitted to being more reluctant in answering in English, as they were more afraid of making errors while communicating in English. Reportedly, the teacher rarely corrected their language use, i.e., encouraged the use of English, and the norm seemed to be for the class to communicate in Norwegian unless expressively told otherwise. Moreover, the fear of making errors resulted in rephrasing whole sentences instead of having to resort to asking for help with the language.

Pupil 4, group two: If I do not know a word or feel unsure of how a word is pronounced, I tend to change the whole sentence just to avoid saying it [the word] wrong.

When asked why they found it problematic to make errors, the most common response was that the pupil's found it embarrassing to be corrected in front of the class. They could see the benefits of feedback, and believed it necessary in developing their English proficiency, but found it more helpful when done one on one or in writing, rather than aloud in class.

Pupil 3, group one: I know that she [the teacher] corrects me because she would like to help, but it usually makes me feel a bit stupid and embarrassed, and I sometimes do not even remember what she says anyways. That is why it is just easier to answer in Norwegian.

With group three, the pupils perceived the class environment to be great, and that the class in general, as well as the teacher, accepted mistakes and errors, reducing their anxiety and stress related to English communication. In consequence, when the teacher asked for them to communicate through the means of English during class, most pupils did so without hesitation.

Pupil 1, group three: There are probably some pupils in the class that are not entirely
comfortable when talking in English, but they do not let it show or refuse. Sometimes we laugh when someone says something weird, but then they laugh themselves too.

However, it was not unheard of for any of the pupils or groups to communicate in English during lessons. It was conceived by the interviewees that oral participation was vital in the development of oral skills, requiring them to produce some English during lessons, and they would do so if explicitly told by the teachers, or if it was the natural choice of language to solve an assignment, e.g., when reading an English text. However, they admitted to rushing through the assignments in English before switching back to Norwegian. Moreover, whether they would use English when working in pairs seemed to differ depending on, amongst others, who they were grouped with.

Pupil 3, group two: If I am working with my friends, it would only be weird to use English. Especially since we have more to talk about than the assignment.

When talking about their own language choices, they all believed it more natural to communicate in Norwegian, even during EFL lessons. Even when the teacher succeeded in providing the class with an English atmosphere, the pupils would resort to Norwegian while working with the subject, either alone or when working in pairs or groups. When asked why,
they simply answered that Norwegian is the language they were used to communicate in. Moreover, two classes perceived that it was generally accepted by their teacher. The teacher of group three actively encouraged the use of L2, but accepted their use of L1 nonetheless.

Pupil 4, group one: I think that maybe, if we had been forced to speak more English over the years, it would have become more natural [to speak English] and maybe not as embarrassing.

The pupils believed language choices made by fellow classmates or the teacher to be of great influence when it came to their own language choices. After a short contemplation, they all concurred that they would never initiate L2 use themselves, placing the responsibility entirely on the teacher. Furthermore, they strongly doubted their own ability to stay with English if other members of the class started using Norwegian. With the teacher usually answering in the language used by the pupils, they also seemed to think that not only were they influenced by the teachers' language use, but that the teachers were influenced by the pupils as well.

### 4.2.1.3 Teachers' use of L1

In all three classes, the pupils reported an extensive use of Norwegian by the teachers, and they believed that during most EFL lessons, Norwegian was the language most frequently used by the teachers for nearly all activities. The pupils were supposed to work in English, e.g., read or write in English when working with assignment, while most oral communication appeared in Norwegian. However, there were exceptions depending on the objective of the lessons, e.g., if they were to present a project, all language used for the presentations, comment on or provide feedback would be in English.

Moreover, the pupils believed the L1 use to be too extensive, especially when it came to providing information about tasks at hand. All assignments would be presented initially in English, subsequently followed by an explanation in Norwegian. This practice was believed redundant by the pupils, as they would all just wait for the Norwegian explanation as that is easier.

Pupil 3, third group: Maybe if it [the information] was only provided in English, then we would start working earlier and only some pupils will ask for the information in Norwegian. We do not need to get all the information twice.

For some situations, Norwegian was perceived more natural for the pupils, e.g., when they were discussing, or provided with, information not related to the subject of English. In other instances, the pupils believed it essential for the teacher to use Norwegian, e.g., when working with assignments related to grammar or new vocabulary. The pupils explained that the necessity for Norwegian did not necessarily relate to it being English, but rather that working with grammar was difficult in most contexts and subjects. Some were frank and proposed a connection between being the more boring aspects of learning any language, and it being difficult.

Pupil 2, group one: I think grammar is so difficult because it is boring. I cannot concentrate when I find the topic tedious.

When asked whether the language choices made by the teacher at the beginning and throughout the class influenced the language choices made by the pupils, the pupils seemed to agree that yes, the language choices had an influence on them.

Pupil 2, second group: Actually, yes. I usually feel more attuned to English if that is the language the teacher speaks when she greats us, and then continues with it.

In the $8^{\text {th }}$ grade, all three classes had a different teacher to the one they currently had teaching them English. They remembered a different style of teaching with the previous English teacher, and that the teacher had, to a large extent, only used English when teaching EFL lessons except for some instances, e.g., introducing them to new vocabulary or teaching grammar. They themselves were also expected to use English, which they did, though somewhat reluctantly. Their present teachers, however, seemed more lenient in both their own and pupils' use of L1.

Pupil 2, third group: She is a very good English teacher though, and her English is very good, it does not have anything to do with that. It is just that a lot of the information is given in Norwegian and there is quite a bit of talk that has nothing to do with what we are supposed to be working on. I think that maybe everyone could try and be better at speaking English, not only the teacher.

However, several pupils said that there were pupils, both in the class and themselves, that never or rarely spoke English, regardless of the teacher, while they guaranteed that no one would use English unless the teacher set the standard first.

### 4.2.1.4 The teachers' use of $L 2$

The pupils regarded the English proficiency of both teachers to be satisfactory, and even good. When they tried, they would usually have no difficulty in understanding their teacher. Moreover, the teachers seemed adapt at changing and rephrasing their information to suit the pupils if it appeared that they did not follow what was being said. Trying to answer then why Norwegian had become so prominent during English lessons was difficult, though they blamed themselves.

Pupil 1, group one: I think maybe it is our fault. There came a time when the class just started to use Norwegian and would not answer in English, and I think maybe she [the teacher] grew tired of reprimanding us on our language use.

In general, the pupils wished for English to be the more prominent during English lessons and acknowledged that they need to contribute to this themselves. However, they conceded that they were probably too accustomed to the English teaching being what it is.

### 5.0 Discussion

The following chapter will review the results of the qualitative and quantitative data collected for the present study in light of the theoretical framework and previous research presented in chapter two. The aim of the chapter is to answer the research questions written to guide the investigation of the study:

RQ1: Which factors influence the choice of language amongst pupils in Norwegian lower secondary school during EFL lessons?
RQ2: When, if at all, do pupils in lower secondary school find it necessary or natural for teachers to include Norwegian when teaching English?

RQ3: Are pupils more prone to speak L1 during L2 teaching if the teacher or other peers use L 1 during the lesson?

### 5.1 Background information on L1 use

As depicted by the questionnaire and the pupil interviews, the use of L1 occurs rather frequently during English lessons, both by teachers and pupils, supporting the views of a bilingual approach, or judicious use of Norwegian in English teaching (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2011; Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2005). The amount of L1 deviates somewhat from the study by Brevik and Rindal (2020) in which English accounted for 77 percent of the language used during English lessons. However, the numbers are difficult to compare, as the present study is comprised of language use as perceived by the pupils, whereas the study by Brevik and Rindal contained observations through video recordings.

### 5.2 Pupils' language choices in the EFL classroom

The first research question sought to explain the language choices made by pupils in Norwegian lower secondary EFL teaching. The results from the qualitative and quantitative sampling suggest that pupils apply Norwegian in various teaching contexts during English lessons. However, questions about the likability and importance of English proved that there were many more pupils who enjoyed English and found it important than pupils who did not appreciate the subject or its importance, corresponding with the study and findings by Bonnet (2002) and Dahl (2019) with the learner believing it important to learn English. This is somewhat interesting as pupils still choose Norwegian when communicating during EFL lessons. This calls to question, with pupils both liking and finding the subject important, why they choose to communicate by the means of Norwegian instead of using the opportunity to improve their English.

With Krashen's (1982) theories on acquisition in mind, one must work towards a natural learning environment where the pupils are exposed to as much TL as possible. The gathered data indicate that teachers are not successful in creating a natural environment for English language learning, as both teachers and pupils tend to use Norwegian when communicating in the EFL classroom. Moreover, with Norwegian being given such a prominent role in English teaching, the pupils are denied both valuable and new input, which is essential to evolve or increase their English proficiency, as proclaimed by Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD and Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982). Furthermore, limited exposure to TL deprives pupils of opportunities for language production and output, necessary for their development of language skills as observed by Swain's (2005) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis or DeKeyser's $(1998,2015)$ views on L2 acquisition through skill learning. In both instances, output, i.e., production of English, is essential in learning.

Through the questionnaire and the interview, the most common response to why the pupils would resort to Norwegian was that it was simply the easier choice. Though there are studies to support that the responsibility lies with the teacher to provide an environment where language production in the TL is perceived as natural, as it does not occur natural for pupils (Brevik \& Rindal, 2020; Chambers, 2007), pupils in the interviews conceded in taking some of the responsibility for the extensive use of Norwegian. According to the pupils, when they first started, both in $8^{\text {th }}$ grade when all shared the same teacher and when they changed teachers in the $9^{\text {th }}$ grade, the teachers were more determined that the pupils should use English. They used a lot of time and effort trying to get them to speak English, wasting both time and energy as described by Simensen (2007). The pupils explained that, over time, the teacher would spend less energy trying to encourage their use of TL, eventually allowing for Norwegian to be the primary language used when communicating in class. However, the pupils seemed to regret their behaviour somewhat, and believed, in correspondence with the study by Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz (2011), that it had resulted in lost opportunities for them to practice English oral proficiency. Moreover, the pupils believed that, if they had been pushed, their confidence and the production of English would have become more natural.

The second most frequent answer to why the pupils would use Norwegian was because they were not comfortable with their pronunciation. As illustrated in the study by Mehl (2014), the class dynamic and whether the pupils were comfortable with their pronunciation both affected their participation in class. However, one may need to see them in relation to one another, with pupils being uncomfortable or afraid of making errors in the classroom, one could
ask oneself whether the class environment is favourable or not. If the pupils believed and trusted their fellows, making mistakes would probably not be perceived as an issue. In the interviews, two classes believed there was work to be done with the class environment, whilst the third thought their class to provide a supportive environment. Only one group reported that there was little to no hesitation in oral participation in class, i.e., the third group. The two first groups mentioned stress and anxiety in relation to oral activities in the classroom. In other words, the groups were divided regarding their "readiness to speak", which is in line with the findings from Macaro's (1997) Tarclindy Project. This corresponds to what was said in the interviews conducted by Young (1992), that activities which include speaking are the most stressful in language learning and is supported by the findings of Horwitz et al. (1986) who found anxiety when speaking L2 in front of other people to be a typical barrier in the L2 classroom. One of the pupils participating in the interview mentioned that it was the uncertainty of not knowing what the teacher would ask about that made her feel ill at ease, and that she preferred assignment where they could prepare beforehand. In the interview by Young (1992), Krashen explained that anxiety could relate to whether one felt a part of the group. This could explain hesitations in participating, as if one does not feel well liked in the class, the affective filter would go up, making it impossible for the pupils to contribute as they compare themselves to pupils more proficient in English. Another theory that may help describe this is Ryan and Deci's (2009) Self-Determination Theory, which argues that pressure relating to grades or deadlines may lead to low self-esteem and low intrinsic motivation in solving challenges. When pupils have not had the opportunity to prepare, they may perceive the challenge at hand as impossible and give up, i.e., they resort to Norwegian instead of English. However, when asked in the questionnaire, the least frequent context in which Norwegian is being reported by the pupils were when answering a question aloud in class, demonstrating that the pupils at least try and respond with the use of TL during lessons.

The third most frequent response to why pupils use Norwegian during EFL lessons were because other pupils answer in Norwegian. With an environment that does not feel natural, or does not facilitate the use of English, it is not surprising that pupils would opt for L1 and find communicating in L2 unnatural as the communication in their head largely happens in Norwegian. Moreover, the data also suggest that teachers accept the use of L1 with only 56 percent stating that the teacher often corrects their L1 use or encourage the use of L2. With Bandura's (1971) social learning theory and views on modelling in mind, a possible explanation for choosing Norwegian can be the lack of desirable models to imitate in English. As pupils
observe their fellow classmates and teacher use Norwegian, it is natural for them to do the same, and rather unnatural to suddenly be the one communicating in Norwegian. Additionally, if Norwegian use is neither discouraged nor corrected, the pupils learn that this behaviour is acknowledged by the teacher (Bandura, 1971). In other words, all language they are exposed to may influence the choices pupils make in their output (Thompson \& Harrison, 2014). Consequently, had there been more prominent models using English, the pupils may have resorted to more use of L2, trying to imitate language, pronunciation and inflections made by others.

In the questionnaire, 31 percent of the pupils regarded limited vocabulary to be a hindrance during English lessons, consequently making them speak Norwegian. A reason why pupils might opt for L1 could be that rather than insert or code-switch a word when an obstacle occurs, i.e., not knowing a word in a sentence, pupils would rather use L 1 for the whole sentence as it requires less effort as stated in the study by Horasan (2014). In the interview, some of the pupils stated that they would change whole sentences when an obstacle arose while communicating rather than uttering the word incorrectly or having to stop and ask for help. Code-switching and rephrasing due to limited vocabulary may also, as in the case of L1 being used due to the pupils not being comfortable with their pronunciation, be seen as a result of anxiety

Consistent with the findings in the study by Tjetland (2021), an effective way of improving their English oral proficiency, as perceived by the pupils, were activities in which they were allowed to interact, e.g., discussions. This view was shared by a pupil in Macaro's (1997) Tarclindy Project where a pupil stated, "Helping your partner helps you learn" (p.135). They found these types of assignments both engaging and helpful in increasing oral fluency. Facilitating tasks where pupils can practice producing spontaneous and natural communication in English is important and in line with DeKeyser's $(1998,2015)$ views that L2 acquisition occurs through three stages of skill learning which, amongst others, claims that one needs to practice for the knowledge to become automated and ready for use when needed. Additionally, with the assignments being considered appealing to the pupils, they may generate intrinsic motivation for completing the tasks, corresponding to Ryan and Deci's (2009) SDT. Yet, according to the questionnaire, 53 percent of the pupils found it natural or necessary for Norwegian to be used when working in pairs or groups, and even more prominent, 75 percent conceded to using Norwegian when working in pairs or groups. In other words, though pupils both find the activity interesting and useful in the development of English proficiency, they
tend to need and use Norwegian. However, according to Vygotsky (1978), interaction through scaffolding activities with peers or more skilful others is essential to reach their ZPD, which is where language development it possible. Consequently, one can interpret the use of Norwegian as scaffolding and necessary for progress and clarification when pupils collaborate, corresponding with the studies by Swain and Lapkin (2000) and Antón and DiCamilla (1999).

However, somewhat interestingly, though pupils reported feeling nervous when partaking in oral activity in class, they still believed oral activities such as presentations to help in oral language development. Some pupils preferred it to spontaneous questions and communication in class because they had the opportunity to practice the presentations and knew what to say. Krashen's (1982) monitor and affective filter hypotheses believe that time, focus on form and know the rule all need to be present if one is to produce language effectively. As pupils may feel stressed and have insufficient time when asked questions in class, their affective filter which correlates to motivation, self-confidence and anxiety may hinder their participation. Moreover, pupils who were struggling with low self-esteem in oral participation mentioned that it was difficult to notice corrections provided by the teacher on oral production made in class, supporting Krashen's (1982) view that it is impossible to receive input if the affective filter is up. However, with presentations, pupils have the time to prepare and practice, consequently lowering their affective filter. Additionally, if one could provide the pupils with choices, as suggested by the pupils in the interview to avoid stress and anxiety, one could increase intrinsic motivation which is important in language learning (Ryan \& Deci, 2009). By allowing for smaller groups or alternative presentations, the pupils could become more confident and comfortable with their language production (Macaro, 1997). Lastly, when provided with time to practice, the pupils seemed more motivated and believed in their abilities to achieve better marks. This could be viewed in correspondence with Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy.

### 5.3 Necessary or natural use of L1

The second research question sought to uncover in what contexts pupils perceived L1 use to be natural or necessary during EFL teaching. When one considers previous research into the field of code-switching and the use of L1 in the classroom, there have been substantial research to support a judicious use of L1, as translation may be used for scaffolding in providing clarity and contributing to understanding (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999; Swain and Lapkin, 2000; Macaro, 2005). In other words, L1 does not necessarily hinder learning, but may as well facilitate it. Moreover, if one is to believe Cook (2003), it would be futile to try and avoid the use of L1 completely, when both L1 and L2 are stored in the same mind. Antón and DiCamilla
(1999) and Butzkamm (2011) all found knowledge of L1 to help in learning a L2, as one can compare and draw conclusions based on what one already knows of linguistic features in L1. Lastly, when one thinks, it happens primarily and most commonly in L1 (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999). Consequently, as L1 is the language used to communicate with oneself when thinking, and both languages being stored in the same place, making it possible to build on already existing knowledge in one language, the presence of L1 in Norwegian EFL teaching is neither something to be discouraged nor frowned upon. On the contrary, it may rather be motivating and allowing for less proficient pupils to participate in class (Levine, 2003). However, one needs to consider when it is necessary or natural to use L1 in L2 teaching.

When the pupils were asked when they found Norwegian to be necessary or natural during English lessons, the most frequent response was when they were provided with information not related to the English subject. Though the perfect answer in the ears of a teacher, it goes without saying that it is believed more natural to use L 1 in contexts that do not relate to the subject than the ones that do, and therefore it does not invite a lot of reflection or contemplation.

The second most frequent context in which the pupils found Norwegian necessary or natural, as reported in the questionnaire, is when teachers explain an assignment. When teachers provide information in L1, reasons may be for clarification (Thompson \& Harrison, 2014), to avoid misunderstanding (Rolin-Ianzity \& Varshney, 2008) or simply as a scaffolding tool, to save time and guarantee that all pupils receive and understand the information that is being given (Wood, Burner \& Ross, 1976; Brevik \& Rindal, 2020). Concerning the pupils, the necessity of being given the information in Norwegian can be related to an inner desire to understand and solve the assignment correctly. However, it could also be related to pupils' anxiety and fear of making mistakes in class. If pupils are hesitant in answering aloud in class on questions given by the teachers, it could also be natural to assume that they would find it embarrassing to ask for the information again if it is unclear and they are not comfortable within the class environment. The pupils in the interviews believed that too much time was wasted on instructions as all the information would be provided in English before subsequently being given in Norwegian. In the third group it was suggested to provide the information in English, and then rather have pupils ask the teacher to come and explain one on one if needed. This view was shared by the students partaking in the study by with Rolin-Ianzity and Varshney (2008) with the majority believing that instruction should be given by the means of TL, and differ from pupils in study by Macaro (1997), who wanted all communication and massages carried out at
least two timed in L2 before resorting to L1. According to the pupils interviewed, this approach takes up too much time. They did, however, agree with the pupils in the Tarclindy Project that when they know instructions are being given in L1 at some point, some pupils will just sit and wait as this is the much simpler choice and requires less thought.

When introduced to new vocabulary was the third most frequent response to when they believed it necessary and natural for Norwegian to be used. As new is specified in the answer, the response is not surprisingly. The need to know or understand can be explained by Ryan and Deci's (2009) theories that one has an internal motivation that desires to improve oneself through quivering new knowledge. However, the challenges of being introduced to new and unfamiliar vocabulary may be too advanced or difficult without any aid from the pupils' L1, as the new information is too far to reach within ZDP (Vygotsky, 1978) and not comprehensible in relation to the pupils' current competences (Krashen, 1982). Thus, the introduction of new vocabulary may fall under the judicious use of L1, as both allowed and encurraged when one teaches with the use of a bilingual approach as it does not hinder learning,but rather permitts the acquisition of new knowledge (Antón \& DiCamilla, 1999; Butzkamm, 2011; Cook, 2001). However, TL is still considered a prerequisite in learning a L2 (Krashen, 1985; Macaro, 2005), meaning that one should remember to switch back and only apply it when code-switching is strictly necessary for further learning.

More than 50 percent of the pupils partaking in the questionnaire perceived Norwegian use to be necessary or important when collaborating in groups or pair. Moreover, 75 percent stated that they did use Norwegian in these contexts. As stated by Brevik and Rindal (2020), it is challenging for pupils who share a common L1 to stay with the TL for communicative purposes as it is viewed redundant. Yet, it is somewhat curious as, in the interviews, collaborative work is considered an advantageous method for language acquisition and practice of oral English proficiency. However, there is no evidence to support that Norwegian is not being used for academic purposes, i.e., to solve the tasks at hand through scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978). In the study by Swain and Lapkin (2000), L1 was most frequently used for moving the task along. Moreover, only 12 percent of the instances of L1 use were off-task, which may very well be the case for the pupils in Norwegian EFL lessons as well.

The pupils that were interviewed considered grammar to be difficult without some guidance in Norwegian. One of the pupils believed there to be a connection between grammar being difficult and grammar being boring, saying she had a harder time concentrating on topics she found less engaging, e.g., grammar. The pupil in this instance lacks intrinsic motivation as
described by Ryan and Deci (2009), leading to an impression of the topic being difficult and the need for Norwegian. Her view was shared with several of the pupils. The pupils in the present study are not alone as students participating in the studies by Rolin-Ianzity and Varshney (2008) and Chavez (2003) also used L1 as a means to access and provide meaning in grammar and vocabulary and found the L1 use favourable. Moreover, Antón and DiCamilla (1999) and Butzkamm (2011) found that one could use knowledge and access to categories one has already learned in L1 and use that knowledge to draw associations or provide necessary scaffolding when learning grammar in L2. In other words, when one has the knowledge, albeit in another language, there is no reason for that knowledge to not be used if it allows for language development within the TL.

### 5.4 The influence of others

The third and last research question investigated whether language choices made by the pupils are influenced by the language choices made by others, i.e., classmates or the teacher. As discussed above, the third most frequent response as to why pupils used Norwegian during English lessons was because other pupils use Norwegian. Arguably, there is already evidence to support that pupils' language choices are influence by the language choices of others.

Question eight in the questionnaire was open-ended and allowed for the pupils to elaborate or add to question seven, i.e., contexts in which they used Norwegian. Some pupils used the opportunity to explain why they would resort to Norwegian, and teachers' use of L1 was mentioned by several pupils as one of the reasons behind their language choices. The studies of Thompson and Harrison (2014) and Horasan (2014) both indicated that teacherinitiated code-switching was relatively high, and that the teachers' use of L1 caused a higher frequency of L1 use amongst the students. With Bandura's (1971) view on social learning, and teachers being mentioned as favourable models, the teacher needs to be aware of his or her language choices, as it does, in all probability, affect the language choices made by the pupils. Moreover, during the interviews, pupils believed themselves to be more prone for speaking English if the teacher came into class, started out and stayed within the TL, as they felt more attuned to English. The arguments would support the claim that the teachers are of great influence, and that it is the teachers responsibility to cerate an environment that is constructive for English acquisition and production (Brevik \& Rindal, 2020; Chambers, 2007). However, teachers do not have all the blame for the whole quantity of Norwegian output as produced by the pupils during EFL teaching. In the last question of the questionnaire, question 12, only 48 percent allocated the reason for their Norwegian output to be teachers' use of Norwegian,
whereas 46 percent either stated that they did not know or that they would use Norwegian regardless of the language choices made by the teacher.

Lastly, the pupils reported that they would usually understand their teachers when they communicated in English. Moreover, they believed their teachers capable of rephrasing and explaining satisfactorily through the means of English. The question then arises as to why the teachers decide to use Norwegian to the extent that are reported or perceived in findings of this study. One explanation may be that, as with the teacher observed in section 1.1.4, the teacher simply does not notice when he or she uses Norwegian. The pupils interviewed suggested that the teacher was, almost to the same extent as themselves, influenced by the language choices the pupils made. As with pupils, most EFL teachers in Norway share a common L1 with the pupils, think in Norwegian and store their knowledge of L2 in the same mind as they store their knowledge of L2. Consequently, it may not be difficult to understand that one tends to fall back on Norwegian if one is continuously exposed to it by the member of the class.

### 6.0 Conclusion and implications of the study

As there are no guidelines for L1 use provided by the Ministry of Education and Research, the present study investigated pupils' perspectives on the use of Norwegian in English teaching in Norwegian lower secondary school. The RQs guiding the investigation sought to discuss pupils' perceptions on what influences their choice of language, when pupils believe Norwegian to be necessary or for Norwegian use to be natural during EFL teaching, and whether they find themselves being influenced by other pupils' or teachers' choice of language.

As discussed and depicted in the results of the study, the main reasons for why pupils use Norwegian during EFL lessons are:

1) It is simply the easier choice to answer in Norwegian.
2) Pupils are not comfortable with their pronunciation.
3) Because other members of the class use Norwegian
4) Due to limitations in vocabulary.

Moreover, pupils perceived factors such as class environment, influence of others and anxiety related to oral activity to be of great influence on their choice of language. However, prominent amongst them could arguably be that it is simply not natural for the pupils to communicate with the means of English, as both pupils and teachers seem contented with Norwegian being used as the main language for communication. The results imply that for future work, teachers should try to work with providing the pupils with a class environment where communication through the means of English appears natural, in addition to a low anxiety environment that allows for mistakes and errors where oral participation may flourish.

The results support a bilingual approach to English teaching, as pupils perceived a necessity for, or found it natural to use, Norwegian in several contexts during EFL teaching:

1) When teachers provide information not related to the English subject.
2) When teachers explain an assignment.
3) When they are introduced to new vocabulary.
4) When collaborating in pair or groups.
5) When they are being taught grammar.

I have previously sought, almost extensively, an "all English" environment when I have taught English. However, after having reviewed the results of previous research and the current study, I must concede that L1 has its place in EFL teaching. However, it needs to be implemented judiciously, as not to deprive pupils of English exposure necessary for language development and acquisition.

It is conceived by reading the results of the present study, and reviewing it with the aid of previous research, that pupils are more prone to speak Norwegian if the teacher or other members of the class speak Norwegian during EFL lessons. Consequently, to best utilize the hours one has available for teaching English in school, the teacher ought to consider when L1 should or can be used, both by themselves and by the member of the class, and evaluate it in relation to contexts in which Norwegian can be perceived both useful or necessary in language learning.

### 6.1 Suggestions for further research

The present study has provided some insight into the perspectives on the use of Norwegian in English teaching, as perceived by pupils attending Norwegian lower secondary school. However, further research in the field is needed to verify the results as this is based solely on information provided on the perceptions of pupils.

With it being unnatural for pupils to communicate through the means of English in EFL teaching (Brevik \& Rindal, 2020), both when communicating aloud or in pair or groups, it would be interesting to do studies on how one best achieves an environment where the oral production of English is perceived natural to pupils. Especially given that exposure to English, both through input (Krashen, 1982) and output (Swain, 2005), is a prerequisite for language acquisition.

It could also be interesting to include observations to see the actual purpose of Norwegian use, in line with the study by Swain and Lapkin (2000) and Antón and DiCamilla (1999). Though a study somewhat similar have been done in Norway by Brevik and Rindal (2020), their data included both teachers and pupils and did not separate the two. Consequently, their data do not reveal to what use Norwegian is being allocated by the pupils. In the present study, the pupils were asked about the contexts in which they would use Norwegian, and a frequent response was because it is easier, but they did not have the opportunity to elaborate on their L1 use, e.g., if they use it to scaffold progress in the tasks, to agree or clarify certain aspects of the assignment, or whether L1 is used when discussing topics off-task. A study combining
the mentioned approaches could provide even better ground for teachers to make judicious choices regarding the use of L1 in the L2 classroom.

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## Appendices

Appendix 1: Pupil Questionnaire
Appendix 2: Pupil Interview Guide
Appendix 3: Pupil Information Letter and Consent Form
Appendix 4: Teacher Information Letter and Consent Form

## Appendix 1: Pupil Questionnaire

Dette er et spørreskjema laget for å hjelpe meg med min masteroppgave. Den er helt anonym og det finnes ingen riktige eller gale svar. Vennligst svar så ærlig du kan.

På forhånd, tusen takk.

## Kjønn

(1) O Mann
(2) O Kvinne
(3) O Annen kjønnsidentitet

## Trinn

(1)8. trinn
(2) O9. trinn
(3) O 10. trinn

## Hvor godt liker du engelskfaget?

| I veldig liten |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| grad | liten grad | Nøytral | I stor grad | | I svært stor |
| :--- |
| grad |


| Hvor godt liker (6) $O$ | (2) $O$ | (3) $O$ | (4) $O$ | (5) $O$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| du |  |  |  |  |
| engelskfaget? |  |  |  |  |

## Engelskfagets viktighet

Ikke viktig Litt viktig $\quad$ Nøytral $\quad$ Ganske viktig Svært viktig

| Synes du det <br> er viktig a lære <br> seg engelsk? | (2) $O$ | (3) $O$ | (4) $\bigcirc$ | (5) $\bigcirc$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## Norsk i engelsktimene

Aldri | Svært |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sjelden |$\quad$ Sjelden $\quad$ Ofte $\quad$ Svært ofte $\quad$ Alltid

Hvor ofte
bruker du
norsk i
engelsktime
ne
(1) O
(2)

O
(3) O
(4)

O
(5)
(6) bruker du norsk i
engelsktime
ne
Hvor ofte
bruker
læreren din
norsk i
engelsktime
ne
(1) $\bigcirc$
(2) O
(3) O
(4)

O
(5)
(6)

## ker

 norsk iengelsktime
ne

```
Synes du
det er
nødvendig
at læreren
benytter
norski
engelskund
ervisningen
```

```Hvis du eller(1)
```

```(2) O
(3) O
(4) O
(5)
(6) andre i
klassen
benytter
norsk i
engelskund
ervisningen,
retter
læreren din
på
dette/minn
er dere på å
```

bruke engelsk?

## Hvorfor bruker du norsk i engelskundervisningen? Du kan velge flere alternativer.

(1) Jeg er ikke komfortabel med engelsk uttalen min
(2) Jeg føler ikke jeg har stort nok ordforråd på engelsk
(3) Det er lettere å svare på norsk
(4) Fordi andre elever bruker norsk
(5) $\square$ Tidspress (det tar for lang tid å skule finne de rette ordene på engelsk)
(6) $\square$ Jeg bruker ikke norsk i engelskundervisningen

## I hvilken sammenheng benytter du norsk i engelskundervisningen?

| Aldri | Svært <br> sjelden | Sjelden | Ofte | Svært ofte |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | Alltid

Når jeg har
(1)

O
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
(6) spørsmål til
læreren om
en oppgave
i engelsk


Nar jeg
(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
(6)
jobber med
oppgaver
sammen
med en
partner

Når jeg
svarer på et spørsmål høyt i
klassen
Når jeg
svarer pá spørsmål en til en med læreren
(1)

O
(2)

O
(3)
(4) O
(5) O
(6) husker de rette ordene på engelsk

Når jeg
snakker om noe itimen
med en
partner
eller i en
gruppe som
ikke er
relatert til faget
partner
(1)

O
(2)

O
(3)

O
(4) O
(5) O
(6)

O

Bruker du norsk i andre sammenhenger $i$ engelskundervisningen? Vennligst skriv ned hvilke.
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

## Når benytter læreren din norsk i engelskundervisningen?

| Aldri | Svært <br> sjelden | Sjelden | Ofte |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | Svært ofte | Alltid |
| :--- |

Når hen
(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
(6)
forklarer en oppgave

Når hen
(1)

O
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
(6)
korrigerer/r
etter
språket vårt

Når hen
(1)

O
(2) O
(3) O
(4)

O
(5)
)
(6)
lærer oss ny
grammatikk

Når hen
(1)

O
(2)

O
(3) O
(4)

O
(5)

O
(6) O
introdusere
r nytt
vokabular
(nye ord)
Når hen
(1)
(2)
(3) O
(4) O
(5)
(6)
disiplinerer/
irettesetter
elever
Når hen gir
(1) $O$
(2)
(3) O
(4)
(5)
(6) O
klassen
informasjon
som ikke er
relatert til

```
engelskfage
```

t
Når hen
(1)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(5)
(6)
hilser på oss
før timen og
sier ha det
etter timen

## Benytter læreren din norsk i andre sammenhenger i engelskundervisningen? Vennligst skriv ned hvilke.

## Når synes du det er nødvendig/naturlig at norsk brukes i engelsktimene?

(1)Når læreren forklarer en oppgave
(2)Når elever jobber i par eller grupper
(3)Når læreren gir oss informasjon som ikke er relatert til engelsktimen
(4)Når læreren underviser engelsk grammatikk
(5)Når læreren introduserer oss for nytt vokabular/nye ord
(6)Når læreren irettesetter/disiplinerer elever
(7)Når læreren hilser på oss før og sier ha det etter timen

Hvis læreren din snakker norsk i engelsktimen, fører dette til at du snakker mer norsk også?
(1) O Ja, jeg merker at jeg og mine medelever har lettere for å snakke norsk dersom læreren benytter norsk. Klassen følger gjerne lærerens eksempel.
(2) $O$ Vanskelig å si, jeg har aldri tenkt/reflektert over min egen eller læreres bruk av norsk i engelsktimene
(3)Nei, jeg ville brukt norsk uansett om læreren bruker det eller ikke
(4) O Nei, jeg ville IKKE bruke norsk selv om læreren gjør det

Tusen takk for ditt bidrag til masteroppgaven min. Jeg er veldig takknemlig.

## Appendix 2: Pupil Interview Guide

## Holdninger til engelsk

Hva er dine tanker om engelsk (som språk) generelt? Mener du det er viktig å lære seg engelsk?
Opplever du noensinne at du har bruk for engelsk? (Kommunisere med andre på fritiden, ved reise, eller liknende).

Trives du med engelskfaget i skolen? Hva er det du liker/ikke liker ved faget? Hvorfor?
Hva mener du er den beste måten å lære seg engelsk på? Hvilke aktiviteter virker mest motiverer?

## Elevens muntlige deltakelse i klassen

Føler du deg komfortabel med å skulle uttale deg på engelsk i klassen? Hvorfor/hvorfor ikke?
Hvis du stiller spørsmål eller svarer på spørsmål i klassen, svarer du da på engelsk? Alltid?
Hvis du velger å kommunisere på norsk under engelskundervisningen, hva er grunnen til dette?
Hvor ofte velger du å bruke norsk i engelskundervisningen?
Dersom du eller andre medelever svarer på norsk, opplever du at dette er greit for læreren deres?
Blir du påvirket av språket til dem rundt deg? (Medelever, lærer)

## Lærerens bruk av L1

Bruker læreren din norsk i engelskundervisningen? I så fall, er dette noe som forekommer ofte, og i hvilke sammenhenger?

Hva tenker du om at læreren din bruker norsk i engelskundervisningen? Er det nødvendig? For mye/for lite?

I hvilke situasjoner synes du det er naturlig/nyttig at læreren benytter norsk i engelskundervisningen?
Føler du at du blir påvirket av din lærers språkvalg? Snakkes det mer norsk i engelsktimene dersom læreren deres benytter seg av norsk når han/hun underviser?

## Lærerens bruk av L2

Føler du at du forstår læreren din når han/hun snakker engelsk?
I hvor stor grad føler du at læreren din bør bruke engelsk i engelskundervisningen?
Mener du at læreren din behersker engelsk godt? Ser du opp til læreren din og hans/hennes engelskferdigheter? (Engelskspråklig forbilde).

# Appendix 3: Pupil Information Letter and Consent Form 

## Til elever i ungdomsskolen

Hei!

Jeg vil gjerne invitere deg til å delta i forskningsprosjektet The use of L1 in the L2 classroom som er en del av min masteravhandling som student innen Grunnskolelærerutdanningen, 5-10. I dette prosjektet skal jeg å samle inn informasjon om elevenes perspektiv på norsk i engelskundervisningen. Jeg $\varnothing$ nsker blant annet å undersøke hva som får elever til å benytte norsk i engelskundervisningen, hvorvidt elever mener det er nødvendig å inkludere norsk i engelskundervisningen, samt hvorvidt elever blir påvirket av lærerens eller medelevers språkvalg. Slik forskning kan brukes for å utvikle undervisningsmetoder for bruk i engelskfaget.

I den forbindelse søker jeg elever som sier seg villig til å intervjues. Du vil ikke få noe ekstra arbeid ved å la deg intervjue, jeg $\emptyset$ nsker kun å høre om dine tanker og refleksjoner rundt forskningsspørsmålene jeg har satt. Det finnes ingen rette eller gale svar på spørsmålene, men svar gjerne så ærlig og utfyllende du kan. Det har heller ingen ting å si hvor mye eller lite engelsk du kan, eller hvor god du er i faget, da intervjuet vil foregå på norsk.

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet, men jeg håper du vil ta intervjuet på alvor og svare etter beste evne da du vil bidra med å skaffe et bilde av elevers perspektiv på norsk i engelskundervisningen. Hvis du sier ja, kan du likevel trekke deg fra prosjektet i senere anledning og kreve at dine svar ikke benyttes i forskningen, uten at du behøver å oppgi noen grunn.

Vil du delta i prosjektet? Da ber jeg deg undertegne samtykkeerklæring (dersom du er under 16 år må du også få samtykke fra dine foreldre/foresatte). Jeg trenger navnet ditt for å vise til samtykke, men du vil være helt anonym i intervjuet og i videre skriving av oppgaven. Dvs. at både ditt navn og navn på personer, skoler og liknende som kan komme frem under intervjuet blir anonymisert før informasjonen lagres i databasen. Navn på elevene er det bare jeg som har tilgang til. Navnelisten blir slettet når prosjektet er levert i mai 2022.

Selve intervjuet skal oppbevares på en passordbeskyttet dataserver.
Oppgaven vil bli publisert etter at den er ferdigstilt, noe som gjør at opplysningene og funnene kan benyttes til videre forsknings- og undervisningsformål.

Prosjektet er også meldt til Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste (NSD) som kan kontaktes på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller på telefon: 53211500.

Hvis du har spørsmål eller trenger flere opplysninger, må du gjerne ta kontakt med undertegnede.

Med vennlig hilsen,
Ida Martine Sunne Gulli
TIf: 91865507
Epost: imsunn17@uia.no

## Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har lest informasjonsbrevet om forskningsprosjektet The use of L1 in the L2 classroom, og samtykker til å delta i prosjektet. Jeg gir tillatelse til å la meg intervjue og at disse opplysningene blir benyttet til å svare på forskningsspørsmålene satt for prosjektet. Forfatter av oppgaven gis med dette rett til å bruke de avidentifiserte data til forskning og undervisning. Andre vil også kunne få tilgang til innsamlet data til forsknings- og undervisningsformål når det er ferdigstilt.

## ELEV

Fullt navn (bruk blokkbokstaver):

Sted og dato:
Signatur:

FORELDRE/FORESATTE (For elever under 16 år)

Jeg samtykker til at eleven kan delta i prosjektet:

Sted og dato:
Signatur:

## Appendix 4: Teacher Information Letter and Consent Form

## Til lærere i ungdomsskolen

Jeg $\varnothing$ nsker å invitere dine elever til å delta i forskningsprosjektet The use of L1 in the L2 classroom som er en del av min masteravhandling i engelsk for Grunnskolelærerutdanningen 5-10 ved Universitetet i Agder. Jeg håper på å få en forståelse for elevene og deres perspektiv på bruken av norsk i engelskundervisningen. Forskningsspørsmålene er rettet mot å finne ut av hva som får elever til å velge norsk i engelskundervisningen, hvorvidt de mener det er nødvendig å inkludere norski engelskundervisningen, samt om de lar seg påvirke av læreres eller medelevers språkvalg. Slik forskning kan brukes for å utvikle undervisningsmetoder for bruk i engelskfaget.

Jeg ber derfor elevene (og for de som er under 16 år, også foreldre/foresatte) om å få lov til å intervjue dem. Jeg må gjøre en avtale med deg om når og hvordan intervjuene kan gjennomføres. Det er ikke meningen at dette skal føre til mye ekstraarbeid for lærerne, men det er flott om du kan hjelpe med å finne elever som er villige til å la seg intervjue, samt gi dem tid og anledning til å gjennomføre dette i skoletiden.

Intervjuene blir gjennomført for å skaffe en dypere forståelse for elevenes perspektiver og språkvalg i engelskundervisningen. Dette er ikke for å teste elevenes ferdigheter og vil derfor bli gjennomført på norsk. Elevene vil også få spørsmål om lærerens bruk av norsk i engelskundervisningen.

Dersom du har elever som vil delta, ber jeg deg signere vedlagt samtykkeerklæring. Deltakelse i prosjektet er frivillig, og både du og elevene har rett til å trekke dere fra prosjektet når som helst.

Intervjuene vil bli tatt opp på en diktafon for deretter å bli anonymisert i transkriberingen. Dvs. at både elevenes navn og navn på personer, skoler og liknende som kan komme frem under intervjuet blir anonymisert før informasjonen lagres i databasen. Navn på elevene er det bare jeg som har tilgang til. Etter at intervjuene er transkribert, blir de lagret i en skrivebordbeskyttet database. Intervjuene blir slettet når prosjektet er levert i mai 2022.

Oppgaven vil bli publisert etter at den er ferdigstilt, noe som gjør at opplysningene og funnene kan benyttes til videre forsknings- og undervisningsformål.
Prosjektet er også meldt til Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste (NSD) som kan kontaktes på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller på telefon: 53211500.

Hvis du har spørsmål eller trenger flere opplysninger, må du gjerne ta kontakt med undertegnede.

Med vennlig hilsen,
Ida Martine Sunne Gulli
TIf: 91865507
Epost: imsunn17@uia.no

## Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har lest informasjonsbrevet om forskningsprosjektet The use of L1 in the L2 classroom, og samtykker til å delta i prosjektet. Jeg gir tillatelse til at mine elever deltar hvis de selv $\varnothing$ nsker. Forfatter av oppgaven gis med dette rett til å bruke avidentifiserte data til forskning og undervisning. Andre vil også kunne få tilgang til innsamlet data til forsknings- og undervisningsformål når det er ferdigstilt.

Sted og dato
Lærers signatur

Jeg samtykker også til at elever kan bli stilt spørsmål om mine språkvalg i engelskundervisningen og at svarene kan benyttes til å svare på forskningsspørsmålene satt for oppgaven.

Lærers signatur

