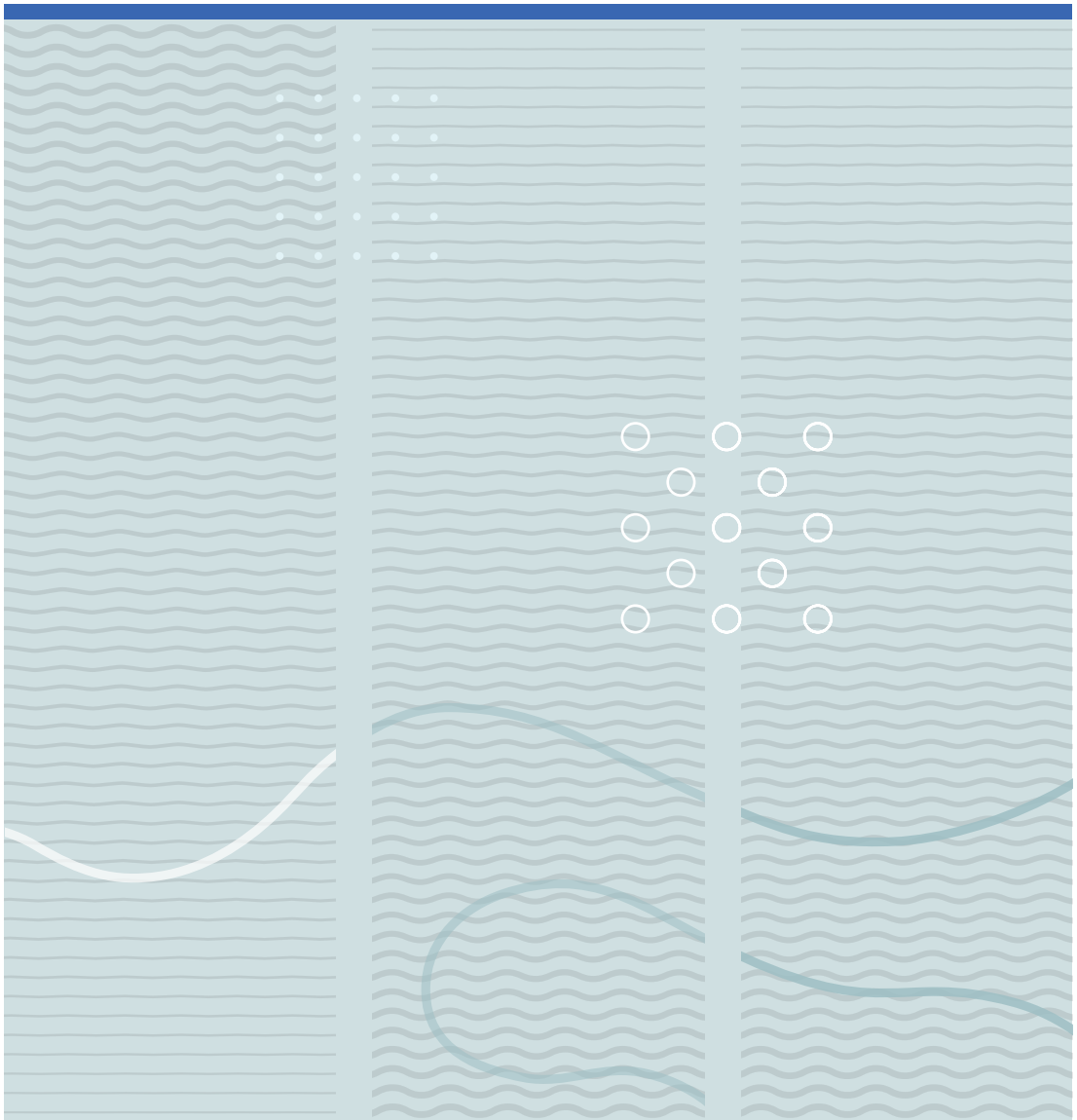Gro-Anita Myklevold

Multilingualism in mainstream language education in Norway: Perceptions and operationalizations

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Gro-Anita Myklevold

Multilingualism in mainstream language education in Norway:

Perceptions and operationalizations

A PhD dissertation in
Culture Studies

Acknowledgements

Abstract

Keywords: *Perceptions of multilingualism, operationalizations of multilingualism, multilingual teaching and learning, multilingual pedagogy, plurilingualism.*

The present PhD-study has examined perceptions and operationalizations of multilingualism in mainstream language classrooms in Norway. It has investigated how students and teachers at the upper secondary schoollevel, and teacher educators at the university level perceive multilingualism, both through operationalizations from The Common European Framework of References (CEFR) and through representations of multilingualism in the curriculum reform (LK20). The PhD-study is article-based and consists of three published articles and an extended abstract. The extended abstract provides a background for the studies and contains a conceptual framework, a literature review, a description of research design and methodology, some ethical deliberations and a discussion of the results.

In Study 1 (Article 1), a classroom-based intervention approach was explored in a class of 19 students and their teacher of German and English, involving the use of four specific operationalizations of multilingualism from CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018, pp. 157-160), one of which was the "capacity to use knowledge of familiar languages to understand new languages, looking for cognates and internationalisms". The students were ultimately asked to use some of these operationalizations in a text comprehension task at the end of the intervention. The main aim of the study was to explore how multilingualism can be operationalized and to examine the teacher's and the students' perceptions of the usefulness of the operationalizations. The findings indicated that the operationalizations were perceived as useful by both the students and the teacher, but more useful for German (L3) than for English (L2). The operationalizations were viewed as beneficial for text comprehension and metacognition; but the teacher found it challenging to acquire knowledge of and about all the students' first languages.

In Study 2 (Article 2), four teachers and four teacher educators were recruited in order to interview them on their perceptions of multilingualism and the usefulness of the intervention carried out in Study 1, in order to provide richer descriptions on the question of possible uses of multilingualism in the classroom. In addition to the question on the usefulness of the lesson plan, I probed into the informants' understanding of the multilingual construct generally with a

view to deepen and broaden the perspective on what multilingualism may mean in a Norwegian language teaching and learning context. As a major finding in Study 2 showed that the research participants had experienced a "shift" in their thinking towards multilingualism and found the newly issued LK20 curriculum to provide ample opportunities for the promotion and operationalization of multilingualism, it was a natural step to move on to a document analysis of LK20 and scrutinize the documents behind the curriculum reform in Article 3.

Therefore, in Study 3 (Article 3) my co-author Heike Speitz and I conducted a document analysis of LK20 to analyze which aspects of multilingualism that were represented in the Core curriculum and in the subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian in LK20, and we also carried out two focus groups with three teachers in each, to test how these aspects of multilingualism in LK20 were perceived by teachers of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian. The findings indicated that there is a gap between the intentions of the ideological curriculum and the perceived and experiential curricula of teachers and students, as when LK20 states that "All pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large", the teachers report that this normative assumption may place too much responsibility on different stakeholders such as students, as some are reluctant to display their multilingual repertoires in class. Multilingualism is also conceptualized in a different way in the three language subject curricula of English, Foreign Languages and Norwegian, and lacks clear operationalizations, which may explain why teachers report that, despite being positive towards linguistic diversity, they are insecure concerning the operationalization of multilingualism in their classrooms

To sum up, the three articles provide empirical evidence of how teachers and students perceive and make sense of multilingualism in a foreign language education setting. The three studies all concentrate on ways in which teachers, teacher educators and students understand, or find it challenging to understand, the multilingual construct. The studies also contribute empirical knowledge relating on the fact that even though the teachers are positive towards multilingualism as a concept, the teachers lack support and competence to implement it in their classrooms. The study also indicated that both present and future teachers need more support in implementing a multilingual pedagogy in the future.

List of papers

Article 1

Operationalizing Multilingualism in A Foreign Language Classroom in Norway: Opportunities and Challenges (2022). In A. Krulatz, G. Neokleous & A. Dahl (Eds.), *Educational Implications of Classroom-based Research on Teaching Foreign Languages in Multilingual Settings*. *Multilingual Matters* (pp. 320-339).

Article 2

«That is a big shift for us»: Teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations (2021). *Globe: A Journal of Language, Culture, and Communication, 12*, 67-82.

Article 3

Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap? (2021). *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning, 9*(2), 25-50. https://doi.org/10.46364/njltl.v9i2.947

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Abbreviations

A1	Basic user in CEFR
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CoE	The Council of Europe
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
GFL	German as a Foreign Language
GSP	General Studies Programme
LK06	Læreplanverket for Kunnskapsløftet [The Knowledge Promotion curriculum reform]
LK20	Fagfornyelsen [The curriculum reform]
L1	First language
L2	Second language
L3/Lx	Third language or more
MER	Ministry of Education and Research
ML	Multilingualism
UDIR	Utdanningsdirektoratet [Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training]
Vg1	1.klasse på videregående skole [The first year of upper secondary school]

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Article 1

Operationalizing Multilingualism in A Foreign Language Classroom in Norway: Opportunities and Challenges (2022). In A. Krulatz, G. Neokleous & A. Dahl (Eds.), *Educational Implications of Classroom-based Research on Teaching Foreign Languages in Multilingual Settings. Multilingual Matters* (pp. 320-339).

Article 2

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Part I

Extended abstract

Chapter 1: Introduction

"Teacher, who is Askeladden?"

1.1 General background

Globalization and increased mobility have led to demographic changes and 'superdiversity' (Vertovec, 2007) regarding linguistic traits in many parts of the world. This has caused a growing interest in multilingualism, which is often understood as either "the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one 'variety of language'", or as "the repertoire of varieties that many individuals use" (Council of Europe, 2007, p. 8). However, since it is often difficult to pin down exactly what a 'language' is, and how to separate the individual's use of this from its social context, multilingualism is a complex concept which comprises several ideological, social, cultural, political and epistemological issues. Multilingualism has nevertheless achieved an increasingly significant role in language education the two last decades and through *the multilingual turn* (Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2014) it has changed "the conditions under which foreign languages (FLs) are taught, learned, and used" (Kramsch, 2015, p. 296). The multilingual turn implies that there has been a transition from a monolingual perspective, with a focus on the native speaker as the point of reference, to an emphasis on the "dynamic, hybrid and transnational linguistic repertoires of multilingual […] speakers" (May, 2014, p. 1). Within the multilingual turn, languages are seen as learning resources, status and power are understood to be inherently intertwined with language use; and learners are perceived as multifaceted social and multilingual agents (Meier, 2016).

As I returned to teaching English in upper secondary school in Norway in 2017, after almost ten years as a teacher educator at the university level, I was not prepared for how much contemporary language classrooms had altered in terms of how heterogeneous they had become. The linguistic and cultural diversity in mainstream classrooms both fascinated and puzzled me. When attempting to develop a lesson plan in English and Norwegian to teach a mainstream class of 32 students with 8 different first languages, I encountered several challenges and few solutions to what multilingualism can entail and how I could concretely cater for a multilingual pedagogy in such a diverse class of 16-year-olds, including several languages I had no knowledge of. The teacher colleagues I asked reported that they had little

experience with multilingualism, the textbooks I perused offered little advice, and the research studies I examined were often theoretically, not empirically, founded.

As an attempt at testing out multilingual pedagogy, I developed a lesson plan containing a short film with a fairy tale topic and the inclusion of three different languages: Norwegian, English and Urdu. The film contained references to Little Red Riding Hood and to the national Norwegian fairy tale hero Askeladden. Both the students with and without Norwegian as their first language (L1) were eagerly participating in writing and speaking activities around cultural and literary stereotypes stereotypes during the lesson, but I soon discovered a flaw in my approach as one of my students with another L1 than Norwegian drew me aside and asked me just before the lesson had ended: "*Teacher, who is Askeladden?*" The flaw consisted of at least three major misconceptions. Firstly, I had presupposed that all the students, who possessed good Norwegian oral skills shared the same cultural and linguistic references. Secondly, I had not systematically mapped the previously learnt languages of my students in order to scaffold these references by for example activating connotations to Turkish fairytales or other non-Norwegian Askeladden characters. Thirdly, I was not sufficiently updated on the multilingual turn in language education, which foregrounds "the superdiverse linguistic contexts" (May, 2014, p. 1), and which distinctly had made its entry into the lives of both individuals and institutions (Conteh & Meier, 2014). I was therefore left with the gnawing suspicion that even though the student demography had changed, I – and perhaps other language teachers with me – had not changed our language pedagogy.

The monolingual school structure further accentuated this, as i) there was no time or resources allocated to further education or courses for teachers in multilingual pedagogy, ii) there was no time assigned for teacher collaboration across languages, iii) the language subjects were strictly separated in fixed timetables, and iv) the high-stakes, monolingual assessment practices guided much of the teaching. I was therefore, despite quite extensive teaching experience, left with a feeling of perplexity, insecurity, and even inadequacy as I lacked tools for conducting systematic teaching for linguistically diverse classes. It also made me reflect on the diversity of the students' backgrounds in classrooms in general, regardless of national origin or L1, for example how many students were not familiar with fairytale references, or other academic terminology that teachers frequently use, and how equitable does that make education? Nonetheless, this experience served as a 'reality check' for me, both as a teacher and teacher

educator, and it inspired the investigation of what was to become the two main foci in my PhD-study: i) how multilingualism is perceived by stakeholders and ii) how multilingualism can be operationalized in a mainstream educational setting.

1.2 The Norwegian context

Mainstream classrooms are, for the purpose of this study, used to refer to the regular or general classrooms of public schools in Norway, where English, Foreign languages and Norwegian are treated as individual subjects, each having their own separate curricula[1]. The Norwegian school system is mainly public, and only around four per cent of pupils attend private schools (Mejlbo, 2020). Moreover, four per cent receive special needs training in separate classes (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2021), and few are also given separate classes in English and foreign languages. This means that mainstream classrooms are inclusive, comprising fairly diverse types of learners, regardless of national or international background.

Furthermore, in Norwegian schools, all students juggle several languages from an early age (Haukås & Speitz, 2020; Haukås, 2022), as they learn English simultaneously with Norwegian from 1st grade as 6-year-olds, and later on learn two written varieties of Norwegian, called *Nynorsk* (based on local dialects) and *Bokmål* (based on Danish). Most students can also understand Swedish and Danish as they also read Swedish and Danish texts in original versions, which may be related to *receptive multilingualism* (Thije & Zeevaert 2007, p. 1). Moreover, a great majority of the students learn an additional foreign language from 8th grade onwards. In addition, many students have other home languages than Norwegian, and several others have strong regional and local dialects. Due to all this, the Norwegian school system may in many respects be viewed as a multilingual and dialect paradise (Haukås, 2022; Svendsen, 2021).

The Norwegian term for multilingualism, *flerspråklighet* in Norwegian policy documents has traditionally been associated exclusively with minority language students and denoted a

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[1] In Norway, English as a school subject has special status and is regarded by the national educational authorities as different from all other foreign languages. However, the educational authorities do not concretely use the term «second language» either, so English may seem to possess a complex, middle position. Nevertheless, in this thesis I will follow Simensen (2014) and refer to English as a foreign language.

reductionist view of language learning, focusing on what the students lack, instead of what they bring to the learning situation (Sickinghe, 2016). Similar findings in Sweden have been reported by Lundberg (2019), where only students who did not have Swedish as their L1 were regarded multilingual, This deficiency-view may be detrimental to the students' learning, not only in languages, but also in their learning in general (Turner, 2019, p. 6). Interestingly, according to Sickinghe, the minority language students themselves conceptualize and operationalize multilingualism differently than these policy documents, and therefore:

> [t]o establish more including language education policy discourses, a more precise, multilingually oriented and consistently applied terminology should be used when referring to the different categories of multilingual language users in the Norwegian school system (Sickinghe, 2013, p. 111).

I will return to the different use of terminology in Chapter 2, and students' perceptions of multingualism in Chapter 3. Even though multilingualism has been defined and perceived differently by researcher and educational stakeholders, it is still a pedagogical idea that has been embraced – in varying degrees – in schools' language curricula all around Europe (Kalaja & Pitkänen-Huhta, 2020), and Norway is no exception. During the past two decades, Norwegian curricula, in the educational reforms in 2006 (hereafter: LK06), and in 2020 (hereafter: LK20), have emphasized the importance of multilingualism, particularly the latter reform LK20.

As opposed to previous approaches where only learners with a minority language background were considered multilingual, the Norwegian LK20 curriculum reform, which was implemented halfway through my PhD-project in 2020, is based on a more inclusive view of multilingualism, where *all* students are regarded as multilingual, both minority language and majority language students. LK20 is curriculum-based, consisting of a number of learning objectives – or "competence aims" – which stipulate what students are to work with at different levels in order to develop their competence (see also Appendix 1). An example of such a competence aim, from the Curriculum in English after Vg1 (16-17-year-olds) is to be able to "use knowledge of similarities between English and other languages with which the pupil is familiar in language learning» (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, hereafter MER, 2019b, p. 11), and an aim from the Curriculum in Foreign Languages after level 1 (16-17-year-olds), is to: "use relevant learning and communication strategies, digital resources and experiences from earlier language learning in the learning process" (MER, 2019c, p. 4). These

competence aims apply to all students in mainstream classrooms. The overarching Core curriculum, which is common for all of the subject curricula within LK20 also states that "All pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large" (MER, 2017, p. 5). The idea that all students are multilingual has received increasing support by scholars, both in Norway and internationally (Fisher et al., 2018; Haukås, 2022).

However, as I will return to in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, there are indications that the formulations pertaining to multilingualism in the curricula are somewhat general and vague, that teaching materials have not been sufficiently well developed, and that teachers are still insecure of how to work with multilingualism in their classrooms (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Haukås, 2016, Šurkalovic, 2014, Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022). Therefore, an issue that remains unclear for the practice field, is the operationalization of multilingualism in the classroom, that is *how* teachers and students can draw on this linguistic diversity concrete and manageable to make use of in the classroom in order to improve their own language teaching and learning.

1.3 Research problem

As stakeholders struggle to make sense of what multilingualism is and how it can be put to use in the foreign language classroom in Norway (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Haukås, 2016, Tishakov and Tsagari, 2022), this thesis focuses on the following problem statement:

What can multilingualism mean in a concrete (foreign) language classroom[2]?

The problem statement has been investigated through three separate studies, and has been reported in Article 1, 2 and 3 (see Part II, below). Through investigating what multilingualism can entail in a (foreign) language teaching and learning setting in mainstream classrooms, the aim of this PhD-project has been to assist students, teachers and teacher educators in making

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[2] By using '(foreign) language classroom', I indicate that the emphasis here is on language education in general, and that languages are viewed holistically, not atomistically (Cenoz, 2013, p. 10). Even though much of my data has been collected in a foreign language classroom, teachers of English, Norwegian, Spanish, French and German, with several different L1s, have also been participating, encouraging a cross-curricular approach.

practical sense of the educational policies and research promoting multilingualism, and consequently, to try to assist in mending the gap between research and educational policies on the one side, and actual classroom practices on the other (Cummins & Persad 2014; Lundberg 2019).

In order to do so, it is important to increase our understanding of how multilingualism can be a) perceived by important educational stakeholders, b) operationalized in the language classroom and c) represented in the new curriculum reform LK20, which is what I have done in the current PhD-study. The rationale for choosing this research focus is further supported by the fact that the construct of multilingualism is conceptualized differently in the international research literature (Berthelé, 2021a; Kemp, 2009). Against this background, the following, overarching research questions (RQs) were developed:

1.3.1 Research questions

> RQ1: How do students, teachers and teacher educators perceive multilingualism and how can multilingualism be operationalized in a foreign language classroom?
>
> RQ2: What kind of representations of multilingualism are found in LK20, and how do teachers perceive these representations?

1.3.2 Choice of terminology

Three important terms that are consistently used in the present PhD-thesis are 'perceptions', 'operationalizations' and 'representations', and in the following I will elaborate on the choice of this terminology. The term 'perception' is used in a broad sense and denotes opinions and perspectives, sometimes used synonymously with 'beliefs' and 'attitudes' (Pajares, 1992, p. 307). Pettit (2011, p. 126) also includes attitudes in the definition of the word 'belief', which encompasses "many mental constructs such as knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions". Even though some researchers distinguish between knowledge and beliefs, the first containing a cognitive element and the latter an evaluative and affective element (Pettit, 2011), this usage may not be so straightforward, as it rules out the possibility that knowledge may also have an affective element (Kasulis, 2002). However, my understanding of the term 'perceptions'entails opinions, perspectives, beliefs, knowledge and attitudes, and all of these may be seen to contain affective elements. Even though "perceptions" and "beliefs" are used sometimes

interchangeably and sometimes as different constructs in the literature, it is nevertheless important to study them since they have a great impact on the ways teachers perceive their subjects, and on the choices they make pedagogically in their classrooms (Pettit, 2011, p. 124).

The term 'operationalization' is linked to the notion of *construct*, which in psychology refers to entities such as motivation, intelligence or self-efficacy (see e.g. Toivanen et al., 2021). These are entities which, as the word suggests, are 'constructed' or abstract (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Hence, they cannot be observed directly, but must be made concrete before we can study or work with them. Multilingualism is a good example of a construct. In order to implement or to investigate it, it must be made concrete, or to be *operationalized*, that is associated with "observable variables" (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 374). An example of an operationalization of multilingualism from Council of Europe (2018) is "[c]apacity to use knowledge of familiar languages to understand new languages, looking for *cognates* […] (p. 157, my emphasis)". Cognates, such as English 'man', Norwegian 'mann' are a very concrete way of making the multilingual construct usable or measurable in the language learning classroom, which is also what I did in the classroom-based intervention in Article 1 in this PhD-study (see section 4.3.1 below).

The term 'representation' (of multilingualism) on the other hand, is here viewed as *less* concrete than an operationalization, as when the Curriculum in English in LK20 (see Appendix 1) states that the pupils should be able "to compare English to other languages with which the pupil is familiar" (MER, 2019b). This is more difficult to test and measure than the use of cognates, and hence, I differentiate between these two terms according to the concreteness of the phenomena being studied. [3] How we can activate, observe and measure aspects of multilingualism is a pertinent issue in mainstream language education, as there are many learning opportunities embedded in activating the students' total language repertoires. Yet, as the concept seems somewhat slippery, there is a need to probe further into what multilingualism *can be* and *how* it can be operationalized in a mainstream foreign language learning and teaching setting.

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[3] However, I also recognize that there may be different levels of operationalizations, ranging from more to less concrete as on a continuum.

1.3.3 Brief overview of the research process

In my first article, as shown in the figure below, *RQ1* was examined, through a classroom-based intervention with 19 students and their teacher of German and English. Questionnaires and interviews were used to test how they perceived multilingualism in general, and how they perceived working with the intervention in particular. In my second article, *RQ1* was also analyzed here, this time with more teachers in order to probe more deeply into their understanding of the multilingual construct and broaden the perspective on what multilingualism may mean in a language teaching and learning context. Semi-structured, individual interviews with teachers and also teacher educators were used in order to scrutinize how they perceive multilingualism and operationalizations of multilingualism from CEFR and LK20. Lastly, in the third article, *RQ2* was investigated, utilizing document analysis to investigate how multilingualism is represented in the LK20 Core curriculum and in the three language subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian. Additionally, focus group interviews were employed to analyze how the teachers perceived these representations. The research foci and the internal coherence of the three articles in my PhD-dissertation may be illustrated visually in *Figure 1* as follows:
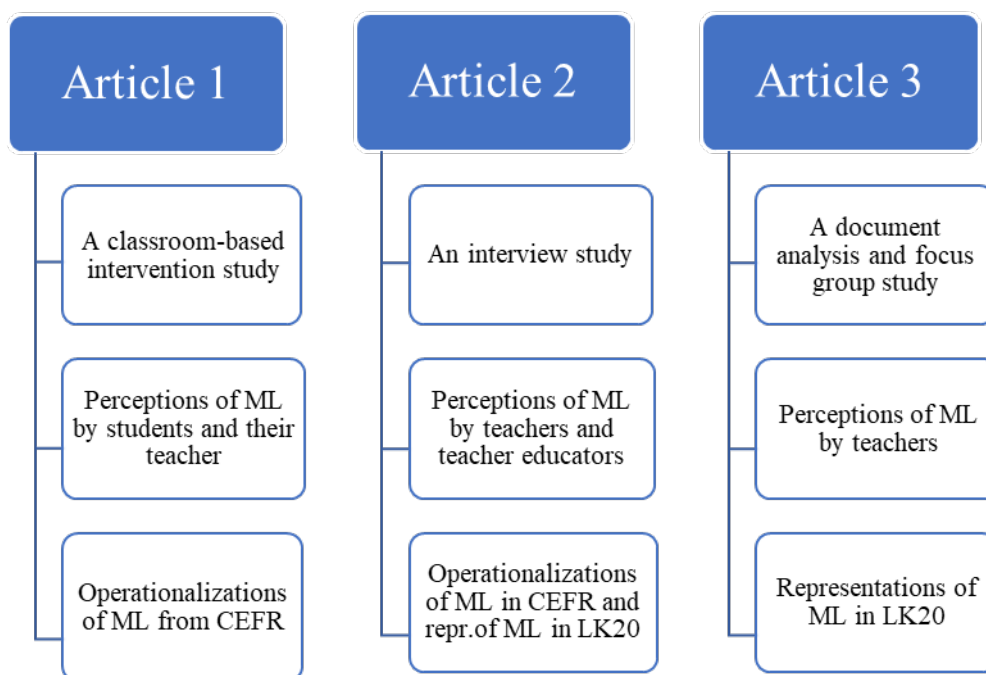
Figure 1. *Research foci of the three articles*

1.3.4 Chronological process of articles

All three articles in my PhD-study have been subjected to double-blind peer review and are published. There were significant differences in the publication processes regarding throughput of the articles, and therefore Article 1, which was commenced the earliest, was published as the last of the three articles, in 2022. When referring to the three articles, I will refer to them in the chronological order in which they were written:

1) Article 1: Myklevold (2022). Operationalizing Multilingualism in A Foreign Language Classroom in Norway: Opportunities and Challenges. *Educational Implications of Classroom-based Research on Teaching Foreign Languages in Multilingual Settings*. Bristol: *Multilingual Matters.*

2) Article 2: Myklevold (2021). «That is a big shift for us»: Teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations. *Globe: A Journal of Language, Culture, and Communication.* Aalborg: Aalborg University Press.

3) Article 3: Myklevold & Speitz (2021). Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap? *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning.* Kristiansand: University of Agder.

1.4 Structure of the extended abstract

The rest of the chapters in this extended abstract are structured in the following way: In chapter 2, different conceptual frameworks within the field of multilingualism are outlined. Since multilingualism is a multifaceted phenomenon and there are multiple definitions of the construct, it is necessary to ecplore "the exact meaning of items in our entrenched jargon" and "think more carefully about the meaning of the words we use" (Berthelé, 2021b, p. 8). Therefore, in chapter 2 terminology and theoretical conceptualizations of multilingualism will be discussed thoroughly, and a model of seven important dimensions of the construct will be presented. In chapter 3, a literature review will follow to place my studies in the field, and here I will have a specific focus on the Norwegian setting due to the contextual factors regarding the school system of mainstream language education. In chapter 4, a detailed description of the methods used in the three articles will be given, and I will show how the research design fits the nature of the PhD-study. In addition, I will critically assess the limitations of the research

design, as well as address some important ethical considerations. In chapter 5, the main findings of my studies are synthesized and discussed, and their pedagogical implications considered, as well as limitations and needs for future research. Finally, I conclude with some post-process reflections where I reflect on how my understanding of the construct of multilingualism has evolved, and still evolves, during this PhD-process over four years.

Chapter 2: Conceptual framework

2.1 Introduction to the chapter

In this chapter I will discuss the different conceptual frameworks of this dissertation. Multilingualism is a phenomenon that can be studied from several angles in different fields, such as linguistics, sociology, psychology, language policy, and language education (Meier & Smala, 2021). As I have investigated multilingualism theoretically and empirically in an authentic language classroom context, I place my study under multilingualism in education (Kirsch & Duarte, 2020), but also at the nexus of fields such as sociolinguistics, language policy and applied linguistics (Meier & Smala, 2021). These are all important perspectives when exploring language learning and different uses of languages in schools, language ideologies in curricula, and the pedagogical use of the students' languages in instruction (Duarte & van der Meij, 2018)

Since the construct of multilingualism is complex and may be defined in different ways, the construct needs to be clarified for the purpose of using and studying it. Therefore, in this chapter I will start by discussing some definitions of multilingualism, then describe some historical developments, followed by an attempt to unpack the construct by showing how different theoretical perspectives can inform our understanding of what multilingualism is. The chapter will end with a model I have designed based on Kemp (2009) and Cenoz (2013), which explains my understanding of the construct of multilingualism, and which is intended to shed light on the research foci of this thesis.

2.2 A brief reflection on the meanings of 'multilingualism'

Cenoz (2013) argues that multilingualism is not "a simple addition of languages but a phenomenon with its own characteristics" (p.14). Some of these characteristics are related to the competences of the multilinguals, like multicompetence (Cook, 1992), including dialects and registers (Haukås, 2022; Horner & Weber, 2018). Other characteristics refer to the actual practices of the multilinguals, like code-meshing (Canagarajah, 2011), translanguaging (Vogel & Garcia, 2017), metacognition (Haukås, 2018; Jessner, 2018), language learner investment

(Norton, 2016), as well as language identity (Cummins, 2000; Norton, 2010; 2016), and acknowledgement of linguistic and cultural diversity in education (Cummins & Persad, 2014).

Multilingualism is also highlighted as an asset, both in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001; 2018; 2020), and in curriculum reform in Norway (MER, 2006/2013; 2019). It may be used on the individual level and on the societal level. The Council of Europe defines individual multilingualism as the "repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use" (2007, p. 8), and is often referred to as 'plurilingualism'. As for the societal level, it may be seen as the presence of languages in an area, the ability to speak several languages and the use of several languages (Aronin, 2019, p. 3). The European Commission (2007) defines it as "the ability of societies, institutions, groups and individuals to engage, on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives" (p. 6) (see also section 2.4, below). The term 'multilingualism' is sometimes used interchangeably with 'plurilingualism', especially in the Anglo-American part of the research field, and sometimes used separately, often in the French-speaking part of the field, as when referring to individual multilingualism as plurilingualism (Kirsch & Duarte, 2020, p. 3).

The diverse uses of the term has made Berthelé warn the research community that we have to "think more carefully about the meaning of the words we use" (Berthelé, 2021a, p. 8). This is mirrored in Kemp (2009) who discusses the problem of the differing uses of terminology within the field, which she also partly links to the backgrounds of both the researchers and the participants, and to our research purposes:

> Differing definitions of multilingualism arise on account of two related groups of reasons: those deriving from participants' complex situation with regard to the nature of their use of various languages, and those deriving from researchers' differing backgrounds, ideologies and purposes. Most psycholinguistic researchers define multilingualism as the use of three or more languages, but this entails defining what a language is, which can be problematic. Researchers need to decide on the degree of proficiency and functional capability multilinguals are required to have for a language to count in their study […] (Kemp, 2009, p. 1).

Therefore, a discussion of the conceptualizations and definitions of multilingualism as regards the different dimensions of the construct (societal, individual, proficiency, frequency, etc.) will be pursued in the following, and the definition that I have used in the three studies will also be

elaborated on. First, however, I will take a look at the origin(s) of the term and how it has developed historically.

2.3 Multilingualism in a historical perspective

2.3.1 Multilingualism: Something old or something new?

Historically, it may be claimed that multilingualism is not a new phenomenon. Pavlenko (in press) argues that we suffer from "historic amnesia", meaning that that historic multilingualism receives too little attention in the field. She opposes the well-established credo that our world is now more multilingual than ever before, by showing us examples of established multilingual societies in Ptolemaic Egypt, the Roman Empire, Norman Sicily and the Austro-Hungarian Empire (Pavlenko, 2021). This is supported by Franceschini (2011, p. 345), who claims that European cultures have been multilingual for many centuries, but that this notion has evaded scientific scrutiny due to the formation of nation states and the idea of 'one nation, one language' in the 17th and 18th centuries. However, this is partly refuted by other scholars, who claim that multilingualism today has a more crucial and central presence in contemporary societies, and that we have greater tolerance for linguistic diversity than before (Lo Bianco & Aronin, 2020). It may also be argued that even if multilingualism may be as old as mankind, "it has been catapulted to a new world order in the 21st century" (The Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 19). Even so, Berthelé for his part, questions whether the phenomenon of multilingualism is so unique when he argues that "[m]ultilingualism could also be special because its frequency of occurrence has changed", and that it may have been "frequent in the past without it being acknowledged as such" (Berthelé, 2021b, p. 6). He goes on to thematize whether the phenomenon has just changed, or whether we today have shifted our attitudes and research methods regarding languages:

> […] multilingualism may be considered special today because society's attitudes toward the use and learning of multiple languages has changed. Lastly, multilingualism may simply be special because of new and different scholarly takes on it. The scholarly discourse of the last decades provides us with (partially) new frameworks, theories, and methods that arguably account better for the complexity of the phenomenon (regardless of the question whether it is a new or an old phenomenon), or that allow us to understand the phenomenon in a completely new light" (Berthelé, 2021b, pp. 6-7).

In other words, according to Berthelé, there seems to be no consensus in the field about whether multilingualism is old or new. Nevertheless, as new research methods have been developed, they will bring new research designs and new theories, and as a result, new understandings of the phenomenon of multilingualism. But these new, multifarious ways of both defining multilingualism and designing research within the field, may also bring some challenges, as discussed in 2.4 below.

2.3.2 From bilingualism to multilingualism

Bilingualism and the focus on individuals mastering two languages simultaneously came under increased scrutiny in the mid-20th century as societies, especially in Europe and North-America, started to receive more immigrants and therefore felt the need to examine bilingualism through political, economic and linguistic lenses (Singleton & Aronin, 2019). Dewaele (2015) claims that the early definitions of bilingualism were narrow and clearly based on a monolingual bias, meaning that a bilingual was supposed to master two languages equally well, on a native-like level. However, already in 1956 the pioneer Einar Haugen, in his research on bilingualism in America, claimed that it was not necessary to distinguish between the terms 'bilingualism' and 'multilingualism' (de Bot & Jaensch, 2013, p. 2). To Haugen, being bilingual/multilingual simply meant being fluent in one language and to be able to communicate meaningful sentences in another language. Despite Haugen's idea that full mastery of both languages was not important, scholars until very recently have continued to discuss the procificency criterion as a prerequisite for being defined as a bilingual.

In another approach, Grosjean (2010) focused more on use than proficiency and viewed bilingualism as «the use of two or more languages (or dialects) in [a language user's] everyday life» (p. 4). He also famously pointed out that a bilingual is more than just two monolinguals in one, and that rather than focusing on balanced competency in both languages, one should concentrate on the purposes of why bilinguals need their two languages and how they acquire and use them (Grosjean, 2010). This broader view of bi/multilingualism is also mirrored in Turner (2019), who includes bilingual learners in her definition of who the multilinguals are:

> We are all multilingual in a sense: even if we identify as only speaking one language, we use different styles, modes, registers and non-linguistic cues in different contexts. However, I use multilingualism to refer to the leveraging and expanding of students' communicative repertoires through the inclusion of different languages across the curriculum. Bilingual learners are included in this idea of multilingualism […] (Turner, 2019, pp. 7-8).

The increased interest in how bilingualism and multilingualism interrelate, is also portrayed in Aronin (2019), who elaborates on the relationship between the two terms when claiming that:

> [t]he term multilingualism is used here to refer to the use of three and more languages and is distinguished, where appropriate, from bilingualism, the use of two languages. In this perspective bilingualism is taken to be a special case of multilingualism rather than vice versa (Aronin, 2019, p. 3).

Aronin here sets a a quantitative measure of three and more languages in order to be multilingual. However, the act of counting how many languages a person knows is also problematic, since it depends on how we define proficiency in a language and indeed how we conceptualize the complex construct of *language* itself. It may also be argued that «there is no real distinction between languages and dialects» (de Bot & Jaensch, 2013, p. 2) and that since the same psycholinguistic processes are used, both languages, styles and registers may be incorporated into a definition of what a language is (De Bot & Jaensch, 2013, p. 2). The difficulties in pinning down what languages constitute and how they may be categorized have led scholars to argue that «the idea of perfect mastery and perfect balance of two or more languages is no longer considered a requirement to be bilingual or multilingual» (Cenoz, 2013, p. 6).

In addition, rather broad definitions of the language dimension of bi/multilingualism seem to be adopted by several scholars, including dialects and registers (Haukås, 2022, Horner & Weber, 2018; Forbes et al., 2021), and both bilingualism and multilingualism may be considered as a continuum rather than as fixed categories (Dewaele, 2015). For example, Horner & Weber call multilingualism "a matter of degree" and state that "since we all use different linguistic varieties, registers, styles, genres and accents, we are all to a greater or

lesser degree multilingual" (Horner & Weber, 2018, p. 3). This, in turn, may also be problematized, as this broad conceptualization of including everyone as multilingual may be said to diminish its explanatory power (Svendsen, 2021, p. 56).

2.4 The multilingual turn

The multilingual turn in language learning refers, as touched upon in section 1.1, to the transition from a monolingual perspective, with a focus on the native speaker as the point of reference, to an emphasis on the "dynamic, hybrid and transnational linguistic repertoires of multilingual […] speakers" (May, 2014, p. 1). This is a development that has even been termed a "paradigm shift" by some scholars (Prada & Turnbull, 2018, p. 23). A paradigm shift may be understood as "a conceptual or methodological change in the theory or practice of a particular science or discipline" (Oxford English Dictionary, n.d.), and according to Kuhn (1996), as paradigms are incommensurable, the development of a new paradigm involves a revolution and a radical break away from the old one. In terms of the multilingual turn, the break included the abandonement of the monolingual ideals. However, Kuhn also claims that paradigm shifts are subjective, and truth is therefore relative to the paradigm. In a pre-paradigmatic state, Kuhn argues that no scientific consensus has been agreed upon, and that there is an ongoing discussion over the fundamentals in the field. As this may apply to the field of multilingualism (Berthelé, 2021a; de Bot & Jaensch, 2013; Kemp, 2009), it might be the case that the multilingual turn is in an early stage of a new paradigm within language learning.

However, as Meier (2016) notes, there have been many turns within language learning before, perhaps the most notable ones the cognitive turn in the 1980s, based on Chomsky's theories on the individual's cognitive processes, and the social turn put forward by Firth & Wagner (1997), which argued that language learning was also dependent on social processes and practices. Meier argues that "[t]his has led to ontological differences of how we conceptualise and understand language, learners and language learning» (Meier 2016, p. 132). Regarding the multilingual turn, Meier (2016) also scrutinized two of the main contributions concerning this turn: May (2014) and Conteh & Meier (2014). These two seminal books on the topic were analyzed and some common denominators in how multilingualism was conceptualized were identified:

> […] authors, associated with the multilingual turn, conceive languages as a resource for learning and as associated with status and power; the learners as diverse multilingual and social practitioners; and learning as a multilingual social practice based on theoretical pluralism, consistently guided by critical perspectives. While theoretically relatively well established, the multilingual turn faces important challenges that hamper its translation into mainstream practice, namely popularly accepted monolingual norms and a lack of guidance for teachers (Meier, 2016, p. 1).

Interestingly, there are indications that within the multilingual turn, there is theoretical pluralism and the multilingual turn is well established theoretically. At the same time, it is better established within theory than in practice, and two of the major obstacles in implementing the multilingual turn in schools, are identified as monolingual attitudes and a lack of support for teachers (Meier, 2016, p. 1). This discrepancy between theory and practice is a major reason why I have employed a distinctive *praxis* orientation in the current PhD-study. Within a praxis orientation "theory and research are accountable to practice; praxis represents a unity of theory and practice wherein they inform one another and change together" (Poehner & Inbar-Lourie, 2020, pp. 3-4). I will return to this point in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

2.5 Multilingual repertoire: Separate languages or unitary systems?

Yet another complex problem within the field is whether languages should be viewed as separate or as unitary language systems. Cook uses the term 'multicompetence' to describe "the compound state of a mind with two grammars" (Cook, 1991, p. 112). He argues that L2 users are different from monolinguals in that they can frequently codeswitch, i.e. alternate between two or more languages or language varieties when speaking or writing, and in that they have different cognitive and metalinguistic awareness (Cook, 2016). He also claims that since proficiency in L2 is related to proficiency in L1, and since both languages are stored in the same compartments in the brain, there may be a merged, unitary language system (Cook, 2016). However, he claims that this is an unresolved issue. Some scholars go even further, such as Canagarajah, as Pennycook (2013) notes, and claims that language «does not exist as a system out there. It is constantly brought into being in each context of communication» (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 91).

Most theories focusing on languages as unbounded and dynamic seem to build on the concept of *heteroglossia* (Schissel et al., 2019). Through a heteroglossic lense, all languages are viewed as *one* common repertoire, and multilingualism is seen as the rule, not the exception, moving away from the traditional hegemony of monolingualism. Communicative competence is seen as "fluid and dynamic language practices and rejects the privileging of native speaker idealisms, instead defining a linguistic system as a unitary system of one's linguistic repertoire […]" (Schissel et al., 2019, p. 2). In other words, multilinguals are seen to have a complex, dynamic, fluid and common repertoire for all of the languages each individual possesses. Thus, according to Herdina & Jessner (2013) it "renders conventional approaches to L1 and L2 acquisition ineffective" (p. 755). Consequently, some scholars advocate the use of dynamic systems models. Herdina & Jessner, for example, argue that a dynamic model of multilingualism (DMM) is needed, since otherwise, monolingual, rather than multilingual norms will be applied in the field:

> [T]he multilingual speaker/hearer is not seen as three or more monolinguals in one person but rather is accepted as a linguistically unique human being. To achieve this goal it is necessary that multilingual rather than monolingual norms be applied in multilingualism research. Yet, to date, most linguists inadvertently continue to apply monolingual norms, when conducting research on bi- and multilingualism, which means that, among other aspects, native-speaker language proficiency is still used as the yardstick for all the languages of the multilingual person, and the multilingual subject and their languages are investigated without taking all the languages in contact into consideration (…) (Herdina & Jessner, 2013, p. 754-755).

In other words, the use of complexity theory, such as Herdina and Jessner's (2013), requires a new way to approach the study of languages and how to do research on multilingualism. Cenoz (2013) also touches on this as she distinguishes between atomistic and holistic views of multilingualism (p. 10). Cenoz claims that atomistic research focuses only on one language and one feature (e.g. lexis) at the time, "even if proficiency in two or three languages is analyzed" (2013, p. 10). On a similar note, concerning L3 acquisition, De Bot and Jaensch claim that it is futile to study just one single language in the multilingual system because the languages of multilinguals should be studied holistically, and over time:

> While linguistic and psycholinguistic studies suggest differences in the processing of a third, compared to the first or second language, neurolinguistic research has shown that generally the same areas of the brain are activated during language use in proficient

multilinguals. It is concluded that while from traditional linguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives there are grounds to differentiate monolingual, bilingual and multilingual processing, a more dynamic perspective on language processing in which development over time is the core issue, leads to a questioning of the notion of languages as separate entities in the brain (De Bot and Jaensch, 2015, p. 1).

However, even though several studies suggest that multilinguals have one common multilingual system in the brain, other studies have criticized this view, arguing that language categories exist and that they «cannot simply be nullified by ignoring them" (Busch, 2012; in Schissel et al., 2019, p. 374). This is an interesting point, especially concerning multilingualism in education, since languages are predominantly taught separately in different classrooms with target language training as a main focus. Berthelé (2021a) elaborates further on the epistemological and scientific aspects of this when he notes that:

> [f]inally, at the risk of sounding old-fashioned, shifting the regard away from countable languages in the repertoire when analyzing multilingual classrooms also means shifting away from testable hypotheses on language development in the categories relevant to policy makers, teachers, parents, and learners. Unless the whole language curriculum is revolutionized and subjects such as «Spanish» or «English» are replaced by «Translanguaging», the approach is unlikely to produce any research that will be meaningful for future better educational policies in (multiple) language learning (Berthelé, 2021a, p. 100).

Berthelé refers to translanguaging in the quote above, and translanguaging entails a radical shift away from viewing languages as separate categories, promoting the blending of – and simultaneous use of - multiple languages. Translanguaging is both a theory and a language pedagogy (Vogel & Garcia, 2017), and it was first coined by Williams (1994) when he described a practice using English and Welsh systematically and simultaneously in the same language lesson, for example through reading a text in English as input and letting the students communicate the content in Welsh as output. In line with the unitary language system hypothesis mentioned above, translanguaging posits that, rather than having several autonomous language systems in the brain,

> […] all users of language, select and deploy particular features from a unitary linguistic repertoire to make meaning and to negotiate particular communicative contexts. Translanguaging also represents an approach to language pedagogy that affirms and

leverages students' diverse and dynamic language practices in teaching and learning (Vogel & Garcia, 2017, p. 1).

Obviously, and interestingly, the two different views of languages as either separate entitities in the brain *or* as a common language repertoire may be seen to clash. They may therefore, as noted by Berthelé, provide us with different hypotheses about languages, as well as very different research designs and interpretations of findings in studies on multilingualism. A part of this problem, as Garcia & Lin (2016) note, is that there are two competing theoretical positions within translanguaging; a 'weak' and a 'strong' version. The weak version builds on linguistic interdependence (Cummins, 1998), a position that recognizes national states and language boundaries, whereas the strong version argues against such boundaries and claim that people "do not speak languageS, but rather use their repertoire of linguistic features selectively" (Garcia & Lin, 2016, pp. 15-16). This may bring translanguaging, and indeed the whole field of multilingualism to fall into "a conceptual trap" (Schissel et al., 2019, p. 2), as even the term multilingualism itself presupposes named languages (Li Wei, 2018).

Since there are so many different ways of understanding and operationalizing multilingualism, with scholars either regarding languages as separate entities or as a common underlying multilingual proficiency (Cummins, 1981), either including only minority students or both majority and minority students, the comparisons of many studies in the field is made difficult since they often are both conceptually, ontologically and epistemologically different. I will return to this in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4.

The points discussed above may be indexical of the start of a new pre-paradigm within the field (Berthelé, 2021a; Kuhn, 1996), as mentioned in section 2.3.3, where new methodologies and epistemologies may replace old ones in the field (Berthelé, 2021a; De Bot & Jaensch, 2013; Kemp, 2009). However, a transition to a new paradigm may require time and longitudinal studies with a common and rigorous epistemological understanding, which is difficult in a multi-theoretical field such as multilingualism. Nevertheless, the debate about whether languages are bounded systems or not, is at the very centre of much of the theoretical discussion within the field of multilingualism and the ontological outlook in this matter affects the overarching scientific frameworks of studies, in the sense that it may influence how research

studies were designed, which participants were included, which literature was reviewed and which theories were used.

Moreover, translaguaging has specific political and ideological focus on minority language students and marginalized groups of people, and attempts "to disrupt the hierarchies that have delegitimized the language practices of those who are minoritized" (Vogel & Garcia, 2017, p. 1). Although very important foci in a rights-perspective, these are not aspects that can always be easily transferred into doing research on the entire student demography in a mainstream, obligatory educational setting, as I have done in my studies. These classrooms consist of both minority and majority language students, or current and emerging multilinguals, who have either been subjected to a biographic or curricular multilingualism, or both (Lundberg, 2019, p. 97), and my focus is on the latter. However, in a weak version of translanguaging, where there is a systematic use of several languages, for example in a classroom where one is asked to use all previously learnt languages in order to understand a text in a new language, this may be a theoretical perspective that incorporates a resource-perspective which involves the entire student demography of the class.

2.6 Multilingualism as a resource in language policy, curricula and practice

As mentioned above, Norwegian language policy and curricula have been distinctly influenced shaped by the Council of Europe (Simensen, 2010). As the Council of Europe promotes multilingualism, both the Core curriculum of LK20 and the three most prominent language curricula in mainstream classrooms, Norwegian, English, and Foreign languages, all include features of multilingualism (see Appendix 1). More specifically, this multilingualism-as-a-resource orientation (Ruiz, 1984; De Jong et al., 2016; 2019) is common for scholars promoting the multilingual turn (Meier, 2016) and is also echoed in the Curriculum for Norwegian: "[M]ultilingualism is valued as a resource" (MER, 2019a), in the Curriculum for English: "The pupils shall experience that the ability to speak several languages is an asset at school and in society in general" (MER, 2019b) and in the Curriculum for Foreign Languages: "The subject shall help the pupils to gain an understanding of linguistic and cultural diversity. Through the subject, the pupils shall be allowed to experience that multilingualism is an asset, both in school

and in society at large" (MER 2019c). These formulations are normative in the way that they state "The pupils shall…" and thus clearly ideologically adhering to the multilingual turn.

However, the concept of multilingualism is also represented in different ways in the LK20, where the Curriculum for English focuses on comparative language use and intercultural communication, whereas in Foreign Languages the focus is on language learning strategies, and in Norwegian the focus is on linguistic identity. Moreover, in the Norwegian school system there may be tendencies towards a linguistic hierarchy where certain languages are valued as resources (such as English and the traditional foreign languages), whereas others (such as some of the central immigrant languages, like Somali and Polish) are not (Svendsen, 2021). According to Sickinghe (2016), descriptions of "minority language" and "multilingual/flerspråklig" in Norwegian policy documents and the general educational discourse are by many associated with deficient Norwegian knowledge and non-western backgrounds, which in turn brings a danger that the students will avoid labelling themselves as multilingual to avoid being identified as such (Sickinghe, 2016). The current study, then, must be understood against this backdrop, where multilingualism is defined as a resource in policy documents, and all languages are ostensibly regarded as equally important, but where there may be perceived differences in language status among stakeholders in the educational system.

As for the nature and purposed of curricula, Goodlad et al. (1979) view curriculum theory as "the study of decision-making processes at all the levels […]: societal, institutional, instructional, and personal" (p. 51). In the present PhD-study, Goodlad et al.'s (1979) theories on curriculum practice and substantive domains have been employed, incorporating the levels of a) the *ideological curriculum* (the ideas that evolve from idealistic planning processes), b) the *formal* curriculum (the official syllabus), c) the *perceived* curricula (the teachers' perceptions), d) the *operational* curricula (how curricula is operationalized by teachers) and e) the *experiential* curricula (how curricula is experienced by students). All of these levels are relevant in my analyses, with a) – c) perhaps being most prominent. Some of these levels are interconnected, however, for example. when the teachers talk about how they work with (or struggle to work with) multilingual pedagogy, there is also a *self-reported* operational level employed. In addition, when the teachers talk about how their students experience multilingualism in the classroom, there is an *indirect* experiential level involved, and Goodlad

et al. also state that "the operational, too, is a perceived curriculum; it exists in the eye of the beholder (1979, p. 62).

In addition, some scholars argue that there is a distinct discrepancy between multilingualism in policy and multilingualism in practice (Cummins & Persad, 2014; Lundberg, 2019). Saville even claims that «[P]olicy-making has not kept pace with contemporary views on language practices […]», and that «[…] language education in European schools is not equipping the majority of students with the language skills that policy makers have in mind and that there is a need to rethink the policies» (Saville, 2019, p. 1). In other words, Saville argues that the macro level of language politics is not aligned with the micro level of individuals and not adjusted to how these individuals, both inside and outside of school, actually use their languages. He uses assessment as a case in point, where he claims that national tests are not aligned with broader policy aims (Saville, 2019), which is also mirrored in De Korne (2012). There is also a discrepancy between language policy promoting multilingual aims and schools' largely monolingual mindsets and traditions (Lundberg, 2019).

2.7 A Model of Multilingualism (MoM)

On the basis of all these different definitions, and building on Kemp (2009) and Cenoz (2013), eight different dimensions of the construct of multilingualism have been identified (see Figure 2 below), which both shed light on how the construct may be perceived and understood, and which also are intended to illustrate how the research questions and foci of the current PhD-study have been formed:
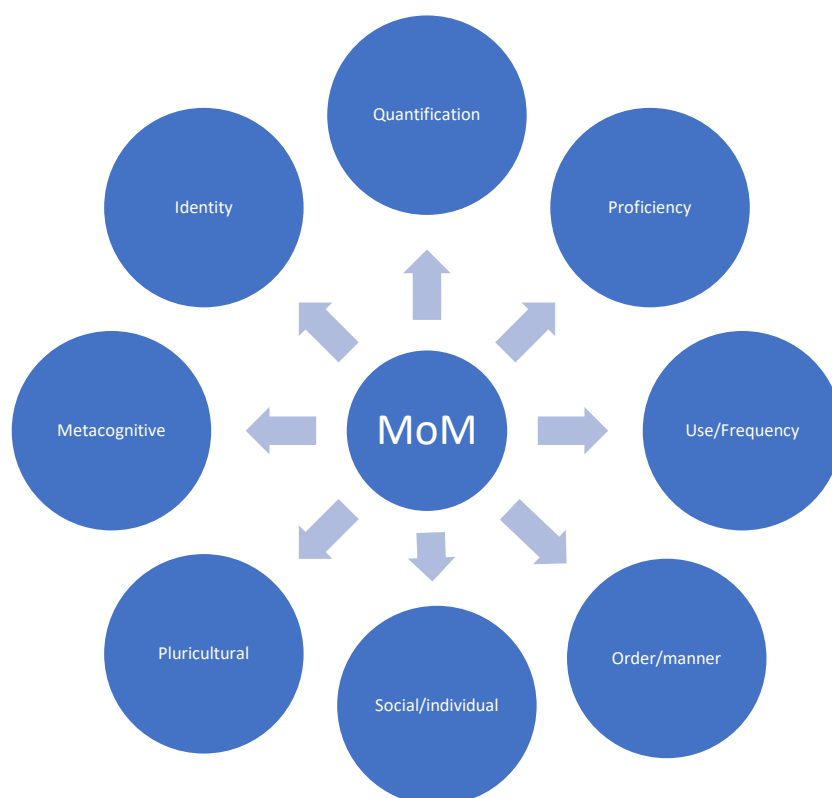
Figure 2. *A Model of Multilingualism (MoM)*

2.7.1 The quantification dimension

Some theorists define multilingualism simply by referring to *how many* languages an individual or a society uses, such as "Anyone who can communicate in more than one language, be it active (through speaking and writing) or passive (through listening and reading)" (Li Wei, 2008, p. 4), or "to refer to the use of three and more languages" (Aronin, 2019, p. 1). I call this the the quantification dimension of multilingualism. However, as touched upon in section 2.3.2, there is a problem in defining what a language is, for example in a Scandinavian context, where speakers of different Nordic languages may understand each other, simply by employing a *receptive multilingualism*, defined as the "use [of] their respective mother tongue while speaking to each other" (Ten Thije & Zeevaert 2007, p. 1), and since the interlocutors may use their mother tongues, either Danish, Swedish or Norwegian when speaking to each other, the three languages may theoretically be considered as the same language. Reflecting on the idea of multilingualism defined as the mastery of several languages, Berthelé comments that

"[c]ounting languages is crucial to the rationale of some and radically rejected by others» (Berthelé, 2021a, p. 83). Hence, it is necessary to discuss other dimensions as well.

2.7.2 The frequency dimension

Another well-established definition of multilingualism is "the ability of societies, institutions, groups and individuals to engage, *on a regular basis*, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives" (The European Commission, 2007, p. 6, emphasis added). How frequent an individual uses different languages in their daily lives is also, in addition to the number of languages, that is, 'more than one', of importance in this definition. This again may be linked to what Kemp calls the 'functional capability' (2009, p. 1), in other words, how well a person functions with a particular language, which again may be linked to how proficient one is in the language(s) in one's linguistic repertoire. Since there are so many different conceptualizations and definitions of multilingualism, Kemp also argues that the research community needs to define what multilingualism / being multilingualism means for them, and what it takes in terms of proficiency in a language for it to be included in their research designs and publications (Kemp, 2009).

2.7.3 The proficiency dimension

Therefore, the level of proficiency of a speaker or writer is an important dimension for some in their definitions of multilingualism. Some theorists link it to full mastery of several languages, whereas others, such as in Li's definition mentioned above, include different levels of proficiency and bring in both active and passive language skills (Li Wei, 2008, p. 4). The view that multilingual language learners may use different languages of variable proficiency levels has gained ground in recent years, and several theorists now hold that individuals have a multilingual repertoire that each individual draws on and has differing competence in (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011a; Vogel & Garcia, 2017). This is, as Cenoz & Gorter note, closely linked to the social tradition (Firth & Wagner, 1997) and describes how people learn and use their languages in social settings: "Multilingual speakers acquire and use their languages while engaging in

language practices. By doing this, they use their resources in a social context and shape this context in communicative interaction" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011a, p. 3).

2.7.4 The order and manner dimensions

The order in which one learns a language and even forgets another through so-called language attrition, which may be defined as "the partial or complete decline of any language (L1, L2, etc.) or language ability in a healthy speaker […]" (Kupske, 2019, p. 313), are also important dimensions within multilingualism. There can be significant differences in how an individual acquires and uses languages, one can learn two languages at the same time from when one is born, or one can acquire a second or foreign language successively, for example, first an L1, then L2, then L3, and so forth (Cenoz, 2013). The two terms 'additive' and 'subtractive' multilingualism may also be pertinent here, as the first refers to how language(s) are added to the linguistic repertoire while the L1 is still evolving, and the latter points to contexts where a language is learnt, and interferes with or takes over for the L1 (Cenoz, 2013, pp. 5-6). Also, the manner in which the languages are learnt, in school, at home, through extramural activities or through longer holidays in target language countries, may also make an impact on how one relates to one's own language repertoires and language learning.

2.7.5 The social and the individual dimensions

As mentioned in section 2.2, above, multilingualism may be seen to pertain to both a social and an individual dimension. In the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), for example, the Council of Europe (CoE) distinguishes between the two terms 'multilingualism' and 'plurilingualism'. Multilingualism represents the societal dimension and is defined as "the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one variety of language" (Council of Europe, 2007, p. 8). This implies that there may be several groups of people speaking different languages living side by side in a multilingual society, but that these groups may not speak any other languages than their own, and therefore each group or individual may be monolingual.

The individual dimension in the CEFR is reflected in the term 'plurilingualism', and it is defined as "the repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use […]" (p. 8). As the CEFR chiefly focuses on language learning and language use in relation to individual learners, plurilingualism is the term most frequently used there. However, as both Kramsch (2014) and Martin-Jones et al. (2012) point out, it is sometimes difficult, if not impossible, to separate the individual speaker from its societal and social context. In this respect the difference between the terms multilingualism and plurilingualism may be seen as "largely theoretical" and that they only imply "different ways of perceiving the relationship between languages in society and individual repertoire" (Martin-Jones et al., 2012, p. 50). In the present study, I use the label 'multilingualism' for both these dimensions, as I adhere to the Anglo-American research community (e.g. Fisher et al. 2018), where I find it challenging to detach the individual dimension of languages from the social and societal contexts in which individuals use their languages, aligning myself with Kramsch's (2014) and Martin-Jones et al.' (2012) positions.

2.7.6 The pluricultural dimension

The relationship between language and culture is obvious in many parts of the CEFR (Speitz & Myklevold, 2022), for example through the connection that the Council of Europe (2020) makes when linking the concepts of plurilingualism to the idea of pluriculturalism. Both aspects may be viewed as important building blocks of a learner's communicative competence. In the CEFR Companion volume it is stated that: "[the language user] does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 123). The Council of Europe also has a distinct plurilingual vision that "gives value to cultural and linguistic diversity […]" and emphasizes the need for language learners to "draw on all their linguistic and cultural resources and experiences in order to fully participate in social and educational contexts" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 123). In line with the Council of Europe's vision, the Norwegian curricula in the past two decades have embraced pluricultural and pluri-/multilingual values (LK06; LK20).

Another important aspect of the plurilingual and pluricultural dimensions is the fact that cultural and linguistic diversity are *validated,* or acknowledged in the Council of Europe documents. Interestingly, as touched upon above, this is also an important element in Norwegian policy documents, including the language curricula, as when the Council of Europe states that "[t]he plurilingual vision associated with the CEFR gives value to cultural and linguistic diversity at the level of the individual" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 123).

2.7.7 The metacognitive dimension

Several scholars also relate multilingualism to metacognition (Forbes, 2018; Haukås et al. 2018; Jessner, 2018). Metacognition is often seen as an important aspect to strengthen both learning in general (NOU:2015, p. 8) and language learning in particular (Haukås, 2018; Jessner, 2018). Metacognition has many definitions and conceptualizations, but it is often linked to a consciousness component and to monitoring and being aware of one's own knowledge and learning processes. Haukås uses a broad definition when she explains metacognition as an «awareness of and reflections about one's knowledge, experiences, emotions and learning" (Haukås, 2018, p. 13). She furthermore argues that prior knowledge, for example of a previously learnt topic, subject or language, is one of the most important factors for further learning. Jessner links multilingualism directly to the development of metalinguistic awareness, which involves metalinguistic and cross-linguistic awareness in multilingual learners, and which makes learners better at reflecting, comprehending and having influence over own language learning (Jessner, 2018, p. 31). She furthermore states through her Dynamic Model of Multilingualism (DMM), as mentioned in section 2.5, above, that the languages in multilinguals' brains should not be seen as separate entities, but as a mutual, dynamic system wherein the languages interact, sometimes, unpredictably (Jessner, 2018). However, the learners need to be made explicitly aware of their multilingual and metacognitive resource banks in order to benefit from them, but as studies in Norway indicate, learners rarely get the chance to reflect on their own language learning in language classrooms (Haukås, 2014), even if the English and foreign language subject curricula both in LK06 and LK20 contain competence aims related to both multilingualism, metacognition and language comparisons.

2.7.8 The identity dimension

The identity dimension has also received an increasing interest in the field the last decade (Cummins, 1998; Fisher et al., 2021; Norton 2016). Multilingualism may be viewed as an expression of identity, since language "represents and mediates the crucial element of identity" and "constitutes one of the most defining attributes of the individual" (Aronin & Laoire, 2004, p. 11). Norton, building on Bourdieu, argues that learners will only invest in learning a second language if it will increase their cultural capital, and that therefore "there is an integral relationship between investment and identity" (Norton, 2010, p. 3). In a similar vein, Cenoz claims that "the choice of one or another language is not only dependent on the availability of the linguistic resources the multilingual individual has at his or her disposal, but at the same time an act of identity" (Cenoz, 2013, p. 9). However, even if individuals have skills in a variety of languages and dialects, they may not always be willing to display them in front of others, as their multilingual repertoires do not always fit well with which language identities they want to be associated with or capitalize on. A multilingual identity is therefore a multifaceted concept, but according to Fisher et al. (2018), it may be seen as "an 'umbrella' identity, where one explicitly identifies as multilingual precisely because of an awareness of the linguistic repertoire one has" (Fisher et al., 2018, p.1). This requires a conscious attitude towards one's own language repertoire, and the awareness of one's previously learnt languages, and one's previous language learning experiences, may also be linked to the metacognitive dimension of the model.

2.8 Concluding remarks on conceptual frameworks

To sum up, as scholars within the multilingual turn often view multilingualism through a lense of theoretical pluralism (Meier, 2016, p.1), and I adhere to that, all these eight dimensions are significant in the current PhD-study. However, some of them are more emphasized in some of the sub-studies and less in others. For example, in Article 1 there is more focus on the metacognitive dimension, whereas in Article 3 there is more focus on the identity dimension. Yet, in all three studies there are discussions on what the construct of multilingualism is, who the multilinguals are, and how multilingualism can be operationalized, involving most of the dimensions discussed here.

Furthermore, the three studies that constitute this PhD-study conceptualize multilingualism in a wide sense, viewing languages as important resources for all language students, whether they have minority or majority home language(s). I use the term *multilingualism* for both the individual and social dimensions of the construct and include dimensions such as metacognition and identity as important theoretical concepts. In addition, I regard all students in school as multilingual and understand multilingualism as a continuum rather than a category (Dewaele, 2015), and therefore include dialects and varieties of languages in the conceptualization of the construct (Haukås, 2022; Haukås & Speitz, 2020). Against this conceptual framework, the research questions for the three articles mentioned above were developed. Before discussing the methodology of the PhD-study in Chapter 4, I now go on to present a literature review of empirical studies on perceptions and operationalizations of multilingual pedagogy in mainstream classrooms in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Literature review

3.1 Introduction to the chapter

In this chapter I will present empirical research which is relevant to my study, that is, studies shedding light on how multilingualism can be understood and operationalized in (foreign) language education in mainstream classrooms. The literature review will add on to and elaborate on the review sections of each of the studies included in Part II of the dissertation. The review is intended to position my own study in relation to the research field and strengthen the rationale behind the study (Randolph, 2009).

Conducting a literature review on multilingualism across languages and language learning contexts, poses several challenges. One is the lack of a consistent definitition of the term 'multilingualism'. As shown in Chapter 2 the concept may be understood in terms of many different dimensions, linked to for example individuals and societies, proficiency and frequency, identity and metacognition. Another is that 'multilingualism' is used interchangeably with other terms, such as 'plurilingualism' (Council of Europe, 2001), 'metrolingualism' (Otsuji & Pennycook, 2010) and 'multicompetence' (Cook, 1991). There are also other, different denotations and connotations, which makes multilingualism a complex and abstract construct to narrow down and limit in a literature search intended to be specifically relevant to the research statement of this thesis (see e.g. Berthelé, 2021b; Melo-Pfeifer, 2018).

Many studies on multilingualism in linguistics and pyscholinguistics have traditionally had an atomistic focus (Cenoz, 2013), where the emphasis has been on "the analysis of specific elements rather than on the relationship of these elements" and where one language has been analysed at the time (p. 10). In other words, the focus has been on solely on one language feature or one language. In addition, a lot of research has focused solely on minority language students, which may be important for empowering students and focusing on marginalized or heritage languages. In fact, the majority of studies on multilingualism in Norway have focused exclusively on minority language students (Beiler, 2021; Burner & Carlsen, 2019; Dewilde, 2022; Dewilde et al., 2021; Iversen, 2017). However, since the current PhD-study concentrates on mainstream classrooms, entailing both biographic and curricular multilingualism (Lundberg, 2019) which includes *both* minority *and* majority language students, eliciting cross-curricular

data from the subjects of English, Foreign Languages and Norwegian, I have chosen to predominantly include holistic studies focusing on the entire student population.[4] Moreover, since the main problem statement of the thesis concerns what multilingualism can entail in foreign language classrooms for all language students in mainstream education, I have not included studies on CLIL[5], bilingual education, introductory classes, or special education, as this is beyond the scope of the present study. However, studies from linguistically diverse mainstream classrooms have been included, and also investigations which focus on both biographic and curricular multilingualism (Lundberg, 2019). To achieve a more focused view, and for reasons of comparability, I have limited my review to primary and secondary language education, giving special emphasis to the Nordic context, as the educational settings are similar in these countries. However, in my articles (see Part II, below), I also review relevant studies from other and more different instructional settings.

3.2 Guiding principles and data base searches for the literature review

The literature search was guided by the following selection criteria: a) perceptions of the multilingual construct, b) operationalizations of multilingual pedagogy in mainstream language classrooms, c) multilingualism in language policy and curricula, and d) multilingualism in the Norwegian context.

I mainly used three databases in my search for pertinent studies: ERIC, Education Source and Academic Search Premier. The most relevant for the field of educational science is ERIC and Education Source, but Academic Search Premier, which is EBSCO-based was also utilized to cover more subjects. Since the Nordic school contexts are similar, I also initially examined the Nordic databases of DIVA (Sweden) and DDF (Denmark). Additionally, I employed the ERIC thesaurus in order to identify synonyms for the initial search words, and the keywords were

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[4] I recognize of course that in several cases some of these studies on minority language students may also take place in mainstream classrooms, and will also have a certain relevance to my studies, but for the scope of this study I have predominantly chosen to include studies looking at the whole student demography in mainstream, mandatory education.

[5] One exception here is Turner (2019), who in the Australian context has conducted research on both CLIL and multilingualism in mainstream language education.

«multilingual* OR plurilingual* OR bilingual*», and «Flerspråklig*» in Norwegian, as well as «mainstream multilingual classroom*» and «curricula». I started off by also including "operationalization*" and "implementation*" in both English and Norwegian, but since there were few or no hits, and since this aspect may be argued to be automatically included in the combined search phrase "multilingual classroom*", these keywords were left out in the final process.

To either narrow or expand my initial searches I frequently used Boolean phrases such as AND, OR, also in combination, and made use of wild cards, which allows for different ways of spelling, or truncation (multilingual* AND/OR intervention*). The searches were also narrowed down by the time span 2006-2022, mainly chosen because this period includes both the curricular reforms of LK06 and LK20. Moreover, when I left out exact duplicates, or same studies listed twice, in my search, this also narrowed the search down.

I further limited the focus by only using peer-reviewed articles and books, and since my main interest is multilingualism in mainstream language education, I avoided studies focusing solely on minority language education, like for example introductory classes or groups where all of the students had another L1 than Norwegian. To keep the review current, I created an account in EBSCO and an alert so that I would receive regular updates.

The combined search with three databases yielded 157 hits, which were distributed in the following way: Education Source (63), ERIC (54) and Academic Search Premier (40) (see Appendix 3). Through a scrutiny of titles and reading of abstracts, the hits were further narrowed down, yielding a final collection/batch/set of XX publications, which will be reviewed in the following. The chapter is organized into three topics, corresponding to the three main categories of studies identified in the literature search: Perceptions of multilingualism (section 3.2), Multilingual pedagogy and curricula (section 3.3) and The Norwegian context (section 3.4). The studies in each section will be presented chronologically, as it may give an indication of in which direction the research field is going.

3.3 Perceptions of multilingualism

3.3.1 Teachers' perceptions of multilingualism

As discussed in Section 1.3.2, the current study uses 'perceptions' in a broad sense, including opinions and perspectives, but also indicating a subjective and affective dimension in how the phenomena are perceived. Borg (2003) conceptualizes teacher beliefs as "what teachers think, know, and believe, and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom" (2003, p. 81), also underlining the significance of teachers as "active, thinking decision-makers" (2003, p. 81). Borg's conceptualization of beliefs is aligned with how I understand teachers' perceptions. It should also be noted that by "teachers' perceptions", used in the title of this section, I also include teacher students and teachers who attend in-service teacher training courses.

De Angelis (2011) conducted a cross-curricular, cross-national questionnaire study with 176 secondary school teachers in Italy, Austria and Great Britain, analyzing how they perceived the role of previous language knowledge in language learning, the usefulness of language knowledge, and how to teach multilingual students. Her findings showed that the teachers shared equal beliefs across the countries and that they displayed a lacking awareness of the benefits of multilingualism and home language maintenance. Since the teachers had received little guidance in the cognitive and linguistic benefits of multilingualism, De Angelis emphasized the need to introduce training related to multilingualism in teacher education.

In a similar study, investigating 165 pre-service teachers' and teacher students' preparedness to work in multilingual classrooms in Norway, Šurkalovic (2014) found that Norwegian teachers lacked knowledge about and education in multilingualism. She reported that the teacher students showed insufficient knowledge of the prominence of multilingual pupils in Norwegian schools and that the teacher education programmes did not assist them in compensating for that knowledge gap.

Dahl and Krulatz (2016), conducted another survey study with 176 students, where 80% of the teacher respondents reported having no education or training in working with multilingual pupils. More specifically, the teachers in the study explained that they saw the value of multilingualism, but that they lacked knowledge and understanding of second and third language didactics and the complexities of multilingual education.

Taking a slightly different approach, Young (2014) conducted an interview study on teachers' language ideologies, beliefs and practiced language policies with 46 head teachers in the northeast of France. She found evidence of linguistic hierarchies and a "persistent monolingual habitus at school" (p. 157) and emphasized the importance of analyzing the teachers' language beliefs further to to find out what hinders them in implementing multilingual language policies in their schools.

Otwinowska (2014) discussed the importance of developing multilingual awareness for pre-service and in-service teachers, basing her findings on two studies. The first study used a quantitative approach where questionnaires were distributed to 233 Polish teachers of English, in order to investigate the extent to which they were conscious of crosslinguistic similarities between Polish and other languages, and if they used this knowledge in their language teaching and learning. The findings indicated that multilingual awareness was related to both their prior teaching experience and their own multilingual repertoire of previously learnt languages, confirming higher levels of awareness for teachers skilled in several languages. The second study used a qualitative focus group methodology including five secondary school teachers and probed into how they comprehended multilingual language teaching. Findings showed that they partly lacked knowledge of multilingual methodology and that there was a lack of consistency in how they comprehended the concept of multilingualism. The teachers also lacked cross-linguistic knowledge concerning similarities between European languages, and Otwinovska concluded that both teacher students and teachers should receive courses and training in crosslinguistic, metalinguistic and multilingual awareness.

Subsequent to Otwinoska, Haukås (2016) carried out a qualitative teacher cognition study where she conducted focus group interviews with 12 Norwegian L3 teachers, exploring their perceptions of multilingualism and the use of a multilingual pedagogical approach in the L3-classroom. Interestingly, the study incorporated a cross-curricular approach, involving teachers of French (n = 4), German (n = 2) and Spanish (n = 6). The results showed that even if the teachers were positive towards multilingualism and thought that it should be promoted, they did not often cater for multilingual practices, as they did not utilize learners' previous knowledge of languages. The teachers seldom focused on the transfer of learning strategies because they perceived that L3-learning of German is very different from L2-learning of English. Even though the teachers thought that cooperation across languages could enhance the

language learning of the students, no one took part in such a collaboration (Haukås 2016, p. 11).

Van der Wildt et al. (2017) investigated how teachers' tolerant practices towards multilingualism might mediate the relationship between schools' linguistic diversity and pupils' school belonging. The survey data came from 67 Flemish primary schools, in which 1255 teachers and 1761 students participated. The study found that in many mainstream classrooms, teachers perceived the heterogeneous linguistic demography in schools as challenging. The results also showed that the teachers' tolerant attitudes and inclusive practices compensated for the negative effects of linguistically diverse schools on school belonging.

Portolés & Martí (2020) examined 121 preschool and primary school teacher trainees' perceptions about teaching English as an L3 in Spain, before and after they had undergone a course in multilingual education. Pre- and post-intervention questionnaires were used to gather data, and the results showed that instruction on multilingual education did have an effect on their perceptions, but mostly when it was linked to academic and research-based knowledge. In addition, and even though the Valencian teacher trainees were naturally positive to minority languages like Catalan, they still showed a monolingual bias.

Tarnanen & Palviainen (2018) conducted a metastudy where they investigated how Finnish teachers reflect language policies promoting multilingualism in their talk and practices. Meta-ethnography and discourse analysis of four recent qualitative studies in Finland were utilized and indicated that even though the teachers recognized the language competence of multilingual children, they seldom made use of this competence in class, and therefore it was concluded that the teachers' roles as policy makers, that is, how they translate these policies into multilingual pedagogy in their classrooms, should be focused more on.

Fischer & Lahmann (2020) examined 27 pre-service teachers' perceptions on multilingual education and used a course on linguistically responsive teaching to test if it had any effect on their beliefs. The findings suggested that the course had a positive effect on their beliefs, especially concerning responsibility for language facilitation and valuing multilingualism, and that such courses can influence beliefs and provide important knowledge for teacher educators and teacher education programmes.

Hegna & Speitz' (2020) study used both questionnaires and qualitative focus groups interviews to elicit data. Their investigation also included a cross-curricular approach involving Norwegian, social sciences, English, Foreign languages and mathematics. The findings indicated that many teacher students were positive towards pupils' multilingual resources, but insecure of how to make use of them in their teaching. An important implication is that teacher education to a larger degree must provide teacher students with a knowledge base for how to utilize pupils' multilingual repertoires in all subjects.

Calafato's (2020) questionnaire study was also cross-curricular, where 460 secondary school teachers of Chinese, English, French, Germans, Spanish and Italian in Norway and Russia were tested on their views of the benefits of present and emerging multilingualism. The findings showed that the teachers from both Russia and Norway strongly believed in the benefits of multilingualism. However, mirroring Otwinovska's study there were differences depending on how many languages they taught, as the teachers who taught two or more foreign languages reported an even stronger belief in the benefits of being or becoming multilingual than the teachers only teaching one foreign language. Calafato concluded that since beliefs are not synonomous with implementations, more implementation initiatives are needed, both from teachers and governments, and that these should include more cross-curricular foci. In a subsequent study, Calafato (2021) explored to which degree 517 teachers of English, French, German, and Spanish in Russia and Norway declared that they drew on their own and their students' multilingualism as a resource in class. The findings indicated that for teachers of English and French, multilingual teaching practices were less frequently used than for teachers of German and Spanish, but also that teachers who taught more than one foreign language used multilingual teaching practices more often than teachers who taught only one foreign language.

Tishakov & Tsagari (2022), in an online survey-study, investigated 110 teachers' beliefs about the English language and their self-reported practices regarding mulitilingual teaching and assessment in the English subject. They identified a "complexity paradox" (p. 1), meaning that the teachers accepted multilingual ideals, but based their classroom practices on monolingual ideals. More specifically, the teachers were insecure of how to make sense of the multilingual complexities in the classroom, and there was a lack of competence of how to translate multilingualism into practice, although the beliefs and practices differed according to teacher age, learner age group and teacher gender.

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3.3.2 Students' perceptions of multilingualism

In a study on East European students having English as an additional language (EAL) in England, Liu & Evans (2016) explored 38 primary and secondary school students' and teachers' attitudes towards the use of English and home languages in school. The study found that the students were overwhelmingly positive towards learning and using English in the school setting and correspondingly reluctant to using their home languages, mainly for fear of negative reactions from the school community. The teachers' attitudes, on the other hand, ranged from a very tolerant view of minority language use, via 'restricted language use' to an English-only position. Although this study focused on the language orientations and use of minority students, it still has relevance for the present thesis, as it shows the reluctance of these students to use their home langages (cf. Part II, Article 3).

Sickinghe's (2016) article used a conversation analytic approach to investigate how 51 non-native and native speaker-students of Norwegian interacted with peers when talking about their own and others' competence as speakers of Norwegian. A special focus was given to the question of whether the students' categorizations of themselves aligned with the notions of Norwegian speaker competence found in research and educational policy documents. The findings indicated that the students had a much more nuanced and complex way of defining themselves than the dichotomous Norwegian/non-Norwegian divide located in educational policy and resesearch, and that therefore there is a need for more consistent, inclusive and concise terminology when depicting the different categories of multilingual language users in Norwegian schools.

Iversen (2017) also investigated students' perceptions of their languages in a study on the role of minority pupils' L1 when learning English. Here, he interviewed 10 minority Norwegian upper secondary school students on the perceived usefulness of their L1, how they made use of their L1 and how their teachers supported the use of their L1 in the English language classroom. He found that even though the students did make use of their L1 when learning English, such as through translations and grammatical comparisons, the teachers did not support or encourage such multilingual and metacognitive practices, and the pupils' L1s were often ignored by the teachers. Although this was not a mainstream classroom study, its conclusions are still relevant for my thesis, as I touch on the issue of how students relate to multilingualism in both Article 1 and 3 (see Part II, below).

Lundberg (2019) carried out a quantitative study that investigated 40 teachers from 3 schools in urban and rural Sweden, to examine their beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy. Findings indicated a discrepancy between the teachers' perceptions coloured by monolingual attitudes and the language policies in Sweden promoting multilingualism. More courses in multilingualism for the teachers through pre- and in-service education were called for.

Ticheloven et al. (2021) used interviews to explore teachers' (*n*=7) and students' (*n*=31) perceptions of the advantages and challenges of translanguaging in two schools for newly arrived immigrants and two lingua franca English schools. The students were aged 11 to 25. In addition, 16 scholars in the fields of linguistics and educational science were interviewed about the same topic. The study yielded different results. One was that the students had differing perceptions about the learning effects of translanguaging. Negative perceptions were especially evident when it was teacher-initiated and students felt compelled by the teacher to use several languages at once. Another finding was that translanguaging sometimes required excessive effort, making some students reluctant to use it. Thirdly, however, it could have a positive emotional function, such as when students were unhappy or angry and had problems expressing themselves in the target language. Fourthly, the use of alternative languages was found to be confusing by some, causing cognitive strain when mixing languages. Additionally, there were side effects such as incidents where students (and teachers) felt isolated when not understanding the translanguaging of others. Although the study is somewhat different from the context of study of the present thesis, it nevertheless points to some interesting features concerning challenges in multilingual education, which I address in the discussion of findings in Article 1 and 3, below (see also Part II, Articles).

Haukås et al. (2022) used questionnaires completed by 593 secondary school students to investigate Norwegian secondary school students' beliefs about the benefits of multilingualism and variables affecting these beliefs. The results showed that the students generally were more positive about benefits related to the language learning process and less positive about general cognitive advantages. Moreover, students who reported having lived abroad, having friends with other L1s than Norwegian, and students with minority backgrounds had considerably more positive views about the benefits of multilingualism than students' without such experiences.

Interestingly, no significant correlations were discovered between the students' perceptions of multilingualism and the number of languages learnt in school or the students' multilingual identities.

3.4 Multilingual pedagogy and curricula

Through an exploratory study, Cenoz & Gorter (2011b) investigated how a cross-curricular approach could be used to enhance 165 secondary school students' writing proficiency in Basque, Spanish and English. The findings suggested that by avoiding the traditional one-language-at-a-time approach, and through a focus on multilingualism and the multilingual speakers, was is possible to create new knowledge of how a number of languages are acquired and utilized in educational settings. Important educational implications of the study were the need to probe further into translanguaging literacy practices, to diminish the divide between out-of-school and formal school language practices, and to integrate the curricula of the different school languages.

De Korne (2012) conducted a mixed methods case study of 9 teachers and 61 students at an interdisciplinary secondary school project in Luxembourg, through involving several languages and several subjects, such as science, drama, English, French and Luxembourgish. The study explored how a new multilingual, cross-curricular pedagogy could be carried out and may impact teachers and students. The project was successful in the sense that it prompted the students to utilize a broader range of languages and language modes, but the challenges identified were the time needed for preparing the students well enough, and also whether and how such a cross-curricular pedagogy could be assessed.

Cenoz et al. (2022) carried out an investigation of 23 primary school students in Spain and aimed to analyze the use of pedagogical translanguaging and its effect on cognate identification and metalinguistic awareness in Basque, Spanish and English. An intervention design was employed, using experiment and control groups. The results indicated that students in the intervention group displayed an increased cognate awareness, but there were no major differences between the control group and the intervention group in the identification of cognates. It was suggested that in order to make more possibilities for language learning, it may be useful to activate all the languages in the students' repertoires.

3.5 The Norwegian context

In Norway, multilingual research has typically focused on multilingualism in relation to school subjects, which are, as touched upon above, structurally monolingual. For example, Dahl & Krulatz (2016), Krulatz & Torgersen (2016), and Tishakov & Tsagari (2022) have investigated multilingualism in the English subject, Daryai-Hansen et al. (2019) and Haukås (2016) have looked at the foreign language classroom, and Sickinghe (2016) and Svendsen (2021) have investigated the Norwegian subject.

Investigating multilingualism in relation to one subject is undoubtedly fruitful, but it may also be viewed as slightly paradoxical, as the term multilingualism itself seems to entail a pluralistic approach. Hence, across-language approaches may appear appropriate. However, there are few studies to my knowledge that study multilingualism from a cross-curricular viewpoint, involving several school languages and different curricula in a mainstream school context (exceptions to this are Calafato, 2021; Haukås et al., 2021; Hegna & Speitz, 2020). Since the cross-curricular studies are few I have chosen to include studies in Norway within mainstream education that also examine one language subject, either English, Foreign Languages or Norwegian, also because the contexts of these studies are highly relevant and easily transferable to my studies.

Flognfeldt, Tsagari, Šurkalovic & Tishakov (2020) carried out a quantitative study of the language assessment beliefs and practices of three teachers working in two second grade classes during English and Norwegian lessons, gathering observation and teacher interview data. The findings indicated that there were several opportunities to use multilingualism as a resource in language learning and assessment, but that they were not utilized.

Angelovska, Krulatz & Šurkalovic (2020) undertook a study with 94 English teacher candidates in three education programmes in Norway and Austria and examined their knowledge and beliefs regarding multilingualism, additional language acquisition, and language teaching and learning. They found that current practices prepared teachers with basic competencies to work with multilingual learners. Despite this, "the monolingual approaches [were] still ingrained in the teacher candidates' views on language teaching and learning." (p. 202). Consequently, the authors concluded that the teacher candidates needed further education, particularly about how to implement a multilingual pedagogy.

To sum up, studies by Angelovska, Krulatz & Šurkalovic, 2020; Dahl & Krulatz (2016), Haukås (2016), Iversen (2017); Šurkalovic (2014) and Tishakov & Tsagari (2022) are unanimous that more focus on multilingualism and multilingual pedagogy is needed in the contemporary language classroom in Norway. However, even though these studies point to the importance of multilingualism for language learning, and the need for more knowledge on this topic, most of the studies referred to have mainly examined the teachers' self-reported knowledge of, and views on, multilingual approaches to language learning. What seems to be unclear in this research, however, is how multilingualism *can be operationalized* within a mainstream, cross-curricular educational context. Research in this area is scarce and Haukås (2016) claims that more empirical data and intervention studies are needed when she argues that "[s]uch studies should explore how and to what extent multilingualism can be enhanced by implementing a multilingual pedagogical approach" (Haukås, 2016, p. 14).

Based on the literature review here in Chapter 3, this PhD-project will thus attempt to assist in filling the research gap identified by i) exploring how multilingualism can be operationalized in a mainstream classroom cross-linguistically, and ii) by exploring how multilingualism is perceived by students, teachers and teacher educators.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction to the chapter

In the following I will describe the research design of this PhD project, including the methods used to answer the research questions. I will also include a discussion of the research quality of the study as a whole and point to some ethical considerations that were made in the research process. The aim of the chapter is to increase the transparency of the study and to justify and critically discuss the decisions that were made along the way in order to answer the research questions about multilingualism and how it may be operationalized. The chapter summarizes and adds general perspectives to the methods sections in each of the three articles (cf. Part II).

4.2 Research design and scientific outlook

The starting point for this project was my genuine interest in the concept of multilingualism in foreign language teaching and learning. My experiences as a teacher and teacher educator had made me curious about both the nature of the construct and how it could be worked with in the classroom, a concern shared by fellow researchers and other teaching practitioners (as outlined in Chapter 3). Thus, my purposes for embarking on this project aligned with Maxwell's (2013) *Goals* for conducting a research study (cf. Figure 3, below).
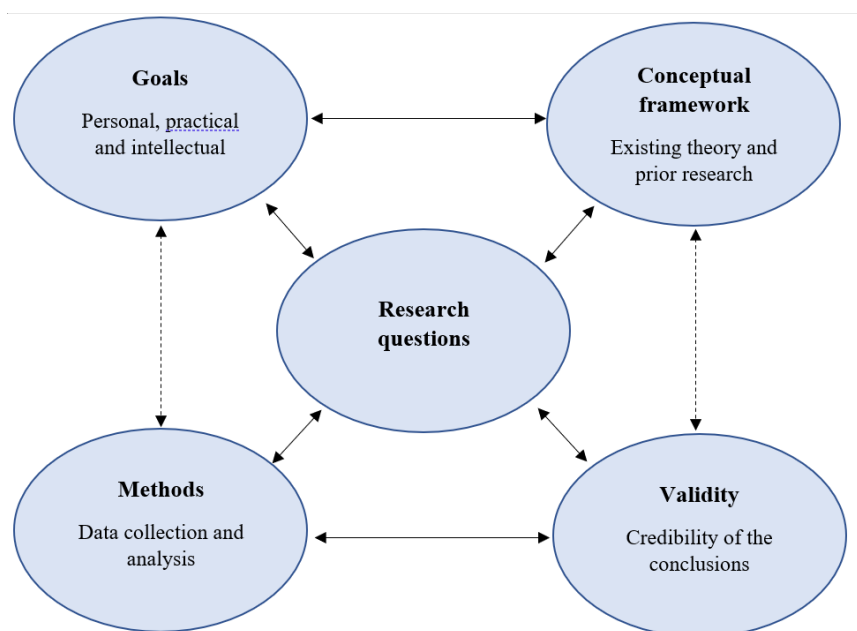
Figure 3. *Maxwell's (2013) interactive model of research design*

According to Maxwell, goals can be personal, practical and intellectual. In my case, the goal was personal in the sense that I had a subjective desire, as a teacher and a teacher educator, to learn more about multilingualism and how it can be understood and applied. Secondly, it was practical in the sense that teachers report needing more knowledge and better skills in this area (Šurkalović 2014, Dahl & Krulatz 2016, Haukås 2016, Iversen 2017), which in the Norwegian context also relates to the fact that multilingualism has received an even stronger position in the curriculum reform of LK20. Thirdly, it relates to Maxwell's notion of intellectual goals, which are focused on "answering some question that previous research has not adequately addressed" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 28).

Therefore, the research focus was steered in the direction of stakeholders' perceptions of multilingualism and how it can suitably be operationalized in mainstream language teaching and learning. Maxwell's (2013) research design model also provides a useful way of conceptualizing my research project in the sense that its components are interrelated in an interactive way, "rather than being linked in a linear or cyclical sequence" (p. 4), and as the research questions have been placed at the centre of the design, instead of as the starting point for the scientific endeavour. In my project, the design developed as I ventured back and forth between goals, conceptual framework (i.e. existing theory and prior research), research questions, and possible methods in several rounds and stages.

As for the *Validity* component of the model, understood as the trustworthiness of the results, I will return to this question in section 4.8, where I discuss the research quality of the overall study. Moreover, as the model is primarily meant to conceptualize qualitative research designs (Maxwell, 2013, p. 3), it fittingly describes the present study, which has an overall *qualitative priority* (Bash et al., 2021; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Despite the fact that a classroom-based intervention was employed in the first sub-study, partly using questionnaires to collect data (see section 4.6), the main focus of the study as a whole has been on trying to capture teachers', students' and teacher educators' perceptions of what multilingualism is and how it can be employed in practice. Such a focus naturally lends itself to the use of qualitative methods like interviews – which have been the main data collection method in this study – in that they are appropriate for exploring in-depth individuals' understanding of phenomena in the world (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). In addition, I have looked at representations of multilingualism in

the national curricula, employing document analysis, which is another method typically being qualitative in nature (Clark, Foster, Sloan, & Bryman, 2021).

The nature of the model also fits well with my overall epistemological and ontological outlook as it takes a *pragmatic* stance regarding the underlying assumptions about the nature of the phenomena being investigated and what counts as valid knowledge in the investigation of them (Legg & Hookway, 2021). Drawing on Abbott (2001, 2004), Maxwell (2011) points out that methodological and philosophical positions may function as *heuristics,* or conceptual and practical instruments that are employed to solve specific problems in theory and research. More specifically, "the idea of heuristics is to open up to new topics, to find new things. To do that, sometimes we need to invoke constructivism… sometimes we need a little realism" (Abbott, 2004, p. 191). This type of eclectic use of philosophical assumptions has been supported by Seale (1999), who held that different philosophical positions can be seen as resources for thinking, and by Koro-Ljungberg (2004) who argued in favour of employing divergent and potentially contradictory theories when addressing validity issues.

Although Maxwell (2011, 2013) does not use the term *pragmatism* to describe his heuristic approach, it resembles the type of philosophical and methodological stance sometimes referred to as such, involving the diverse use of methods and research designs, driven by fitness for purpose and "what works" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 34; see also Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Yin 2016). In practice, such a pragmatist position means that one does not have to consider quantitative and qualitative research methods as belonging to incommensurable scientific paradigms, forcing the researcher to choose between them (Pring, 2015). Rather, the investigator may think of herself as a *bricoleur* (from French *bricolage* = 'do-it-yourself'), who "spontaneously adapts to the unique circumstances of the situation, creatively employing the available tools and materials to create unique solutions to a problem" (Maxwell, 2011, p. 29; see also Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Patton, 2015). In my project, I recognize the subjective and constructed nature of the teachers' perceptions of multilingualism (Guba & Lincoln, 2005) at the same time as I deem it possible to arrive at some form of "essential" knowledge of what these perceptions may be (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p. 72). In addition to Maxwell (2013), it is important to point out that my project has a distinctive *praxis* orientation, as touched upon in section 2.4. According to Poehner & Inbar-Lourie, within a praxis orientation:

a scientific enterprise – including research and the development of theory as well as the design of practices to impact daily life – occurs only when these two domains are recognized as interrelated and mutually informative. More specifically, praxis regards theory as providing principles and concepts that allow teachers to build their practice in a reasoned, reflective manner that goes beyond firsthand experience. At the same time, practice serves as a testing ground for theory, pointing to areas in need of revision and expansion. In praxis then, theory and research are accountable to practice; praxis represents a unity of theory and practice wherein they inform one another and change together (Poehner & Inbar-Lourie, 2020, pp. 3-4).

In this particular project, my concern for the practical implementation of language learning issues and my network of former colleagues still working in the school system, prompted me to seek collaboration with practicing teachers in the development of parts of the research design, specifically the development of the intervention in Study 1 (see sections 4.3 and 4.5, below). The idea was to make use of their experiential competence in the development of the research studies, and to feed theoretical support and empirical findings back into the practice field.

4.3 The phases of the research project

Study 1 and 2 were conducted in order to answer the overall research question no. 1 (RQ1): How do students, teachers and teacher educators perceive multilingualism and operationalizations of multilingualism? Study 3 was carried out in order to answer the overall research question no. 2 (RQ2): What kind of representations of multilingualism are found in LK20, and how do teachers perceive these representations? The overarching layout of the research design is visualized in Figure 4:
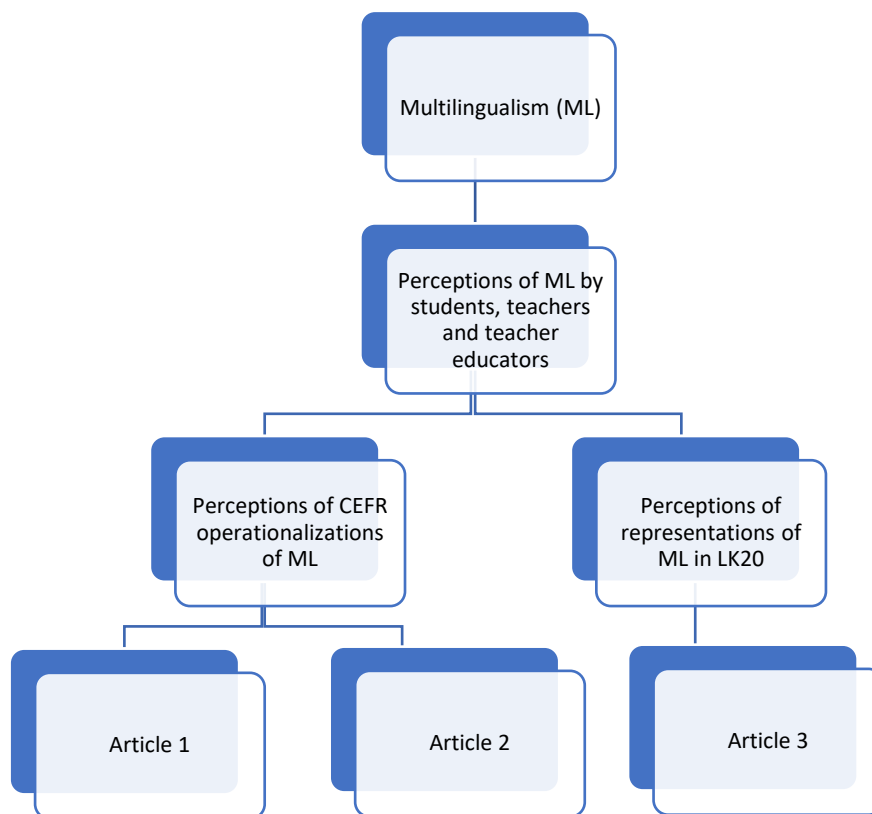
Figure 4. *Overall research design*

4.3.1 Study 1 (Article 1)

On the basis of previous research showing that the implementation of multilingualism in the classroom is a challenge for teachers in the Norwegian context (Haukås, 2016, Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Šurkalovic, 2014), I set out in Article 1 to try out a concrete lesson plan in a class of 19 students and their teacher, involving the use of four specific operationalizations of multilingualism, some of which the students were ultimately asked to use in a text comprehension task at the end of the intervention. The main aim of the study was to explore the teacher's and the students' perceptions of the usefulness of the operationalizations. The four operationalizations, taken from Council of Europe (2018, pp. 157-160) were:

i) capacity to use knowledge of familiar languages to understand new languages, looking for cognates and internationalisms in order to make sense of texts in unknown languages;
ii) capacity to exploit one's linguistic repertoire by purposefully blending, embedding, and alternating languages at the utterance level and the discourse level

iii) knowledge of contrasting genre conventions and textual patterns in languages in one's plurilingual repertoire in order to support comprehension;

iv) ability to use one language to understand the topic and main message of a text in another language

Based on the operationalizations from CEFR, four research questions (RQs) were investigated:

RQ1 To what extent did the students use the operationalization of multilingualism in the text comprehension task?

RQ2 What prompted the students to use or refrain from using the operationalization?

RQ3 To what extent did the students perceive the operationalization of multilingualism as useful?

RQ4 To what extent did the teacher perceive the operationalization of multilingualism as useful?

The lesson plan was tried out in an upper secondary school class consisting of 19 students who were all taking both German and English classes, and their teacher, who taught both subjects to the same group of students. The lesson plan was devised in collaboration with the teacher and carried out in a period of four weeks. It comprised explicit instruction, student-teacher and student-student discussions and the completion of tasks involving these four operationalizations, as well as more general discussions of multilingual repertoires, identities, 'false friends' (relating to the issue of cognates) and general language awareness. At the end of the instructional period, which involved two lessons per week for four weeks, the students were asked to complete a text comprehension task (see Appendix 2). This task entailed making sense of a German text containing cognates, and internationalisms, and in which the students were given the opportunity to use their knowledge of genre and textual patters in order to make sense of its content. The students were asked to try to activate knowledge of all of the previous languages they had learnt while they first listened to the teacher reading the text through, and then read and make sense of the text themselves individually. After that, the teacher went through the text in class and translated it. A post-task questionnaire was distributed to the students individually immediately afterwards in order to elicit their perceptions of the usefulness of the lesson plan, to which degree they used knowledge of cognates, internationalisms, etc., their understanding of the text they had just read, and to which degree

they perceived themselves as multilingual. In addition, a semi-structured interview was carried out with the teacher in order to explore his understanding of multilingualism in general, the usefulness of the four operationalizations from CEFR and whether he identified as a multilingual or not. Lastly, a focus group interview with four students was conducted to probe further into how they perceived multilingualism in general and the multilingual lesson plan in particular.

4.3.2 Study 2 (Article 2)

On the basis of the findings in Article 1, indicating that the teacher found the lesson plan on multilingualism to have some potential for practical use, yet with some reservations (see Part II, Article 1) I decided to explore this issue further. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, the initially-devised research design for Study 2 had to be altered quite considerably. The original plan was to conduct a multiple-case study of multilingualism through several classroom-based interventions in Article 2 and 3, in a similar, but more comprehensive way than in Study 1, in order to collect more data on how to operationalize multilingualism in mainstream language classrooms, and gather richer descriptions on this (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). This proved to be difficult due to the fact that schools were closed down and teaching was mainly carried out online from 12 March 2020. Therefore, the research design had to be changed from a main focus on actual operationalizations of multilingualism in class to expand the focus on *perceptions* of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations. Three research questions were examined:

> RQ1 What are the teachers' and teacher educators' general perceptions of multilingualism?
>
> RQ2 What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of four specific multilingual operationalizations?
>
> RQ3 What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism in relation to their language subject(s) in the new curriculum (LK20)?

In Study 2, four teachers and four teacher educators were recruited in order to interview them on their perceptions of multilingualism and the usefulness of the intervention carried out in

Study 1, in order to provide richer descriptions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) on the question of possible uses of multilingualism in the classroom (cf. RQ1 in Study 1). In addition to the question on the usefulness of the lesson plan, I probed into the informants' understanding of the multilingual construct generally with a view to deepen and broaden the perspective on what multilingualism may mean in a Norwegian language teaching and learning context. As a major finding in Study 2 showed that the research participants found the newly issued LK20 curriculum to provide ample opportunities for the promotion and operationalization of multilingualism, it was a natural step to move on to a document analysis of LK20 and scrutinize the documents behind the curriculum reform in Article 3.

4.3.3 Study 3 (Article 3)

As the teachers and teacher educators interviewed in Study 1 and Study 2 had provided a number of interesting reflections on their perceptions of multilingualism and operationalizations of multilingualism, and since there is evidence that curriculum reform may bring changes to teachers' practices (de Jong et al., 2016), I also wanted to investigate to what extent teachers' perceptions corresponded with representations of multilingualism in LK20 and language education research. Therefore, a document analysis of representations of multilingualism in LK20 was carried out, and two focus group interviews with three teachers in each were conducted. The research questions were as follows:

> RQ1 Which aspects of multilingualism are represented in the Core curriculum and in the subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian in LK20?

> RQ2 How are aspects of multilingualism in LK20 perceived by teachers of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian?

4.4 Participants

The participants in Study 1 (19 students and one teacher) were recruited from an upper secondary school in the county of Viken, Norway, on the basis of my former collaboration with the school. Hence, the cohort may be characterized as a convenience sample (Cohen et al., 2018). The students were in their first year, taking English as an obligatory subject and German as an elective. Their proficiency levels may broadly be characterized as CEFR B1/B2 for

English (Bøhn, 2015), and, according to their teacher, as A1 for German. The teacher was a 41-year-old male, with an undergraduate degree in English and German and a master's degree in English didactics. He had 17 years of experience teaching English at the upper secondary level, and even had three years' experience as a teacher educator at the tertiary level. In the development of the lesson plan for Study 1, he provided a number of relevant ideas on how to design and conduct the plan, such as which texts to use and how to present them. He also suggested that I could assist him in conducting the lessons, as he was insecure of the construct and how to apply it.

As for Study 2, the informants, four teachers and four teacher educators, were recruited on the basis of purposive sampling (Cohen et al., 2018), on the basis of the following criteria: (i) different first language backgrounds, that is, with and without Norwegian as their L1, (ii) years of experience, and (iii) different language specializations. Four of the participants were L1 speakers of Norwegian, the rest were Spanish (1), Frisian (1), English (1) and French (1). Their experience ranged from 8 to 31 years. Their language specializations included English, German, French, Norwegian and Norwegian as as Second Language, in addition to their L1s. A point worth making is that I also sought to recruit informants having experience from both upper secondary school and from the tertiary level (teacher education). The rationale for this was two-fold. On the one hand, I purposefully tried to sample participants that were "knowledgeable" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 219). On the other hand, my growing suspicion that multilingualism is a problematic field for teachers caused me to engage teacher educators in order to raise their awareness to the issue, hopefully making them place more emphasis on it in their own teaching. Hence, my objective was partly *praxis* oriented (cf. section 4.2, above). It may be objected, however, that my treatment of both teachers and teacher educators as part of the same sample is problematic, as their background characteristics differ, particularly with regard to their familiarity with language education in the tertiary sector.

In Study 3, six upper secondary teachers were recruited by a mix of purposive and convenience sampling techniques, as two head teachers being part of the university's practice network were contacted (a convenience aspect) and asked to recruit more participants based on their language specialization (a purposive aspect), as we wanted as the widest possible representation of language subjects taught in the two schools to avoid an atomistic approach (Cenoz, 2013). However, due to the effects of the pandemic, it was difficult to recruit participants, and we

therefore ended up with participants who taught English, German and Norwegian, or a combination of these. Two mini-focus groups interviews (Liamputtong, 2010) were conducted with three teachers in each group, and three of the six participants had other L1s than Norwegian.

4.5 Classroom intervention

In Article 1 I labelled the lesson plan "a classroom-based intervention approach" (cf. Part II, below). However, the study was not a classical research intervention in the sense of an experimental or a quasi-experimental study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002), as it involved neither a pretest, a control group, nor the measuring of effects. Nevertheless, it was an intervention in the sense of an "experimental manipulation" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 127), in which I deliberately contributed to planning and carrying out a teaching sequence in a real-life setting for the sake of exploring how multilingualism can be implemented and understood in the foreign language classroom. Thus seen, the study scientifically resembles a *design experiment* (Cohen et al., 2018), similar to a field experiment and created to close the potential gap between research and practice (Bradley & Reinking, 2011; Engeström, 2011) and to have "direct practical relevance to classrooms and the field nature" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 413). Bradley & Reinking (2011, pp. 312-313) list several features of design experiments which apply to Study 1 in the current project:

1. they focus on interventions in authentic, real world settings;
2. the role of theory is important in providing a rationale for the intervention; indeed testing the theory is a key purpose of design experiments;
3. they have improvement of practice as their goal, for example, how to improve teaching and learning in authentic settings;
4. contextual factors influence – both positively and negatively – what happens at the sites of the interventions, and hence, the design experiment;
5. data collection employs multiple methods;
6. they are rooted in pragmatism.

These points are characteristic of Article 1 in the sense that the setting was authentic and that the theory provided an important rationale for carrying out the study, that is, the theoretical

perspectives on multilingualism and multilingual repertoires, in tandem with their operationalizations in CEFR, gave an impetus for testing the theory. Moreover, the desire to improve practices has been an important motivation throughout the project. Furthermore, contextual features have impacted on the study, such as the fact that the students, being first-year, upper secondary students and new to the school, appeared somewhat shy in classroom interactions and during the interviews. Finally, multiple data collection methods were used (both interviews and questionnaires), and the design was, as mentioned in section 4.2, rooted in pragmatism. The last point, underscoring the relevance of using mixed methods in design-based research, is supported by Cohen et al. (2018) and Anderson & Shattuck (2012) and described in more detail in Article 1.

4.6 Data collection

4.6.1 Interviews

As mentioned in section 4.2, most of the data collected in this thesis come from qualitative interviews. This type of data collection is suitable for investigations taking an emic perspective, studying the research participants' own understanding of the phenomena being explored (Patton, 2015; Yin, 2016) and hence relevant for answering most of my research questions. Nevertheless, a number of considerations had to be made when designing the sub-studies, as interviews may be realized in many different ways, depending on the researcher's scientific outlook, the nature of the research questions, the characteristics of the study participants, the time and resources available, and so on (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015; Mann, 2016). In the following, I will therefore briefly discuss some epistemological considerations that are relevant for understanding how I collected interview data in this project.

According to Alvesson (2003), drawing on Silverman (1993), three main scientific positions on research interviews can be established, namely neopositivism, romanticism, and localism. *Neopostivism* is based on the view that there is a more or less context-free truth about reality 'out there', which can be accessed by adhering rigorously to a research protocol and minimizing researcher bias and other contextual influences that may interfere with the truth value of the information gathered. One way to avoid researcher bias, or reactivity, is to provide "personal opinion […] instead [of getting] involved in a 'real' conversation" (Alvesson, 2003, p. 16).

Objectivity and neutrality are therefore important key words, and provided that the sources of bias can be controlled, the interview may be seen as "a pipeline for transmitting knowledge" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1997, p. 113). *Romanticism*, on the other hand, rather sees the research interview as a meaning-making event, where the interviewer *is* expected to engage in 'real conversation' and put herself forward as a genuine dialogue partner. By doing that, the interviewer can get access to the perceptions and experiences of the interviewer by establishing "rapport, trust and commitment", rather than adhering to a strict research protocol (Alvesson, 2003, p. 16). Nevertheless, romanticism shares with neopositivism the idea that the experiences and views of the informant can be regarded as an "object […] located inside people's heads" (Silverman, 2011, p. 18). Consequently, the interview may be regarded as a 'tool' or a 'technique' for gathering evidence about how research participants understand the world (Alvesson, 2003). Finally, *localism* takes a critical stance against the interview-as-tool metaphor and emphasizes the significance of the social context in the construction of interview results. As Alvesson points out, the interview is understood as a context-specific event, in which the informants are creating "situated accounts, drawing upon cultural resources" (Alvesson, 2003, p. 17). Moreover, localism involves taking a fundamentally critical stance on interviewing. It challenges the purposes, assumptions and arguments of those who employ interviews instrumentally (Silverman, 1993).

Since my overall scientific stance may be characterized as pragmatist, drawing on different epistemological perspectives and emphasizing workable outcomes (cf. section 4.2), I side with Abbot (2004), quoted above, who holds that sometimes we may invoke constructivism and sometimes we may need a little realism, and I do believe that all the different positions mentioned by Alvesson in this section have something to them. Nevertheless, I am convinced that it is fundamentally important to employ a critical perspective. In the case of interviews, I do not deny that one may get access to the informant's internal thought processes by asking the right questions. However, I believe that the idea of obtaining objective knowledge by 'controlling' researcher bias, is somewhat optimistic, and that engaging in a natural conversation may be just as fruitful in order to obtain valid data. Still, one needs to be aware of factors that may affect the interview 'output', such as the informant's expectations and wish to express a particular identity, the use of specific jargon, and the interviewee's desire to promote her own ideological or political points of view, or to please the interviewer (Alvesson, 2003). In Study 2, for example, the multilingual lesson plan from Study 1 was distributed to the eight

participants 24 hours before the interviews were conducted, in order for the participants to probe further into what the operationalizations were. However, this information may also have led the participants to taking a favourable position towards my project and becoming overly supportive of multilingualism and its benefits. One of the teachers, for example, when asked about how she perceives a multilingual, reported that she saw everyone in her class as multilingual. However, she hesitated when I asked her if she perceived herself as multilingual (despite mastering three languages), perhaps only mimicking the normative statements of the LK20 and attempting to please the holistic language orientation of my PhD-project.

In addition, there is the fact that the dynamics of a group interview may affect what is communicated in the event (see section 4.6.3, below). Alvesson therefore speaks in favour of a *reflexive pragmatist approach* to interviews, recognizing the plethora of meanings that may exist and seeing the importance of interpreting these in a balanced and (self-)critical way. In line with my own pragmatist position, I believe such an approach to be highly appropriate for the collection, and also analysis, of data in this study. I do not entirely dismiss the interview-as-tool metaphor, but I find it important to critically scrutinize the interview data, always searching for alternative interpretations. This squares with Maxwell's (2013) notion of validity (see section 4.8 below) and the pragmatist idea that the outcome of research may not be "true" knowledge, but knowledge that is "useful" (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015, p. 65).

4.6.2 Questionnaires

The questionnaire employed in Study 1 was designed in order to gather data on the students' perceptions of the usefulness of the four operationalizations used in the intervention. Additional questions were included on the extent to which the students actually used the operationalizations in the test (on text comprehension), their views about the conditions for seeing oneself as multilingual, and on their attitudes towards the value of knowing and using several languages. As the students were learning both English and German, having the same teacher, questions regarding multilingualism in both German and English language teaching were asked. An example of a question was: "When you learn English, to what extent do you think it is beneficial to use knowledge about other languages, for example words that are similar, genre knowledge, topic etc.?". 16 of the questions were designed as close-response

items, to be answered using a five-point Likert scale going from "Not at all" to "To a very large extent" in agreement with the items presented. Three questions were open-ended, such as the following one: "Why did you (not) use knowledge from other languages in order to make sense of the German text?"

The rationale for using a questionnaire was to be able to gather responses from all the students participating in the intervention, as individual or group interviews would have been considerably more time consuming. Deliberations were indeed made as to whether I should use interviews, as I could possibly have obtained richer data (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015) regarding the questions of why they did, or did not employ the operationalizations, as well as to their attitudes towards the value of being multilingual. However, since time was scarce, and questionnaires used as *introspective techniques* can provide valuable data on the way individuals think about some phenomenon or activity (Richards, 2009; Sasaki, 2014), I decided to use questionnaires, but also to conduct a focus group interview with four of the students to probe futher into the issue (see next section).

4.6.3 Focus group interviews

The use of the focus group interview in Study 1, then, was carried out in order to further examine what the students perceived as useful or less useful in the the intervention. This approach was chosen, as focus groups may be an efficient way to speak to several people simultaneously (Yin, 2016). Moreover, a focus group interview can bee seen as a social experience which "is presumed to increase the meaningfulness and validity of findings because our perspectives are formed and sustained in social groups" (Patton, 2015, p. 475). Furthermore, focus groups can reveal "the depth of participants' feelings" concerning the construct (Patton, 2015, p. 24) and provide some qualitative impressions of how students experience working with a multilingual approach in class. The group interview was "focused" in the sense that the participants had "had some common experience" (Yin, 2016, pp. 148-149) concerning the multilingual intervention in class. In addition to this, as the student participants were young, only 16 years old, it was assumed they could also express themselves more freely when they were together in a group than if they were "the target of a solo interview with [the interviewer]" (Yin, 2016, p. 149). The latter point was also an important reason for using this form of interviewing.

In Article 3, the rationale for choosing focus groups with the teachers was slightly similar, because I wanted to tease out the teachers' perceptions of multilingualism in LK20, but also how they reported that they worked with the conststruct hands-on in the classroom. In focus groups, participants are given a safe and social environment to communicate ideas, perceptions and practices (Patton, 2015, p. 479), and this suited the research foci of Article 3 well. In addition, document analysis was utilized, which I now will return to.

4.6.4 Document analysis

The collection of data concerning representations of multilingualism in the LK20 national curriculum did not pose any noteworthy challenges, as the curriculum is a formal government document easily accessible on the internet (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017; Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019). One question that cropped up, however, was whether to conduct a comparative analysis between the current LK20 curriculum and the previous LK06 curriculum (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2006/2013). Patton (2015) points out that the decision of which documents to collect depend on their "usefulness" (p. 263). However, in line with the praxis focus chosen, including the aspiration to both study *current* thinking and practices, as well as bringing something useful back to the contemporary teaching community, the question of comparability was discarded. The Core curriculum and the three main language curricula of English, Foreign Languages and Norwegian in LK20 were therefore given priority.

4.7 Data analyses

After the interviews were transcribed, excerpts of these were sent back to the participants for respondent validation (Bryman, 2012) in all three studies. Respondent validation was utilized both to improve validity (see section 4.8), but also to ensure that the research processes and school collaboration was inclusive and transparent (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Also, in Study 2 and Study 3 cross-coding was employed, meaning that independent researchers were asked to code extracts from the interviews and documents to reduce researcher bias, one researcher in Article 2 and two researchers in Article 3.

The interview data gathered in *Article 1* was analysed by means of qualitative and quantitative content analysis (Galaczi, 2014; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Krippendorf, 2013), using the computer programme QSR NVivo10. This entailed a mainly inductive approach, in the sense that the teachers' statements guided the analytical categories to a large extent. Still, since no researcher is a *tabula rasa*, and since I possess relevant knowledge of the CEFR and LK20, as well as language learning theories etc., it would be naïve to argue that the categories that were developed were solely inductive, or data-driven. Therefore, one could rather say that some of the categories were arrived at abductively (Douven, 2021) going back and forth between the interview transcripts and language learning theories. For example, in Study 1, one of the student's reflected on the multilingual intervention, commenting that: "[I]nstead of just having it at the very back of your head, you have become more conscious of the fact that this resembles a word I know, in a way". I analyzed this as a statement about becoming more metacognitively aware of own language learning processes (Flavell, 1976; Haukås, 2018) and therefore named the category "Metacognition". As for the questionnaire data, this was analysed using SPSS Statistics 26 in order to calculate descriptive statistics, such as mean, median and standard deviation.

In *Article 2*, the semi-structured interview data was also analyzed using QSR NVivo10. The interview transcripts were analyzed in six cycles. In the first cycle, the transcripts were read through thoroughly and comments were made to text extracts which seemed to inform the research questions. In the second cycle, In Vivo coding (Miles et al., 2014) was used in order to apply preliminary codes to the transcribed material by utilizing the participants' own words and phrases as categories. The code "a big shift for us" is an example of this. In the third cycle, Provisional coding (Miles et al., 2014) was used, replacing most of the In Vivo codes with researcher-generated codes. Then, in the fourth cycle, an independent researcher commented on my comparison of the participants' statements and the provisional codes I had applied. Our analyses yielded some different codes, such as the phrase "how can we document progression?", which I had coded as "administrative work" and the independent researcher as "assessment regime", arguing that the pressure on teachers to assess and document student progression, being a hindrance to work with multilingualism, was a result of the assessment regime of the educational system. In the fifth and the sixth cycles, this and a few other codes were adjusted and the rest of the interview data was analyzed on the basis of these codes. Patton claims that through analyst triangulation such as this, the trustworthiness of the study may

increase (Patton, 2002, p. 560). Respondent validation techniques were also used after the initial coding phase where one teacher and one teacher educator were contacted in order to comment on and adjust the findings on the basis of the participants' reactions (Silverman, 2013, p. 288).

Finally, in *Article 3* we analysed the interview data from the two focus groups of teachers and the LK20 documents including the Core curriculum and the three language subject curricula of English, Foreign Languages and Norwegian. To reduce potential researcher bias, excerpts from both data sets, the interview transcripts and the documents, were cross-coded with two independent researchers, and then codes were adjusted after this. The interviews and the LK20 documents were coded using an open coding strategy and were constantly compared, by analyzing which aspects of multilingualism that were present and either correlated or differed (Bowen, 2008) in both data sets, with categories emerging iteratively (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). One category that differed in its representation across data sets, was 'identity', represented through a 'safe' connotation in the LK20 Core curriculum, for example in the claim that through language teaching, the students shall "develop their identity" and that "[l]anguage gives us a sense of belonging […]"., but which was problematized in the focus groups as a reason for the opposite, namely that several students refused to display their multilingual repertoires in class because "[t]hey want to fit in, you see" (cf. Article 3 in Part II).

In Table 1 below, an overview of some of the most essential elements in the research process are provided, among these the research foci and research questions, data collection, data analyses, main constructs and methods of validation:

Table 1. *Overview of the central elements in the research process*

	Article 1	Article 2	Article 3
Title	Operationalizing Multilingualism in A Foreign Language Classroom in Norway: Opportunities and Challenges	«That is a big shift for us»: teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations	Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap?
Data collection	A classroom-based intervention. Questionnaires, focus group (students) and interview (teacher)	Semi-structured, individual interviews	Document analysis of LK20 and semi-structured focus group interviews of teachers
Number of participants	19 students, 1 teacher	4 teachers and 4 teacher educators	2 focus groups with 3 teachers in each
Data analysis	Quantitative and qualitative content analysis	Qualitative content analysis	Qualitative content analysis
Main research foci	Perceptions and operationalizations of multilingualism by students and their teacher	Perceptions and operationalizations of multilingualism by teachers and teacher educators	Representations of ML in LK20 and teachers' perceptions of these
Research questions	RQ1) To what extent did the students use the operationalization of multilingualism in text comprehension tasks? RQ2) What prompted the students to use or refrain from using the operationalization? RQ3) To what extent did the students perceive the operationalization of multilingualism as useful? RQ4) To what extent did the teacher perceive the operationalization of multilingualism as useful?	RQ1) What are the teachers' and teacher educators' general perceptions of multilingualism? RQ2) What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of four specific multilingual operationalizations? RQ3) What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism in relation to their language subject(s) in the new curriculum (LK20)?	RQ1) Which aspects of multilingualism are represented in the core curriculum and in the subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian in LK20? RQ2) How are aspects of multilingualism in LK20 perceived by teachers of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian?
Validation of data	Respondent validation	Respondent validation Co-coding of transcripts	Respondent validation Co-coding of transcripts

4.8 Validity

Although there is skepticism against using terms taken from quantitative research, such as "validity" and "reliability", to describe the trustworthiness of qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1986), there are still many qualitative researchers who ascribe to this usage, although the terminology may have different meanings (Bryman 2016; Yin, 2015). In Maxwell's model of research design mentioned in section 4.2 validity is defined as "the correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or other sort of account" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 122). Even though the use of the term "correctness" here may invoke notions of objectivity and neopositivism, Maxwell does not deny the constructivist nature of various phenomena under scrutiny in social research. He even points out that his "commonsense use of the term is consistent with the way it is generally used by qualitative researchers, and does not pose any serious philosophical questions" (p. 122), thus again alluding to the pragmatist nature of his model and the way the validity component of it may be conceived. He goes on to say:

This use of the term "validity does not imply the existence of any "objective truth" to which an account can be compared. However, the idea of objective truth isn't essential to a theory of validity that does what most researchers want it to do, which is to give them some grounds for distinguishing accounts that are credible from those that are not. Nor are you required to attain some ultimate truth for your study to be *useful* and believable (Maxwell, 2013, p. 122, emphasis added).

The reference to "useful and believable [results]" in this quote echoes Kvale & Brinkmann's (2015) emphasis on the relevance of "useful [knowledge]" (cf. section 4.5.1, above) and squares well with the *praxis orientation* of the current study. Moreover, Maxwell's use of validity to mean "the correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion etc.", quoted above, corresponds to the idea that validity is not a characteristic of the methods used to investigate a problem, but a *property of the inferences* that are drawn (Shadish et al., 2002; Mishler, 1990). Hence, to evaluate the validity of a research study, one has to consider the knowledge claims that are put forward and the *threats* to the validity of those claims. Such threats may be particular events or processes that could make the reported results less credible, trustworthy, and defensible (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Consequently, a discussion of competing explanations, discrepant data and negative cases is needed (Cohen et al. 2018). It should be

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noted, though, that a general conceptualization of validity threats is challenging, as they are context dependent, hinging on the specific characteristics of the study in question.

In his discussion of validity threats, Maxwell (2013) specifically mentions two broad types of threats: *researcher bias* and *reactivity*. The former concerns "the researcher's existing theory, goals, or preconceptions, and the selection of data that 'stand out' to the researcher", whereas the latter involves "the effect of the researcher" on the participants of the study (p. 124). Although it is widely recognized that eliminating these is impossible (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; Maxwell, 2013), I will make an effort to discuss how they may have impacted the current PhD-study.

Beyond these two types of validity threats, Maxwell advocates the use of checklists for evaluating the validity of a study's conclusions and the existence of potential threats to those conclusions, and in the following I will discuss five of eight of the points most relevant to the current study, namely *Rich data*, *Respondent Validation*, *Intervention*, *Searching for Discrepant Evidence and Negative Case,* and *Numbers* (Maxwell, 2013, pp. 126-129).

In my case, researcher bias may relate to the fact that I, as a practicing teacher at the upper secondary level for more than 10 years, have a fairly strong teacher identity, empathizing with teachers who more often than not have to grapple with everyday practical problems, including the implementation of educational reforms, which may not always be so straightforward to put into practice. This may have affected the way I formulated questions for the teachers, how I possibly failed to press the informants on issues that were problematic or contradictory, and how I interpreted their responses, etc. Still, I have honestly tried to adhere to the ideal of a critical researcher, asking critical questions and looking for alternative explanations. A related issue is my critical stance against a theoretical field (and policy documents) which I have found to be partly ideological, vague, incongruous, and sometimes self-contradictory. Even though I strongly believe that a critical stance is absolutely necessary for a researcher, my own value system and theoretical predilections may have affected the inferences I drew from the results. Still, as can be seen in all the articles produced, I have attempted to remain cautious in the conclusions I draw, by describing that the findings *indicate* certain state of affairs, rather than categorically conclude that these state of affairs are unequivocally true.

As for *reactivity*, I will almost certainly have affected the informants during the intervention and in the interviews in some way; the participants may have refrained from answering because they were afraid of displaying insufficient knowledge about multilingualism, they may have answered what they believed I wanted to hear and so on (cf. section 4.6.1). Dörnyei (2007) discusses how teachers often have a "social desirability bias" where they are eager to to meet expectations of the researchers and frequently are selective as to which attitudes they report and which they avoid reporting:

The participants of a study are often provided with cues to the anticipated results of the project, and as a result they may begin to exhibit performance that they believe is expected of them. A variation of this threat is when participants try to meet social expectations and over-report desirable attitudes and behaviours while underreporting those that are socially not respected (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 54).

In my studies this social desirability bias may also be linked to the teachers overreporting their positivity towards multilingualism, as both my articles and the new curriculum LK20 have a clear focus on multilingualism as a resource, and since it may be perceived by the teachers as undesirable and even socially unacceptable to be critical towards this. This may also relate to the student participants, as they also may be guided by a desire to be overly positive towards multilingualism and to the usefulness of the multilingual intervention since I and their teacher collaborated in carrying it through. However, in all the interviews I tried to ask open questions , in order to promote an openmindedness and critical stance throughout, frequently reminding the informants that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions that were posed.

Concerning *rich data*, even though interviews are beneficial for exploring in-depth individuals' understanding of phenomena in the world (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015), and even though the interviews were transcribed verbatim rather than just notes on what was significant (Maxwell, 2013, p. 126), interviews that are conducted only once may not in themselves provide rich data. Rather, more lengthy and comprehensive interviews concerning how and why the stakeholders worked with multilingualism in the classroom might have improved the research quality and perhaps even yielded other results.

Respondent validation, also known as member checking, was used in all three articles, where participants from both the individual and focus group interviews were asked to comment on

whether the findings echoed their opinions, or whether the findings contradicted or blurred their initial meanings. According to Maxwell, the procedure of respondent validation is vital in order to remove:

> the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what participants say and do and the perspective they have on what is going on, as well as being an important way of identifying your biases and misunderstandings of what you observed (Maxwell, 2013, pp. 126-127).

This is also an important part of the researcher's self-reflexivity in discovering biases in her own interpretations. However, as also Maxwell (2013, p. 127) writes, the participants' evaluation "is no more inherently valid than their interview responses", implying that their feedback should also be viewed solely "as *evidence* regarding the validity of your account". In all three studies, I therefore tried to treat the participants' feedback on the interview transcriptions critically, yet acknowledging that their comments could provide very relevant feedback on the quality of the accounts presented.

Concerning *interventions* in field research, it may be claimed that "the researcher's presence is always an intervention in some ways" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 127), and the effects of this presence may be used to test out ideas about a phenomenon. In the intervention study in Article 1, this may be applied to when the participant teacher reported that "And it also helps that you have come in as an external and have this as a project and…then we know that when you come, we have full focus on this. So…I will use this in the future, as a tool" (Article 1, Part II), indicating that my presence as a researcher aided in changing or expanding the teacher's view on multilingual pedagogy, and that my tools for operationalizing multilingualism perhaps were needed in order to use time on this topic. However, this may also be a part of a social desirability bias, as discussed above (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 54), where the participants may be eager to meet the expectations of the researcher, and display overly positive attitudes towards the phenomenon under study.

Maxwell also discusses the importance of *searching for discrepant evidence and negative cases,* and to avoid ignoring data that are contradictory to one's own conclusion. He outlines that "[t]he basic principle here is that you need to rigorously examine both the supporting and the discrepant data to assess whether it is more plausible to retain or modify the conclusion […]

(Maxwell, 2013, p. 127). In Article 2, just one of the eight participants reported that she used to systematically map the students' previously learnt languages in her first session with them (cf. Article 2, Part II), and in many ways this was 'a negative case' which contradicted the conclusion that the (rest of the) participants did not have a systematic mapping tradition in place, and which I consequently was careful to include and modify my analyses with.

This 'negative case', provided by only one out of eight participants, also relates to *numbers*, which Maxwell also grapples with when he claims that several "qualitative studies have an implicit quantitative component" (2013, p. 128). He borrows the term "quasi-statistics" from Becker (1970) to describe "the use of simple numerical results that can be readily derived from the data" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 128). In order to make inferences about how a phenomenon is perceived by a group of people, it is important to make visible the appropriate number of participants who supports this conclusion, not least to "assess the amount of *evidence* in your data that bears on a particular conclusion or threat […]" (Maxwell, 2013, p.128). Therefore in all articles I have attempted to outline how many of the relatively few participants who have claimed what, as in Article 1, when 13 out of the 17 students answered that they perceived the multilingual intervention as useful in their German classes (Article 1, Part II), in order to back up one of the main conclusions of that study.

To sum up, in addition to these aspects of research quality, I will consider the question of generalizability of the results, as this point is commonly regarded as vital in social science research.

4.9 Generalizability

Obviously, the results of a small-scale study like the current one cannot be generalized statistically. However, there are other types of generalizations than quantitative, statistical generalization, and one such type focuses on "generalizing within specific groups or communities, situations or circumstances validly, and beyond, to specific outsider communities, situations or circumstance" (Cohen et al., 2018). One may therefore argue that the findings in this study are "transferable", to borrow a term from Lincoln & Guba (1985), to

similar contexts, i.e., foreign language classrooms with stakeholders resembling the research participants of the present project. Maxwell also claims that:

> the generalizability of qualitative studies is usually based not on explicit sampling of some defined population to which the results can be extended, but on the development of a theory of the *processes* operating in the case studied, ones that may well operate in other cases, but that may produce different outcomes in different circumstances […] (Maxwell, 2013, p.138).

The findings of the current studies may in other words be transferred, not statistically or quantitatively, but qualitatively to the processes operating in similar contexts containing similar stakeholders. This is a way of inferring from specific instances to other cases which resemble what Patton (2015) calls "generalizable patterns" (p. 107), understood as "configurations, which can be recognized in the empirical world" (Larsson, 2009, p. 33).

4.10 Research ethics

4.10.1 Ethical deliberations

Bryman lists four important ethical topics which are vital to reflect on when doing research within social sciences: a) whether there is harm to participants, b) whether there is a lack of informed consent, c) whether there is an invasion of privacy, and d) whether deception is concerned (Bryman, 2012, p. 135).

One could argue that all of these issues depend on how harm, consent, invasion and deception are defined, but, as Bryman declares, harm may be related to challenges concerning confidentiality and the storage of data. According to The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee (NESH) (2016), recordings and transcripts must be shielded from the public eye, so that the participants can avoid being directly or indirectly identified through a combination of variables such as language, site of employment, gender, age, etc. After being approved by the the National Centre for Research Data (NSD) (see Appendix 4), it became evident that in this PhD-project the most obvious part to shield was the voices of the participants in the recordings of the interviews, which is why I anonymized them by the use of pseudonyms in the transcripts.

As concerns consent, according to the NESH guidelines, they have to be "freely given, informed, and in an explicit form" (NESH, 2016, p. 15). When informing the students, teachers and teacher educators about the project, I carefully informed them what participation in the project might entail and also explicitly stated that there was no pressure to take part. I obtained informed consent forms from all of the participants (see Appendix 5), and in the case of the students, no parental consent was required, as they were all over the age of 15. Furthermore, I explained to all of the participants both in writing and orally that they could withdraw from the project at any time by contacting me via email or phone, and that withdrawal would not have any negative consequences for them.

4.10.2 The FAIR principles

The NSD also encourage all research to adhere to the FAIR principles, this means that all research output should be Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable. Regarding the accessibility dimension, accessible data is not the equivalent to open data (Mons et al., 2017). In my project, this means that the audiotapes and transcripts of students, teachers and teacher educators, even though they are anonymized through the use of pseudonyms, should still be protected from free access in order to safeguard their personal privacy. However, metadata, which is descriptions of the data gathered, such as the questionnaires and semi-structured interview guides, can be made accessible to both peer reviewers and to the USN Open Archive. When it comes to the transcripts, they should not be accessed freely since it may be possible for someone to recognize the contextual information and identify both teachers, teacher educators and students. «Safe data» or green data like the document analyses the LK20 curricula can of course be shared in archives like for example the University of South-Eastern Norway's Open Archive to further promote the fairness of my project.

4.10.3 NESH guidelines

As stated in the NESH-guidelines, "[p]articipants in research have a right to receive something in return» (2016, p. 40), so already at the very start of the project I arranged with the participating schools that findings when they have been published and defended will be

disseminated on e.g. course days for teachers. For the students, this is difficult, as they move on, but I also plan to involve students in connection with for example The International Language Day which is arranged every year 26 September, and where the students can be involved, either through commenting on a concentrated display of the findings, or comment on their present multilingual repertoires and how they perceive this. The aim of this is not only to share the findings, but also to initiate a dialogue together with the students and teachers on what multilingualism can entail for them, and on how to develop a common ground for us all regarding the opportunities and challenges in this field in the future. The aim of all my research has been to give something back to the practice field and to initiate a praxis (see Chapter 4), which involves a university-school collaboration and a "a unity of theory and practice wherein they inform one another and change together" (Poehner & Inbar-Lourie, 2020, pp. 3-4).

Chapter 5: Summary and discussion

5.1 Introduction to the chapter

As stated in section 1.3, the main aim of this PhD-study was to explore perceptions and operationalizations of multilingualism and examine what multilingualism can entail in mainstream language classrooms in Norway. It was guided by the following overarching research questions:

> *RQ1: How do students, teachers and teacher educators perceive multilingualism and how can multilingualism be operationalized in foreign language classrooms?*
>
> *RQ2: What kind of representations of multilingualism are found in LK20, and how do teachers perceive these representations?*

In explaining the internal coherence of the three articles in the present PhD-study, I find it useful to use the terminology of Goodlad et al. (1979), who employ five levels in their curriculum analyses: ideological, formal, perceived, operational and experiential (cf. section 2.6). Even though originally used for curriculum inquiry, this analytical framework aptly describes the interrelatedness of my analyses of multilingualism in the three articles, as the publications have provided empirical evidence of how multilingualism is represented at i) the *ideological* and *formal level* in the LK20 in Article 3, ii) at the *perceived level* by teachers and teacher educators in Articles 1, 2 and 3, iii) at the *operational level* in a foreign language classroom in Article 1, and iv) at the *experiential level* by students, both directly in the classroom-based intervention in Article 1 and indirectly through teachers' reports in Article 3.

However, as mentioned in section 2.6, some of these levels interrelate and overlap. For example, the operational level may also be a perceived level, as Goodlad et al. argue that "the operational, too, is a perceived curriculum; it exists in the eye of the beholder (1979, p. 62). In all of the studies, when the teachers and teacher educators account for how they employ (or have problems employing) a multilingual pedagogy, there is also a *self-reported* operational level involved. Similarly, at the experiential level, there is a *direct* account of the students' experiences working with multilingual pedagogy in Article 1, whereas there is an *indirect* account through the teachers' reports of how students experience a multilingual pedagogy in

Article 3. Notwithstanding that the levels may be interrelated, they still provide a fruitful way of illustrating, at a general level, the interconnectedness of the sub-studies, as shown in Figure 5 below:

- i) ML at the ideological and formal level
- **Article 3**

- ii) ML at the perceived level
- **Articles 1, 2, 3**

LK20

Students
Teachers
Teacher educators

Students' experience

A foreign language classroom

- iv) ML at the experiential level
- **Articles 1, 3**

- iii) ML at the operational level
- **Articles 1, 2**
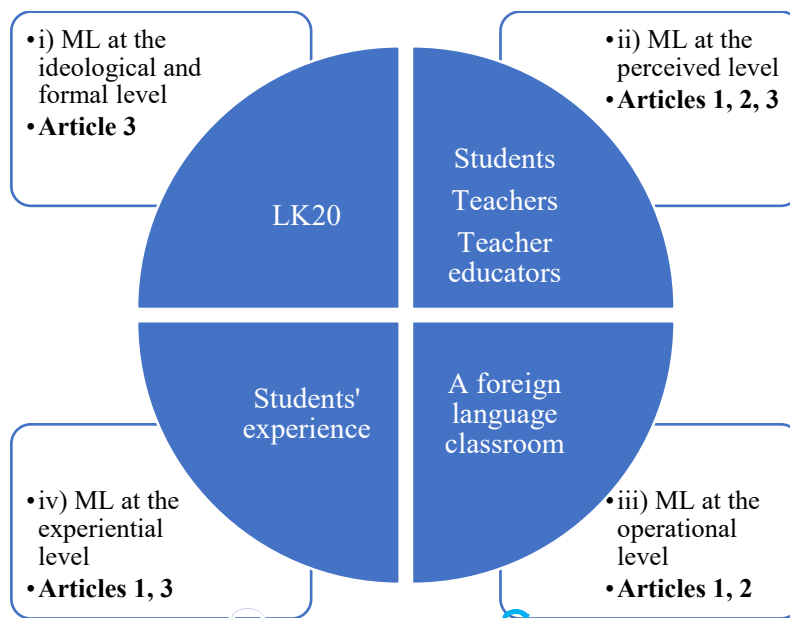
Figure 5. *Levels of analyses of multilingualism*

5.2 Synopsis of the three articles

5.2.1 Article 1

Article 1, entitled Operationalizing Multilingualism in a Foreign Language Classroom in Norway: Opportunities and Challenges (2022), was published in *Multilingual Matters* in June 2022. The main aim of this article was to explore the implementation of a multilingual lesson plan through a classroom-based intervention built on four operationalizations of multilingualism taken from the CEFR Companion volume (Council of Europe, 2018), in order to investigate the usefulness of such operationalizations in German and English language education at the upper secondary school level (see section 4.3.1, above). The four research questions (RQs) were:

RQ1: To what extent did the students use the operationalizations of multilingualism in text comprehension tasks?

RQ2: What prompted the students to use or refrain from using the operationalizations?

RQ3: To what extent did the students perceive the operationalizations of multilingualism as useful?

RQ4: To what extent did the teacher perceive the operationalizations of multilingualism as useful?

The analysis produced the following findings: Firstly, in response to RQ1, all the student participants reported that they used the operationalizations to some, a large or a very large degree when trying to comprehend the unfamiliar text in German. However, in response to RQ2, they stated that they viewed the operationalizations as more beneficial for German (L3) than for English (L2), mainly due to the fact that German was viewed as a language with closer linguistic proximity to Norwegian than English. Finally, in response to RQ3, the students perceived the operationalizations to be useful for improved text comprehension and for becoming more conscious of the languages they already knew, which I interpreted as an expression of metacognitive awareness (Haukås, 2018; Jessner, 2018).

As for the results pertaining to RQ4, the teacher found the operationalizations to be helpful, reporting that it was a concrete 'tool' to use in the language learning classroom. However, the teacher also identified a challenge in the implementiation of the multilingual lesson plan, namely his assumption that he would need to have (good) knowledge of all the students' first languages in order to help them use their linguistic repertoires in their language learning. This perceived challenge is also found in other studies and may point to the insecurity that teachers feel when they are not experts in the students' previously learnt languages (Dewilde, 2020). However, this finding may also be linked to the "limitless facets of linguistic diversity" (Berthelé, 2021b), that is, the complexity of including all the students' languages in a systematic and comprehensive way when preparing, executing and evaluating multilingual lesson plans.

Relatedly, as Meier (2016) notes, the two most prominent obstacles in implementing the multilingual turn in education are: i) lack of support for teachers, and ii) a monolingual bias. These obstacles can both be observed in this study. The teacher reported having received little

administrative support in implementing multilingual teaching practices, no professional development scheme in multilingualism had been made available to him and there were no multilingual tasks in the textbooks used. Therefore, he had few tools for handling the multilingual complexity in his class. In addition, there were clear monolingual traditions in the school structures, with strictly separated language subjects in the timetables, little or no cooperation between language teachers across languages, and an omnipresent monolingual assessment system at the end of the year, testing the language competence of the students in the target language only. This also underscores the policy-practice divide of multilingualism: At the ideological and formal level of the LK20 curriculum reform one finds declarations such as: "All students shall experience that knowing several languages is a resource" (MER, 2017). However, at the operational level in schools and classrooms, the monolingual habitus prevails (Gogolin, 2013; Benson, 2013). The discprepancy between the multilingual habitus of research and policy on the one hand, and the monolingual habitus in school structures (Benson, 2013) on the other, seems to be one of the most prominent challenges for teachers when juggling new ideas of linguistic diversity in a traditional school system. I will return to this point in section 5.4.

5.2.2 Article 2

Article 2 was called «That is a big shift for us»: Teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations, and was published in *Globe: A Journal of Language, Culture, and Communication* in December 2021. The three research questions that were investigated were:

> *RQ1*: What are the teachers' and teacher educators' general perceptions of multilingualism?
>
> *RQ2:* What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of four specific multilingual operationalizations?
>
> *RQ3:* What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism in relation to their language subject(s) in the new curriculum (LK20)?

The investigations of the research questions yielded three major findings. Firstly, both the teachers and the teacher educators reported that the multilingual turn had changed the way they perceived multilingualism. From largely seeing it as a phenomenon pertaining to bilinguals and minority students, they had come to view it as a significant asset for all language students, both minority and majority learners, and they included dialects and knowledge of language learning in their understanding of the concept. However, regardless of this shift in outlook, the participants reported that they did not have enough knowledge concerning how to operationalize multilingualism in a comprehensive and systematic way in their teaching. Relatedly, only one of the participants systematically mapped the students' previously learnt languages before the start of a new course. This discrepancy between attitudes and self-reported practices is also supported in other studies (Alisaari et al., 2019; Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022) and may be viewed as a "complexity paradox" (Tishakov & Tsagari, 2022, p. 1). I will return to this point in section 5.4 below.

Both the operationalizations from CEFR and the suggested representations of multilingualism in the new LK20 were viewed by the participants as potentially beneficial for implementing multilingualism in their classrooms. However, the monolingual school structures were identified as a challenge to the implementation of multilingual pedagogy by the participants, such as the focus on target language competence in assessment, again pointing to the paradoxical task of implementing a multilingual pedagogy in a monolingual system.

5.2.3 Article 3

Article 3 was entitled Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap? (2021) and was co-authored with Heike Speitz. The article was published in the *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning* in November - December 2021. Its main aim was to investigate how multilingualism was represented in the LK20 curriculum, focusing on the three main subject curricula Norwegian, English, and Foreign Languages. The research questions under scrutiny were:

> *RQ1*: Which aspects of multilingualism are represented in the Core curriculum and in the subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian in LK20?

RQ2: How are aspects of multilingualism (ML) in LK20 perceived by teachers of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian?

The analyses indicated that there was a gap between the intentions of the ideological and the formal curriculum, on the one hand, and the perceived and experiential curricula of teachers and students, on the other (Goodlad et al., 1979). This was evidenced by the teachers' comments that the students were sometimes reluctant to draw on their multilingual resources in the classroom, despite the ideological claims of the curricula, stating for example that "all pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource […]" (MER, 2019c). This finding of reluctant students is also echoed in other studies (Ceginskas, 2010). Regardless of the majority language or minority language student perspective, the teachers reported that the students did not want to show their full repertoires of either L1s or additional foreign languages, for example Icelandic, Polish or Somali, relating to issues of identity (Cummins, 2013; Fisher et al., 2021; Norton 2015). Therefore, even though the intentional level of the LK20 is explicit regarding multilingualism, the operational level becomes defacto unclear, since how these intentions are to be implemented in the classroom is not thematized or problematized, but left entirely to the teachers to make sense of.

In this article we argued that the reluctancy of some students to employ earlier learnt languges, together with the fact that multilingualism is a multifaceted concept which is represented in different ways in the three language subject curricula, might explain why the teachers reported that they were insecure of how to operationalize multilingualism in practice. Coupled with the fact that the teachers are bound by a monolingual assessment culture, and that they have few tools to put multilingualism into practice (cf. Article 1), these challenges may make the implementation of multilingualism seem like a Gordian knot for several teachers.

5.3 Synthesis of the findings in the articles

In sum, the main findings of the three studies combined indicate that several teachers have experienced the multilingual turn in terms of their recognition that multilingualism is a resource, according to the language curricula and that it is important to validate linguistic diversity. Moreover, they perceive and conceptualize multilingualism as both relating to minority

language and majority language students, and even for some as including dialects and accents. However, they identify challenges in how multilingualism may be operationalized in mainstream classrooms due to three main reasons. Firstly, they lack knowledge of multilingual pedagogy and how to make use of all the students L1s. Secondly, they find the multilingual foci in LK20 quite vague and normative, and thirdly, they experience that some students are reluctant to use their multilingual repertoires in class.

These main findings indicate that both the students, teachers, teacher educators and LK20 display a multilingualism as a resource orientation (Ruiz, 1984; de Jong et al. 2016; 2019). However, the actual implementation of successful multilingual practices may be demanding as multilingualism in LK20 is described in elusive and general terms, and the teachers are insecure of how to operationalize the construct, partly because they have received no support in doing so and are employed in monolingual school structures, and partly because some students are reluctant to display their multilingual repertoires. The synthesis of findings are shown below in Figure 6:

Macro-level: Multilingual core elements and competence aims, but unclear operationalizations

Micro-level: Students find ML useful, but are sometimes reluctant towards showing their multilingual repertoires

Meso-level: Underlying monolingual school structures, languages taught and assessed separately

Multilingualism (ML)

Micro-level: Teachers are insecure as to how to operationalize ML

Micro-level: Teachers report a shift in thinking: positive towards, and broader view of, multilingualism

Figure 6. *Synthesis of findings*

In Figure 6 the overall findings across are synthezised in a multi-level presentation (Grønmo, 2004), consisting of macro, meso and micro levels, as the analyses indicate that the teachers' perceptions of multilingualism and their insecurity can be explained in terms of variables operating on different levels. Firstly, at the macro-level, there is lack of a consistent terminology in policy documents of what multilingualism is, and there are few concrete examples of how multilingualism can be operationalized for stakeholders. This is consistent with results found elsewhere (Berthelé 2021a; Haukås, 2016; Lundberg, 2019; Sickinghe, 2015). Secondly, also at the macro-level, the curriculum reform of LK20 contains several overarching goals and competence aims related to multilingualism that the teachers and students at the micro-level have to relate to and incorporate in their teaching and learning of languages. Therefore, at the meso-level, teachers are subjected to a discrepancy and double hierarchies between the ideological and formal level promoting multilingualism in curricula on the one hand, and the operational level with monolingual school structures on the other (also found in Lundberg, 2019). Beyond that, at the micro levels, the findings indicate that teachers have undergone a shift in thinking from a monolingual to a multilingual mindset, but that they still are insecure of how to implement multilingual pedagogy in their classrooms, and that students may find multilingual operationalizations useful, but that they also may be reluctant towards exposing their entire language repertoires in school (Čeginskas, 2010; Liu & Evans, 2016).

The findings also suggest that the lack of operationalizations in policy documents and supporting documents, as well as in teaching materials, making the teachers wary of how to put multilingualism to use in the classroom, pointing to the lack of guidance the teachers have received in implementing the multilingual turn in their classrooms (Meier, 2016). At the micro and experiential level, the students perceive that a focus on multilingualism may strengthen text comprehension and making them aware of their metacognitive skills, as indicated in Article 1, but the students are nevertheless not always willing to show their multilingual repertoires in class, as shown in Article 3, also supported in other studies (Čeginskas, 2010; Liu & Evans, 2016).

5.4 Research contributions

The present PhD-study has contributed to the field of multilingualism both empirically and theoretically in that it has a) provided increased knowledge of what multilingualism can be in a contemporary foreign language setting in Norway, and b) shed light on how stakeholders see the usefulness of suggested operationalizations of multilingualism.

5.4.1 Empirical contributions

The main empirical research contribution of the present PhD-study is increased knowledge of how teachers and students perceive and make sense of multilingualism in a foreign language education setting. The three studies all concentrate on ways in which teachers, teacher educators and students understand, or struggle to understand, the multilingual construct, and on factors that encourage or hinder multilingual practices in language education.

To my knowledge, few studies have explored the perceived usefulness of lesson plans focusing on multilingual operationalizations in mainstream language classrooms in Norway, in spite of the well-documented insecurity of teachers regarding multilingualism (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016, Haukås, 2016, Šurkalovic, 2014). In my study, through a concrete multilingual lesson plan, four operationalizations taken from CEFR were tested out in a foreign language classroom in Norway, and the usefulness of such operationalizations was analyzed through important stakeholders such as the students and their teacher of German and English. Even though it was a small-scale study, it indicated that these operationalizations were viewed as useful, but mostly in beginner languages, and that there were several challenges concerning the implementation of multilingualism in the classroom, most notably the challenge for the teacher in mapping and acquiring knowledge of and about all students' linguistic repertoires.

The studies also contribute empirical knowledge relating to the fact that even though the teachers are positive towards multilingualism as a concept, they lack support and competence to implement it in their classrooms.

Another contribution is that the PhD-study provides empirical evidence of the policy-practice divide, since it identified a 'gap' between the positive foci on multilingualism in LK20, and the practical challenges that the teachers face when attempting to implement LK20 in their

language classrooms. Contrary to the "celebratory" discourse (Berthelé, 2021a) surrounding multilingualism in language policy and research, the teachers for example report that the students do not always view their own multilingualism as a resource, and regardless of the language(s) they know, several students are reluctant to draw on their full linguistic repertoire in class.

Lastly, the PhD-study has contributed with knowledge as to how multilingualism is represented in the curricular reform of LK20, and that the subject language curricula of Norwegian, English and Foreign Languages represent multilingualism in different ways, either through an emphasis on linguistic identity (Norwegian), language comparisons (English) or through activizing previous language learning experiences (Foreign Languages).

5.4.2 Theoretical contributions

The identification of eight different dimensions of the construct of multilingualism, building on the work by Kemp (2009) and Cenoz (2013), as shown in the Model of Multilingualism (MoM, *Figure 2*), is the main theoretical contribution of this study. The model illustrates the multifariousness of the multilingual construct, shows the complexity of the field and incorporates important dimensions for understanding how multilingualism can be understood and applied in a mainstream educational setting, such as in Norway.

In the current PhD-study, I have also sought to avoid the traditional 'atomistic' view of language subjects (Cenoz, 2013) by including and doing research on stakeholders who have a variety of different language backgrounds and competences, as well as subject specializations. In doing so I have employed a holistic research focus by conducting investigations *across* the language subjects of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian. Through investigating perceptions of teachers and students of several subjects such as German as a Foreign Language together with Norwegian and English as a Foreign Language, this PhD-study scaffolded a multilingual research approach, which has resulted in a more holistic understanding of multilingualism.

Lastly, critical approaches to the field have been highlighted in response to the call for more critical voices in the field (Aronin, 2019; Berthelé, 2021a; Kelly, 2015). To look at the challenges as well as the opportunities of multilingualism in education, and to further discuss

what the nature of multilingualism - and indeed a language - is, has contributed to an ontological and epistemological discussion of the construct of multilingualism.

5.5 Implications for the Norwegian educational context

As noted in chapter 3, several studies in Norway have pointed to the lack of multilingual competence in present and future teachers (Haukås, 2016; Krulatz & Torgersen, 2016; Krulatz & Iversen, 2019; Surkalovic, 2014) and their insecurity towards operationalizing it in their classrooms (Dahl & Krulatz, 2014; Haukås, 2016). These are findings corroborated in the present thesis. Hence, the development of more guidance for teachers when implementing the multilingual turn appears to be urgent (Meier, 2016). Beyond this, the findings point to the challenges of operationalizing multilingualism within monolingual school structures.

As for the way forward, one may consider different paths for practicing teachers and those who are yet to obtain their teaching certificates. For *present* teachers, more guidance can involve the development of hands-on multilingual resources, through inservice educational courses, and through designing high-quality multilingual textbook resources. In addition, courses could be held in language teacher collaboration across languages, as such courses are still almost non-existent (Haukås, 2016). Here, the foci could be on language attitudes, multilingualism and metacognition, where teachers should be allowed to reflect on their own and their students' language learning, and where they could be provided with tools and resources that can be utilized in the classroom.

For *future* teachers, much more comprehensive approaches, including both theoretical and practical perspectives, need to be incorporated in teacher education, including more tools to help teachers cater for the multilingual realities. In addition, in order to traverse the rather fixed boundaries between language subjects both in teacher education and in schools in general (Haukås, 2016, Makalela, 2015), collaboration between teacher educators and teacher students across languages should be strongly encouraged, and also scaffolded for the teacher students.

The monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2006) in schools and universities should also be continually challenged, not as an attempt to reduce each language discipline's rich traditions, but by way of more collaboration and innovative pedagogies across languages. There is also a need for

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more discussions around what multilingualism means, in order to establish shared understandings of the concept among teachers, as well as deliberations on how new approaches to assessment can be developed, taking into consideration multilingual perspectives on language learning (Saville, 2019).

5.6 Limitations and conclusion

The present PhD-study is based on analyses of rather small samples of research participants, including only 19 students, 15 teachers and four documents. Admittedly, the inclusion of more participants and more documents may have yielded more comprehensive and generalizable results. However, as Yin (2016) notes, analytical generalizations may be possible with smaller samples in that they discover patterns or processes that may be transferred to similar settings (Yin, 2016, p. 105) (see also Chapter 4). More intervention studies were made difficult due to the COVID-19 situation, and therefore in Article 2 and 3 interviews with teachers were conducted instead of interventions and classroom observations. This may be seen as a limitation, as more operationalizations could have provided better and more trustworthy results, and as this would have allowed me to go deeper into how such operationalizations could work with more languages and student groups involved. Moreover, the use of interviews to explore multilingual practices, which is indirectly what I did when I asked the teachers about their perceptions multilingualism and how it may be implemented, is problematic in the sense that I only received self-report data. What informants say they do and what they actually do may be two different things. This, in addition to researcher reactivity, are other limitations of this study. Finally, a more comprehensive use of co-coders and respondent validation could have improved the trustworthiness of the studies in general.

5.7 Directions for future research

Since this is a small-scale study, more extensive empirical studies could be conducted in order to further validate the students', teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism and operationalizations of multilingualism. To achieve more solid research on the language learning effects of multilingualism, more longitudinal studies could also be carried out (Cenoz

& Gorter, 2013). Classroom observations and more interventions are also needed (Haukås, 2016), to allow for more concrete knowledge of how teachers and students actually work with multilingualism in language classrooms, and examine further which factors promote and hamper multilingual classroom practices. More observations and interventions would also avoid the potential limitation of self-reporting classroom practices. To use a multilingual research approach to the multilingual construct and conduct more studies *across* language fields, could also benefit and bring new knowledge into the field.

5.8 Post-process reflections

On a personal note, and to return to my fascinated and frustrated state of mind as an upper secondary school language teacher unable to cater for the linguistic diversity in my class at the very beginning of this project (as mentioned in section 1.1), my personal trajectory has developed from a solely "celebratory" view of multilingualism (Berthelé 2021a) to a more nuanced, multifaceted and critical understanding of the construct.

Even so, and perhaps precisely because of this trajectory, my fascination with multilingualism has never been greater. The reflections around epistemology in the field both excites and baffles me. How can we do research on multilingualism? How can we arrive at a decision of what a language is? What is a culture, a dialect, or a register? How can we pin this multifarious concept down? Which theories can we use? Which dimensions of the construct are incorporated, and which are left out? And last but not least: how can valid inferences be drawn when there are so many different theoretical frameworks, epistemologies and contexts?

I have not, rather unsurprisingly, found answers to all these comprehensive questions during the work on this PhD-dissertation, but through my analyses I have nevertheless been able to shed some light on what I first wondered about in the beginning of this project: What can multilingualism mean in a foreign language context and how can it be perceived and operationalized? Through analyses of how multilingualism is operationalized by the CEFR, how it is represented in LK20 and how it is perceived by important educational stakeholders such as students, teachers and teacher educators, I have gained significant knowledge of the multifarious aspects of multilingualism in education. That is perhaps a small step for mankind,

but it has been a giant leap for me, and a step, I believe, in the right direction to bringing more empirical evidence into the field of multilingualism.

This study may also hopefully assist in bridging the gap between theory and practice through a praxis-based approach, and may help in getting nearer to an implementation of the multilingual turn in practice, not just in theory (Paquet-Gauthier & Beaulieu, 2016). This is important so that *all* students' multilingual trajectories can be recognized and utilized in the classroom, regardless of cultural background or language repertoire. But I believe that this has to be done on the students' and teachers' *own* premises, through a bottom-up approach, and both the opportunities and challenges in multilingual classrooms must be recognized and researched.

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Appendix 1

Language subject curricula and Core curriculum (LK20):

Curriculum in English – LK20 (abbreviated)

About the subject

Relevance and central values

English is an important subject when it comes to cultural understanding, communication, all-round education and identity development. The subject shall give the pupils the foundation for communicating with others, both locally and globally, regardless of cultural or linguistic background. English shall help the pupils to develop an intercultural understanding of different ways of living, ways of thinking and communication patterns. It shall prepare the pupils for an education and societal and working life that requires English language competence in reading, writing and oral communication.

All subjects shall help the pupils to understand the value system for learning. Through working with the subject the pupils shall become confident users of English so that they can use English to learn, communicate and connect with others. Knowledge of and an exploratory approach to language, communication patterns, lifestyles, ways of thinking and social conditions open for new perspectives on the world and ourselves. The subject shall develop the pupils' understanding that their views of the world are culturedependent. This can open for new ways to interpret the world, promote curiosity and engagement and help to prevent prejudice. The pupils shall experience that the ability to speak several languages is an asset at school and in society in general. The curriculum for English and the curriculum for English for pupils who use sign language are equivalent.

Core elements

Communication

Communication refers to creating meaning through language and the ability to use the language in both formal and informal settings. The pupils shall employ suitable strategies to communicate, both orally and in writing, in different situations and by using different types of media and sources. The pupils shall experience, use and explore the language from the very start. The teaching shall give the pupils the opportunity to express themselves and interact in authentic and practical situations.

Language learning

Language learning refers to developing language awareness and knowledge of English as a system, and the ability to use language learning strategies. Learning the pronunciation of phonemes, and learning vocabulary, word structure, syntax and text composition gives the pupils choices and possibilities in their communication and interaction. Language learning

refers to identifying connections between English and other languages the pupils know, and to understanding how English is structured.

Working with texts in English

Language learning takes place in the encounter with texts in English. The concept of text is used in a broad sense: texts can be spoken and written, printed and digital, graphic and artistic, formal and informal, fictional and factual, contemporary and historical. The texts can contain writing, pictures, audio, drawings, graphs, numbers and other forms of expression that are combined to enhance and present a message. Working with texts in English helps to develop the pupils' knowledge and experience of linguistic and cultural diversity, as well as their insight into ways of living, ways of thinking and traditions of indigenous peoples. By reflecting on, interpreting and critically assessing different types of texts in English, the pupils shall acquire language and knowledge of culture and society. Thus the pupils will develop intercultural competence enabling them to deal with different ways of living, ways of thinking and communication patterns. They shall build the foundation for seeing their own identity and others' identities in a multilingual and multicultural context.

Interdisciplinary topics

Health and life skills

In the English subject, the interdisciplinary topic of health and life skills refers to developing the ability of the pupils to express themselves in writing and orally in English. This forms the basis for being able to express their feelings, thoughts, experiences and opinions and can provide new perspectives on different ways of thinking and communication patterns, as well as on the pupils' own way of life and that of others. The ability to handle situations that require linguistic and cultural competence can give pupils a sense of achievement and help them develop a positive self-image and a secure identity.

Democracy and citizenship

In the English subject, the interdisciplinary topic of democracy and citizenship refers to helping the pupils to develop their understanding of the fact that the way they view the world is culture dependent. By learning English, the pupils can experience different societies and cultures by communicating with others around the world, regardless of linguistic or cultural background. This can open for new ways to interpret the world, and promote curiosity and engagement and help to prevent prejudices

Competence aims and assessment

Competence aims after Vg1 programme for general studies

The pupil is expected to be able to

• use appropriate strategies for language learning, text creation and communication

• use appropriate digital resources and other aids in language learning, text creation and interaction

• use pronunciation patterns in communication

• listen to, understand and use academic language in working on one's own oral and written texts

• express himself or herself in a nuanced and precise manner with fluency and coherence, using idiomatic expressions and varied sentence structures adapted to the purpose, receiver and situation

• explain the reasoning of others and use and follow up input from others during conversations and discussions on various topics

• use knowledge of similarities between English and other languages with which the pupil is familiar in language learning

• use knowledge of grammar and text structure in working on one's own oral and written texts

• read, discuss and reflect on the content and language features and literary devices in various types of texts, including self-chosen texts

• read, analyse and interpret fictional texts in English

• read and compare different factual texts on the same topic from different sources and critically assess the reliability of the sources

• use different sources in a critical, appropriate and accountable manner

• write different types of formal and informal texts, including multimedia texts with structure and coherence that describe, discuss, reason and reflect adapted to the purpose, recipient and situation

• assess and revise one's own texts based on criteria in the subject and knowledge of language

• describe key features of the development of English as a global language

• explore and reflect on diversity and social conditions in the Englishspeaking world based on historical contexts

• discuss and reflect on form, content and language features and literary devices in different cultural forms of expression from different media in the English-language world, including music, film and gaming

Curriculum for Foreign Languages – LK20 (abbreviated)

About the subject

Relevance and central values

The foreign languages subject is based on understanding and being understood. The subject shall help to promote the pupils' personal development and facilitate for interacting with and experiencing joy in the encounter with other people and cultures. In a globalised world, there is a greater need to communicate in several languages. Formal and informal communication locally, nationally and internationally requires language skills and knowledge of other cultures and ways of life. This applies not least in educational studies and in working life. The subject can help pupils to develop their intercultural understanding. All subjects shall help the pupils to understand and apply the value system for learning. Knowledge about a society's language and cultural diversity provides valuable insight into one's own and others' backgrounds. The subject shall help the pupils learn about different identities, values and ways of thinking, forms of expression, traditions and social conditions in areas where the language is spoken. This means that the pupils develop tolerance and an understanding that our views of the world are culture-dependent. Learning a new language, being able to communicate with others and gaining experience from cultural encounters make it possible to interpret the world in several ways. An important part of language learning is also exploring and critically assessing the use of sources, aids and learning strategies. The subject shall help the pupils to gain understanding of linguistic and cultural diversity. Through the subject, the pupils shall be allowed to experience that multilingualism is an asset, both in school and in society at large.

Core elements

Communication

Communication is the core element of the subject. Learning a foreign language means understanding and being understood. The pupils shall develop knowledge and skills to communicate in a well-reasoned way both orally and in writing. The language shall be practised from the very beginning, both with and without the use of various media and tools. Intercultural competence Knowledge about and an explorative approach to other languages, cultures, ways of life and ways of thinking open for new perspectives on the world and ourselves. Intercultural competence means developing curiosity about, insight into and understanding of cultural and linguistic diversity, both locally and globally, to interact with others.

Language learning and multilingualism

Having knowledge about language and exploring one's own language learning improves the ability of the pupils to learn and understand language in a lifelong perspective. In the encounter with the foreign-languages subject, the pupils are already multilingual and have extensive language-learning experiences from various contexts. By transferring their linguistic knowledge and language learning experiences from other languages they know and are familiar with, learning becomes more effective and meaningful.

Language and technology

Exploring and utilising subject-relevant language technology and new media provides additional opportunities for creative and critical learning, use and understanding of language, communication and intercultural competence.

Interdisciplinary topics

Democracy and citizenship

The interdisciplinary topic democracy and citizenship in the foreign-languages subject refers to training the ability of the pupils to think critically and learn to deal with differences of opinion and respect disagreements. This can open for additional ways of interpreting the world, help to cultivate curiosity and engagement and prevent prejudice.

Competence aims and assessment

Competence aims after Vg1 programmes for general studies, level I

The pupil is expected to be able to

• listen to and understand simple and clear speech about personal and everyday topics

• participate in simple conversations in everyday situations about activities and familiar topics

• talk about daily life and experiences and express opinions, also spontaneously

• read and understand adapted and simple authentic texts about personal and everyday topics

 • write simple texts about daily life and experiences that tell, describe and inform, with and without aids

• use simple language structures, rules for pronunciation and spelling and the official alphabet or characters of the language to communicate in a way that is adapted to the situation

• use relevant learning and communication strategies, digital resources and experiences from earlier language learning in the learning process

• explore and describe ways of life, traditions and geography in areas where the language is spoken and identify connections to one's own background

• explore and describe artistic and cultural expressions from areas where the language is spoken and express one's own experiences

Curriculum for Norwegian – LK20 (abbreviated)

About the subject

Relevance and central values

Norwegian is an important subject when it comes to cultural understanding, communication, all-round education and development of identity. The subject shall provide the pupils with access to the texts, genres and linguistic diversity of the culture, and shall help them to develop language for thinking, communicating and learning. The Norwegian subject shall equip the pupils to participate in democratic processes and prepare them for a working life that requires varied competence in reading, writing and oral communication. All subjects shall help the pupils to understand the value system for learning. The Norwegian subject shall provide the pupils with insight into the rich and diverse language and cultural heritage in Norway. Through working with the Norwegian subject, the pupils shall become confident language users who are aware of their own linguistic and cultural identity in an inclusive community in which multilingualism is valued as a resource. The subject shall develop the pupils' critical thinking abilities and equip them to participate in society through an exploratory and critical approach to language and text. The Norwegian subject shall provide the pupils with literary experiences and the possibility to express themselves creatively and inventively. Reading fiction and factual prose shall give the pupils the opportunity to reflect on important values and moral issues and shall help them to gain respect for human values and for nature.

Core elements

Text in context

The pupils shall read texts in order to experience, become engaged in, marvel at, learn about and acquire insight into the thoughts and living conditions of other people. The Norwegian subject builds on an expanded text concept. This means that the pupils shall read and experience texts that combine different forms of expression. They shall explore and reflect on fiction and factual texts in "bokmål" and "nynorsk" Norwegian (either can be optionally the first-choice and/or second-choice language), in Swedish and Danish, and in texts translated from Sami and other languages. The texts shall be linked to a cultural-history context and the pupils' contemporary time.

Critical approach to text

The pupils shall learn to reflect critically on the impact and credibility of the texts. They shall learn to use and vary language features and literary devices in an appropriate manner in their own oral and written texts. They shall demonstrate the ability to judge digital sources and have an ethical and reflective approach in their communication with others.

Oral communication

The pupils shall have positive experiences when expressing themselves freely orally. They shall listen to and build on the input of others in conversations on subject-related matters. They shall present, narrate and discuss issues in an appropriate manner, both spontaneously and planned, in front of an audience and using digital resources.

Written text creation

The pupils shall experience that the teaching in writing the langauge is meaningful. They shall learn to write in both the written first-choice language ("bokmål" or "nynorsk") and the written second-choice language ("bokmål" or "nynorsk") in various genres and for various purposes, and learn to combine

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writing with other forms of expression. They shall also learn to assess the texts of others and to revise their own texts based on feedback.

Language as system and opportunity

The pupils shall develop knowledge about and a system of concepts for describing grammatical and aesthetic aspects of language. They shall master established standards of language and genres and shall be able to play with, explore and experiment with the language in creative ways.

Linguistic diversity

The pupils shall learn about the current language situation in Norway and be able to explore its historical background. They shall acquire insight into the relationship between language, culture and identity and shall be able to understand their own and others' language situation in Norway.

Interdisciplinary topics

Health and life skills

In the Norwegian subject, the interdisciplinary topic of health and life skills refers to developing the ability of the pupils to express themselves in writing and orally. This is the foundation for being able to express their feelings, thoughts and experiences, which is important for dealing with relationships and participating in a social community. Reading fiction and factual prose can both confirm and challenge the pupils' self-image, thereby contributing to identity development and life skills.

Democracy and citizenship

In the Norwegian subject, the interdisciplinary topic of democracy and citizenship refers to developing the oral and written rhetorical skills of the pupils so they are able to express their own thoughts and opinions and to participate in societal and democratic processes. Through working with texts and utterances in a critical manner, the pupils shall train their ability to think critically and learn to address differences of opinion through reflection, dialogue and discussion. By reading fiction and factual prose, the pupils shall gain insight into the life situation and challenges of other people. This can help them to develop understanding, tolerance and respect for other people's opinions and perspectives, and build the foundation for constructive interaction.

Sustainability

In the Norwegian subject the interdisciplinary topic of sustainability shall develop the pupils' knowledge of how texts present nature, the environment and living conditions, both locally and globally. Through experiencing the diversity of texts in the Norwegian subject, reading critically and participating in dialogue, the pupils can develop the ability to understand and deal with differences of opinion and conflicts of interest that can arise when society transitions towards greater sustainability. The Norwegian subject shall help pupils to become aware of this issue and enable them to take action and influence society through language.

Competence aims and assessment

Competence aims after Vg1 programmes for general studies

The pupil is expected to be able to

• read, analyse and interpret newer works of fiction in "bokmål" and "nynorsk" and in translations from Sami and other languages

• reflect on how texts present encounters between different cultures

• explain and reflect on the use of rhetorical language, language features and literary devices in factual prose texts

• listen to others, construct well-reasoned arguments and use rhetorical language in discussions

• use different sources in a critical, independent and verifiable manner

• explain and discuss Norwegian subject-related or interdisciplinary topics orally

• write articles that explain and discuss topics that relate to the Norwegian subject or interdisciplinary topics

• use subject-related terminology to describe sentence structure and the relationship between sentences when working with texts

• combine language features, literary devices and forms of expression creatively in the creation of one's own texts

• assess and revise one's own texts based on feedback and subjectrelated criteria

• write texts with good structure and coherence and master punctuation and spelling in the written first-choice and second-choice languages

• compare distinctive features of Norwegian with other languages and demonstrate how language can be changed due to influence from other languages

• explain the prevalence of the Sami languages in Norway, the Norwegianization policy and linguistic rights the Sami have as an indigenous people

Core curriculum – values and principles for primary and secondary education – LK20 (abbreviated)

1. Core values of the education and training

School shall base its practice on the values in the objectives clause of the Education Act. The objectives clause expresses values that unite the Norwegian society. These values, the foundation of our democracy, shall help us to live, learn and work together in a complex world and with an uncertain future. The core values are based on Christian and humanist heritage and traditions. They are also expressed in different religions and worldviews and are rooted in human rights. These values are the foundation of the activities in school. They must be used actively and have importance for each pupil in the school environment through the imparting of knowledge and development of attitudes and competence. The values must have impact on the way the school and teachers interact with the pupil and the home. What is in the best interests of the pupil must always be a fundamental consideration. There will always be tensions between different interests and views. Teachers must therefore use their professional judgment so that each pupil is given the best possible care within the school environment. The Sami school shall ensure that the pupils receive education and training based on Sami values and the Sami languages, culture and societal life. The values in the objectives clause are also Sami values and apply in the Sami school. It is important to have a holistic- Sami perspective and an indigenous-people's perspective in the Sami school, and to focus on material and immaterial cultural heritage, such as traditional knowledge, duodji/duodje/duedtie and the importance of familial relations.

1.1 Human dignity

School shall ensure that human dignity and the values supporting this are the foundation for the education and training and all activities. The objectives clause is based on the inviolability of human dignity and that all people are equal regardless of what makes us different. When teachers show care for the pupils and acknowledge each individual, human dignity is then recognised as a fundamental value for the school and society. Based on human dignity, human rights are an important part of the foundation of our constitutional state. They are based on universal values that apply to all people regardless of who they are, where they come from and where they are. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child is also a part of human rights, giving children and young people special protection. The education and training given must comply with human rights, and the pupils must also acquire knowledge about these rights. Equality and equal rights are values that have been fought for throughout history and which are in constant need of protection and reinforcement. School shall present knowledge and promote attitudes which safeguard these values. All pupils shall be treated equally, and no pupil is to be subjected to discrimination. The pupils must also be given equal opportunities so they can make independent choices. School must consider the diversity of pupils and facilitate for each pupil to experience belonging in school and society. We may all experience that we feel different and stand out from the others around us. Therefore we need acknowledgement and appreciation of differences. Human beings are vulnerable and make mistakes. Forgiveness, charity and solidarity are necessary principles for the growth and development of human beings. Each person's convictions and principles must be taken seriously so that we can all think, believe and express ourselves freely. Pupils must also contribute to the protection of human dignity and reflect on how they can prevent the violation of human dignity.

1.2 Identity and cultural diversity

School shall give pupils historical and cultural insight that will give them a good foundation in their lives and help each pupil to preserve and develop her or his identity in an inclusive and diverse environment. Insight into our history and culture is important for developing the identities of pupils and their belonging in society. The pupils shall learn about the values and traditions which contribute

to uniting people in our country. Christian and humanist heritage and traditions are an important part of Norway's collective cultural heritage and have played a vital role in the development of our democracy. Sami cultural heritage is part of Norway's cultural heritage. Our shared cultural heritage has developed throughout history and must be carried forward by present and future generations. Common reference frameworks are important for each person's sense of belonging in society. This creates solidarity and connects each individual's identity to the greater community and to a historical context. A common framework gives and shall give room for diversity, and the pupils must be given insight into how we live together with different perspectives, attitudes and views of life. The experiences the pupils gain in the encounter with different cultural expressions and traditions help them to form their identity.

A good society is founded on the ideals of inclusiveness and diversity. The teaching and training shall ensure that the pupils are confident in their language proficiency, that they develop their language identity and that they are able to use language to think, create meaning, communicate and connect with others. Language gives us a sense of belonging and cultural awareness. In Norway, Norwegian and the Sami languages, South Sami, Lule Sami and North Sami, have equal standing. The Norwegian language comprises two equal forms of Norwegian bokmål and nynorsk. Norwegian sign language is also recognised as language in its own right in Norway. Knowledge about the linguistic diversity in society provides all pupils with valuable insight into different forms of expression, ideas and traditions.

All pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large. Through the teaching and training the pupils shall gain insight into the indigenous Sami people's history, culture, societal life and rights. The pupils shall learn about diversity and variation in Sami culture and societal life. Five groups with a long-standing attachment to Norway have the status as national minorities in accordance with our international obligations: Jews, Kvens/Norwegian Finns (people of Finnish descent in northern Norway), Forest Finns (Finnish people who settled in Norway), roma (the East European branch of the Romani, Gypsies) and Romani people/Tater (the Romanisel/Sinti, the western branch of the Romani, travellers). These groups have contributed to the Norwegian cultural heritage, and the teaching and training shall impart knowledge about these groups. Throughout history the Norwegian society has been influenced by different trends and cultural traditions. In a time when the population is more diversified than ever before, and where the world is coming closer together, language skills and cultural understanding are growing in importance. School shall support the development of each person's identity, make the pupils confident in who they are, and also present common values that are needed to participate in this diverse society and to open doors to the world and the future.

Appendix 2

Intervention task given to prior to answering the questionnaire:

AUFGABE/OPPGAVE:

Lytt til læreren lese, og les selv igjennom teksten individuelt. Forsøk å bruke alle dine tidligere lærte språk inn for å forstå teksten [Listen to the teacher reading and read through the text yourself. Try to use all your previously learnt languages to understand the text]:

«Essen, Trinken und Ausgehen in Berlin»[6]

Traditionelles und eingewandertes Essen

Wenn wir einen Deutschen fragen, was die Berliner essen, lautet die Antwort ganz sicher: Currywurst! Döner! Das stimmt auch. Die Currywurst, eine Wurst mit Currysauce, kommt aus Berlin. Und Döner Kebab, kurz Döner genannt, kann man in Berlin fast überall kaufen. Die Berliner sagen: Den besten Döner gibt es in Berlin. Ursprünglich kommt der Döner aus der Türkei. Türkische Einwanderer haben ihn Anfang der 1970er-Jahre nach Deutschland mitgebracht.

In Berlin gibt es Restaurants aus aller Welt. Egal ob deutsch oder italienisch, französisch oder japanisch, indisch oder koreanisch: in Berlin kann man alles finden. Auch internationales Fastfood kann man in Berlin genießen: Falafel, Dürüm, Hotdog, Burrito, Empanada, ein Stück Pizza auf die Hand – es geht schnell und schmeckt lecker.

Ausgehen in Berlin

Wenn man dann satt ist, kann man sich mit Freunden in einer Bar oder Kneipe treffen. Viele Lokale bieten auch tolle alkoholfreie Getränke an. Außerdem ist Berlin für sein Nachtleben bekannt. In den Clubs wird bis zum Morgen getanzt. Wenn man dann am Samstag gegen 12 Uhr aufwacht, geht man zum Brunch. Die Berliner lieben Brunch, und es gibt viele tolle Angebote.

Unter der Woche sitzen die Berliner auch mal im Café und arbeiten. Laptop an, WLAN läuft, der Kaffee schmeckt!

---

[6] The text is written by Marion Federl and taken from the Tysk 2 [German 2] course on the digital learning platform NDLA: https://ndla.no/nb/subject:1:ec288dfb-4768-4f82-8387-fe2d73fff1e1/topic:2:182988/topic:1:3421d37b-d359-46c8-8d65-ee357b257607/resource:1:180926

Questionnaire on multilingualism, Vg1, upper secondary school level

1. To which degree did you use knowledge of other languages, cognates, internationalisms, etc. **to understand the German text you just read?**

   Not at all ❑   To a little degree ❑   To some degree ❑ To a large degree ❑ To a very large degree ❑

2. Why did you/didn´t you use knowledge from other languages to understand the German text?

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   3a) When you learn **<u>German</u>**, to which degree do you think it is useful to use knowledge of other languages, cognates, internationalisms, etc.?

   Not at all ❑   To a little degree ❑   To some degree ❑ To a large degree ❑ To a very large degree ❑

   3b) When you learn **<u>English</u>**, to which degree do you think it is useful to use knowledge of other languages, cognates, internationalisms, etc.?

   Not at all ❑   To a little degree ❑   To some degree ❑ To a large degree ❑ To a very large degree ❑

   3c) What do you think it will take for knowledge about multilingualism (to use previously learnt languages when you learn new languages) to be useful for you as a student?

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

_____

_____

3d) Do YOU view yourself as multilingual? Why/why not?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

----

4. Indicate from 1-5 whether you disagree or agree with these utterances:

	Not at all ⟷ To a very large degree			
5	1	2	3	4
4.1 I think that learning several languages is important				
4.2 I think I will speak several languages in the future				
4.3 It is enough to only learn English, since everyone speaks it				
4.4 I do my best to learn languages in the language classes				
4.5 In my opinion, learning languages is difficult				
4.6 To learn many different languages is cool				
4.7 I mostly learn languages outside of school, through chatting, talking to friends, etc.				
4.8 It is OK to mix languages, when I speak or write				
4.9 I should stick to one language at a time when I speak or write				
4.10 To learn languages help me understand other cultures better				
4.11 To learn languages help me understand my own culture better				
4.12 I think that looking for words that are similar across languages will help me learn languages in a better way				
4.13 I learn best when I only stick to English in the English lessons and German in the German lessons				

5. Final comments. Is there anything else you would like to say?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Vielen Dank! Thank you! Takk for at du bidro! Thank you for your contribution!

Appendix 3

Literature search

Search words	Limitations	Time span	Databases	Hits
Multilingualism OR multilingual	Peer-reviewed	2006-2022	Education Source	63
Bilingualism OR bilingual			ERIC	54
Plurilingualism OR plurilingual			Academic Search Premier	40
Mainstream classroom OR mainstream education				
Search phrase: ((AB (multilingualism OR multilingual OR bilingualism OR bilingual OR plurilingualism OR plurilingual)) AND (AB ("Mainstream classroom*" OR "mainstream education"))) OR ((TI (multilingualism OR multilingual OR bilingualism OR bilingual OR plurilingualism OR plurilingual)) AND (TI ("Mainstream classroom*" OR "mainstream education")))				157 in total

Appendix 4

NSD approval

Appendix 5

Letter of consent

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet

"Flerspråklighet i videregående skole"?

1

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor målet er å finne ut hvordan flerspråklig undervisning kan gjennomføres i videregående skole, og å hente inn viktig informasjon om elevers, læreres og lærerutdanneres syn på flerspråklig undervisning og flerspråklig kompetanse. Vi kan forstå det å ha flerspråklig kompetanse som <u>å bruke kunnskap om tidligere lærte språk når man lærer nye språk.</u>

I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.
2
3   Formål
Formålet med studien «Flerspråklighet i videregående skole» er å skaffe kunnskap om hvordan flerspråklige undervisningsopplegg kan lages og gjennomføres, og deretter undersøke hvordan elever, lærere og lærerutdannere oppfatter disse undervisningsoppleggene. Studien er et PhD-prosjekt som finansieres av Universitetet i Sørøst Norge (USN). Prosjektet har en tidsramme på fire år, fra 2018-2022. Forskningsspørsmålene jeg vil besvare er:

1) Hvordan kan flerspråklighet gjennomføres i videregående skole? 2) Hvordan blir flerspråklighet og flerspråklige undervisningsopplegg oppfattet av elever, lærere og lærerutdannere? og 3) I hvilken grad identifiserer elever og lærere seg som flerspråklige*?*

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?
Universitetet i Sørøst Norge (USN) er ansvarlig for prosjektet.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?
Du får spørsmål om å delta fordi jeg ønsker å se på flerspråklig undervisning i klasser på videregående skole.

4   Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?
- Hvis du velger å delta i prosjektet, innebærer det at du fyller et spørreskjema. Det vil ta deg ca. 45 minutter. Spørreskjemaet inneholder spørsmål om hva du synes om språk, i hvilken grad du synes det flerspråklige undervisningsopplegget var nyttig for deg og om du ser på deg selv som flerspråklig. Dine svar fra spørreskjemaet blir registrert elektronisk.
- Du kan også bli bedt om å delta på individuelle intervjuer, det vil ta deg ca.45 minutter. På intervjuet vil det bli spurt om hvordan du oppfatter flerspråklighet, og flerspråklige operasjonaliseringer og undervisningsopplegg.

- Du kan også hvis du vil være med på et fokusgruppe-intervju, sammen med 4-5 andre, der vil det være noen av de samme spørsmålene som i spørreskjemaene, men da går vi litt mer i dybden om hva du synes om flerspråklighet og flerspråklig undervisning. Jeg tar lydopptak og notater fra intervjuet.

Det er frivillig å delta

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykke tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle opplysninger om deg vil da bli anonymisert. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg. Det vil heller ikke ha noen påvirkning på ditt forhold til skolen eller læreren.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger

Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

- Universitetet i Sørøst Norge (USN) er ansvarlig for prosjektet. Bare jeg, min veileder Heike Speitz og biveileder Åsta Haukås vil ha tilgang til dataene.
- For å sikre at ingen uvedkommende får tak i navnet og kontaktopplysningene dine vil jeg erstatte dem med en kode som lagres på egen navneliste adskilt fra øvrige data, og lagre dem i innelåst skap på USN.
- Ingen som deltar i studien vil kunne gjenkjennes

Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes 1.mars 2022. Ved prosjektslutt blir alle personopplysninger og opptak slettet og destruert etter at jeg har fått godkjent doktorgraden og forsvart avhandlingen ved en offentlig disputas

Dine rettigheter

Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:
- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få slettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få utlevert en kopi av dine personopplysninger (dataportabilitet), og
- å sende klage til personvernombudet eller Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?

Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke. På oppdrag fra Universitetet i Sørøst Norge (USN) har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Hvor kan jeg finne ut mer?

Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:
- Prosjektansvarlig Gro-Anita Myklevold ved Universitetet i Sørøst Norge (USN), på epost gmy@usn.no, eller telefon: 90790546.
- Vårt personvernombud: Paal Are Solberg, på epost *Paal.A.Solberg@usn.no* eller telefon*:* 35 57 50 53 / 918 60 041
- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS, på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller telefon: 55 58 21 17.

Med vennlig hilsen
Prosjektansvarlig
Gro-Anita Myklevold

___

Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet *«Flerspråklighet i videregående skole»*, og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

☐ å delta i *intervju*
☐ å delta i *spørreskjema*

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet, ca. 1.mars 2022.
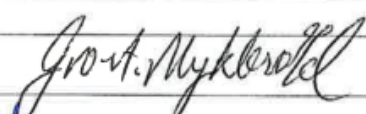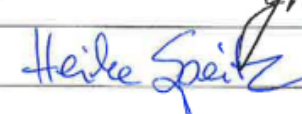
(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

USN University of
South-Eastern Norway

Co-author declaration

This form must be signed by the PhD candidate, the principal supervisor (where he/she is a co-author), and the other two most central authors. The corresponding author must be among them.

PhD candidate	Gro-Anita Myklevold
Principal supervisor	Heike Speitz
Authors	Gro-Anita Myklevold and Heike Speitz
Title	Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap?
Journal	*Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*

The PhD candidate's contribution to the article

1. Formulation/identification of the scientific problem:
   In formulating and identying the scientific problem, Myklevold was the main responsible for research design and formulating the research problem, and also for choosing the main conceptualizations of the construct.

2. Planning of the experiments and methodology design, including selection of methods and method development:
   In the selection of methodology, which consisted of two focus group interviews with teachers and a document analysis, Myklevold was the main responsible in making the research design, choice of methodology and method development.

3. Involvement in the experimental work:
   Two focus groups with teachers with three teachers in each group was conducted, and Myklevold was responsible for moderating and interviewing both groups, however, Speitz took part as an observer in the second interview. As regards the document analysis, Myklevold and Speitz both agreed to examine the four documents from LK20, and discuss representations of multilingualism there. Whereas Myklevold was responsible for analyzing the focus group interviews, Speitz did most of the document analysis, which is about 20% of the article.

4. Presentation, interpretation and discussion in a journal article format of obtained data:
   As regards presentation and discussion of the findings, we discussed coding and findings along the way, but Myklevold wrote most of the article, equaling 80% of the published article in the *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*.

Date	Signature	
26 July 2022	Gro-Anita Myklevold	*Gro-A. Myklevold*
27/7-22	*Heike Speitz*	

Part II

Articles

Article 1

Myklevold, G.-A. (2022). Operationalizing Multilingualism in A Foreign Language Classroom in Norway: Opportunities and Challenges. In: A. Krulatz, G. Neokleous & A. Dahl (Eds.), *Educational Implications of Classroom-based Research on Teaching Foreign Languages in Multilingual Settings* (pp. 320-339). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Not available online

Article 2

Myklevold, G.-A. (2021). «That is a big shift for us»: Teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations. *Globe: A Journal of Language, Culture, and Communication, 12*, 67-82. https://doi.org/10.5278/ojs.globe.v12i.6499

"That is a big shift for us": Teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations

Gro-Anita Myklevold, University of South-Eastern Norway

Abstract: This article explores how teachers and teacher educators perceive multilingualism in general, and how they comprehend four specific multilingual operationalizations in particular. It also examines how the participants perceive multilingualism in relation to their language subject(s) in the new national curriculum (LK20) in Norway. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews with four teachers and four teacher educators, and the analysis yielded three main themes. First, the participants regarded multilingualism as an important resource for both minority and majority language students in language acquisition and language use. Second, they reported a big shift in how they perceived multilingualism; from a narrow focus on language skills and fluency, to a wider emphasis on knowledge of languages, dialects and language learning. Third, despite this shift, the participants declared that they had insufficient knowledge of how to operationalize multilingualism systematically in their language classrooms. The implementation of the new curriculum (LK20) was viewed to be a good opportunity for developing more knowledge of multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations, but potential challenges to this were identified as the monolingual traditions underpinning the school structures and assessment cultures.

Keywords: Multilingualism, multilingual operationalizations, metacognition, language teaching and learning.

1. Introduction

Multilingualism is now seen as the norm rather than the exception in language education (Conteh & Meier 2014; May 2014; Dewaele 2015), and since some argue that "most people are multilingual to a certain extent" (Conteh & Meier 2014: 2), multilingualism may be regarded as a continuum, rather than a fixed category. Multilingualism is therefore here defined in a holistic sense "that takes into account all of the languages in the learner's repertoire" (Cenoz & Gorter 2011: 342).

The concept of "the multilingual turn" has also been upheld by several scholars within language acquisition studies (Conteh & Meier 2014; May 2014), and this has involved a paradigm shift in how language learning is perceived; from the static, monolingual ideal of the native speaker towards a more fluid, dynamic and multilingual speaker (May 2014; Makalela 2015). However, several studies show that this shift has mainly been a theoretical shift, and that monolingual teaching practices still dominate around the world (Paquet-Gauthier & Beaulieu 2016; Cummins 2017; Kirsch et al. 2020). Consequently, there seems to be a discrepancy between research and language policies encouraging multilingualism on the one hand, and actual classroom practices on the other hand (Cummins & Persad 2014; Lundberg 2019).

Some researchers therefore point to the need for a Gestaltshift in attitudes for major educational stakeholders, and claim that: "it appears that the most important challenge is … the need for a shift in attitudes of those who work with highly diverse classrooms on a daily basis, teachers, educators and policy-makers" (Herzog-Punzenberger et al. 2017: 34). Since teachers and teacher educators are important stakeholders who interpret and implement reforms and curricula, it is important to examine their perceptions of these in order to comprehend what hinders or promotes changes. "Perceptions" here denote opinions and perspectives, and is used synonymously with "beliefs" and "attitudes" since they often "[travel] under alias" (Pajares 1992: 309). They also "affect [the teachers'] behaviour in the classroom" (Pajares 1992: 307) and although teachers' perceptions are generally seen as difficult to change (Borg 2011), some studies have found that curriculum reform can bring about rapid and comprehensive alterations in teachers' perceptions (Sopanen 2019).

Research article

In order to analyze what promotes or hinders multilingual classroom practices in schools and teacher education, more empirical evidence on this is needed (Haukås 2016; Krulatz & Iversen 2019; Lundberg 2019), and semi-structured interviews have therefore been conducted with teachers and teacher educators in order to "enter into the other person's perspective" (Patton 2002: 3341). The aim of the current study is therefore threefold; 1) it will examine teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism, 2) it will examine their perceptions of multilingual operationalizations, operationalizations here refer to how multilingualism is implemented in the classroom, and 3) it will analyze how they perceive multilingualism in relation to their language subject(s) in the new national curriculum (LK20) in Norway. To do this, three research questions were developed:

- RQ1: What are the teachers' and teacher educators' general perceptions of multilingualism?

- RQ2: What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of four specific multilingual operationalizations?

- RQ3: What are the teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism in relation to their language subject(s) in the new curriculum (LK20)?

2. Theoretical background

When analyzing teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism, it may be appropriate to utilize the theoretical lenses of language ideologies by Richard Ruiz (1984) and the expansion of his theories into multilingualism-as-a-resource by Ester de Jong et al. (2016; 2019).

In his seminal article, Ruiz (1984) is concerned with language ideologies behind national language policies and language attitudes. He proposes three different orientations: language-as-problem, language-as-right and language-as-resource. However, he underlines that these are "competing, but not incompatible approaches" (Ruiz 1984: 18).

Language-as-problem refers to a view where one identifies and resolves certain problems related to language use and language planning, and stems from the one nation-one language ideology and reductionistic language views of the past where anything outside of the majority language was identified as problematic or challenging. This view has been found in educational policy documents in Norway, where "multilingualism", in Norwegian called "flerspråklighet", has been previously linked to minority language students and a lack of competence in the majority language (Sickinghe 2016; Haukås & Speitz 2018).

Language-as-right, on the other hand, stems from the idea that considers languages as basic human rights, and to be free "from discrimination on the basis of language" (Ruiz 1984: 22). This language ideology has reduced the discrimination of the culture and languages of many native peoples around the world, including the indigenous Sami population in Norway. However, Ruiz is also ambivalent about such a rights-perspective in language policies due to its confrontational nature "where the rights of the few are affirmed over those of the many" (Ruiz 1984: 24).

Therefore, Ruiz proposes a third, less confrontational and more holistic language ideology: language-as-resource. Here, he claims that "language is a resource to be managed, developed and conserved" (Ruiz 1984: 28), and that when languages are viewed as concrete resources in for example schools, industry and diplomacy, language minorities will also be viewed as "important sources of expertise" (Ruiz 1984: 28).

Building on Ruiz (1984), de Jong et al. (2016, 2019) argue that there is a need for a fourth, new paradigm called "multilingualism-as-a-resource" (de Jong et al. 2019: 107). They assert that it is vital to view *multilingualism* as an asset in schools, and that it is both destructive and inefficient to

disregard the students' diverse, multilingual realities outside of school. They also claim that teachers and teacher educators have a great responsibility when interpreting and applying new curricula in their classrooms, and that educators "must recognize and build on what students already know and our understandings of multilingual development and learning as they develop and implement their curriculum" (de Jong et al. 2019: 108-109). It is furthermore stated that a multilingualism-as-a-resource orientation is often contradicted and hindered by rigorous separation of languages and "overt policies that require monolingual environments in the language of instruction" (de Jong et al. 2019: 115).

2.1. Studies on multilingualism in education in Norway
Also in Norway, the concept of multilingualism as a significant resource has been highlighted in important steering documents like the previous Norwegian national curricula of English and foreign languages (LK06), the new national curricula (LK20) and in different white papers (see for example "Språk åpner dører"/ "Languages open doors", published by the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, henceforth Udir 2007). Despite all this, reports still find that multilingualism to a large degree has been neglected in Norwegian schools (Language Council of Norway 2015; Dahl & Krulatz 2016; Haukås 2016; Iversen 2017; Burner & Carlsen 2019; Myklevold forthcoming).

Several studies also report that teachers lack knowledge of multilingualism and that multilingualism is still not fully operationalized in language teaching (Šurkalović 2014; Dahl & Krulatz 2016; Haukås 2016; Iversen 2017). In one survey, almost 80% of the teacher respondents had no education or training in working with multilingual pupils (Dahl & Krulatz 2016: 9).

Šurkalović (2014) reported similar findings in her study on multilingualism in teacher education, where she argued that the teacher students had insufficient knowledge of the prominence of multilingual pupils in Norwegian schools and that the teacher education programs did not assist them in compensating for that knowledge gap (Šurkalović 2014).

A study by Haukås (2016) examined teacher's beliefs about multilingualism and found that even if teachers are positive towards multilingualism, they do not often promote multilingualism, as they do not utilize learners' previous knowledge of languages. Haukås also reported that even though teachers think that collaboration between teachers across languages could strengthen their pupils' learning outcomes, such a collaboration is non-existent (Haukås 2016: 11).

Iversen (2017), in his study on the role of minority pupils' L1 when learning English, claims that even though the pupils make use of their L1 when learning English, for example through translations and grammatical comparisons, the teachers do not support or encourage such a multilingual and metacognitive way of learning languages (Iversen 2017: 35).

Myklevold (forthcoming), investigated the operationalization of multilingualism and the students' and teacher's perceptions thereof in a foreign language classroom in Norway. The operationalization consisted of a multilingual lesson plan based on cognates, internationalisms and textual patterns (see Method), and even though the teacher perceived a challenge to be the acquisition of knowledge of all the students' first languages, the multilingual lesson plan was reported by both the teacher and the students to facilitate text comprehension and metacognition.

2.2. Metacognition
As both Haukås (2014), Iversen (2017) and Myklevold (forthcoming) point to, an interesting aspect of multilingualism as a resource for improving language learning, is the importance attributed to metacognition. Flavell (1976) was the developmental psychologist who was the first to coin the term, but in language learning and teaching metacognition may be defined as "an awareness of and reflections about one's knowledge, experiences, emotions and learning" (Haukås et al. 2018: 3). Studies have shown that metacognition is important in order to strengthen language learning (Anderson 2008; Haukås et al. 2018), and as Dahm (2015) also observes, "[w]hen learners notice

similarities between two languages, they show a metalinguistic activity" (Dahm 2015: 45). Interestingly, the new national curriculum (LK20) also stresses the significance of metacognition such as "reflecting over own and others' learning" (Udir 2019: 11, my translation).

2.3. The new national curriculum (LK20) in Norway
In the new national curriculum (LK20), which was introduced and gradually implemented in Norwegian schools on August 1, 2020, the value of linguistic and cultural diversity is strongly emphasized. In the general curriculum, which is a separate document that lays down the core values and principles of the Norwegian school system, linguistic and cultural diversity is strongly promoted:

> Knowledge about the linguistic diversity in society provides all pupils with valuable insight into different forms of expression, ideas and traditions. All pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large (Udir 2017: 5).

Furthermore, the individual subject curricula for Norwegian, English and Foreign languages all underscore the notion of multilingualism as a resource and that the knowledge of several languages shall be viewed as an important asset. In the Norwegian curriculum, it is stated that "the students are to become confident in language use and aware of their own linguistic and cultural identity within an inclusive collective where multilingualism is valued as a resource" (Udir 2019: 2, my translation), similarly, in the English curriculum it is stated that "the students shall experience that knowing several languages is a resource in school and in society" (Udir 2019: 2, my translation). This is even more highlighted in the Foreign languages curriculum, since a whole focus area, or core element, is named "Language learning and multilingualism", and where it is argued that "When starting the subject of foreign languages, the students are already multilingual and have comprehensive language learning experiences from different contexts" (Udir 2019: 3, my translation).

3. Method
Data were collected using semi-structured interviews with the teachers (*n*=4) and the teacher educators (*n*=4). The interviews were mainly conducted in Norwegian, since this was the major language of school instruction, and then translated into English by the researcher. However, since half of the participants had another mother tongue than Norwegian, they were informed that we could also conduct the interviews in English if this felt more natural for them, something which two of the informants wished to (see appended Interview guides in English and Norwegian). The participants were asked to comment on a multilingual lesson plan explored in a previous study by Myklevold (forthcoming). The aim of the previous study was to explore students' and teacher's perceptions of the usefulness of a multilingual lesson plan in German and English language education. This multilingual intervention consisted of a four-week multilingual lesson plan which employed four specific multilingual operationalizations taken from a set of descriptors identified in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) *Companion volume with new descriptors* (Council of Europe 2018). These operationalizations were chosen because they were concrete and easily applicable to language learning in the classroom, and because they represent important multilingual competence:

1. Capacity to use knowledge of familiar languages to understand new languages, looking for cognates and internationalisms in order to make sense of texts in unknown languages – whilst being aware of the danger of 'false friends' (Council of Europe 2018: 157)

2. Capacity to exploit one's linguistic repertoire by purposefully blending, embedding and alternating languages at the utterance level and at the discourse level (Council of Europe 2018: 158)

3. Can use his/her knowledge of contrasting genre conventions and textual patterns in languages in his/her plurilingual repertoire in order to support comprehension (Council of Europe 2018: 160)

4. Can use what he/she has understood in one language to understand the topic and main message of a text in another language (Council of Europe 2018: 160).

In the current study, the multilingual lesson plan was distributed to the eight participants 24 hours before the interviews were conducted, in order for them to have enough time to read through and go into depth of it. Both teachers and teacher educators were included as informants since they are important educational stakeholders providing essential information when interpreting and implementing curricula (de Jong et al. 2019).

3.1. Context and participants
The participants were purposefully recruited from two upper secondary schools (four participants) and two universities (four participants) in Norway. Purposeful sampling may be described as focusing on "selecting information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under study" (Patton 2002: 230), and furthermore that "Studying information-rich cases yields insights and in depth-understanding rather than empirical generalizations" (Patton 2002: 230). In order to obtain these information-rich cases, a maximum variation sampling (Patton 2002: 234) was chosen.

Three criteria were followed for the selection of informants: a) participants with both longer and shorter teaching experience, b) participants with and without Norwegian as their first language (L1), and c) participants that represented as many language subjects as possible. Informed consent was obtained from all the informants, and their anonymity was protected through utilizing codes for both the schools and participants. As Table 1 demonstrates, half of the participants had another L1 than Norwegian; English, Frisian, French and Spanish. All participants were rather experienced teachers, and their teaching experience from the sector ranged from 8 to 31 years. The language subjects of the eight informants at their current institutions were either English, French, German or Norwegian, or a combination of these:

Table 1: Overview of participants' first languages, language subjects, years of teaching experience and institutional belonging

PARTICIPANT CODE	FIRST LANGUAGE (L1)	LANGUAGE SUBJECT(S)	YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE	INSTITUTION
TEACHER 1 (T1)	Norwegian	Norwegian	10	School 1
TEACHER 2 (T2)	Norwegian	English, German	18	School 2
TEACHER 3 (T3)	Frisian	English, Norwegian	23	School 2
TEACHER 4 (T4)	French	English, French, German	31	School 2
TEACHER ED. 1 (TE1)	Norwegian	German	22	University 1
TEACHER ED. 2 (TE2)	English	English	8	University 1
TEACHER ED. 3 (TE3)	Norwegian	English	20	University 2
TEACHER ED. 4 (TE4)	Spanish	English	12	University 2

3.2. Analysis

The interviews of the participants ranged from 42 to 65 minutes, and were subsequently transcribed by the researcher. The interview transcripts were examined using QSR NVivo10. The transcripts were analyzed in three cycles, and in order to validate the analysis, both analyst triangulation (Patton 2002) and respondent validation (Silverman 2013) were used. In the first cycle, in order to get acquainted with the material, the transcripts were read through and comments were made to text extracts which seemed to inform the research questions (RQs). In the second cycle, In Vivo coding was used in order to allocate preliminary codes to the transcribed material (Miles et al. 2014) by using the informants' own words and phrases as categories. In this phase, a colleague checked my suggested analysis, comparing the codes with the informants' statements, from which they were developed. Wherever he disagreed with my suggestions, we discussed the codes and I subsequently modified the ones we disagreed on. On the basis of these codes, I analyzed the rest of the material. Such analyst triangulation, that is use of another coder or analyst, is regarded as a way of enhancing the trustworthiness of the results (Patton 2002: 560). The In Vivo codes were compared internally in the third cycle, and in allusion to the theoretical framework presented above, the In Vivo codes were substituted by descriptive codes when they seemed to be more pertinent (Miles et al. 2104). In the final stages of the analysis, respondent validation techniques were also used, in that the researcher went back to two of the informants, one teacher and one teacher educator, with the tentative findings and adjusted them after their reactions (Silverman 2013: 288).

4. Findings

4.1. RQ1: teachers' and teacher educators' general perceptions of multilingualism

The participants all perceived multilingualism as a natural and important resource in language acquisition and language use. Teacher 1 (T1) described a multilingual person simply to be "somebody who has quite a lot of knowledge about languages", and teacher educator 3 (TE3) similarly used a holistic definition of multilingualism:

> TE3: I understand 'multilingualism' as knowledge about different languages. And then there is obviously a question of how we define languages. If we are thinking about variants of a language, then we can include dialects, or if we talk about languages in a bigger context, for example national languages. But in language learning, I think it concerns how to involve the linguistic resources one possesses at large, in order to learn languages, and use languages.

Interestingly, six of the eight participants also reported that they related multilingualism to *all* students in Norway, not just the minority language students, which supports the argument that all students in Norway are multilingual (Haukås & Speitz 2018: 304). Teacher 4 (T4) for example claimed that:

> T4: First and foremost, I think it's important to be aware of the students who come from regions with minority languages, and that we in Norway do not know, but which provides them with an enormous competence. … But also Norwegian students who are raised in Norway, have been exposed to Danish and Swedish, and start learning English very early, and maybe they have a grandmother from Germany, or France, or something, … and that also adds something, so I think that multilingualism is something that relates to almost *everyon*e.

The participants with other first languages (L1s) than Norwegian reported that multilingualism was a natural asset, for example teacher 3 (T3) reported that "It is the natural state of the world, … there

is nothing hocus-pocus about it" and teacher educator 2 (TE2) claimed that this was a continuum where it was enough to "touch on" or briefly use multiple languages for her to label it multilingualism: "what I know now about 'multilingual' is just being able to touch on other languages, so most people in this world are multilingual".

However, six of the eight participants also reported that they had experienced a 'shift' in their perception of multilingualism the last few years, and now had a wider definition of multilingualism. They also reported that their definitions had changed from a native speaker and fluency perspective to a more holistic perspective:

> T2: My definition has definitely changed, just in the last couple of years, actually. Because now I have perhaps become less anxious to call it multilingualism, or to define it as that. Because I don't think you have to be fluent to be multilingual, I think it can also involve knowledge, and knowledge about cultures, as well.

This new way of defining multilingualism was perceived by TE2 to be holistic and liberating, since this participant previously had had a monolingual view of language learning and claimed that "I have just spent a lot of years in my life feeling guilty … about mixing languages".

When substantiating their views of multilingualism, all the teacher educators and two of the teachers referred to the same steering documents of CEFR, LK06 and LK20. Teacher Educator 1 (TE1) claimed that:

> TE1: You obviously learn Norwegian and English in school, and German, or French, or Spanish… My entire language competence makes me say that I am multilingual today. The same is true for anyone who starts school, really, anyone who grows up in Norway, anyone who is exposed to these languages. And the dialects, and the diversity. But also because there are steering documents that state that we use our multilingual resources when we learn new languages, and that is with us all the way.

4.2. RQ2: teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of four concrete multilingual operationalizations

All of the respondents viewed the multilingual lesson plan which employed four specific multilingual manifestations taken from CEFR (Council of Europe 2018) as a useful starting point for incorporating multilingualism in language education. T2 perceived this kind of operationalization to be "an unused resource" in the language classroom, and that it was a useful metacognitive learning strategy for the students if the teacher helped them become aware of it:

> T2: There is so much more to be gained here. If you think about the foreign languages, both on level I and level II, then there are especially words that look like your L1, or words that look like your neighboring languages, or … international words. … And I think that we cannot take for granted that each student immediately spots this alone, you should think that, but I experience it in the classroom, that that is not the case, so you have to help them to find that strategy.

However, multilingualism was also reported to be a vague and challenging concept, so the multilingual operationalization was therefore seen as a concrete attempt to manifest *how* multilingualism could be implemented in a classroom:

> TE3: I think that this is very interesting, because in my opinion one of the main challenges

with the term multilingualism is that it is quite vague. Very few have a firm grasp of how to use it in the classroom. And how to understand it, and how to operationalize it. So I find it important to be able to pin it down, and then I think that what the Council of Europe has suggested here, with cognates, and genres, and internationalisms, and so on, is a very interesting starting point to try out a way to comprehend multilingualism.

Teacher Educator 4 reported that this kind of multilingual task could motivate the students and all of the informants supported the view that the students could become more metacognitively aware through such a multilingual operationalization. Teacher Educator 4 (TE4), the informant with the biggest multilingual repertoire, reported a metacognitive advantage both for the teacher and for the teacher students, and was the only participant in the study who employed a systematic mapping of the previously learnt languages of the students through language biographies and language silhouettes:

TE4: Normally for the [teacher] students … there is always a first assignment which is sort of a language biography. And then they have to talk about the languages they speak, and their relationship to them. And then of course, especially English, but any other as well, and bringing in also the affective things, like 'How do you feel about this language?'

In contrast, T2 reported that systematic mapping was not employed in the foreign language teaching at her school and claimed that "it is used to a very small degree, I think, which clearly is a weakness, as I perceive it now".

When asked about the importance of linguistic proximity in relation to the multilingual operationalization, several participants were unsure of this, but T2, T3, TE2 and TE4 suggested that one could work more in terms of language strategies, grammatical structure or metaphors than with cognates or vocabulary when languages were very different. However, TE1 perceived that the focus could both be on cognates and the transfer of language learning experiences when working with different languages such as Arabic and German:

TE1: Berlin is probably called Berlin in Arabic as well, for example. … I don't know enough Arabic to know this, but I can imagine that these terms exist, and there are pictures here as well, aren't there? … But what you could say to…somebody that has Arabic as their mother tongue, is that you must focus on the language learning experience that this person has …

4.3. RQ3: teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of multilingualism in relation to the new curriculum (LK20)

All of the teachers perceived the introduction of the LK20, and its emphasis on deep learning to be a good opportunity to use more time on multilingualism. One of the teachers, T2, also linked the introduction of LK20 to a clearer expectation of accentuating multilingualism: "I think there is a much clearer expectation now, which will be of help, I believe. Because now we have to work with that kind of learning here as well, we must raise our awareness ...". Similarly, one of the teacher educators, TE1, claimed that the introduction of LK20 will help strengthen the focus on multilingualism in teacher education: "[H]ere [in LK20] there is more force behind our claims and it is made more visible, I think. More legitimized, perhaps?"

However, several of the participants also noted several challenges behind the implementation of LK20 and multilingualism in their language subject(s), and the most preeminent issues identified were time restraints, lack of research on operationalizations of multilingualism and the monolingual

traditions behind school structures and assessment. T3 claimed that in order to change the current teaching practices, extensive collaboration between the language teachers is required, and reported that "we lack an arena for that". TE2 reported that the monolingual ideologies in academia are still prevalent, and that there is a "shift in thought" needed in order to avoid "the English only" paradigm. Also, the assessment culture was problematized by TE2: "Because, ehm… you have a limited amount of time in the classroom. … And so… if we start mixing into these different languages, how can we document that there's progression?". Similarly, TE3 argued that one of the biggest challenges in implementing multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations was the lack of clarity of the concept and that there is a need for more extensive, longitudinal research within all aspects of this field:

> TE3: [W]e need research on how this can be utilized, and on how the students perceive it, and how the teachers view it, and maybe also studies of learning effects. … Much research is needed over time, and it needs to materialize in learning resources, text books for teacher students, for pupils, courses, research on how to use it … and assess it.

5. Discussion

When the participants reported that they had experienced a shift in their perception of multilingualism, and now had a wider definition of multilingualism than what they previously had, this may be due to many reasons. The impact of 'the multilingual turn' in language learning (May 2014) may be one of the reasons for this, in addition to the important steering documents of CEFR (Council of Europe 2001, 2018), the previous Norwegian national curricula (LK06), the current reform (LK20) and the participants' own personal trajectories, but the teachers and teacher educators nevertheless seem to have undergone a change in how they perceive multilingualism. Sopanen (2019) claims that curriculum reform can assist in changing teachers' perceptions and make them more conscious of their own practices, and several of the teachers in the current study either refer to the new national curricula or the other steering documents when elaborating their views of multilingualism. Teacher educator 1 even argues that LK20 now 'legitimizes' an emphasis on multilingualism, which may imply that curriculum reform is being utilized as an important argument for devoting more time on multilingualism within teacher education.

Multilingualism was also perceived by the participants as an important resource and asset in language learning in schools, linking it closely to the language-as-resource ideology (Ruiz 1987) and multilingualism-as-a-resource orientation (de Jong et al. 2016, 2019). Most of the participants included both minority and majority language students in their definitions, and seemed to regard multilingualism as a continuum, rather than a fixed category. They included knowledge of languages, dialects, language learning and cultures in their wide definitions. However, despite their broader, heteroglossic definitions of multilingualism, they also often pointed to the fact that they lack knowledge of incorporating multilingual teaching practices systematically. There may be several explanations for this, but one important reason may be due to the monolingual assumptions underlying the school culture, assessment and teaching practices, which do not provide for opportunities to experiment with or develop multilingual lesson plans. As noted by de Jong et al. (2019), a rigorous separation of languages in time tables and monolingual assessment practices will discourage many opportunities for language teacher co-operation and obstruct multilingual teaching practices. Several of the participants claimed that there were no arenas for structured language teacher co-operation in their schools, which is supported in other studies (Haukås 2016), and that this was perceived as a flaw in the schools' structure and a missed opportunity for transfer of knowledge. Many opportunities for focusing on language awareness across the languages were lost, some reported. Other perceived weaknesses within the school structure were also identified by the participants, like for example the lack of mapping the students' previously learnt languages in a comprehensive way,

which may be due to the pervasive monolingual structures conserving traditional teaching practices, and which prevents flexibility or innovative thinking across languages for the teachers.

When asked about whether they perceived any opportunities or challenges concerning multilingualism in the new curriculum, several of the participants pointed to both the pressing time issue due to increased pressure for documentation, and the monolingual structures behind the assessment culture. TE2 asked "Because, ehm… you have a limited amount of time in the classroom. … And so… if we start mixing into these different languages, how can we document that there's progression?", and TE3 similarly argued that there is a need for more research on multilingualism and how to assess it. Here, the participants illustrate de Jong et al.'s (2019) point that the strong monolingual ideologies behind schools' assessment culture may impede a multilingualism-as-a-resource orientation for teacher educators and teachers. This also makes it difficult for teachers and teacher educators for adjusting and "finding themselves in linguistically diverse classrooms" (Lundberg 2019: 267), and may explain some of the participants' insecurity behind how to operationalize multilingualism in their classrooms. This challenge identified by TE2 also supports the argument made by Cenoz & Gorter (2017) that new, more holistic approaches should be introduced in both language policy and assessment of languages, something that the new curriculum in Norway so far has not grappled with, perhaps because it requires a comprehensively new structure of language learning and assessment practices. If monolingual, summative assessment awaits at the end of the school year, the time spent on multilingual practices will be diminished, because the teachers are preoccupied with documenting progression for each student in each, isolated language. This will probably also hinder some of the courage needed to utilize more time on language awareness and innovative, multilingual approaches in the classroom, as T2 reported.

The participants' perceptions of how to operationalize some of the competence goals concerning multilingualism in the LK20 were scarce, and few concrete examples were given. Several of the respondents claimed that this was a work in progress and would take some time, exactly because it was a big shift for them. The context of a new educational reform that has barely started may have added to this feeling of insecurity, but there may be other explanations as well. One of them may be the lack of operationalizations of the concept, in schools, textbooks and curriculum reforms, another one may be the previous lack of focus on multilingualism in schools and teacher education.

Despite the fact that the language subjects in LK20 highlight multilingualism and have at their foundation a multilingualism-as-a-resource orientation (de Jong et al. 2016, 2019), even here there seems to be a lack of operationalizations of the concept. How to define and implement multilingualism appears to be only scarcely treated in LK20, which may prove to be problematic for the teachers and teacher educators when incorporating the new subject curricula in their teaching. If this is the case, the concept of multilingualism may be perceived by the teachers as equally vague and difficult to apply in practice as it was in the previous curricula LK06 (Myklevold forthcoming).

The need for more operationalizations and scaffolding of multilingual teaching practices is also a point made by the participants, when claiming that more research is needed on how to concretely design, utilize and assess multilingual lesson plans. In order for the new curricula in English and foreign languages to be properly implemented, multilingualism should therefore be emphasized in teacher education, and teachers and teacher educators should be assisted in operationalizing multilingualism through research, courses and text books. This, in addition to a more flexible structure of language education where language separation is avoided and multilingualism is comprehensively valued as a vital asset (de Jong et al. 2019), could assist in maximizing the multilingual potential in contemporary classrooms for important educational stakeholders like students, teachers and teacher educators.

There are several limitations to this study. It should of course be noted that the participants in this study are composed of a small sample, that the data is self-reported and that only one data source (interviews) is used. It should be complemented with a bigger sample, and with more data sources

like classroom observations and questionnaires to improve the validity. Also, the fact that the participants had 24 hours to read the multilingual lesson plan prior to the interviews may have caused some of the participants to read up on the issue or use other sources of influences. Therefore, it would be useful to observe multilingual practices in situ, and over a longer period of time, to observe whether the findings could be validated further.

6. Conclusion

The participants reported that they had experienced a shift in perceptions of how they perceive multilingualism and now relate it more to language knowledge than to language skills or fluency. They include both minority language students and majority language students in their definitions, and refer to important steering documents such as CEFR, LK06 and LK20 as the basis of their definitions.

However, despite this shift in perceptions, many of the informants also reported that they possessed insufficient knowledge of how to concretely utilize multilingualism in their language classrooms, and that the provided multilingual operationalization was a useful starting point in this respect. Even though monolingual traditions underlying schools and teaching was perceived by some participants as potentially hindering the multilingual emphasis in LK20, the implementation of the curriculum reform was seen by most respondents to be a good opportunity for developing knowledge about multilingualism and multilingual operationalizations, and encouraging metacognition in their classrooms.

Since a holistic view of multilingualism seems to be dominant among the teacher and teacher educators in the sample, where they report that they relate multilingualism to *all* students in Norway, more studies on the experiences and effects of multilingualism for both minority language and majority language students should be carried out. In addition, future research could involve curriculum studies on how multilingualism is constructed and should be assessed in language learning. More research on *how* multilingualism can be implemented in language classrooms is also needed in order to provide present and future teachers and teacher educators with research-based knowledge of how multilingualism as a resource (de Jong et al. 2016, 2019) can be thoroughly utilized. This may be essential in order to mend the gap between multilingualism in research and multilingualism in practice, and advance from a shift in teacher perceptions to a shift in teaching practices.

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Appendices

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS, INTERVIEW GUIDE, MYKLEVOLD, G.-A.:

A) **Multilingualism in general:**
   i) How do you perceive 'multilingualism'? Or 'a multilingual person'?
   ii) Does 'fluency', how fluent you are, or frequency, how often you use the language, have anything to do with how you view multilingualism?
   iii) Some researchers associate multilingualism mostly with minority language students, i.e. students who have another mother tongue than Norwegian, what are your thoughts on this?
   iv) Has your definition of multilingualism changed in any way?
   v) Do you have any thoughts on how your understanding of multilingualism can be used in practice in the classroom, for example regarding methods, tasks, etc.?

B) **Operationalizations of multilingualism:**
   A lesson plan for achieving multilingual competence for students can, for example, be one that contains a focus on: A) cognates, B) international words, C) genre knowledge and D) common textual patterns (CEFR 2018). The idea behind this is to "use knowledge of familiar languages to understand new languages" (Council of Europe 2018: 157).

   i) Based on your experience with language teaching, how did you perceive the multilingual lesson plan provided?
   ii) Some of the students in the previous study claimed that they thought that such a multilingual lesson plan improved their metacognitive skills, and one said that "It was useful to focus on it in more detail, because then you become more conscious of it". What is your opinion on this? And on language awareness?
   iii) Do you usually map your students' languages in any way before you start teaching them?
   iv) Some of the students also reported that they perceived the multilingual lesson plan as more useful in "similar" languages and in initial training in German than e.g. in English, as they already know many English words. What are your thoughts on this? With similar/dissimilar languages, and beginner/advanced language learners?
   v) One student also asked "Can I use my Arabic when I learn Norwegian, or do the languages have to be more similar?" Do you have experience with this, or suggestions in terms of how to concretely solve this in language teaching?

C) **Multilingualism and the new curriculum (LK20):**
   When the new curriculum is implemented in the autumn, it is among other things stated that "multilingualism is to be valued as a resource" and that the students are to be able to "compare distinctive features of Norwegian with other languages […]" (from the Norwegian subject curriculum, my translation) and that the students are to be able to "Use knowledge of connections between English and other languages the students know in their own language learning" (from the English subject curriculum, my translation).

i)   How do you view the new competence goals in the new curriculum (appendix) in your language subject(s)?

ii)   How do you view the new competence goals related to multilingualism in your language subject(s)? For example the competence goal in Norwegian: The students are to be able to "compare distinctive features of Norwegian with other languages and show how linguistic encounters can create language changes".

iii)   How do you think that one could work with the above mentioned competence goals (or others concerning multilingualism) in your language subject(s)?

iv)   Do you see anything that creates new opportunities or that is challenging in the new competence goals in your subject?

v)   Are there any of these competence goals that you have focused on earlier in your teaching?

vi)   To what extent do you think that the LK20 will bring any changes in your language teaching in the future?

SEMI-STRUKTURERT INTERVJU, INTERVJUGUIDE, MYKLEVOLD, G.-A.:

A) Flerspråklighet generelt:
 i)   Hvordan forstår du 'flerspråklighet'? Eller en 'flerspråklig person'?
 ii)   Har 'fluency', altså hvor flytende du er, eller hyppighet, hvor ofte man snakker det, noe å si i din forståelse av flerspråklighet?
 iii)   En del forskere forbinder flerspråklighet mest med minoritetsspråklige elever, altså de som har et annet morsmål enn norsk, hva er dine tanker rundt dette?
 iv)   Har synet ditt på flerspråklighet forandret seg?
 v)   Har du noen tanker rundt hvordan din forståelse av flerspråklighet kan brukes i praksis i klasserommet, f.eks. med hensyn til metoder, oppgaver, etc.?

B) Operasjonalisering av flerspråklighet:
Et forslag til å oppnå flerspråklig kompetanse for elevene er f.eks. et undervisningsopplegg hvor elevene bla. fokuserer på A) kognater (felles ord), B), internasjonale ord, C) sjangerkunnskap og D) felles tekstmønstre (CEFR, 2018). Tanken er at man skal «use knowledge of familiar languages to understand new languages/ bruke kunnskap om kjente språk for å lære nye språk» (Council of Europe 2018: 157, min oversettelse).

i)   Utfra din erfaring med språkundervisning, hva er ditt inntrykk av det flerspråklige undervisningsopplegget?

ii)   Noen av elevene i den første studien sa at de syntes et slikt flerspråklig opplegg hjalp dem med hensyn til metakognisjon i egen språklæring, én sa f.eks. at «Det var nyttig å fokusere på det mer i detalj, for da ble du mer bevisst på det.» Hva er din oppfatning av dette med språklig bevissthet?

iii)   Pleier du å kartlegge elevenes språk før undervisningen starter?

iv)   Noen av elevene rapporterte også at de så det flerspråklig undervisningsop-
        plegget som mer nyttig i «like» språk og i (nybegynner) tysk enn i f. eks engelsk,
        hvor de kan mange ord fra før. Hvilke tanker gjør du deg rundt dette med
        like/ulike språk og nybegynner/mer øvet språk?

v)   Én elev spurte også «Kan jeg bruke min arabisk når jeg skal lære norsk, eller må
        språkene være mer like?» Har du noen erfaring rundt dette, eller forslag til hvor-
        dan konkret løse rundt dette i språkundervisningen?

C) Flerspråklighet og Fagfornyelsen (LK2020):

Når Fagfornyelsen blir implementert til høsten, står det bla. i ny Læreplan at «flerspråklighet
skal bli verdsatt som en ressurs» og elevene skal kunne «sammenligne særtrekk ved norsk
med andre språk […] (norsk) og at elevene skal kunne «Bruke kunnskap om sammenhenger
mellom engelsk og andre språk eleven kjenner til i egen språklæring» (engelsk).

i)   Hvordan opplever du de nye kompetansemålene i *Fagfornyelsen* (ved-
        lagt) i ditt/dine språkfag?

ii)   Hvordan forstår du de nye målene relatert til flerspråklighet i ditt/dine
        språkfag? F.eks. målet i norsk etter Vg1: Elevene skal kunne «sammen-
        ligne særtrekk ved norsk med andre språk og vise hvordan språklige
        møter kan skape språkendringer»?

iii)   Hvordan tenker du at man kan jobbe konkret med det ovennevnte målet
        (eller andre rundt flerspråklighet) i ditt/dine språkfag?

iv)   Ser du noe som gir nye muligheter eller som er utfordrende med de nye
        kompetansemålene i ditt fag?

v)   Er det noen av disse målene du har vektlagt tidligere i din undervisning?

vi)   I hvilken grad tror du *Fagfornyelse*n (LK20) kommer til å bety endringer
        i din språkundervisning framover?

Article 3

Myklevold, G.-A. & Speitz, H. (2021). Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap? *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning, 9*(2), 25-50.

Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap?

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Abstract

The present study investigates the dichotomous relationship between the official language policies celebrating multilingualism in education on the one hand, and the practice field facing practical challenges concerning their students' multilingualism on the other hand (Cummins & Persad, 2014; Lundberg, 2019). Document analysis of LK20 and focus groups of teachers were used to investigate two research questions; 1) Which aspects of multilingualism are represented in the core curriculum and in the subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian in LK20? and 2) How are aspects of multilingualism in LK20 perceived by teachers of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian?

The findings indicate that there is a gap between the intentions of the ideological curriculum and the perceived and experiential curricula of teachers and students (Goodlad, 1979). When LK20 states that "All pupils shall *experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large", the teachers report that this normative assumption may place too much responsibility on different stakeholders such as students, as some are reluctant to display their multilingual repertoires in class. Furthermore, although the intentions at the ideological level of LK20 seem clear, the operational level remains unclear, since* how *this claim is to be applied in the classroom is not specified. This, in addition to the fact that multilingualism is conceptualized in a different way in the three language subject curricula of English, Foreign Languages and Norwegian, may explain why teachers report that, despite being positive towards linguistic diversity, they are insecure concerning the operationalization of multilingualism in their classrooms.*

Keywords: *multilingualism, plurilingualism, operationalizations of multilingualism , language policies*

Introduction

Multilingualism, here defined as the "repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use" (Council of Europe, n.d.) has been promoted by a number of scholars (Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2014; 2019). Within foreign language instruction, it is argued

that globalization and multilingualism have "changed the conditions under which foreign languages (FLs) are taught, learned, and used" (Kramsch, 2015, p.1), and scholars have promoted the paradigm shift of "the multilingual turn" (Conteh & Meier, 2014; May, 2014). Multilingualism is also highlighted as an important resource in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001; 2018), and in curriculum reform in Norway (LK06; LK20). The core curriculum in LK20 for example stipulates that "All pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large" (The Ministry of Education and Research, hereafter MER, 2017).

However, multilingualism in curricula may be understood and operationalized in different ways, and despite the educational and political celebratory views of multilingualism (Berthelé, 2021), several studies report that language teachers are insecure in how to comprehend multilingualism and how to implement it in their classrooms (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016; Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Haukås, 2016; Myklevold, 2021). Other studies show that teachers are reluctant to incorporate languages they themselves do not know in their teaching (Haukås, 2016; Myklevold, forthcoming,; Søndergaard Knudsen et al., 2021). In addition, there is evidence that the students themselves are sometimes reluctant to display and utilize their multilingual repertoires in the classroom (Čeginskas, 2010; Liu & Evans, 2015; Ticheloven et al., 2019).

Therefore, despite the widespread understanding that multilingualism is "without a doubt an advantage" (Aronin, 2019, p. 1), some researchers have called for more critical approaches within the field (Berthelé, 2021; Jessner & Kramsch, 2015; Kelly, 2015; McNamara, 2011). It is argued that the discourse seems to be dominated by a "selective celebration of diversity" (Berthelé, 2021, p. 126), and claimed that "multilingual education is a truly challenging enterprise" (Aronin, 2019, p. 1). The present study therefore investigates the seemingly dichotomous relationship between the official language policies and research promoting multilingualism as a resource on the one hand, and the practice field facing practical challenges concerning multilingualism on the other hand (Cummins & Persad, 2014; Lundberg, 2019).

The main purpose of this article is to inform our understanding of how aspects of multilingualism are represented in curriculum documents and how teachers perceive and make sense of such aspects. To do so we have conducted a document analysis of LK20 and focus group interviews of teachers of Norwegian, English and German. By teachers' 'perceptions' we here mean opinions and perspectives, and perceptions are often used synonymously with 'attitudes' and 'beliefs' (Pajares, 1992, p. 309).

Background

Multilingualism has for many years been promoted by the Council of Europe (hereafter CoE), an organization which Norway has been a long-term member of and whose language policies it has been clearly influenced by (Simensen, 2010). In the CEFR, for example, multilingualism is highlighted as an important part of a language users' communicative competence (CoE, 2001). Utilizing the term "plurilingualism" rather than "multilingualism", the CEFR states that such plurilingualism involves individuals' ability to draw on all the knowledge and experiences of languages that they know "in order to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor" (CoE, 2001, p. 4). The CoE also claims that their plurilingual vision "gives value to cultural and linguistic diversity […] and emphasizes the need for language learners to "draw on all their linguistic and cultural resources and experiences in order to fully participate in social and educational contexts […] (CoE, 2020, p. 123).

These are all ideas that have been adopted by Norwegian curricula in the past two decades, first in the 2006 national curriculum (LK06), and more recently in the 2020 curriculum (LK20). Norwegian curricula are regulations that have legal status in education and that teachers need to know in order to plan, implement and evaluate their teaching (Speitz, 2020, p. 40). From a political point of view, curricula legitimize the goals of public education, which include values in society and individual rights (Karseth & Sivesind, 2009). What remains unclear in these documents, however, is *how* teachers are to operationalize multilingualism in the classroom and *how* they can utilize linguistic diversity in a context where their students are assessed in one (target) language and where multilingual teaching practices "still lack concepts and theoretical underpinnings" (Ziegler, 2013, p. 7).

This lack of – or unclear – operationalization of multilingualism is also grappled with in Sickinghe's work (2013) in her discussions of how Norwegian policy documents, such as yellow papers, educational strategy plans and LK06, conceptualize and operationalize multilingualism differently than the students themselves. She concludes that "to establish more including language education policy discourses, a more precise, multilingually oriented and consistently applied terminology should be used when referring to the different categories of multilingual language users in the Norwegian school system" (Sickinghe, 2013, p. 111).

This view is also supported in other studies, for example in Myklevold (2021) where interviews with teachers and teacher educators revealed that even though they regarded multilingualism as an important resource for both minority and majority language students in language learning, they were insecure about how they could implement multilingualism systematically in their language classrooms. Vikøy & Haukås (2021) found that teachers of Norwegian seldom encouraged the use of minority students' L1 as a resource in the classroom and that the teachers had a language-as-problem orientation towards the multilingualism of their students.

Conceptual framework

Multilingualism is a complex phenomenon and there are multiple definitions of the construct. As Berthelé argues, we have to question "the exact meaning of items in our entrenched jargon" and also "think more carefully about the meaning of the words we use." (Berthelé, 2021, p. 8). Therefore, in the following section some terminology and conceptualizations of multilingualism will be discussed before proceeding to the method, findings and discussion sections.

According to Cenoz (2013), multilingualism has both a societal and an individual dimension. In the CEFR, for example, the societal dimension is expressed in the term *multilingualism* which refers to "the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one variety of language" (CoE, 2007, p. 8). The individual dimension, on the other hand, is manifested in the term *plurilingualism*, where the focus is on the "the repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use […]" (p. 8). As the CEFR is mainly focused on the language learning and language use of the individual learner, the focus there is predominantly on plurilingualism. However, since the individual and the societal dimensions of language

may be seen to be closely linked (Kramsch, 2014), it may be argued, as Martin-Jones et al. do, that "the difference between multilingualism and plurilingualism is largely theoretical" and that "the terms connote different ways of perceiving the relationship between languages in society and individual repertoire" (Martin-Jones et al., 2012, p. 50). Therefore, the two terms multilingualism and plurilingualism may be seen to differ, but they may also be used interchangeably (Martin-Jones et al., 2012, p. 50). Interestingly, the relationship between language and culture is evident in other parts of the CEFR, for example in the way the CoE links the notion of plurilingualism to the idea of pluriculturalism, where both aspects may be regarded as part of a language user's communicative competence. The CEFR Companion Volume states that: "[the language user] does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact" (CoE, Companion volume, 2020, p. 123). The two terms are frequently presented in tandem throughout the document as "plurilingual/pluricultural" (e.g. CoE, Companion Volume, 2020, p. 22), emphasizing the idea that they may be understood as two sides of the same coin. Moreover, and relatedly, plurilingualism is also linked to the notions of intercultural interaction and intercultural competence. A validation, or promotion of language diversity and plurilingual competence is another way of conceptualizing multilingualism, as when it is stated that "The plurilingual vision associated with the CEFR gives value to cultural and linguistic diversity at the level of the individual" (Council of Europe, Companion volume, 2020, p. 123).

We will subsequently return to these conceptualizations of multilingualism from the CEFR in our findings and discussion.

In addition to this, multilingualism may be regarded as an expression of identity, since language "represents and mediates the crucial element of identity" and "constitutes one of the most defining attributes of the individual (Aronin & Laoire, 2004, p. 11). On a similar note, Cenoz claims that "the choice of one or another language is not only dependent on the availability of the linguistic resources the multilingual individual has at his or her disposal, but at the same time an act of identity" (Cenoz, 2013, p. 9). This also means that even though individuals have skills in several languages, they may still be reluctant to show them, as their repertoires do not always correlate with their preferred language identities.

Some scholars also link multilingualism to metacognition since studies have shown that metacognition is important in order to strengthen language learning (Haukås et al. 2018; Jessner, 2018; Myklevold, 2021). Like multilingualism, metacognition may have several definitions, but one is "an awareness of and reflections about one's knowledge, experiences, emotions and learning" (Haukås et al., 2018, p. 3), and Jessner is one of the scholars who links multilingualism and knowledge about different languages directly to metalinguistic competences (Jessner, 2018, p. 31).

Since the present study discusses conceptualizations of multilingualism as a resource, the language ideologies theories of Ruiz (1984) and de Jong et al. (2016; 2019) may be utilized. Ruiz is preoccupied with language ideologies that underpin national language policies and puts forward three different orientations: language-as-problem, language-as-right and language-as-resource. It is important to note, however, that, as with many other categorizations, these three orientations may overlap and may be regarded as "competing, but not incompatible approaches" (Ruiz, 1984, p. 18).

Firstly, language-as-problem refers to an orientation that comes from previous, reductionistic language views where anything outside of the majority language was identified as problematic or demanding. Secondly, language-as-right is an orientation that considers languages as rudimentary human rights, in order to be free "from discrimination on the basis of language" (Ruiz, 1984, p. 22). However, Ruiz is also critical towards such a rights-perspective in language policies because it may symbolize that "the rights of the few are affirmed over those of the many" (Ruiz, 1984, p. 24). Thirdly, Ruiz proposes a less confrontational language orientation: language-as-resource. This view presupposes that "language is a resource to be managed, developed and conserved" (Ruiz, 1984, p. 28). When languages are viewed as holistic resources within education, industry and diplomacy, language minorities will also be regarded as "important sources of expertise" (Ruiz, 1984, p. 28). Further elaborating on Ruiz' theories, de Jong et al. claim that a fourth orientation is needed, coined "multilingualism-as-a-resource" (de Jong et al., 2019, p. 107). They argue that it is vital to view *multilingualism* as a resource, and that both teachers and teacher educators have a great responsibility when interpreting and applying new curricula in their classrooms (de Jong et al., 2019, pp. 108-109).

Since the focus of the present study is on multilingualism in *curricula*, the curriculum theory of John Goodlad et al.(1979) will be used. Here, they define curriculum theory as "the study of decision-making processes at all the levels […]: societal, institutional, instructional, and personal" (Goodlad, et al.,1979, p. 51). The theories on curriculum practice and substantive domains will be applied, including the levels of i) the *ideological curriculum* (the curricula of ideas that emerge from idealistic planning processes), ii) the *formal* curriculum (the official written syllabus), iii) the *perceived* curricula (the teachers' perceptions of the syllabus), iv) the *operational* curricula (how it is operationalized by teachers) and v) the *experiential* curricula (how it is experienced by students). Even though we will for the most part make use of the ideological, the formal and the perceived levels in our analysis, some of these levels are interrelated and overlap. When our teacher informants talk about how they implement multilingual lesson plans in the classroom, we arguably incorporate the (self-reported) operational level of the teachers in addition. As Goodlad et al. also state "the operational, too, is a perceived curriculum; it exists in the eye of the beholder (Goodlad et al., 1979, p. 62).

To sum up this part, in this article we conceptualize multilingualism in its widest and most holistic sense, both incorporating the societal and the individual dimensions of the concept, and also including aspects of identity and metacognition. We build on a multilingualism as a resource orientation (de Jong et al. 2019) in mainstream classrooms and also integrate dialects and varieties of language in an individual's repertoire, regardless of proficiency level (Haukås, in press; Haukås & Speitz, 2020). Against this theory and background, two research questions (RQs) have been developed:

RQ1: Which aspects of multilingualism are represented in the core curriculum and in the subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian in LK20?

RQ2: How are aspects of multilingualism (ML) in LK20 perceived by teachers of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian?

Method

When doing research on curricula, according to Goodlad, one should always seek to "study actors, actions, and the consequences of actions in natural settings" (Goodlad, 1991, p. 164). Data was therefore collected both through a document analysis of the new national

curriculum (LK20), and through two focus group interviews with language teachers (*n*=6). The document analysis contains an analysis of both the core curriculum and the national subject curricula in English, Foreign Languages and Norwegian. As Bowen notes, documents are «stable, "non-reactive" data sources, meaning that they can be read and reviewed multiple times and remain unchanged by the researcher's influence or research process» (Bowen, 2009, p. 31). Interviews, on the other hand are more prone to be subject to researcher reactivity where the interviewees and their answers are influenced and coloured by what they think the researcher wants to hear (Hammersley, 2008). More generally we believe that a reflexive pragmatist (Alvesson, 2009) view on interviews are relevant, which means recognizing the variety of meanings that may occur, interpreting these in an open and self-critical way. Epistemologically, we therefore position ourselves through a Deweyan pragmatist orientation where we realize that "language and knowledge do not copy reality, but are means to master a world in transformation" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 70, our translation).

Document analysis was used to answer *RQ1* and interviews were used to answer *RQ2*. Document analysis was chosen in order to examine how multilingualism was understood, described and operationalized in the core curriculum and in the three language subject curricula of Norwegian, English and Foreign languages at the upper secondary school level. Focus group methodology was chosen since it is beneficial "in exploring and examining what people think, how they think, and why they think the way they do about the issue of importance to them without pressuring them into making decisions or reaching a consensus" (Liamputtong, 2010, p. 5).

Participants

The informants for the interviews were recruited by means of both purposive and convenience sampling techniques. Participants from within our own network from two upper secondary schools were contacted and via the convenient snowball sampling method also guided us to other potential participants. Participants were then also selected based on their expertise, a purposive aspect, since it was communicated to our contact persons at the two schools that we wanted informants who represented most of the language subjects that were taught in the schools in order to make the most of "the potential of each person to contribute

to the development of insight and understanding of the phenomenon»"(Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 127) to employ a cross-linguistic approach and to avoid an "atomistic language view" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013). Therefore, teachers who either taught English, German and Norwegian, or a combination of these, were included in both the groups of the sample. Due to the lockdown following the Covid-19 pandemic, it was difficult to find teachers who were willing to participate in the study. The initial plan was to conduct four focus groups interviews, but due to recruitment difficulties we ended up with two mini-focus groups Liamputtong, 2010) with three teachers in each group, and the number of focus group sessions was once for each group. The group interviews lasted from 68 to 85 minutes and were subsequently transcribed verbatim and translated by one of the researchers.

Procedure

The focus group interviews were conducted physically, not digitally, since "the balance of evidence tends to show that face-to-face focus groups yield data of superior quality compared to online ones" (Bryman, 2016, p. 519). Physical focus groups are also better at establishing rapport and improving interaction between the informants (Bryman, 2016, p. 519), and thus assist in building confidence in the groups as they take turns in expressing their similar or dissimilar interpretations of the construct. The semi-structured interview guide was first piloted on a group of non-sample participants; two teachers of Norwegian and English at the upper secondary school level. The interview guide was found to be a bit too comprehensive, so then it was altered into fewer, more inductive questions (see appended Interview guide). In the interviews, the two focus groups were given prompts in the form of a chart of quotes from the LK20 curriculum, which included quotes from both the core curriculum and the subject curricula. Then they were asked how they interpreted these, how they would work with the multilingual competence aims in their classrooms, and how they perceived the use of other languages than the target languages in their teaching. In addition, they were asked if they had worked with multilingualism prior to the introduction of LK20, to which degree they use mapping of the students' previous languages prior to teaching their students, and to which degree the learning resources or textbooks they use provide them with support concerning multilingual tasks. Probes or follow-up questions were frequently used during the interviews in an attempt to elicit more substantial information, for example when

the participants mentioned that some students were embarrassed about using their multilingual repertoires in class, one probe was "Could you say something more about this… Do I understand it correctly that they… the students do not want to draw on their multilingual repertoire?"

Data analysis

In the data analysis process, both analyst and respondent validation techniques were employed (Patton, 1999, pp. 1195-96). Excerpts of the focus group interviews and LK20 were cross-coded with two other independent researchers in order to compare them to the authors' findings to reduce potential researcher bias, and some of the codes were adjusted accordingly. The data findings were also subjected to member-checking, or respondent validation, where one participant from each of the focus groups was asked to reevaluate the findings and see if the findings resonated with their opinions (Patton, 1999, pp. 1195-96). The informants only elaborated further on their initial responses and had no major alterations they wanted to incorporate.

Although it may be argued that "[t]ranscribing the interviews is in fact an initial data analysis" (Liamputtong, 2011, p. 165), the concrete coding began after the second interview. Both the document analysis and the interview transcripts were coded utilizing an open coding strategy and the codes were derived at abductively, that is categories emerge iteratively, through a constant comparison (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). More specifically, the coding of the curriculum documents started out deductively with a search for formulations which corresponded to the definitions of multilingualism discussed in the Conceptual framework section, for example multilingualism as linguistic and cultural diversity (see above). Coded segments from the document analysis and the focus groups were compared by examining what kinds of topics were present in both data sets, if there were any broad patterns across sets and how these either correlated or differed (Bowen, 2008). Identity is an example of a category that was derived from both sets, and that differed in its representation; as having a positive and safe connotation in the document analysis, and as containing a multifaceted and partly unfavourable connotation in the focus group interviews.

Findings

Document Analysis

The document analysis was conducted in order to answer *RQ1*: Which aspects of multilingualism are represented in the core curriculum and in the subject curricula of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian in LK20? This part of the study therefore belongs to the levels of the ideological and formal curricula (Goodlad et al., 1979). Data will be presented in the following order: first the Core curriculum, and then the subject curricula for Norwegian, English and Foreign languages. The focus of this article is on mainstream, multilingual language classes, and therefore Norwegian as a second language is not included in our analysis this time.

In the Core curriculum section 1.2 Identity and cultural diversity (MER, 2017), there are three occurrences of elements relating to multilingualism. The first occurrence refers to language use, communication, belonging, and cultural awareness:

> Opplæringen skal sikre at elevene blir trygge språkbrukere, at de utvikler sin språklige identitet, og at de kan bruke språk for å tenke, skape mening, kommunisere og knytte bånd til andre. Språk gir oss tilhørighet og kulturell bevissthet.

> [The teaching and training shall ensure that the pupils are confident in their language proficiency, that they develop their language identity and that they are able to use language to think, create meaning, communicate and connect with others. Language gives us a sense of belonging and cultural awareness]

The Norwegian original, authoritative text was chosen for this quote because the noun 'språk' may be interpreted as either indefinite singular ('language') or plural ('languages'). Interestingly, the singular noun 'language' is used in the official English translation.

The second occurrence relating to multilingualism in the Core Curriculum is about linguistic diversity in society. It states, "knowledge about the linguistic diversity in society provides all pupils with valuable insight into different forms of expression, ideas and traditions" (MER, 2017).

The third occurrence relating to multilingualism is that "all pupils shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large" (MER 2017). These passages from the Core Curriculum are clearly of ideological and

normative character (Goodlad, 1979). It remains unclear, *how* this claim is to be understood and applied. What does it for example mean to be proficient in a number of languages?

Turning to the three subject curricula in English, Foreign languages and Norwegian, they contain variations of the same sentence, for example: "Through working with the Norwegian subject, the pupils shall become confident language users who are aware of their own linguistic and cultural identity in an inclusive community in *which multilingualism is valued as a resource."* (MER, 2019a, italics added). While the curriculum for Norwegian puts emphasis on multilingualism as a resource in communities, the curricula for English and Foreign languages seem to highlight individual multilingualism: "The pupils shall experience that the ability to speak several languages is an asset at school and in society in general."

(MER, 2019b) and "The subject shall help the pupils to gain understanding of linguistic and cultural diversity. Through the subject, the pupils shall be allowed to experience that multilingualism is an asset*,* both in school and in society at large" (MER 2019c).

As for use of terminology, the terms *multilingualism* or *multilingual*, 'flerspråklighet' or 'flerspråklig' – noun or adjective – occur in all three language curricula, as well as *the ability to speak several languages*'. All three language curricula also include elements about comparing languages or transferring linguistic knowledge from other languages the students know, although the strongest focus on this may be viewed in the English subject curriculum, where one of the competence aims states that the students should be able to compare English to "other languages with which the pupil is familiar" (MER, 2019b). This is a phrase which is used at all levels in the English subject curriculum.

Linguistic diversity, often related to the Sami and Scandinavian languages, is another central term in the curriculum for Norwegian, and one of six core elements in the subject. In English, linguistic diversity is related to an international context, intercultural communication and the English-speaking world: "Working with texts in English helps to develop the pupils' knowledge and experience of linguistic and cultural diversity" and "explore and describe ways of living, ways of thinking, communication patterns and diversity in the English-speaking world" (MER, 2019b). In the Foreign language curriculum, there is a more individual perspective, connecting linguistic diversity to students' intercultural competence: "Intercultural competence means developing curiosity about, insight into and understanding

of cultural and linguistic diversity, both locally and globally, to interact with others." (MER, 2019c).

Linguistic and cultural identity is also highlighted in the Norwegian subject curriculum: "Through working with the Norwegian subject, the pupils shall become confident language users who are aware of their own linguistic and cultural identity in an inclusive community in which multilingualism is valued as a resource" (MER, 2019a). The English subject elaborates on this perspective and relates multilingualism to intercultural competence: "[The pupils] shall build the foundation for seeing their own identity and others' identities in a multilingual and multicultural context" (MER, 2019b). In the curriculum for Foreign languages, multilingualism is emphasized mostly as an aspect of language learning. It constitutes one of the four core elements of the subject, called Language Learning and Multilingualism: "In the encounter with the foreign-languages subject, the pupils are already multilingual and have extensive language-learning experiences from various contexts" (MER, 2019c).

To sum up, we can say that all three curricula, Norwegian, English, and Foreign languages, contain aspects of multilingualism as a resource. At the same time, there are differences regarding how the idea of "resources" is represented. The Norwegian subject description has a clear emphasis on the students becoming confident language users, and on linguistic and cultural identity. It focuses on the two variants of written Norwegian: Bokmål, Nynorsk, as well as Sami and other languages, including neighboring, or Scandinavian languages. In addition, there is also a clear focus on local and national contexts (expanding contexts from lower to higher grades).

As for the English curriculum, its main multilingual perspective is the comparison with other languages the students have encountered. We interpret this to include both languages of schooling and students' home languages. English is clearly presented as the international language of communication and a key to experiencing both multilingual and multicultural diversity.

In the Foreign languages curriculum, which involves the last languages introduced in school (usually in 8th grade), language learning is even more explicitly to be based on the students' previously learnt languages, within and outside of school. The students are seen as being "already multilingual" and having "extensive language-learning experiences from

various contexts" (MER, 2019c). This curriculum is the one that most explicitly connects metacognition to language learning, although the English subject curriculum also encourages a comparative approach for language learners.

Focus group interviews

The focus group interviews were conducted in order to answer *RQ2*: How are aspects of multilingualism in LK20 perceived by teachers of English, Foreign languages and Norwegian? This part of the study belongs to Goodlad's perceived level of the curriculum and to the instructional domain where teachers adapt the curriculum into practice (Goodlad, 1979).

First, in response to the question of how they perceive "multilingualism as a resource" in the Core curriculum, the teachers reported that they viewed it as a tool for communication. Interestingly, they also related it to the idea of pluriculturalism as an aspect of communicative competence (Council of Europe, 2018). For example, they stated that "not only is [multilingualism] a means of communication, but also…a way of approaching other cultures." The teachers also viewed the concept as "a lovely way of displaying diversity", which may also be linked to a validation of linguistic and cultural diversity in classroom settings.

Second, the teachers saw multilingualism as a way of improving both the cognitive and the metacognitive aspects of language learning. One informant said that multilingualism may be used "not only as a tool for communication, but also as a development on a cognitive level", and another teacher reported that it was "a way of thinking differently, on a metalevel, regarding languages". Another informant argued that "the more you draw on languages, the broader understanding of languages you get, also of your own language […]".

A third finding relates to the teachers' insecurity regarding the operationalization of multilingualism as a resource in the core curriculum and the multilingual competence aims in the subject curricula. One of the teachers asked critical questions about the realism in - and the operationalization of – *how* the students will obtain these experiences that multilingualism is a resource regardless of contexts:

> T2: Concerning 'language as a resource', that is also about getting the experience that we view it as such. Because what is **not** described here [in the core curriculum] is who… where… how do you get this experience? Because then…in a way…your peers, the teachers, all the people you encounter,

society must… uh… attribute…a positive value to it. And that is not…given. That it **is** like that, even though it is so nicely put in this…core curriculum.

Some informants also claimed that they had not received support and lacked competence in employing multilingual lesson plans:

> T5: I think it is fun, especially because there are so many languages popping up that one did not know the students knew. But then… it is difficult to know exactly *how* to work with it! […] We have not attended any courses in this.

The teachers also reported that they had not received new textbooks from the school, that they sometimes used LK06 textbooks even after the introduction of LK20, and that even the new textbooks had only a "little bit more focus [on multilingualism] than it has previously been", but "not to a large degree".

A fourth and last finding indicates that the teachers also linked multilingualism to an expression of identity for the students, and that such a multilingual identity could both have positive and negative connotations for them. During a language comparison task in the Norwegian classes where the students were asked to choose one language they knew or were currently learning, and then compare its syntax, lexis and morphology with Norwegian, some students displayed a sense of pride in their multilingual identity, whereas other students were reluctant to show their multilingual identity. One teacher reported that "I had two Somali boys and they both presented their home language Somali. It was really elaborately done and they were very eager to do it, so that was good". However, other teachers reported having several experiences with students who either showed great reluctance towards, or even refused to display their full multilingual repertoires. One teacher argued that some of the students who had a non-Norwegian mother tongue "had a big opportunity to benefit from that", but then "experienced that there were two boys who didn't want to use their own mother tongue to compare [Norwegian] with! They would rather choose English". The teachers perceived that this was due to several factors linked to their identity and that the students did not want to stand out from the collective:

> T4: […] there are some students who are embarrassed to speak another language. […]
>
> I: Is it, can you elaborate on this… do I understand it correctly that some students do not want to draw on their multilingual repertoires?
>
> T4: Yes
>
> T5: Yes

T6: Yes. They do not want to acknowledge it.

T4: They want to fit in, you see.

The teachers also argued that "[...] there is too much focus on the student, so they may think it is uncomfortable", that "it may be due to personality", and that "not everyone likes that [attention]". One of the teachers also firmly claimed that "I think that some students oppose [multilingualism]" and provided a specific example of a girl in class who did not want to display her full multilingual repertoire:

> T1: I have a girl in my English class, who lived some years in Iceland, and then we had a listening exercise that thematized Icelandic wordsmiths who made Icelandic words instead of using originally English words. And everybody knew that she had been living on Iceland, and she knows Icelandic, but she did not want that to be focused on. It was embarrassing for her, that it was referred to, so even if it was an excellent opportunity for her to experience that knowing several languages is a resource, for example in that listening exercise, she was not interested in doing that! Because she did not want to stand out from the others […].

Discussion

When comparing the results from the document analysis and the teachers' focus group interviews, which included quotes from LK20, the findings indicate that there is a gap between the intentions of the ideological curriculum and the perceived and experiential curricula of teachers and students (Goodlad et al., 1979). When national curricula, like the Norwegian LK20 state that "All pupils *shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource,* both in school and society at large" (MER, 2017, italics added), there is an ideological and a normative assumption that may expect too much and place too much responsibility on different stakeholders such as students and teachers. The intentions of LK20 seem clear, but the operational level remains unclear, since several teachers express uncertainty regarding how to implement multilingual practices in the classroom, especially since some of their students did not always view their own multilingualism as a resource.

On the formal level of curricula (Goodlad et al., 1979), all the three language subject curricula and the Core curriculum seem to contain a multilingualism as resource orientation (de Jong et al., 2019). At the same time, they highlight different aspects of multilingualism. The curriculum in Foreign languages emphasizes students' previous language learning experiences, while the curriculum in English focuses on language comparison, and the one in Norwegian underscores linguistic and cultural identity. These rather different foci may be

connected to the order and place which the different languages are allocated in the educational system, but they may also add to an inconsistent use of terminology connected to multilingualism. Many aspects of multilingualism in LK20 are left untreated, for example the questions of what it means to be proficient in a number of languages, whether dialects and regional varieties are included in 'languages', how competence aims such as "experiences from earlier language learning […]" can be assessed and how a regulation can be valid for both "school and society at large."

On the perceived level of curricula (Goodlad et al., 1979), a lack of consistency in the use of terminology may also add to the insecurity that the teachers reported, since LK20 contains little guidance on how to understand and operationalize multilingual pedagogy in a coherent and systematic way. Multilingualism and globalization may have "destabilized the codes, norms, and conventions" for foreign language teachers, which implies a need for a new pedagogy (Kramsch, 2015, p.1). This requires courses and continuing education for the teachers. The teachers reported that they were positive towards linguistic diversity, but that it was "difficult to know exactly *how* to work with it", since they lacked competence in how to operationalize multilingualism. This is also supported in other studies (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016; Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Haukås, 2016). The teachers in the focus groups reported that they had received no courses or guidance in how to understand and implement a multilingual pedagogy, and the textbooks did not contain a focus on multilingual tasks either. This lack of support for the teachers may be seen as one of the biggest obstacles when attempting to implement 'the multilingual turn' in language classrooms (Meier, 2017), and of course may contribute to the fact that the teachers are insecure as to when, how and to what degree they can work with competence aims related to multilingualism in LK20.

On the experiential level of curricula (Goodlad et al., 1979), as reported through the teachers, not all of their students are eager to utilize or display their multilingual repertoire in class, which is a finding supported by other studies (Čeginskas, 2010; Liu & Evans, 2015; Ticheloven et al. 2019). This may have several reasons, but it nevertheless made the teachers insecure as to what degree they could utilize their students' multilingual repertoires in language classes. The teachers related their students' reluctance to the important identity-aspect in language learning; that language is "a central medium through which we think, define ourselves and present ourselves to others" (Rutgers et al., 2021). This may be one of

the reasons why teachers hesitate in making use of multilingual elements as they are insecure of how to utilize their students' full multilingual repertoires without distressing the students, or forcing certain identities on them that the students themselves do not want to present to peers or be defined by.

Therefore, it is important to listen to these crucial educational stakeholders and their practical challenges concerning multilingualism in language classrooms, both in order to avoid a one-sided, "celebratory" focus of multilingualism (Berthelé, 2021), often portrayed in language policy documents such as LK20, and to try to fill the gap between the ideological and formal level on the one side, and the operational, perceived and experiential level of curricula (Goodlad et al.,1979) on the other. To tackle the more practical and challenging aspects of multilingualism is also important in order to avoid tokenism (Ticheloven et al., 2019). As one of our informants said in the member checking procedure: "It is about taking multilingualism seriously, not just as a token of differentness".

The findings also indicate that there has been little support for the teachers in implementing a multilingual pedagogy, which is unfortunate when introducing a new curriculum reform (LK20) containing important values and competence aims relating to multilingualism. The teachers in our focus groups seemed to have received no courses in multilingual approaches in language teaching, which was seen as challenging, a finding also confirmed in other studies (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016). The teachers reported that the learning resources they used contained few multilingual tasks, even the textbooks developed for LK20 lacked a systematic multilingual focus. Many teachers look to their textbooks when they plan their teaching, and therefore this may prevent the teachers from implementing multilingual practices. As Meier also argues, one of the main challenges hindering the implementation of the multilingual turn, in addition to the monolingual bias, is "a lack of guidance for teachers" (Meier, 2016, p. 1). Therefore, to provide more support and professional development for the teachers through courses, continuing education and properly developed multilingual textbooks seems to be an important implication of this study.

Limitations

In our analysis of the documents in LK20 and the focus group interviews, there are several limitations. Both the document analysis and the focus group interviews consisted of small samples, and the inclusion of more documents and more informants may have yielded

other and more comprehensive results. As for the document analysis, the sample consisted of only four LK20 documents, and may provide incomplete detail to sufficiently answer our research questions since most documents are made for purposes other than research (Bowen, 2009, p. 31). As for the focus groups, the sample was a small and rather homogenous sample of teachers, which in itself is a limitation. Furthermore, the self-reported behavior by the teachers does not always get an accurate picture of their practices or classrooms, so in future research on multilingual classrooms, a triangulation of observations, interviews and questionnaires would perhaps be beneficial to achieve a more comprehensive look at how the teachers operationalize multilingualism in their language classrooms.

Conclusion

More research is therefore needed on how to operationalize multilingualism in language classrooms, both involving student and teacher perspectives. The students' different and evolving multilingual identities, their experiences with, and sometimes reluctance towards multilingualism are important factors to consider, both when teaching and doing research on multilingualism (Aronin, 2019; Cenoz, 2013). To focus more specifically on the students' perspectives and experiences with multilingualism in the classroom could therefore benefit future research in the field. In addition, a further investigation of the relationship between official language policies on the one hand, and actual classroom practices on the other hand also seems to be necessary (Cummins & Persad, 2014; Lundberg, 2019). When introducing new curricula that contains several aspects of multilingualism, the teachers are crucial stakeholders, and should therefore be involved in more empirical studies on how multilingualism can be conceptualized and operationalized in contemporary language classrooms. The field of multilingualism may be seen to "still lack concepts and theoretical underpinnings" (Ziegler, 2013, p. 7), and such empirical studies may contribute to more practice-grounded conceptualizations of multilingualism.

However, there is also a need to be critical in the complex field of multilingualism, and to not let the discourse be dominated by a "selective celebration of diversity" (Berthelé, 2021, p. 126). When working with, and doing research on multilingualism, it is necessary to pay attention to both the opportunities *and* the challenges that may emerge (Jessner &

Kramsch, 2015; Myklevold, forthcoming). This is essential, both in order to achieve a "fruitful future scholarly engagement with linguistic diversity […]" (Berthelé, 2021, p.126), and to further improve our understanding of the construct and the field (Aronin, 2019; Berthelé, 2021).

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Focusgroups, semi-structured interviewguide (Myklevold & Speitz, 2022):

A) **Generelt om overordnet del og kompetansemål i Fagfornyelsen**

i) I Overordnet del av Læreplanen står det: *Alle elever skal få erfare at det å kunne flere språk er en ressurs i skolen og i samfunnet.* **-**Hvordan tolker dere det?

ii) Og hvis vi ser på de konkrete læreplanene står det bl.a. «*Elevene skal kunne «sammenligne særtrekk ved norsk med andre språk og vise hvordan språklige møter kan skape språkendringer*» (norsk) og «*Explore and describe some linguistic similarities and differences between English and other languages he or she is familiar with and use this in his or her language learning''* (engelsk).
-Hvordan tolker dere de nye kompetansemålene rundt flerspråklighet i

Fagfornyelsen?

iii) -Hvordan tolker dere begrepet «andre språk» i norskfaget/«other languages» i engelskfaget?

B) **Prosesser rundt språklæring, innføring av LK20 og læremidler**

i) -I hvilken grad finner dere ut av/kartlegger andre språk elevene kan?

ii) -Hvordan har dere jobbet i forkant med innføringen av de nye læreplanene?

iii) -I hvilken grad tematiserer lærebøkene/læringsressursene dere bruker i Fagfornyelsen flerspråklighet?

C) **Kjerneelementer i norsk, engelsk, fremmedspråk**

i) -Hvordan kan man forstå og jobbe med disse *kjerneelementene*?:

-**Språklæring og flerspråklighet**, *FREMMEDSPRÅK:*

I møte med faget fremmedspråk er elevene allerede flerspråklige og har omfattende språklæringserfaring fra ulike kontekster.

- **Language learning,** *ENGELSK:*

Language learning refers to identifying connections between English and other languages the pupils know, and to understanding how English is structured.

-**Tekst i kontekst**, NORSK:

De skal utforske og reflektere over skjønnlitteratur og sakprosa på bokmål og nynorsk, på svensk og dansk, og i oversatte tekster fra samiske og andre språk.

D) Kompetansemål i norsk, engelsk og fremmedspråk

i)   -Hvordan kan man forstå og jobbe med disse *kompetansemålene?*:

- **Etter Vg1, Nivå 1**, *FREMMEDSPRÅK: bruke relevante lærings- og kommunikasjonsstrategier, digitale ressurser og erfaringer fra tidligere språklæring i læringsprosessen*

- *Etter Vg1: ENGELSK: use knowledge of similarities between English and other languages with which the pupil is familiar in language learning*

-*Etter Vg1, NORSK: lese, analysere og tolke nyere skjønnlitteratur på bokmål og nynorsk og i oversettelse fra samiske og andre språk*

E) Avsluttende spørsmål

i)   -Har dere andre kommentarer rundt innføringen av LK20 og flerspråklighet i LK20 som jeg ikke har spurt om, og som dere har lyst å få frem?

ii)   -Har dere andre kommentarer rundt flerspråklighet som jeg ikke har spurt om, og som dere har lyst å få frem?

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