Faculty of Humanities, Social Science and Education

**English as a third language in Norwegian schools**
- A study on English teachers’ multilingual competence and knowledge of third language acquisition

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*Master of Education year 5-10 May 2016*
Acknowledgement

Writing a master thesis has been an exciting, frustrating and challenging experience that has given me an insight into the field of multilingualism and how to teach English as an L3 to multilingual pupils. This knowledge is very beneficial in my future work as an English teacher in school.

I am extremely proud and happy that I have manage to finish this paper, but I need to emphasize that I could not have done it without my supervisor, Kristin Killie. Thank you for believing in me, giving me encouragement and motivation throughout the whole of the study. I would also like to give thanks to the English teachers that participated in the study for making this project possible. Your experiences, knowledge and thoughts are very much appreciated, and have provided me with important information.

Tromsø, 18.05.2016

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Abstract

This study investigates whether or not English teachers have the ability to teach English as an L3. The basis of this is the increase in multilingual pupils in Norwegian schools that are acquiring/will be acquiring English as their third language. The research question is as follows: “Do English teachers have sufficient knowledge and competence in multilingualism to teach English as a third language to multilingual pupils?”

As well as answering the research question, the study seeks to answer a hypothesis that involves the teacher training programs in Norway, as it is during these programs that English teachers prepare and develop the necessary knowledge to teach the English subject. The hypothesis reads: ”Teacher training programs in Norway do not provide English teachers with the necessary multilingual competence to teach English as an L3”.

On the basis of the research question, I used a quantitative approach in form of a questionnaire to gain the necessary information about the respondents’ awareness and knowledge about the phenomenon that is multilingualism. The questionnaire was conducted in the Tromsø area, and there were a total of 8 English teachers that participated in the study. Some of them have prior experience with working with multilingual pupils and some that don’t.

The results of the questionnaire indicate that English teachers lack sufficient multilingual competence to teach English as a third language, as they are not fully aware of the complexity that comes with third language acquisition. The results also indicate that the teacher training programs don’t have the necessary focus on multilingualism and third language acquisition that they should have.

The findings in this study are not transferable to the whole population of English teachers in Norwegian schools, but provide valuable insight into the research area.
Sammendrag

Denne studien undersøker om engelsklærere har evnen til å undervise engelsk som et tredjespråk. Utgangspunktet for studien er økningen av flerspråklige elever i Norsk skole som lærer/kommer til å lære engelsk som sitt tredje språk. Forskningsspørsmålet er: “Har engelsklærere tilstrekkelig flerspråklig kompetanse og kunnskap for å undervise engelsk som tredjespråk til flerspråklige elever?”

Siden det er gjennom utdanningen at engelsklærere forbereder seg og utvikler den nødvendige kunnskapen for å undervise i engelskfaget på skole, prøver studien også å svare på en hypotese rettet mot lærerutdanningene i Norge. Hypotesen er: “Lærerutdanningene i Norge legger ikke til rette for at engelsklærere skal få den flerspråklige kompetansen de trenger for å undervise engelsk som et tredjespråk”

På bakgrunn av forskningsspørsmålet, benytter jeg meg av en kvantitativ tilnærming i form av en spørreundersøkelse. Metoden vil gi meg nødvendig informasjon om respondentenes bevissthet og kunnskap om flerspråklighet. Spørreundersøkelsen ble gjennomført i Tromsø, og det var totalt 8 stk. engelsklærere som deltok i studien. Noen har tidligere erfaringer med flerspråklige elever mens andre har ikke.

Resultatene fra spørreundersøkelsen indikerer at engelsklærere mangler tilstrekkelig flerspråklig kompetanse for å undervise engelsk som tredjespråk, fordi de ikke er bevisst på hvor komplekst tredjespråkstilegnelse er. Resultatene indikerer også at lærerutdanningene ikke har et så stort fokus på flerspråklighet og tredjespråkstilegnelse som de burde ha.

Funnene i denne studien kan ikke overføres til hele befolkningen av engelske lærere i den norske skolen, men gir verdifull innsikt i forskningsområdet.
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1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Among the population of the world, multilingual speakers outnumber monolingual speakers. From a sociolinguistic perspective, learning more than two languages in social and educational situations is not exceptional. As an explanation for this, Hammarberg (2001b, p. 21) refers to Mackey (1967) who points to small, linguistic communities, increased mobility across language borders, and the increase use for international languages (Hammarberg, 2001b, p. 21). Scandinavian countries have a long tradition of learning English and the term “multilingualism with English” introduced by Hoffmann (2000) can be used to refer to this phenomenon.

The English language is used as a lingua franca in Norway and is defined as a “universal language” in LK06 (Ministry of Education and Research, 2006). The English language also plays an important and dominating role when it comes to the multilingual development of the pupils in Norwegian schools. In other words, English teachers have the responsibility to promote multilingualism with the use of other languages than English and Norwegian. Unfortunately, the Norwegian school system tends to restrict its focus to mainly use English as a bridge to multilingual development. This is despite the fact that Norway has in recent years experienced increased immigration, and as a result a larger amount of multilingual pupils in schools. Based on statistics done by SSB from 2013, 14% of children in an elementary school obliged age had an immigrant background in Norway (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2014). With that said, it is also important to emphasize that the pupils who are born in Norway as bilingual due to their parents having separate L1, will also be included to the number of pupils learning English as their third language in school. This means that society is socially and culturally complex, and multilingualism is present at a higher level in Norway. Because of globalization and the increase of immigration from other countries, we can now see a tendency of English being learned as a third language. As a consequence, the Norwegian school system needs to expand its focus to other languages. In addition, the English subject needs to evolve in order to adapt to the linguistic diversity in schools.
1.2 Motivation

During my teaching training program, the curriculum was mainly based on English grammar, literature and didactics. The instruction in the English subject was based on second language acquisition, and as a consequence, my awareness of third language acquisition was non-existent. Multilingualism, however, was never focused on, and because of this my knowledge and competence about multilingualism was fairly limited. My preconception was that the English language learning process is the same whether one might be monolingual or multilingual.

However, a study done by Surkalovic (2014) concerning future English teachers competence to teach English as a third language, made me aware of the field of multilingualism and third language acquisition. It also made me attentive as to how important it is for English teachers to acknowledge that English is learned differently depending on previously acquired languages. I was curious to find out whether or not the lack of multilingual competence and the awareness of third language acquisition were an issue amongst English teachers in general. I was therefore motivated to take Surkalovic’s research further along by focusing on English teachers already working in schools. I also wanted to contribute to a field that have not received much focus, but is nevertheless highly relevant within the English subject.

1.3 Research question

My focus on multilingualism and English teachers led me to the following research question:

_Do English teachers have sufficient knowledge and competence in multilingualism to teach English as a third language to multilingual pupils?
_

There are three different main parts in the thesis that specify which information to gather in order to successfully get an answer to this research question. The first and most dominating part is the multilingual competence English teachers in Norwegian schools have. The term _sufficient_ refers to the necessary knowledge needed to facilitate the English subject for multilingual pupils. The second part is multilingualism. In order to provide an answer to what
knowledge English teachers should have to teach English as a third language, it is necessary to establish what multilingualism involves. The third part centres on multilingual pupils and specifically third language acquisition, as it is the language process they are going through.

1.3.1 Hypothesis

I am entering this research project with the following hypothesis:

*Teacher training programs in Norway do not provide English teachers with the necessary multilingual competence to teach English as an L3.*

This is mainly based on the lack of focus multilingualism and third language acquisition has received in my own teacher-training program. In addition, third language acquisition is a relative new field of research. This means that there are still many problems that have not yet been researched in this field. Because of this, I believe that English teachers have not been given the opportunity to develop the necessary multilingual competence they need to teach English as an L3.

1.4 Limitations

In this study, the research is based solely on English teachers in Troms County. Considering the modest size of my sample, the possibility of transferring the findings onto a big scale population is limited.
1.5 Outline

The study will be arranged in a traditional manner: Theoretical framework, methodology, research results and analysis, discussion and conclusion.

Chapter 1:
In this chapter, I will make account for the background, motivation and limitations of the study, as well as presenting the research question and the hypothesis.

Chapter 2:
This chapter contains a thorough presentation of relevant theory and previous research conducted within the field of multilingualism and third language acquisition. Educational aspects of the two terms will also be addressed.

Chapter 3:
In this chapter I will describe the method of data collection used in this study. The considerations regarding the chosen method and the participants involved will also be elaborated on. In addition, the reliability and the validity of the study and ethical and methodical challenges will be presented and discussed.

Chapter 4:
In this chapter the research results will be presented with the use of diagrams and analysed.

Chapter 5:
In this chapter I will discuss the results presented in the previous chapter with the use of three supplementary questions and in correlation with the research question and the theoretical framework presented in chapter two.

Chapter 6:
In this chapter I will draw a conclusion and try to answer the research question and the hypothesis.

Chapter 7:
In this chapter I will provide an overview of the references that have been used in this paper.
2 Theoretical framework

The research question requires specific information regarding the field of multilingualism. In addition to giving a thorough description of multilingualism, this chapter will provide psycholinguistic aspects on third language learning by including relevant theory and studies done, as well as educational aspects of third language learning.

2.1 Multilingualism

Multilingualism is defined by Herdina & Jessner (2002), as “the command and/or use of two or more languages by the respective speaker” (Herdina & Jessner (2002, p.52). As multilingualism is a complex phenomenon, researchers have had the need to establish what the term includes and what role it fits within language learning. In his pioneer work on multilingualism, Haugen (1956, p.9) subsumed multilingualism under bilingualism. In binding the two terms together, he stated that the term bilingual should be used when referring to both plurilinguals and polyglots. Plurilinguals are individuals who have acquired two languages, whereas polyglots are individuals who have acquired more than two languages. In contrast, Jessner & Herbina (2002) distinguish between bilingualism and multilingualism by viewing bilingualism as a variant of multilingualism, since it focuses on the study of two languages and not more. In other words, a bilingual is an individual who have two languages in his/hers repertoire, whereas a multilingual has more than two languages. In this paper the definition made by Jessner & Herbina (2002) is adopted. However, it is important to note that because pupils who are learning English as their third language have already acquired two languages, they are referred to as multilingual pupils in this paper. This is based on the fact that these pupils are in the process of becoming multilingual as they are learning English as their third language. Thus, Norwegian pupils who are monolingual will become sequential bilinguals after learning English as their second language. With that in mind, in an educational context the term L2 learners are preferred to describe monolingual pupils, whereas the term L3 learners are used on multilingual pupils, as it emphasizes the different language learning processes the pupils are going through. It is important to note before reading further that when I refer to the mother tongue, second and third language; I will use the common terms L1, L2 and L3.
2.1.1 Different kinds of multilingualism

Multilingualism is spread all over the world, and characterizes different societies to varying degrees. The way in which multilingualism manifests itself, however, varies between countries and societies. Lasagabaster (1998, p. 121) distinguish between three kinds of multilingualism that can take place:

The first type of multilingualism is referred to as social multilingualism. Countries that are characterized by this kind of multilingualism are where three or more languages are used in the everyday life of the community.

Individual multilingualism is the second type of multilingualism and is defined as the way in which an individual resort to three languages in his/her everyday life. For instance, children with parents from two different countries but living in a third one would be one case of individual multilingualism.

The third and last type is school multilingualism and can be defined as having more than two languages in the curriculum. For instance, school situations where either two foreign languages are added to the L1 or one foreign language is added to the L1 and L2.

In Norway there is a dominance of individual multilingualism. There is no presence of multiple languages in the overall society in Norway. However, a high percentage of L3 learners in Norwegian schools are children with parents from different countries. This means that they resort to three different languages regularly in their everyday life.

School multilingualism is becoming more widespread in Norway, as a result of the increase of individual multilingualism. Primarily, school multilingualism is found in schools that have a majority of multilingual pupils, as Norwegian and English are being added to the pupils L1. There is no limitation as to which country immigrants that come to Norway originate from, which can result in having pupils with numerous different languages in the same class.

According to Lasagabaster (1998, p. 121), Siguan points to this as one of the major challenges European educational systems have to overcome. This can be said for the Norwegian educational systems as well, as the variety of different languages complicates the abiding of section §2-8 in the Education Art. It is pinpointed in section §2-8 that pupils with another mother tongue than Norwegian or Sami have the right to adapted education in Norwegian, and if necessary instruction in the mother tongue (Ministry of Education and Research). As well as this, the number of different languages in the same class can be challenging for English teachers.
This is based on the fact that they have the responsibility to facilitate the English language teaching so that every pupil benefits from it and experience a successful English language learning process.

2.1.2 Language learning

The European Council (2001) highlights the criteria of good language learning and states that pupils that have awareness about the languages they learn and how they learn them, are better equipped to succeed in the language learning process. The English curriculum is to a large extent based on Common European Framework of Reference for languages. Language learning is considered one of the main subject areas in the English subject. This area focuses on “what is involved in learning a new language and seeing relationships between English, one’s native language and other languages” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, p. 3).

From a cognitive perspective, language learners develop further language knowledge based on their previous knowledge and experience. The human brain uses previous knowledge to interpret new input, thus making it impossible to separate what the learner already know from what he/she is currently learning (Haukås, 2012) However, most studies done on multilingualism and bilingualism are based on the fractional view. This means that a bilingual is viewed as being two monolinguals in one person, because the bilingual develops parallel linguistic competence in both languages simultaneously. Studies that follow this perspective often compare bilinguals with monolinguals to find out in what way the additional language affects cognition and learning (see Baker, 2001; Bialystok, 2001, Sanz, 2000 for reviews). From this perspective, bilingualism is not associated with second language acquisition, as the language learning processes in both languages are not considered to intertwine with each other. Because the preconception is that the human brain separates different input, it is in direct contrast to the view of language learning in the cognitive perspective. Grosjean (1982a) states a change from the fractional view to what he refers to as the holistic view, which has the perception that “bilinguals integrate knowledge of and from both languages to create something more than two languages that function independently of each other” (Grosjean, 1982a, p 471). Grosjean (1982a) continues by saying that the two languages interact with each other to increase the functionality of each.
In other words, because the languages interact and co-exist with each other, bilinguals have a specific linguistic configuration that monolinguals don’t have. The holistic view has influenced the scientific debate on multilingualism as it points to the interaction between languages that one individual might have. Based on this perspective, L3 learners go through a more complex language learning process than L2 learners, as an additional language is included.

With his activation model, Green (1986) explains in which way bilinguals control their different languages. Based on his studies on code-switching, Green (1986) states that the languages are not switched off when not in use, but rather that they have different levels of activation in speech situations. The language that has the highest level of activation is the one that is selected to control the output, whereas the other language is stored in memory and is interactive in the speech process. Grosjean (2001e) takes the model developed by Green (1986) further by focusing on the variety of multilingual speech. With his language mode hypothesis, Grosjean (2001e) seeks to explain the different modes a trilingual speaker can be in. Multilingual speakers have the ability to choose which language to activate in given situations. At home, a trilingual speaker might only find it necessary to activate his first language to successfully communicate, thus being in a monolingual mode. At school, however, he/she might take part in different situations where two languages are included in the same conversation. The trilingual speaker will then be in a bilingual mode, as he/she chooses to activate the two languages necessary to achieve successful communication. Grosjean (2001e) refers to the third mode as trilingual, which means that the trilingual speaker activates all three languages in one specific situation. This might not be common in Norway, as the majority of people either speak Norwegian or English, so the need to activate all three languages is not necessary. The trilingual speaker will therefore only choose to activate either one of the two languages, or both languages to communicate successfully.

### 2.2 Third language acquisition versus second language acquisition

For some researchers who believe that learning a third language is different than learning a second language, it is necessary to distinguish second language acquisition from third language acquisition. Second language acquisition refers to the learning of a language, which is not your native language (Jessner, 2008, p. 19). An example would be pupils who have Norwegian as their native language and is acquiring English as their second language.
Third language acquisition, however, refers to the learning of a non-native language by learners who have previously acquired or are acquiring two other languages (Cenoz 2003, p. 71). The terms acquisition and learning are used interchangeably in this paper. Most of the research conducted has focused on second language acquisition and the constellations of two languages. In recent studies, however, third language acquisition has received more attention, as the scope of investigation has expanded from two languages to three or more languages (Hammarberg, 2001b, p. 21). Results of studies have indicated that third language acquisition shares many characteristics with second language acquisition, but also presents significant differences. The fact that L3 learners have prior experience with the foreign language learning process is an essential difference between the two acquisition processes. Second language acquisition influences third language acquisition, as it provides the L3 learners with more linguistic competence. The main research aim for studies conducted on third language acquisition has been to provide and determine how it differs from second language acquisition (Jessner, 2008, p.19).

Jessner (2008) refers to the factor model by Hufeisen (1998), which focuses on the differences between learning a second language and learning a third language. The model portrays different factors that are influential when learning new languages, as they either restrict or exert the language learning process. Hufeisen (according to Jessner, 2008, pp.22-23) states that the same type of factors influences both L2 learners and L3 learners. The difference being that because L3 learners have previous experience of learning an additional language, a new set of factors is included in third language acquisition, which influences the impact of the other factors.
Figure 1 illustrates the factors that influence second language acquisition, whereas figure 2 illustrates the acquisition of an L3. According to Jessner (2008, p. 23), Hufeisen refers to the added set of factors (cf. Figure 2), as Foreign Language Specific Factors, which include the language learning experiences and strategies that L3 learners have developed during second language acquisition.

The first set of factors, neurophysiological, provides the basis and precondition of general language learning production. The age of the learners, for instance, is influential as it has an impact on learners’ ability to produce and receive the target language. The second set of factors is referred to as learner external factors, which include the type and amount of input learners are exposed to during the language learning process. In other words, the way in which the learners are exposed to the target language can either help or stagnate further development in the language process. If the learners are highly exposed to the target language both in a school context and in the community, the language learning process might progress more naturally and effectively. In addition, the different type of exposure can provide the learners with different levels of proficiency in the target language. The third set of factors is cognitive factors and centers on the mental abilities of the learners (according to Jessner, 2008, p. 23). Metalinguistic awareness, learner type awareness and learning strategies are such factors that clearly differ from third language acquisition and second language acquisition.

L3 learners have developed a higher level of metalinguistic awareness due to their previous language learning experience, which make them more aware of the fact that languages have
different grammatical systems. The different strategies and techniques that L3 learners have
developed during the second language learning process will likely be transferred to the third
language learning process, as they may be used to successfully acquire the target language. In
contrast, L2 learners are inexperienced and unfamiliar with the foreign language process. In
addition, L3 learners may have intuitively developed their own learning style from going
through second language acquisition, which makes them more aware of how they learn more
effectively. In other words, L3 learners have specific knowledge and competence at their
disposal that L2 learners do not. The fourth set of factors is referred to as linguistic factors.
As L3 learners have knowledge of an additional language (the L2), these sets of factors are
upgraded in third language acquisition. The fifth set of factors is factors such as motivation
and anxiety. These are also referred to as affective factors, as they centers on the language
learners themselves. Because L2 learners don’t have any previous experiences with language
learning, they might be more anxious to speak in the target language because of the fear of
making pronunciation errors. How motivated the learners are to learn the target language has
an impact on how successful the language learning process is, because it affects how much
effort the learners chooses to make in order to gain proficiency in the target language. It
varies from individual to individual how high the motivation is, but some L3 learners might be
more motivated because they have previous language learning experience. In other words,
they know that they are able to learn another language, because they already have acquired
one additional language. On the other hand, some L3 learners might have less motivation than
L2 learners; because they know how much effort it takes to learn an additional language.
However, one affective factor that influences third language acquisition differently than
second language acquisition is the closeness/distance between languages, because of the
foreign language specific factor added. An L2 learner is only able to compare the target
language to the L1 to find similarities and differences, whereas an L3 learner has an
additional language to draw similarities and differences from. The previously acquired
languages might share different similarities and differences with the target language, which is
beneficial for the L3 learner as s/he can make use of the languages in different ways to
progress further in the language learning process. However, the additional language also
provides more complexity, as the L3 learner need to distinguish between three languages,
rather than two languages. The different factors interact with each other, so the whole learning
situation will be impacted if one factor changes. An example of this might be if an L3 learner
has not developed a high level of proficiency in the L2 because of lack of motivation, this will
have an impact on the acquisition process of the L3.
Hufeisen (1998) notes that the factor model can also be used in the analysis of individual learning situations, as it varies from individual to individual which factors that have a strong influence on the learning process and which factors that don’t (according to Jessner, 2008, p.23).

2.2.1 Acquisition order

Third language acquisition provides more temporal diversity than second language acquisition. Cenoz (2003, p. 72) talks about four different acquisition orders that can be observed in third language acquisition. The first, second and third language can be acquired simultaneously (L1+L2+L3) or consecutively (L1→L2→L3). Also, two languages can be acquired simultaneously before the third language is acquired (L1/L2→L3), or after the first language (L1→L2/L3). Children living in Norway, who have Pakistani as their first language and Norwegian as their second, will therefore become multilingual after they have acquired English as their L3. The way in which the three languages are acquired varies from individual to individual. In second language acquisition, however, the two languages are either acquired simultaneously (L1+L2), or consecutively (L1→L2). This usually applies to ethnic Norwegian children who have Norwegian as their mother tongue (L1) and English as their second language. Some refugees, who come to Norway and attend school, are learning Norwegian as their L2 and English as their L3 simultaneously, which can be challenging because the two languages are grammatically different. They might struggle with distinguishing between the grammatical elements of the two languages. As a consequence, the progress in both language learning processes can be slower than of those who acquire the L3 consecutively after the L1 and the L2.

2.3 Cross-linguistic influence

Cross-linguistic influence (CLI) seems to emerge as one of the most crucial factors that influence the acquisition of a third language. It is also one of the areas in which second language acquisition and third language acquisition clearly differ. The term deals with the fact that knowledge of one’s previously acquired language(s) influences the language learning process or use of another language (Jessner, 2008). In a multilingual system CLI takes place between all three languages. An L3 learner of English, for instance, who have previously acquired Pakistani (L1) and Norwegian (L2) will experience that all three languages influences each other to some degree.
In a bilingual system, however, the cross-linguistic influence is limited to two systems that can possibly influence each other. This would be the case if a pupil who have Norwegian as his/her L1 when learning English as his/her L2. Since third language acquisition includes an additional language compared to second language acquisition, it presents an increase in transfer possibilities (Jessner, 2008 p.31). However, studies have stated that while learning an L3, learners tend to rely on their L2 instead of their L1 (see Cenoz, 2001; Wei, 2003 for reviews). Hence, the L2 plays an important role in a trilingual system.

Hammarberg and Williams (1996a, 2001b) conducted a case study of one adult polyglot learner of Swedish. The focus of the study was to determine the ways in which the L1 and the L2 interact in the acquisition process of an L3. An essential finding from the study was that the previously acquired languages (L1 and L2) occupy different roles in third language acquisition. Hammarberg (2001b) refers to the L1 as an external instrumental language, whereas the L2 takes on the role as an external supplier language. In other words, the L1 dominates as a pragmatically functional language, which means that it provides the learner with supplementary words used in utterance when s/he lacks the awareness of the necessary words in the target language. The L2, on the other hand, supplies materials for the learner’s expressions in the L3, which means that it influences the way in which the learner formulates the words in utterance (Hammarberg, 2001b, p. 17). According to Hammarberg (2001b), the choice of an external instrumental language might be influenced by a number of factors highlighted by bilingualism research: the speaker’s personal identification with a certain language, the speaker’s knowledge of which language are known to the interlocutor, and the interlocutor’s response and shown attitude to choice of language (Hammarberg, 2001b, p.16).

In addition, Hammarberg (2001b) states that the speaker will more likely make use of an external instrumental language if s/he finds it necessary to be in what Grosjean (1995d) refers to as a bilingual mode. Based on the findings from Hammarberg (2001b) it is more natural for L3 learners of English to choose Norwegian (L2) as the external instrumental language, than the mother tongue (the L1). This is because it is the common language between the L3 learners and the English teacher. Whenever an L3 learner lacks the knowledge of specific words or expressions in the L3, s/he uses the L2, which emphasizing the significant influence the L2 has on the L3 in the beginning stages.
The transfer possibilities in CLI are usually associated with either positive transfer or negative transfer; the difference being the impact each has on the third language learning process. From a behavioristic perspective, the two different transfer possibilities are strongly linked with similarities and differences between previously acquired languages and the target language. Positive transfer contributes to further development in the L3, whereas negative transfer increases the possibility of errors in the L3. To limit the possibility of negative transfer, behaviorists focus on the elements that differentiate the languages. This is based on the interpretation that L3 learners will learn the target language more successfully by creating right habits decrease the occurrence of negative transfer.

Szczesniak (2013, p. 135) on the other hand, argues that with the use of contrastive analysis, both transfer possibilities can contribute to further development of the L3. Comparing and contrasting the different languages can increase the effectiveness of learning the target language.

Finding parallels and contrasts between the grammatical systems can help strengthen L3 learners’ metalinguistic awareness. Contrastive analysis can thus be viewed as a beneficial method to incorporate multilingualism in the classroom.

Like Hammarberg (2001b), Szczesniak (2013, p. 133) also emphasizes the dominant role the L2 has on the L3 learning process. She points to the occurrence of so-called “false friends” in L3 learners’ utterance as a result of negative transfer from the L2. “False friends” are words that are similar in form, but have different meanings. Examples from English and German can be: gift – das Gift or brief – der Brief. Szczesniak (2013) continues by saying that teachers shouldn’t disregard the negative transfer that occur between the languages, but rather accentuate them by making L3 learners aware of the most common “false friends” to minimalize the occurrence of errors in their repertoire (Szczesniak, 2013, p. 134).

2.4 Multilingual competence

In order for English teachers to make use of contrastive analysis as a successful method, Surkalovic (2014) points to the development of a higher linguistic competence in language structure and linguistic typology. This is based on her study done on whether or not teacher-training programs prepare future English teachers to teach English as an L3. The findings indicate a lack of focus on language typology.
Due to the increase of different languages present in the classroom, it is impossible for English teachers to have sufficient knowledge about all of the languages. Surkalovic (2014) points to a solution: increase the focus on general linguistic competence in language structure and language typology in teacher-training programs. There is a difference between knowing different languages and having knowledge about languages, which means that English teachers don’t need to acquire all languages that are present in the classroom, but have knowledge about them. Surkalovic (2014) highlights that teacher-training programs in Norway don’t have a multilingual perspective, and as a consequence, English teachers are not provided with the necessary multilingual competence. The monolingual perspective is still considered to be the norm, which results in only taking use of contrastive analysis between English and Norwegian. Considering the increase of multilingual pupils in Norwegian schools, the teacher-training programs don’t keep up with the changes happening in Norwegian schools, thus, not providing the future English teachers with the proper linguistic competence necessary in a multilingual classroom.

Dahl & Krulatz (2016) have taken the study done by Surkalovic (2014) further by focusing on English teachers already working in schools. Dahl & Krulatz (2016) concluded that teacher-training programs should include awareness of English as third language and multilingual competence. One of the questions in the national survey conducted was whether or not the teachers felt themselves prepared to work with multilingual pupils. 62% answered that they felt prepared, whereas only 33% answered that they didn’t. On another question, however, 89% answered that they wanted more multilingual education. Dahl & Krulatz (2016, p. 13) interpreted this as meaning that because such a high number of the teachers wanted more multilingual education, they were not aware of the complexity that comes with a multilingual classroom, thus, not being prepared after all to work with multilingual pupils.

### 2.4.1 Metalinguistic competence

Haukås (2014) emphasizes that metacognition is the key to increasing English teacher’s linguistic competence. Numerous definitions have been made of the term by different researchers. For instance, Haukås (2014, p. 2) mentions two definitions made by Tobias & Everson (2000) that states that metacognition is “the ability to reflect on, plan and evaluate one’s own learning” and by Schoenfeld (1987) that states that metacognition is “reflections on cognition” (cited by Haukås 2014, p. 2).
Nevertheless, the majority of the definitions often include concepts such as “reflection”, “awareness” and “thinking”. Following the definition made by Flavell (1976), metacognition in this paper refers to “one’s knowledge concerning one’s own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them” (Flavell 1976, p.232). To provide a more thorough description of metacognition knowledge, Flavell (1976) distinguish between three kinds: person knowledge, task knowledge and strategy knowledge (Flavell 1976, p. 907). The first one has to do with knowing that one self and other human beings are individuals who have the ability to think. The second is about knowing what it takes to solve and complete different tasks, whereas the third is about having the knowledge to understand which strategies are best fit to achieve a certain goal. With the use and development of these three types of metacognition knowledge, research shows that pupils’ ability to learn increases (see Schraw, 1998; Cotterall & Murray, 2009 for reviews). Language learners develop metacognition with the help of language learning strategies. Through consciously reflecting and evaluating the language learning process, they constantly make use of different methods that help them become more proficient learners.

As the language learning process is highly influenced by individual factors, language learners make use of strategies that fit their language style and support further language development.

With that in mind, Report No. 6 to the Storting (2012-2013) illuminate the importance of diversity by demanding Norwegian schools to recognize diversity as a resource. In order for pupils to develop a high level of metacognition, European Council (2007, p.5) emphasizes the important role of English teachers that teach English as an L3. They have to provide support when it comes to the pupils’ multilingual development and assist them during the language learning process. However, I will add that the development of metacognition should be a focus in all school language subjects, as it will help the proficiency level in all the languages that the pupils know. This suggests that all of the language teachers working in one school should be aligned with each other so that the pupils can be provided with the best possible learning outcome. Whether or not English teachers have the necessary knowledge of multilingual development in order to provide support is the subject of this thesis.
2.4.2 Metalinguistic awareness

Bilingualism has been shown to benefit third language acquisition when it comes to metalinguistic awareness. The term is subsumed under metalinguistic competence, as it refers to the “ability to focus attention on language as an object in and of itself, to reflect upon language and to evaluate it” (Thomas, 1988, p. 531). Bialystok (2001) concludes that bilinguals tend to be superior to monolinguals in tasks that require a level of awareness and proficiency, because of the additional language in bilinguals’ repertoire. Because L3 learners have more language learning experience than L2 learners, they have developed a higher level of metalinguistic awareness. With that said, Cummins (1976) states that the level of proficiency in both languages influences the development of metalinguistic awareness. Based on his Threshold Hypothesis, cognitive advantages, such as metalinguistic awareness, can only be beneficial when a high level of competence is attained in both languages. Although the hypothesis has been criticized, it emphasizes the relationship between language learning and cognitive development.

In a classroom context, Szczesniak (2013, p. 132) suggests that by using so-called hidden resources English teachers can help L3 learners develop a higher metalinguistic awareness. Seeing as the pupils have already acquired two other languages, English teachers can take advantage of the pupil’s knowledge. The three hidden resources highlighted by Szczesniak (2013, p. 133) are:

- **Internationalisms, which are** words that occur in several languages. Some common internationalisms may be **radio, information** and **Internet**.
- **Loan words, which are** words that are adopted from one language and incorporated into a different recipient language. For instance, the words **aubergine** and **giraffe** are of Arabic origin adopted by the English language.
- **Cognates, which are** words that have a similar meaning, spelling and pronunciation in both languages. For instance, the German word **aktiv** cognates with the English word **active**.

By using hidden resources English teachers could simplify the language learning process. Also, the pupils may experience that they have more knowledge about the target language than they first assumed.
This could enhance their motivation as well as their awareness of similarities and differences between the languages. However, this requires that English teachers have a sufficient knowledge about the different languages acquired by the pupils.

The theories and studies highlighted and elaborated on in this chapter, is highly relevant and closely linked to the research question, as it provides an insight into the field of multilingualism and the educational aspect of third language acquisition.
3 Methodology

Christoffersen and Johannessen (2012, p.16) describe a method as a particular road towards a goal. More specifically, researchers make use of different methods to gather information that can provide the answers they are looking for. Research that involves societal relations and phenomenon is commonly known as social science. As this study has the school as its targeted research arena, it falls under the category of social science. As information is commonly gathered from people, it is important to be aware of the fact that people interpret reality differently (Christoffersen & Johannessen, p. 16). As stated by Bogdan & Biklen (1998), the choice of research method is based on the aim of the research and has to be coherent with the general logic of the methodology that embodies the research.

3.1 Qualitative vs. quantitative methods

When it comes to research, there are different methods available in order to gather data about a specific phenomenon. These methods are divided into two types: quantitative and qualitative. The former is based on collecting data from a wide selection of people and aims to generalize and find tendencies that are valid for the whole population (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004, p. 13). The qualitative method, by contrast, gathers information from a more concentrated selection of people and aims to explore the gathered material in more depth. The main difference between the two is how they relate to the data that are collected. In other words, with the use of a quantitative method you are seeking to get less information from a larger selection of people. By contrast, with the use of a qualitative method you are seeking to gather more information and a deeper understanding about the information gathered from a smaller selection of people (Bjørndal, 2008).

3.1.1 The choice of method

In this study, I have chosen a quantitative method, as I believe it is the best method to get an answer on my research question. There are, nevertheless, three different methods that can provide an answer to my research question; interview, questionnaire and classroom observation. The ideal solution would be to use a combination of the three, as each method provides unique and useful information.
When taking use of an interview, you are looking for information from a small selection of participants, which provide a deeper subjective understanding of the phenomenon. In contrast, a questionnaire provides more general data from a bigger selection of people. Following the description made by Kumar (1999, p. 110), a questionnaire is a list of questions to which the respondents read, interpret and answer. Classroom observation, however, is a useful method in order to get insight into what actually occurs in the classroom. The method can also provide information about whether or not the teachers use different strategies in regards to multilingual pupils, as well as their conscious/unconscious awareness regarding their use of strategies.

All three methods mentioned above have weaknesses and strengths that can potentially endanger the results of the study. For instance, the two main reasons why I haven’t chosen classroom observation are because of the unpredictability and the issue of time. There is no guarantee that the multilingual pupils are orally active during the observations, or that the English teachers take enough time interacting with them. Thus, the material gathered may not be of any use, as it doesn’t provide any answer or indication concerning the research question. The fact that I would be present in the classroom during the observation may also influence the material gathered. The English teachers might be more consciously aware of their behaviour towards the multilingual pupils than they normally would be and the pupils would perhaps intentionally speak less, which compromises the authenticity of the material gathered. In addition, classroom observation is highly time consuming. To be certain that the method would have provided me with useful material, numerous hours of observing in the same classroom would have been necessary. Considering the time limit set in this study, classroom observation is not be the best method to ensure getting material that can provide an answer to my research question. In contrast, using a structured interview would be a good method to use. It allows you as the interviewer to get an insight into different perspectives that the informants might have. Their own thoughts, opinions and feelings about the phenomenon are very much in focus when using an interview. As a result, you are left with a lot of subjective information that may give some indications as to what the answer to the research question should be. Because the information is provided instantaneously, you have the opportunity to ask immediate follow-up questions if the informants provide information that might not be expected, but nevertheless interesting. This is clearly not an option when using a questionnaire.
The distance created between the researcher and the respondents when using a questionnaire also excludes the possibility of correcting any misunderstandings that may occur. The respondent may interpret some of the questions differently than intended, which may have an impact on the final data. Nevertheless, creating well-formulated and concrete questions that will provide an adequate answer to the research question can minimize this.

When conducting an interview there are many different biases that can affect the results, and many of them are linked to the presence of the interviewer and the situation itself (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012). With the use of a questionnaire, these biases will be eliminated as the questions are asked without meeting the respondents face to face. The respondents participating in a questionnaire are also given more time to reflect upon their answers. This may lead to more honest and thought through answers, thus the final results being of higher quality. The element of time is also beneficial when it comes to gathering respondents to participate in the study. With a questionnaire, you are able to reach numerous people more effectively and faster than with the use of an interview. If the respondents are given a pre-coded questionnaire they might be more willing to participate, as it is less time consuming and less intimidating than participating in an interview. Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, p.130) refers to a pre-coded questionnaire as when the respondents get identical questions in the same order, as well as predetermined alternatives. The lack of flexibility is a beneficial factor because it makes the process of comparing answers across respondents easier.

The focus in this study is on English teachers in general, and not individual teachers, which means that the goal is to get a systematic and broad synopsis of the knowledge and competence English teachers have regarding third language acquisition. Based on what has been mentioned above, a questionnaire is the method that is going to provide the most sufficient answer to the research question. Because of the apprehension that I would not get enough English teachers to participate in the study, I included a qualitative element to the questionnaire. By including a comment box for each question, the respondents were able to provide complementary information related to the questions, thus, providing me with more valuable information, which would potentially give me a better understanding of the intention behind their answers. In addition, the teachers’ comments could potentially give me a better insight into why and how they implement multilingualism in their teaching.
I chose to include comment boxes to 11 out of 12 questions in the questionnaire. In the quantitative method, subjective information is not usually used, as the method aims to recognize tendencies that may be transferable to the whole population. With that said, I have been able to quantify the shared replies even if I could not quantify the individual comments.

When selecting informants, it is important to find people that will provide the necessary information needed to get an answer to the research question. I sent out several emails to schools that have a high number of multilingual pupils, requesting that the English teachers working there would participate in the study. The information letter and the questionnaire were added as appendices. Three English teachers answered straight away, but as for the rest it took some time. I also sent out emails to schools that have a smaller number of multilingual pupils, requesting that English teachers working there would participate. The reason for this was that I wanted to find out if there is a significant difference in the competence and knowledge level between the different teachers. In addition, as the study has a focus on English teachers in general, it was important to gather information from different teachers in different schools.

3.2 The study

This study aims to gain information about English teachers multilingual competence and knowledge in regards to teaching English as a third language. This means that I needed to find answers as to whether or not they take the linguistic backgrounds of multilingual pupils into account when teaching English. In addition, if they use specific strategies to ensure that multilingual pupils successfully acquires English as their L3. In order to gather data about this, English teachers were asked to provide information about their own awareness, competence and knowledge in the area. The study was conducted in Troms County and therefore centred on English teachers working in schools in the area. Multilingualism is widespread, as a large number of Russian immigrants are located in the area, as well as an increasing number of other immigrants. Because of this, it is interesting to see whether or not English teachers have the necessary multilingual competence to teach English as a third language.

There were a total of 8 people participating in the study. These consisted of some English teachers that have experience with working with multilingual pupils and some that don’t.
All of them answered a questionnaire regarding multilingualism and their own competence and knowledge within the field.

### 3.2.1 The questionnaire

As mentioned already, multilingualism is the underlying theme in the questionnaire. The goal is to get an insight into the respondents’ awareness and knowledge about the phenomenon and whether or not they have the necessary competence to teach English as an L3. The questionnaire was also designed to provide some answers to whether or not English teachers are aware of the differences between learning English as an L2 and as an L3. I also wanted to gain information about their use of strategies, and whether or not these differs depending on if the pupils are L2 or L3 learners of English.

The whole of the questionnaire was written in Norwegian as I felt that the respondents would provide better and more authentic answers in their mother tongue. It also eliminates any restrictions that the respondents may have with writing comments in English, as some may feel that the answers require a high level of proficiency.

The questionnaire consists of 12 questions, where 11 have predetermined alternatives and a comment section to fill out depending on the marked answer. The 12th question revolve around a task that aims to find out whether or not the respondents have the ability to correct common grammatical errors in English. The questions are presented in English as well as in the original language in parenthesis. I will provide an explanation of the relevance of each question below. It is important to note that questions three, four and five, as well as questions six, seven and eight will be addressed together as they focus on similar elements.

1. Do you know other languages than Norwegian and English?
   
   *(Behersker du andre språk enn norsk og engelsk?)*

The first question seeks to get information about an existent/ non-existent relationship between the respondents and multilingualism. Whether or not they know other languages might be a factor that determines what their other answers are. Thus, being able to establish if there is a correlation between their own personal language learning experiences and their knowledge about multilingualism was important.
In retrospect, it might have been better to include a clear definition of what the questionnaire establish as knowing a language. The respondents might interpret the question differently, because of the possibility that they might have different opinions as to what knowing a language involves.

2. Do you have multilingual pupils in your class? (Pupils who can speak, write, read and understand in more than two languages)
   
   *(Har du flerspråklige elever i din klasse? (Elever som kan snakke, skrive, lese og forstå flere enn to språk))*

Unlike the first question, a definition of multilingual pupils is included in the second question. The reason for this is, as mentioned above, that the term multilingual is complex and people have different definition and opinions of it. As this study view multilingualism as the study of more than two languages, it is important that the question is formulated as concretely as possible. Had I not included the definition, some respondents might have interpreted pupils who know English as multilingual. It was essential to ask this question, as it provides information about the classroom situation the respondents are currently in.

3. Does an English teacher in Norway need to know something about other languages than English and Norwegian? If no, why? If yes, why and what?
   
   *(Trenger en engelsklærer i Norge å vite noe om språkene som ikke er engelsk eller norsk? Hvis nei, hvorfor? Hvis ja, hvorfor og hva?)*

4. Do you view multilingualism as a resource in the English subject?
   
   *(Anser du flerspråklighet som en ressurs i engelskundervisning?)*

5. Do you take into account other languages that the pupils know while teaching English? If yes, in what way?
   
   *(Benytter du deg av andre språk elevene har tilegnet seg i engelskundervisningen? Hvis ja, på hvilken måte?)*

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The third, fourth and fifth question probes the respondents’ attitudes towards their own role in a multilingual school and a diverse classroom. It also seeks to get an indication on whether or not the respondents are aware of the linguistic and cultural development in society, thus recognising that multilingualism is increasingly represented in school. The fifth question in particular seeks to get information about the respondent’s awareness and knowledge when it comes to the effect previously acquired languages have on L3 learner’s language process. It can also provide some information as to whether or not previous acquired languages are included in English teaching.

6. Do you use specific strategies while teaching English? If yes, which?
   *(Bruker du spesifikke strategier når du underviser engelsk? Hvis ja, hvilke?)*

7. Do you use other pedagogical strategies while teaching English to multilingual pupils than you do with monolingual pupils? If yes, which?
   *(Bruker du andre pedagogiske strategier når du underviser engelsk til flerspråklige elever enn du gjør med enspråklige elever? Hvis ja, hvilke? (Med enspråklige elever her menes elever som kun kan snakke, skrive, lese og forstå norsk og engelsk))*

8. Do you find it more difficult to help multilingual pupils become better at mastering the English language than it is helping monolingual pupils? If yes, what do you think is the problem?
   *(Synes du det er vanskeligere å hjelpe flerspråklige elever bli bedre på å beherske engelskspråket enn det er å hjelpe enspråklige elever? Hvis ja, hva tror du dette skyldes?)*

Questions six, seven and eight deal with the respondent’s awareness in choices of strategies when teaching English. Questions seven can give an indication of the respondent’s knowledge about the fact that the pupils experience the English language learning process differently. The focus in question eight is more about the respondents’ own thoughts about teaching English to multilingual pupils. Based on their answers, I was able to get information about what they themselves find challenging when it comes to teaching English to multilingual pupils. In retrospect, it would have been better to use the terms L2 learners and L3 learners instead of multilingual and monolingual pupils in question seven and eight.
Some respondents might not have understood the relation between monolingual pupils and the ability to speak two languages. This is because they view monolingual pupils as individuals who only have the ability to speak, write, read and understand in one language. However, as the questionnaire include a description of what being a monolingual pupil means, the respondents answer based on that and not their own definition.

9. Have you noticed any differences between multilingual pupils learning English and monolingual pupils learning English? For example, do they use different strategies? If yes, what are the differences? 

(Har du lagt merke til noen forskjeller mellom flerspråklige elever og enspråklige elever på måten de lærer seg engelsk? F.eks, bruker de forskjellige strategier? Hvis ja, hva er forskjellen?)

Similar to question seven, the ninth question focuses on the differences between multilingual pupils and monolingual pupils in regards to the language learning process. This question can give an indication on whether or not the respondents are aware of any differences between the two groups. Some respondents might recognize differences, but answer in question seven that they don’t use other strategies towards multilingual pupils. A correlation can thus be drawn, as this might be an indication on lack of multilingual competence. Like the formulation in question seven and eight, this question have the terms multilingual and monolingual pupils instead of L2 learners and L3 learners.

10. Was there any focus on linguistic typology during your own education? (Classifying languages according to grammatical features)

(Har du språktypologi vært i fokus i løpet av din egen utdanning? (Klassifisering av språk etter grammatiske likheter))

Question ten focuses on the respondents’ own education in regards to their development of metalinguistic competence. If the majority of the respondents answer that it has not been a focus area, it indicates that the teacher training programs in Norway don’t provide English teachers with the necessary knowledge to teach in a multilingual classroom. As the term linguistic typology can be difficult for some respondents to fully understand, it was necessary to elaborate the term.
The respondents may also have forgotten the definition of the term, which may have led them to answer differently if the definition wasn’t included.

11. Do you think there are any differences between second language acquisition and third language acquisition? If so, which differences are there?

*(Tror du det er noen forskjeller mellom andrespråkstilleggelse og tredjespråkstilleggelse? Hvis ja, hvilken forskjeller er det?)*

Question eleven focuses on learning English as an L2 or as an L3, and seeks to find out whether or not the respondents are aware of elements that separate them. It was important to include this question as it can give some information on the respondents’ knowledge about the two different acquisition processes. The respondents are not provided with an elaboration of the two different acquisitions, as it should be clear to the respondents what the two different terms is. If not, it indicates that they lack important knowledge about the language learning processes their pupil’s experience. In retrospect, I could have included some examples to help the thinking process of the respondents. This might have influenced the answers provided by some respondents, as they might have more knowledge about the differences, but didn’t remember them when answering the question.

12. What is incorrect in these sentences, and what may have caused the errors?

*(Hva er feil med disse setningene, og hva tror du kan ha forårsaket feilene?)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentences</th>
<th>What is wrong?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have dog.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is come.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I not read the story.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No matter what happens will we always be friends.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The twelfth question is included in the questionnaire because I wanted to insure that the respondents had the ability to recognize common errors made by pupils. I added errors that can be considered typical for Norwegian pupils learning English as their L2, such as the last sentence, because I wanted to get an insight into whether or not the respondents were more attentive to those errors than others.

3.3 Reliability

In a research context, reliability speaks of the consistency and credibility of the results gathered through the specific research method (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012). There are limitations in this study that could threaten the reliability of the research. First and foremost, the number of participants is insufficient in order for the results to highlight anything about the population of English teachers in Norway. However, the gathered data can recognize tendencies, which may give valuable insight in the way English teachers in the area teach English as an L3. In addition, seeing that all of the respondents are located in the same area, the results might be transferrable to the rest of the English teachers working in the same schools as the respondents. Secondly, the level of reliability can only be measured if other researchers investigate the same phenomenon and achieve the same results. As I have made a descriptive account of my work with the questionnaire and the respondents, it would be possible for other researchers to replicate the questionnaire as well as selecting respondents similar to those participating in this study. The questionnaire is made visible through attaching the material in this paper, which makes it possible for other researchers to study the material and verify its reliability. With that said, the results may be different depending on how many participants other researchers are able to get.

3.4 Validity

Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012, p. 24) states that validity is measured by how well the data collected represents the reality of the phenomenon being studied. In addition to encompassing specific parts of the research, validation also grasps the whole research process. By making the material used and collected visible, the coherence between the research questions, the method used, and the gathered data can be validated and verified by the reader.
3.5 Ethical and methodical challenges

In all research, there are ethical principles and legal guidelines researchers are obliged to follow. The people participating in the study have to sign a consent form that includes information about the study, the right the respondents have to determine their own participation and the right to withdraw from the study at any point (Christoffersen & Johannessen, 2012, p. 41-42). The consent form that was used in this study is attached in this paper. Besides this, Christoffersen & Johannessen (2012) mentions that sensitive information should be dealt with in a professional manner. Sensitive/personal information is information that can be traced back to and possibly reveal the identity of the respondents. If the study contains information that may directly or indirectly identify the respondents, the researcher is required by law to send an application to the Data Protection Official for Research (Personvernombudet) at the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (Norsk Samfunnsvitenskapelige Datatjeneste AS). As the data gathered in this study contained sensitive/personal information (viz. IP addresses, given that the survey was carried out through the use of computers), I was required by law to send an application and describe how I intended to collect the data and how I intended to store the data during the research process. All the necessary requirements made by the Norwegian Social Science Data Services were met during the entire research process. The participant-researcher-confidentiality was very much respected.
4 Research results and analysis

In this chapter I will present the results that was gathered from the questionnaire. Each question will be presented in form of a diagram. Those of the questions that include a comment box will be addressed by incorporating some of the comments.

The respondents were asked if they know other languages than Norwegian and English (Question 1). Five of the respondents answered yes, whereas the remaining three answered no. This shows that the majority view themselves as individuals with more than two languages in their repertoire. Because of the lack of more descriptive alternatives other than yes or no, it is difficult to know how many additional languages the five respondents know. It is important to note that the answers are based on the respondents’ own opinions of what qualifies as knowing another language. This means that it is difficult to establish whether or not they can be considered proficient speakers of more than two languages; in other words, if they are able to speak, write, read and understand in their additive languages. However, the fact that the respondents are language teachers strengthens the authenticity of the answers.
In the second question, the focus was on the pupils attending the respondents’ class, and not the respondents themselves. Five respondents answered that they have multilingual pupils in their class, whereas three respondents answered that they don’t. The results of this question, reinforces the fact that multilingualism is highly present in Norwegian schools. More importantly, it substantiates the assumption that more English teachers encounter a culturally and linguistically diverse pupil population.

The respondents were asked in the third question to answer whether or not it is necessary for English teachers to know other languages than English and Norwegian. All of the respondents answered yes to this question. Unlike the two previous questions, the respondents were to give a more descriptive answer. Some of the most intriguing comments were:
• *In a perfect world, English teachers should have knowledge about the languages of all the pupils, but because it is not realistic as there can be a number of different languages in one class.*

• *Knowing the mother tongue of your students is beneficial in many ways.*

• *Different linguistic backgrounds mean different needs of customization and guidance. It is very useful to have as much knowledge about languages during language learning.*

It is clear that the respondents believe that it is necessary as English teachers, to know about other languages other than English and Norwegian. The most frequent answer were knowledge of the mother tongue of the pupils. However, only two out of the four respondents elaborated further on why the mother tongue is beneficial. Both stated that the pupils might be able to achieve a higher understanding of the English language with the use of the mother tongue. Two out of the eight respondents answered that general linguistic knowledge is beneficial, but didn’t elaborate on why. One respondent mentioned that English teachers working in Northern Norway should have knowledge about the Sami language. S/he elaborated further that there are many pupils who acquire it as their mother tongue, and that the Sami language has similar intonation as English.

Some of the answers provided by the respondents are similar to one another. This can indicate that it is a tendency amongst English teachers to believe that having knowledge about the mother tongue of the pupils is necessary. However, as mentioned above, the majority of the respondents didn’t provide any further explanation as to why they answered what they did. This could mean that some of the respondents don’t know why, for instance, the mother tongue or general language knowledge is necessary for English teachers to know.
Question four focused on the respondent’s attitudes towards multilingualism. All of the eight respondents answered yes to whether they view multilingualism as a resource in the English subject. Based on the result, the attitudes towards multilingualism seem to be unanimously positive. The respondents were not given the opportunity to give the reason why they view multilingualism as resource, as the question didn’t include a comment section. The answer can, nevertheless, point to some useful information. Firstly, none of the respondents answered no, which indicate that multilingualism is well accepted in school. Secondly, the positive attitudes towards multilingualism can indicate that English teachers support multilingual pupils.

To get more insight into whether or not the respondents use multilingualism as a resource in their own classroom, they were asked if they take other language that the pupils know into account while teaching English (Question 5). As presented in the diagram, the answers were divided. Five respondents answered yes, whereas the three remaining respondents answered no. The comments given by the respondents correspond with each other.
Below are two comments that describe the shared ways in which the respondents either do or don’t use other languages known by the pupils:

- *It can be particularly useful to include examples from other languages to increase the comprehension of grammatical features in the English language.*
- *It has not been natural, as the languages are significantly different from English.*

The five respondents that answered yes mentioned that other languages are used when teaching English grammar. However, the respondents don’t specify which languages that they make use of. Therefore, the Norwegian language might be included as one of the other languages that pupils know. It is important to emphasize that because the respondents don’t specify which languages they make use of; one can only make assumptions as to what they interpret as other languages.

It is clear from the answers provided by the remaining three respondents that they disregard the use of Norwegian as being a part of “other languages” that the pupils know. All of them elaborated in the comment section that it is not natural to make use of other languages when teaching English. However, all three respondents mentioned that Norwegian is the only language they use in addition to English. This reinforces the assumption that they interpreted the question somewhat differently than maybe some of the five respondents that answered yes did, and that Norwegian is being used as an additional language in the English subject.
The respondents were asked whether or not they use specific strategies while teaching English (Question 6). All of the eight respondents answered yes. Like in question 5, the comments given by the respondents to this question were similar. The common features were oral speech and variation.

- *As much variation as possible so that the pupils acquire the language in all areas. To be able to both listen, write, read and speak.*
- *Speak English as much as possible.*

Based on the comments given, the respondents can be divided into two groups. Four of the respondents highlighted that the focus of each lesson is different and therefore the strategies are different. For instance, if the lesson is a listening comprehension lesson different learning strategies will be employed than when teaching a lesson on speaking/fluency skills.

The other four respondents emphasized that exposure to the English language in form of oral speech is a dominated strategy. Considering that the question didn’t demand an explanation as to why these specific strategies are being used, none of the respondents elaborated in their answers. One can state, nevertheless, that the respondents are very aware of their own strategy use while teaching English.
The respondents were asked whether or not they use other pedagogical strategies while teaching English to multilingual pupils than with monolingual pupils (Question 7). Five respondents answered yes, whereas the remaining three answered no. It is important to note that one of the three respondents that answered no, only teach English as an L3. But based on the comment given on question 6, s/he has a focus on employing a variety of strategies when teaching English. The second respondent that answered no explained that s/he hasn’t got any experience in teaching multilingual pupils. The third respondent that answered no had an interesting comment:

- *The strategies used are mainly the same whether the pupils are monolingual or multilingual.*

Beside the fact that this comment reveals that no other strategies are employed when teaching English as an L3, it also show a connection to the answer given by the respondent on question 5. The respondent answered no to using other languages the pupils know, but mentioned that Norwegian is used alongside English. This reinforces the assumption that more than three respondents disregard the use of Norwegian as being a part of “other languages” that the pupils know.

All of the five respondents that answered yes mentioned comparing and contrasting languages that the multilingual pupils know to the English language.
One of the respondents elaborated more than the others and wrote:

- *It helps for young learners or those struggling to understand a concept to explain it in a language they understand OR to use the other language to compare and contrast.*

The fact that comparing and contrasting is highlighted by all of the five respondents can indicate that they are aware that the languages acquired by the pupils intertwine with each other. However, the focus on comparing and contrasting is based on the ability to increase the pupils understanding about certain elements in the English language. None of the respondents highlights the bond between contrastive analysis and further language development in all languages. Whether or not they have this in mind as well when answering the question is impossible to establish.

![Bar chart showing responses to Q8](Q8.png)

The respondents were asked whether or not they find it more difficult to help multilingual pupils become better at mastering the English language than it is helping monolingual pupils (Question 8). This speaks to the respondents’ assessment of their own competence to teach English as an L3. Five respondents answered yes, two respondents answered don’t know, whereas one respondent didn’t answer. Because the comments given by the respondents that answered yes were most informative, I have included two:

- *It is more difficult because multilingual pupils are often not fully multilingual. They understand most of the Norwegian oral speech, but have little understanding of grammar and have a limited vocabulary. They don’t know the mother tongue fully either.*
• *It is clearly easier to teach people that have the same linguistic background as oneself, because of the common knowledge base.*

The first comment concern the fact that multilingual pupils have not completed their language learning process in their mother tongue and their L2 and thus not being proficient speakers in either. Because of the low level of proficiency in both languages, it is more difficult for the English teacher to help them understand elements in the English language.

The other comment speaks of similarities between the teacher and the pupils. The respondent don’t elaborate on which linguistic background s/he has, but one can assume that Norwegian is her/his mother tongue. As the respondent answered yes on the first question in the questionnaire, this can indicate that knowing more languages don’t necessarily make it easier to help multilingual pupils. It can also point to that the respondent might not have a sufficient amount of linguistic competence to help the pupils without having to rely on Norwegian.

![Q9: "Have you noticed any differences between multilingual pupils learning English and monolingual pupils learning English?"

The respondents were asked about their awareness of possible differences between the way multilingual pupils learn English and the way monolingual pupils learn English (Question 9). Five respondents answered yes, whereas two respondents answered no. Like in question 8, one respondent didn’t answer as s/he only teaches English as an L3. The other two respondents referred to the fact that they don’t have experience with multilingual pupils. In contrast, the five respondents that answered that they have noticed differences wrote different comments as to what.
The three most intriguing comments were:

- **Those who speak multiple languages and learn English as a third language need to make more of a concerted effort to learn the language.**
- **There are differences between the multilingual pupils just as there are differences between Norwegian pupils. However, I believe it is correct to say that multilingual pupils need to try much more to acquire the language without relying too much on the mother tongue.**
- **I have mostly noticed cultural differences. Multilingual pupils are more insistent in their learning process. They have higher expectations to themselves and are more motivated than monolingual pupils.**

The respondent that wrote the first comment, elaborated further by saying that multilingual pupils spend the least amount of time using the English language, thus, highlighting that the mother tongue and the L2 play more significant roles in the everyday life of multilingual pupils. S/he continued by saying that the multilingual pupils might not put themselves in situations that require activating the English language or being orally active during English class. This means that they need to make more of an effort to learn the language. This is also reinforced in the second comment made by another respondent. S/he states that because of impact from the mother tongue, multilingual pupils might struggle more with learning English as their L3. Whether or not the respondent believes that making comparisons between the mother tongue and English negatively influences the language learning process is difficult to establish. One can assume that s/he might believe that if multilingual pupils are highly dependent on their mother tongue the language learning process can become more complicated and difficult.

Another respondent mentioned that s/he has noticed cultural differences and said that multilingual pupils are more insisted in their language learning process. By cultural differences, one can assume that the respondent refers to the norms, attitudes and values multilingual pupils have grown up with.
Question 10 changes the focus from multilingual pupils back to the respondents themselves. The respondents were asked if there has been any focus on linguistic typology during their education. Two respondents answered yes, one respondent answered no, and five respondents answered “some”. The results show that none of the teacher training programs where the respondents took their education have a high focus on linguistic typology. Nevertheless, five out of the eight respondents answered that linguistic typology have been focused on to some extent. It is difficult to establish what the respondents categorize as being focused on a little. However, as the majority of the respondents answered “some” and not yes, this might indicate that linguistic typology is not prioritized in teacher training programs in Norway.

There is a correlation between the two respondents that answered yes, and what they answered in question three. Both respondents mentioned that general linguistic knowledge is necessary for English teachers to know. This indicates a tendency that if teacher-training programs don’t focus on linguistic typology, English teachers will not focus on it when working in schools.
All of the respondents answered yes to whether or not they think there are any differences between second language acquisition and third language acquisition (Question 11). The result shows that the respondents are aware of the fact that learning a second language differs from learning a third language. This is also emphasized in the comments:

- *The more languages one acquires, the easier it can be to learn a new language.*
- *The learner gets transfer from both the mother tongue and the L2 in third language acquisition, whereas in second language acquisition transfer only occurs from one source. This can make the acquisition easier, but also more complex.*
- *It is easier for L3 learners to see differences and similarities between the second language and the target language.*

The respondents highlighted transfer possibilities and benefits from previously experienced language learning processes in the comments. However, some of the comments were quite vague in terms of further explanation as to why certain things are different. From the first comment mentioned above, it is only possible to establish that the respondent thinks that learning a language is easier if you know other languages. The third comment mentioned above is also an example of this. The respondent didn’t provide any explanation as to why s/he believes it is easier for L3 learners to compare and contrast their second language with the target language. The second comment above show that the respondent knows that transfer possibilities increases with third language acquisition, but it is not possible to establish if s/he knows the different types of transfer that may occur. This means that assumptions can only be made as to what the respondents mean by their comments.
In regards to the first comment, one can assume that the respondent refers to the fact that L3 learners have prior language learning experience. Thus, they have developed a higher linguistic competence, which makes them more aware of the fact that languages have different grammatical structures. This is also an assumption that can be made as a basis for the third comment mentioned above. Because L3 learners have gone through a process of second language acquisition, they can more easily find similarities and differences between the second language and the third language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentences</th>
<th>What is incorrect?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have dog.</td>
<td>Missing the article “a”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is come.</td>
<td>Confusion between the auxiliary verb “to have” versus “to be”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I not read the story.</td>
<td>Missing the auxiliary verb “have”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No matter what happens will we always be friends.</td>
<td>Incorrect word order.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In question twelve the respondents were asked to fill in what was wrong with the sentences listed on the left in the table above. Unlike the other questions that were structured with a question and predetermined alternatives, question twelve were structured as an exercise. Not only were the respondents asked to answer what was wrong with the specific sentences, but also give an explanation as to what could have caused the errors. The correct answers are listed on the right side of the table above. All eight of the respondents answered correctly, but it varied amongst the respondents who elaborated further on what might have caused the errors. Regarding the first sentence, three respondents answered that pupils who have a mother tongue where articles are not always necessary or not always found before the noun usually make such errors. Two respondents elaborated on what may have caused the error made in the second sentence, and both answered that such errors can be made by pupils who have a mother tongue that uses “to be” as an auxiliary verb. Some of the languages that they mentioned were Norwegian, French, Italian and Spanish. None of the respondent gave an explanation as to what causes errors such as the one in the third sentence, which might indicate that they don’t know why some pupils make negation errors. Five respondents,
however, elaborated on the error made in the fourth sentence. They all mentioned that this is a
typical error made by Norwegian pupils learning English as their L2, because the sentence
structure is the same as how the sentence would be structured in Norwegian. This reinforced
my preconception that the respondents might be more attentive to errors made by L2 learners
of English that have Norwegian as their mother tongue. However, it is not surprising as the
majority of the respondents have Norwegian as their mother tongue and might have made
similar errors themselves when they learned English. With that said, I can’t disregard the fact
that some of the respondents might not have found it necessary to both point out the errors
and explain what might have caused them. Secondly, it is a possibility that they don’t know
why such errors might occur, which could indicate that they lack sufficient linguistic
competence to understand what causes pupils to make such errors.
To sum up, the answers given by the respondents indicate that they have proper knowledge of
the grammatical system in the English language and the Norwegian language, but that they do
not have sufficient knowledge of other language systems/language typology.
4.1 Final remarks

The results of the questionnaire are not surprising and correlate with the studies done by Surkalovic (2013) and Krulatz & Dahl (2016) in terms of English teachers’ ability to teach English as an L3 in Norway.

The most profound findings from the questionnaire are:

- There are no correlation between knowing other languages than Norwegian and English and having knowledge about multilingualism.
- The Norwegian language is favoured as an additive language in the English subject, even though the respondents have a positive attitude towards multilingualism.
- The respondents have adequate knowledge about the differences and similarities between second language acquisition and third language acquisition, but not about what it is like to go through a third language learning process.
- The respondents are more competent to and aware of employing strategies based on second language acquisition than third language acquisition.
- The lack of linguistic proficiency in the respondent’s own education, corresponds with finding it more difficult to help multilingual pupils become better at mastering the English language.
5 Discussion

In this chapter I will discuss the results of my study and connect it with the theoretical framework presented in chapter two. Three supplementary questions will be answered to ensure an answer to the research question. These are:

- What is the relationship between English teachers and multilingualism?
- Do English teachers have knowledge about third language acquisition?
- How do English teachers teach English to L3 learners?

5.1 English teachers and multilingualism

The results show that the respondents have a positive attitude towards multilingualism in a school context. There is, however, not a strong correlation between viewing multilingualism as a resource and the use of other languages than Norwegian while teaching English. This can indicate that the English subject is still strongly impacted by a monolingual perspective. In other words, English teachers don’t fully take advantage of the possibilities that comes with having a linguistically diverse pupil population in the classroom. This is despite the fact that they are aware that both multilingual and monolingual pupils will benefit greatly from a more attentive use of other languages when teaching English. The focus seems to be on similarities and differences between the English language and the Norwegian language, which is a direct conflict to how the Knowledge Promotion states that linguistic diversity in a school context should be preserved (cf. section 1.1 and 2.1.2). With the expansion of immigrants and other foreign speakers settling down in Norway, monolinguals are not to be associated with the norm anymore in society. This is also reinforced by the fact that the majority of the respondents have multilingual pupils in their classes. In addition, in order for schools to be in compliance with the development in society, multilingualism needs to have a higher focus in schools. In order to do this, as pointed out by Surkalovic (2014), teacher-training programs need to increase the focus on linguistic typology and language structure (cf. section 2.4). By developing a higher level of general linguistic knowledge, English teachers will be more competent to make use of other foreign languages when teaching English. If teacher-training programs in Norway were more characterized by a multilingual perspective, it is realistic to estimate that English teachers would have a better basis when faced with a linguistically diverse pupil population.
To sum up, English teachers lack sufficient knowledge about the phenomenon that is multilingualism and how they can implement it into the English subject. Because they haven’t developed the necessary knowledge about multilingual competence, they are not able to fulfil the important role of providing and assisting further development of the pupils’ multilingual competence.

5.2 English teachers knowledge about third language acquisition

With the enlargement of pupils learning English as their L3, comes the requirements of expanding English teachers knowledge from second language learning to third language learning. The results from the questionnaire show that the respondents have adequate knowledge about the differences between second language acquisition and third language acquisition. There are two specific elements that the respondents points to: prior language learning and cross-linguistic influence.

Because L3 learners have prior language learning experience, they have a higher level of metalinguistic awareness. The respondents point this out as they state that L3 learners can more easily find similarities between their second language and the target language. In other words, L3 learners have a higher ability to reflect on languages and distinguish between the grammatical systems of languages. Hufeisen (1998) refers to this as cognitive and affective factors that can influence the third language learning process in a positive and progressing way (cf. section 2.2 above). English teachers are aware of the fact that L3 learners of English make use of previous acquired languages to become more proficient in the English language. One can assume that English teachers have what Grosjean (1982a) defines as a holistic view on how language is learned. As explained in section 2.1.2, this involves how bilinguals/multilinguals integrate knowledge from the languages acquired to increase the functionality of each. This is based on the fact that the results indicate that English teachers recognize that third language acquisition is more complex than second language acquisition. As pointed out by the respondents, L3 learners experience an increase in transfer possibilities because of the inclusion of an additive language. This corresponds with Jessner (2008), as she points out that in a multilingual system, CLI takes place between all three languages, whereas in a bilingual system CLI are limited to two systems that can possibly influence each other (cf. section 2.3 above).
However, the results also indicate that English teachers need to develop a higher understanding as to what L3 learners of English experience in their acquisition process. This is emphasized by the fact that the respondents found it more difficult to help multilingual pupils than monolingual pupils. This also explains why the majority of English teachers are more competent with teaching English as an L2 rather than an L3. Having adequate knowledge about how third language acquisition differs from second language acquisition is not enough when teaching English as a third language. English teachers need to be aware of which negative and positive transfer from previously acquired languages that may occur during L3 learners’ language process. Without knowing why L3 learners make errors, and what those mistakes are, English teachers can’t help L3 learners minimalize the making of such errors. For instance, some L3 learners might have problems with the English article, because their mother tongue (L1) doesn’t have articles. The results of the last question show that the respondents are able to understand and pinpoint what the errors are in each sentence. However, the results also indicate that the respondents are more competent when it comes to recognizing errors caused by transfer from the Norwegian languages rather than other language the pupils might know. This can indicate that there is a parallel between acquiring the languages that influence the language learning process and the way in which errors are dealt with. In other words, because the majority of the respondents have Norwegian as their mother tongue, they are better equipped to help pupils who have the same linguistic background. However, having general knowledge of typological differences between languages can make it easier for English teachers to help L3 learners, because they are able to understand the basic grammar of the pupils’ mother tongue. With that said, it is important to emphasize that it is difficult to know whether the respondents are representative, as there is a possibility that many teachers didn’t participate in the study because they realized that they do not have the knowledge they felt they should have.

English teachers should be aware of the different factors that influence third language acquisition, so that they are able to give the L3 learners concrete and continuous help through the whole language learning process. An essential difference between L2 learners and L3 learners, are that the latter have more language learning experience because they have gone through second language acquisition. This means that English teachers should be aware of the set of factors that Hufeisen (1998) refers to as foreign language specific factors (cf. section 2.2), which include the experiences and strategies that L3 learners have developed during second language acquisition.
The way in which English teachers can be made aware of these factors is to have conversations with the L3 learners to establish what they already know about language learning. As the L3 learners may have intuitively developed their own learning style, they may be more aware of which techniques that are most beneficial for them to use in order to successfully acquire English as their L3. This means that English teachers can take advantage of the fact that L3 learners are experienced language learners and cooperate more with them towards the goal. However, in order for English teachers to have the ability to do that, they must be aware of the fact that just as there are differences between monolingual pupils, there are differences between multilingual pupils in the way they learn languages. The results of the questionnaire indicate that the majority of the respondents don’t distinguish between the ways in which multilingual pupils learn English and, as a consequence, the same pedagogical strategies are employed because of the perception that they are beneficial for every multilingual pupil. English teachers can therefore learn from the factor model by Hufeisen (1998), as Hufeisen (1998) notes that the model can be used to analyse individual language learning processes (cf. section 2.2).

5.3 English teachers encounter with L3 learners of English

The results show that English teachers are very aware when it comes to the use of strategies in English language teaching. Specific strategies are used to facilitate the pupils’ further development in every aspect of the English language. However, when faced with multilingual pupils, the choices of strategies are characterized to a greater degree by uncertainty. This reinforces the point made by Dahl & Krulatz (2016), that because of the lack of focus on multilingual competence and awareness of English as a third language, English teachers are not prepared to work with a diverse pupil population (cf. section 2.4 above).

The respondents underline contrastive analysis as a beneficial way for L3 learners to achieve a better understanding of the English language. However, there is a tendency that the contrastive analysis is limited in its use as English teachers focus on similarities and differences between Norwegian and English. This is an indication to the lack of general linguistic competence that Surkalovic (2014) points to (cf. section 2.4). The Norwegian language has a dominating role in the English subject.
This reinforces the assumption that English teachers disregard other languages in favour of Norwegian because it is a language known by all of the pupils. In some cases, L3 learners of English have acquired Norwegian as their L2 from an early age, which means that they have developed a sufficient level of proficiency in the language. It is also the mother tongue of the majority of English teachers working in Norwegian schools. The frequent use of the Norwegian language can be justified as L3 learners have the ability to be in what Grosjean (1986c) refers to as the bilingual mode (cf. section 2.1.2 above), i.e. they choose to activate the two languages necessary to achieve successful communication. Some L3 learners might also be persistent in their use of Norwegian, because they feel that this is what the English teacher prefers. This is also highlighted by Hammarberg (2001b) as one of the influential factors that determines which language L3 learners choose as their external instrumental language (cf. section 2.3). Another factor that can influence L3 learners choice to be in a bilingual mode is that the language of instruction is Norwegian, which means that they are frequently put in situations where the need to activate the Norwegian language is required. As all three languages might be present in the school, they might actively change between mono-, bi-, and trilingual mode. It is important that the English teachers are aware of this, not simply assuming that the other languages that the pupils know are switched off when not in use. However, some of the L3 learners are still acquiring the Norwegian language and are not yet sufficiently proficient in the language, so they might struggle to fully understand different elements in the English language if English teachers only take the Norwegian language into account. English teachers may also encounter L3 learners that are not proficient in their mother tongue as well. Because of the lack of proficiency in both previously acquired languages, they might have more difficulties learning the English language, as they are not able to benefit from their mother tongue (the L1) and the L2. This is also emphasized in the Threshold Hypothesis by Cummins (1976), as it states that cognitive advantages from knowing several languages can only be beneficial if learners have a high proficiency in all acquired languages (cf. section 2.4.2). Despite the fact that L2 learners only acquire one previous language, they might have developed a high level of proficiency in the L1, which makes it possible for them to draw knowledge from their L1 into the learning of their second language. According to the Threshold Hypothesis, these pupils will experience both negative and positive transfer from their L1 (cf. section 2.4.2).
Although Hammarberg (2001b) emphasizes the role L2 has on third language acquisition (cf. section 2.3), it is important to recognize that the roles of previous acquired languages may differ from individual to individual. This is not to say that the L2 doesn’t take on a more dominant role in most cases. English teachers should, nevertheless, highlight significant differences between all three languages, as it will increase the pupils’ metalinguistic awareness. Szczesniak (2013) emphasizes this with regards to negative transfer from the L2 to the L3, and states that English teacher should make L3 learners aware of so-called false friends that can occur in the L3 learners’ utterance (cf. section 2.3). If the L1 has a more similar grammatical system than Norwegian has, it is reasonable to assume that the L3 learner will benefit greatly from expanding the use of contrastive analysis from only involving the L2 to including the L1 as well. L3 learners can be considered experienced learners, as they have already experienced a foreign language learning process, which means that English teachers can take advantage of the knowledge L3 learners already have and implement it in the language learning process. Szczesniak (2013) highlights this in regards to the domain of lexis, as she suggests that English teachers can make use of lexical items such as internationalisms, loan words and “true friends” (cf. section 2.4.2). The different languages might be similar in different ways, which means that English teachers should make L3 learners aware of the similarities between all three languages.

In order for this to happen, English teachers need to develop a higher knowledge of language structure, as pointed out by Surkalovic (2014, cf. section 2.4 above). This is based on the fact that the results indicate that English teachers disregard other languages that the pupils know if they are significantly different than the English language. This might also be impacted by their own insecurity of including a foreign language that they don’t know while teaching English. However, Szczesniak (2013) emphasizes that L3 learners will become more proficient language learners if English teachers support and assist them by using comparative analysis with all three languages.

To sum up, in order for English teachers to help L3 learners with acquire the English language successfully, they need to become more aware of how gain more knowledge about the complexity of third language acquisition. In addition, English teachers need to accentuate all three languages known by L3 learners so that the language learning process progresses more effectively.
This strengthens the importance of a higher focus on awareness of third language acquisition and multilingual competence in teacher-training programs, as highlighted by Dahl & Krulatz (2016) (cf. section 2.4), so that future English teachers will be more competent to encounter a linguistically diverse pupil population.
6 Conclusion

The results of the study indicate that English teachers don’t have the necessary multilingual competence to teach English as an L3. In order for English teachers to teach English more effectively and successfully as an L3, they need to develop a higher level of multilingual competence and knowledge of third language acquisition. In addition, gain more knowledge of how they can facilitate the English teaching/learning in order to help multilingual pupils overcome the challenges they encounter during third language acquisition. The hypothesis of this study can therefore be considered as correct, as the research indicate that English teachers are not given the proper education to teach English as an L3. This also conforms to the results of the research done by Surkalovic (2014) and Dahl & Krulatz (2015), which state that teacher-training programs need to have a higher focus on multilingualism and third language acquisition, so that English teachers can be competently prepared to teach English as an L3. However, it is important to emphasize that more research must be conducted within the field of multilingualism and third language acquisition to conclude whether or not English teachers have the necessary knowledge of multilingual competence to teach English as an L3.
7 References


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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Målet i denne spørreundersøkelsen er å kartlegge om lærerutdanningene er gode nok når det gjelder å gi språklærere den kunnskapen de trenger for å hjelpe flerspråklige/flerkulturelle elever. For å ha muligheten til å få et svar på dette, trenger jeg hjelp fra engelsklærere ute i skolen. Jeg vil derfor være veldig takknemlig om du tar deg tida til å svare på undersøkelsen.

Når det gjelder spørsmålene er det fint hvis du kan sette et kryss bak det svaret du føler stemmer. Det er også mulig å utvide kommentarfeltet hvis du trenger mer rom for å skrive.

1. Behersker du andre språk enn norsk og engelsk?
   
   JA  NEI

2. Har du flerspråklige elever i din klasse? (Elever som kan snakke, skrive, lese og forstå flere enn to språk)
   
   JA  NEI

3. Trenger en engelsklærer i Norge å vite noe om språkene som ikke er engelsk eller norsk? Hvis nei, hvorfor? Hvis ja, hvorfor og hva?
   
   JA  NEI

Kommentar:
4. Anser du flerspråklighet som en ressurs i engelskundervisning?

JA  NEI

5. Benytter du deg av eventuelle andre språk elevene har tilegnet seg i engelskundervisningen? Hvis ja, på hvilken måte?

JA  NEI

Kommentar:

6. Bruker du spesifikke strategier når du underviser engelsk? Hvis ja, hvilke?

JA  NEI

Kommentar:


JA  NEI
8. Synes du det er vanskeligere å hjelpe flerspråklige elever til å bli bedre på å beherske engelskspråket enn det er å hjelpe enspråklige elever? Hvis ja, hva tror du dette skyldes?

JA  NEI

9. Har du lagt merke til noen forskjeller mellom flerspråklige elever og enspråklige elever på måten de lærer seg engelsk? F.eks., bruker de forskjellige strategier? Hvis ja, hva er forskjellene?

JA  NEI

10. Har språktypologi vært i fokus i løpet av din egen utdanning? (Klassifisering av språk etter grammatiske likheter).
11. Tror du er det noen forskjeller mellom andrespråkstilegnelse og tredjespråkstilegnelse? Hvis ja, hvilken forskjeller er det?

JA   NEI

Kommentar:


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setninger</th>
<th>Hva er feil?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have dog.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is come.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I not read the story.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No matter what happens will we always be friends.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tusen takk for at du tok deg tid til å besvare spørreundersøkelsen. Jeg setter stor pris på din deltakelse og det vil igjen hjelpe meg mye videre i min masteravhandling.

Med vennlig hilsen Line Pedersen