

# Teachers' pedagogical vision for 21<sup>st</sup> century English education

*Expanding landscapes for English as a  
multilingua franca of global citizenship in  
Norwegian schools*

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**OSLOMET**

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## Preface

We all have the potential to experience moments when new perspectives reveal themselves in unexpected ways. In 2008, I experienced this during an in-service course on assessment for teachers of English, an in-service course I would subsequently repeat over several years. This experience, and the thinking it inspired, is the impetus for this thesis.

The course involved the collaborative interpretation of curricular objectives and conceptions of English competence in ensuring the valid assessment of learners in the classroom. Over time, a pattern emerged in this interpretive process. Working with curriculum, theory and exemplary tasks and criteria for oral assessment proceeded without incident. However, when the focus shifted to teacher-written tasks and criteria for the assessment of learners' oral skills, tensions arose around the construct of assessment and the validity of that construct. When put into practice, what had previously seemed uncontested, "common", and "shared" suddenly was not. Moreover, teachers seemed to struggle in explaining added aspects of performance. The motivation for this thesis arose from exploring what lie in this struggle, and though the original focus of my research was teachers' assessment of oral English, it expanded well beyond this and into an exploration of teachers' vision for English pedagogy in Norwegian basic education.

Teachers are centrally positioned in this study, as key stakeholders in enacting English education policy at the nexus of differing specializations and evolving realities for English in the world. My aim is to explore the ways they talk and think about the subject of English in school, as grounded in their everyday experiences in and outside of school. This thinking and these experiences do not exist in isolation but instead engage processes of globalization and ways of understanding language, language education, identity, democracy, and democratic citizenship. For me, what began as an inquiry into teacher assessment led to the heart of English pedagogy and the intention of English in basic education. My aim has been to map teacher understanding and teachers' pedagogical visions and, in doing so, to bring into focus more tacit aspects of teacher theories and the complexity of English today. My hope is that making these visible will inspire greater and more critical consideration of issues of language, identity, and power in English as a compulsory subject in school and in Norwegian basic education.



# Acknowledgements

At first glance, this dissertation has been a journey of nine years, but for those who know me well, they know it has been a journey of over 20 years. Thanking everyone, therefore, feels like an almost impossible task. Despite this challenge, I will try.

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Then, a thank you to colleagues and collaborators near and far who have engaged my ideas, guided, and supported me along the way. No acknowledgments would be complete without a thank you to Professor Stig Johansson, who first introduced me to research in Norway and in Scandinavia in the late 1990s. Then to my steadfast thesis advisors, Professor Lia Plakans and Professor Dina Tzagari for their endless support. If you have ever grown impatient, you never let it show. To different editors, peer reviewers, opponents, research analysts, and readers (including but not limited to Mona Flognfeldt, Therese Tishakov, Anne-Line Graedler, Glen Ole Hellekjær, Gudrun Erikson, Lucilla Lopriore, Leslie Schrier, Carolyn Colvin, and Nicos Sifakis), you are my professional community, and my work is better for your commentary and insight. I also want to give a special thanks to Dr. Tzagari for including me in the *English as a lingua franca Practice for Inclusive Multilingual Classrooms (ENRICH)* project and introducing me to a diverse team of researchers and teacher educators interested in this topic. Our work developing online professional development has exposed me to ideas and thinking across many different contexts and allowed me to mentor teachers of English from all over the world. These experiences have been invaluable for my own development and transformation.

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A very special thanks goes to my wonderful colleagues in teacher education and to members of the research group “Evaluation and Assessment” at OsloMet. To my English Department colleagues, I will just repeat what I have said before. You inspire and challenge my thinking and continually model patience, inquisition, generosity, and support - fundamental traits in teacher education and academic pursuits alike. You make my workplace a home and a

wonderful place to be and grow. To my former colleagues at Oslo International School, delivering this dissertation (almost) relieves me of the guilt I have felt leaving such a dream team of educators, staff, and students.

Finally, no thanks would be complete without family and friends. To my mother. Thank you for introducing me to the world of books and opening my mind to worlds I neither could have imagined nor experienced on my own. To my father. Thank you for instilling in me (and constantly repeating) that a) you finish what you start, and b) you should find joy and laughter in whatever you do. To my sisters and nieces. Thank you for being creative and just plain silly. I cherish our time together, and your playfulness and imaginations are infectious. To my Norwegian family. Thank you for your openness and acceptance. I have always felt your human warmth and empathy, and you model well how to meet diversity and treat others with respect. To my many friends (including but not limited to Karina Sandved, Karen Borgen, Elizabeth Diskin, Jennifer Borchgrevink) who have celebrated my victories, picked me up when I was low, and carried me when I needed it. You are the family I choose, and my life is the richer for you being in it.

Finally, to my own little family, Jacob, Stella, and our family dog, Nansen. To Jacob. Thank you for being a partner who still makes interesting claims and poses insightful questions. Even after all these years, you still manage to surprise me (mostly in a positive way). I look forward to many years of fun together, with concerns of this dissertation behind us. To Stella. Being your mother has been the joy of my life. Though I am proud of this doctoral thesis, I am prouder of the bright, insightful, analytical, and disciplined young woman you have become. Knowing you are the future gives me hope. And finally, to Nansen. Thank you for your intense stares that forced me away from the computer and out into the open. I am certain you have saved me a fortune in physiotherapy.

## Summary

This study investigates teachers' pedagogical vision for English in Norwegian basic education. It does so through the lens of social construction, discourse, and sociolinguistic ecology. Teacher visions are investigated as specialized discourse embedded in larger educational discourses of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The findings of this study make visible deeply held understandings of English pedagogy and educational policy in school. The discussion of the grounded and specialized ways teachers describe teaching and learning intentions of English pedagogy in school and the English language that underpins them acknowledges situation in time and place. In a century characterized by disruption and change, the discussion of teachers' visions adopts a transformative stance and considers possibilities in the evolution of English in school.

A qualitative approach was adopted to investigating teachers' ways of talking about English. Purposive sampling targeted teacher practitioners within a bounded institutional context and across scales of English teaching experience. To uncover the deeper layers of teacher meanings, a cyclical approach was taken to the generation and analysis of interview data. Recursive analysis was designed to identify salient patterns across interviews in framing constructions of English in school. These patterns are represented in the individual articles and represent teachers' framing of a) core teaching aims (Article 1), b) ideologies of English in and outside of school (Article 2), and c) learning in school subject English (Article 3).

Article 1, Chvala (2018), targets central teaching aims. Findings reveal primary intentions to develop cultural knowledge of English-speaking countries and to develop learners' communicative ability, largely through expressing this knowledge in English. Developing knowledge *about* language, *about* the English language and language awareness was far less salient. Aims to promote civic awareness, democratic citizenship and democratic participation indexed knowledge of English-speaking countries and not global participation through the use of English.

Article 2, Chvala (2020), explores teacher ideologies of English in society and English in school. Findings reveal ideological constructions of English in society as a natural and supranational language and as a channel of globalization. English as global and supranational is beneficial for economic opportunities but also personal, potentially threatening, and complicit in the local appropriation of non-local values. Findings for ideological constructions of English in school

include English as: foreign, communicative, historic, cultural, humanistic, content knowledge driven and “in flux”. The category “in flux” suggests an English in transition that raises questions of ownership and identity, diversity, digital contact, and English as a wider, globally oriented language in school.

Article 3, (Chvala, 2022, *under review*), investigates teacher conceptions of learning. Findings reveal constructions of learning that build on functional competence and foreground expanding content knowledge, cultural heritage, and adolescent identities in real and imagined worlds. At the outermost reaches, and available only for few, is learning that fosters cultural sensitivity for global interaction and active citizenship. Findings suggest conceptions of learning: a) that emphasize orality and everyday experience, b) extend learning beyond English as a tool, and c) involve the mediation of expanding identities and worlds. Mediating identities and worlds, however, challenges teacher identities and problematizes learning English that is detached from a national or cultural anchor. This type of learning is described as: a) stress-inducing, b) overly abstract and academic, and c) too distant from the everyday experience of learners in school.

The synthesis of these findings represents these teachers’ holistic and grounded “pedagogical vision” for English in school. It includes teaching and learning intentions and their ideological foundations. Productive tensions in constructions of diversity, speakers, the English language, and communication are discussed and openings for further bridging English in and outside of school and its use in real and imagined communities are considered. English as a pedagogical lingua franca and ELF-awareness are considered as useful and locally relevant concepts in further evolving 21<sup>st</sup> century English didactics in Norway and English language teaching in other contexts that strive to connect English and 21<sup>st</sup> century global citizenship education.



# Sammendrag

Denne studien undersøker lærernes pedagogiske visjon for engelsk i norsk grunnopplæring. Det gjør det gjennom perspektiver om sosial konstruksjon, diskurs og økologi. Lærervisjoner blir undersøkt som et spesialisert diskurs innebygd i større diskurser på det tidlige 21. århundre. Funnene i denne studien synliggjør dyptgående forståelser av engelsk pedagogikk og utdanningspolitikk i skolen. Diskusjonen om lærernes grunnfestede og spesialiserte måter å snakke om undervisnings- og læringsintensjoner i skolefag engelsk og definisjoner av det engelske språket som underbygger dem, anerkjenner deres posisjonering i tid og innenfor en større økologi. I et århundre preget av usikkerhet og endringer, inntar diskusjonen om lærernes visjoner en transformativ holdning og vurderer muligheter i utviklingen av engelsk i skolen.

En kvalitativ tilnærming ble tatt i bruk for å undersøke lærernes måter å snakke om engelsk på. Lærertøvere ble målrettet valgt innenfor en avgrenset institusjonell kontekst og på tvers av sin undervisningserfaring i engelsk. For å avdekke de dypere lagene av lærertolkninger og betydninger, ble det tatt en syklisk tilnærming til generering av intervjudata og dataanalysen. Rekursiv analyse ble designet for å identifisere fremtredende mønstre på tvers av intervjuer som gjenspeiler rammekonstruksjoner av engelsk i skolen. Mønstre er representert i de enkelte artiklene og presenterer lærernes utforming av: a) grunnleggende undervisningsmål (artikkel 1), b) ideologier for engelsk i og utenfor skolen (artikkel 2), og c) læring (artikkel 3).

Artikkel 1 (publisert) retter seg mot sentrale undervisningsmål. Funn avslører primære intensjoner om å utvikle kulturell kunnskap om engelsktalende land og å utvikle elevenes kommunikasjonsevne, hovedsakelig gjennom å uttrykke denne kunnskapen på engelsk. Å utvikle kunnskap *om* språk, *om* det engelske språket og språkbevissthet var langt mindre fremtredende. Undervisningsmål som fremmer samfunnsbevissthet, demokratisk medborgerskap og demokratisk deltakelse indeksert kunnskap om engelsktalende land og ikke global deltakelse gjennom bruk av engelsk.

Artikkel 2 (publisert) utforsker lærerideologier om engelsk i samfunnet og engelsk i skolen. Funn avslører ideologiske konstruksjoner av engelsk i samfunnet som et naturlig og overnasjonalt språk og som en kanal for globalisering. Engelsk som global og overnasjonal er gunstig for økonomiske muligheter, men også personlig, potensielt truende og medskyldig i

lokal tilegnelse av ikke-lokale verdier. Funn for ideologiske konstruksjoner av engelsk i skolen inkluderer engelsk som: fremmed, kommunikativ, historisk, kulturell, humanistisk, et språk for kunnskapsutvikling og et språk "i bevegelse". Kategorien «i bevegelse» tyder på en overgang og reiser spørsmål om eierskap og identitet, mangfold, digital kontakt og engelsk som et globalt orientert språk i skolen.

Artikkel 3 (innsendt/under vurdering) undersøker lærers forestillinger om læring. Funn avslører konstruksjoner av læring som bygger på funksjonell kompetanse, setter kunnskap, kulturarv og ungdomsidentiteter i virkelige og forestilte verdener i forgrunnen. Ytterst, og kun tilgjengelig for de få, er læring som retter seg mot kulturell sensitivitet nødvendig for global interaksjon og aktivt medborgerskap. Funn antyder forestillinger om læring: a) som legger vekt på muntlighet og hverdags erfaringer, b) utvider læringen av engelsk som mer enn tilegnelse av et kommunikativt eller akademisk verktøy, og c) involverer formidling av gradvis ekspanderende identiteter og verdener. Å formidle identiteter og verdener utfordrer lærernes identiteter og problematiserer læring av engelsk løsrevet fra et nasjonalt eller kulturelt anker. Denne globalt orienterte læringen av engelsk beskrives som: a) stressfremkallende, b) altfor abstrakt og akademisk, og c) for fjern fra hverdagsopplevelsen til elever på skolen.

Syntesen av disse funnene representerer en helhetlig og forankret "pedagogisk visjon" for engelsk i skolen som inkluderer undervisnings- og læringsintensjoner og ideologisk grunnlag. Produktive spenninger i konstruksjoner av mangfold, «speakers», det engelske språket og kommunikasjon diskuteres, og åpninger for ytterligere brobygging mellom bruken av engelsk i og utenfor skolen og i autentiske og forestilte situasjoner vurderes. Engelsk som pedagogisk lingua franca og ELF-bevissthet anses som nyttige og lokalt relevante begreper i videreutvikling av en engelskdidaktikk som er relevant i Norge og for en engelskundervisning som kobler engelsk og utdanning for globalt medborgerskap.

## Table of Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	5
1.1	<b>Purpose of This Study</b>	6
1.2	<b>Researcher Positionality</b>	7
1.3	<b>Structure of the Thesis</b>	8
<b>2</b>	<b>Literature Review</b>	10
2.1	<b>Theoretical Framework</b>	10
2.1.1	<i>Discourse and Discursive Practice</i>	10
2.1.2	<i>Pedagogic Discourse</i>	12
2.1.3	<i>Ecology and the Teacher</i>	14
2.2	<b>Discourses of English Education</b>	16
2.2.1	<i>Macro Discourses</i>	17
2.2.1.1	21 <sup>st</sup> Century Skills	17
2.2.1.2	Global Citizenship	18
2.2.2	<i>Meso Discourses</i>	19
2.2.2.1	The English Language	20
2.2.2.2	English Speakers	23
2.2.2.3	English Pedagogy	25
2.2.3	<i>Micro Discourses</i>	28
2.2.3.1	Teachers and the Subject Discipline	29
2.2.3.2	Multilingualism and Digitalization	31
2.2.3.3	Culture, Text, and Communication	33
2.2.3.4	Curriculum	36
2.3	<b>Summary</b>	38
<b>3</b>	<b>Methodology</b>	41
3.1	<b>Grounded Theory</b>	41
3.2	<b>The Interview</b>	43
3.2.1	<i>Thematizing and Designing</i>	43
3.2.2	<i>Purposive Sampling</i>	45
3.2.3	<i>Interviewing and Verifying</i>	45
3.2.4	<i>Bracketing</i>	50
3.3	<b>Data Analysis</b>	51
3.3.1	<i>Spoken to Written Data</i>	51
3.3.2	<i>Analytical Procedures</i>	52
3.3.3	<i>External Auditing</i>	53

3.3.4	<i>Representation</i> .....	53
<b>3.4</b>	<b>Methodological Rigor</b> .....	54
3.4.1	<i>Credibility</i> .....	55
3.4.2	<i>Dependability</i> .....	56
3.4.3	<i>Confirmability</i> .....	56
3.4.4	<i>Transferability</i> .....	56
<b>3.5</b>	<b>Ethical Considerations</b> .....	56
3.5.1	<i>Access</i> .....	57
3.5.2	<i>Participant Representation</i> .....	57
3.5.3	<i>Agency and Ethical Validity</i> .....	57
<b>3.6</b>	<b>Summary</b> .....	58
<b>4</b>	<b>Synthesis and Discussion</b> .....	59
<b>4.1</b>	<b>Productive tensions</b> .....	61
4.1.1	<i>Speakers and Diversity</i> .....	61
4.1.2	<i>Language and Communication</i> .....	64
<b>4.2</b>	<b>Nurturing and Stabilizing Tension</b> .....	65
4.2.1	<i>Teacher Education and Teacher Educators</i> .....	66
4.2.2	<i>Other Stakeholders</i> .....	68
<b>4.3</b>	<b>Summary</b> .....	69
<b>5</b>	<b>Contributions</b> .....	71
<b>5.1</b>	<b>Theoretical and Empirical</b> .....	71
<b>5.2</b>	<b>Practical Implications</b> .....	72
<b>6</b>	<b>Concluding Remarks</b> .....	74
	<b>Bibliography</b> .....	76
	<b>Appendices</b> .....	89
	<b>Appendix 1: Informed Consent and Interview Guide</b> .....	89
	<b>Appendix 2: Open Coding Manual</b> .....	93
	<b>Appendix 3 Curriculum Changes</b> .....	96
	<b>Appendix 4: Research Articles</b> .....	100

## Articles

**Article 1:** Chvala, L. (2018). What are the core aims of English as a school subject? A study of teacher understanding in lower secondary school. *Acta Didactica Norge*, 12 (1).

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**Article 2:** Chvala, L. (2020). Teacher ideologies of English in 21st century Norway and new directions for locally tailored ELT. *System*, 94. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102327>

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**Article 3:** Chvala, L. Teacher conceptualizations of learning English in school – Expanding spaces for global English, imagined worlds and global mindsets.

**Status:** *Under review*, *The Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*

## List of figures

Figure 1:	Vertical and horizontal pedagogic discourses	13
Figure 2:	Macro-, meso-, and micro-discourses education and English pedagogy	16
Figure 3:	Teachers' specialized discourse for English in basic education	60
Figure 4:	Increasing stability in circulating discourse of English pedagogy in Norway	66

## List of tables

Table 1:	Teachers as transmitters versus co-constructors of knowledge	30
Table 2:	Overview of interview themes and theoretical and curricular underpinnings	44
Table 3:	Notation key for suprasegmental and pragmatic linguistic features	51
Table 4:	Overview of strategies for methodological rigor	54
Table 5:	Changes in the Norwegian core curriculum and learner profile (2006 – 2020)	Appendix 3
Table 6:	Changes in the Norwegian English subject curriculum (2013 – 2020)	Appendix 3

## Abbreviations

ELT	ELT
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TEAB	Teaching as Evolutionary Adaptive Behavior
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
EMF	English as a Multilingua Franca
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
EGP	English for General Purposes
WE	World Englishes
EIL	English as an International Language
PLF	Pedagogical Lingua Franca
GCE	Global Citizenship Education
ICC	Intercultural Communicative Competence
L1	First language
GT	Grounded Theory
NES	Native English speakers
NNES	Non-native English speakers
LK06	Norwegian national curriculum 2006 (revised 2013)
LK20	Norwegian national curriculum 2020
CPD	Continuous Professional Development

# 1 Introduction

The way in which we talk about ideas in the world is the result of a continual interplay of histories, social conventions, and ideologies. In education, dominant ideologies at any given time become mirrored in the ideologies of schooling that shape our recognition of legitimate learner achievement (Bernstein, 1972, 2000). The impact of ideologies, and our potential to reproduce or transform them, is dependent on social interaction. In education, this entails the interaction of key institutional actors, i.e. policy makers, educational authorities, publishers, examination boards, teacher educators, school administrators, teachers, parents, students, etc. (Fairclough, 2010; Hult & King, 2011).

Throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century, in contexts where English was neither a majority nor an official language, English education was considered foreign language education with linguistics as the source discipline for the subject in school. The global spread of English in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century led English from a foreign language subject to a subject of communication. This had a positive impact on learning but also opened the subject to a wide range of perspectives and disciplines (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008; D. Siqueira & Souza, 2016). English as tied to globalization has come to highlight the situated and subjective realities of multilingual learners and users English across the globe (Kramsch, 2009; Kramsch, 2002; Pennycook, 2007, 2010). These situated and subjective realities require dynamic teaching methodologies in responding appropriately to local context (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006). Appropriate response, however, requires an awareness of the sociolinguistic landscape in which English and English education function and the ability to align policy intentions and local realities. This complexity is a condition of 21<sup>st</sup> century English education and a condition with which all stakeholders must become comfortable (Tudor, 2003).

The emphasis on local coherence does not exclude theory building across instructional but does create the need for research across contexts that can illuminate commonalities and highlight implications for theory and practice. It is necessary to investigate underlying philosophical principles and sociolinguistic landscapes to broaden our understanding of what locally appropriate English education can, could or should be in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Brumfit, 2002; Callies, Hehner, Meer, & Westphal, 2022; Cogo, Fang, Kordia, Sifakis, & Siqueira, 2021; Idrus et al., 2019; Rose, McKinley, & Galloway, 2021).

This study offers a perspective on the Norwegian context through the voice of the teachers mandated to enact English education policy in basic education. It provides readers with insight into the conceptual work of teachers of English and identifies tensions that imply the need to

re-imagine or expand current views of English language teaching. It considers implications for English language teaching in Norway but also considers how these implications resonate with findings in other contexts. As such, it opens perspectives that can better align theory, local practice, national and international educational goals, and 21<sup>st</sup> century realities.

## 1.1 Purpose of This Study

This study investigates teacher pedagogies of English in Norwegian school. It adopts an inductive and bottom-up approach to investigating teacher conceptions of the English language teaching and learning. The complexity of English education in school is made visible through the voices of teachers and the exploration of ideologies, policy interpretations, and personal and professional identities related to English in a Norwegian school context.

The aim is to (re)construct teachers' practical theories of English pedagogy and reveal a deeper curriculum that connects lives, classroom habits, and learners' personal, academic, vocational, and civic goals. It entails conceptions, not only of what is possible, but of what is desirable in merging values, teaching intentions, and student learning in the classroom (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005, pp. 170-173). These practical and grounded theories are what is meant by "pedagogical vision" in the title and are explored in a Norwegian context, where English has both significant status in society and a history of native-speaking standards and norms in foreign language education (Kachru, 1997; Simensen, 2014). The findings locate patterns of English pedagogy that address the following research questions:

1. What are teachers' intentions in teaching English in school?
2. What are teachers' constructions of the learning of English in school?
3. What are teachers' ideologies of English in society and English in school?
4. How do constructions of teaching intention and learning rest on certain English ideologies in school?
5. What discursive tensions exist in bridging teacher constructions of English in school and teacher ideologies of English outside of school?
6. What tensions exist among teachers' constructions of English pedagogy and discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century education and global citizenship? What openings for transformation exist, and what factors influence teachers' engagement with tensions for transformation?



The approach to these questions encompasses areas of education beyond applied linguistics, which also reflects the evolution of English as a subject discipline in school. This study assumes a meta-perspective relevant to Norwegian teachers who teach other school subjects in addition to English and who are expected to balance central and subject curricular aims in all the subjects they teach. This meta-perspective, though challenging, is viewed by teachers as an essential aspect of their professionalism, as illustrated here:

“it’s good... [for teachers to discuss overarching themes like democracy in English education] because that’s something we lack sometimes. The professionalism. We have a profession. It should be this high [include meta-perspectives] and then you have to break it [down for the students]” (S1T2)

The purpose of this study is to render the meta-perspective of teachers visible. Findings (re)construct perspectives up from the data and through the lens of the research questions listed above. It is the meta-perspectives of deeper curriculum and pedagogy that provide the internal coherence for this study and allow for the discussion of complexity in English education. It considers tensions in English outside educational settings, educational policy intentions for English, and how English is constructed in teachers’ ways of talking about English in school. In doing so, it suggests how teachers and other educational stakeholders can re-imagine English and English pedagogy in ways better aligned with 21<sup>st</sup> century realities and educational goals.

Various initiatives are embracing new realities of English in teaching and learning and the impact and relevance of newer realities for local English pedagogy. Research and scholarship include work conducted in the Asian Pacific (Ahn, 2019; Galloway, 2017; Hino, 2018; Phan, 2020), South America (Gimenez, El Kadri, & Cabrini Simoes Calvo, 2018; Gimenez, El Kadri, & Calvo, 2021; D. Siqueira & Gimenez, 2021) and Europe (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015; Callies et al., 2022; Gnutzmann & Intemann, 2008; Vettorel, 2015). This study aims to add to this body of research, offering perspectives on English pedagogy and English language teaching in the Norwegian context.

## **1.2 Researcher Positionality**

The choice of research topic is not random. It reflects my own professional challenges in aligning goals of education, goals of English education, and English language teaching (ELT). After more than 30 years in the field, I have developed greater sensitivity to context, multilingual realities, issues of power, definitions of English competence, and the importance of strategic competence and intercultural sensitivity in all communication. According to most

definitions, I am a native speaker of English, though I identify with more fluid definitions of speakers and “home” or “first” languages. My professional life has traversed contexts of first, second, foreign, academic, and specific purposes of ELT in the United States, Norway, Sweden, China and within international education where multilingualism is the norm. Additionally, I have crossed contexts of public education, higher education, and the private business sector. In sum, the diversity of these experiences has led me to approach every setting as initially strange and to position my work within postmodern perspectives that emphasize social interaction and the continual negotiating of meaning and to decenter the psychological subject as the primary source of meaning (Bernstein, 1972; Fairclough, 2015; Giddens, 1987; Holliday & MacDonald, 2020; McNamara, 2012; Saussure, 1998; Young, 2009). The social and semiotic negotiation of meaning is thus viewed as the executive side of language use (Giddens, 1987).

My education is in applied linguistics for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and rests on an undergraduate degree in Political Science, while my research falls within a Scandinavian tradition of English didactics. While “values”, “goals”, “visions” and “aims” are socially constructed concepts and inseparable from historical trajectories and societal metanarratives, my goal is to locate “patterns of seeing, knowing, talking, and acting...[as]...trails for thought and perception and action” (Risager, 2007, p. 104) and, in doing so, to better understand teachers through their own words and my own role as a teacher educator in Norway. The Literature Review in Chapter 2 addresses circulating patterns of knowing and perceiving 21<sup>st</sup> century education, as means to reconsider and reconceptualize action for what can, could or should be done in moving the field of English didactics, teacher education and teachers forward.

### **1.3 Structure of the Thesis**

The doctoral thesis consists of this synopsis and Appendices that include the research articles and additional materials. In its entirety, the thesis invites different ways of reading. Chapters 1 and 2 introduce the study, provide the theoretical framework and review discourses of education relevant to the research questions and findings. Chapter 3 explains the methodological approach and choices made, provides an overview of strategies employed to enhance methodological rigor, and provides an overview of ethical considerations. Chapter 4 address findings in response to the research questions and synthesizes findings into a conceptual representation of deeper curriculum and underlying ideology that allows for the discussion of tensions in ways of talking about English pedagogy in school. This representation has generative promise and

transformative potential for teachers and other stakeholders in visualizing historical trajectories, metanarratives, desirability and tensions in merging values and English competence in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Chapter 5 outlines the theoretical, empirical, and practical contributions of this research and makes suggestions for future research and action that can address expanding sociolinguistic landscapes for English. A text of this kind encourages different ways of reading. It may be useful to read Chapters 1 to 3 followed by the research articles before reading Chapters 4 to 6. Readers are, of course, encouraged to read the text in the order which best serves their purpose.

## 2 Literature Review

This purpose of this chapter is to detail discourse as the theoretical framework for this study and to provide an overview of current discourses of education and English education relevant for the discussion of findings. The chapter is divided into two parts: a) Theoretical Framework, and b) Discourses of English Education. The theoretical framework situates the study within a sociolinguistic, discursive, and ecological view of language and meaning. Discourses of English Education addresses discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, global citizenship, the English language, and English speakers within English Language Teaching (ELT), and local discourses of English didactics and curriculum in Norway. This structure highlights circulating macro-, meso- and micro discourses, as a precursor to the discussion of findings on English pedagogy in Chapter 4.

### 2.1 Theoretical Framework

The ability to make informed pedagogical decisions appropriate to local contexts and learners is seen as central to the teaching profession. Informed and pedagogically sound decisions require a common and locally coherent vision of educational achievement (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Hammerness, 2006, 2013). This chapter theorizes how this coherence is established in ways of talking that discursively frame visions of educational achievement. It theorizes language use as social action that constructs and shapes ways of talking and thinking about education. It also outlines the processes through which cumulative language use or discourse becomes established, transmitted, and potentially challenged and changed.

#### 2.1.1 *Discourse and Discursive Practice*

Discourse is meaning-making that dialectically traverses beliefs, values, desires, contexts, social relations, and material practices and where the use of language is central in the semiotic formation of meaning (Fairclough, 2015). Discourse as a locus of meaning-making is also a locus of power and ideological struggle. In this struggle, certain meanings, at certain times, prevail over others. Prevailing discourse is thus:

“a group of statements which provide a language for talking about – a way of representing the knowledge about – a particular topic at a particular historical moment” (S. Hall, 1992, p. 291)

Discourse is the social and cumulative use of language to represent a certain topic in a certain way in systems of representation. Discourse refers to language use across individual speech

events and contexts that creates coherent relationships of meaning (the *signified*) and language (the *signifier*) (Saussure, 1998). Discourse as meaning is never permanent but dynamically and socially negotiated across place and time, where new ways of talking about or understanding a concept or topic may become established.

There are many examples of words whose meaning has changed over time (Curzan, 2014). The word “leech” is a useful example (Klein, 1971). On one level, “leech” refers to a wormlike creature that survives by attaching to and bleeding a living host. Historically, leeches were used to bleed patients as a form of medical treatment. During this period, doctors came to be referred to as “leeches” and the verb “to leech” meant to heal or cure. This discursive practice ceased when leeching was no longer considered a legitimate medical practice. Today, the metaphorical use of “leech” can have a more negative connotation and refer to someone who benefits from the labor or efforts of others. These shifts in meaning reflect the social use of language to construct meanings in relation to socially and historically situated realities. The meanings – and the identities they evoke – dialogue with larger societal and institutional discourses. As illustrated in this example, meanings can change over time based on changes in society (Fairclough, 2001, 2010, 2015). Discourse as the social negotiation of meaning is thus grounded in complex contextual networks of “physical, spatial, temporal, social, interactional, institutional, political, and historical circumstances” (Young, 2009, pp. 2-3).

Evidence of patterned and salient ways of using language to refer to a concept, practice or topic are referred to as discursive practices. Patterns in discursive practices allow us to understand, to participate, and to identify as members of particular communities with particular “mental representations of aspects of the world” (Fairclough, 2015, p. 168). Over time, these representations may reflect stronger or weaker boundaries of meaning. These boundaries or frames of reference for a topic or phenomenon within the community are always more or less open to challenge or change and may dialogue with discourses from other sites of production. Accepted discourses become recontextualized and reshaped in a process that always potentially involves ideological struggle (Fairclough, 2015, pp. 60-63). Specialized discourse refers to the language used to represent particular knowledge within specialized communities. Becoming a member of a professional community, for example, involves becoming socialized into, engaging in, and recognizing oneself in the specialized discursive practices or ways of talking and being. Membership within the community is enacted through a use of language that reflects the meanings of the community, with wider or narrower spaces for counter-discourses that may challenge and transform specialized discourse. The next section of this chapter takes a closer

look at the processes involved in framing specialized pedagogic discourse.

### 2.1.2 *Pedagogic Discourse*

Pedagogic discourse is connected to pedagogic practice “through which cultural reproduction-production takes place” (Bernstein, 2000, p. 3). Cultural (re)production is shaped through processes and practices of social construction. Pedagogic discourses can be understood as contextualized professional practices of cultural (re)production. Specialized discourse classifies specialized knowledge in particular ways and embeds a particular understanding of skills (i.e., in an instructional discourse) within a larger understanding of social order, identity and relationships (i.e., in a regulative discourse) (Bernstein, 2000). The formation of pedagogic discourse is governed by rules of dissemination that transmit certain skills and values for pedagogic practice. The process of shaping this pedagogic code involves two mechanisms: a) the language (the Language Device), and b) processes of classification and regulation (the Pedagogic Device) (Bernstein, 2000). The former recognizes uses of language as distinct from other language use, and the latter selects certain meanings and practices over others.

Pedagogic discourse has both a horizontal and vertical dimension (see Figure 1). Vertical discourses create a metaphorical grammar for ways of thinking or “forms of consciousness” through rules of classification and distribution (Bernstein, 2000, p. 28). This grammar is created through a hierarchy of: a) distributive rules that determine what is “thinkable” through classifying knowledge and determining rules of access b) recontextualization rules that transform discourses into “mediated, virtual or imaginary” discourses of imaginary subjects who become skilled within a moral discourse, and c) evaluation rules that determine the criteria for judging legitimate practice (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 30-33). Vertical discourses create the field of production for culturally legitimate knowledge and practices and, in this case, generate the discursive field or metaphorical grammar upon which teachers structure pedagogical intentions in school. Traces of recontextualized, mediated and virtual discourses can be found in curricular documents, instructional choices, and in the discursive practices of educational professionals.

Horizontal discourse refers to everyday language use across stretches of speech and speech events and around a cumulative knowledge and history related to a common topic. Horizontal discourses are segmented, local, context-dependent, multi-layered, potentially contradictory, and often tacit. They are built on instances of language use, where segments are equally weighted but where and certain segments are assigned more significance than others in specializing activities and practices.

Struggle over symbolic control and among competing ideologies in pedagogic discourse are evidenced as tensions, contradictions, or dilemmas that suggest gaps or instabilities in the boundaries of or relationships between horizontal and vertical discourses (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 29-30). Investigating teachers’ pedagogical vision is an investigation into teachers’ pedagogic and horizontal discourse as an “epistemic matrix” (Seargeant, 2008, p. 123) of the cumulative knowledge of teachers as experts on English in school. This knowledge, and its discursive relationship to vertical discourses of specialization:

“provides the grounds for [teachers’] authority and gives warrant to the idea that they are practicing a profession. Without this specialist knowledge, they have no authority, and no profession” (Widdowson, 2002, p. 67)

“Pedagogical vision” as used in the title is thus a discursive construct or specialized pedagogic discourse of reality devised for learning, with an indirect relationship to the “experienced reality of everyday life” (Widdowson, 2002, p. 68). To teach, teachers develop specialized ways of talking about English to explain learning to students who are meant to make sense of the experience and to perform appropriately (Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019; Widdowson, 2002).

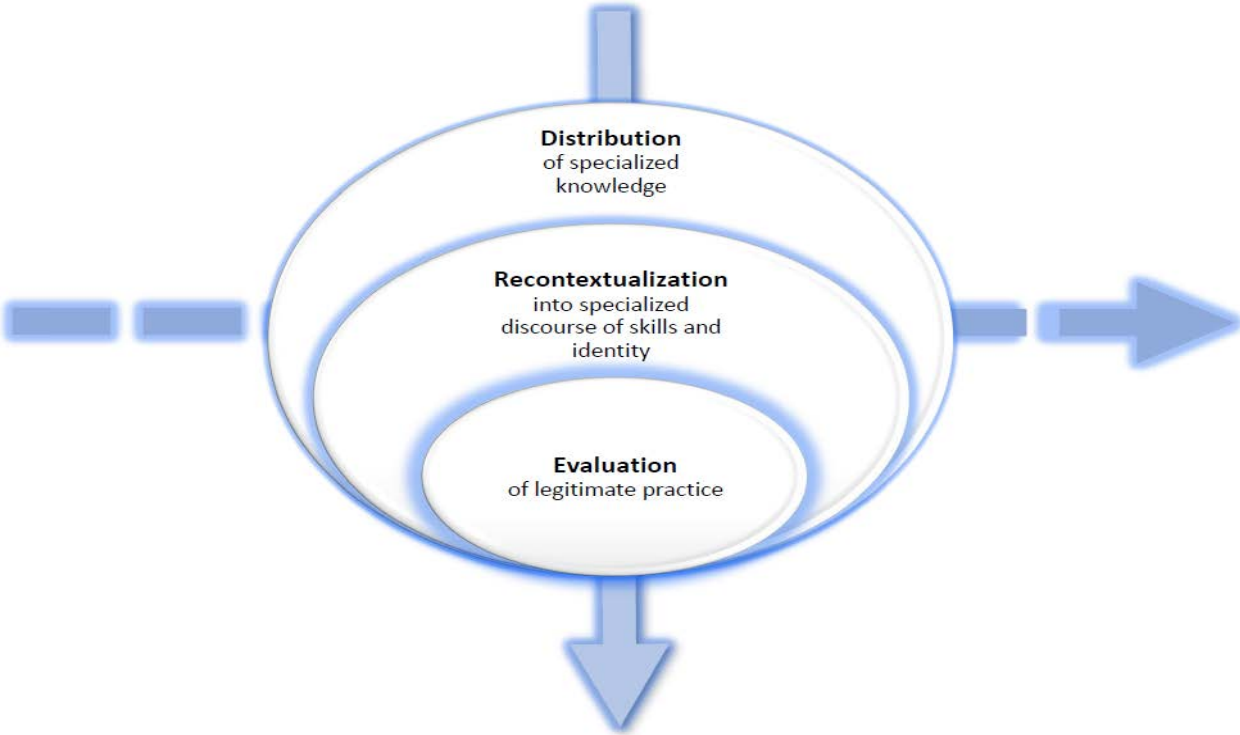


Figure 1 *Vertical and horizontal pedagogic discourses*

This study investigates the specialized pedagogic discourse of a cohort of teachers of English in Norwegian basic education. It explores the horizontal and specialized discourse of these teachers, considering every day and transcendental worlds, skills, morality and identity, and possible alignment, tension or gaps among these.

### 2.1.3 *Ecology and the Teacher*

Discursive practice highlights language as social action, use and performance in context. One means of conceptualizing contextual complexity is context as ecology and discursive framing as ecological mindset. In professional practice, this mindset is characterized by teachers' efforts to connect theory and practice and overcome tensions or dilemmas in a practical approach to real-life phenomenon (van Lier, 2010). An ecological approach adopts holistic, dynamic, and pluralistic perspectives that reflect historical, political, and social forces and how they interact at the level of the individual, community, and society in discursive practice. Like theories of discourse, ecological approaches resist dichotomies of chaos versus order and instead embrace complex and non-linear systems, where conflicting patterns may co-exist and where loosely organized constellations may become patterned through forces inside or outside of the system. System processes, like discursive processes, are layered, multifaceted, and patterned. Visible patterns reflect temporal sedimentations that can structure, guide, channel and constrain relationships and activities. The analysis of patterns is a means of representing a temporal conglomeration of patterned parts across detailed instances in a dynamic network (van Lier, 2004). Ecological approaches emphasize: a) multiple relationships in human ecosystems, b) pluralistic constructions of the self and the other, and potential conflicts among them, c) context as multiple and layered across physical, social and symbolic space and a past, future and evolving present, d) systems as evolutionary, patterned and open to change, and e) agentivity in initiating change (Kramsch, 2008; van Lier, 2004, 2010). Research within an ecological approach engages the dynamism of contextual complexity as a means of exploring contemporary ways of thinking.

Within the field of Language Planning and Policy, individual experiences with and beliefs about language, education policies and sociolinguistic circumstances 'on the ground' have mapped circulating discourses and identified opportunities for reframing these discourses in more equitable and locally relevant ways (Hornberger & Hult, 2008, p. 283). Widdowson refers to this as the pedagogical processing of English outside of school appropriate for learning inside of school (Widdowson, 2002). To do so, teacher must ask "what is the subject" and



consider assumptions that are pedagogically tenable in a process that makes the teacher the “epicenter” of processes of enacted language policy in the classroom (McCarty, 2011, p. 117; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019). Local or horizontal discourses that open spaces for professional agency, however, may not be realized. For example, in a Norwegian context with wide spaces for professional autonomy in choosing classroom texts, means and modes of teaching, Bakken (2019) found that teachers viewed textbooks a safe and stable force, that guided their practice towards curricular aims. Through discursive practice, teachers constructed a professional agency less about subject intentions and more about practical classroom methods. So, while the local ecology opened for agency connected to subject intentions, this agency was only partially realized.

Ecologies of specialized and pedagogic discourse that coordinate and construct coherence and policy enactment involved shared repertoires of:

routines, words, tools, ways of doing things, stories, gestures, symbols, genres [...], actions, or concepts that the community has produced or adopted... and which have become part of its practice [and] the discourse by which members create meaningful statements about the world, and the styles by which they express their forms of membership and their identities as members. (Wegner, 1998, p. 83)

Atkinson (2017) provides a heuristic teaching in line with this way of thinking as Evolutionary Adaptive Behavior (TEAB) designed to bridge the gap of naïve social members and the complexity of centuries of cultural innovation and production (Atkinson, 2017). Specialized pedagogic discourses of teaching evolve and adapt in teaching activity that integrates “how content is conceived, how teaching is structured, and how learning unfolds” (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005, p. 182; McNamara, 2012). Essential to this process are discursive processes and ecological evolution that negotiate and regulate beliefs and assumptions and that frame education as a joint enterprise. Within this enterprise, teachers’ may or may not recognize their professional agency in framing professional discourse. As a result, they may not recognize their role in forming discursive practices and instead of “filling out the form”, they may allow the form – as in the textbook example above - to determine them (Jones, 2012, pp. 11-12).

This chapter has thus far examined the meaning of discourse and central processes and forms of horizontal and vertical pedagogic discourses in local sociolinguistic ecologies. The next section will examine discourses of education and English education at the macro-, meso- and micro level that are relevant for the discussion of patterns in teachers’ discursive framing

of English pedagogy in Chapter 4.

## 2.2 Discourses of English Education

As outlined, discourses create frameworks of reference for specialist communities and shape specialist theories, concepts, and activities situated in ecologies of practice (Bernstein, 2000; van Lier, 2010; Widdowson, 2002). Pedagogic discourse recontextualizes societal, academic, and institutional discourses of different origin into specialized discourse.

This synopsis began by introducing a shift from foreign language education to English as a subject of communication, integrating several interdisciplinary perspectives. This section considers discourses relevant for the vertical field of production and the horizontal discourses of teachers in school. It includes: a) macro-discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills and global citizenship, b) meso-discourses of the English language, English speakers, and English Language Teaching (ELT), and c) micro-discourses of English didactics and curricular intentions in Norway (see Figure 2). These provide an overview of circulating discourses that can anchor specialized discourse backwards through history, forwards towards the future, outwards toward the world and inwards toward identity, ways of thinking and feeling (van Lier, 2010, p. 3).

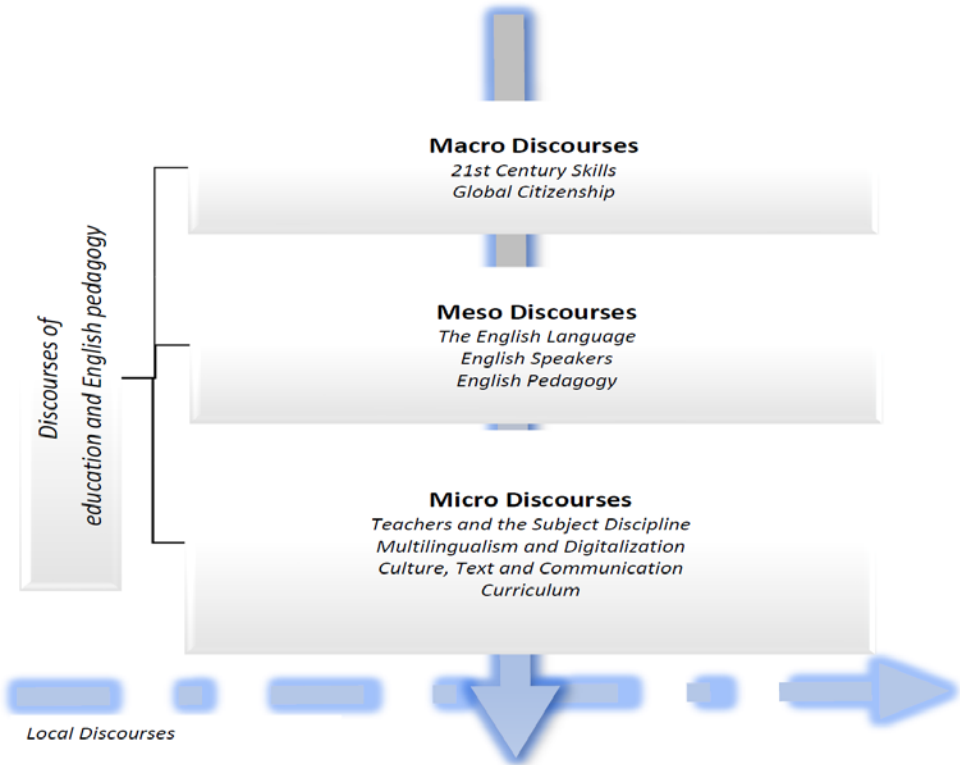


Figure 2 Macro-, meso-, and micro-discourses education and English pedagogy

## 2.2.1 *Macro Discourses*

This section addresses macro discourses of 21st century education. These discourses originate in international fora concerned with educational policy designed to equip future generations with the ability to tackle the challenges, disruption, and necessary transformations of this century. The specific discourses chosen are relevant to the Norwegian context and for the discussion of teacher discourses, as neither immune to - nor isolated from - macro discourses (Fairclough, 2015).

### 2.2.1.1 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills

Technological advancements and environmental change increasingly impact daily existence and reshape human life and interaction. Global initiatives to address these changes, such as the Sustainable Development Goals (UNESCO, 2015), lag far behind intended ambitions, and in 2019, world leaders called for the mobilization of all sectors of society to work collectively to prevent further environmental degradation and to ensure greater economic and political equality (United Nations, 2019). In education, this resulted in an explicit recognition of generic skills necessary for the twenty-first century and central for educational frameworks. These skills have been defined by organizations such as the Partnership for 21st century learning (Partnership for 21st Century Learning, 2015), The Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills (Binkley et al., 2012) and OECD's Definition and Selection of Competencies (OECD, 2005) and have influenced curricular reforms across the world. Common amongst them is the promotion of versatility in developing learners with deeply engrained transversal skills in a world of global interconnection, communication, and collaboration. Transversal skills provide a foundation and rationale for learning that emphasizes: a) global awareness, b) creative, critical and pragmatic thinking, c) communication and collaboration in physical, and digital, environments, d) skills for citizenship, work and personal and social responsibility, and e) expanding forms of literacy (Care, 2018; Fullan, 2018; Nieveen & Plomp, 2018; OECD, 2012, 2018; Shulsky, Baker, Chvala, & Willis, 2017). In Europe, educational frameworks targeting key competencies for this century target personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social cohesion and employability and include foreign language ability, cultural awareness, and digital, social and civic competence, among others (European Communities, 2007).

Large-scale research investigating 21<sup>st</sup> century skills across educational systems identified implementational processes of a) developing vision and mission statements, b) identifying skills and integrating these into curriculum, and c) raising awareness of learning and

progression in acquiring these skills across different disciplines. Despite comprehensive work to disseminate twenty-first century skills beyond global consortia, however, results suggest that most awareness still lies at the level of policy-making and much less at the level of schools and teachers (Care, 2018). Results also indicate that, while most countries include twenty-first century skills in educational goals, fewer integrate a progression of twenty-first century skills in school curriculum, suggesting a need to shift focus from educational content to pedagogical processes and approaches that address “a natural lag between intention and action” (Care, 2018, pp. 6-7). To enhance the alignment of intention and action, teachers will need to adopt roles as professional coaches who design processes of learning and adopt emergent and situated pedagogies that are learner-driven, collaborative, innovative, thematic and interdisciplinary and that integrate theory and practice (Nieveen & Plomp, 2018). Transitioning to new intentions and a new role will require both *bottom-up support* to develop local curriculum and *support from the side* from teacher education, educational agencies, and producers of instructional and assessment materials. Enhanced alignment between policy intentions and classroom practice is viewed as essential in equipping future generations to meet profound and complex global challenges, and there can be “no curriculum development without teacher development” (Fullan, 2018; Nieveen & Plomp, 2018, p. 269).

#### 2.2.1.2 Global Citizenship

In addition to 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, concepts of citizenship are expanding beyond the conventional relationships of the individual and the nation-state to include polycentric social lives in a superdiverse and interconnected world (Blommaert, 2013). More recent concepts of citizenship may encompass supranational relationships of shared interests or common goals. The political dynamics of citizenship, however, “hinge on the degrees to which people – experts, legislators, opinion makers - are capable of imagining the levels of complexity that characterize the real social environments in which people integrate” and where “the face of citizenship” lies in the sociolinguistic and institutionalized imagination (Blommaert, 2013, p. 195). To support education systems in fostering new forms of citizenship, UNESCO published a guide for Global Citizenship Education (GCE) designed to support the (re)contextualization process across nations and for policymakers, curriculum developers and other key stakeholders. This document identifies three domains of GCE: a) the cognitive domain of knowledge and critical thinking necessary to understand the interconnection and interdependency of different populations, b) the socio-emotional domain to foster a sense of belonging and shared values based on an understanding of human rights, empathy, respect for diversity and solidarity, and c)

the behavioral domain where learners are motivated to act responsibly for a sustainable world at the local, national and global level (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2015). Several of these domains have become relevant in the discussion of ELT in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

Intertextual crossover of GCE into ELT has indexed cosmopolitanism, civic education, intercultural citizenship education and the promotion of an inclusive and global mindset (de Costa, 2014; Fang & Baker, 2018; Porto, Houghton, & Byram, 2018; Suzuki, 2020). While maintaining the value of learning additional languages for communicative purposes, the discourse of citizenship considers the potential of language education in the political and moral education of learners. In a “cosmopolitan turn”, teachers have been commissioned with “cosmopolitanism on the ground” through the cultivation of learners as cosmopolitan citizens within a global culture of openness and with the ability to look beyond the communities in which they were born or live (de Costa, 2014, 2016). Discourses of cosmopolitanism and citizenship increases the complexity of ELT, highlighting criticality, the positioning speakers, issues of loyalty, and the meaning of community action (Porto et al., 2018, p. 486). As such, these issues become central for English teachers and classroom practice, English teacher educators, and other key educational stakeholders. However, despite global citizenship discourse centered on democratic thinking, belonging, a universal human community, and individual responsibilities for ethical and open ways of understanding and interacting, Pais and Costa (2020) argue that, “global citizenship” is, in fact, a very local and often very restricted concept that privileges white, liberal elites over others and unintentionally reproduces the very power imbalances it seeks to transform. However, GCE and the need to prepare teachers as active agents of change and well-being for an entire global community is increasingly part of ELT discourse (Calle Díaz, 2017; Ekanayake, Khatibi, & Azam, 2020).

### 2.2.2 *Meso Discourses*

This section considers current meso discourses of ELT and how they interact with macro discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills and global citizenship. In ELT, citizenship indexes communicative participation that activates civic status, rights and duties and that moves away from what citizenship is and towards how it is performed in communicative events (Block, 2011). Acts of citizenship as social communicative events entail the enactment of citizenship across scales of space and time and entails the ability to traverse differing normative orientations (Blommaert, 2013). As such, global citizenship raises questions of language and

speaker identity. One perspective of global citizenship in ELT highlights the socialization of speakers into a global civic culture that promotes human rights, environmental protection, and sustainable peace and invokes identities of the self, the other and humanity (Birch, 2009). This view, however, provides little room for potential conflicts and tensions that may arise across different normative orientations.

Performing citizenship through acts of communication and identity have become increasingly relevant in English language education, due to the unprecedented spread of English across the world and the rise in different types of speakers (Graddol, 2006). Through colonization, economics, technology, and migration, English has become less foreign in many contexts and has raised questions of the native-speaker English as a “construct that has outlived its usefulness” (Bruthiaux, 2003, p. 161). Tensions of a monolithic versus plurilithic English language (C. Hall, 2017), monocentric versus pluricentric culture (Baker, 2012 ), and English speaker identity (Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Norton & De Costa, 2018; Norton & Pavlenko, 2019; Porto et al., 2018) are increasingly part of ELT debate. This chapter explores the language, speakers and pedagogy in the field of ELT, before examining the connection of these meso discourses to micro discourses of English didactics and education policy in Norway.

### 2.2.2.1 The English Language

Globally oriented and plurilithic approaches to English no longer tie English exclusively to native English-speaking nations, cultures and speakers but view English as one language alongside others for communication and participation in a global community (McKay, 2002). These approaches include research and scholarship in World Englishes (WE), English as an International Language (EIL), Global Englishes (GE), and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Common amongst these is the pluricentricity of English, variety, the presence of other languages, global ownership, diversity, hybridity, and a functional view of competence that highlights situated performance, intelligibility, interculturality, and pragmatics (Canagarajah, 2006, 2007, 2014; Cogo et al., 2021; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; McKay, 2002; Rose et al., 2021; Seidlhofer, 2011; Nicos Sifakis et al., 2018). Globally oriented approaches view English as a collection of communicative, cultural, and discursive repertoires that speakers draw on in dynamic and situated use and not exclusively as an adherence to native speaker (NES) standards.

Within this paradigm, different researchers argue for different concepts, i.e., GE as a comprehensive term (Rose et al., 2021), EIL that emphasizes the spread of English and its implications for innovation in ELT (Callies et al., 2022), and ELF as theory building relevant

to English in the world and for ELT pedagogy and practices (Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019). The struggle over unifying concepts may suggest potential instability in knowledge classification that may translate into instability in the recontextualized discourse of teachers. As each is relevant for changing conceptions of English, commonalities are emphasized over differences. ELF scholarship, however, is the area that has most clearly addressed teacher awareness and classroom pedagogy. As the focus of this study is teachers' ways of talking and thinking, ELF will, therefore, play the most central role in the following discussion. Interest in ELF also exists in outside domains of education, i.e., business and technology, which indicates a real-world relevance for general education.

ELF is defined as English as a chosen medium of communication among speakers with different linguacultural backgrounds (Jenkins, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2011). While other languages have and do function as *lingua francas*, the spread of English has led to an unprecedented rise in the number of English speakers, communicative uses, and contexts of use. These developments have necessitated the reexamination of language and theories of language that can account for this use. Initial research in ELF arose from observations of the successful use of non-standardized English pronunciation in the communication of multilingual speakers, at a time when postcolonial World Englishes (WE) were being codified as a means of legitimizing non-native varieties (Jenkins, 2015; Kachru, 1985, 1992). This codification process set a precedent for initial ELF research that aimed to describe phonological and lexicogrammatical characteristics of ELF interactions (Jenkins, 2006; Mauranen, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2001). Ultimately, the transcendent nature of ELF interactions, unlike geographically anchored WEs, led to the conclusion that ELF was beyond codification.

This introduced a second phase of ELF that focused on the dynamic and pragmatic processes that speakers use in “the ad hoc, situated negotiation of meaning” and that indexically connect the language code and context (Seidlhofer, 2009, p. 242). Focus on function, process and context began to represent English as not a thing but “a way”, with heavy emphasis on procedural knowledge, pragmatic competence, and accommodation in adapting the use of English to the situation and interlocutors (Canagarajah, 2014; Sifakis, 2019; Widdowson, 2015b). Pragmatic strategies for negotiating meaning and employing multilingual and non-verbal resources productively became centrally positioned in ELF communication and for the understanding of communicative competence in English (Canagarajah, 2006). Communities of practice became a useful concept for studying ELF variability and characteristics of ELF use. In a third phase of evolution, English is considered a “Multilingua Franca” (EMF) of social

practice and use as one language in the presence of others in communication and open for productive translanguaging practices (Jenkins, 2015, p. 73). EMF emphasizes that speakers of all kinds “exploit linguistic resources to communicative effect” and, in doing so, constitute and assert multilingual identities through joint ownership of the language in interaction (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 107). EMF constructs English as a dynamic, fluid, and variable phenomenon for use within complex systems of language potential, emerging repertoires, physical contexts and trajectories of identity, history, and ideology (Chen, Ren, & Lin, 2019, p. 63; Cogo et al., 2021; C. Hall, 2017; Larsen-Freeman, 2016). Despite the introduction of EMF as a replacement for ELF, the acronym has yet to take on a wider use. Therefore, ELF will continue to be used in this synopsis, with the understanding that it indexes EMF and multilingual realities, speakers, and practices.

Complexity is central in conceptions of ELF as virtual and fluid. Seidlhofer (2011) theorizes ELF use as the manifestation of a virtual language that has the potential to connect NES conformity and ELF innovation through abstract rules that allow for common ground between them and allow ELF to be recognized as English (Seidlhofer, 2011). Linguistic encodings are thus motivated by function and context, and not in the comparison of innovative ELF usage and NES functions and contexts. Communicative effect lies in the exploitation of linguistic resources predicated on a virtual *capacity* for exploitation, where ELF comes into being in the moment and is not a version of a NES English but a realization of a common linguistic resource that can become sedimented in discursive practices over time (Pennycook, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 111). English has also been described as a transcultural language responding to global flows and global and local scales of distribution, negotiation, adoption, adaptation and conformity (Hult, 2012).

For some, ELF scholarship is a “currently fashionable movement” that promotes English as: a) the only *lingua franca* of international understanding and communication, b) a de-territorialized language and *lingua franca of humanity*, c) free from issues of power, and d) culturally neutral where “anything goes” in communication (Phillipson, 2017, p. 321). Arguments have been made that definitions of ELF as object *and* use mask, and potentially disguise, ideologies and issues of power in its use (O’Regan, 2014). Others have claimed an “epistemological intolerance” for ELF and ELF-thinking, indicative of the “coercive agency” of language itself (Widdowson, 2015a, pp. 126-127). ELF researchers, however, reject claims that ELF research is silent on power and ideological discourses and that communication is viewed as culturally neutral (Baker, Jenkins, & Baird, 2014). Instead, ELF inquiry openly



investigates a range of complex, situated, and intercultural relationships in the use of ELF and in speaker experiences with ELF communication (Cogo et al., 2021).

The multilingua franca use of English challenges traditional conceptions of ownership and expertise and “who” or “what” determines what is appropriate and accurate in communicative performance. English as variable and situated requires a multi-norm approach to teaching and learning that “needs to be taken into pedagogic account if English is to be made a reality for learners” (Dewey, 2012; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019, p. 30). Changing perceptions of English and rising awareness of the global politics of English - and of the socio-political and intercultural aspects of using and learning it - logically infer the need for research that deconstructs “English” as a bounded phenomenon for educational stakeholders (C. Hall, 2017; Seidlhofer, 2011). This deconstruction opens the door for deeper exploration of beliefs of language, beliefs about English, and beliefs about what it means to know and learn English. Without a deconstruction of “English” as a pedagogic objective, teaching and learning in school may be misaligned with external realities of English outside of school and “oddly contradictory and paradoxical” (Seidlhofer, 2011, pp. 22, 182). Before exploring how this thinking impacts English pedagogy and teachers’ thinking, the next section considers how these perspectives of language and the English language impact conceptions of English speakers in ways that are relevant for teaching and learning English in school.

#### 2.2.2.2 English Speakers

The global spread of English, plurilithic views of English, and the multilingual turn in ELF scholarship have led to new conceptions of English language speakers (Holliday, 2006, 2020; Kohn, 2018, 2020; Kramsch, 2009; Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Risager, 2007). Despite definitions of ELF that include *any* speakers of different L1s who choose English as a medium of communication has often come to imply - intentionally or not - non-native speakers (NNESs) at the exclusion of native English speaking (NES) users of ELF. An unfortunate consequence of challenging assumptions of NES hegemony in English education policy may have been the unintentional replacement of NESs rather than the displacing or decentering of them (Cogo et al., 2021; Rose et al., 2021).

The cultural identity of speakers of English, in addition to their language identity, challenges essentialist notions of bounded, homogenous cultures and language in favor of polycentric conceptions of speakers and speakers’ languages and cultures. In ELT, intercultural communicative competence (ICC) and knowledge of self and other, skills of discovery,

interpretation and interaction, attitudes of openness, mutual respect and curiosity and abilities to mediate intercultural interaction is indicative of this shift (Byram, 1997). While initial definitions highlighted cultural norms and binary comparison, more recent definitions adopt more global and pluricentric perspectives of interculturality and acting between languages and cultures in performing intercultural citizenship (Byram, 2012, 2014; Porto et al., 2018). The inseparability of a speakers' languages and sociocultural and discursive practices is reflected in the concept *linguaculture*, that reflects the inseparability of speakers' intercultural and linguistic practices within transnational paradigms of world citizens (Dervin & Risager, 2014; Risager, 2007). The linguaculture of speakers considers a "person-centeredness" that emphasizes the complex, deeply situated and highly personal nature of speakers in ELT (Benson, 2019). In ELF interactions, participants continuously draw on multiple discourse systems, communities and cultural frames that become salient in real-time communication and that may create innovative practices within a 'third culture' of symbolic meaning-making (Baker, 2016; Kramsch, 2011). Third spaces of interaction target membership and performance within a discourse community that may occupy neither a L1 nor a native-speaking culture. In third spaces, speakers utilize symbolic competence to achieve desired communicative ends (Kramsch, 2011, 2013). The internal reality of English that speakers construct for themselves and adapt to chosen communicative intentions and demands of community performance has been referred to as "MY English" owned by individual speakers (Kohn, 2018). Key forces that shape MY English include: a) conceptions of the target language and speaker's other languages, b) the intentions of teaching and learning, and c) and speakers' attitudes, motivation, communicative interactions, and community identification. MY English repertoires can merge orientations of NESs and lingua franca communication within a pedagogical space that reconciles questions of ownership.

Research on teachers as speakers of English has often divided teachers into NESs and NNESs, even when suggesting that language teaching expertise would be more representative categories (Tsui, 2003). Moussu and Llurda (2008) question the use of continuums of native- and non-nativeness in teacher research, suggesting that: a) every user of a language is a native speaker, b) indigenized varieties of English cannot be regarded as non-native for the sole reason they are neither American nor British, and c) dichotomies of nativeness are inadequate in addressing the interdependence of ELT and local context. They consider claims that "the native speaker is dead" and that it should be replaced by "proficient users" or "expert speakers" as more representative and empowering for teachers and speakers of today (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p. 315). Non-native speaker identity is often used to position speakers as external, foreign

or alien to the linguistic community. While certain advantages and disadvantages have been ascribed to NES and NNES teachers, what may prove more important is - not distinctions of nativeness - but distinctions of mono- versus multilingualism and an awareness of language, learners and the learning situation, especially in teacher preparation programs for basic education which may or may not build on entire undergraduate degrees in English (Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

Constructions of intercultural speakers of ELF who draw on linguacultural practices and socially construct English for their own purposes in interactive third spaces of communication open the language to a wide range of speakers in school settings. These perspectives lead to new research agendas arising from a shifting pedagogical landscape of identity, intersectionality, and virtual spaces, as well as teacher identities, for English in a global world (Norton & De Costa, 2018; Norton & Pavlenko, 2019). The next section explores how changing conceptions of language and speakers impact conceptions of English pedagogy in a changing landscape of ELT.

### 2.2.2.3 English Pedagogy

English as a multilingua franca and a socially constructed language for a wide range of speakers challenges traditional notions of ownership, expertise, appropriacy and accuracy. English as fluid, variable and situated requires a multi-norm approach that “needs to be taken into pedagogic account if English is to be made a reality for learners” (Dewey, 2012; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019, p. 30; N. Sifakis et al., 2018). Shifting conceptions of language, culture and speakers in English pedagogy is evidenced in publications across a wide range of educational settings (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015; Chen et al., 2019; Galloway, 2017; Gnutzmann & Intemann, 2008; Vettorel, 2015). This research suggests the need for English pedagogy that: a) promotes multilingualism and awareness of the diversity of English, b) expands communicative competence to account for variation in the world and rethinks “English” as defined in communicative approaches, c) increases exposure to the diversity and variation of English, d) promotes cross-cultural awareness, and e) replaces literacy-as-skills with literacy-as-situated-social-practice (Dewey, 2012; Galloway, 2017; Leung & Street, 2012).

A recent state of the art on globally oriented pedagogical research from 2010 – 2020 suggests that, with a very few exceptions, most work still remains at the conceptual level (Rose et al., 2021). ELF awareness has been proposed as a framework to address this gap and to combine ELF research and ELF perspectives with critical reflection and reflective practice in

ELT (Sifakis, 2018, 2019; Nicos Sifakis et al., 2018; Sifakis & Tsantila, 2019). ELF awareness engages teachers' awareness of language and language use, instructional practice, and learning in exploring local frames of reference and "habits of mind" in moving towards locally appropriate ways of incorporating perspectives of ELF and ELF-aware practice in the classroom (Sifakis, 2019). Initial ELF awareness addressed a deep consideration of the local context and the presuppositions for English pedagogy that legitimated certain uses over others. This critical reflection is central for developing ELF-aware teachers and in enacting ELF-informed pedagogy that adopts a metalingual approach and awareness to English use (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015; Dewey & Pineda, 2020). ELF awareness has more recently referred to an ELF-mindset as a frame of reference, a habit of mind or way of thinking about English that can expand ways of being and ways of thinking within a local classroom ecology (Bernstein, 2000; Cogo et al., 2021; van Lier, 2010). Though research on teachers suggests they prioritize communication over accuracy, support learners' language and sociocultural identity, and experiment with language forms, little research exists on ELF-inspired teacher education or how teachers include ELF-strategies in the classroom (Dewey & Pineda, 2020). A continued conceptual focus for ELF pedagogy seems to reflect a continued conceptual focus on 21<sup>st</sup> century skills (see section 2.2.2.1) (Care, 2018). One possible reason for this lag in a more globally oriented English pedagogy is an institutional perception of a lack of consensus surrounding what this pedagogy is, can or should be (Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2018). This may be the result of tensions in the vertical discourses informing the field of production, as well as a lag in the understanding of post methods ELT that emphasizes sociolinguistic realities and locally relevant teaching and learning (Cogo et al., 2021; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The multiplicity of appropriate pedagogies across contexts of English learning may exacerbate perceptions of legitimacy among educational stakeholders.

To determine local relevance and appropriacy teachers and other educational stakeholders must possess a critical awareness of the institutional eco-system and the negotiation of interdependent and competing demands that allows teachers to identify opportunities for - and limitations of - the inclusion of ELF-awareness (Sifakis, 2019). In essence, ELF-awareness lies on a continuum of teacher knowledge and pedagogical choices that range from: a) no knowledge of ELF and no integration, to b) some knowledge of ELF but refusal to integrate it, to c) adequate knowledge of ELF and intention to integrate ELF in the spaces available, to d) no knowledge about ELF but a potential, unconscious integration. Essential to ELF-awareness is recognizing: a) ELF cannot be taught as linguistic code, b)

determining integration appropriate to the local context, and c) accepting change and transformation. Teacher education that enhances ELF-awareness must promote the reconsideration of beliefs and practices by: a) exposing teachers to ELF, WE and EIL research and complex contexts of English use, b) raising awareness of the teaching challenges this presents, and c) engaging teachers in action plans to integrate these complexities in locally relevant and pedagogically sound ways in the classroom (Sifakis, 2019).

Teacher education is identified as the key site for addressing the pedagogical implications of: a) teacher attitudes to ELF and globally oriented pedagogy, b) appropriate integration ELF and globally oriented perspectives as part of pre- and in-service teacher education, and c) ELF-related strategies in the classroom (Dewey & Pineda, 2020). Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015) introduce ELF awareness as a framework for integrating ELF research into teacher education and, ultimately, in English pedagogy, where ELF awareness is:

the process of engaging with ELF research and developing one's own understanding of the ways in which it can be integrated in one's classroom context, through a continuous process of critical reflection, design, implementation and evaluation of instructional activities that reflect and localize one's interpretation of the ELF construct (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2018, p. 459).

The three central components of ELF-awareness are: a) awareness of language and language use that includes noticing, languaging and translanguaging and the conscious consideration of normativity and ownership, b) awareness of teachers' personal theories of instruction and practice that includes actions both taken and not taken, and c) awareness of learning for learners as ELF users who no longer view English as foreign. In pedagogy, ELF-awareness is not about replacing foreign language models but about displacing them to create openings for ELF in the classroom. Cogo et al. (2021) characterizes this as teacher education that acknowledges the diversity of English and English as a socially constructed medium of communication. The most recent description of ELF-aware teacher education promotes "meta" understanding in combining insights from ELF research and critical language education that constructs the teacher, not as an instrument of linear implementation, but as a nexus of policy enactment in a complex eco-system. Through combining ELF perspectives and critical language education, teachers can create classrooms that become "microcosms" of the broader social world and classrooms with openings for ELF-aware pedagogy and intersecting ideologies, cultures and identities and the struggles where actions can "make a difference" (Cogo et al., 2021, p. 193). As such, the epistemology of ELF creates an effective platform for critical exploration in the

English language classroom.

In moving ELF-aware pedagogy into classrooms, Kohn (2020) coined the term English as a pedagogical lingua franca (PLF) and adopts an approach that supports the interaction of different linguacultural learner-speakers. Using English as a PLF for authentic communication is difficult to facilitate in face-to-face teaching, but interaction in digital environments “outside and beyond the classroom” brings PLF into the classroom (Kohn, 2020, p. 7). This is illustrated in the TeCoLa project ([www.tecola.eu](http://www.tecola.eu)) where a pedagogically designed digital environment for virtual exchange extended English use beyond the physical classroom environment. These new environments create new conditions for teaching and learning and require pedagogical mentoring that encourages learning from communicative experience, reflective practice and revising ideas of communicative and communal success connected to the context in ways that allow learners to exert creativity and agentivity in the classroom. Combinations of ELF-awareness, social constructivist conceptions of MY English, and support in digital interactions that move learners outside the classroom can help teachers shed apprehensions about ELF and transform ELF-awareness into classroom activity (Kohn, 2018, pp. 9-10). Gaps in the theory and practice of globally oriented English are of increasing interest in a wide range of settings, as evidenced in a number of edited publications that consider the potential of ELF perspectives on pedagogical thinking and practice (Bowles & Cogo, 2015; Cavalheiro, 2018; Gnutzmann & Intemann, 2008; Vettorel, 2015). Expanded conceptions of the English language and English speakers are also reflected in research generated in contexts traditionally viewed as foreign English language contexts, not just in Europe but across the world, i.e., Oman (Al-Issa, 2019), Indonesia (Anwar, 2019), Thailand (Tripasai, 2019), and Malaysia (Idrus et al., 2019). Vettorel (2015), however, emphasizes the importance of sensitivity in addressing changing realities in changing contexts of English pedagogy, especially given the uncertainties and apprehension these create for teachers in the classroom.

This section has focused on the impact of new ways of thinking about the English language and English speakers on English pedagogy in the general education classroom. The next section in this chapter considers these same issues in dominant discourses of English didactics research and curricular policy in Norway. These are referred to as micro-discourses or the more local discourses relevant to the local ecology of ELT and English pedagogy.

### 2.2.3 *Micro Discourses*

This section explores discourses of ELT in Norway. In Scandinavia, the field of ELT is referred

to as English didactics and encompasses theories and research relevant for English as a school subject and useful for the teaching of English in school (Rindal & Brevik, 2019, p. 9; Simensen, 2018). English didactics includes inquiry into language beliefs, the teaching and learning of languages, teaching and learning motivations, and the reasoning behind each. Relevant topics include: a) English in the world and English in Norway, b) principles and ideas that anchor subject curricula, c) the teaching and learning of skills and sub-skills (i.e., grammar and vocabulary), d) the role of literature, culture and technology in teaching English, e) learner preferences, and f) various forms of assessment (Simensen, 2018). Though a relatively young field of inquiry, English didactics has become increasingly interdisciplinary (Rindal & Brevik, 2019).

Thus far, this chapter has explored macro-discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills and global citizenship and meso-discourses of the English language, English speakers, and English pedagogy. It will now turn to a historical overview of developments and emerging trends within English didactics research in Norway that explores the changing role of teachers in the subject, the impact of multilingual and digital practices on teaching and learning English, and the role of culture, interculturality and text in developing speakers. It will conclude with a brief overview of recent transitions in English education policy and curricular reform.

### 2.2.3.1 Teachers and the Subject Discipline

The first substantial study in English didactics was a 1986 investigation of English as part of general school reform. The study concluded that English, as part of schooling in general, was influenced by disciplines other than language and culture and dependent on teachers for change (Gundem, 1986 as cited in Rindal & Brevik, 2019). Later doctoral research investigated curricula and teaching materials across subject curricula from 1939 to 1987 and outlined disciplinary boundaries for English in school rooted in linguistics, applied linguistics, and psychology (Simensen, 1988). Findings traced a historical development from English as foreign language education, emphasizing accurate pronunciation and grammar for a select student population, to general English education for the entire student population. This expansion added younger learners, learners in rural areas, and learners without displayed aptitude for foreign language learning. From 1987, communicative aspects were introduced that balanced mechanistic language learning and mentalistic and meaningful learning. A heightened focus on communication introduced larger units of language and increased awareness of sociolinguistic and sociocultural use. In reflecting on this research today, Simensen states that “shifts [in the

school subject] are not due to whims and fads of the writers of the curricula etc. but ‘to the best of our knowledge’ at any time in scholarly disciplines” (Simensen, 2019, p. 28). She also argues that teachers should know the history of the subject and the reasons behind this historical evolution.

Later doctoral research explored how teachers discursively positioned themselves in transitioning to 21<sup>st</sup> century English curriculum (Eikrem, 2009). Grounded in the social sciences and language pedagogy, findings revealed tensions in teachers’ roles as transmitters of textbook knowledge and knowledge of formal and accurate language use and newer roles as co-constructors of knowledge (see Table 1). Among teachers, there was: a) varying awareness of different approaches, b) tensions in relinquishing control, and b) a reservation and reluctance towards confrontation. These factors caused teachers to oscillate among evasiveness, self-contradiction, and the reaffirmation of current habits. The entrepreneurial teacher as a co-creator of knowledge was advocated as the role that could afford learners space for exploration and discovery and create dynamic and recurring spaces of co-construction in the unfamiliar territory of English language learning (Eikrem, 2009, p. 208). Teacher as co-creator was identified as a relevant role for new realities for teaching and learning English in school.

Transmission of Knowledge			Construction of knowledge
Suppliers	Conductors	Directors	Entrepreneurs in learning
of subject specific knowledge, i.e. formal aspects of English usage	of procedures that monitor and correct learner performance	of textbook texts, as the natural source of subject knowledge	inspiring learner involvement and creativity, emphasizing communicative competence, and facilitating learning-by-doing

Table 1 *Teachers as transmitters versus co-constructors of knowledge*

In concluding, Eikrem (2009) promotes an awareness of emerging features in teachers’ discursive practices as a means to explore and adapt to new directions in English didactics and alternative teaching practices. She argues that without engaging teachers’ discursive practice, teachers may not “see the woods for the trees” and become preoccupied with activity and not the larger goals of English education (Eikrem, 2009, p. 252). Institutional practices focusing on activity and resisting confrontation were seen as exacerbating this preoccupation and inhibiting necessary exploratory talk that nurtured discursive conflict and facilitated teachers’ further development.



The changing practices of learners have also impacted the understanding of the subject discipline. The study of learners' sociolinguistic and digital practices have found that learners not only chose American, British, "neutral" or Norwegian English accents to evoke different identities for different purposes but also engage in a range of extracurricular digital activities that may enhance competence in unexpected ways (Brevik, 2019; Rindal, 2010; Rindal & Piercy, 2013). These findings raise questions about the nature of English in Norwegian schools and possible challenges learners may face in relating to institutional traditions and ideologies (Rindal, 2014). As a result, it was recommended that sociolinguistics and language ideologies be included in teacher education as a means to support future teachers in bridging academic English studies, language education policy and English as a subject in school (Hult, 2018; Sollid & Rindal, 2015). In a recent state-of-the art, English is defined as a fluid, hybrid, and global language of communication and a language with a transitional status in Norway (Brevik & Rindal, 2020, pp. 35, 38 and 438). As part of this changing status, English as fluid and hybrid may still be considered less legitimate by key educational stakeholders, including teachers (Hoff, 2018). Traditional teacher and learner roles seem challenged by heightened contact with English and with global speakers of English and by more multilingual realities in school and in society. The next section outlines these perspectives as research interests in English didactics in Norway.

### 2.2.3.2 Multilingualism and Digitalization

The first to research pre-service teachers' readiness for multilingual learners in school was Surkalovic (2014). Survey data revealed a general lack of knowledge of language and the language situation in Norway among pre-service teachers of English. Later research suggests that, while attitudes to multilingualism amongst in-service teachers and teacher educators seem very positive, a number of studies suggest that the affordances of multilingualism have yet to be fully realized in teacher education or in classroom practice (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Flognfeldt, Tsagari, Šurkalović, & Tishakov, 2020; Myklevold, 2021; Roderick Beiler & DeWilde, 2020; Yassin Iversen, 2017, 2019). Two recent doctoral studies address this gap and investigate spaces for - and practices to promote - multilingualism as a resource in English language learning (Roderick Beiler, 2021a; Yassin Iversen, 2020). Employing linguistic ethnography, Roderick Beiler (2021a) explored translingual instruction building on learners' existing multilingual practices in developing English writing skills. Research considered the affordances of translanguaging for learners, as well as the opening and closing of spaces for translanguaging and multilingual practices in the classroom resulting from competing ideologies of language

(Roderick Beiler, 2021a, 2021b; Rodrick Beiler & DeWilde, 2020).

Research that positioned multilingualism as superordinate to English is reflected in Yassin Iversen (2020) who explored connections of language ideologies and language practices in pre-service teachers' experiences during in-school practicum. Findings revealed that pre-service teachers view themselves as monolingual (Norwegian) speakers within an institution that privileges this construction and positions multilingual speakers as Other. Though pre-service teachers were willing to create instructional spaces for multilingualism by drawing on their own multilingual experiences and repertoires, they were hesitant to do so. The experiences of teachers as multilingual, it is argued, are fertile ground for exploring multilingual practices in teacher education and in preparing teachers for multilingual classrooms (Yassin Iversen, 2019, 2020).

The pervasiveness of digitalization and digital environments has also generated research exploring the potential impact of these environments in teaching. A. Lund (2003) was the first to research teachers' appropriation of digital technologies in the classroom. In this doctoral work, online English was referred to as "Netlish" or language use determined by situational factors and extended modes of socialization and identity. Lund investigated student participation and agency and teacher mediation in digital environments that extend place and time and potentially transform learning in the subject. In digital environments, teachers were required to adopt unfamiliar practices, take risks, and commit to continuous professional development and learning. Teacher engagement was dependent on both institutional history and a willingness for change that positions teachers "at the interface of history" as "agents of change" in an English pedagogy that is "constantly being shaped and reshaped through the increasing number of people who engage in global and online Englishes" (A. Lund, 2019, p. 153). Building on this research, Røkenes (2016) researched pre-service teacher knowledge in developing learner English through incorporating technology, digital learning strategies, and an ethical awareness of digital practices and the impact of technology on human life. Defining English as the lingua franca of the internet, he found a lack of knowledge amongst pre-service teachers and argued for teacher education that modelled and scaffolded uses of technology that better prepare teachers for digitalized schools and the digital realities of today and the future.

As illustrated in the research above, multilingualism and digitalization are reshaping conceptions of the English language and English pedagogy in Norwegian school and for teacher education. The next section extends this discussion to culture and the cultivation of speakers, speaker performance and the role of text in English didactics research in Norway.

### 2.2.3.3 Culture, Text, and Communication

In English didactics, the cultural development of learners is often connected to textual affordances, to classroom practices and to the textbook as a central authority in the subject. Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has been introduced as a central competence to be developed in the subject and the focus on classroom practices as spaces of knowledge construction and intercultural learning reflected in ELT research literature prior to 2020 is also reflected in English didactics research in Norway (Heggernes, 2021a).

R. Lund (2007) was the first to analyze the representation of culture in lower secondary school textbooks of the late 1990s. Findings from her doctoral study revealed textual representations of other cultures through the attitudes, values, and struggles of “real” people in English-speaking countries or through a superficial positioning of readers in culturally neutral English-speaking environments (e.g., as tourists). While curriculum emphasized situated and negotiated communication, textbooks focused on: a) the history, literature, and institutions of English-speaking countries, heavily emphasizing the United Kingdom and the United States, b) cultural heritage, c) contemporary issues in the English-speaking world, and c) universal experience. Very little addressed developing strategies necessary to navigate communication across cultures and conventions of language use. In re-visiting this research, Lund refers to a new generation of textbooks that open for learner insight and opinions on controversial issues but continue to provide little awareness of the connection of language use, context and culture in the pragmatic use of English (R. Lund, 2019). Cultural representation of indigenous people in lower secondary textbooks was also explored in Waallann Brown and Habegger-Conti (2017). Analysis revealed the pervasive use of stereotypical images that presented harmony in target language countries and among disenfranchised indigenous groups, representations that were in direct conflict with curricular objectives. In upper secondary, Hoff (2019) studied textual practice as a means of developing intercultural readers. Her research found that the discourse of interculturality in instructional materials and classroom practice suggest the complexity of interpretive processes at the nexus of literary texts and classroom participation that highlights emotional engagement, intertextuality, and learning tasks. Textual practices in upper secondary also revealed a misalignment of textbook emphasis on narrative genres and an examination focus on argumentative text production (Ørevik, 2019). Findings also revealed classroom practices that moved beyond the textbook to the inclusion of teacher-selected texts, a practice requiring critical textual awareness, pedagogical considerations, and an understanding of new features of digital texts, interaction, and participation.

Classroom texts have increasingly incorporated multimodal texts, as a means of bridging learners' in-school and extracurricular textual practices (Jakobsen & Tønnessen, 2018). Research on the inclusion of multimodality in 10<sup>th</sup> grade examinations from 2014 to 2018 revealed multimodal literacy as necessary for the understanding of, but not for the production of, examination responses (Jakobsen, 2019). Multimodal picture books as a means for developing intercultural competence also reflect a recent field of interest. In doctoral research, Heggernes (2021b) investigated the use of picture books for intercultural learning in lower secondary school. Findings revealed that engaging with visual images can open dialogic spaces of co-construction that allow learners to demonstrate intercultural learning through a curiosity towards other cultures and a willingness to explore conflict and change. Tørnby (2020) also explores the pedagogical affordances of picture books for developing emotional literacy, a sense of belonging, democracy, sustainable development, and life skills in the classroom. While this research enhances teaching to develop higher order thinking skills, less focus is given to language affordances and language learning. Research on teacher-selected picture books for use in primary school revealed that most are monolingual and though they introduce real-world issues through storytelling and create a window to differences in distant places, they also distance or "other" certain speakers closer to home (de Pinho Correia & Nayr, 2020). Findings revealed little teacher acknowledgement of linguistic aspects of culture and cultural practices that were highlighted in the picture books chosen.

There is emerging evidence of interest in intercultural awareness in language practices. In a recent doctoral study, Myrset (2021) investigated the teaching of pragmatics in making requests in a 7<sup>th</sup> grade English classroom. This study is unique in that it explored metapragmatic knowledge as a means to promote agency and ability in making informed communicative choices for very young learners. In this way, it addressed a substantial gap in English didactics research. Findings revealed learners' retention of certain request strategies (i.e., the use of modal verbs) over others. The use of pragmatic concepts also revealed that these concepts supported classroom discussion of linguistic variation, the communicative effect of hints, and the comparison of L1 and English strategies. Findings reveal the potential of pragmatics and pragmatic awareness in the English language classroom for very young learners. In considering intercultural awareness, Dypedahl (2018) considers self-monitoring and the decentering of one's own perspectives while consciously monitoring and adjusting thinking in interaction with others. To achieve this, he argues that language awareness is a key component of ICC and should be implemented in teacher education through the possible study of critical incidents and

target countries. This could include the study of misunderstandings in communication between people of different cultural profiles, the study of direct and indirect patterns of communication, and the metacognitive study of target cultures that recognize nations as ideological forces.

The situated use of English for in secondary school suggests attention to formality and higher level thinking skills and less consideration of situated features of interaction with a wide range of different speakers. Chvala (2012) investigated contextual clues in teacher-written oral exam tasks and found no identification of targeted interlocutors and little description of the communicative context beyond targeted content. The doctoral research of Bøhn (2016) on teachers' assessment of oral examination in upper secondary found a focus on communication that included linguistic competence and intelligibility and on reflection over subject content in response to examination tasks. Cognitive processes of application, analysis and evaluation were prioritized more highly than subject matter, especially in light of an openness to content in curriculum documents. Discrepancies were noted in teachers' view of near-native pronunciation and variation, but agreement was found in the importance of segmental features and suprasegmental features of word and sentence stress. Strategic competence was underrepresented. In re-visiting this work, Bøhn suggests that, in the absence of rating scales and training, guidelines with clear definitions of intelligibility and higher order thinking skills could enhance the validity and reliability of teachers' assessment in oral examinations. Following up findings on the absence of strategic competence, Bøhn and Myklevold (2018) investigated the effect of communication strategy instruction in lower secondary school. Results revealed a positive impact of instruction on learners' use of strategies, though learner interviews suggested that the use of strategies may be dependent on how learners perceive the contextual demands of language use. For example, learners made a clear distinction between the use of strategies in "regular" communicative settings versus those of high stakes testing where they might be perceived as saying something "wrong". Features of formality have also been of interest, and a study of lower secondary textbooks found systematic reference to features of informality in address, writer visibility and subjective stance with little attention to the use of first person pronouns in learners' writing (Hasund, 2019).

In summary, this section has reviewed English didactics research in Norway that highlights multimodal and textual affordances for intercultural awareness and considerations of language awareness, communicative strategies, and pragmatics in the situated use of English. Each describes aspects of English competence in relation to English learning in school and each informs conceptions of the type of English speakers and users to be developed in Norwegian

schools. For teachers, these discourses of English didactics may become recontextualized in their uptake in specialized discourse. Curricular discourses may also frame the practices of a range of institutional actors come to be recontextualized in the way teachers talk about subject teaching and learning in school. The next section of this chapter outlines dominant strains of curricular discourse and examines newer discourses of new subject curriculum introduced in 2020. In doing so, it outlines new and evolving conceptions of English pedagogy for English as a subject discipline in Norwegian schooling.

#### 2.2.3.4 Curriculum

In Norway today, English: a) has a historical and traditional status as a foreign language (Simensen, 2007), b) is increasingly used as a lingua franca in the business sector (Nielsen, 2019) and as a language of publication in higher education and research (NIFU, 2018), and c) is a compulsory subject in the first 11 years of basic education beginning in year 1 (Ministry of Education and Research, 2020). Exposure to English is high, and studies indicate a generally high level of English proficiency in the overall population (Education First, 2021).

A new subject curriculum implemented in 2020 reflects a shifting landscape for English, as viewed through a curricular reform process entitled “Subject Renewal” to address 21<sup>st</sup> century education (The Ministry of Education, 2017) . First a new core curriculum was introduced that outlines the central values and goals of education (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). Then new subject curricula followed (Ministry of Education and Research, 2020). This study is positioned on prior to this curricular reform. However, pandemic measures have negatively impacted the implementation of the new curriculum and postponed formal examinations to 2023. This renders findings of this study relevant for the slowed yet ongoing transition to newer curricular discourses. This section outlines the central changes in core and subject curricula that reflect changes in regulative discourses of identity and social order and instructional discourses of skills and abilities (Bernstein, 2000). Central changes address learner identity, the purpose and relevance of learning English and new classifications in the school subject. For curricular extracts that form the basis of this discussion, see Appendix 4.

The core curriculum defines the central values of Norwegian education that emphasize democratic values grounded in a Christian and humanist heritage and support collective living in a complex and uncertain world. Changes in a regulative discourse of social order transition equipping learners to respect diversity, to participate democratically, and to cooperate locally to mastering individual and collective life through opening doors to a complex and uncertain

world (Bernstein, 2000; Ministry of Education and Research, 2006, 2020). Newer circumstances promote cross-national commonality, democratic equality, respect for diversity and individual conviction, as well as the advancement of knowledge through scientific thinking.

Changes in regulative discourses of identity are also evident in changes in the learner profile (Bernstein, 2000). Previously, educational goals aspired to produce well-rounded, cooperative, meaning seeking and environmentally aware learners, who were loyal to national traditions yet innovative. New curriculum continues to aspire to inquisitive, engaged, and creative learners but also to learners able to master 21<sup>st</sup> century life through participation, critical thinking, and ethical actions. To highlight this mastery, the core curriculum introduces interdisciplinary themes of: a) human dignity and equality, b) learner identities and societal belonging, c) democratic participation, d) respect for the environment, and e) critical thinking, ethical awareness, creativity, and exploration. Multilingualism is described as an essential part of learner identity and meaningful for opening learners to the world and to the future, where respect for diversity and peaceful conflict resolution is essential (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017).

In a process entitled “Subject Renewal”, new English curriculum has replaced the “Purpose” for learning English with the “Relevance and central values” of learning English (Ministry of Education and Research, 2006, 2020). Where earlier curriculum defined English for use in international communication and for access to information, this has been replaced by English as a necessary subject for social, academic and/or professional life. The current curriculum emphasizes English-as-subject as: a) communication and communicative patterns in multilingual speaker interaction, b) culturally influenced ways of thinking and living, and c) emerging and developing learner identity. The interdisciplinary themes from the core curriculum integrated into the English subject are a) Health and Life Skills, and b) Democracy and Citizenship. The former refers to learners’ semiotic ability in English and openness to new ways of communicating, thinking, and living and emphasizes the importance of developing confident people able to tackle linguistically and culturally challenging situations. The latter emphasizes a culturally dependent world, where cross-cultural communication should inspire curiosity, engagement and new avenues of thinking and interpretation. Ultimately, cross-cultural communication - and the thinking this communicative experience inspires - should combat prejudice and prejudicial thinking (Ministry of Education and Research, 2020).

In addition, previous classifications of the subject - *Language Learning, Oral*

*Communication, Written Communication and Culture, society and literature* - have been reduced to *Language Learning, Communication, and Working with texts in English*.

Significant changes involve transitions: a) to language awareness and knowledge of English as system in making communicative choices in *Language Learning*, b) to *Communication* without no distinction in oral and written modes and incorporating the use of different media in authentic and practical situations, and c) to *Texts* in the widest sense and as means to acquire linguistic and cultural knowledge as well as to develop cultural insight, intercultural competence, and multilingual and multicultural identity. Explicit references to English-speaking countries in the main classifications have been removed and situations of use highlighted. Strategies for learning and using the language remain, as well as a focus on connections of English to the other languages a learner knows.

The subtle curricular decoupling of English from native-speaking countries and speakers to multicultural and multilingual realities has led to speculation that - in combining English as a multilingual franca and English as a language of global citizenship - teachers may not be ready for this new political ideology of English as a hybrid form for diverse speakers (Fenner & Skulstad, 2018; Hoff, 2018). In discussing a necessary “makeover” in English didactics and teacher education, Brevik and Rindal (2015) suggest that the realities of English as a lingua franca in the world challenge the core of the subject and need to be properly addressed. This revitalization and suggested makeover, however, may challenge both vertical academic and scholarly disciplines, as well as and institutional and horizontal discourses, including those in schools and classrooms. While the core classifications of communication, language learning and textual encounters may drive teacher education towards literature and text to support further teacher development (Brevik & Rindal, 2020), the overarching interdisciplinary themes introduce a new tone and a fundamental shift in what English is today and what it means to learn English in the 21<sup>st</sup> century school.

## **2.3 Summary**

The purpose of this chapter has been two-fold. First, pedagogical vision as used in the title has been theoretically framed as the situated, social, and intertextual discourse of teachers of English as a community of practice. The specialized discourse of teachers and the ways they make sense of pedagogical intentions in the school subject are dynamically constructed within a discursive eco-system that specializes discursive practices through the recontextualization of vertical discourses and the culmination of horizontal discourses of social events. Secondly, the



chapter reviewed current macro-, meso- and micro-discourses of the English language, English speakers and English pedagogy that can dialogue with teachers' specialized discourse. These include: a) macro-discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills and global citizenship as enacted through communication, b) meso-discourses of ELT that question traditional constructs of the language, speakers and pedagogy, and c) micro-discourses of English didactics research in Norway that highlight shifting constructions of the school subject and teachers, explore questions of multilingualism and digitalization in learning English, and question cultural understanding and connections of language and culture in English pedagogy. Finally, regulative discourses of social order and identity, as well as instructional discourses of skills, are considered in Norwegian English curriculum.

This review highlights consequences of the global spread of English and heightened contact in considering 21<sup>st</sup> century challenges and a regulative discourse of democratic participation and conflict resolution across a wide range of speakers. Mentalistic opening of worlds to learners through English is considered, as well as the function of English as a multilingua franca of participation and engagement. The chapter has addressed ideological questions of language and speaker and pedagogical intentions for the type of speakers of English to be created in a Norwegian context. Current ways of thinking about English as school subject in terms of multilingual, sociolinguistic, and digital practices, and the interculturality of speakers are considered. Newer realities call for new ways of thinking about English and English pedagogy, and – ultimately – for new ways of doing and new practices to address these realities. Though new realities and new ways of thinking may create tension, this tension is necessary in recognizing and creating spaces of transformation and change.

To create these spaces, teachers need: a) to know the history of the subject and the reasons behind historical changes, b) to have access to the best knowledge of the scholarly disciplines at any given time (Simensen, 2019), and c) to engage institutional discourses through exploratory talk that can productively nurture discursive tension (Eikrem, 2009). The aim of this study is to investigate the institutional discourse of teachers as a nexus of competing ideologies, policy intentions, and complex institutional ecologies and – in doing so – to engage 21<sup>st</sup> century discourses of skills, competencies and identities that might open for new ways of thinking and doing.

The next chapter details the research approaches and procedures used to investigate the contemporary discursive practices of a particular cohort of English of teachers. This investigation targets constructions of the English in and outside of school, teaching intentions,

and learning aims in identifying these sites of tension that can be pedagogically productive in raising teacher awareness of English in the world and English in the language classroom. Procedures for enhancing methodological rigor, as well as central ethical considerations, are also discussed.

### 3 Methodology

The aim of this chapter is to address questions of methodological fit and rigor, purposive sampling and representation, trustworthiness of findings, and ethical considerations (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This chapter also connects epistemological and theoretical assumptions to methodological choices and consequences. The research aim was to (re)construct the specialized discourse of teachers to uncover a deeper curriculum of English pedagogy. A qualitative and ethnographic approach was adopted to the generation and analysis of data (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 67). Analytical methods employed inductive qualitative methods that gradually employed systematic analysis from Grounded Theory (GT) (Holton, 2007). For this reason, a specific sub-section of this chapter is dedicated to the main tenets of GT. This is followed by an explanation of the specific research and analytical procedures employed.

#### 3.1 Grounded Theory

Chapter 2.1 introduced theories of discourse that highlight the socially constructed nature of meaning. To investigate the socially situated discourse of teachers an interpretivist methodology was chosen to capture meaning and the more tacit aspects of teacher understanding of English pedagogy (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Aligned with an interpretive stance and theories of discourse, Grounded Theory (GT) offered a “cartographic approach” to investigating situated “voice, discourse, texts, [and] the materiality of power” and to rendering a thick analysis and model of complex social processes (Denzin, 2007, p. 455).

As method, GT encourages persistent and iterative interaction with data collection and analysis, in a continual process of comparison and emerging analyses (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). As an analytical method, GT “accommodate[s] any type of data sourced and expressed through any epistemological lens” (Holton, 2007 p. 268). Though GT resembles a Generic Inductive Qualitative Model (GIQM) there are some noteworthy distinctions (Hood, 2007). While the goal of a generic approach is the rich interpretation of the data, GT aims to develop a substantive, middle range theory that “is applicable far beyond the setting in which it was developed” (Hood, 2007, p. 162). GT facilitates the study of situated professional understanding and local theories that allow professionals “to do things...and show that they are certain kinds of people or belong to certain groups” (Jones, 2012, p. 2). These theories entail the social action of discourse (Fairclough, 2015) its *indexical* connection to other knowledges, narratives, ideologies, experiences, etc. As such, the theories of GT provide a meaningful fit for the

investigation of teachers' horizontal discourse and situated pedagogies of English (2007). In sum, GT: a) produces mid-range theories for professionals that are grounded in their own accounts, and b) represents practice-oriented research that aims to generate professionally situated theories that conceptualize central issues in professional practice, with ramifications for that practice. Though researchers "under pressure to finish dissertations or publish articles often stop after uncovering a process or describing a single core code", in this study analysis was done on the same data from a variety of angles in the different articles and was re-visited in generating the middle range theory presented in Chapter 4 of this synopsis (Hood, 2007, p. 162).

For some, GT is not seen as distinct from sound qualitative research, as both emphasize induction, micro studies, and less attention to epistemological issues (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007, p. 4). As a newly trained researcher, the systematic procedures of analysis of GT became increasingly useful in the life of this study, and epistemological issues were address in theories of pedagogic discourse that explain how knowledge is distributed. Systematic procedures of analysis, combined with an audit trail and journaling to make visible the analytical process and generated a record of decisions and justifications that enhanced transparency.

It is important to clarify, however, that research on lived experience requires researchers to adopt a sense of wonder and to allow participants to share their world in pursuing meaning and further thinking and reflection (van Manen, 2014). In this pursuit, there is no absolute, true or complete interpretation, as this is always on the move and can only be captured as a contour, shadow, or a reflection of a "real" where language becomes a substitution for the phenomenon itself. Bernstein's (2000) refers to this as the limiting force of the language, where a word names an absence into presence. Moreover, discourse as language use is complex, varied, and multiple and continually in dialogue with ideologies. Though the aim of this study was not the exploration of grand ideological narratives, they are nonetheless present. Tensions, conflicts, and contradictions in what individuals say more likely suggest the presence of competing ideologies than illogical thinking. When Atkinson (2017) uses the heuristic of teaching as a human and "evolutionary and adaptive behavior" responding to complex ecosocial circumstances, the fluid, dynamic, and dialectic nature of "teaching" in a continually changing and evolving world becomes apparent.

This chapter sub-section has discussed the methodological fit of GT as connected to the research aims of this study. The next sub-sections explain specific research procedures and how they were developed and shared with participants.

## 3.2 The Interview

A common method for exploring teacher perceptions and thinking is verbal commentary, including interviews, stimulated recall, think-aloud protocols, etc. Of these, the semi-structured interview is the most widely used to investigate teachers' thoughts, beliefs, and mental constructs (Borg, 2015). Furthermore, the conceptual interview is designed to chart respondents' conceptual structures and explore dimensions of meaning in "taken-for-granted assumptions about what is typical, normal, or appropriate" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 151). The conceptual interview seeks to highlight relevant points of contrast and connect descriptions of conceptual understanding with concrete practices. The semi-structured, conceptual interview was chosen to investigate teacher discourses of English pedagogy.

Interview inquiry of all types involve: thematizing, designing, interviewing, verifying, transcribing, analyzing, and reporting (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). This chapter will outline procedures of thematizing and designing, the purposively sampling, interviewing, and verifying, before turning to procedures of data transcription, analysis, and report of findings.

### 3.2.1 *Thematizing and Designing*

Thematizing clarifies the purpose of an interview and the themes to be explored, while designing creates the structures necessary to fulfill this purpose. The general interview guide (see Appendix 2) included themes of: a) purpose of English in society, in relation to other languages, and as a subject in school for skills and identity development, b) the global or international nature of subject activities in school and in relation to global citizenship and participation, c) teacher emphasis and challenges in assessment, and d) degree of consensus around these themes within the school and within the school district. Open-ended questions in both Norwegian and English used terminology familiar from curriculum and other education documents. Themes were motivated by the research questions in 1.1 regarding teaching and learning intentions and ideologies of English in and outside of school. Each theme was also underpinned by theoretical considerations of the status of the language, constructions of its speakers and relationship to global orientations to teaching and learning in the school subject. For an overview of interview themes, theoretical underpinning, and research questions, see Table 2.

Interview themes		Theoretical and curricular underpinning
Purpose	Exploring the status of English outside of school and its relationships to other languages  Describing English as a school subject, including targeted language competencies and skills and the personal development of learners	Ecology (van Lier, 2004, 2010) English as a multilingual franca (Jenkins, 2015) Discourse of skills embedded in discourse of identity (Bernstein, 1999, 2000)
Global / international / local and Identity	Exploring “global” or “international” as descriptors of subject activities, and teacher and learner identities  Exploring interlocutors and targeted audiences of learners’ language production	English as a language of world contact (Ministry of Education and Research, 2006, 2013) English for democratic engagement and participation (Ministry of Education and Research, 2006, 2020)  ELF interactions including NNEs (Cogo et al., 2021; Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019; Sifakis, 2018, 2019) Global mindset and intercultural citizenship (Fang & Baker, 2018; Porto et al., 2018)
Assessment	Describing teacher emphasis in assessment Locating points of tension in assessment	Evaluation of legitimate practice (Bernstein, 2000)
Local situation	Exploring areas of consensus or lack of consensus amongst teachers at the level of schools and across the municipality	To highlight (in)stability of local discourse (Bernstein, 1999, 2000)

Table 2 *Overview of interview themes and theoretical and curricular underpinnings*

Themes and questions were motivated by the definition of English as a world language of contact that could contribute to democratic engagement and participation as specified in the general objects of the English subject curriculum (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013). These themes also mapped onto research questions exploring English ideologies in and outside of the classroom and in relation to other languages in Norwegian society and teaching and learning intentions in the classroom, both in terms of language skills and the cultural (re)production of identity.

A pilot employing a cycle of two interviews was conducted with three teachers. Teachers were given the interview guide in advance and efforts were made to transcribe, code and analysis data between interviews. As a result of the pilot: a) theoretical terms were replaced with more familiar curricular terms (e.g., “contexts” and “interlocutors” were replaced by intended audiences), and b) full transcription and analysis was abandoned in favor of follow-up, specifying, and clarifying questions in prioritizing shorter time spans in the interview cycle. Despite silences and initial struggles to respond, the question asking teachers to reflect on the terms “international” or “global” in connection to the subject was left due to curricular

definitions of English as a “world language” and “international” means of communication in “international” contexts. The pilot also revealed that teachers did require time to review the interview guide, reflect on the ideas it targeted and – in some cases – to discuss them with colleagues. This led to the cyclical interview process that will be detailed below.

The revised interview guide, project description and details of informed consent were submitted and approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) with the revised title “Negotiating the global and the local: language policy as understood by lower-secondary English teachers” (see Appendix 2)

### 3.2.2 *Purposive Sampling*

Ecological research targeting mid-range theories requires clearly defined contexts. The context of this research is a large, multilingual, and urban school district in Norway and the study targets the discursive practices of teachers in this institutional community. As a diverse and multilingual district, this context was appropriate for exploring English as influenced by societal changes. It is also a context relevant to my professional practice. Principles of maximum variation were to purposively sample first schools and then the teachers in this study. Schools were selected considering indicators of multilingualism where Norwegian was not the first language of learners and indicators of socioeconomic status (Deloitte AS, 2014; Ljunggren, Toft, & Flemmen, 2017; Patton, 2002). Principals at selected schools were contacted and, upon approval of the project description, provided names of teachers to contact. Two teachers teaching English in lower secondary school were selected from each school, resulting in a final cohort of teachers with experience ranging from under 6 months to over 30 years (for an overview of schools and teachers, see Chvala (2018) in Appendix 1). In total, 12 teachers across six school participated in the study. Variation in sampling aimed to identify the most dominant patterns in the community of practice.

### 3.2.3. *Interviewing and Verifying*

The interview as research instrument produces knowledge through the interaction of researcher and participants on themes of mutual interest. The research interview is interpersonal and involves: a) a briefing on the purpose and context of the inquiry, b) the interview, and c) a debriefing summarizing the main points of the conversation and creating an opening to share experiences or ideas not yet discussed (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Seidman, 2013). McCracken’s (1988) describes an extended interview process in exploratory research designed

to map out world views. Two key features are: a) ample time to explore conceptual meanings - with the researcher, independently, and with colleagues at school, and b) interviews that commonly require two to three hours for in-depth exploration, clarification, and comparison. This chapter addresses both the interviewing procedure and supplies examples and discussion of critical moments in interviewing for the generation of research data.

Rather than one long interview of two to three hours, three interviews were spaced over approximately a three-week period. Interviews were conducted at local schools, where teachers were first briefed in Norwegian as the language of schooling, about myself and my interests and about the description of the project. Teachers were provided the informed consent form described in 3.2.1 and available in Appendix 2. I approach this debriefing as open and curious about their experiences and how these experiences could better assist teacher educators in meeting needs in the field of practice. I emphasized that I had not attend Norwegian schooling myself and thus had little reason to be judgmental. I attempted to position myself as both an insider/outsider in relation to the topic, the inquiry and my relationship to participants (Holliday & MacDonald, 2020). Background information was collected about teachers' education, experience, other subject specializations and preferences, and reasons for choosing English as a subject specialization. We then agreed upon a time for the second interview, before which they would: a) return the signed consent form, b) decide the language of subsequent interviews (Norwegian or English), c) discuss the topic or questions with colleagues where appropriate throughout the process, and d) confirm written background information.

The second interview restated the purpose of the interview, before starting the conversation "floating prompts" (asking respondents to say more about the key concepts they employed) and "contrasting prompts" (asking respondents to explain differences between x and y) (McCracken, 1988) in relation to the questions and topic in the interview guide. "Incident questions" were also posed that asked teachers to describe classroom practices or events that exemplified what they were describing or that were considered "strange". The interview concluded with a debriefing summary and opportunity to add points that had not been discussed, before setting a date for the final interview. Upon leaving the school, I recorded my own reflections about what was said, participants' emotional states or reactions, any challenges, and reflections on my own subjectivity and transformation across interviews (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 268). These recordings were also useful in capturing any reflections shared after the recorder was switched off, that could be included in subsequent interviews.

The final interview re-visited and explored previous topics, questions, and responses.



Brief and individualized interview guides as follow-up to the previous interview were used for exploration or clarification. These were not shared with participants. This final interview also closed with a debriefing in the same manner as the previously. On average, each interview lasted ca. 50 minutes with a total interviewing averaging 2,5 hours.

This chapter also explores critical moments in interviews and: a) researcher tactics to ensure participant reflections, b) the fine line of intuitively listening for implications and assumptions and how missteps can be detected, and c) the use of contrastive prompts in constant comparison. The first example illustrates the importance of limiting researcher participation in exploring the beliefs of participants. Prior to this interview, this teacher often deflected my questions in the form of “What do you think?”, seemingly seeking confirmation from an “expert”. To combat this, silence and minimal use of language was a useful technique (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 136). For example, the topic is introduced, but I limit my contribution allowing the participant to fill the silence:

Researcher: But these pupils, and the multilingualism they have – they have 3-4 languages. Is this viewed positively, as a resource in learning language? In your experience, or how you experience the situation at this school?

Teacher: I think that it is rather a – is experienced as a type of - also a problem set in quotations - because pupils who...first, these pupils have been...The pupils who come, who speak a lot, also they have – many of them have been in Norway for only a short time, so they don't have the language you know.

Researcher: No.

Teacher: They don't have the concepts. They don't have the reference points, and this means that – it is not natural for them to formulate themselves in written or spoken Norwegian. And then not in English either, as it is also a foreign language for them. And if one comes from Turkey, for example, or another country, then one is maybe not... influenced by English as much as we are in Norway. We are extremely influenced by English, while maybe it is not to the same degree. I don't know. Pakistan, also, it is...they don't watch as many English films as we do, maybe. I don't know. What do you think?

Researcher: No, no. Well, I think it is interesting and a bit...

Teacher: Yeah, in a way they don't have, because English...I feel that a lot of Norwegian pupils who have their culture here are very – they have heard an extreme amount of English. They've seen films [in English]. So they have a bit more passive [English] language inside them. They comprehend quite a bit. And listening tests or listening to... they take to that quite quickly. But for someone who is born and raised in Turkey, [this is not the case] to the same degree.

Interview 2, S5T2 (00:22:07)

Though the teacher made a bid for my thoughts on non-Norwegian learners of English, I responded in a non-committal fashion, pausing and leaving room for him to fill the silence by

continuing his line of thinking.

A second example reveals how misunderstandings can occur in the attempt to listen intuitively for assumptions. In this example, I make a connection between “x” (evaluation of legitimate performance) and “y” (reward) - a word that the teacher has not used and a connection that she has not made:

Teacher: I hate to say it but I think a lot of the time, there is no time - or it's not enough time - to spend time on things which **can't be measured** and I think I am a part of a culture where if you can't see or test and see if change has happened, that something has been learned, then it is not worth spending time on. So if I want to do something just for the experience - because I want them to experience something using the English language in one way or the other - then sometimes I feel it is not allowed or ok. Or if I can't tell my pupils that we are doing this because -and it's easier to get them onboard - and everyone around me related to my teaching to say that we are doing this because we need to learn how to do this and that. And if I say we're going to do this because it's enjoyable, and this is a part of eh... We are going to read this novel, but it's a bit off topic, but it's beautiful. We are going to do it just because it's lovely, and we are going to enjoy it. And I think we don't have time for that cause we can't test it and see or say afterwards that it was useful

Researcher: Can you describe what you feel is embedded in or baked into this word reward? Cause you used the word reward. They don't want to it unless - or they don't feel they should do it - unless there is a reward. But how sort of is this idea of a reward how is it understood?

Teacher: Could you say that again please?

Researcher: Yeah. So the thing is you said, ok it is hard to do those things unless there's a reward. The idea that, ok we are going to learn this because and then there is something at the end.

Teacher: Yeah but uh it's not um I think my pupils they could get onboard with the idea if I said we are going to do this because we are going to enjoy ourselves for some for the last 20 minutes of today. But if I put it in my plans for this term or something eh We're going... and it's if I put it down as we are going to do this because we are going to ehm experience or if it is not related to a “can-do” in the plans or and how are you going to evaluate this? Are you going to assess this? Is this a part of the assessment? If I can't put it in the correct box in the plans, and where it should fit in. And if it was a separate box for to discover eh or to enjoy to eh enjoy the language to enjoy the story eh to enjoy the music to enjoy the eh If it was only to to experience something they wouldn't have if I didn't put it in their hands, then I don't think that my principals or my leaders would eh arrest me ...but it sort of wouldn't fit in or it's this element which shouldn't be there some kinda, if I didn't connect it to directly to one of the aims in the plan.

Interview 2, S1T1 (00:30:01)

What makes this extract interesting is that, in the moment, I intuitively connected her perception of formal assessment with institutional “reward”. She does not make this connection (as noted by her confusion and request for me to repeat) but, luckily, she does clarify a type of teaching she is trying to include that “wouldn't fit” but is not necessarily so recognized. Noting this as a strange exchange in my own recording directly after the interview allowed me to revisit legitimate teaching and learning in the final interview.

Two final examples illustrate the use of floating and contrastive prompts for constant

comparison (McCracken, 1988). The first illustrates a floating prompt to encourage the teacher to expand on the idea of legitimate practice (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 136):

- Teacher: You see or when they come back and say “Ah, I did this is at home and I continued using this online resource and then I found out and then eh” (*pause*) Yeah, I think it’s interesting what is going on, um, in the middle of ehm... or when you manage to...to reach them at some point in between school and their private life and their own interests and when I operate in between,
- Researcher: Yeah ok. Yeah do the st- uh if - I just want to make sure I understand then - do the pupils see that as less legitimate or somehow less serious or?
- Teacher: Noo (*high rise intonation*) I don’t know if it’s less serious, but I think it’s, eh, I don’t think that it’s so common
- Researcher: mm ok (*low*)
- Teacher: Eh, so it’s not like they don’t eh ... or I know they see me as a strict serious teacher but when I do things that’s ehm not so ordinary. Then they ww- I wouldn’t say [become] insecure. They don’t get insecure. but they - you can see that I shift things a bit or that they get a bit off balance maybe in the relation to both me and the subject if I...
- Researcher: Ok (*low*)
- Teacher: Yeah (*low*)

Interview 3, S1T1 (00:23:20)

A second example illustrates how a contrasting prompt is used to confront this teacher with an alternative understanding of his introduction of cause-and-effect relationships in ELT:

- Teacher: It is the same with cause and effect. One can talk about the different types of causes one has in history... I have said ... – or challenged the most able pupils to use these concepts, especially in social studies, but also in English, but mainly I have talked (*pause*) to all the pupils [about] the relationship between cause and effect. And back to where I started, with the goal [of] equipping pupils – was that actually they can use [the knowledge of cause and effect] in a number of (*pause*) explanation[s], [for] a number of phenomenon which they have to explain. And if they understand– for every phenomenon, for every theme, if you like – they can apply cause and effect ... regardless. That “ok, [if] you are in doubt what you should write in your Norwegian essay, then write something or other that has to do with cause and effect. For example, the causes of bullying and the effect of it, and regardless what theme you get for the English oral exam, [you can] focus on cause and effect if you don’t have any other starting points.” So it is really about giving them a bit larger perspective on how they can approach the material.
- Researcher: Yeah. I think it is interesting. with a cause which has an effect, and you mentioned the last time that they should make choices which have consequences. So I wondered, in English lessons, is it the case – do you take up the idea of *linguistic* choices? [That] if you formulate [your thoughts] in this way, then the effect will be [this]? As there are similarities here.
- Teacher: Mm. No, that I haven’t actually focus-. Yeah. No. That I haven’t focused on. But it is interesting what... you bring up. That I haven’t uh, that I haven’t – I haven’t done that.

Interview 3, S2T2 (00:10:02)

This example illustrates how a contrasting understanding of cause and effect, as a salient theme for this teacher, is introduced as a means for exploring its application in the functional and communicative use of English and what that might mean for this teacher. The intention is to contrast different disciplinary approaches to cause-and-effect relationships. The example above confirms that, for this teacher, cause and effect relationships in subject English have to do with events in the world in a way similar to history teaching and not with an awareness of language choices in English communication.

It is important to emphasize that interviews crossed perceptions of English in society, in everyday life, in perceptions of future needs, and in terms of learner competencies as the *pedagogical construct of the English language subject* (Widdowson, 2002, p. 68). Interviews traversed open-ended, grand-tour questions, floating, and contrasting questions, and questions of interpretation and clarification in establishing categorical patterns in these teachers' discourse or way of talking about the subject in school. The interview as a research tool is interactive and intersubjective, influenced by the subjectivity and ideologies of all participants including the researcher. The next chapter sub-section will discuss measures that were taken to limit (but not eliminate) the subjectivity of the researcher in creating space for participant views.

### 3.2.4 *Bracketing*

As the goal was to capture participants' understandings, attempts were made to reduce the influence of my own preconceived notions and ideological stances as researcher. Though this is never entirely possible, "bracketing" was used as a common practice in phenomenological research (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Through a written log of possible answers to the research questions based on my impressions throughout and through post-interview recordings to monitor and challenge these preconceived notions, I attempted to locate my own cultural and ideological prejudices and, as much as possible, to consciously set them aside (Holliday, 2020). The log and post-interview recordings usefully bracketed my preconceived notions of English as a second language subject with social studies at the center. The visibility of these impressions allowed me to explore these areas more deeply in terms of what participants said and to uncover aims and identities beyond my more basic impressions. For this reason, these procedures of bracketing are recommended for future research of a similar nature.

### 3.3 Data Analysis

Data analysis involved four stages: a) transforming spoken data to written transcripts, b) analytical procedures moving from descriptive to conceptual categories and an overall conceptual model, c) external auditing to enhance trustworthiness of findings, and d) means of representing findings. This Chapter addresses each in turn.

#### 3.3.1 Spoken to Written Data

No single standard for transforming spoken data into written transcripts exists, but transcriptions used in analysis must give a realistic impression of the spoken performance with a level of detail appropriate to the purpose of the investigation. Though meaning can be communicated verbally and non-verbally, this study focuses primarily on verbal data. Where possible, significant non-verbal behavior (i.e., throwing one’s hands into the air, tapping the table for emphasis, rolling one’s eyes, etc.) was verbally commented on by the researcher, thus making it part of the spoken record.

Suprasegmental linguistic and pragmatic features were considered in transcription. The coding of features like stress, vowel elongation, pauses as think-time and pauses as re-direct, volume, intonation, and back-channeling were inspired by guiding questions (Cameron, 2001, p. 32) and specific procedures for transcribing verbal and non-verbal behavior (Ochs, 1979). The following key provides an overview of the notation used:

The dash ( - )	Indicates: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• an inserted phrase like «ya know»</li> <li>• an unfinished statement or a re-start</li> <li>• an unfinished idea unit interrupted by the other speaker; where the speaker’s line ends with “-“ and the next line begins with “-“</li> </ul>
( <i>pause</i> )	Indicates a pause noticeably longer than one might expect at a punctuation barrier like a full-stop or a comma and <b>where the speaker – instead of continuing a thought – restarts or redirects.</b>
....	Indicates a pause for “think time” <b>where the speaker eventually continues on the same thought</b>
( <i>low</i> ) ( <i>loudly</i> )	a notable reduction or increase in volume of speech
Extension of a vowel (i.e. “theeeeeey”)	Indicates an elongation as a means to hold the floor or allow for think time
( <i>rising intonation</i> ) ( <i>falling intonation</i> )	Indicates participant’s intonation that deviates from more standard patterns and may indicate a communicative function or attitude different from the written word (for example, a grammatical statement posed as a question or suggestion or with lack of certainty).

Text in <b>bold</b>	Words or expressions written in <b>bold</b> when emphasized or stressed.
Positive back-channeling	Positive back-channeling from the researcher meant to encourage or acknowledge the speaker that were considered insignificant were not transcribed. Positive back-channeling from informants that indicated confirmation or clarification were transcribed.

Table 3 *Notation key for suprasegmental and pragmatic linguistic features*

Interviews were transcribed in tables with rows that alternated speaker turns and provided various time stamps. This format allowed for the concentration of speaker turns but did not lend itself to representing interruptions or simultaneous talking. Though these instances occurred naturally and were considered valid, as the goal of analysis was to capture the coherent meanings, they were not notated in the transcripts.

Standard punctuation was not used in the transcriptions for analysis but added later to enhance the readability of extracts. Data in English was transcribed by the researcher, and Norwegian data by an external consultant. The final versions of all transcripts were checked against original recordings and features from Table 2 added and analyzed in the original language.

### 3.3.2 *Analytical Procedures*

Similar forms of analysis to reduce data, develop categories, and visualize findings were used across the different articles. In Chvala (2018), a Generic Inductive Qualitative Model (GIQM), of analysis was used, while the remaining articles detail procedures from Grounded Theory (GT) (Holton, 2007; Hood, 2007). Initial data reduction targeted key concepts and research questions to avoid too much reduction and loss of integrity with inadequate reduction (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 668). Early in the study, moving analysis from data reduction to bounded descriptive categories was difficult. To establish “a deep understanding of the main storyline” of each participant, vignette were generated which provided a descriptive overview of the salient features of each teachers’ storyline (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 672). This aided the identification of salient features across teachers as a means “to get up off the data and open ...[for] enquiry” across the cohort (Richards, 2009, p. 77 and 173). This technique was also useful in enhancing familiarity with the essence of each participants’ overall views and the combination of instructional and moral discourses (Bernstein, 2000; van Manen, 2014). In the remaining articles, the systematic procedures of constant comparison and open, axial, and selective coding

from GT were employed (Cohen et al., 2018, pp. 666-667; Holton, 2007). Procedures of constant comparison also included the consideration of negative cases or issues and ideas not discussed by participants (e.g., cause-effect-relationships in Chapter 3.2.3 or English in-flux in Chvala (2020)).

### 3.3.3 *External Auditing*

To enhance the trustworthiness of findings, researchers and teacher educators specializing in English, Norwegian and general pedagogy were involved at different stages of analysis. Teacher educators with recent school experience in English in this district were also asked to review findings in terms of recognizability and ecological validity. While these procedures are less evident in Chvala (2018) these external auditors were increasingly involved in the analysis of the final two articles. In Chvala (2020), researchers at my own institution reviewed categories at different stages of refinement. First, loosely grained categories of English in society and English in school were reviewed by six teacher educators within English, Norwegian and general pedagogy in the research group “Evaluation and Assessment”. Secondly, finely grained categories were reviewed by six specialists in English teacher education. Both reviews involved category descriptions and coded interview data.

In Chvala (2022, *under review*), two teacher educators in English were involved in open coding sensitive to linguistic forms referring to learner attributes, processes, proficiencies and actions, using a coding manual (see Appendix 3). Both were selected for their background in systemic functional linguistics and coded extracts of data matching their first language (Norwegian or English). Moreover, selective categories of refinement were reviewed by six researchers in the interdisciplinary research group “Evaluation and Assessment” at OsloMet. Procedures and processes of external auditing improved over the course of the study, most notably in terms of a) involving external auditors at earlier stages of coding, b) involving external auditors in category refinement, and c) in better formalizing processes and procedures of revisions.

### 3.3.4 *Representation*

The findings of each article, and the synthesis of findings in Chapter 4, are presented in various figures. Each represents patterns in the data, specific categories, and the cross-referencing of categories that establish a picture of the object under investigation. This was done differently depending on the research question. Chvala (2018) presents findings first as rich textual

description, then as a matrix of dominant clusters and overlap. Chvala (2020) presents a matrix of teachers’ ideologies from left to right in more to less abstract categories. Categories are then richly described, with emphasis on the non-hierarchical vertical presentation of categories in the figure. In Chvala (2022, *under review*) where the research object was teachers’ conceptualization of adolescent learning, situating teachers’ discourse in lower secondary was important. For this reason, a visual flow chart moving from left to right in representing what lay behind and what could lay ahead in the final year of compulsory school English was seen as effective.

The representation of the analytical process was viewed as means for enhancing replicability. Chvala (2018) and Chvala (2022, *under review*) do this in the form of a table reflecting category refinement; Chvala (2020) represents parsing, levels of coding and resulting categories in a matrix. Procedures for representing the analytical process as well as findings fit with procedures of both GIQM and GT in ensuring: a) a representation of the essence of the phenomenon grounded in the data, b) representation of the process of refinement of categories, c) a rich textual and visual description that interrelates categories into a story visualized conceptually (Creswell & Poth, 2018, pp. 196-199). The next chapter will look more closely at procedures employed to enhance methodological rigor and the trustworthiness of findings.

### 3.4 Methodological Rigor

This chapter section addresses strategies that were used to enhance the trustworthiness and ecological validity of findings in a qualitative approach to verification (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 259; van Lier, 2004). Lincoln and Guba (1986; 1999) present specific criteria for methodological rigor, and an overview of these criteria following the format of Forero et al. (2018) that connects criteria, suggested and applied strategies is presented in Table 3. Each criterion is discussed below.

Rigor criteria	Purpose	Suggested strategies	Strategies applied in the study
Credibility	To enhance confidence in the “truth” of the findings; that the representation of findings matches what participants say and are viewed as credible by participants	Prolonged engagement Member checks/clarifications  Triangulation or cross-checking of data Negative case analysis  Peer de-briefin	Cyclical long interview  Checking insights and exploring negative cases  Clarification of participants, and external auditing



Dependability	To ensure findings are repeatable with same cohort of participants, coders, and context	Rich description of study methods Establishing an audit trail	Audit trail for steps of analysis
Confirmability	To extend confidence that findings would be corroborated by other researchers	Reflexivity  External audit by external, disinterested auditor  Triangulation	"bracketing" and post-interview recordings Review of other researchers  Checking data against other data, from same and other participants
Transferability	To extend the degree to which the results can be transferred to other contexts	Purposeful sampling to form a nominated sample Data saturation	Purposive sampling of participants  Suspension of data collection at point of saturation

Table 4 *Overview of strategies for methodological rigor*

**3.4.1 Credibility**

Credibility refers to the “truth value” of findings and interrogates the fit between what participants have said and how viewpoints are represented by the researcher. Credibility replaces concepts of internal validity in quantitative research (Cohen et al., 2018, pp. 247-251) and examines the degree which findings can be trusted, while acknowledging that people construct multiple and situated realities. Strategies to bolster credibility included: a) prolonged engagement and member checks, b) triangulation and cross-checking of data, together with negative case analysis, and c) peer debriefing (Creswell & Poth, 2018, pp. 259-266). Taking each in turn, the cyclical long interview design promoted engagement over a three-week period and ca. 2.5 hours of interviewing (see 3.2.1 and 3.2.3). Triangulation and cross-checking of data is described in 3.3.2, where data was checked, not only in relation to what participants had said previously, but also in relation to what participants in other settings had said. Negative case analysis was included in ongoing analysis during (see 3.2.3) and after interviews. Finally, peer debriefing was encouraged amongst teacher colleagues at schools (see 3.2.3), between the researcher and the teacher in each interview (see 3.2.3), and amongst the researcher and other researchers during the analytical process (see 3.3.3).

### 3.4.2 *Dependability*

Dependability refers to consistency in the match between data and findings. Dependability replaces reliability in a quantitative paradigm and asserts that repetition of the research process on the same cohort, context and data would most likely yield the same or similar findings (Cohen et al., 2018, pp. 248-249). Traceable and repeatable research processes were mapped in an audit trail. These processes are included in the individual articles (see Appendix 1) and the processes outlined in this chapter enhance dependability as well.

### 3.4.3 *Confirmability*

Confirmability refers to strategies that clearly link interpretations to data and not the motivations or preconceptions of the researcher. These strategies bring heightened self-awareness in approaching data with a critical recognition of researcher reactions and perceptions as an integral part of the research process. Critical self-reflexivity was bolstered using written logs during planning, data collection and analysis and through post-interview recordings (see 3.2.3 and 3.2.4). Interpretation focused on data triangulation both against participant's statements in successive interviews as well as in cross-participant data (see 3.3.2). Measures involving external audit at different stages of analysis were also employed (see 3.3.3).

### 3.4.4 *Transferability*

Transferability refers to the idea that theory and models generated from qualitative inquiry can be useful in understanding similar settings or situations. Transferability considers generalizability only in relation to like communities or communities of practice. Its counterpart in quantitative inquiry is external validity. To enhance transferability, teachers were purposefully sampled from teachers of English in lower secondary school within a single metropolitan school district. To ensure the conceptual models generated adequately represented the perceptions of this community, teachers and schools were sampled and interviews conducted to the point of theoretical saturation or when identifiable patterns had become evident. Written logs and post-interview recordings aided in monitoring this process.

## **3.5 Ethical Considerations**

Ethical considerations connected to access, purposive sampling, representation of participants, and participant agency will be reviewed in this section.

### 3.5.1 Access

Access to teachers was gated by school principals. Principals were given information about the project in the first instance and before providing further access to department heads or individual teachers. Access may have been widened or limited by the perceptions of school administrators. The only exception was School 5, where snowball sampling was used to recruit teachers with extensive experience, as this proved difficult. Based on a post-interview conversation, a referral was made to colleagues at another school. The result was access to two teachers with extensive experience. In this case, the principal was informed after teachers, though principal approval was given before interviews. The difficulty of recruiting very experienced teachers was interesting, as often these teachers seemed willing to open up informally but were unwilling to go “on record” for the study, even anonymously.

### 3.5.2 Participant Representation

Representing participants in research can be problematic. For example, there were challenges in referring to the participants in this study as “English teachers”, as they often taught more than one subject and were often qualified to teach at least three different subjects. Additionally, some viewed English as their primary specialization and preferred subject, while some did not. For example, one teacher stated: “I am a social studies teacher with a Masters [degree] in history. That’s where my heart lies, but I also teach English” (S2T2).

To best represent all participants, they are referred to as “teachers of English” as type or kind based on actions, behaviors and ways of thinking related to this aspect of their professional identity and as a way of better representing possible interaction with other influences that might shape this classification in a Norwegian context (Hacking, 1995:356). Given the array of teachers’ specializations (see Chvala (2018)), “English teachers” would have oversimplified the professional identities of participants and hidden more complex identities (Hacking, 1995). The European category *semi-specialist teachers* (*Levels of Autonomy and Responsibilities of Teachers in Europe*, 2008) were used in international publications. There was, however, some negative reaction to the use of this term in different presentation fora. Mainly from practicing teachers who react to a “semi” specification tied to their professional practice.

### 3.5.3 Agency and Ethical Validity

Research in education has an ethical responsibility to raise awareness among teacher

participants and other educational stakeholders to lead to participant action or training to support action. An ethical validation of research considers its generative promise, its ability to supply practical answers to complex questions, and its transformative value for stakeholders (Creswell & Poth, 2018, pp. 257-258). It also reflects a vision of research that promotes and enables justice and authenticity and serves the target community by giving voice to its members and sharing the rewards with the community (Creswell & Poth, 2018, pp. 268-269). Though many of these aspects will be discussed in Chapter 5, investigating voices from the field and teacher discourses in school has both generative promise and transformative value, for teachers as well as educational stakeholders and policymakers. Specialized discourse as a middle-range and practical theory for teachers provides a picture of the complexity of English education today and allows for both critical reflection and discussion as well as directions for future research to move research, theory, and practice forward in locally meaningful ways. It also allows for the identification of areas in need of support in improving inclusive and equitable and relevant 21<sup>st</sup> century English education.

### **3.6 Summary**

This chapter provided an outline of Grounded Theory (GT) and an explanation of how and why analytical methods from GT gradually came to play a central role in data analysis in the study. Interviewing as a method of data generation was detailed in terms of design, thematization, purposive sampling, interview procedures, and procedures for bracketing researcher preconceptions as an interactive participant in the construction of interview data. Specific examples of interview techniques that allowed space for participant thinking, that identified pitfalls of rapid assumptions, and that illustrated floating versus contrasting prompts were presented. The chapter then turned to procedures for: a) transforming spoken data to written data, b) refining and auditing interpretive categories, and c) representing findings. Procedures for enhancing methodological rigor and trustworthiness and transferability of findings were also discussed, as well as ethical issues of access, participant representation and usefulness.

The next chapter briefly restates the aim of the study and the findings of the individual articles before presenting a synthesis of findings. The synthesis is then discussed considering the six research questions presented in 1.1 and the macro-, meso- and micro- discourses of the English language, English speakers, English pedagogy, and curriculum in Chapter 2.

## 4 Synthesis and Discussion

The aim of this study was to identify salient patterns in the specialized pedagogical discourse of this cohort of teachers of English in Norwegian basic education. Salient patterns in the specialized ways teachers talk about English and the teaching and learning of English reflect an epistemic matrix of English pedagogy and deeper curriculum that connects lives and the classroom (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Seargeant, 2008). This discursive matrix may dialogue with circulating discourses in attempting to bridge institutional discourses and experiences outside of the institution of schooling.

This chapter presents a synthesis of findings that represents pedagogical constructions of teaching and learning and the ideologies of English that underpin them. The discussion explores discursive tensions as productive sites of transformation and change. To introduce this discussion, the findings of the individual articles are briefly reviewed, before the synthesized findings are presented in Figure 3. Productive tensions in speakers and the language will be discussed, before spaces of transformative potential for pedagogy are considered.

Article 1, Chvala (2018), addresses research question 1, “What are teachers’ intentions in teaching English in school?”. Findings reveal central aims for the acquisition of cultural and historical knowledge of English-speaking countries and the communicative ability to relay this knowledge in English. Less salient are intentions to foster democratic participation and citizenship. Where present, participation indexes a knowledge of English-speaking countries that is expected of Norwegian citizens. Teaching to develop knowledge of the English language indexes foreign language traditions of vocabulary and grammar, with reported difficulty in conceptualizing an awareness of language that could better account for the situated use of English. Article 3, Chvala (2022 *under review*), addresses research question 2, “What are teachers’ constructions for the learning of English in school?”. Findings reveal constructions of learning that build on functional competence and expect learners to acquire knowledge of English-speaking countries and to promote learners’ cultural heritage through understanding the historical connections between these countries and Norway. Learning expands imagined worlds and communities that engage learner identity and emotions, even though these worlds primarily index the United Kingdom and the United States and, more recently, other English-speaking countries, such as Ireland, Australia, South Africa, Canada, etc. Engagement beyond these imagined communities was positioned in the periphery of learning and relevant for only a very few learners. Teachers report struggles for themselves and for learners with English that veers too far from familiar native speakers. Interactive worlds beyond familiar speakers are

described as too challenging, too abstract, or too stress-inducing for inclusion in the classroom. Finally, Article 2, Chvala (2020), addresses research question 3, “What are teachers’ ideologies of English in society and English in school?”. Findings reveal teacher ideologies external to school that construct inward flows of exposure as carriers of non-local values and outward flows of opportunity. Ideologies of English in school are multifaceted, moving across constructions of foreignness, communicative, historical, humanistic, and general academic literacy. English in school is also *in-flux* as new ideas and experiences raise questions of ownership and identity, diversity, digital contact and interaction, and a global arena of use.

To discuss the remaining research questions, the findings are synthesized into a visual matrix of English pedagogy (see Figure 3). This matrix presents teachers and learners as active agents in pedagogic actions within the local ecology and grounds these actions in ideological assumptions of English. Ideologies of English outside of school are represented as part of the larger ecology and represent both inward and outward flows. The discussion of this matrix considers diversity in constructions of language and speakers and locates tensions as potentially fertile ground for exploratory talk that can further teacher development in ecologically relevant ways (Bernstein, 2000; Eikrem, 2009; Fairclough, 2015; Rindal, 2014). To guide the discussion, points of reference are included in Figure 3 (see items numbered in red).

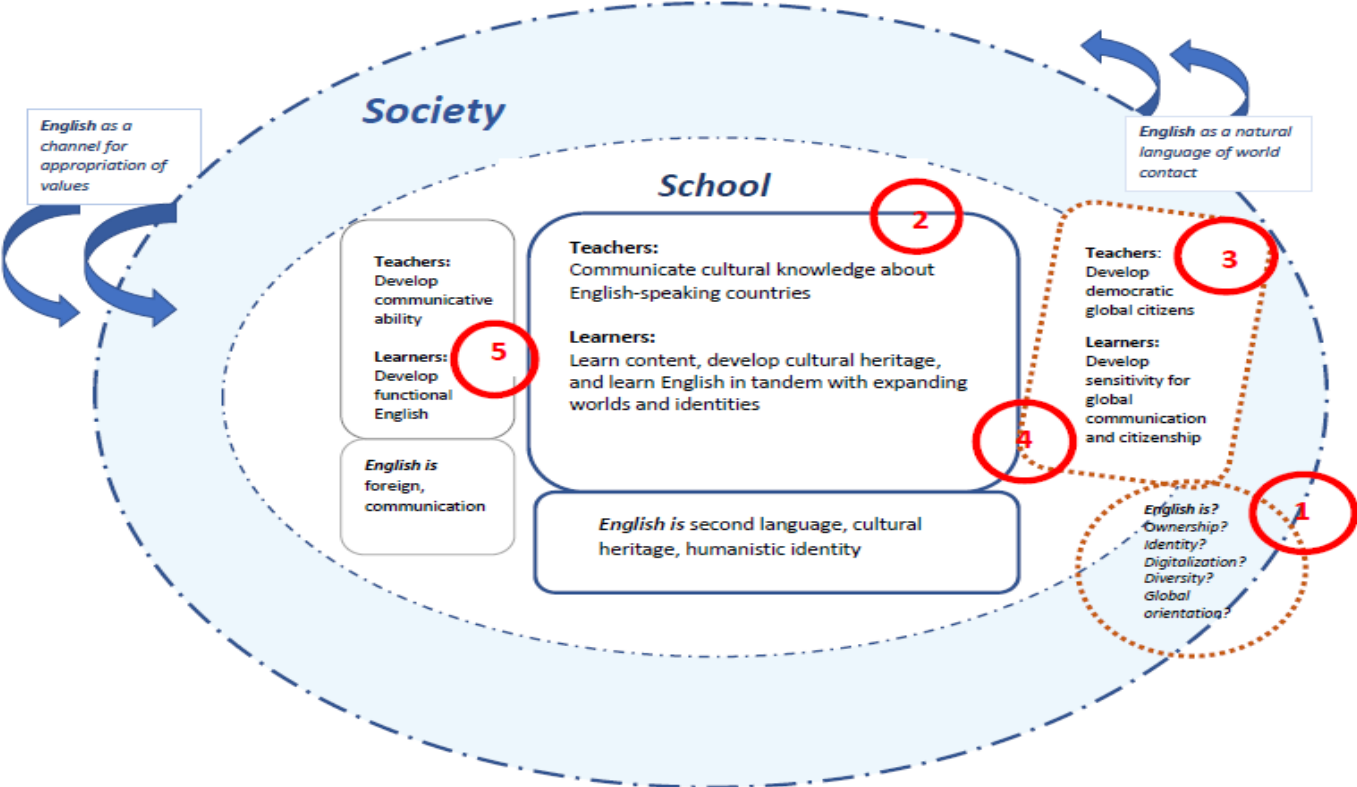


Figure 3 Teachers’ specialized discourse for English in basic education

## 4.1 Productive tensions

As stated in Chapters 1 and 2, the connection of language and meaning is the result of the dynamic interaction of language use, history, experience, identity and ideology. In social institutions, dominant ideologies influence identities and achievement in a dynamic struggle for symbolic control (Bernstein, 2000). Evidence of symbolic struggle can be seen in attempts to connect 21<sup>st</sup> century life, a history of ELT and traditions of EFL. Exposing ideological tension requires a deep exploration of ways of thinking, talking and acting.

This section addresses underlying ideological tension in teachers' constructions of the English language, communication, and speakers. It considers research question 4 on pedagogical intentions and English ideology and research question 5 on the bridging the experience of English in and outside of schooling. It also addresses the final research question on tensions of English pedagogy and 21st century education and global citizenship. The discussion takes into account the circulating discourses reviewed in the Chapter 2 and explores tension as a site of productive potential in transformation and change (Eikrem, 2009; Kubanyiov & Feryok, 2015). The section concludes with a discussion of how tensions can be nurtured in teacher education and by other key stakeholders in opening ideological spaces for new ways of thinking about English as a subject in general education.

### 4.1.1 *Speakers and Diversity*

Multifaceted constructions of English in school raise questions of speakers, speaker identities, and speaker intentions in learning English that can challenge perceptions of coherence in the subject discipline (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008). Evidence of a perceived incoherence is noted in the metaphorical use of “schizophrenic” to describe diversity, one by a teacher in this study and another in the scholarly literature:

#### **EXAMPLE 1 (teacher)**

Researcher: How would you describe English as a school subject?

Teacher: Well (*pause*) it's basic- *it's schizophrenic (my emphasis)*, I think. Because we are supposed *to do many different things, with many different kinds of students* ....you have to do many different things and ... It is difficult to get around everything.

S4T2, Interview 1, 2014 (10:14)

#### **EXAMPLE 2 (research literature)**

Language as a dynamic system is...both system and its use. However, the traditional contrast between the fixed, yet artificial, nature of subject languages and the fluid and self-defining experiences of that content as it is used in the wider world *foregrounds a*

*very basic tension (my emphasis).* In schools, language is a means to an end and an end in itself.  
...[that different] *experiences ... are rarely linked, and certainly not reconciled within a common frame, offers continuing evidence of a schizophrenia that surrounds languages in school.*

(Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008, p. 162)

The complexity and diversity of learner identities and learning intentions reflect polycentric speakers of English with a range of desires and intentions for learning and using English. Speakers in Norwegian classrooms occupy third spaces of symbolic meaning-making, that target performance that is neither native nor part of an L1 culture. However, they are required to relate to regulative and instructional discourses of social order and identity that define deep learning in the subject (Winje & Løndal, 2020). In merging individual and institutional intentions, speakers construct their own English and also adapt it to requirements of legitimate performance that enact identities of belonging and appropriate emotional engagement (Bernstein, 2000; Kohn, 2018).

Constructions of learner-speakers reveal the negotiation of English identity in the classroom. A central tension seems to be the balance of familiarity and diversity in the construction of speakers of English (see 4 in Figure 3). Teachers describe classroom pedagogy that - when opened too widely for different speakers – can be rejected by learners who consider this inclusion illegitimate, as the language is not “owned” by these speakers. This situation is exacerbated by the teacher’s reported struggles to engage the limitations of this ideological stance and view of English and English speakers (Chvala, 2022 *under review*).

Pedagogical spaces for this ideological exploration also become limited by constructions of “sincere” and trustworthy communicative performance targeting native-speakers and native-speaking countries (S6T1) and the democracies “we want to compare ourselves with” (S5T2). Though learner identities and imagined worlds are expanded and extended through textual affordances, this expansion constrains multilingual identities and multilingual others (de Pinho Correia & Nayr, 2020; R. Lund, 2007, 2019; Norton & Pavlenko, 2019). Conflict is addressed, but this conflict is historical and topical and does not touch upon a diversity of speakers and speaker identities that could be “dangerous or problematic” (S6T1). To clarify, there *is* evidence of global mindedness in teachers’ English pedagogy that indexes human rights violations, justice and sustainability. Unfortunately, it is also a global mindset that more narrowly engages distant native-speaking others and marginalizes interaction with the linguistic and cultural diversity of multilingual speakers of English (de Pinho Correia & Nayr, 2020; Roderick Beiler, 2021b). As a result, teachers may unconsciously privilege a narrower



construction of English speakers through a lack of criticality and deconstruction (Pais & Costa, 2020; Porto et al., 2018; Roderick Beiler, 2021b). Teachers, however, seem to struggle with their own relationship to ownership of English, despite very high levels of English proficiency (Llurda, Bayyurt, & Sifakis, 2017; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). This may be compounded by an institutional discourse that “others” multilingual speakers and inhibits their own multilingual identity (Roderick Beiler, 2021b; Yassin Iversen, 2020).

Interestingly, the teachers in this study struggled most when asked about “international” or “global” features of English as a subject in school. Responses included reflections that “I seldom use those two terms” (S1T1) or “What does that mean?” (S5T1) to an indexing of these terms as more relevant for other school subjects, i.e., “I connect this more to social studies” (S3T1) and “possibly not in English teaching, but maybe in social studies” (S5T2). Signs of discursive tension were revealed in teachers’ grappling with constructions of globally oriented ELT across a diversity of speakers and in relation to discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, identity, citizenship, communication, and conflict resolution (see 3 in Figure 3). This “grammar of consciousness” for English in school has yet to be (re)contextualized in teachers’ specialized ways of talking about English and English speakers in school (Bernstein, 2000, p. 28). This corroborates findings across a number of countries that reflect the need for raising awareness of 21<sup>st</sup> century learning and – in English education – raising ELF-awareness as a first step in better aligning policy intentions and teacher action (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015; Care, 2018; Cogo et al., 2021; Sifakis, 2019; Nicos Sifakis et al., 2018).

English in-flux (see 1 in Figure 3) reflects teachers’ own questions about the local meaning of English in school and concerns that current ideas might narrowly position speakers, speaker loyalty, and communities of action (Porto et al., 2018). Power dynamics in definitions of legitimate speakers of English, however, were rare, though there were signs that teachers are willing to “lift” and “widen” perspectives of pedagogy that would be more inclusive and “fair” (S3T1) and to acknowledge a wider range of sociolinguistic and multilingual practices (Fang & Baker, 2018). However, they suggest that challenging learner constructions of legitimate speakers of English will only become realized when learners are faced with the practical and authentic challenges of real-world communication in English.

Conceptions of diversity and multilingual speakers of English must engage both global orientations of lingua franca communication and native-speaker orientations in order to reconcile questions of ownership in pedagogical spaces. Making lingua franca communication more visible can provide a foundation for the experience of multilingualism, intercultural

citizenship, and social construction in English speaker identity beyond the physical boundaries of the classroom (Kohn, 2020; A. Lund, 2019). The claim that “nothing is as practical as good theory” seems key in addressing an instability and a potential unease amongst teachers about the multilingua franca use of English and its connection to fostering interculturally sensitive democratic global citizens in basic education (Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2018, p. 74). The next section will explore language and communication and consider how a theory of English could better stabilize and settle this unease and – in doing so – provide a more stable foundation upon which to develop English for the participation of global citizens in the subject.

#### 4.1.2 *Language and Communication*

Findings reflect a solid foundation of communication and communicative ability in teachers’ constructions of English pedagogy, resonant of communicative aspects introduced in the late 1980s (Simensen, 1999, 2018, 2019) (see 5 in Figure 3). While the early role of language seems to index the foreignness of English vocabulary and grammar, a gap exists in an awareness of language extended to situated communicative use at later stages. Teachers often index language teaching as instrumental, mechanistic, mundane, and dispersed across instruction. While a procedural knowledge of the language emphasizes functional communication first and the illustration of higher order thinking skills second (Bøhn, 2015; Chvala, 2018), procedural knowledge for contextual use is less palpable (Canagarajah, 2014; Cogo et al., 2021; de Costa, 2014, 2016; Rose et al., 2021; Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019). A theory of English that can stabilize perceptions of English in-flux (see 1 in Figure 3) include: a) English as a language of the “ad hoc, situated negotiation of meaning” inseparable from context (Larsen-Freeman, 2016; Seidlhofer, 2009), b) English as a language of virtual capacity for communicative exploitation that engages speaker proficiency and language awareness with communicative demands of contexts and community performance (Kohn, 2018, 2020; Moussu & Llurda, 2008; Seidlhofer, 2011), and c) English as a transcultural language of outward and inward flows that is well-served by critical language education and the consideration of power and symbolic struggle (Cogo et al., 2021; Hult, 2012).

The pedagogical benefits of pragmatics, contextual awareness and strategic competence are only just being considered in English didactics research (Bøhn & Myklevold, 2018; Chvala, 2012; Myrset, 2021). They do, however, reflect a focus on processes evident in the second phase of ELF evolution (Jenkins, 2015). During this phase, communities of practice were theoretically useful and could prove pedagogically productive in promoting language awareness, the study

of variability in language use, and the consideration of affordances of the virtual language in multilingual interaction. The combination of multilingualism, ELF-awareness, and communities of practice could theoretically and ideologically frame an English of wider ownership, identities, contexts, uses and speakers. This could add to existing research that has begun to reposition English within a more diverse and multilingual classroom and has extended contexts of learning to digital environments in and outside the classroom (Brevik, 2019; Flognfeldt et al., 2020; Krulatz, Dahl, & Flognfeldt, 2018; A. Lund, 2003, 2019; Roderick Beiler, 2021b; Røkenes, 2016; Surkalovic, 2014; Yassin Iversen, 2020). A more solid footing for the diversity of the English language and communication in English could support teachers in their efforts to connect theory and practice in approaching and adapting to the diversity of real-life English use (Atkinson, 2017; van Lier, 2010).

As mentioned in 2.1.3, teachers understand and practice their profession in complex ecologies of circulating discourses that open or constrain professional autonomy and agency (Bakken, 2019; Eikrem, 2009). The next section considers how teacher agency and discursive tension can be nurtured both from-the-side in teacher education and from the bottom-up in developing local (Nieveen & Plomp, 2018).

## **4.2 Nurturing and Stabilizing Tension**

The matrix presented in Figure 3 reflects teachers' need for flexible, dynamic and contingently applied English pedagogies in school (Kubanyiov & Feryok, 2015). Findings indicate that teachers continue to act as active entrepreneurs in constructing knowledge in the English classroom (Eikrem, 2009) but that pedagogies need to expand to encompass greater diversity in the language, speakers, and extended contexts of use. If education is "to open doors to the world" and equip learners with skills to tackle global interconnection, communication and collaboration (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, 2020), a shift in pedagogical approaches is required (Care, 2018, pp. 6-7). Facilitating this shift will require the efforts, not only of teachers, but also those of key educational stakeholders.

"English" is changing in practices in and outside of school. This section considers key stakeholders in addition to teachers that influence ideological spaces for expansion and constraint in exploring ideas of language, English, and education. These key stakeholders and their connect to this expansion are illustrated in Figure 4.

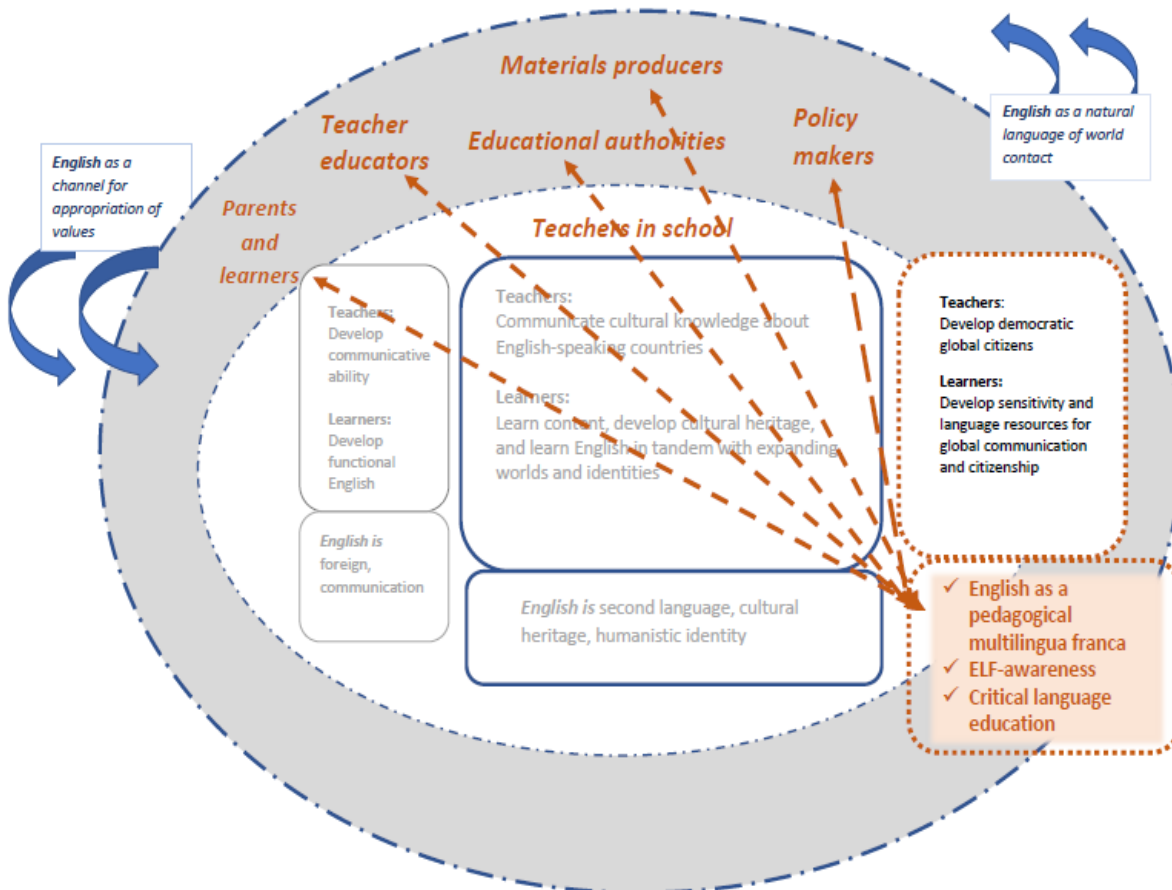


Figure 4 *Increasing stability in circulating discourse of English pedagogy in Norway*

#### 4.2.1 *Teacher Education and Teacher Educators*

Teacher education is most frequently identified as *the* key stakeholder in reconceptualizing meta-perspectives of English, interculturality, English use and English pedagogy and classroom practice (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015; Byram, 2014; Llundu et al., 2017; Sifakis, 2018). To nurture the reconceptualization process, teacher education must support teachers' exploration of local ecologies in attempts to bridge English use in and outside the classroom. Teacher education is a key site for exploring the theories of language, sociolinguistic realities, policy discourses, multilingual experiences, and ecological "habits of mind" necessary for identifying locally appropriate avenues for more inclusion ELF-aware pedagogy in the classroom (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015; Dewey & Pineda, 2020; Hult, 2018; Sifakis, 2019). This also involves teachers' ability to critically engage with curriculum as "a live document" (S1T1) of circulating discourses and interpretation (Hult, 2018; Hult & King, 2011).

This process also involves insight into research and scholarship on globally oriented approaches to English and an examination of personal theories of normativity and ownership.

This will also require a theory of language that provides a solid footing for professional practice. Without this, even teachers open to diversity may be left searching for non-existent standards, as illustrated in this example: “[the] United States, Australia, the United Kingdom or Canada can’t decide [what] English is, even though you should look for... a standard” (S1T2). An understanding of competence needs to rely on a theoretical foundation of language and language use and, in this case, for English.

Teacher education also needs to address the sociolinguistic ecology. In this regard, the handbook for continuous professional development (CPD) generated as part of the project *English as a lingua franca Practice for Inclusive Multilingual Classrooms (ENRICH)* (Erasmus+ project 2018-1-EL01-KA201-047894, 2018-2021) could be particularly useful. This provides both an introduction to ELF-awareness and a framework for exploring the sociolinguistic and instructional context in identifying locally relevant and meaningful openings for more globally oriented English pedagogy and instruction in the classroom (Cavalheiro, Guerra, & Pereira, 2021; Chvala, 2021a, 2021b). In a Norwegian context, concerns have been raised that teachers may not be ready for a more political ideology and cosmopolitanism in English subject curriculum (Fenner & Skulstad, 2018; Hoff, 2018). The framework available in the ENRICH handbook could serve as a useful genesis for teacher and teacher educators in critically considering new ways of thinking about the subject and locally relevant ways forward.

Additionally, English as a pedagogical lingua franca (PLF) is a useful concept that can support a professional understanding of authentic interaction in English that can encompass both NES and NNES interaction (Kohn, 2018, 2019). Findings from A. Lund (2003, 2019) and Røkenes (2016) already suggest an interest in ICT-rich environments as pedagogically productive in developing learners’ communicative abilities in English and widening perspectives of interaction and community identity. In this regard, the project *TeCoLa: Pedagogical Differentiation through Telecollaboration and Gaming for Intercultural and Content Integrated Language Teaching* (ERASMUS + 2016-1-NL01-KA201-022997, 2016-2019) offers a clear framework for integrating technology and the authentic use of English as a lingua franca in the classroom. This experience could productively challenging learner constructions of legitimate speakers in authentic communication as described on page 62, but only under the responsible tutelage of teachers comfortably equipped with a theory of language and a professional practice capable of addressing, managing and reflecting over this form of communication. As mentioned above, teacher educators responsible for equipping teachers with

this competence must also feel comfortable and capable of manage this type of interaction. To date little research exists on how teacher educators may relate to this diversity, with noted exceptions of (Myklevold, 2021) and (Fylkesnes, 2019) that suggest that teacher educators themselves may struggle with linguistic and cultural diversity.

Finally, greater collaboration in the education of teachers in general education may serve to better align teachers shifting roles as general educators who teach multiple subjects. While teachers identified priorities in English that balanced personal interest “There is a lot of history in English...so [it] satisfies my personal...curiosity” (S2T1) and a larger societal mandate “to help them...be skilled, to deal with their own life in every aspect... and to be an active part of a society” (S1T2), few engaged commonalities in 21<sup>st</sup> century education.

#### 4.2.2 *Other Stakeholders*

As mentioned above, teachers were most perplexed by questions of the “global” or “international” nature of English in school. This perplexity is not isolated to teachers alone and also involves institutional stakeholders - such as policy makers, educational ministries and bureaucracies, and school leaders – as well as societal stakeholders - such as the producers of textbooks and other instructional materials and learners in basic education and their parents. This section briefly touches on these stakeholders and the role that can play in opening and constraining ideological spaces for a changing English in school.

In terms of institutional actors, teachers describe an institutional assumption that “that...everyone knows English”, that learning it “is simple...straightforward”, and that students are “learning English from everywhere” (S4T2). This discourse undermines and constrains the recognition of the complexity of English pedagogy and can constrain meta-level discussions. In addition, institutional practices that emphasize accountability result in leadership that is:

“only looking for the aims you do, even though you can [only] understand the[se] aims more by reading the [overall] objectives ...to know where you want to go” (S1T2)

This closes spaces for the regulative discourses of education that give meaning to the instructional discourse of skills (Bernstein, 2000). The absence of critical thinking, interpretation and collaboration was described as resulting in a professional loneliness, despite

a willingness to approach new realities as part of a professional identity. The constraining of space for regulative discourse was reflected in one teacher who turned to her colleagues in trying to locate democratic participation in the English curriculum and where:

“we’ve never discussed [that before, but] just last week, three of us teachers did. This was good, because you get to reflect about your own opinion and how you view it, before you’re supposed to give it to your students. [That’s] good, because this is something we sometimes lack – the professionalism.  
(S1T2)

A lack of professional dialogue left one teacher with feelings of uncertainty, inadequacy and guilt that drove her away from “these fine words... up there [in policies] somewhere” and to the belief that these issues “don’t really concern me” in my practices here “on the ground” (S5T1). What is evident in these examples is that institutional practices impact the opening or closing of ideological spaces for considering changing English and changing English educational policy. Challenging oversimplified views of English pedagogy in basic education and exploring constructions of diversity in English and the use of English in the world potential disrupts dominant discourses of society and dominant discourses and institutional practices, at times, in direct conflict with the professionalism of teachers of English in the classroom. This concerns and may involve producers of instructional materials, educational authorities who provide assessment guidelines, benchmarks and formal examinations, as well as policy makers, learners and parents for whom English is not a professional specialization and who may or may not be aware of the changing landscape of English education and English pedagogy.

### **4.3 Summary**

This chapter has presented both a synthesized matrix of the findings in this study and addressed the research questions presented in 1.1. It has identified areas of productive tensions in teachers’ constructions of language, communication and speakers and globally oriented English pedagogy. It has considered the role of teacher education in nurturing these tensions through exploratory talk and experience in transforming teacher education and ultimately transforming English pedagogy and deeper curriculum that can bridge life in and outside the classroom. The influence and needs of other educational stakeholders, including policy makers, educational authorities, school administrations, producers of instructional materials, and learners and their

parents. The next chapter will review the different contributions of this research before ending with concluding remarks.



## 5 Contributions

The aim of this thesis was to explore salient patterns in the specialized discourse of teachers of English and to consider these patterns in relation to circulating discourses of 21<sup>st</sup> century education, the English language and English speakers, and English pedagogy. Patterns of specialized ways of talking about English in school were synthesized into a discursive matrix for the cohort of teachers in this study. This section highlights the theoretical and empirical, as well as the practical, contribution of this research.

### 5.1 Theoretical and Empirical

This study provided a discursive matrix for teachers' deeper pedagogies of English that attempt to connect language, English, curriculum, lives, and identities. The complexity of this matrix reflects the understanding that complexity is a 21<sup>st</sup> century condition of ELT and one which all stakeholders need to become comfortable in a post-methods era of ELT (Bowles & Cogo, 2015; Cogo et al., 2021; Dewey & Pineda, 2020; Dogancay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2018; Kubanyiov & Feryok, 2015; Kumaravadivelu, 2006, 2012; Larsen-Freeman, 2016; Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008; Rose et al., 2021; Rose, Syrbe, Montakantiwong, & Funada, 2020; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019; N. Sifakis et al., 2018; Tudor, 2003). This matrix offers both ecological and catalytic validity for those interested in (re)contextualized discourses of English in general education (Cohen et al., 2018; Kridel, 2010). For researchers in Norway, findings offer insight into the uptake of curricular discourses in the specialized discourse of teachers and the potential impact on the enactment of 21<sup>st</sup> century education. The findings also offer catalytic validity in a transformative potential to augment teachers' experience of English pedagogy. This study also contributes to the body of research on teachers and the English subject discipline in Norway that explores changing realities of English and for teachers in a Norwegian context (Eikrem, 2009; A. Lund, 2003, 2019; Myklevold, 2021; Roderick Beiler, 2021b; Simensen, 1988, 1999, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2010, 2018, 2019; Yassin Iversen, 2020).

As 21<sup>st</sup> century education and global citizenship are relevant for ELT contexts across the world, findings are also relevant for international researchers in other sites of production that stimulate critical reflection over local ecologies of ELT, productive tensions, exploration, and possible transformation. The conceptual model presented in Figure 3 provides a site of reflection, comparison, productive tension and springboard for exploratory talk that may nurture locally appropriate evolution and change in what English can or should be in education

for the general population.

As the discussion above has indicated, this evolution involves not only teachers but a wide range of stakeholder attitudes, beliefs and discourses. Future research on sociolinguistic realities and English pedagogies could entail:

- research on the dominant discourses and “habits of mind” of policy makers, educational authorities in Ministries of Education and bureaucracies mandated to implement educational policy and responsible for formal examination, teacher educators, school leaders, publishers of textbooks and other instructional materials, and parents and learners
- replication studies in other geographical locations and contexts, including those in less urban and multilingual educational contexts
- research on transformative processes in teacher education through longitudinal studies on changing discourses of ELT and their impact on classroom practices
- further studies exploring the authentic use of English as a pedagogical lingua franca in digital environments and the integration of strategic and pragmatic competence in the negotiation of communication and conflict in this use

In terms of methodological contribution, the detailed procedures outlined in the individual articles and in this synopsis may prove useful for researchers interested in the exploring some of the same questions.

## 5.2 Practical Implications

This project has made visible the deeper pedagogies of English and the challenges in transitioning to a more globally oriented and cosmopolitan pedagogy for English in Norwegian schools. It emphasizes complexity and diversity in the dynamic and contingent adaptation of teachers to the complexity of English in general education. Suggestions have been made above of resources available to teachers through projects designed to support teachers in developing local curriculum and practice that can better identify locally relevant ways to evolve practice in meeting these challenges. Teachers, however, also require *support from the side* from teacher education, educational agencies, and producers of instructional and assessment materials that can acknowledge this evolution and that may also challenge more conventional and established ways of viewing English in general education (Nieveen & Plomp, 2018). Therefore, a collective effort of joint exploration and nurturing productive tensions is necessary in identifying and

supporting meaningful and locally appropriate ways to evolve English pedagogy in school. This does not mean replacing one history with another, but decentering and displacing that history, in order to evolve our understanding and make room for an English that strives to equip global citizens with multilingual means to face, and hopefully resolve, some of the profound challenges we face in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

## 6 Concluding Remarks

A useful means to conclude this synopsis is to end where it began. The aim of this study has been to explore teachers' pedagogical vision for 21st century English education as a nexus of social, professional, and personal histories and institutional discourses, "habits of mind" and ideologies. That this has been a small-scale study does not detract from the value of its richness and depth in exploring the pedagogies and professionalism of these teachers in ways that would not have been possible using other research methods. As a researcher who is not a product of the educational system I was investigating, I relied heavily on the critical consideration of methodological choices and means of enhancing methodological rigor throughout. Additionally, generating and working with data in both English and Norwegian has heightened my sensitivity to what is being said, how it is being said, what it means, and the importance of clarification. Interestingly, I realized very early on that – to my surprise - I was more precise in the Norwegian interviews. This led to greater precision in my use of English, a decision that may not have been made if I had incorporated a procedure for journaling immediately after each interview.

"Expanding landscapes for English as a multilingua franca of global citizenship in Norwegian schools" is used in the title to emphasize the transformative potential of this study in exploring complexity and diversity in general education and in a context where English has become more than the foreign language of native speakers (Kachru, 1997). Like the teachers in this study, I found my interaction with the teachers and the data opened new avenues of understanding and appreciation for what teachers aim to achieve in the English classroom. It also became evident that no one is free of ideology and that the hidden nature of ideologies can lead anyone into contradictory statements and ideological dilemmas. This has left me humble in facing the profound challenge that lies in disrupting ideologies that may have given currency to an understanding of ourselves as successful and high achieving professionals. This is why I refer to "productive tensions" and adopt the previous use of "nurturing" discursive tension in exploratory talk (Eikrem, 2009) as a means of sensitively and gently dislodging ideological stances that may be less beneficial today. The goal of this study has always been to make visible openings and opportunities. I believe teachers are inherently curious and, with the right support, they continually dare to move into new territory and respond to ever changing social realities. This journey, however, requires skills and understanding to support this response and continual support, collaboration, and cooperation in meeting these changes.

This study began in 2014. Much has changed since then. Not the least, the world has experienced a global pandemic that made palpable global interconnections. I am not naïve

enough to believe that English alone will allow us to overcome the challenges that we face. What I do believe is in an increasingly multilingual world, English has a wide scope of use as a lingua franca communication. Given this role, as educators and speakers we have a responsibility to reflect this diversity in the education of speaker-learners who do not English but experience it as a mandatory part of their basic education.

My hope with this thesis is that it provides a holistic view that instigates a deeper exploration amongst all stakeholders in English education – teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and educational authorities, exam writers, parents, students, etc. – and that, together, we can dare to explore new territory, in locally relevant ways, that can – if not guarantee a secure future – promote more inclusive ways of being and doing in the diversity of English education in school. In the words of my father-in-law reflecting on his many years as an artist, traditions are not necessarily negative in themselves, but traditions that do not evolve become obsolete.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1: Informed Consent and Interview Guide

### Forespørsel til engelsklærere på ungdomstrinnet om deltakelse i forskningsprosjektet *“Negotiating the global and the local: language policy as understood by lower-secondary English teachers in Oslo”*

#### Bakgrunn og formål

Globaliseringen har ført til rivende endringer de siste årene, endringer som har hatt store konsekvenser for forståelsen av hva engelsk er globalt og hva det er eller kan bli lokalt. I en norsk-historisk perspektiv, har engelsk endret betegnelse i offisielle dokumenter fra *landets første fremmedspråk* til *et verdensspråk* og *et sentralt fag* i skolen. Alt dette har skjedd på relativt kort tid, sammenlignet med tidligere endringer i engelskfaget. Utviklingen reflekterer en endring i synet på rollen engelsk har i det norske samfunnet og i språk- og utdanningspolitikken i Norge. Hvordan denne utviklingen håndteres av lærere i skolen i det lokale lærerarbeidet er, derimot, ikke kjent.

Prosjektet vil undersøke hvordan lærere balanserer mellom globale og lokale perspektiver i engelskfaget i Oslo skolen i dag. Hvordan operasjonaliserer læreren faget i skolen som en aktiv og avgjørende agent i språkpolitikken? Hvordan samsvarer lærerens praksis med den nasjonale språkpolitikken?

Prosjektet er del av doktorgradsarbeidet mitt i phd-programmet Utdanningsvitenskap for lærerutdanning ved Høgskolen i Oslo og Akershus og er finansiert av Høgskolen.

Utvalget av informanter vil være lærere:

- som underviser engelsk på ungdomstrinnet i Oslo
- som har undervist engelsk i minimum 4 år siden 2006 (dvs. undervist etter LK06 i minst 4 år)
- som underviser på skoler som, til sammen, representerer et geografisk utvalg i Oslo.

#### Hva innebærer din deltakelse i prosjektet?

Deltakelsen i prosjektet innebærer to intervjuer av ca. 30 minutter hver og, i noen tilfeller, observasjon i klasserommet. Intervjuene er dels strukturert, og den generelle intervjuguiden skal sendes læreren på forhånd. I de tilfellene hvor det blir observasjon av undervisning, skal dette avtales med den enkelte læreren på forhånd.

Data fra intervjuene lagres som lydfiler. Intervjuene skal foregå enten på norsk eller engelsk, og intervjuspråket skal avtales på forhånd. Data fra observasjoner blir lagret som feltnotater.

#### Hva skjer med informasjonen om deg?

Alle personopplysninger blir behandlet konfidensielt. I skriftlige intervju- og observasjonsdata vil navn erstattes med kode som viser til en navneliste (koblingsnøkkel) som

lagres adskilt fra øvrige data. Det er bare prosjektlederen, veileder i USA, biveileder i Norge og transkriberingsassistent som skal ha tilgang til personopplysninger.

De enkle deltagerne skal ikke kunne gjenkjennes i publikasjoner, men det kan hende det blir generell referanse til hvor i Oslo området skolen/læreren befinner seg.

Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes 31.03.2018. Innsamlede opplysninger vil da bli anonymisert og lydopptak slettet.

### **Frivillig deltakelse**

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet, og du kan når som helst trekke ditt samtykke uten å oppgi noen grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysninger om deg bli anonymisert.

Dersom du ønsker å delta eller har spørsmål om prosjektet, ta kontakt med Lynell Chvala ved tlf. 22 45 21 16 eller via epost [Lynell.Chvala@hioa.no](mailto:Lynell.Chvala@hioa.no).

Prosjektet er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS.

## **Samtykke til deltakelse i prosjektet**

Jeg har mottatt informasjon om prosjektet, og er villig til å delta

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(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

*Jeg samtykker til å delta i intervju.*

*Jeg samtykker til observasjon.*

## *Negotiating the global and the local: language policy as understood by lower-secondary English teachers*

L. Chvala, Høgskolen i Oslo og Akershus

<b>Formålet // Purpose</b>	
<p>For deg, hva er hensikten med engelsk språk i det norske samfunnet? Hva skal det brukes til?</p> <p>Er engelsk det samme eller forskjellig fra andre språk i Norge (f.eks., norsk, samisk, andre fremmedspråkene, osv.)?</p> <p>Utfra din egen erfaring, hvordan ville du beskrive engelsk <i>som fag i skolen</i>?</p> <p>Hvordan ville du si at engelsk som skolefag møter noen av målene du beskriver for engelsk i det norske samfunnet?</p> <p>Kan du si litt om hva slags muntlig kompetanse i engelsk du tror at elevene dine kommer til å ha behov for – både nå og i fremtiden?</p> <p>Kan du si litt om hva slags skriftlig kompetanse i engelsk du tror at elevene dine kommer til å ha behov for - nå og i fremtiden?</p> <p>Engelsk som skolefag er ofte referert til som både redskapsfag og dannelsesfag.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Hvordan forstår du faget i lys av disse begrepene?</li> <li>- Hvordan balanserer du eller integrerer du disse begrepene i undervisningen din?</li> </ul>	<p>For you, what is English in Norwegian society for? What purpose does it serve?</p> <p>Is it the same or different from other languages in Norway (i.e., Norwegian, Sami, other foreign languages, etc.)?</p> <p>Based on your own experience, how would you describe English as a subject in school?</p> <p>How would you say English as a school subject meets some of the aims you describe for English in Norwegian society?</p> <p>Can you say a little bit about what type of spoken English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?</p> <p>Can you say a little bit about what type of written English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?</p> <p>English as a school subject is often referred to as both a subject to develop instrumental language skills and as a subject for the personal development or growth of the pupil.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- How do you understand the subject in light of both of these two?</li> <li>- How do you balance or integrate these in your teaching?</li> </ul>
<b>Global/internasjonallokal // Global/international/local</b>	
<p>Kan du beskrive noen situasjoner hvor engelsk er brukt aktivt i klasserommet ditt?</p> <p>Kan du beskrive noen temaer du tar inn i engelsk undervisningen din?</p>	<p>Can you describe some of the situations in which English is used actively in your classroom?</p> <p>Can you describe some themes you take up in your teaching?</p>

<p>«Internasjonalt» og ”globalt” er ord som ofte brukes i sammenheng med engelskfaget i skolen. Kan du si noe om hvordan ”det internasjonale” eller ”det globale” er brukt i undervisning din?</p> <p>Hvem ville du si er mottagere av dine elevers skriftlig og muntlig engelsk?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ville du ha sagt at dette gjelder spesielt for dine elever, eller er det felles for all engelskundervisning på din skole?</li> <li>- I din erfaring med andre lærere i kommunen, ville du ha sagt at det er felles for engelskundervisning i (kommunen)?</li> </ul>	<p>«International» and “global” are words which are often used in connection with English in school. Can you say how “international” or “global” is used in your teaching?</p> <p>Who would you say are the recipients or audiences for your pupils’ spoken and written English?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Would you say that this is unique for your pupils or similar/same for English lessons at your school?</li> <li>- In your experience with other teachers in (this municipality), would you say that this is similar/the same?</li> </ul>
<b>Identitet // Identity</b>	
<p>Kan du beskrive din rolle som en som engelsklærer?</p> <p>I din erfaring, kan undervisning i engelskfaget bidra til å styrke demokratisk engasjement?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Til medborgerskap?</li> <li>- Til en slags ”co-citizenship”?</li> </ul>	<p>Can you describe your role as a teacher of English?</p> <p>In your experience, can teaching in English as a school subject contribute to strengthening democratic engagement?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Strengthening citizenship?</li> <li>- Lead to developing co-citizenship?</li> </ul>
<b>Vurdering // Assessment</b>	
<p>Kan du si noe om det som er viktig for deg i vurderingen av elevenes engelskkompetanse?</p> <p>Kan du si litt om hva slags utfordringer du opplever i vurderingsarbeidet i engelskfaget?</p>	<p>Can you say something about what for you is important in assessing your pupils’ competence in English?</p> <p>Can you say a bit about what type of challenges you experience in your work with assessment in English?</p>
<b>Lokal situasjon // Local situation</b>	
<p>Kan du si litt om du opplever at andre engelsklærere på din skole har en tilnærmet oppfatning og forståelse av faget som du har?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Hva med i (kommune-) skolen generelt?</li> </ul> <p>Kan du beskrive hva som hjelper deg eller hindre deg i å nå dine mål som engelsklærer?</p>	<p>Can you say a bit about whether other teachers at your school have a similar understanding of the subject as you do?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- What about in the municipality in general?</li> </ul> <p>Can you describe what helps you or works against you in reaching your aims as an English teacher?</p>

## Appendix 2: Open Coding Manual

### CODING MANUAL (Article 3): Round 1 coding Who are Learners in teacher discourse?

*(Text in blue indicate adjustments in open coding made after external auditing)*

- Aim of analysis is to capture **learner identity** and **learner actions** (*performed, desired, or expected*) as constructed in teacher discourse
- After completion, please comment on any need you see for additional categories or the merging/reduction of categories.

Teachers' discursive constructions of English language learners in the expanding circle, including		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• learner <b>identities</b> and</li> <li>• what <b>processes/actions</b> they are desired or expected to perform</li> </ul>		
Code	Description	Examples
<b>LEARNERS</b>	<p><i>This category includes both statements that describe learner identity – who they are supposed to be and how they are supposed to feel – and any actions learner are or do perform.</i></p> <p>Coding should include statements that:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. reference to <b>learner attributes</b></li> <li>2. <b>reference to learners as agents for participants in actions/processes</b> (“students/pupils/elever”) or (“you”, “they”, “we”, “one”, etc.) (includes</li> </ol>	<p><i>(pronouns)</i> you're amazed in the beginning because <b>They're</b> just “Wow, <b>they're</b> so fluent! They're there there's very few have a Norwegian accent (<b>“they”/learners are non-accented, fluent users of English</b>)</p> <p>to make their English when <b>they're</b> speaking just making <b>them</b> more confident and trying to expand their vocabulary making it a little bit more advanced (<b>“they”/“them” are working to speak confidently and trying to expand and raise level of vocabulary</b>)</p> <p>a lot more based on reflection and giving <b>your</b> own point of view than just you know imitating (<b>“you” give your own point of view and do not imitate</b>)</p> <p><i>(direct processes – conducted, desired or expected actions)</i> They <b>think</b> of these two aspects of the English language as very <i>independent</i> from each other (<b>learners think/separate two aspects</b>)</p>

	<p>“man”/“one” when referring to learners</p> <p>3. “we” references can be those that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ include learners with others</li> <li>○ refer to a general population or very generic “we”</li> <li>○ refer to “we” teachers</li> </ul> <p>4. Use finite and non-finite verb forms reflecting <b>performed, desired, or expected learner actions</b>. These may come as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ The main verb/Verbal in a clause, including imperatives</li> <li>○ non-finite clauses with nominal, adverbial or adjectival functions</li> <li>○ grammatical metaphors, like nominalizations (“understanding”, “developments”, “use of”, “requirements”, etc.)</li> </ul> <p>5. Use of verb forms as <b>processes</b> located with or inside learners, i.e. “<b>hos dem</b>”, “<b>with them</b>”, “<b>for us</b>”, etc.</p> <p>6. Also nouns like “kompetansen”, or “competence” or</p>	<p>they <b>need to focus</b> more on their grammar when they talk (<b>learners must focus on grammar when speaking</b>)</p> <p>seems like they <b>can’t really transfer</b> the knowledge of grammar while writing into their oral English (<b>learners cannot transfer written grammar into speaking</b>)</p> <p>Um <b>get rid of</b> all spelling errors (<b>learners eradicate all spelling errors</b>)</p> <p>they <b>should have</b> enough um self-awareness to know if I don’t really if I’m not really sure how to write this to spell this word don’t just give it a go ya know look up in a dictionary</p> <p>(<b>learners should be self-aware enough to know when to fix spelling errors and how to use a dictionary to do so</b>)</p> <p>(<b>more indirect</b> references to identity and actions)</p> <p>it has to do with <b>comparing</b> Norway with um different aspects of the English-speaking world It could be the culture It could be um norms eh the language structure in general Literature History (<b>learners compare Norway and Eng-speaking world on culture, literature, history and language norms</b>)</p> <p>I put a lot of effort on making them ya know train them in <b>reflection (to reflect)</b>... which I mean is important in ya know both for social science, Norwegian, math, everything but I just want them <b>to practice</b> that in the English language as well (<b>learners reflect, which is important for all subjects, and practice reflecting in English as a result of extreme effort on the part of the teacher</b>)</p> <p>Jeg synes at (muntlig) <b>kompetansen</b> til elevene er høy OR Jeg må se <b>en utvikling</b></p>
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	<p>“knowledge”, “masses of oral activity” which refer to the intention of teaching and what learners should be able to do.</p> <p>7. A few examples of directional/place adverbials “where the focus lies”</p>	
<p><b>INDIRECT REFERENCE</b></p>	<p>Please include any indirect reference to learner identity or actions they are involved in or the recipient of that <b>do not fit</b> into the grammatical categories above.</p> <p>Distinction among: a) expected learner processes (normative), b) desired actions/processes, and c) those that have occurred?</p>	
<p><b>INTERESTING</b></p>	<p>This code relates to anything interesting that relates to <i>how teachers view the identity or actions of learners of English</i> that may not be captured in the codes above. This is a subjective category. <b>When using this code, please include a small comment in the margin WHY this is interesting.</b></p> <p>Unidentifiable “they” references – teachers? Learners? Policy makers? Others?</p>	

## Appendix 3 Curriculum Changes

Core Curriculum	
LK06 (2013 version)	LK20
<p>Education to equip learners with knowledge and values to master the tasks of life and overcome challenges together</p> <p>Education promotes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social and cultural competence to promote the common good and a respect for diversity</li> <li>• Democratic participation (national and international)</li> <li>• Cooperation with local communities for real-world education</li> <li>•</li> </ul> <p>Learners should be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• meaning-seeking, based on Christian and humanistic values</li> <li>• loyal to historical legacy and innovative</li> <li>• able to participate cooperatively with compassion and technological ability</li> <li>• environmentally aware</li> <li>• well-rounded and able to act morally and influentially</li> </ul>	<p>Education to “open doors to the world” anchored in Christian, humanist heritage that unites Norway and supports life in a complex world and an uncertain future</p> <p>Education promotes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• International commonality</li> <li>• Democratic equality</li> <li>• The advancement of scientific thinking,</li> <li>• Respect for individual convictions and diversity</li> </ul> <p>Learners should develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• master life</li> <li>• participate in work and society</li> <li>• think critically</li> <li>• act ethically</li> <li>• be inquisitive, creative, and engaged</li> </ul> <p>Interdisciplinary themes of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Human dignity and equality</li> <li>• Learner identities and societal belonging, including multilingualism as a resource and opening to the world and the future</li> <li>• Democratic participation respecting diversity and for peaceful conflict resolution</li> <li>• Critical thinking, ethical awareness, creativity and exploration</li> <li>• Respect for the environment</li> </ul>

Table 5 *Changes in the Norwegian core curriculum and learner profile (2006 – 2020)*

English Subject Curriculum	
LK06 (2013 version)	LK20 (2020 version)
<p><i>English is....</i> A universal language of contact and for local personal and professional use as well as for success in international communication</p> <p>Knowledge of the language and skills in using the systems of the language in different settings. Insight into ways of living and culture where English is the primary language <i>and</i> where English is used as a medium of communication</p> <p>Contributes to multilingualism and an understanding of the world and how English became a world language</p> <p>Developing communicative and linguistic skills and cultural insight can promote interaction, understanding and respect among people of different cultural backgrounds and strengthen democratic engagement and citizenship in general education.</p>	<p><i>English is....</i> An important subject for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) understanding of cultural ways of living and thinking,</li> <li>b) use of communicative patterns with multilingual and multicultural speakers, and</li> <li>c) for identity development</li> <li>d) (necessary for) a social, academic and professional life</li> </ul> <p>Knowledge of - and an exploratory approach to - communication patterns, lifestyles, social conditions, and ways of thinking that open new perspectives of the world and ourselves.</p> <p>Multilingualism is an asset at school and in society.</p> <p><i>Health and Life Skills (interdisciplinary)</i> Learners' ability for self-expression in English and perspectives on new communication patterns and ways of living and thinking. Learner achievement central for positive self-image and confidence necessary to handle situations requiring linguistic and cultural competence.</p> <p><i>Democracy and Citizenship (interdisciplinary)</i> Understanding the world as culture-dependent and acknowledging that communication across societies and cultures can inspire curiosity, engagement and open for new ways of interpreting the world and combatting prejudice.</p>

Main areas:		Core areas:	
Language learning	<p>learning a new language and seeing relationships between English, one's native language and other languages</p> <p>knowledge about the language, language usage and insight into own language learning</p> <p>ability to evaluate own language use and needs and to select suitable strategies and working methods</p>	Language learning	<p>developing language awareness and knowledge of English as a system to give pupils choices in communication and the ability to use strategies</p> <p>learning text composition</p> <p>identifying connections between English, other languages pupils know, and how English is structured</p>
Oral communication	<p>understanding and using the English by listening, speaking, conversing and applying suitable communication strategies in different situations; involves vocabulary, using idiomatic structures and grammatical patterns and learning to speak clearly and use the correct intonation.</p> <p>general politeness and awareness of social norms in different situations important and also involves adapting language to purposeful objectives and recipient, i.e. by distinguishing between formal and informal spoken language</p> <p>use of different media and resources and the development of a linguistic repertoire across subjects and topics</p>	Communication	<p>creating meaning through language and the ability to use the language in formal and informal settings</p> <p>to employ suitable strategies to communicate in different situations and by using different types of media and sources</p> <p>to experience, use and explore the language throughout</p> <p>opportunity for expression and interaction in authentic and practical situations</p>
Written communication	<p>understanding and using English through reading, writing and the use of suitable strategies</p> <p>includes reading a variety of different texts to stimulate the joy of reading, experience greater understanding and to acquire knowledge. This involves reading a large quantity of literature to</p>		

	<p>promote language and textual competence and as the foundation for personal growth, maturation and creativity in creating texts</p> <p>includes writing in different situations where written communication is necessary to stimulate the joy of writing, experience greater understanding and acquire knowledge.</p> <p>also involves adapting to purposeful objectives and to the recipient, i.e. by distinguishing between formal and informal written language</p> <p>involves developing a vocabulary and using orthography, idiomatic structures and grammatical patterns when writing and creating structure, coherence and concise meaning in texts</p>		
Culture, society and literature	<p>focuses on cultural understanding in a broad sense, based on English-speaking countries and covers key topics connected to social issues, literature and other cultural expressions</p> <p>involves developing knowledge about English as a world language with many areas of use and working with and discussing expository texts, literary texts and cultural forms of expression from different media</p> <p>to develop knowledge about, understanding of and respect for the lives and cultures of other people</p>	Working with texts	<p>language learning in the encounter with a broad range of texts that can contain writing, pictures, audio, drawings, graphs, numbers and other forms of expression to present a message</p> <p>to develop the pupils' knowledge and experience of linguistic and cultural diversity and insight into ways of living, thinking, and traditions of indigenous peoples</p> <p>to reflect, interpret and critically assess different types of texts to acquire language and knowledge of culture and society and develop intercultural competence to deal with differences in living, thinking and communication</p> <p>to see own identity and others' identities in a multilingual and multicultural context</p>

Table 6 *Changes in the Norwegian English subject curriculum (2013 – 2020)*

## **Appendix 4: Research Articles**

## **Article 1:**

Chvala, L. (2018). What are the core aims of English as a school subject? A study of teacher understanding in lower secondary school. *Acta Didactica Norge*, 12(1).

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## What are the core aims of English as a school subject? A study of teacher understanding in lower secondary school

### **Abstract**

*Teachers' interpretations of the core aims of a school subject open or constrain what can be taught and learned in the subject in school. The global spread of English and its changing status in the world have impacted how English as a school subject is understood and what it is meant to achieve. This article explores teachers' understandings of the core aims of English as a school subject at the end of basic English education in Norway.*

*Data consist of interviews with 12 teachers across six schools in a large school district. Qualitative analyses of the data identify four core aims: 1) acquiring content knowledge of English-speaking countries, 2) developing communicative language ability 3) developing linguistic knowledge of English and 4) developing the democratic citizen. While acquiring knowledge and learning to communicate in English are dominant in teacher understanding, linguistic knowledge of English and democratic participation are much less pronounced. These findings are discussed in light of future needs for English as a world language. Finally, suggestions are made for bridging the way English as a school subject is understood today and imagining an alternative for the future.*

*Key words: English as a school subject, core aims, teacher cognition, lower secondary school, Norway*

## Hva er kjernemålene i engelskfaget på ungdomstrinnet i skolen? En studie av lærers forståelse

### **Sammendrag**

*Lærernes tolkning av de sentrale målene for et skolefag er avgjørende for hva som kan undervises og læres i faget i skolen. Utbredelsen av engelsk og språkets endrede status i verden påvirker hvordan faget forstås og hva som oppleves som hensikten med faget. Denne artikkelen utforsker læreres oppfatninger av de sentrale målene for engelskfaget i grunnskolen i Norge.*

*Datamaterialet består av intervjuer med 12 lærere ved seks skoler i en stor kommune. Gjennom kvalitative analyser av intervjudata er fire sentrale mål identifisert: 1) Å tilegne seg kunnskap om engelsktalende land, 2) Å utvikle kommunikative ferdigheter, 3) Å utvikle engelsk språk- (lingvistisk-) kunnskap og 4) Å utvikle demokratiske medborgere. Mens kunnskapstilegnelse og utviklingen av kommunikative ferdigheter er dominerende i lærernes forståelse, er kunnskap om det engelske språkssystemet og opplæring i demokratisk deltagelse mindre tydelig i materialet. Funnene blir diskutert med tanke på fremtidige behov for engelsk som verdensspråk. Til slutt presenteres et forslag for hvordan man kan bygge broer mellom forståelsen av engelsk som skolefag i dag og et mulig alternativ til dette i fremtiden.*

*Nøkkelord: Engelsk som skolefag, kjernemål, formål, sosial praksis, lærerdiskurs, Norge*

## Introduction

The spread of English through globalization, technology, and migration - together with the rise in non-native users of English - is challenging previous definitions of what it means *to know* or *to be proficient* in English (Graddol, 2006; Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011). As English increasingly becomes a language of contact for diverse speakers, new understandings of English competence potentially conflict with the established understanding and practices of the English language classroom (Hult & King, 2011; Nauman, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2011). Moreover, in many countries, changes in English education have often been top-down and rapidly implemented, assuming the benefits of early education and underestimating the teaching challenges involved in implementation (Hu, 2007).

In anticipating a new subject curriculum for deeper learning of central elements in English as a school subject (Kunnskapsdepartement, 2017), it is timely to investigate how teachers understand these elements and the relationships between them. While much research on English language teaching in Norway has focused on developing specific English language skills - such as reading (Bakken, 2017; Brevik, 2014; Charboneau, 2012), writing (Burner, 2016), speaking (Bøhn, 2015; Bøhn & Hansen, 2017), and vocabulary development (Hestetraet, 2012) - less research has focused on the overall aims of the subject and even less on teachers' understanding of these aims and how they expand or constrain what can be learned in the subject.

The aim of this article is to investigate teachers' interpretations of the central aims of English as a school subject at the end of lower secondary school. The final years of lower secondary represent the culmination of 10 years of mandatory English education for all students in Norway. While the goal is not to

suggest that the findings in this study represent the *only* understandings of the central aims for English in basic education, they shed light on the central goals of English education in school for the vast majority of the Norwegian population.

The article begins with a discussion of current international trends in English language teaching and how these trends can be seen in Norway. This is followed by a description of the research design and analytical process used to explore teachers' understandings. The patterns in teacher understanding of the core aims of the subject are then presented and discussed in light of these trends. Finally, the implications for policy makers, teacher educators, and teachers are discussed in anticipation of a new curriculum and a new direction for English education in the future.

## Literature Review

Within the fields of language education, multilingualism and English as a global language, established conceptions of “language” and “communicative language competence” are being expanded and challenged (Canagarajah, 2006, 2014; Jenkins et al., 2011; Kramsch, 2011; Otheguy, Garcia, & Reid, 2015). The rise in the use of English for international communication amongst non-native speakers has led to increasing discussion of *English as a lingua franca* (ELF) (Jenkins et al., 2011). These developments are seen to signal an end to the belief that English is owned by the nations who speak it and to traditional English foreign language (EFL) teaching as we know it (Graddol, 2006).

*English as a lingua franca* (ELF), as opposed to *English as a foreign language* (EFL), reflects a global paradigm of language and language use based on theories of language contact and evolution and not on theories of first language acquisition (Jenkins et al., 2011). Instead, proponents of *English as a lingua franca* (ELF) define ELF as the use of linguistic and non-linguistic resources for communicative purposes within different settings, where communicative competence foregrounds situated language use “constructed in each specific context of interaction” (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 925). In ELF, interlocutors and contextual factors play a profound role in communication and are intertwined and inseparable from the use of English as a lingua franca (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 296).

Global developments have also impacted the understanding of culture in English language teaching. Kramsch (2013), for example, suggests that learners in today's globalized world are cultural mediators, continually bridging their own and other cultures while acknowledging their own cultural influence in doing so. Kramsch argues that learning another language is not *gaining* a mode of communication *across cultures*, but instead “*acquiring* a symbolic mentality” (Kramsch, 2011, p. 365). This *symbolic competence* supplements

communicative competence to better reflect the realities of a modern, interconnected global world. Developing learners with symbolic competence, she argues, requires learner engagement with cultural, historical texts through reflection on linguistic and stylistic choices and the meanings they create (Kramsch, 2011).

Within European language education policy, there is growing attention to processes of mediation that reflect those of Kramsch. Mediation recognizes the learner as a social agent who culturally and linguistically adapts to perceived otherness, attempting to bridge the gap through language. Mediation, therefore, requires both metalinguistic and metacultural reflection and awareness (Coste & Cavalli, 2015, pp. 12-13). In the shift of *foreign language subjects* to *subjects of communication*, however, the role of linguistic knowledge has been significantly diminished while the need for a more fluid, situated, and dynamic linguistic knowledge has arisen (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008).

Some research has been conducted to capture differing views of language, culture and context as they are understood and realized in English language teaching. In Sweden, for example, Hult (2010, 2012) found that pre-service teachers and their instructor viewed the English classroom *not* as a space where language was used for functional communication influenced by social norms but instead as a space where these norms were suspended for the purpose of learning. Instead, participants in the study viewed situated and meaningful use of English as occurring in society and distinct from the use of English in school. In exploring classrooms practices for English certification in Australia and Hong Kong where the language is considered to be the object of teaching and learning, Davison (2005) revealed implicit norms and values which promoted an educated, English-speaking, democratic community. She argued that these norms and values need to be “challenged or explicitly taught” (Davison, 2005, p. 235), as many students are under the false assumption that the sole purpose of the subject is to learn the language. These findings reveal that English language teaching is influenced by local beliefs and that teaching is neither straightforward nor neutral. They also reveal the importance of these beliefs in opening or constraining the type of English language learning that can happen in the classroom.

Current discussions of English language teaching raise complex questions about the relationship among language, communication, context, culture and identity in conceptualizing teaching and learning aims in the subject. Borg refers to the process of interpreting these relationships for appropriation in the classroom as “the unobservable dimension of teachers’ lives” (Borg, 2012, p. 12). As Kelly, Luke and Green (2008) emphasize, while a curriculum provides stakeholders, including teachers, with targeted aims, the understanding of these aims actually resides in the interaction of stakeholders that determine *what* can count as knowledge, *who* has access to it, and *whose* knowledge counts. The understanding of curricular aims held by teachers as key stakeholders is

important for the learning that may or may not happen. In introducing a new curriculum, Orland-Barak et al. (2004) researched teachers' interpretive process and illustrated the importance of engaging educational stakeholders in a dialogue between former and new practices. Through interaction and dialogue, teachers – among others - can develop a “new” pedagogical content knowledge better aligned with new thinking and approaches to teaching English as a school subject. As these findings illustrate, paradigmatic shifts in English language teaching may require the re-thinking of commonly held views. This process, however, will require interaction and dialogue between established and newer practices. Sifakis' (2017) proposes a model for this process that would both raise teachers' ELF awareness while supporting them in reflecting on their deeper beliefs about language, communication and the role of the teacher in their specific educational context. To facilitate this dialogue, however, more research is needed which explores teachers' beliefs within the sociolinguistic context of school. The purpose of this study is to add the voice of teachers to the discussion of the central educational aims for English in basic education for the general Norwegian population.

## Context of Study

As in many countries, the status of English in Norway has changed rapidly since the turn of the century. These changes have had a significant impact on English education in school. While English has a long tradition as a foreign language subject in Norwegian schools (Simensen, 1999), the subject was distinguished from the other foreign language subjects in 2003 (Simensen, 2003). By 2005, English was referred to as “the big brother” of foreign language education, reflecting a policy discourse positioning English language learning more closely to first language (L1) learning (Simensen, 2005, pp. 59-60). English gained further prominence in 2008, when it was designated a prioritized subject with higher qualifications to teach it (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2008; 2009, pp. 18-19). These developments, however, have not been without their tensions. In an investigation of attitudes towards English in Norwegian media from 2008 to 2012, Graedler (2014) found frequent references to English as an invading force and as a threat to the national language and not to English as a global language to be appropriated locally.

Within this climate, the focus of research on English language teaching (ELT) in Norway has fluctuated as well. For example, research on learners' preparedness for higher education and on academic reading skills called for the consideration of *content-integrated language* (CLIL) instruction in school (Hellekjær, 2008). On the other hand, Rødnes, Hellekjær and Vold (2014) called for a more situated language focus to meet the needs of current English language classrooms as identified by recently qualified teachers of English. The need for

greater contextual awareness was also raised in a study of teacher-written oral exam tasks in Chvala (2012). These findings suggest a shifting focus in ELT between content-focused learning reflective of first or second language literacy development and the more situated, context-bound use of English as a lingua franca.

Illustrating this dynamism, a special issue of *Acta Didactica* was published in 2014 which addressed the English and foreign language education of the future. In this issue, Rindal (2014) asked “What is English?” and found that, while the curriculum suggests that *language* and *language use* are the central domains of the subject, the English language practices and choices of young learners were socially influenced and personally negotiated. Her findings led her to predict a growing prominence for social constructivist perspectives in English language teaching and research to capture the local beliefs and practices which impact teacher and learner intentions for the subject. This article, therefore, focuses on local beliefs, practices and intentions and explores the research question:

How do teachers understand the central or core aims of the first 10 years of basic, mandatory English education in school?

Findings shed light on teachers’ deeper beliefs about language, communication and the role of the teacher in Norwegian schooling and how these impact the pedagogical intentions of the subject. Findings also reveal the need to reconsider and to bridge current beliefs with new realities and a new curriculum in the future.

## Method

As the aim was to investigate teacher understanding, the study adopted a qualitative orientation to data collection. The teachers in the cohort were purposively sampled from lower secondary schools within the same district. Maximum variation across variables of linguistic culture and socioeconomic status for schools and teaching experience for teachers were targeted (Creswell & Poth, 2017; Patton, 2002). Schools were selected considering: a) the degree of multilingualism in the school environment, as a possible factor influencing heightened language focus in the subject and b) the socioeconomic status of the local area as related to English as a means of educational and economic gain (*Evaluering av ressursfordelingsmodellen for grunnskolen*, 2014; Ljunggren, Toft, & Flemmen, 2017). The distribution of schools in the study reflected the general distribution in socioeconomic status from affluent (“West”) to average or below average (“East”) and in high, intermediate or low levels of multilingualism in the district as a whole.

Once schools were selected, two teachers from each school were chosen using English-teaching experience as a selection criterion. In the final cohort, experience ranged from a few months' to over 30 years' experience. Though gender was not a selection criterion, the final cohort consisted of nine females and three males. All participant data were anonymized using pseudonyms. The final total of 12 participants was within the 5-25 range generally practiced in phenomenological studies (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 150). For an overview of schools and participants see Table 1 below.

**Table 1** Overview of schools and teachers in the cohort

School	Description	Teacher pseudonym	Teaching experience	Teaching subjects in addition to English
A	Low multilingualism "West"	Unni	<1	Social studies and foreign language (FL)
		Karen	2.5	Social studies and Norwegian
B	Low multilingualism "West"	Anja	10	FL, Religion-Philosophies of Life-Ethics (RLE), and social studies
		Sigrid	16	Foreign language (FL)
C	Intermediate multilingualism "East"	Silje	7	Music
		Caroline	5	Social studies and RLE
D	Intermediate multilingualism "East"	Hanne	27	RLE
		Kåre	31	Social studies
E	High multilingualism "East"	Tove	28	Social studies
		Mattias	11	Social studies and RLE
F	High multilingualism "East"	Mina	7	RLE
		Hans	5	Social studies and Norwegian

### Interview Guide and Procedure

A general interview guide consisting of open-ended questions addressing topics in the general objectives of the English subject curriculum was provided to teachers prior to the interviews (see Appendix 1). The general objectives of the subject were chosen as they bridge Core Curricular aims which provide the pedagogical coherence for all the subject curricula (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013, Core Curriculum) with subject-specific aims. The Core Curriculum targets the creation of independent individuals with a sense of national heritage, creativity, and a moral outlook. It also includes democratic ideals, international responsibility, and environmental awareness as a means of ensuring Norway's active membership in the global community. The specific English curriculum, on the other hand, is structured into four main areas (*Language learning, Oral communication, Written communication, Culture-*

*Society-Literature*) with individual competence aims for the different stages of schooling. The interview guide was piloted and minor adjustments made to highlight the themes of the interview and to operationalize certain theoretical terms (i.e., “recipients” and “audience” replaced “interlocutor”).

Each teacher participated in three on-site semi-structured interviews over a three week period, with each interview lasting on average 50 minutes. Data were analyzed between interviews in order to member-check, clarify and expand on responses throughout. Initial meetings established rapport, briefed teachers on the topic of investigation, provided the interview guide, obtained consent and gathered background information. Norwegian was used in all initial meetings, and English or Norwegian was chosen by participants thereafter. Data were transcribed and analyzed in the original language and extracts translated only for the reporting of findings. Minimal modifications were made to original citations to improve readability.

### **Analysis**

Teachers’ interpretations were conceptualized as *frames* understood as the boundaries of meaning employed by a social group when talking about a given object (Fairclough, 2015). A *frame* refers to the mental contours of the topic under discussion or, in this case, the core aims of a school subject. Though *frames* are dynamic and always open to question, critique and change, they provide a glimpse into the contours of teacher thinking (Borg, 2012).

Analysis of interview data proceeded deductively and inductively (see Figure 1 below) and used Nvivo software for most of the analysis. Data was first reduced to data referring only to English as a school subject and the competence to be developed in the subject. Working up from the remaining data, teachers’ descriptions were reformulated into narratives capturing the essence of the core aims and competence to be developed in the subject. The essence of these narratives resulted in the roughly-grained codes: *Learning historical, cultural and societal content knowledge*, *Learning to communicate*, and *Learning the English language*. The raw data was then recoded according to these categories and resulted in the finely-grained categories: *Acquiring knowledge of English-speaking countries*, *Developing communicative ability in English*, *Developing linguistic knowledge of English*, and *Developing the democratic citizen*, with the final category emerging as a distinct category. Modelling of the salience and positioning of the different frames was used to visualize the relationships between them as they emerged in the analysis. The final model was tested against the entire data set (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 196; Maxwell, 2010; Richards, 2009, p. 173). An overview of the analytical process is presented in Figure 1 and the resulting model in Figure 2 in the Discussion section below (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 188).



1. <i>Topical coding</i>	<i>Deductive</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General descriptions of English as a subject</li> <li>• Descriptions of the English competence (oral and written) to be developed in the subject</li> </ul>
2. <i>Teacher narratives to identify the essence of interpretations</i>	<i>Inductive</i>	
3. <i>Analytical coding 1 (roughly-grained categories)</i>	<i>Inductive</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning historical, cultural, and societal content knowledge</li> <li>• Learning to communicate</li> <li>• Learning about the English language</li> </ul>
4. <i>Analytical coding 2 (finely-grained categories)</i>	<i>Inductive</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Acquiring knowledge of English-speaking countries</li> <li>• Developing communicative ability in English</li> <li>• Developing linguistic knowledge of English</li> <li>• Developing the democratic citizen</li> </ul>

**Figure 1** Overview of the analytical process

## Findings

The analysis of data provided rich insight into teachers' understandings of the central aims for the subject. The following section reports on patterns in these interpretations, referred to as *frames* (Fairclough, 2015) .

### **Frame 1: Acquiring Knowledge of English-Speaking Countries**

This frame centered upon the cultural and historical content knowledge of English-speaking countries, primarily of the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States (US). All teachers included the acquisition of this type of knowledge as a main aim of the subject and more often listed it as the first of two main aims. One teacher, Anja, described English as “a culture subject,” focusing on American and British “cultural knowledge in a wide [sense]” and what characterizes the UK, the US, and other countries. This knowledge was described as important for learning about the world, as well as understanding changes within Norway. For example, Mina described learning about the legacy of English in the world, where:

We show them how spread English is [and] what a great influence [the British Empire] has had for every continent in the world...that England has had “a part in the game” in many countries and that the legacy is still there. (my translation)

Mattias, on the other hand, connected the knowledge of English-speaking countries to national heritage, where knowledge about the UK and the US is expected:

You're expected to know [that] Norway has been closely linked to first Britain and then America and why. These are cultural facts, cultural knowledge, common knowledge that you are expected to know.

He also described the importance of studying these countries in order to recognize the Americanization of many aspects of Norwegian culture.

This knowledge was described as central for high-stakes examination, where top marks weighed content knowledge heavily. Teachers described pressure in ensuring that students “know a lot of social science” and have plenty of “background” information to be able to perform well on written exams. For Hanne, this knowledge was relevant for oral examinations as well, where she struggled “to assess how much knowledge the student possesses” and to ensure that each student “show[ed] the most reflection” on this subject matter knowledge.

The ability to learn and express societal, cultural and historical knowledge in and through the English language was seen as a pre-requisite for classroom participation. Sigrid described the classroom as a place where “we only speak English to each other,” a practice described as “completely natural” and what distinguished English from the foreign language classroom. As Unni states, “If you [are] not [able to use English], you can't follow the discussion.” In exploring the role of *language* within this frame, Unni emphasized the history of the English language as it related to the history of England.

## **Frame 2: Developing Communicative Ability in English**

The second frame centered on developing students' ability to understand and communicate in English. This frame, together with Frame 1, was present in all interviews but was slightly less often listed as the first aim of the subject. English was described as a “common” world language and a tool for communication with the world across a range of topics. Here as well, classroom communication in English was expected and considered natural. For Anja, the natural use of English in lessons meant that interaction was less visible and there was “less focus on interaction.” When interaction was emphasized, she explained that language use needed to extend beyond the use of “everyday words.”

Teachers were specifically questioned about *situational context*, as communication presupposes interaction in context. Though teachers talked extensively about communicative language use, *context* was vaguely conceptualized and most often connected to a need to behave formally and use topic-specific vocabulary when talking to teachers or examiners. While teachers described some inclusion of context in task descriptions, these were mostly confined to a description of interlocutors and a need to use formal and correct language. For Silje, however, situated communication consisted of more than just accuracy or formality. She tied it to “cultural competence” and “the layers

between the languages.” She attributed shortcomings in addressing context in teaching to a wider lack of attention to contextual language use in education in general. While she emphasized the importance of adapting language to the situation, she said there was no tradition for approaching Norwegian language use in this way and, as a result, teachers “lack[ed] examples in our mother tongue” to illustrate this in English. Hanne also connected “difference in language use and interacting” to a larger cultural challenge but related these differences to the need to raise awareness of a more informal Norwegian interactive style.

Two different teachers also connected situational and cultural context but placed both outside the scope of the subject. For Tove, adapting language to context is “when you manage to behave adequately [and] do what is expected of you in a given situation”. This ability, however, is described as “not necessarily” requiring much schooling and was placed outside of teaching and learning in the subject. In exploring the global use of English, Anja states:

When I think of “culture” outside of English as a school subject, it is perhaps more about adapting to the context, where you are, or who you are talking to. As English has now become a global language, it is definitely not certain that the same codes apply everywhere. (my translation)

While she recognizes the importance of context and glimpses the importance of cultural mediation in global contexts, she also places this mediation outside of the scope of the subject as well.

Within the subject, *interaction* was described, on the one hand, as the practical communication required “to figure out what to do” (Unni) and, on the other hand, as communication free from and beyond these immediate demands. There was variation in what teachers meant, however. Anja, for example, questioned “everyday interaction”, suggesting it may actually be far more complex and, thus, too “narrow(ly)” conceptualized in school settings. For Karen, interaction “beyond” the everyday meant “to really connect with someone in English,” “to really know that person,” and “to allow someone to trust you,” where cultural knowledge provides the topic for discussion to achieve this. She described classroom interaction as providing the practice necessary for building these trusting relationships, where students get to know each other through sharing opinions in English. For Mattias, however, a different type of interaction was reserved for a special type of student, who:

... wants to achieve more, to be able to communicate in an almost philosophical manner with people from all over the world. They see the world as such as their audience. As someone that they need to speak to.

Finally, for some teachers, the discussion of communicative *roles* of speakers was problematic. Caroline, for example, described occasionally using role play

in class, but that it always felt “so fake,” as “it’s still me listening.” For her, authentic communicative situations in English were “so far away.” Similarly, Mina describes students assuming roles in writing and adapting their English to these roles, but, like Caroline, she refers to these processes as less genuine and “acting in a way.” Hanne, on the other hand, described including speaker/writer roles in task descriptions and student performance in the classroom as positive, challenging a tradition in the subject of “speaking and writing into a great void”.

### **Frame 3: Developing Linguistic Knowledge of English**

The third frame centered upon developing and applying linguistic knowledge of the system of English. Many teachers referred to the linguistic knowledge of English as “the basics” or as instrumental skills and the “technical part of language learning.” Linguistic work was often described as tedious, repetitive and “logical grunt work.” Conversely, a discussion of the awareness of language form and meaning was not present in the data. In exploring this awareness, Hans - who had spoken at length about cause-and-effect relationships in understanding historical content - said the following:

No, I haven’t focused on that [*the effect of linguistic choices on meaning*]. But that is really interesting. I haven’t thought of it.....to equip the students to make independent choices, that is a part of the game and a part of what they should learn. And I see that the strong students, to a much greater degree, are better at these linguistic choices, because they have a more nuanced language. You see they choose a more correct word, so [strong students] separate themselves clearly from [less proficient students] in that they use more correct words in the context. (my translation)

Working with linguistic knowledge of the language - where it was discussed - inspired feelings of frustration or guilt. Silje described work with language as having evolved little since she was in school. She said “anyone can do it.” You “just pick up a book, make copies, [give] instructions and get started.” She found this approach highly unsatisfactory and described her struggles in explaining quality in student texts, especially in cases of high levels of accuracy. She discussed recognizing problems in “the way you phrase things” but felt she lacked examples illustrating how to improve. Karen described struggling with texts that “look Google-translated” and knowing that something “just isn’t right” but being unable to explain it. In considering linguistic knowledge, Mina initially considered this knowing “the rules” but reported discovering later that it was “much more nuanced” than that, though she struggled to formulate the nuance.

The position of linguistic knowledge in the subject was contested. While for Anja language teaching “drip[s] down” or is interspersed in the lessons after the teaching of culture, for Hanne language study was central and required being occasionally “impulsive” in teaching formal aspects of language. Another teacher, Mattias, reported having “a bad conscience about not teaching language

enough,” as students had unacceptable “technical abilities” and continued to produce “systematic mistakes.” He also speculated on changing attitudes towards linguistic knowledge. He suggested that, while in the past theoretical knowledge of language was cultivated in primary school, today it is neither common nor well-developed when students reach lower secondary. He also described a marginalization of language study in the subject, resulting from a belief that “everyone knows English,” that learning it “is straightforward”, and that students are “learning English from everywhere.” He reports on “a sort of [school] philosophy” advocating that students would rather just speak English and “get on with it.” He found that when he made time for language study, however, students enjoyed it. For him, developing linguistic knowledge was important, and perhaps “more useful” for many students than knowing about “the development of nation states.”

#### **Frame 4: Developing the Democratic Citizen**

This frame centered upon a larger, societal concern to develop democratic engagement and the democratic citizen among students. This frame was rarely explicitly formulated and often led to an acknowledgment of developing the democratic citizen as an implicit subject aim. Teachers described subject content as the impetus for the discussion of globally and locally relevant issues. Kjetil described “moral themes” arising from, for example, narratives of racism from English-speaking countries as a means of illustrating “racism in practice”. Anja described the study of events in English-speaking countries as a means to “lift [students’] gaze” and “engage” with larger issues in the world. Unni described the process as:

...to move between the local here in Norway and the local in a specific English-speaking country and the global context. We move back and forth between these three spheres...

Unlike many teachers, Hans was especially concerned with fostering democratic awareness in the subject. He described students’ application of cultural and ethical knowledge to topics of local and global concern. For him, the capacity to reflect and become democratic citizens was the “social responsibility” of all education, including English education. He explained that when students understood what was happening in the English-speaking world, they could reflect on these events and would “conclude that democracy is the best way to organize a society.” For him, this was a “tacit knowledge” and was *not* an aim teachers discussed among themselves or with the students. When two very experienced teachers were asked about democratic awareness, however, both refuted the idea. The first stated that democratic awareness was *not* something she thought about in teaching English, and the second placed democratic awareness far from her sphere of practice. A more recently trained teacher

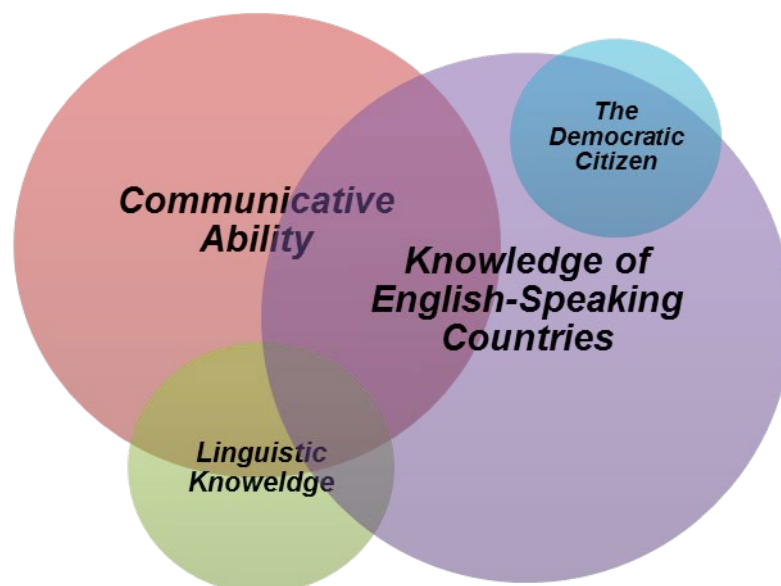
referred to democratic citizenship as “vague” and “political” and not directly applicable or apparent for her teaching in the classroom.

## Discussion

The aim of this article was to investigate teachers’ understandings of the central aims of English as a school subject in basic education. Figure 2 presents a conceptual model of the salience and relationships between the different frames of teachers’ understandings based on the analysis. The acquisition of knowledge of English-speaking countries and the development of communicative ability are the most common, and thus largest, frames in the model. Knowledge of English-speaking countries is foregrounded and slightly larger than communicative ability as this was more often listed as the first of these two aims. The ability to communicate was also seen as prerequisite for acquisition of this knowledge, which explains its overlap and slightly backgrounded position related to knowledge acquisition. Developing the democratic citizen was less often articulated by teachers and thus is small in size. Societal and historical knowledge and not language use was seen as the foundation for developing the democratic citizen in the subject and, therefore, only overlaps this frame.

Developing linguistic knowledge of English was both less frequently described and constructed as a subset of larger primarily communicative aims. For example, when asked to describe targeted competence at the end of lower secondary, one teacher asked “Linguistically or in general – the way it is taught now?” The distinction of linguistic knowledge as less prominent than a general competence is reflected in both the size and backgrounded position of this frame.

Overall, the two most dominant frames targeted students’ natural use of English to learn and communicate cultural knowledge of others and to promote moral responsibility. Developing the democratic citizen was connected to this knowledge but was *not* connected to English as a language of contact and communication with a diversity of world speakers. Instead, contact involved either a) the building of trusting relationships with others as modelled on classroom interaction, or b) philosophical communication with the academic world.



**Figure 2** Conceptual model of teacher understandings of core aims in the subject

### **Strong cultural but weak linguistic orientation**

While teachers' core aims for the subject have a strong cultural orientation focusing on cultural and historical knowledge, linguistic orientation seems neither to be equally important in lower secondary nor well established in primary education. The natural use of English that teachers describe as distinguishing English from other foreign language subjects suggests, as Hult (2012) found in Sweden, that teachers imagine the English classroom as a space to learn more about content and less about language use as influenced by social norms. While metacultural awareness through reflection on cultural and historical knowledge is evident in what teachers describe, this awareness seems influenced by Norwegian history and the belief that English is owned by the nations who speak it. Interestingly, this emphasis cannot be explained by curricular aims, as only three of 30 individual aims relate directly or indirectly to these nations. Instead, findings suggest that these aims are viewed as central for examination and thus drive teachers towards knowledge acquisition. Furthermore, more than half of the teachers in the cohort taught social studies as an additional subject, and some reported that the overlap in content matter between the two subjects was what motivated them to obtain teaching qualifications in English (see Table 1).

Developing linguistic knowledge of English, on the other hand, is described as traditional, unchanged, and marginalized reflecting the changing role of linguistic knowledge in the shift from *foreign language subjects* to *subjects of communication* (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008). Teachers, however, seemed frustrated by classroom practice related to developing linguistic knowledge but were unable to conceptualize the more situated linguistic knowledge required to meet new demands (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008; Rødnes et al., 2014). This is perhaps not surprising, as teachers also generally

struggled to conceptualize contexts of interaction beyond the authentic communication of classroom interaction. Some expressed strong frustration regarding a lack of contextual awareness in using English, while for others, the natural use of English rendered the context invisible. Almost half the teachers in the study found the development of linguistic knowledge or language study inadequate for addressing students' challenges in using English. Therefore, there seems to be a pressing need for a more responsive, situated and pedagogically appropriate linguistic knowledge in teachers' professional understanding. Teachers will require this to be better suited to meet the evolving needs of increasingly diverse contexts of English use and for the use of English as a world language.

However, teachers describe a pervasive ideology that assumes that learning English is unproblematic and requires only extensive exposure to English. This belief resonates with the policy discourse described in Simensen (2005) which equated the process of English language acquisition more closely with that of first language acquisition. It is not my intention to suggest that exposure is not important nor beneficial for learning a first or an additional language. Instead, I would argue that an over-reliance on implicit learning limits students' awareness of English use as the nexus of language, culture, and context in an increasingly complex world, with increasingly complex contexts of interaction. As such, this ideology constrains the instructional space necessary to develop the metalinguistic awareness and mediation skills necessary for international contexts ("Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment Companion Volume with New Descriptors", 2017; Coste & Cavalli, 2015). In moving forward, this ideology needs to be challenged if we are truly to imagine and address a more complex future for the use of English in the world. Without metalinguistic awareness *in addition to* metacultural awareness, communicative competence cannot fully extend to encompass the *symbolic competence* needed to become cultural mediators in an interconnected and global world (Kramsch, 2011).

It is perhaps *symbolic competence* and the integration of metacultural *and* metalinguistic awareness which could potentially further align the aims of the subject with the aims of the Core Curriculum to ensure the active membership of Norway in a highly diverse and interconnected global community (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013). For most of the teachers in this study, these aims were weakly conceptualized, tacit or considered far from the sphere of classroom practice. While teachers refer to encouraging a sense of morality and ethics, there is less evidence of encouraging the necessary cultural *and* linguistic awareness to mediate tension on highly sensitive topics. There is room, therefore, for more contextual awareness and mediation of diversity in Norwegian English classrooms, mediation which is both resonant of European language policy and characteristic of the use of English as a lingua franca (Canagarajah, 2007, 2014; Coste & Cavalli, 2015).



## Institutional practices

Institutional practices in the use of curricular documents do seem to play a role in how teachers process the aims of the subject. For example, while language and the development of a linguistic repertoire *are* included in the description of the main areas of the subject, language and language learning are infrequently mentioned in the individual aims. Within *Language Learning*, for example, individual aims refer to skills, strategies and awareness of contrastive language differences. Moreover, “language” is not specifically used in the individual aims under *Written* or *Oral Communication*. Additionally, individual aims under *Culture, Society and Literature* refer to English-speaking countries and English literature without specific reference to how the language is used (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013). To complicate matters, teachers in this study did not readily refer to either the main areas of the subject curriculum nor to the general objectives. Instead, teachers seem driven by the need to match individual aims with textbook content and to document work with individual aims as part of district policy:

you...have to pick [individual aims]...[and think] “Well, this [textbook] text can that go with that [individual aim] ...So you...mitch-mix and match. (Karen)  
[it all] goes back to the whole documentation demands...they only...seem ...[to be] looking for the [individual] aims you do (Caroline)

Teachers are also driven by the requirements of the exam. As Caroline says above, teachers feel pressured to ensure that students have acquired enough information to do well on the exams. As Anja says, “we shouldn’t hide the fact that it is the exam which determines much of what we do.” Despite exam pressures and the institutional practices described above, teachers *do* seem to strive for a higher understanding of subject aims and for *what* can and should count as knowledge in English as a school subject. For example, two teachers state:

...we all feel that we want ...more time to talk about ... what is *really* important to you when you teach English. What is your *main* focus...but...when we have time to sit down, it’s always something else that needs to be done. We ... need to change our own culture and shar[e] thoughts about learning (Sigrid)

We don’t use [the general objectives of the subject] ...If you had time to discuss the [general objectives], it would be easier to know where you want to go (Caroline)

## The way forward

As Davison (2005) and Rindal (2014) suggest, the subject is more than just learning a language. Instead, teachers’ pedagogical intentions for the subject are infused with the uptake of certain curricular aims in interaction with local norms, values and beliefs of what is important and what is possible. The majority of teachers interviewed in this study seemed interested and motivated

to explore the central aims for the subject, as well as to engage in a dialogue with different institutional stakeholders and different levels of curriculum. Teachers of English are not just teachers of language but are involved in the complex and dynamic interplay of language, culture, identity and context of a world language within their local context. To better support them and to better align teacher understanding and policy intentions, more research is needed which will capture teacher beliefs and how these may or may not dialogue with modern realities, documented policy intentions and classroom practice.

## Conclusion

These findings are based on an in-depth study of teacher understanding of the central goals of English as a school subject in a large school district in Norway. While the findings represent an account of the subject aims for these teachers, they offer neither the *only* nor a *conclusive* account of the understanding for *all* teachers. Instead, they raise important questions for the field of English language education about what it means to teach English as a world language within the local context of schooling. In Norway, the findings of this study are useful for other teachers in similar situations in exploring their own curricular interpretations and how they meet the needs of English as a world language in basic education (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013, English subject curriculum, Purpose; Sandelowski, 2004).

Teacher educators together with policy makers and educational stakeholders need to be sensitive to changing paradigms of language and language use instigated by the spread of English globally. If we are to equip teachers – and as a result 21<sup>st</sup> century learners – with the competence they will require in the future, we must address sociolinguistic perceptions, aspects of English as a lingua franca, and a discussion of what is possible in school settings. To meet future challenges, all educational stakeholders may need to challenge and profoundly rethink commonly-held views of English and English language teaching. As both Orland-Barack et al. (2004) and Sifakis (2017) suggest, only through a dialogue exploring deeper beliefs about language, communication, and the role of the teacher and English as a lingua franca can a new pedagogical content knowledge arise and a transformation of attitudes occur. Without the support and engagement of all stakeholders in bridging these complex realities, teachers may flounder among shifting paradigms, traditions and diverse policy intentions. The process is delicate and requires sensitivity to current practices, as well as to underlying beliefs. To manage meaningful dialogue, however, more research is needed which explores local beliefs and the mediation of traditions of the past with the opportunities of the future.

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## Appendix 1

### General interview guide

#### Formålet med faget / Purpose of the subject:

For deg, hva er hensikten med engelsk språk i det norske samfunnet? Hva skal det brukes til?

For you, what is English in Norwegian society for? What purpose(s) does it serve?

Er engelsk det samme eller forskjellig fra andre språk i Norge (f.eks., norsk, samisk, de andre fremmedspråkene, osv.)?

Is it the same or different from other languages in Norway (i.e., Norwegian, Sami, other foreign languages, etc.)?

Utfra din egen erfaring, hvordan ville du beskrive engelsk *som fag i skolen*?

Based on your own experience, how would you describe English *as a subject in school*?

Hvordan ville du si at engelsk som skolefag møter noen av målene du beskriver for engelsk i det norske samfunnet?

How would you say English as a school subject meets some of the aims you describe for English in Norwegian society?

Kan du si litt om hva slags muntlig kompetanse i engelsk du tror at elevene dine kommer til å ha behov for – både nå og i fremtiden?

Can you say a bit about what type of spoken English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?

Kan du si litt om hva slags skriftlig kompetanse i engelsk du tror at elevene dine kommer til å ha behov for – både nå og i fremtiden?

Can you say a bit about what type of written English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?

Engelsk som skolefag er ofte referert til som både redskapsfag og dannelsesfag.

English as a school subject is often referred to as both a subject to develop instrumental language skills and as a subject for the personal development or growth of the pupil.

- Hvordan forstår du faget i lys av disse begrepene?
- Hvordan balanserer du eller integrerer du disse begrepene i undervisningen din?

- How do you understand the subject in light of both of these two?
- How do you balance or integrate these in your teaching?

#### Global-internasjonalt-local / Global-international-local:

Kan du beskrive noen situasjoner hvor engelsk er brukt aktivt i klasserommet ditt?

Can you describe some of the situations in which English is used actively in your classroom?

Kan du beskrive noen temaer du tar inn i engelsk undervisningen din?

Can you describe some themes you take up in your teaching?

«Internasjonalt» og «global» er ord som ofte brukes i sammenheng med engelskfaget i skolen. Kan du si noe om hvordan «det internasjonale» eller «det globale» er brukt i undervisningen din?

“International” and “global” are words which are often used in connection with English in school. Can you say how “international” or “global” is used in your teaching?

Hvem ville du si er mottagere av dine elevers

Who would you say are the recipients/audiences

skriftlig og muntlig engelsk?

- Ville du ha sagt at dette gjelder spesielt for dine elever, eller er det felles for all engelskundervisning på din skole?
- I din erfaring med andre lærere i (navn) kommune, ville du ha sagt at det er felles for engelskundervisning i kommunen?

for your pupils' spoken and written English?

- Would you say that this is unique for your pupils or similar/same for English lessons at your school?
- In your experience with other teachers in (district name), would you say that this is similar/the same?

### **Identitet / identity:**

Kan du beskrive din rolle som engelsklærer?

Can you describe your role as a teacher of English?

I din erfaring, kan undervisning i engelsk faget bidra til å styrke demokratisk engasjement?

In your experience, can teaching in English as a school subject contribute to strengthening democratic engagement?

- Til medborgerskap?
- Til en slags «co-citizenship”?

- Strengthening citizenship?
- To developing a “co-citizenship”?

### **Vurdering / Assessment:**

Kan du si noe om det som er viktig for deg i vurderingen av elevenes engelskkompetanse?

Can you say something about what for you is important in assessing your pupils' competence in English?

Kan du si litt om hva slags utfordringer du opplever i vurderingsarbeidet i engelsk?

Can you say a bit about what type of challenges you experience in your work with assessment in English?

### **Lokal situasjon // Local situation:**

Kan du si litt om du opplever at andre engelsklærere på din skole har en tilnærmet oppfatning og forståelse av faget som du har?

Can you say a bit about whether other teachers at your school have a similar understanding of the subject as you do?

- Hva med i (navn) kommune generelt?

- What about in (name) municipality in general?

Kan du beskrive hva som hjelper deg eller hindre deg i å nå dine mål som engelsklærer?

Can you describe what helps you or works against you in reaching your aims as an English teacher?





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# Teacher ideologies of English in 21st century Norway and new directions for locally tailored ELT

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## ABSTRACT

English language education is designed to prepare learners for the needs of the world today and in the future. This article explores Norwegian teachers' ideologies of English in society and English in school to consider locally relevant 21st century English language teaching (ELT). Language ideologies construct certain social realities that shape teachers' understanding of English and contextually meaningful ELT.

Data was generated through extensive interviews with 12 teachers in basic education in Norway. Data were inductively analyzed using methods from grounded theory and resulted in a conceptual framework of teacher ideologies. Findings reveal English as a natural, supranational language in modern Norwegian society, but also as personal and threatening. English in school, on the other hand, is *foreign, communicative, historic and cultural, humanistic, for learning interdisciplinary content, and in flux*. The final category explores self-reflexive questions teachers raise about ownership and identity, diversity, digitalization, and global orientation. In considering new directions, findings suggest the need for a metalanguage for English in non-native contexts that better encompasses experiences in an increasingly diverse and interconnected world. A current initiative to support teachers in exploring new and locally appropriate directions in ELT is then recommended.

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## 1. Introduction

English language education is designed to prepare learners for life outside of school, both today and in the future (Hornberger, 2006). In much of the world, environmental changes and advances in technology are reshaping life and social interaction. These changes potentially disrupt living standards and human welfare, as recently witnessed during the COVID-19 pandemic. Addressing disruptions successfully requires the ability to establish shared understanding and coordinate multiple stakeholders (Schwab, 2016, 2017). Given the global position of English, teachers are uniquely positioned to equip future generations with *21st century readiness* as reality-oriented, problem-solving global citizens able to interact in English with multiple stakeholders on complex issues (Fullan, Quinn, & McEachen, 2018). In Europe, readiness through *key competencies* for active citizenship, social inclusion, personal fulfilment and employability are intended to provide stability in transformative and potentially turbulent times (European Communities, 2007; OECD, 2018). Developing this readiness presents teachers with a wide and complex landscape for teaching English in school.

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This article reports on teacher ideologies of English as part of a larger project investigating teachers' vision for 21st century English language teaching (ELT). Teachers' ideologies are investigated as an "epistemic matrix" (Seargeant, 2008, p. 123) for understanding the teaching of English in school and asks:

- What ideologies characterize teachers' conceptions of *English in society* and *English in school*?

Findings derive from a Norwegian context but, like all ideologies, are connected to larger discourses relevant to other contexts (Bernstein, 2000; Fairclough, 2010, 2015). Alignments and gaps in findings for English ideologies in society and school are discussed and new directions and transformative spaces in teacher thinking for locally relevant ELT considered. Finally, a current initiative supporting teachers in adopting new directions is outlined.

## 2. Ideologies of the English and ELT

Language ideologies are situated conceptions and underlying thoughts about the use of a language in the social world and are constructed from sociocultural experience (Kroskrity, 2004, p. 498). These conceptions may be explicit or implicit in the communicative practices of a community of speakers. Language ideologies are dynamic, incomplete and often only partially account for the use of a language. They construct certain assumptions and social realities for locally relevant meanings of English (Fairclough, 2015; Snow, 2008). As such, they are fertile ground for exploring variation and problematizing beliefs. Discourses and the ideologies they embed can and often do incorporate political, cultural or economic perspectives beyond the language itself, i.e. English is globalization, English is human capital, etc. (Pennycook, 2007, 2010). In non-native English-speaking contexts, ideologies of English may, for example, be viewed as *foreignness*, *global community*, *functional communication*, *employability*, *an instrument of learning*, *a form of identity expression*, etc.

Block (1996) was the first to challenge a *foreign language* ideology in applied linguistics that influenced ELT and promoted the native speakers of the United Kingdom and North America. This ideology conceives English as the ethnically unified language of these nations and as a means of accessing the knowledge of the West. The relevance of *foreign language* ideology for non-native English-speaking contexts has been increasingly questioned (Holliday, 2006; Pennycook, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019). Despite policy shifts away from *foreign language* ideology, however, teachers may still view English as a "living artefact" and a "heuristic tool" for accessing foreign culture(s) (Seargeant, 2008).

Research in English as a lingua franca (ELF) (Seidlhofer, 2011; Sifakis, 2017), English as an International Language (EIL) (Pan, 2011; Pan & Block, 2011) and World Englishes (WE) (Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2014; Rosenhan & Galloway, 2019) reflects an increasingly globally oriented approach to English that acknowledges the plurality and diversity of Englishes in the world. Central to this approach is: a) understanding English as emerging in the interactions of different speakers and the cultural references they apply, b) expanding the range of interlocutors in ELT practices, and c) raising sensitivity, awareness and respect for diversity in the English(es) that are taught or used (Matsuda, 2018; Sifakis, 2017; Sifakis & Tsantila, 2019). Research reveals, however, that tensions may exist between teachers' openness to diversity and restrictions in standardized assessments (Ranta, 2010) or, conversely, between policy intentions promoting diversity and restrictions in teachers' ideological positions (Pan & Block, 2011).

In Europe, a Content Language and Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach presents English as *both* an instructional language for content learning *and* the object to be learned (Coyle, 2007; Mahan, Brevik, & Ødegaard, 2018). The balance of content and language may vary, from *importing topics from other subjects into English* to *teaching other subjects through English*. In the latter, characterizing English becomes difficult, as the traditions and practices of the subject influence beliefs and conceptions of English (van Kampen, Admiraal, & Berry, 2018). To address this tension, a *language across the curriculum* stance acknowledging the need for literacy and oracy in all subjects has often been adopted. English is seen as: a) *of learning* to acquire basic English concepts related to a topic, b) *for learning* focusing on English language needs in relation to learning demand, and c) *through learning*, targeting deeper learning through dialogic teaching in English (Coyle, 2007). This view is seen as aligned with European policy for lifelong learning and developing key competencies for cultural awareness, citizenship and global understanding (Coyle, 2007). Research reveals tensions here as well, where an ideology of English as a norm-free language of instruction and learning in teacher beliefs contrasts with the construction of English as a transcultural local language in educational policy (Hult, 2012, 2018).

While CLIL emphasizes diversity in content and subject traditions, multilingual perspectives view English as part of a diverse ecology of languages that exist and influence one another. English becomes recognizable through multiple interpretations, performances and "acts of identity ... in a constant process of semiotic reconstruction" (Pennycook, 2007, p. 112) and as the site of new communities of identity and association independent of native-speaking cores (Seidlhofer, 2011). English is thus not additive or separate from learners but part of learners' evolving *symbolic competence* that channels the meaning-making potential of English for self-determined and contextually sensitive expression (Kramersch, 2009, 2011). English is conceived as one of many semiotic resources in the multilingual repertoire for enacting situated meaning, communication and identity.

### 3. 21st century ELT

Dynamic ideologies of English and potential tensions reflect some of the complexity of English language teaching in the 21st century. Even the naming of “English” as a subject in school is problematized as possibly adhering more to academic traditions and a need for transparency than the shift to a transdisciplinary subject of communication (Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008; Leung & Valdés, 2019). The widening of the subject discipline, as well as the range of instructional contexts, has ushered in a post-methods era of ELT that requires teachers to continually conceptualize and construct experience, knowledge and beliefs to provide locally relevant ELT (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006).

Heightened contextual awareness is highlighted in the transdisciplinary framework of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) presented by the Douglas Fir Group (2016). The framework incorporates and emphasizes the interconnection of micro levels of action and interaction, meso levels of sociocultural institutions and macro levels of ideological structures in the teaching and learning of English. Sensitivity to micro, meso, and macro levels necessitates a deconstruction of what “English” means to stakeholders and entails a reflexive dialogue about deeply held beliefs of English, language and communication in local contexts (Pennycook, 2010; Sifakis, 2017). The aim of this article is to deconstruct teachers’ beliefs and conceptions of English as experienced in society and in school, as a means of revealing relevant ideologies in teachers’ communicative practices and providing locally meaningful ELT in a non-native English-speaking context.

### 4. Method

The aim of this article is to explore Norwegian teachers’ deeper conceptions about English *in society* and English *in school*. To do so, a qualitative, grounded theory approach was taken to generate and inductively analyze data (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Through this approach, a conceptual framework of key patterns in teacher thinking emerged. Participants were teachers of English in basic education (grades 8 through 10) in a large urban school district in Norway. This section provides information about the local context, as well as the specifics of the research design.

#### 4.1. Norwegian context

English language education in Norway balances an understanding of English *as a tool for communication* and English *for forming the individual in interaction with the external world* (Fenner & Skulstad, 2018). The latter is grounded in a central and northern European pedagogical tradition, *Didaktik*, that emphasizes learning in interaction with the world (Hudson, 2002). Despite a long foreign language tradition for English education (Simensen, 1999), in the early 2000s, learning English increasingly came to be viewed as resembling first language (L1) learning and as L2 learning in school (Simensen, 2003, 2005). Research suggests that, despite a predominantly functional view of English, tensions exist among: a) English for developing literacy (Hellekjær, 2008) and learning content (Mahan, 2020; Mahan et al., 2018), b) English for more situated use (Chvala, 2012, Chvala, 2018; Rødnes, Hellekjær, & Vold, 2014), and c) English as a lingua franca (ELF) as a less legitimate and “hybrid” form (Hild, 2018). An exploration of learners’ sociolinguistic practices in school have revealed underlying ideological tensions and exposed the need for more research on the meaning of “English” in a Norwegian school context (Rindal, 2014).

In 2020, a new English curriculum will be introduced that emphasizes language development and the fostering of *Life Skills* and *Democracy and Citizenship*. While *Life Skills* entails learners’ ability to express emotions, thoughts, experiences and opinions in English, *Democracy and Citizenship* refers to learners’ awareness of culturally influenced world views (*Fremtidens skole: Fornyelse av fag og kompetanser*, 2015; *Kunnskapsløftet*, 2020; *Overordnet del – verdier og prinsipper for grunnopplæringen* 2017). The development of English, *Life Skills* and *Democracy and Citizenship* are intended to equip learners to interact with a wide range of multilingual speakers in global communication and to encourage curiosity and tolerance of different worldviews. While *Life Skills* indexes learners’ semiotic expression, *Democracy and Citizenship* introduces a more political ideology (Fenner & Skulstad, 2018). Societal attitudes towards English in Norway fluctuate, and in a study of Norwegian media, Graedler (2014) revealed a construction of invasive and threatening English at war with the national language. Against this backdrop, the shift to a more political ideology for English in school may challenge attitudes many teachers may hold for English outside of school.

#### 4.2. Participants

To investigate teachers’ ideologies of English, twelve teachers from six lower secondary schools (grades 8 through 10) were interviewed. Schools were first purposively sampled, and then teachers selected from these schools (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Patton, 2002). Schools were selected using criteria of low, average to high multilingualism and socioeconomic profile within the district (Deloitte AS, 2014; Ljunggren, Toft, & Flemmen, 2017). Teachers were selected from schools based on willingness and English teaching experience. In the final cohort, English-teaching experience ranged from a few months to over 30 years. Schools and teacher identities were anonymized using codes and pseudonyms.

Teachers at lower secondary in Norway are classified as *semi-specialist subject teachers* and teach more than just English in school (*Levels of Autonomy and Responsibilities of Teachers in Europe*, 2008). They hold at least a bachelor’s degree with specialization in two or three subjects or in general pedagogy. For an overview of schools, participants and subjects taught, see Appendix A.

### 4.3. Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used to generate interview data. A challenge in using semi-structured interviews to elicit tacit thinking is the difficulty participants may experience in articulating abstract ideas without immediate reference (Borg, 2015). To reduce this challenge, the interview guide used familiar wording and expressions from the curriculum and categorized open-ended questions under familiar themes (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Classroom practice was also used as a point of reference. The interview guide is presented in Appendix B.

To allow for in-depth exploration, clarification and member-checking, each participant was interviewed three times over a period of ca. three weeks. The researcher generated notes and memos immediately after and between interviews to ensure in-depth exploration of participants' thinking. Interviews were conducted in Norwegian and/or English based on participant preferences. Each interview lasted ca. 50 min and was conducted at the local school. Data were transcribed and analyzed in the original language and translated by the author for the reporting of findings. The interview cycle is illustrated in Fig. 1.

### 4.4. Analysis

To deconstruct the data into ideological patterns, systematic and iterative coding together with constant comparison moved the analysis from descriptive to conceptual categories using NVivo software (Holton, 2007) (see Fig. 2). Open coding reduced data to utterances about *English for non-native speakers*. Key words included "English", "competence", "global", "international", "world", "citizenship", and "democracy". Axial coding analyzed the data around two primary phenomena *English in society* and *English in school* and provided the primary categories for selective coding determining the finely-grained categories emerging in the conceptual framework (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018; Holton, 2007).

Selective coding yielded two core categories for *English in society* and six for *English in school* with a final category, *English in flux*, encompassing shifting orientations for English in school. The sampling and interviewing of participants was discontinued at 12 teachers, when new data no longer added to emerging patterns. To enhance the internal validity of categories, researchers in general pedagogy were involved in the axial phase of coding and researchers in ELT in the selective phase. Finally, finely-grained categories were checked against the entire data set (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018, p. 481).

## 5. Teachers' ideologies of English

The aim of this article was to explore teachers' ideologies of English in considering locally relevant 21st century ELT. The ideological categories that emerged from the analysis are represented in Fig. 2 and cut across the thinking of individual teachers. They are presented in neither ascending nor descending order. Each category is described and illustrated with interview data where appropriate below.

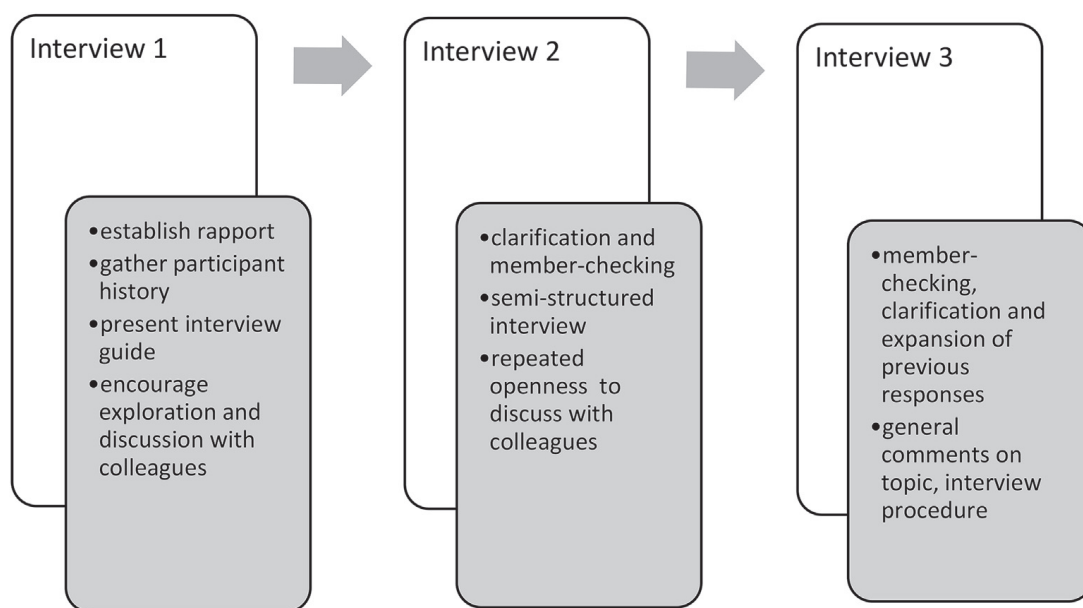


Fig. 1. Interview process for each participant.

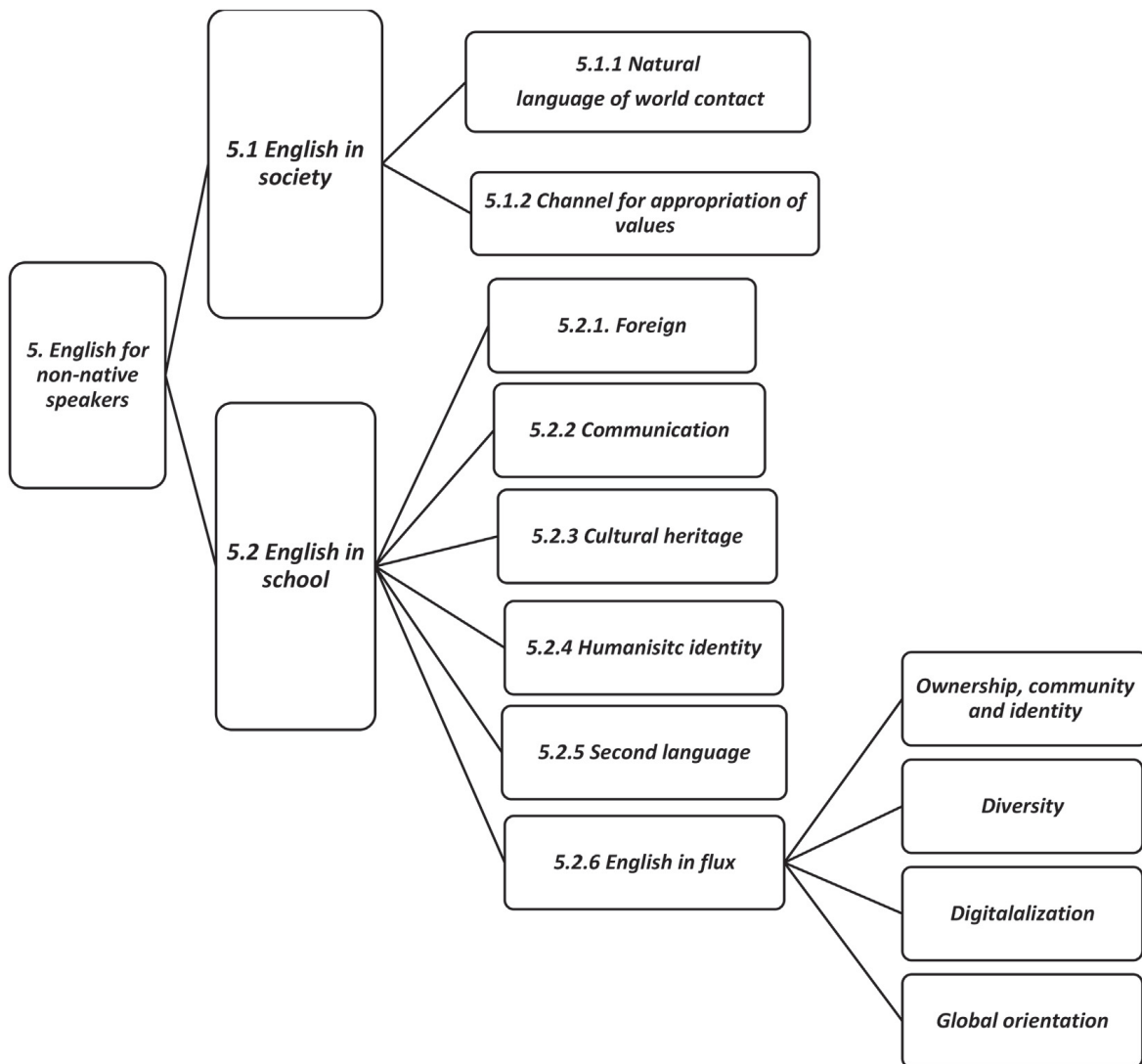


Fig. 2. Analytical process and conceptual model.

### 5.1. English in society

For teachers, English is a natural and beneficial language in modern society, but it is also personal and threatening. While positive conceptions relate to technological and economic contact with an external world, the spread of English locally and its presence in the individual psyche is problematic.

#### 5.1.1. English as a natural language of world contact

Teachers describe English as integral to globalization, where the far North is no longer isolated and requires English for world contact. Increasingly, this shifts orientation “away from the local and the national to the global society” (Una). English is viewed by teachers as a natural channel of economic and technological contact, but less frequently of political contact. English as a language of migration to Norway is rarely mentioned, with only one reference to English as an initial “door opener” for recent immigrants (Mina).

Teachers refer to an explicit and implicit status for English as an “official [and] non-official language” (Una). It is also referred to as a “metalanguage” (Hanne) transcending the scope of the national language. This is considered unproblematic, as it resonates with a maritime history requiring an economic lingua franca (Mattias). Teachers depict a view of English that considers advanced English ability “completely normal” (Sandra) and a unifying trait for “citizen[s] in a modern society” (Mina).

#### 5.1.2. English as channel for appropriation of values

In contrast, they describe English as a language that alters daily life and “bombards” (Mina) and “permeates” (Knut) people’s lives. American English, in particular, is the agent of this infiltration, as it “wash[es] over us” (Hans) and “we are sucked up into something [larger]” (Hanne), occasionally adopting attitudes and values “we never thought would come here”

(Hanne). They also describe English concepts as infiltrating Norwegian and making knowledge of these concepts necessary to understand developments in local society.

## 5.2. English in school

Conversely, teachers emphasize the “eclectic” (Karen) nature of English in school. Balancing different ideas of English – compounded by disparities in student proficiency - creates a “schizophrenic” situation for English in the classroom (Mattias), where English is *foreign, communicative, historic and cultural, humanistic and a language for learning interdisciplinary content*. They describe navigating this complex ideological landscape, while grappling with learner diversity, digitalization, enhanced global orientation, and questions of ownership and identity.

### 5.2.1. English is foreign

English as *foreign* is described as the rules-based knowledge of native speakers in the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States (US). This knowledge is no longer viewed as common, and its prioritization varies among teachers. While teaching rules is considered “tedious” and “boring” (Marcus), knowledge of rules is considered necessary for top marks on final examinations. Learners are expected to choose a British or American accent and to achieve pronunciation acceptable to the native-speaking “ear” (Mina) and uncharacterized by the L1, unless they can show a special relationship to another English-speaking country. Unlike foreign languages, English is less likely to focus explicitly on listening or strategic interaction with imagined interlocutors.

The comparison of daily life, culture, and history primarily between the UK or the US and Norway is emphasized. There is little room for experiences outside English-speaking countries, though these experiences are acknowledged as pedagogically beneficial. Learner awareness of the UK and the US is considered central, as these are the countries “you are supposed to deal with” (Mattias). Language is considered key to understanding these cultures, and non-native teachers are not considered the “bearer(s) of the culture” (Anja) but responsible for familiarizing learners with these cultures through factual and fictional texts.

### 5.2.2. English is communication

English as *communication* is framed as a functional, working language and tool to communicate globally. For experienced teachers, this is the unchanged foundation of English in school. English as communication means transmitting messages to native, as well as non-native, speakers in physical and digital interactions in the world and not just with foreigners in Norway. “Norwenglish” is more acceptable but leaves teachers feeling ill-equipped to recognize “good English” (Knut) and suspecting that levels of formality are perhaps more important in standardized assessments than successful communication.

Priority is given first to being understood and then to adapting English to context, but teachers describe lacking a metalanguage for situated use. Instead, they report “we don’t speak about Norwegian [language] that way” and thus “lack examples from our mother tongue to talk about it” (Sandra).

### 5.2.3. English is cultural heritage

English as *cultural heritage* refers to the historical and cultural legacy of the British Empire for understanding the global position of English today. Connections are drawn between the past and present to understand “what you read and hear in society” (Mina) about the United Kingdom and United States today. From this perspective, teaching is along “the same lines” (Sandra) as teaching a history lesson, where learners may identify an English lesson as “[a] social studies [lesson]” (Silje). Cultural heritage is considered “knowledge you ought to have” (Mattias) and knowledge that some teachers may prioritize over the details of learning the language.

### 5.2.4. English is humanistic identity

Teachers also describe English as developing *humanistic identity* through the consideration of right and wrong. Topics are used to highlight connections between actions, consequences and ethics (Mina) and to strengthen learners’ sense of democracy and morality (Knut). Working with content from other contexts fosters learners’ feelings of being “related ... [and able to] relate to other cultures and peoples” (Caroline) and learners’ awareness of “our [human] history” (Anja).

Topics may include injustice and human rights violations; physical and mental health; lifestyle choices and consumerism; pollution; migration; and poverty. While other school subjects include these topics, teachers describe English as introducing humanistic ideologies “in practice” (Knut) where learners should support the attitudes of the hero, apply these to their own lives and use English to illustrate these attitudes in their thinking. These attitudes prepare learners as future members of society with “certain responsibilities and obligations” (Hans) in an increasingly more diverse society. There is tension between the assumption of a vast multicultural world as “a given in English” (Anja) and English as “a comparison with American and British democracies” (Knut). For teachers, humanism and democracy represent a central educational ideology, as well as an aspect of their own identity that “permeate[s] most of what I do” and “[has] more to do with me as a person than with English” (Tina).

### 5.2.5. English is a second language

Teachers describe English as a *second language (L2)* existing in parallel with the first language (L1). Learners are exposed to English from the first year of schooling and gradually learn to express knowledge across many school subjects in English.



English is the “natural” (Sandra) instructional language of the classroom, and L1 instruction “paves the way” (Hanne) for literacy development in English. Developing conceptual language to illustrate cultural knowledge, explain complex phenomena and differing perspectives, and present nuanced opinions is central. Proficiency ranges from high with the ability to discuss cause-and-effect relationships to low with the ability to answer questions about immediate surroundings.

The focus on content literacy distinguishes English from *foreign* languages (Una). L2 literacy nears L1 literacy for subjects like social studies, religion and ethics, and Norwegian, where interlocutors are implicit, learners write “for themselves” (Karen), and produce English into “a great nothingness” (Hanne). Highly proficient learners write for an academic audience and “have read enough to know ... how they’re supposed to appear [and how] to communicate in an almost philosophical manner with people from all over the world” (Mattias).

### 5.2.6. English is in flux

Teachers pose certain self-reflexive questions about emerging ideas of *ownership, community and identity; diversity; digitalization* and *global orientation*. Teachers speculate who – if anyone – “owns English” (Anja) and how teachers and learners might be part of a global community of English speakers. Instructional materials are presented as lacking support for connecting with multilingual others but including cultural practices from non-English-speaking contexts (i.e., Diwali or Ramadan). Learners question the legitimacy of this inclusion though. Teachers report “know[ing] way too little about this” (Hans) but speculate that “it is probably connected to identity” (Hans) and report a lack of knowledge of “these 1970s [political] things” (Hans). While they express openness to diversity, they report a lack of critical perspectives of the “white” (Karen) or “classic Norwegian element” (Mattias) of local ELT centering on “the Western World” (Karen). Resistance to this may appear in learners’ anti-American attitudes, despite these same learners’ acknowledgement of the usefulness of English (Tina). Teachers describe this as difficult, as little challenges existing attitudes.

Additionally, the pervasiveness of learners’ personal and social engagement in the digital world reduces distances and heightens global contact. Digital interaction is only occasionally described as integrated into teaching. Teachers may include different accents in teaching (Mina) but suggest that English may actually be more about “adapting to the context and who you are talking to” (Anja). This presents new challenges, as “it’s not certain the same codes apply everywhere” or “whose culture counts” (Anja). In order “to be fair” (Anja), they suggest that ELT may need to extend beyond the “crescent moon” (Karen) of Great Britain and North America. Experience with mobility may require teachers to reconsider “English”. As one teacher suggests, in her interaction with immigrants, English acts as “our mother tongue defined ... by [our] relation[ship]” (Silje). New varieties also present teachers with challenges requiring “you to switch your ear” (Caroline) in teaching and assessment. They experience a lack of support in both regards.

## 6. New directions for locally relevant ELT

This article explores teachers’ ideologies of - and deeper beliefs about – English. Findings above reveal a complex matrix for contextually relevant ELT. This section explores the interface of teachers’ ideologies of *English in society* and *English in school* and highlights alignment and gaps, as well as new directions, for locally meaningful ELT. The discussion resonates both with post-methods and transdisciplinary ELT (Douglas Fir Group, 2016; Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006; Leung & Valdés, 2019) and with local *Didaktik* for education in interaction with the world (Hudson, 2002). Table 1 presents findings and alignments between English in society and school, identifies gaps in the discourse and presents possible new directions.

### 6.1. Need for metalanguage

Though teachers conceive English as a natural channel of communication in modern society and as a functional language of communication in school, they are less likely to acknowledge themselves or learners as members of newer, expanding communities of English users (Matsuda, 2018; Pennycook, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019; Sifakis, 2017). Teachers *do* identify the need for a metalanguage that better conceptualizes situated interaction and the role English plays in identity formation (Pennycook, 2010), suggesting a move towards a more global-oriented, multilingual approach to English and to ELT. The absence of a metalanguage to conceptualize these experiences may cause teachers to fumble, creating space for familiar foreign language ideologies and native speaker orientations (Block, 1996; Holliday, 2006). Assessments emphasizing native speaker accuracy and textbooks promoting native speaking contexts may leave teachers feeling “that we had moved further away from that focus [but] I feel ... I’m being pulled back” (Silje). This supports Ranta (2010) that found teachers may be limited by the ideologies of other stakeholders despite an openness to diversity. Openness may also be restricted by views of English as a *lingua franca* as less legitimate in school (Hild, 2018).

Findings suggest the need for raised awareness of sociolinguistic realities (Rindal, 2014; Sifakis, 2017) and the inclusion of critical perspectives to address issues of power and identity in moving Norwegian ELT into a more political ideology (Fenner & Skulstad, 2018). This may be challenging, as findings suggest English is shaped as aggressive in identity formation outside of school. This becomes even more delicate in the sphere of increasing diversity of Englishes and learners in school and a raised critical awareness of a white, Western conception of legitimate speakers in ELT.

**Table 1**  
Alignment and gaps and new directions for locally relevant ELT.

<i>English in society</i>	<i>English in school</i>	Alignment	New directions
Natural channel of economic and technological ( <i>but not political or migratory</i> ) contact	Functional tool for world communication Foreign, rules-based language owned by native speakers for communication with native speakers	Functional language of communication	<i>Awareness of:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• new communities of interlocutors and Englishes</li> <li>• power and ownership,</li> <li>• digital environments,</li> <li>• situated use and metalanguage for this use</li> </ul>
English that alters lives and facilitates the appropriation of non-local attitudes	Cultural heritage	Historical positioning of English and learners	<i>Critical perspectives and metalanguage for understanding the spread of culture and expression of local identity</i>
	Humanistic identity	Expanded human history but still constrained by FL traditions	<i>More inclusion of multicultural and multilingual identity, experiences and perspectives</i>
	L2 literacy and conceptual language	Recognizes need for conceptual language for complex challenges in school <i>but not in society</i>	<i>Conceptual language promotes shared understanding</i> <i>Lack of a political ideology for English in society may constrain mediation of a variety of world views</i>

## 6.2. Towards more inclusive ELT

While cultural heritage positions learners historically and humanist ideology considers ethics in human history, there is a gap in relating to modern diversity and multiple world views. This concerns including diverse student populations, as well as understanding how English impacts local culture and is impacted by local speakers for their own ends (Kramsch, 2009, 2011). Teachers acknowledge this gap, citing that they are “on thin ice” (Hans) when discussing these issues. Lacking critical perspectives to address these realities allows space for foreign language ideologies of ELT to undermine and marginalize certain learners, intentionally or not (Fairclough, 2015).

The promotion of humanistic morality and democratic inclusion that teachers clearly tied to their professional identity could be a useful starting point for widening perceptions. As professional identity is closely tied to personal identity, this requires extreme sensitivity. Though critical perspectives may resonate positively with teachers’ experiences of and openness to diversity and better equip them to address multicultural and multilingual practices, they may and most likely will also challenge teachers’ identity.

## 6.3. Towards more situated interaction on complex global issues

Developing English oracy and literacy around complex global issues and diverse views is positive in shaping 21st century citizens (Fullan, Quinn, & McEachen, 2018). While a CLIL approach promotes conceptual language (Coyle, 2007; Mahan et al., 2018), it is less likely to consider interaction or mediation with a wide range of world views or interlocutors. Instead, disciplinary practices and decontextualized English seem to be underscored in teacher thinking (van Kampen et al., 2018) A challenge moving forward is reconciling conceptual and decontextualized use of English with contextualized use of English with a diversity of interlocutors. This tension is suggested across scales of policy interaction in different contexts (Hult, 2012, 2018; Pan & Block, 2011; Seargeant, 2008).

Adjusting directions and filling gaps for locally relevant 21st century ELT is a complex endeavor and not easily addressed or resolved. Metalanguage for contextualized use, expanding notions of human histories, and critical perspectives can provide new directions for transformation rooted in teachers’ ideologies, identities and self-reported needs. This is perhaps the most central and significant finding and implicates not just teacher ideologies, but those of other stakeholders and larger ideologies. It provides useful feedback for teacher educators, testing professionals, materials developers, policy makers, researchers and other stakeholders. While the teachers in this study were positively engaged and willing to explore English and ELT, they struggled at times to formulate conceptions of English that reconciled English in society and English in school. Many showed a willingness to continue this exploration and to find ways to express this in a meaningful way as an integral part of their profession. Understanding teachers’ experiences and professional knowledge and beliefs about English should be, not only part of facilitating 21st century English education, but also an integral part of 21st century English teacher education.

## 7. Conclusion

This article has explored alignment, gaps and new directions in ELT in Norwegian teachers’ conceptions of English in society and English in school. The study explores the thinking of a limited number of teachers but explores these beliefs in-

depth, revealing a complex microcosm of ideologies and epistemologies guiding the practices of local ELT. Findings reveal the need for metalanguage and critical perspectives of English and English language education that can account for the past and for modern experiences, as well as imagine future needs (Hornberger, 2006). The analytical framework used to deconstruct language ideologies is a significant contribution for researchers interested in similar questions. Transforming deeper understandings of English requires long-term support and long-term initiatives. A current initiative providing that support is the continuing professional development (CPD) project *English as a lingua franca practices for inclusive multilingual classrooms*<sup>1</sup> (ENRICH: <http://enrichproject.eu/>). ENRICH strives to develop free online professional development offering teachers opportunities to explore “English” in the local context in interaction with teachers from a wide range of other contexts. The goal is to support teachers in moving ELT forward in locally meaningful and inclusive ways and in alignment with local realities for ELT in the 21st century.

### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Lynell Chvala:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Writing - review & editing, Visualization, Investigation.

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### Appendix C. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102327>.

### Appendix A

*Overview of schools, teachers, teaching experience and other subjects*

School	Teacher	Years teaching English	Subjects in addition to English
<b>School 6</b>	<b>Una</b>	<1	Social studies and FL
Low multilingualism	<b>Karen</b>	2.5	Social studies and Norwegian
<b>School 3</b>	<b>Anja</b>	10	Foreign language, Religion-Philosophies of Life-Ethics (RLE), and social studies
Low multilingualism	<b>Sandra</b>	16	Foreign language
<b>School 1</b>	<b>Silje</b>	7	Music
Average multilingualism	<b>Caroline</b>	5	Social studies, and RLE
<b>School 5</b>	<b>Hanne</b>	27	RLE and support teacher in Norwegian
Average multilingualism	<b>Knut</b>	31	Social studies and support teacher in Norwegian.
<b>School 4</b>	<b>Tina</b>	28	Social studies
High multilingualism	<b>Mattias</b>	11	RLE and social studies
<b>School 2</b>	<b>Mina</b>	7	RLE
High multilingualism	<b>Hans</b>	5	Social studies and Norwegian

### Appendix B

*Interview guide*

Negotiating the global and the local: language policy as understood by lower-secondary teachers

Purpose.

- For you, what is English in Norwegian society for? What purpose does it serve?
- Is it the same or different from other languages in Norway (i.e., Norwegian, Sami, other foreign languages, etc.)?
- Based on your own experience, how would you describe English as a subject in school?
- How would you say English as a school subject meets some of the aims you describe for English in Norwegian society?

<sup>1</sup> ‘English as a Lingua Franca Practices for Inclusive Multilingual Classrooms (ENRICH)’ (2018–2021) Erasmus+, Cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices, Strategic Partnerships for school education, KA2, European Lifelong Learning Programmes, 2018-1-EL01-KA201-047894 <http://enrichproject.eu/>.

- Can you say a little bit about what type of spoken English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?
- Can you say a little bit about what type of written English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?
- English as a school subject is often referred to as both a subject to develop instrumental language skills and a subject for the personal development or growth of the pupil. How do you understand the subject in light of both of these two? How do you balance or integrate these in your teaching?

#### Global/international/local

- Can you describe some of the situations in which English is actively used in your classroom?
- Can you describe some of the themes you take up in your teaching?
- “International” and “global” are words that are often used in connection with English in school. Can you say how “international” or “global” is used in your teaching?
- Who would you say are the recipients/audiences for your pupils’ spoken and written English? Would you say this is unique for your pupils or similar/the same for all English lessons at your school? In your experience with other teachers in this school district, would you say this is similar/the same?

#### Identity

- Can you describe your role as a teacher?
- In your experience, can teaching in English as a school subject contribute to strengthening democratic engagement? Strengthening citizenship? Lead to developing co-citizenship?

#### Assessment

- Can you say something about what, for you, is important in assessing your pupils’ competence in English?
- Can you say a bit about what type of challenges you experience in your work with assessment in English?

#### Local situation

- Can you say a bit about whether other teachers at your school have a similar understanding of the subject as you do? What about in the school district in general?
- Can you describe what helps you or works against you in reaching your aims as an English teacher?

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### **Article 3:**

Chvala, L. Teacher conceptualizations of learning English in school – Expanding spaces for global English, imagined worlds and global mindsets.

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## **Teacher conceptualizations of learning English in school – Expanding spaces for global English, imagined worlds and global mindsets**

### **ABSTRACT**

Globalization has changed the conditions for learning English and necessitated “flexible” pedagogies capable of responding to local ecologies as well as expanding global mindedness. This article examines teacher conceptualizations learning processes in English in basic education in Norway. It considers how conceptualizations traverse shifting representations of the English language, real and imagined worlds, and identity mediation in an increasingly interconnected world.

Data consist of 36 interviews with 12 teachers of English in grades 8 through 10 in a large school district in Norway. Qualitative analysis revealed teacher conceptualizations of learning that build on functional language use and foreground the learning of content and fostering of cultural heritage while gradually expanding speaker identities and imagined worlds through negotiation with learners. At the outmost reaches of basic education, lies cultural sensitivity for global interaction and citizenship and then only for the few. While teachers’ discursive constructions of learning English in basic education emphasize speaking, everyday experience, and mediating identity and imagined worlds, these ideas also challenge teachers’ identity and problematizes the teaching and learning of English detached from the cultural anchor of native speakers. Learning English in basic education for interaction with a wide range of global speakers is described as stress-inducing, far removed from everyday school life, and too abstract and academic for daily life and learning in school. The article concludes with recommendations that can support teachers in sensitively addressing and overcoming these challenges in basic education.

**KEYWORDS:** teaching and learning English; English as a lingua franca; ELF-awareness, identity, imagined worlds

## **INTRODUCTION**

Globalization has changed the conditions for teaching and learning English in a world where everyone is a world citizen (De Costa, 2016) and where global English speakers interact in “the act of meaning-making” (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 49). While developing global mindset in learning English have been in focus in higher education (Fang & Baker, 2018; Pais & Costa, 2020), less research has been done on a global mindset in English learning in basic education in school. Some studies have explore a global mindset in English education policy and what this could mean for English teaching in school (Calle Díaz, 2017; Suzuki, 2020). In Norway, English has the status of a first “foreign language” but is defined as a “world” language in educational policy. This possible crossovers or discrepancies creates significant room for fluctuating interpretations of what learning English in school can or should be (Cavalheiro, 2018, p. 89). This article explores teacher perceptions of learning English in as key stakeholders mediating the “foreignness” or “globalness” of English in school.

While research on epistemological frameworks of learning English in school exist in first language contexts (Christie & Macken-Horarik, 2011; Macken-Horarik, 2014; Maton, 2009), this is fairly recent in “foreign” language contexts. In the Nordic countries, research has been done investigating sociolinguistic practices of English in school considering constructions of English in educational policy and teacher education in Sweden and Norway (Hult, 2012, 2018; Simensen, 2014; Surkalovic, 2014), on teacher ideologies of English in society and school (Author, 2020), on learner attitudes towards English (Rindal, 2014), and on multilingual practices in the English classroom (Flognfeldt et al., 2020) and (Rodrick Beiler & DeWilde, 2020). How teachers conceive learning English more generally across foreign language traditions and evolving global orientations has yet to be studied.

This article investigates teacher conceptions of learning English in school and the underlying epistemologies for learning in the classroom. These epistemologies are considered through a transnational lens and through the lens of learner identity. The implications of teacher conceptions are discussed and recommendations are made for supporting teachers in continuing to further explore and integrate global perspectives in English learning in school in ways that are locally relevant and meaningful.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **English as local and global**

In non-English speaking school contexts, English has traditionally been considered a foreign language where teaching and learning have relied on native-speaker standards of accuracy and appropriacy. The “E” in English has represented native-speakers and their nations (Kachru, 1997; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019, p. 26). Heightened mobility and advancements in technology, however, have led to greater connection across nations and raised questions about the usefulness of this model for English education in school. Where foreign language perspectives represent English as monolithic and owned by native speakers and learning as socialization into native-speaking communities, globally oriented approaches view English as plurilithic and learning as developing a range of communicative repertoires and cultural practices deemed legitimate by those who using the language. English as a lingua franca or English as a contact language among any speakers is considered “dynamic, fluid and variable” and one potentially unanchored from the social practices of native-speakers, and several claim that this way of viewing English better accounts for its use in the superdiverse, multilingual and complex modern world (Chen et al., 2019, p. 63; Hall, 2017; Seidlhofer, 2011; Sifakis, 2017).

In the Nordic region, Hult (2012) explored how globalization shaped of English in Swedish educational policy and practice. Through the policy analysis and observational data, he revealed tensions in perceptions of English as a *second language* pervading media, popular culture, and higher education and English as a *foreign language* mostly for receptive and superficial use in school. In policy, however, functional competence was used as a means of encompassing both English as a tool for localizing international flows as well as a tool for generating flows of information and interaction from Sweden to the outside world. Both directional flows indicate a “reterritorialization”, moving English away from native-speaker centers and positioning it as integral to modern life – leading to the conclusion that, in Sweden, English is a transcultural language of both localization and globalization.

Evolving conceptions like these are of increasing interest in contexts of English Language Teaching (ELT) where English has traditionally been viewed as a foreign language. In Japan, for example, Galloway (2013) discovered that despite enrollment in a Global Englishes course, learners continued to have positive attitudes towards native speaker epistemology. Rose and Galloway (2017) investigated pedagogical tasks to challenge native-speaker ideology and raise awareness of Global Englishes while reconsidering its localized use but found these beliefs difficult to dislodge. While research suggests critical reflection on beliefs about English may raise awareness of diversity in the global use of English, it is unclear how the prevalence of native speaker norms can be dislodged. Additionally, Cameron and Galloway (2019) found that the perceptions of Global Englishes for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) practitioners had gained little ground classroom practice where native-speaker norms still prevailed. Together, these findings illustrate the difficulty of dislodging traditional beliefs and enacting change. Even when teachers may want to enact change, larger discourses may deter these efforts.

Despite seeming disparate local settings of ELT, Murray and Muller (2019) attempt to disambiguate its central terminology in order to facilitate dialogue and shared knowledge across diverse educational contexts. They propose a progression of English language learning centered on skills and competences from: a) General English b) English for General Academic Purposes, c) English for Specific Academic Purposes, d) Academic Literacies, and e) Professional and Communication Skills. For the purposes of basic education, a) and b) are most relevant in developing English as “a blunt but valuable instrument” that includes academic vocabulary and genres and interdisciplinary content estimating B1-B2 levels of CEFR competence (Murray & Muller, 2019, p. 259). The eventual goal of this model is learners’ socialization and eventual induction into established disciplinary and professional practices.

### **Teachers’ construction of learning in the English subject**

Institutional discourses of teaching and learning are dialogically and discursively constructed and shape conceptions of learning in local contexts (Bernstein, 2000). In forming English pedagogies, teachers navigate a variety of discourses shaped by different epistemological stances and ways of being and knowing. Acknowledging learning entails acknowledging those semiotic performances best suited to represent epistemic standpoints and practices (Luke, 2018). In addition, teachers must “curricularize” or transform English from a curricular definition into a form suitable for classroom learning and use. This transformation requires sense-making processes that engage teachers’ inner lives and experiences, their membership in communities of practice, and different ideological discourses (Borg, 2015; Kibler & Valdés, 2016; Kubanyiov & Feryok, 2015). In weighing the inclusion of globally oriented English, it has been suggested that it is the teacher who must decide whether and to what extent this inclusion is relevant (Jenkins, 2012, p. 492). It has also been argued that the cumulative inclusion of multiple language encounters in the classroom

can transform learners and prepare them for global challenges ahead (Levine, 2020a, 2020b). Harnessing this potential, however, requires the mediation of individual, collective and ideological discourses as well as the ability to adopt perspectives beyond the subject discipline (Douglas Fir Group, 2016). Therefore, in order to address this complexity teachers need to tap into a repertoire of dynamic and flexible pedagogies able to addressing the “changing...realities of language classrooms” (Kubanyiov & Feryok, 2015).

Discussions of 21<sup>st</sup> century education has increasingly emphasized “deep” or “in-depth” learning to prepare learners for increasing complexity. A review of the research literature on “deep learning” for learners aged 13 to 16 revealed that “deep learning” primarily indexed *meaningful learning* (ca. 89% of all findings) and less so to the *transfer of learning* across contexts. *Meaningful learning* involved gaining understanding, relating new knowledge to previous knowledge and everyday experience, and learning driven by learner interest (Winje & Løndal, 2020). The heightened drive for meaning supports the prediction that the introduction of English in the first year of schooling and across several years of basic education a focus would need to be meaningful to learners to motivation over the many years of education (Cameron, 2003). Deep learning centered on everyday experience and learner interest may create tensions with teacher ideologies of English *in flux* in terms of ownership, community and identity, diversity and global orientation, and heightened digital contact (Author, 2020) and how these notions infuse with conceptions of learning in the classroom.

### **Imagined worlds and English identities**

Learning involves situated participation in particular communities of practice and is a process that may require negotiating situated ways of being (Norton & Pavlenko, 2019; Wegner, 1998). This socialization as a part of English learning has tended to focus on in-person participation in the classroom, while Norton and Pavlenko (2019) argue for the potential of “imagined communities” as a means to include multiple communities and allow

learners to transcend the immediate environments and expand identities and perceptions of the world. Imagined communities facilitate transformative and critical language pedagogy and create openings for “possible selves”. Teachers can shape the imaginative scope of learners in mediating global and multilingual identities in the learning of English for political futures as world citizens where every user is a native speaker with hybrid identities (Moussu & Llund, 2008). Teachers’ conceptions of learning shape patterns and possibility for English learning in school. This article explores these conceptions and how they index English, identity and community as spaces for a more global minded future.

## **METHOD**

The object under investigation in this article is teacher conceptualizations of learning English in school, with special focus on learners aged 13 to 15. A qualitative approach was adopted to investigate teacher conceptualizations in a large school district in Norway and analytical methods from grounded theory were applied to explore them. To enhance trustworthiness of findings, specific features of the local contexts and the procedures for data collection and analysis are described in detail.

### **The Local Context**

In the early 2000s, English shifted from a position of equality with other foreign languages in Norwegian basic education foreign language to that of a highly valued “big brother”. As part of this shift, the discussion of English language learning became more closely aligned with first language learning (Simensen, 1999, 2003, 2005). More recently, questions about the socially and personally negotiated practices of learners of English in school and the meaning of English in the context of Norwegian schooling have been raised (Rindal, 2014). In Norway, English has a long history of being viewed as both a communicative tool and a means of forming the individual in interaction with the external

world. In practice, however, it is speculated that English as a lingua franca may still be considered a hybrid and less legitimate form of the language (Fenner & Skulstad, 2018; Hoff, 2018). Facilitating meaningful learning for learners transitioning from child- to young adulthood in basic education has entailed balancing learner practices and developing learner identities, as well as balancing communicative demands. This complexity and flexible pedagogies in the English subject discipline is also reflected in English didactics research that has spanned content-integrated language instruction (CLIL) and literacy development (Hellekjær, 2008; Mahan et al., 2018) and heightened awareness of situated language use, English as a lingua franca (ELF), and multilingual practices in the classroom (Author, 2012, 2018, 2020; Flognfeldt et al., 2020; Hoff, 2018; Iversen, 2019; Rodrick Beiler & DeWilde, 2020; Rødnes et al., 2014).

While the former English subject curriculum introduced in 2006 emphasized “communicative and linguistic skills and cultural insights [to] promote increased interaction, understanding and respect between people with different cultural backgrounds” as a means to “contribute to strengthening democratic engagement and citizenship”, curriculum introduced in 2020 designated *Public Health and Life Skills* and *Democracy and Citizenship* as specific interdisciplinary themes for meaningful learning in English and to address societal challenges locally, nationally, and globally (Ministry of Education and Research, 2006, 2013, 2020). The explicit inclusion of these themes indexing meaningful learning are the result of a more political core curriculum that anchors these themes (Brevik et al., 2020; Fenner & Skulstad, 2018). Briefly, *Life Skills* entails the ability to express emotions, thoughts, experiences and opinions through English, while *Democracy and Citizenship* presents a culture-dependent world where learners can experience different societies and cultures through using English and, through this interaction, to become curious, more open and tolerant to different interpretations in a multilingual and global world (*Fremtidens skole: Fornyelse av fag og*



*kompetanser*, 2015; Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). Suggested classroom learning can entail acquiring knowledge of different forms of government in English-speaking countries, of current affairs, and of topics relevant to Norway as part of the global community, especially when this involves engaging with information online (Garshol & Aanensen, 2021).

To enact policy intentions, teachers must engage them in individual and collective sense-making. In Norway textbooks or teaching materials are not mandated but chosen locally, rendering these sense-making processes even more central in determining what this learning could or should be. These processes involve ideologies of English and discourses of multilingualism (Dahl & Krulatz, 2016; Haukås, 2014; Krulatz et al., 2018; Rodrick Beiler & DeWilde, 2020; Surkalovic, 2014). This is especially true for the school district from which these findings are derived, where approximately 40 percent of learners in grades 1 through 10 report a primary language other than Norwegian. In 51 of 136 of schools in the district, these speakers make up the majority of the student population, with 10 schools reporting percentages as high as 80-90% (Sollien, 2020; Volden & Holden, 2013).

### **Sampling**

Data consisted of interviews with 12 teachers of English in grades 8 through 10 across 6 schools in the district described above. Data were collected prior to the introduction of the new curriculum and provide insights into tensions and opportunities in moving towards a new more political curriculum. The teachers sampled are classified as semi-specialist teachers in Europe and specialize in, and often teach, more than one school subject in school (*Levels of Autonomy and Responsibilities of Teachers in Europe*, 2008).

Purposive sampling was used first to select schools of varying linguistic diversity and socioeconomic standing (Deloitte AS, 2014; Ljunggren et al., 2017), with the goal of achieving maximum variation in the cohort and to identify more robust conceptualizations of

learning (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Patton, 2002). Two teachers were then selected from each of the cooperating schools based on willingness and English-teaching experience. The final cohort consisted of 12 teachers with English-teaching experience ranging from a few months to over 30 years. Schools and teachers were systematically anonymized, see Appendix A.

### **Interviews**

Each teacher was interviewed three times over roughly three weeks, with individual interviews averaging 50 minutes. Initial interviews were conducted in Norwegian. Teachers were provided with a general interview guide in Norwegian and English which presented open-ended questions operationalizing key concepts using familiar language (see Appendix B). The language of subsequent interviews was chosen by the teacher. The 3-interview design resembled the long qualitative interview (McCracken, 1988) and allowed teachers and the researcher to revisit, revise and expand on responses and to ensure clarification and member-checking (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Cohen et al., 2018; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). A one-week interval between interviews allowed teachers time to articulate and discuss the tacit thinking that arose in the interview with colleagues (Borg, 2015). Triangulation occurred across the interviews of individual teachers but also across the interviews of different teachers at different schools during the same timeframe. Researcher notes also continually informed areas for further clarification and exploration.

### **Systematic Analysis**

Interview data were transcribed and analyzed in the original language of the interview and only translated for the reporting of findings. Transcripts were systematically analyzed using constant comparison and the stages of coding prevalent in grounded theory (Holton, 2007), see Figure 1. Open coding was sensitive to language forms and utterances referring to or referencing desired learner attributes, processes, proficiencies and actions. Early in coding,

two local teacher educators specializing in English linguistics and didactics coded extended samples of the data across teachers and interview languages. Challenges were discussed in distinguishing conceptions of established, expected, or desired learning; a challenge that was accounted for in the selective phase of coding.

Open coding resulted in 423 utterances of varying lengths. Axial coding moved the data from general statements of learner processes, proficiencies and targeted learner attributes to more specific categories of: (a) *English language learning*, (b) processes to “open”-“see”-“go deeper”, (c) processes of *reflection and transformation*, and (d) processes to develop *democratic or global identity*. Selective coding configured finely grained categories into conceptions of learning ranging from *functional language learning* to *language learning in tandem with expanding adolescent identities and worlds* to *content learning and cultural heritage*, and ultimately to *cultural sensitivity for global communication and citizenship*. To enhance the internal validity of selective categories, researchers in a cross-disciplinary research group on Assessment and Evaluation and specializing in general pedagogy language (English and Norwegian) education reviewed categories twice in the process of refinement.

## FIGURE 1

### *Systematic Coding*

<b>1. Open coding</b>	<b>2. Axial coding</b>	<b>3. Selective coding</b>
Learner actions, processes, proficiencies, attributes and identities	Processes: a) English language learning b) processes to “open”-“see”-“go deeper”	Learning: 1. Functional English learning 2. Learning English and expanding identities and imagined worlds 3. Learning content through English and developing cultural heritage

	c) processes of reflection and transformation  d) processes to develop democratic or global identity	4. Sensitivity for global communication and citizenship
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## FINDINGS

The teachers in this study conceptualize the learning of English across: (a) functional English learning, (b) learning English in tandem with expanding adolescent identities and imagined worlds, (c) learning content through English and developing cultural heritage and, finally, (d) developing sensitivity for global communication and citizenship. They consider learning in tandem with expanding identities and imagined worlds and learning content in English and developing cultural heritage as the primary domain for learners in grades 8 through 10, building upon functional proficiency developed in primary schooling. For these teachers, sensitivity for global interaction lies at the outermost reaches of learning in basic education. Each category is described below, and an overview presented in Figure 2 in the next section.

### **Functional English Learning**

Teachers describe functional learning as “the fundamentals necessary to communicate” (S4T1) in English and to manage daily life, “survival in the world” (S1T1), and the ability to engage in polite, everyday communication at home, abroad or online. There is speculation, however, that the understanding of “everyday” may be too narrow and questions that:

the boundary between everyday English ... - more like shopping in a store, going to a café.... everyday conversations and interactions [and] another form of everyday language – like the news...where everyday words and expressions are not

used [in] everyday speech. When one first starts to look more widely at “everyday language”, it is not so narrow. (S4T2)

Teachers tend to index functional English learning with foreign language learning, as both require the learning of unfamiliar vocabulary and developing strategic competence, despite a perceived lack of focus on the latter. On the other hand, teachers describe English as a “natural” classroom language where:

Unlike [in] Spanish [classes], the minute learners walk through the door ... , it is expected that learners and teachers will only speak English to one another – it is completely natural that everyone does that. (S3T2)

Speaking and listening are viewed as foundational skills that encourage learners “to think in English” (S2T1). The development of these oral skills may be supplemented with sporadic grammar instruction, depending on teachers’ preference, confidence, or presence in instructional materials. Despite learner positivity to this explicit language teaching and a recognition that they will not “move forward” (S5T1) without it, teachers describe learners mostly interested in “speak[ing] English and just get[ing] on with it” (S4T2). For teachers, however, teaching the “unique characteristic[s] of language” (S3T2) are a challenge and this challenge becomes even more visible when learning English.

Functional learning of English also includes the ability to “behave appropriately in certain situations” (S2T1). Central is understanding that:

“a language is always part of a culture and culture is part of the language [and] the language is the key to opening a door to deeper understanding of other cultures” (S6T1)

To promote this understanding, learners are encouraged to compare polite interactions in Norwegian with similar interactions in English in English-speaking contexts (S1T1, S6T1),

though teachers report a lack of “metalanguage” (S1T1) to connect this to the learning of English, as well as other languages, in school.

### **Learning English and Expanding Identities and Imagined Worlds**

Learning that combines the increasing proficiency in the use of English as a communicative tool and a gradual awareness of social identity and expanding worlds:

blend into each other ... [where] one part...[is] to understand your place in society ... [to] grow up and be aware of where you are right now and ... differences between where you are and ... a different place ... norms, what would be the expectations to a 14 to 15 year old there and then what is it here (S6T2)

Learners’ awareness of the existence of similar “others” elsewhere (S2T2) and the ability to consider “what works and doesn’t work” (S6T2) in the use of “nuanced” (S6T2) English in different contexts is central. Learning, however, places much of this exploration in the United Kingdom and the United States or the “democracies we want to compare ourselves with” (S5T2), where learners are expected to consider “why [reality there] is like [it is], why it is important and how [it] should look” (S6T2). Formulating and justifying opinions of life in these settings in English, while accepting their own cultural stance as “colored by life in Norway” (S2T2) is central but indexed with educational aims of identity and democratic citizenship “beyond English as a subject” (S3T2):

[learners need] to make independent choices and, maybe it’s wrong to say, to be able to think correctly, democratically - because a part of the process of personal growth ... means to take in impressions from the rest of the world in order to contribute to a better world ...in the back of my mind, I have the European democracy project and the aim of social studies that they should become democratic citizens (S2T2)

Teachers explain that, while learning in subjects other than English explicitly addresses ideologies, learning in English examines ideologies “in practice” (S5T2) in English-language texts. Classroom work with texts expects learners to apply “common sense” (S2T2) in concluding that democracy is the best way to organize society, thus promoting learners’ sense of morality and encouraging democratic awareness (S5T2). For learners who are “physically and linguistically” (S5T2) diverse, there is an additional focus on individual rights and the awareness that society is not allowed to violate their individual rights and “eat them up” (S5T2).

Learners’ emotional development is intertwined with reactions to injustice in primarily English-speaking contexts, and while other cultures relevant to Norway are increasingly included in instructional materials, learners question this inclusion:

Textbooks [today] include other cultures tied to British colonization which wasn’t there 10 years ago, to engage the cultures of the colonized and trying to engage Norwegian students of different ethnicities [and] put more emphasis on Norway as a multicultural society.... and [to] understand that being a citizen in Norway is changing, has changed (S6T2)

Teachers find it difficult though to justify subject content such as Diwali celebrations where learners question cultural content from contexts where they “don’t speak [English, and] it’s not their language” (S6T2). For the teacher explaining that English is “not your language either” (S6T2), she has little success. This resonates with the experiences of other teachers attempting to facilitate “conversation [that] step[s] away from facts to deal with issues” and “guide” (S1T1) learners to the more subtle and hidden influences of ideologies, language and culture.

With increasing learner proficiency, teachers' understanding of communication also begins to diverge. Notions of "sincere" communication move in the direction of native-speaking contexts and away from a broader range of interlocutors. In the words of one teacher:

If [learners] were to speak with someone who has English as their mother tongue or [as a] second language, it would be a lot easier... [otherwise English] would be necessary [only for] communication... at a more superficial level, where you just want to get it clear (*taps the table*) when to meet (*taps table*) or what to do (*taps table*) but...[to] go more in-depth and be able to talk about ... emotions or ... more sincere form[s] of communication [is easier with the first group] (S6T2)

Learners are increasingly encouraged to speak about "emotions and experiences and [to] really connect with someone else in English" (S6T2) in ways that "allow... trust" (S6T2). Aside from emotions tied to injustice, teachers describe little "room or time for aesthetic expression" (S1T1), as this is labelled "strange" and outside the "things we do" (S1T1). Teachers also describe that learning that too blatantly intersects learners' school and private lives renders learners "off balance" (S1T1) and must be approached very carefully.

Finally, teachers emphasize the ability to locate online and non-local sources of information for self-determined communicative purposes as part of learning. For teachers, exerting "ownership" over this information indicates "tak[ing] forward steps in their own learning" (S3T1). However, teachers describe incorporating online material in instruction as difficult, as authentic texts are often inappropriate or too difficult and adapting them too "time-consuming" (S6T1). Despite these challenges, learners should become open to and see the benefits of online information to better understand the world beyond Norway. This



exposure to online texts, for teachers, suggests a “completely different focus” (S3T1) for learning English than for learning other foreign languages in school.

### **Learning Content through English and Developing Cultural Heritage**

A third type of learning involves developing in-depth cultural knowledge or subject matter similar to “what we call social studies” (S6T1) to develop a “closer” and “deeper” (S6T1) understanding of English-speaking countries and the world. This knowledge is “expected [of a] good citizen” (S4T2) as it promotes cultural heritage and the understanding of locally relevant historical connections:

to know ... that Norway has been closely linked to first the UK, then the USA, [and to] know about Norwegian immigration to the US as explaining why so many Norwegians have family in the USA (S4T2)

A foundational English proficiency is a prerequisite for understanding these “more open...[and] even more global” connections (S1T2). Further exposure to English-speaking cultures presents learners with “different ways of seeing” that can influence learners’ perception of difference as enriching “instead of...dangerous or problematic” (S6T1). Subject content centers on issues of racism, poverty and the environment to “open the horizon” and foster an understanding of “what’s out there” (S1T2) and “history and all the violent things that have happened” (S2T1) –knowledge that should “become part of them” (S2T1). Teachers describe the need to approach these issues very sensitively and differently from other school subjects they teach. Conversely, teachers describe a gradual exclusion of non-Western cultures often represented by minority language learners in the classroom, while conceding that their inclusion would certainly have been “enriching” (S2T2) for everyone.

For teachers, learning transitions from more personal to more abstract communication on complex content with increasing focus on formal writing and less on interaction. Learning foregrounds analysis and comparison at a “much higher level than foreign language

instruction” (S6T1) and targets a text competence relevant for “life generally” (S2T1).

Learners are expected to produce English “with more substance” (S1T2), “more precisely adapted to [the] purpose” (S3T1), and with more conceptual vocabulary, resulting in competence that can eventually prepare them for higher education in Norway or abroad.

### **Developing Sensitivity for Global Communication and Citizenship**

At its outermost reaches, teachers describe learning that “equip[s] learners to understand the world” in order to communicate in a “more global arena” (S2T2). This includes interaction with speakers in English-speaking countries (S3T2), interaction on “the internet [to] get information” (S5T1), or interaction that responds to “where one is” and “who one is talking to” (S3T2) as a global citizen. This creates challenges though, “now that English has become...a global language, [and] it is not certain the same codes apply everywhere” (S3T1). While some teachers suggest they could certainly focus more on “linguistic traps” (S6T2) in global communication, for many “this is a...tricky issue” (S3T1) as it would require them to “step out of the [local] bubble” and to view themselves “outside of” themselves (S6T2).

Instead, teachers report seldom using terms like “global” and view the global community as occurring “naturally” (S1T2) in classrooms with learners from “all over the world” (S1T1) where we “take [it] for granted” that we are all “connected” (S1T2). Little connects learning to communities of learners “around the world [who are] learning English in the same way...[or] for the same purpose” (S6T2). For some teachers, learning a more global English is construed as learning “ICT language” or a “pidgin English” resembling that used for travel (S4T2). Interactions with other non-native speakers are not described as part of learning nor included in textbooks, though global citizenship is considered to mean:

“feel[ing] a stronger sense of belonging ... [that] you have something in common with most of the population today and feel[ing] a sense of

belonging with an enormous community of English-speaking people”

(S2T1)

In grappling with widening perspectives, one teacher states that she would “gladly support” widening and “lifting” teachers’ understanding of what it means to learn English to become more inclusive and “fair” (S3T1). Attempts to widen conceptions of learning, however, are described as inciting disagreement and resistance among teachers, as these perspectives are: (a) too advanced and stress-inducing for learners, (b) too “large” for everyday life in school (S1T2), and (c) not anchored in curricular goals but sourced from “academics who haven’t really been in school lately” (S5T1). Teachers describe learner resistance as well. When exposed to wider perspectives, learners can reject them with an accusatory wag of the finger (S6T2). Teachers underscore tensions that surround global perspectives for adolescents as being intertwined with realities that are still “so far away” (S1T2) and that will only become relevant when experienced as “practical” (S2T1) challenges tied to real world experience.

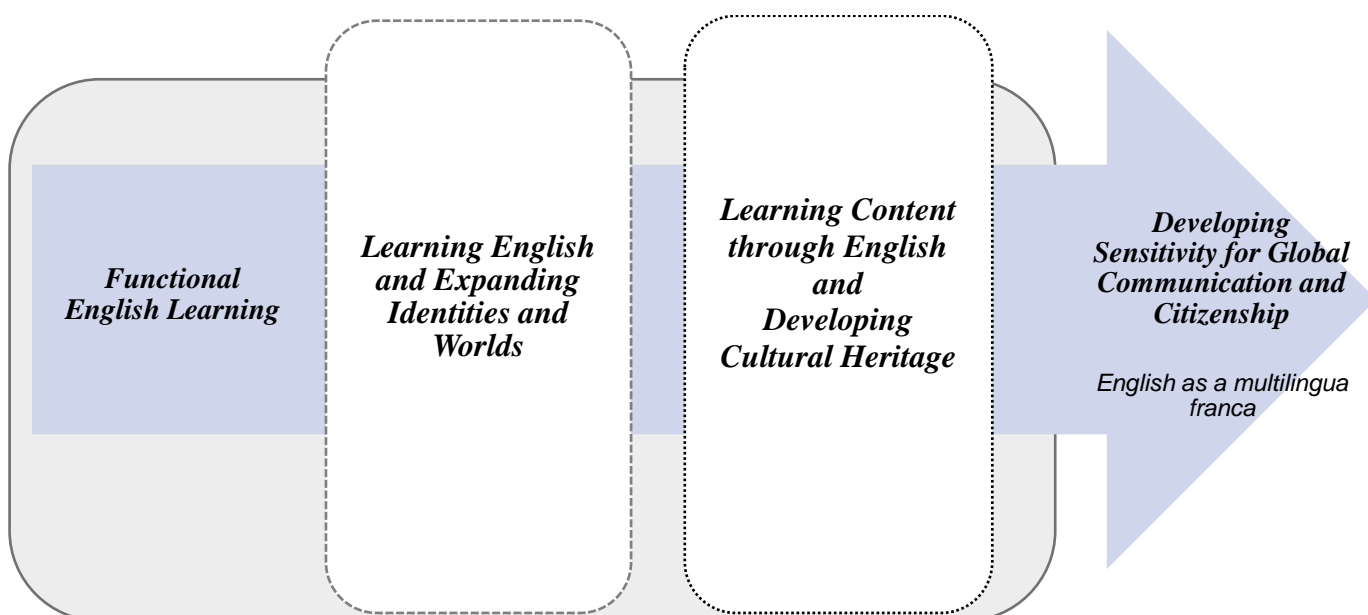
## **DISCUSSION**

The aim of this article has been to investigate teachers’ conceptualizations of the learning of English in basic education in Norway and how they incorporate epistemologies of the English language, real and imagined communities and worlds, and learner identities in the ongoing evolution of English as a subject in school. Findings reveal teachers’ flexible repertoires for meaningful and “deep” learning for learners aged ca. 13 to 15 and varying conceptualizations of the English language, English competence and the identity of English speakers. Figure 2 presents an overview of the findings with four aspects for discussion: (a) English as an increasingly natural, “everyday” and oral language for the classroom and learners, (b) the expansion and gating of worlds in adolescents’ learning of English, (c) the importance of adolescent “becoming” through critical perspectives in learning English, and,

finally, (d) what place a more expanded notion of global interaction should play in the adolescent learning of English. These four aspects are discussed considering evolving epistemologies balancing focus on national identity and an emerging cosmopolitanism in the school subject and for English language learning today.

## FIGURE 2

*Conceptualizations of Learning for 10 of 11 years of compulsory English in School*



### English as Natural, “Everyday” and Oral

For these teachers, functional English skills are anchored in everyday experience. In the classroom, English is constructed as a “natural” and most often oral language in developing functional English skills, where active participation is essential. However, teachers’ description of contextual awareness or situated use, the operationalization of grammar and the negotiation of communicative challenges is less evident. Conceptions of learning seem to merge social closeness, orality and the natural use of English with a distinct need to acquire foreign vocabulary. This is less indexed by the need to operationalize

grammar or develop communicative strategies. This is noted by teachers, and for some, there is a clear need for metalanguage that can describe the language to be learnt and competence beyond making oneself understood. While there are signs that teachers recognize English as more than a monolithic language of native speakers in school (Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2019; Sifakis, 2017), they seem to be uncertain about English as a contact language or lingua franca unanchored from social practices of the classroom or native speakers. This is suggested in less focus on strategic competence in negotiating obstacles to communication, as well as reflections about the need for a metalanguage to describe more situated use of English across a range of speakers and contexts. As Jenkins (2012) suggests, teachers are left with the responsibility of whether or to include this in the local teaching context and thus whether this is part of developing functional competence as the foundation of learning.

### **Expanding and Gating of Real and Imagined Worlds**

While functional learning indexes everyday communication and daily life, learning gradually expands to include the values of preferred democracies and non-local information. Democratic values are encapsulated in texts illustrating ideologies in practice, where teachers do not view themselves as cultural insiders but where this does not create tension for teachers or learners. It is only when learning opens for a multiplicity of Englishes and contexts of use beyond traditional native speaking context that dissonance is reported. Teachers report learners who do not understand this inclusion and their own struggles to explain why representations of English speakers need to be widened. Interestingly, teachers suggest that this inclusion provides reflections on cultural diversity that can foster positive feelings of local diversity and inclusion. Paradoxically, as learning advances communication that is emotional, sincere, and trustworthy becomes more indexed with native-speaker interactions, while more visible lingua franca communication with cultural and linguistic others becomes

marginalized. This seems to limit learners' exposure to wider communities of practice and negotiated ways of being (Norton & Pavlenko, 2019). While exposure targets the development of democratic values, these seem to be tied to foreign language traditions of native-speaking contexts and less to the multiple communities that can allow learners to expand their range of possible identities.

This also applies to digital communities, where learning expands to include the online and non-local sources of information. Teachers describe this as distinct to learning English and resembles learning *English for General Academic Purposes* in Murray and Muller (2019) with learning of cross-disciplinary content through exposure to textual content and patterns of language use for academic purposes. However, while learners are expected to locate, process and exert ownership over non-local digital sources for communicative purposes, teachers describe struggles in adapting authentic digital texts for classroom use. If teachers struggle, it would be pertinent to consider how learners manage to cope with such a wide and diverse textual universe.

While democratic contexts and sources of information move outwards, the spectrum of emotions vested in learning narrows in connection with problematic social issues in an expanding world. Teachers describe the need for increasing responsiveness and sensitivity to the psychosocial development of adolescents in this expansion. Overstepping the boundaries of learners' emotional and private lives is described as disrupting learners' ability to learn. Teachers report the challenges of navigating learners' personal lives of learners and managing the rate of expansions of worlds beyond the immediate or familiar. Expansion and gating of imagined worlds and communities is mediated between teachers and the learners and represents a dynamic responsiveness in managing processes of learning in English addressed less discussed in the research literature. This "opening" of the learner represents a process for teachers that is distinct from foreign language learning, yet central to learning English in

school. Learning opens learners to digital worlds, non-local information, a range of histories, ideas, concepts and practices in a much larger world; a process central to Norwegian traditions of teaching English as a communicative tool but also for forming individuals in interaction with an external world (Fenner & Skulstad, 2018). As seen above though, navigating this world with an English to communicate in it or a *lingua franca* is still, perhaps not a less legitimate form of the language, but an unstable concept for teachers (Hoff, 2018). It would seem central however for a more political curriculum promoting *Life Skills* for expression in English and *Democracy and Citizenship* in an increasingly interconnected world.

### **“Becoming” Through Critical Perspectives**

Learning addressing social and historical events connected to poverty, racism, the environment and political violence and how this impacts our understanding today is included with the intention that this “becomes a part of them” and is relevant for life in general. Traces of this “becoming” are absent in the Murray and Muller (2019) model but highlight learners’ mediation of meanings, perspectives and value systems. Teachers describe this as nearing the upper end of English in basic education but repeatedly emphasize the need for caution and sensitivity in managing this exposure and fostering critical perspectives. Like expanding worlds, teachers merge learning English with the forming of the individual in the development of *Life Skills*, *Democracy and Citizenship* and as a part of lifelong learning.

As social and historical issues become more central though, non-Western histories and cultural practices – even when present in the student population – seemingly become marginalized - even for teachers who acknowledge the importance of non-Western histories and perspectives and their potential for enriching the learning experience. This is perceived as the need to balance different social, historical and cultural perspectives with the need to create

a safety and predictable learning environment for learners. Teachers feel strongly about this, as will be seen in the next section on global interaction and citizenship.

### **Global Communication and Intercultural Citizenship**

At the outermost reaches of adolescent learning, teachers describe learning English for cross-cultural interaction as part of global participation and citizenship. While teachers are well-aware of this goal (i.e., they describe English for communication with the world), they struggle to formulate what this might mean for adolescents in basic education. They suggest that to explore cross-cultural interaction would require accepting the premise that no social code or social practice applies to every situation, which would also require examining one's own social practices. Many teachers seem hindered in this process, as they do not view themselves as owners of English or cultural insiders themselves, despite acknowledging expansive communities of English-language speakers at home, abroad, and in the classroom. This tension becomes visible in struggles to formulate how English works in settings with culturally and linguistically diverse interlocutors, where communication tends to be constructed as basic, functional, or even as a pidgin, with little room for sincerity or trust. Teachers and learners struggle with English that verges too far from its native speakers and tend to reject language that entails interlocutors that are too far away, too complex or too challenging. This claim resonates with perceived needs to a better metalanguage to describe English today, to raise awareness of the negotiation and mediation of learner identity in the classroom, and the need to support teacher is curricularizing English in bridging the gap between English-in-the world and English-in-the-classroom. As Kubanyiov and Feryok (2015) claim this sense-making process requires teachers to engage their own lives and experiences, dominant ideological discourses and the collective communities of which they are a part. As the findings of this article suggest, these processes should play a more central



role in the education of in-service as well as pre-service teachers as key agents in managing relevance, language and identity in the 21<sup>st</sup> century English language classroom.

The findings of this article have revealed the complex and sensitive nature of teachers' understanding of the learning of English in school. For these teachers, learning English is far more than instilling functional skills and competencies and resonate with findings from other contexts - both Nordic (Author, 2020; Hult, 2012, 2018; Rindal, 2014; Simensen, 2014) and otherwise (Calle Díaz, 2017; Galloway & Rose, 2014; Idrus et al., 2019; Rosenhan & Galloway, 2019; Suzuki, 2020) - where English has traditionally been taught as a foreign language in school but now merges more global and political policy intentions with English language learning. Instead, they describe learning that attempts to bridge everyday experience with wider perspectives, real and imagined worlds and current and possible identities in a participatory process to develop English competence throughout learners' lives - while all the while striving for learning that is locally relevant and deeply meaningful. Though the findings presented are limited to a cohort of 12 teachers in a one large and linguistically diverse school district, they raise interesting questions about meaningful English language learning for similar contexts for learners in basic education who are transitioning from child to adulthood and expanding their identities, perspectives and realities, even if only imagined and possible, beyond the local context.

## **CONCLUSION**

As stated at the beginning of this article, globalization has changed the conditions for the meaningful learning of English in school. Findings suggest that teachers traverse English pedagogies that encompass functional learning, the expansion of identities and worlds, the learning of content and fostering of cultural heritage, and, ultimately, participation in a global world. These findings that suggest learning English in school may be far more complex than instilling learners with English as a tool for communication and that teachers may require

high levels of sensitivity and mediation in maneuvering ever expanding topics, identities and worlds. To both curricularize English for classroom use and in relation to external world relevance, teachers will need to continually explore their own experiences and realities as individuals and professionals and in relation to an increasingly interconnected world.

Teachers as well as teacher educators need support in this process. To support teachers as well as teacher educators in a deeper exploration of the English language and locally relevant English teaching and learning, *The Handbook to English as a Lingua Franca: Practices for Inclusive Multilingual Classrooms* (Cavalheiro et al., 2021) is available online as a meaningful guide to continuous professional development in unpacking relevant concepts and exploring understandings of learners' and teachers' use of English in local contexts and developing locally relevant teaching and learning in school. Continually addressing an evolving and emerging globalized world and the challenges this may present for teachers in conceptualizing learning related to everyday experience, identity and real and imagined worlds is part and parcel of English teaching professionals today. This requires employing pedagogies for transformative learning in a globalized world, even though and even when tensions exist in the transition from foreign language traditions to a more globally oriented stance. For learners, learning English to interact in an increasingly interconnected and global world means communicating with a range of different speakers, including native speakers as well as non-native speakers like themselves.

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### Appendix A Participants

<i>School</i>	<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Years Teaching English</i>	<i>School Subjects Taught in Addition to English</i>
<i>School 6 (S6)</i> Low Multilingualism	<i>Teacher 1</i> (T1)	<1	Social Studies and Foreign Language (FL)
	<i>Teacher 2</i> (T2)	2.5	Social Studies and Norwegian
<i>School 3</i> Low Multilingualism	<i>Teacher 1</i> (T1)	10	Foreign language, Religion-Philosophies of Life-Ethics (RLE), and Social Studies
	<i>Teacher 2</i> (T2)	16	Foreign Language
<i>School 1</i> Average Multilingualism	<i>Teacher 1</i> (T1)	7	Music
	<i>Teacher 2</i> (T2)	5	Social Studies and RLE
<i>School 5</i> Average Multilingualism	<i>Teacher 1</i> (T1)	27	RLE and Support Teacher in Norwegian
	<i>Teacher 2</i> (T2)	31	Social Studies and Support Teacher in Norwegian.
<i>School 4</i>	<i>Teacher 1</i>	28	Social Studies

High	(T1)		
Multilingualism	Teacher 2	11	RLE and Social Studies
	(T2)		
School 2	Teacher 1	7	RLE
High	(T1)		
Multilingualism	Teacher 2	5	Social Studies and Norwegian
	(T2)		

### Appendix B Interview Guide

#### *Negotiating the Global and the Local: English Language Policy as Understood by Lower-secondary Teachers*

##### Purpose

- For you, what is English in Norwegian society for? What purpose does it serve?
- Is it the same or different from other languages in Norway (i.e., Norwegian, Sami, other foreign languages, etc.)?
- Based on your own experience, how would you describe English as a subject in school?
- How would you say English as a school subject meets some of the aims you describe for English in Norwegian society?
- Can you say a little bit about what type of spoken English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?
- Can you say a little bit about what type of written English competence you think that your pupils will need – both now and in the future?
- English as a school subject is often referred to as both a subject to develop instrumental language skills and a subject for the personal development or growth of

the pupil. How do you understand the subject in light of both of these two? How do you balance or integrate these in your teaching?

### Global/international/local

- Can you describe some of the situations in which English is actively used in your classroom?
- Can you describe some of the themes you take up in your teaching?
- “International” and “global” are words that are often used in connection with English in school. Can you say how “international” or “global” is used in your teaching?
- Who would you say are the recipients/audiences for your pupils’ spoken and written English? Would you say this is unique for your pupils or similar/the same for English lessons at your school? In your experience with other teachers in this school district, would you say this is similar/the same?

### Identity

- Can you describe your role as a teacher?
- In your experience, can teaching in English as a school subject contribute to strengthening democratic engagement? Strengthening citizenship? Lead to developing “co-citizenship”?

### Assessment

- Can you say something about what for you is important in assessing your pupils’ competence in English?
- Can you say a bit about what type of challenges you experience in your work with assessment in English?

### Local situation

- Can you say a bit about whether other teachers at your school have a similar understanding of the subject as you do? What about in the municipality in general?

- Can you describe what helps you or works against you in reaching your aims as an English teacher?