



Høgskulen
på Vestlandet

MASTER'S THESIS

Linguistic Identities and the Use of English by EFL Learners in Norway and France *A Comparative Study*

Anna Helena Sundt

Master's Thesis in Education with English Didactics

Department of Language, Literature, Mathematics, and
Interpreting

Supervisor: Stephanie Hazel Wold

Submission Date: May 30th, 2025

I confirm that this thesis has been written by me and that references to all sources used are provided (in accordance with Forskrift om studium og eksamen ved Høgskulen på Vestlandet, § 12-1). I would like to point out that I used AI in the writing process and have provided details in the methodology section about which AI tools have been used, how they have been used and for what purposes.

Acknowledgments

I want to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Associate Professor Stephanie Hazel Wold, for exceptional mentorship, providing guidance, generous time, and consistent encouragement throughout this process, helping me as my thesis developed.

I also sincerely thank the LANGUAGES project for granting me access to reuse an anonymised version of their valuable survey data from Ungspråk. Thanks to data manager Gunnar Lid at the Teaching Learning Video lab at the University of Oslo for helping me with data access, project leader (PI) Professor Lisbeth M Brevik of the University of Oslo for guidance and for reading through my thesis, making sure the LANGUAGES project is accurately presented. I would also like to thank Professor Åsta Haukås of the University of Bergen for allowing me to use the LANGUAGES version of the Ungspråk questionnaire and for recommending relevant articles related to the questionnaire. Also, I thank Professor Debra Myhill of the University of Exeter for critically discussing my study, professor Eva Thue Vold, Sarah M. Ø. Eiene, Adéla Funova, Estelle Fohr-Prigent, and Simen Grung of the University of Oslo for contributions. I also want to thank all other members of the LANGUAGES research group for welcoming me to meetings and to visit the project at the University of Oslo: Senior lecturers Laura Molway and Nicole Dingwall of the University of Oxford; Associate professor Cathy Cohen of Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1; Associate professor Joséphine Rémon of the Université Lumière Lyon 2; and Professor Anna Ghimenton of the University of Genoblé.

I also want to thank the MetaLearn research team for broadening my perspective on research in language education over the past three years of my studies.

Lastly, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my family, friends, and flatmates for their patience, care, and encouragement. Also, special appreciation to Hannah and Lone for their technical assistance with R programming and Nora for navigating the field of applied linguistics. I am forever grateful.

Anna Helena Sundt

Bergen, May 2025

Table of Contents

1. Introduction	1
1.1 Aim and Scope	1
1.2 Clarification of terms	3
1.2.1 Language learning	3
1.2.2 English language learning	3
1.2.3 Linguistic identity	4
1.2.4 Multilingualism and multilingual identity	4
1.2.5 Contextual language usage, self-perceived proficiency, CEFR and affective factors	4
1.3 Purpose	5
1.4 Research questions	6
1.5 Structure	7
2. Theoretical background	8
2.1 Multilingualism	8
2.1.1 Definitions and Conceptualisations	8
2.2 Linguistic identity	12
2.3 Multilingual identity	12
2.4 The Norwegian and French contexts	14
2.4.1 The Norwegian context	14
2.4.2 The French context	16
2.5 Framework of measurement	16
2.5.1 Contextual language usage	17
2.5.2 Self-perceived Proficiency	17
2.5.3 Affective factors	17
2.5.4 Gender	18
2.6 Chapter summary	19
3. Methodology	20
3.1 LANGUAGES research design	20
3.1.1 LANGUAGES sampling procedure	22
3.2 Research design - a quantitative approach	23
3.2.1 Data material - The LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire	25
3.2.2 Variables	27
3.2.3 Limitations	29
3.3 Data analysis	30
3.3.1 Block analysis	33
3.4 Researchers' credibility	35
3.4.1 Reliability	35
3.4.2 Validity	37
3.4.3 Significance testing: the F-test	39

3.4.4 Ethical considerations.....	39
3.4.5 Limitations.....	41
3.5 Chapter summary.....	42
4. Results, analysis and discussion.....	43
4.1 Demographic overview of participants.....	44
4.2 Background information.....	44
4.2.1 Years of English.....	44
4.2.2 English as a first/native language.....	45
4.3 Research question 1: Multilingual self-identification.....	46
4.3.1 Discussion.....	48
4.4 Research question 2: Contextual language usage.....	49
4.4.1 Discussion.....	51
4.5 Research question 3: Self-perceived proficiency.....	52
4.5.1 Self-perceived English proficiency	52
4.5.2 Discussion.....	54
4.5.3 Self-perceived compared English proficiency.....	54
4.5.4 Discussion: Self-perceived proficiency versus compared proficiency.....	56
4.6 Research question 4: Affective factors	56
4.6.1 Pride in knowing English	57
4.6.2 Importance of English	58
4.6.3 Avoidance behaviours.....	59
4.6.4 Comparison Between Norwegian and French Participants	60
4.7 Research question 5.....	61
4.7.1 Significance testing: F-test	63
4.7.2 Gender	63
4.7.3 Contextual language usage	64
4.7.4 Self perceived proficiency & comparative proficiency.....	64
4.7.5 Years of English experience	65
4.7.6 Country	65
4.7.7 Relationship between multilingual identity and other variables	66
5. Conclusion.....	68
5.1 Summary of main findings.....	69
5.1.1 Multilingual self-identification.....	69
5.1.2 Contextual language usage	70
5.1.3 Self-perceived proficiency.....	70
5.1.4 Affective factors	70
5.1.5 Patterns in correlations	71
5.2 Pedagogical implications.....	71
5.3 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research	72
6. Conclusion.....	73
English summary.....	74
Norwegian summary	75
List of References	viii

Appendix	xiii
<i>Appendix A: Results of the F-test for Model Significance.....</i>	<i>xiii</i>

List of Figures

Figure 1: Students' multilingual self-identification	47
Figure 2: Students' contextual language usage	50
Figure 3: Students' self-perceived proficiency	53
Figure 4: Students' compared English proficiency	55
Figure 5: Students' affective factors.....	60

List of Tables

Table 1: LANGUAGES sampling strategy and criteria on the school level (Brevik et al., 2025)	22
Table 2: Overview of MA thesis research design	25
Table 3: Overview of employed items from the LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire, English version.....	27
Table 4: Recoding of variables.....	31
Table 5: Demographic overview of participants	44
Table 6: Years learners have known English.....	45
Table 7: Students with English as their first/native language	45
Table 8: Students' multilingual self-identification	46
Table 9: Students' contextual language usage	49
Table 10: Students' self-perceived proficiency	52
Table 11: Students' pride in knowing English.....	57
Table 12: Students' importance of knowing English.....	58
Table 13: Students' avoidance behaviour	59
Table 14: Regression coefficients table	62
Table 15: F-test for Overall Model Significance	63

List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Definition
L1	First Language, or the language of schooling
L2	Second Language – also of schooling
L3	Third Language – also of schooling
FL	Foreign Language
OLs	Other languages
ESL	English as a Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EAL	English as an Additional Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SES	Socioeconomic Status
LD	Linguistic Diversity
TL	Target Language

1. Introduction

This introductory chapter is structured in the following order: first, the aim and scope of this MA thesis is presented (1.1), as well as a clarification of terms (1.2), and the purpose is elaborated (1.3). The research questions which guide this MA thesis are presented (1.4). Lastly, a short description of the thesis structure is put forward (1.5).

1.1 Aim and Scope

The newest Norwegian curriculum (LK20) emphasises students' "own identity and others' identities in a multilingual and multicultural context" (NDET, 2024, p.3), which may argue that research on this topic of multilingualism is more relevant than ever in an increasingly globalised world. The English section of the curriculum also emphasises that students develop language learning skills as they are introduced to English texts. The curriculum adopts a broad understanding of "text", encompassing written and verbal texts, images, numbers, or other means of expression that convey any form of message (NDET, 2024, p.3). Furthermore, it states that engaging with a variety of English texts enhances students' experiences of linguistic and cultural diversity, referred to as the multilingual turn in education. (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 121), the need for quality multilingual education is becoming increasingly prominent in the educational landscape. Due to historical, social, political, and economic factors, as well as population globalisation and mobility, the demand for multilingual education has become a necessity. Consequently, understanding how EFL learners utilise their language resources across different contexts is crucial, contributing to language learning in a multicultural environment.

This MA thesis investigates the relationships between multilingual identities and correlations with contextual English usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors (expanded upon below) among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Norway and France. Reusing quantitative data from a questionnaire used in the LANGUAGES project at the University of Oslo (Brevik et al., 2025), this MA thesis examines how young learners construct their multilingual identities and how their identities correlate with the three factors mentioned above, across the French and Norwegian educational contexts.

The Ungspråk project has previously investigated Norwegian learners' multilingualism and related factors, such as multilingual identity, migration background, experiences with living abroad, and having friends with home languages other than Norwegian (Tiurikova et al., 2021, p. 1). To my knowledge, a comparison between Norwegian learners' multilingual self-identification and its correlation with related factors, especially in contrast to different national contexts like France, remains unexplored. The French linguistic context may specifically represent an interesting comparative case due to its linguistic policies and cultural attitudes toward foreign languages, especially English (Deneire & Forlot, 2024, p. 229). Factors related to students' multilingualism, such as their multilingual identity, migration background, experiences living abroad, and friendships with speakers of languages other than Norwegian, are considered to better understand the complex relationship between open-mindedness and multilingualism in the school context. By analysing the data collected with the Ungspråk questionnaire (Haukås et al., 2021a), the Ungspråk project reveals no relationship between open-mindedness and students' migration background and experiences of living abroad. However, the project indicates that open-mindedness is positively linked to L3 learning in school, multilingual identity, and having friends who use other languages at home. These findings have prominent pedagogical implications, suggesting that promoting the learning of a second foreign language in lower secondary school, developing students' self-identification as multilingual, and encouraging interaction with peers who speak additional languages may enhance students' open-mindedness. (Tiurikova et al., 2021, p. 1)

Although multilingualism and identity are explicitly emphasised in Norwegian curricula (LK20), teachers often remain uncertain about effectively utilising and supporting their students' linguistic identities in practice. Based on this challenge, the present MA thesis explores what linguistic identities may look like for Norwegian and French English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, specifically investigating these identities in relation to contextual language usage, affective factors related to English, and self-perceived proficiency. This MA thesis adopts a comparative approach between Norwegian and French educational contexts, addressing important gaps in our understanding of how linguistic identities manifest in different cultural and academic settings. Additionally, this MA thesis provides insight into the language practices of EFL students in out-of-school contexts, which remains under-researched (Storto et al., 2024a, p. 3). The relationship between multilingual identity in classrooms and EFL students' language usage has yet to be thoroughly investigated from a comparative perspective; a gap this thesis aims to address.

Based on previous research on multilingualism, this MA thesis aims to achieve two goals. First, to compare French and Norwegian EFL learners' perception of their multilingual identities, contextual language usage, self-perceived English proficiency, and affective factors related to the English language. Secondly, to examine how these multilingual identities correlate with the three factors listed above.

1.2 Clarification of terms

Due to the variation of the terminology related to using the English language in Norway and France, several terms should be addressed before covering the purpose of this MA thesis. Below is a list of key terms along with a description of how they are used in this MA thesis.

1.2.1 Language learning

There are a few terms related to language learning which are necessary to clarify. Firstly, *L1* refers to the official language and the language of schooling: French in France, and Norwegian in Norway (Brevik et al., 2025). *L2* and *L3* refer to second or foreign languages, indicating that *L2* refers to English in France and Norway and French in England, while *L3* refers to French in Norway (Brevik et al., 2025). "These terms describe when the languages are introduced into education in the three countries, without making any claims about the order of students' language acquisition" (Brevik et al., 2025). As this MA thesis only investigates responses in the French and Norwegian contexts, the only necessary clarification is the use of English as a second and foreign language in these two countries. Despite LANGUAGES defining *L1* and *L2* as stated, this MA thesis refers to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in both national contexts. In addition, when students have knowledge of languages beyond those taught in school, these are referred to as *other languages (OLs)* (Brevik et al., 2025).

1.2.2 English language learning

Three other terms that require clarification, as they may be used similarly and can be difficult to distinguish, are EFL (English as a Foreign Language), ESL (English as a Second Language), and EAL (English as an Additional Language). English as a Foreign Language (EFL) refers to the learning and teaching of English in contexts where it is not the primary language of communication. In both Norway and France, English is taught in such contexts, although its societal status differs notably between these countries. In EFL countries, English is

“acknowledged for its significance to education, business, pleasure and mobility, and thus taught in school” (Rindal, 2020, p. 28). English as a second language (ESL), on the other hand, is “traditionally used about postcolonial countries (..) where English is part of a long history of colonialism, or about speakers who have moved to an English-speaking country and need English for key society functions” (Rindal, 2020, p. 28). Recently, it has become increasingly common to use the term "English as an Additional Language" (EAL), avoiding the distinction between a foreign and a second language (Beiler, 2021). However, the EAL student label is a heterogeneous group, encompassing a wide variety of students, including both non-native speakers with a different L1 than English, as well as students who have English as their L1 or main communicative language, but have other home languages (Szymczyk et al., 2022, p.121). Based on this, as well as the widespread use of the term EFL in academic circles, for the purposes of analysis for this MA thesis, English as a foreign language (EFL) will be used from here onwards.

1.2.3 Linguistic identity

Linguistic Identity is defined as "the way one identifies (or is identified by others) in each of the languages in one's linguistic repertoire" (Fisher et al., 2020, p. 1). This includes both self-identification as a user of multiple languages and the emotional or cultural associations associated with each language.

1.2.4 Multilingualism and multilingual identity

Multilingualism describes a person's ability to use more than one language, irrespective of proficiency level (Marshall & Moore, 2018). This MA thesis adopts a holistic understanding of multilingualism, as discussed in section 2.1. Multilingual identity is defined as learners' self-identification as multilingual and is operationalised through the LANGUAGES context adapted Unga-pråk (Brevik et al., 2025) rather than strict proficiency measures.

1.2.5 Contextual language usage, self-perceived proficiency, CEFR and affective factors

The three factors related to multilingual identity should also be clarified. These are all related to the English language: contextual language usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors. Contextual usage refers to the various domains and situations in which learners engage with English. This thesis examines multiple contexts, including using English with family and

friends, during holidays, internet use, and other media consumption (such as watching TV and films, or listening to music). The use of English in these contexts is quantified by explicitly asking the students about their usage in the questionnaire. Self-perceived proficiency refers to learners' subjective evaluation of their own language abilities. While objective measures, such as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2020), provide standardised assessments of language competence, this MA thesis focuses specifically on how learners perceive their own English proficiency. Affective factors are defined as the emotional dimensions of language learning and use (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 214/215). In this MA thesis, affective factors are operationalised through the validated and adapted questionnaire, addressing pride in knowing English, perceived importance of English, and avoidance behaviours.

1.3 Purpose

This MA thesis aims to investigate whether correlations exist between the multilingual identities of French and Norwegian EFL learners and three factors: contextual language usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors. As the world is becoming increasingly globalised and interconnected, the need to investigating multilingual identities seems more relevant than ever (Krulatz et al., 2022, p. 5).

Storto et al. has studied contextual language practice and attitudes among lower secondary students in Norway (Storto et al., 2024b). Through their study, visual models are introduced to represent this. Although, to my knowledge, research on fully developed models of multilingualism that focus on the language practices of individuals and groups still lacks. Therefore, this MA thesis aims not to develop models of multilingualism, but to contribute; by comparing language practices and linguistic identities in two different national contexts; Norway and France, by examining the correlations between multilingual identity and the three factors mentioned.

1.4 Research questions

Based on the need for comparative research on how linguistic identities are constructed based on various factors, this MA thesis aims to provide a comparative analysis of how French and Norwegian EFL learners perceive their multilingual identities and examine how these identities correlate with contextual language use, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors related to English. In this MA thesis, anonymised data from the context-adapted Ungspråk student questionnaire from the LANGUAGES project (Brevik et al., 2025) is reused to identify the students' reported multilingual identities across all 16 classes in Norway and France, with a total of 521 student responses. The overarching research question is for this MA thesis is:

How do learners' multilingual identities correlate with contextual usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors in Norway and France?

To answer this research question, five sub-questions were constructed:

RQ1: *Do French and Norwegian EFL learners consider themselves multilingual?*

RQ2: *In which contexts do French and Norwegian EFL learners use English?*

RQ3: *What is these learners' self-perceived English proficiency?*

RQ4: *What is these learners' affective relation to the English language?*

RQ5: *To what extent do the learners' multilingual identities and the other factors listed above correlate?*

As mentioned, the starting point of this MA thesis is to contribute to the body of research on the multilingual identity of French and Norwegian EFL learners and its correlation with contextual language usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors. The aim of this MA thesis is thus twofold: first, to provide descriptive statistics on EFL learners in France and Norway's attitudes towards the three factors which may be categorised based on the questionnaire: multilingual identity, contexts of English language usage, self-perceived

English proficiency level, and affective relations to English. This MA thesis's second aim is to investigate how learners' multilingual identities relate to the three factors listed above.

1.5 Structure

This thesis is divided into 5 chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 presents the theoretical framework that lays the foundation for this research, exploring key concepts, the French and Norwegian contexts, the framework of measurement, and previous research in the field. In Chapter 3, the research methods and approaches are explained, including a description of the LANGUAGES project and the rationale behind data selection. Chapter 4 presents the results and analysis, addressing each research question systematically. Finally, chapter 5 discusses the implications of these findings and gives suggestions for educational practice and future research.

2. Theoretical background

This chapter sketches a theoretical and contextual background for the research in this MA thesis and presents relevant prior research. As the field of multilingualism includes several definitions, approaches and beliefs, the theoretical framework will be presented in eight main sections: Multilingualism (2.1), Linguistic identity (2.2) Multilingual identity (2.3), The French context and the Norwegian context (2.4), Framework of measurement (2.5), and lastly, a summary of the chapter (2.6).

2.1 Multilingualism

2.1.1 Definitions and Conceptualisations

The overarching construct of the study, multilingualism refers to ‘the dynamic and integrated knowledge and/or use of more than one language or language variety’ (Haukås et al., 2021b, p. 84). Multilingualism is a complex phenomenon that comes in many forms (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 11). As a highly interdisciplinary field, the understanding of multilingualism varies drastically. A critical analysis of relevant literature reveals that this term is used to encompass a range of meanings, some of which appear contradictory (Marshall & Moore, 2018, p. 1). This section discusses the key dimensions that different understandings of multilingualism consist of; the number of languages involved, proficiency levels and contexts of use. In addition, some understand multilingualism solely as an individual phenomenon, while others perceive it either as a societal phenomenon or as both (Haukås et al., 2022, p. 2819). At the individual level, multilingualism may denote a person's identification as multilingual or their knowledge of several languages. At the societal level, groups may be viewed as multilingual, particularly at the national level. Belgium serves as an example of a multilingual country, as it has three official languages: Dutch, French, and German (Van Der Linden & Roets, 2017). The distinction between individual and societal multilingualism is pertinent to this MA thesis, as it examines learners in two national contexts that may or may not be regarded as multilingual. However, this MA thesis primarily addresses multilingualism at the individual level, focusing on the multilingual self-identification of young French and Norwegian learners (see Brevik et al., 2025).

The first aspect to definitions of multilingualism is the question of how many languages one must know to be considered multilingual. Haukås (2022) defines multilingual individuals

simply as “people who know more than one language” (p. 298), suggesting that knowledge of only two languages is sufficient to be considered multilingual. Based on this definition, bilingualism appears to be synonymous with multilingualism, as both imply knowledge of more than one language (Prasad, 2018, p. 319). Bilinguals are defined as individuals who speak two languages (Prasad, 2018). Several other concepts are associated with multilingualism in the literature and may be worth explaining before carrying on with the discussion on multilingualism. Firstly, a monolingual individual is understood as someone who speaks only one language (p. 319). There is literature discussing whether there exist “true” monolinguals in an age of transnational mobility, cultural and linguistic diversity, and this diversity becomes a defining feature of schools around the world, (Prasad, 2018, p. 315). The question of whether “true” monolinguals exist will not be discussed in this MA thesis. Other researchers, however, consider people to be multilingual only when they have acquired three or more languages (Haukås, 2022, p. 282). These understandings create a distinction between bilingualism (knowledge of two languages) and multilingualism (knowledge of three or more languages). The distinction between bilingualism and multilingualism is important for interpreting the subsequent data analysis. One reason for this is that we do not know which definition the participants (students) use to identify themselves as multilingual, although we can at least assume they will have thought about how many languages (and how well they must know them) this self-identification implies.

The second aspect to the definition of multilingualism regards how “language” is understood. Compared to Haukås’ definition, others use broader definitions of what “language” includes. The Council of Europe (CoE) refers to multilingualism as “the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one *variety of language* i.e. the mode of speaking of a social group whether it is formally recognised as a language or not; in such an area individuals may be monolingual speaking only their own variety” (2007, p. 8). This definition takes a broader understanding of what language is compared to Haukås, as the definition refers not only to “languages”, but also includes language varieties, raising questions about the status of, for instance, regional dialects (Storto, 2022, p. 620). In Storto’s study, he explores what “language” is, discussing whether dialects, sign language and other less conventional conceptualisations of communication should be considered when defining multilingualism. While acknowledging these various language varieties, his study concludes that, because most Norwegian dialects are mutually intelligible, they should not serve as a criterion for defining someone as multilingual (p. 620). However, research from the Norwegian Ungspråk project

reveals that Norwegian students often take a more flexible view, sometimes including languages they understand but do not speak (such as Danish and Swedish) or even regional varieties (e.g. Ålesund-, Stril, and Eastern-Norwegian dialect) in their definition of "knowing a language" (Haukås, 2023).

Another dimension in defining multilingualism concerns required proficiency levels and in what contexts language is used. Some definitions emphasise the frequency and regularity of language use rather than arbitrary proficiency thresholds. Haukås describes multilingualism as "the ability of societies, institutions, groups, and individuals to have regular use of more than one language in their everyday lives over space and time" (2022, p. 298). Similarly, the European Parliament defines multilingualism as "the ability of societies, institutions, groups and individuals to engage regularly with more than one language in their day-to-day lives" (Katsarova, 2022b, p. 22). These definitions highlight several important aspects: the regularity of use, language use in everyday life, and application across different contexts. They do not specify required proficiency levels or contexts of use, leaving the question of whether language practice in school versus out-of-school contexts should be considered weighted differently when evaluating multilingualism. As this MA thesis aims to characterise the use of language in various contexts, both in-person contexts and in various media-based contexts, *how* language is used is relevant. Haukås' (2022) definition is particularly interesting as it stresses *regular use and everyday lives*. In addition, Haukås' (2022) and the CoE (2007) definition both highlight the frequency (regular use) of more than one language. Thus, the two definitions do not specify in what contexts these languages are used for a society or individual to be considered multilingual.

Further, it may be of interest to draw a line between a language which is practised in in-school and out-of-school contexts when discussing who is seen as multilingual. For instance, to what extent is a Norwegian student multilingual, or to what extent do they perceive themselves to be multilingual if they practice English in in-school contexts versus practising English in out-of-school contexts? To exemplify, one student may use English during classes in school, practising standard varieties of a language, compared to another student practising less formal language learning at home, using more "colloquial language" (Vihman & Praakli, 2014, p. 176) or minority dialects of a language. The same question may be asked regarding language input versus output. How may multilingual identity be shaped based on whether language learning

is purely listened to (for instance, on the radio), watched (for instance, on a television show), or read (in a book), compared to speaking English on holiday, or talking to your family (output)? Some contexts may also serve as examples of both input and output, such as in conversations where students both listen to language (receptive) and produce language (productive). The family context may be an example of this. In one family, conversations can be interactive language contexts (input and output), whereas in other families, parents speak in one language, and the children may respond in a different language (input). With the definition of multilingualism by Haukås (2022) and the CoE (2007), we can view all students in French and Norwegian classrooms as multilingual, as they learn not only the language of schooling in their respective countries but also an additional, second language (L2) through their educational systems. Given this, the students have at least the language competences through the official language of schooling and additional language (see section 2.4.1 and 2.4.2). However, the students may also know other languages (OLs) individually, for instance from their family or friends, or other out-of-school contexts. The basis of defining all the participants in this MA thesis as multilinguals is due to the fact that these students learn English at school, and they therefore “engage on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives” (Katsarova, 2022, p. 2).

Multilingualism may refer to both an individual and a society. In European contexts, a distinction between plurilingualism and multilingualism is made, where plurilingualism refers to knowledge of multiple languages by an individual (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 11), contrary to multilingualism, defined as a societal phenomenon when languages coexist within a community (p. 11). The council of Europe defines multilingualism similarly, stating it as “the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one ‘variety of language’ i.e. the mode of speaking of a social group whether it is formally recognised as a language or not; in such an area individuals may be monolingual speaking only their own variety” (Council of Europe, 2007, p. 8). “Plurilingualism” on the other hand, refers to languages not as objects but from the point of view of those who speak them.” (p. 8). In this sense, it refers to the repertoire of language varieties that individuals use and is therefore the opposite of monolingualism. It includes a language variety referred to as ‘mother tongue’ or ‘first language’ and any number of other languages or varieties. Thus, in some multilingual areas, some individuals may be monolingual, while others may be plurilingual (p. 8). Similarly to Haukås’ (2022) perception of the term, this MA thesis adopts a broader understanding of the term, encompassing both individual and societal dimensions.

This thesis adopts the holistic view articulated by the Norwegian Ungspråk project, which defines multilingualism as "the dynamic and integrated knowledge and/or use of more than one language or language variety" (Haukås et al., 2021b, p. 83). In line with this perspective, the LANGUAGES project which provides data for this MA thesis, takes an explicitly inclusive approach to multilingualism, "where individual students might consider themselves monolinguals, multilinguals or plurilinguals" (Brevik et al., 2025, p. 2). This perspective understands multilingualism as a person's ability to use more than one language, regardless of proficiency level, thus not requiring students to be fluent in multiple languages to be considered multilingual.

2.2 Linguistic identity

Linguistic identity is described as "the way one identifies (or is identified by others) in each of the languages in one's linguistic repertoire" (Storto et al., 2024, p. 406). For instance, feelings of shame or pride concerning a language may be related to one's linguistic identity. These may be characterised as the student's affective relation to a language (Krulatz et al., 2022, p. 214) (see section 2.5.3 for affective factors). Linguistic identities are also understood as cultural interpretations of a person's relationship to a language (Showstack et al., 2024, p. 17). In this way, students may co-construct their identities as certain kinds of language users by establishing social relations through semiotic (meaning making) processes in different practices within and outside of the classroom (Showstack et al., 2024, p. 5). A vast amount of research has examined the role of social positioning in L2 learning over the last 25 years, with many of these focusing on linguistic identities (Showstack et al., 2024, p.17). One study demonstrated how the development of English language skills was related to the construction of linguistic identities in various social contexts, both within and outside the classroom (Showstack et al., 2024, p. 38).

2.3 Multilingual identity

Multilingual identity is an individual's explicit self-identification as multilingual precisely because of an awareness of the linguistic repertoire one has (Storto, 2022, p. 609). Different from but associated with 'linguistic identity' multilingual identity' is an 'umbrella' identity, which encompasses the former and leads individuals to explicitly identify 'as multilingual precisely because of an awareness of the linguistic repertoire one has' (op. cit., p. 2). In addition

to poststructuralist attributes of linguistic identity, this notion reflects a psychological theoretical perspective on identity and relates to a core identity, that is, a 'temporary fixed' sense of what one is (Storto, 2022, p. 406-407). However, Storto states that multilingual identity is constantly open to dispute and reconfiguration. This awareness of multilingual identity is viewed by scholars as having a “powerful and liberating effect on individuals”, which might positively influence the individual’s future language learning over time (2022, p. 609/610). In addition, learning foreign languages is quite often an enriching experience, leading adolescents beyond the confines of their own cultures and realities, and therefore having a transformative effect on their identities and self-perceptions (p. 609).

However, in educational contexts, there seems to be a general assumption that students’ awareness of the role of languages and language learning in identity formation is something that occurs tacitly, without much explicit reflection or intervention from teachers, educators or researchers (Fisher et al., 2018). Following Fisher et al. (2018), these assumptions are challenged, as this MA thesis believes that before students can possibly benefit from an awareness of their multilingual identities, it is necessary to understand how these identities are produced and to question the multiple factors involved in their formation. In Storto’s study, students had different perceptions of multilingual identity. For instance, both interpretations of the data infer that most students consider the knowledge of two languages (Norwegian and English) as enough for self-identification as a multilingual speaker." (Storto, p. 621).

Knowing more than one language has historically not always been seen as an advantage; it was noted as a mental handicap, and even as a curse to people and society during the first half of the twentieth century (Jensen 1962; Thompson 1952). Although these views likely still exist, nowadays multilingualism is increasingly perceived as a positive resource to individuals in societies.

In the LANGUAGES context-adapted Ungspråk questionnaire (Brevik et al, 2025), multilingual identification is operationalised in question number 48 (referred to as question 13 from this point onwards). This question explicitly asks the students whether they consider themselves multilingual, yielding a subjective assessment of whether French and Norwegian EFL learners possess a multilingual identity.

2.4 The Norwegian and French contexts

Teachers play a crucial role in providing students with opportunities to explore their own and others' multilingualism. Still, the curriculum does not guarantee that teachers adopt a multilingual approach in their teaching (Haukås et al., 2022, p. 2820). Teachers may lack knowledge on how to make use of the language repertoires of the students in the classroom, and with today's contemporary societies having increasingly diverse makeups, which consequently promote a shift in language learning and teaching (referred to as the *multilingual turn*), a vast amount of new research on multilingualism in education has been initiated. Hence, aspects remain under-researched, such as the relationship between having a multilingual identity and its implications for language practices in different contexts, as here, in the Norwegian and French contexts (see Brevik et al., 2025). Below follows a description of the Norwegian and French context in terms of multilingualism and English language learning in the educational systems.

2.4.1 The Norwegian context

In the Norwegian context, educational policies and patterns of language exposure considerably shape the status and development of multilingualism within the country. The Norwegian curriculum reform (LK20) explicitly acknowledges and highlights multilingualism as a valuable resource in language subjects. In the English subject curriculum, the core curriculum states that students “should be given a basis for seeing their own and others' identities in a multilingual and multicultural context” (Norwegian Ministry of Education: 2024). Further, “all students shall experience that being proficient in a number of languages is a resource, both in school and society at large” (NDET, 2024). This demonstrates how multilingualism is developing as a valuable resource within the Norwegian context. The curriculum also includes specific competence aims that encourage students to compare English with other languages they know, thereby validating the students' full linguistic repertoires (Norwegian Ministry of Education, 2024).

Further, as the majority language Norwegian has two written varieties (bokmål and nynorsk), and there are three official Sámi languages, as well as Kven, Romani, Romanes, and Norwegian sign language having official statuses in Norway, and near 300 unofficial minority languages (Rindal, 2022), Norway may be viewed as an inherently multilingual country. In addition, due

to the how closely related the Scandinavian languages are, most Norwegians have receptive multilingualism in relation to Swedish and Danish, meaning that they can understand and interact with the two languages even if they don't actively speak them (Haukås, 2022). In Norwegian school, students learn both of the written varieties of Norwegian, in addition to English, and most students choose a third language in grade 8 in lower secondary school. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude all Norwegian students to be considered multilingual (Haukås, 2022).

Despite the celebratory attitudes towards multilingualism in the Norwegian curriculum, it may be understood and operationalised in various ways. For instance, "proficiency" may be interpreted differently, and thus "being proficient in a number of languages" may be misleading and interpreted in various ways (Myklevold & Speitz, 2021, p. 2). In the multilingual context of Norway, language policy at the macro level supports the development of multilingualism. In comparison to the meso level, parental language beliefs, ideologies, and language practices in interactions among family members potentially play a critical role in learners' experiences of learning different languages and in shaping their multilingual identity. (Hosseini & Haukås, 2024).

English may be seen as an integrated part of Norwegian society, both based on the educational system and international rankings. Throughout the ten-year mandatory education in Norway, English is taught alongside Norwegian (NDET, 2024). This suggests that although English does not have an official status in educational policy, the policy in practice is bilingual in relation to English language learning (Rindal, 2013; 2022). As for international rankings, according to Education First's EPI (English Proficiency Index), Norway ranked 2nd of 116 countries/regions in relation to English language skills in 2024 and is characterised as highly proficient (EF, 2024). Two years prior to this, Norway was ranked as 4th out of 111 countries in relation to English language proficiency. This change may refer to an improvement, although these measurements are relative, and thus not entirely trustworthy measurements.

The status of English in Norway has been characterized by a shift from being a foreign language primarily taught in school to becoming an integrated language used in daily societal life (Rindal, 2020). Regarding English use on digital platforms, there is also considerable exposure to English among young Norwegians, as English-speaking forums dominate among young adults and adolescents' internet use (Norwegian Media Authority [NMA], 2024).

Based on Haukås' (2022) definition of multilingualism, all adolescent Norwegian students (included the participants in this MA thesis) can be identified as such, as they interact with several languages in an ordinary school week.

2.4.2 The French context

In the French context, educational policies and language exposure patterns also influence the development and status of multilingualism. Compared to the Norwegian context, English use in France is making "slow but steady progress" rather than revolutionary change, highlighting how multilingualism develops gradually within educational and societal contexts (Deneire & Forlot, 2024, p. 228). Contrary to Norway, the English language in France remains limited to international interactions and is used only, when necessary, most often in combination with other languages (p. 228). This relatively slow growth, when compared to that of some other countries, has sometimes been attributed to French resistance to English, as expressed by institutions and ideological stances, as well as by a few culturally conservative intellectuals in the national press. Resistance has been observed but is often linked to linguistic insecurity and the fear of being dominated in interactions with more proficient English speakers.

Despite this "slow but steady progress" of English in the French society, not all measures support this trend. According to Education First's EPI (English Proficiency Index), France ranked 49th out of 116 countries/regions in English language skills in 2024 and is characterised as moderately proficient. In 2022 France ranked 34 out of 111 countries, being labelled moderate proficiency on the EPI, indicating a relative decline in English language skills (EF, 2024). This stands somewhat in contrast to Norway, which has seen improvements in its English proficiency (see section 2.4.1), based on the English Proficiency Index.

2.5 Framework of measurement

For this MA thesis, three measurements are investigated in relation to EFL learners' multilingual identity: contextual language usage (2.5.1), self-perceived proficiency (2.5.2) and affective factors (2.5.3). These measurements were identified in collaboration with my supervisor, Associate Professor Stephanie Wold. This section will describe the measurement framework, explaining the self-assessment in language research.

2.5.1 Contextual language usage

Five contexts of language usage are identified in the LANGUAGES context adapted Ungspråk (Brevik et al., 2025). These five items (see section 3.2.2 for the wording) investigate English use in various contexts: with family and friends, on holiday, on the internet, and when consuming media (i.e., watching TV, films or listening to music). These items map out the use of English in these contexts for French and Norwegian students, which is presumably mainly outside of school situations.

2.5.2 Self-perceived Proficiency

In this MA thesis, self-perceived language proficiency (SPP) refers to students' attitudes regarding if they think they know English well. As stated in section 1.2.5, this MA thesis focuses specifically on how learners perceive their own English proficiency, and while objective measures, such as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2020), provide international standardised assessments of language ability, this MA thesis focuses specifically on how learners perceive their own English proficiency. Students self-perceived proficiency is operationalised through two items (see section 3.2.1 for the wording) found in the LANGUAGES context adapted Ungspråk (Brevik et al., 2025). The first item examines whether the students think they know English well (general self-perceived proficiency), and the second item examines how well the students think they know English in comparison to their peers (compared proficiency), providing relative measures.

2.5.3 Affective factors

Affective factors are defined as the emotional dimensions of language learning and use (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 207). Traditionally, affect was thought to encompass temperamental and emotional aspects of personality (and perhaps some aspects of volition); however, psychologists nowadays believe that affect both influences and is influenced by cognition as well. (Ortega, 2013, p. 193) Examples of affective factors may be certain personality traits which favour interest in the study of an L2 and increase the likelihood of success. Further, Ortega mentions Openness to experience (and self-confidence and creativity, among other qualities that may be important for L2 learning), extroversion, foreign language anxiety and willingness to communicate as other examples of affective factors (Ortega, 2013, p. 213)

Further, Ortega discusses how affective factors play a crucial role in language learning and identity formation, and how these emotional dimensions can significantly impact students' willingness to use English and their overall language learning experience (Ortega, 2013). The first empirical studies of L2 learning strategies appeared in the mid-1970s, researching what later became known as 'the good language learner' research (Ortega, 2013, p. 208). One of the studies investigated factors that might help that might help explain why some people are particularly successful in their quest to master an L2. These early findings indicated that, beyond natural language ability (i.e., aptitude) and personal commitment to learning (i.e., motivation), these 'good' learners were also characterised by a high degree of active involvement in their learning processes. (Ortega, 2013, p. 208). Considering this, the impact of exploring the affective factors of EFL learners can be regarded as crucial related to language learning and linguistic identities. In this MA thesis, affective factors are operationalised through three items found in the LANGUAGES context adapted Ungspråk (Brevik et al., 2025). These three items address pride in knowing English, perceived importance of English, and avoidance behaviours (see section 3.2.2 for the wording).

2.5.4 Gender

Differences in language learning by gender have been documented in educational research studies over many decades (Mertens, 2010, p. 24). Although gender is not mentioned explicitly in the research questions of this MA thesis, it may be an important variable to consider when investigating multilingual identities and language practices. Previous research consistently demonstrates that boys and girls may have different relationships with language learning and identity formation. For example, (Madsen, 2022, p. 70) found notable gender patterns in English language willingness to communicate among Norwegian EFL learners. In her study, girls showed a stronger positive correlation between their ideal L2 self and willingness to communicate in English ($r = 0.55$, $p = 0.05$), while boys showed weaker correlations that were not statistically significant. This suggests that girls may be more influenced by their future-oriented language identity when deciding whether to engage in English communication. Similarly, Madsen's' study found that "boys and girls may have distinct relationships with language learning and identity formation" (Madsen, 2022, p. 70), stating that research often suggests that girls tend to have more positive attitudes toward language learning and may be more effective communicators, though boys may be more likely to initiate communication in

certain contexts. These gender differences are relevant for understanding multilingual identity formation, as they suggest that male and female learners may construct and express their linguistic identities differently, potentially affecting how they engage with English across various contexts and how they perceive their own multilingual competence.

In this MA thesis, gender identity is operationalised through the first item (see section 3.2.2 for the wording) found in the LANGUAGES context adapted UngaSpråk (Brevik et al., 2025). A note should also be made regarding gender and how this is referred to in the analysis of this MA thesis (see chapter 4). As the LANGUAGES context adapted UngaSpråk (Brevik et al., 2025) investigates students' subjective opinion of their gender identity, the gender variable may be classified as “background (information)” (see section 3.3). However, in the analysis which will follow (see section 3.3.1), the gender item found in the questionnaire is referred to as “gender”, despite this not being an objective measure.

2.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has aimed to describe some aspects of multilingualism, linguistic identity, multilingual identity, followed by a contextual framing of English language learning in French and Norwegian schools. This outline suggests there is need for more research on multilingualism and the relationship between having a multilingual identity and its implications for language practices in different contexts.

3. Methodology

This chapter outlines the method employed to address the research questions (RQ) for this MA thesis. To provide the necessary background, the research questions guiding this MA thesis are first reiterated. Overall, this MA thesis aims to investigate the overarching question: *How do learners' multilingual identities correlate with contextual usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors?*

RQ1: *Do French and Norwegian EFL learners consider themselves multilingual?*

RQ2: *In which contexts do French and Norwegian EFL learners use English?*

RQ3: *What is these learners' self-perceived English proficiency?*

RQ4: *What is these learners' affective relation to the English language?*

RQ5: *To what extent do the learners' multilingual identities and the other factors listed above correlate?*

This chapter is structured as follows: First, the LANGUAGES research design is introduced, along with its sampling procedures (3.1), which include an explanation of my role in the project. Next, the quantitative research design is described (3.2), along with the context-adapted Ungspråk questionnaire (3.2.2), which specifies the items chosen for this MA thesis (3.2.2). Next, the data analysis procedures are described (3.3), including descriptive statistics, the method of regression analysis employed in this MA thesis (3.3.1). Finally, the credibility of the thesis is evaluated (3.4), which includes discussions of its reliability (3.4.1), the validity of the results (3.4.2), a significance test (3.4.3), and finally ethical considerations (3.4.3) and limitations (3.4.5).

3.1 LANGUAGES research design

The LANGUAGES project (Language Use and Instruction Across Contexts) aims to compare language use and instruction across the French, English, and Norwegian educational contexts (Brevik et al., 2025). The goal of the project is to advance the understanding of what characterises classroom instruction in English and French lessons, students' perspectives on their language instruction and how language teachers support language development among

students from different proficiency levels and language backgrounds. The project was initiated in 2021 and is led by Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik from the University of Oslo, together with partners from six universities in three partner countries: Norway (University of Bergen), England (University of Exeter and University of Oxford) and France (Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1 and University Lumière Lyon 2) (University of Oslo, 2021). The project has collected multiple forms of data, including video observations of language lessons, language proficiency tests, questionnaires, and interviews. In total, data was collected in 84 language classrooms of English and French across the three countries: Norway, France, and England (University of Oslo, 2021). The classroom recordings aim to capture the activities of both teachers and students, while the proficiency tests assess French vocabulary and English reading comprehension. The interviews aim to investigate students' and teachers' attitudes toward what constitutes helpful and challenging classroom instruction for fostering language learning. Lastly, the questionnaires map language instruction, language resources, and beliefs about multilingualism and linguistic identities. The context-adapted Ungspråk questionnaire is the data material in focus for my study, which will be described below (see section 3.2.2). The two data collection cycles were conducted over a two-year period, from 2022 to 2024. The first cycle took place during the 2022-23 school year, in 48 classes (24 English classes and 24 French classes), while the second cycle occurred in the 2023-24 school year, in 36 classes (17 English classes and 19 French classes). The Ungspråk questionnaire was administered only during Cycle 1.

The LANGUAGES project uses a longitudinal design, following the same student cohort and their teachers over two academic years: the two final years of compulsory schooling. The Norwegian participants were students in Years 9 and 10 (age 13-15), and the French participants attended corresponding years (4ème-3ème, age 12-14). Although the Ungspråk questionnaire was also administered to English participants, this MA thesis focuses exclusively on data from Norwegian and French respondents. The project received approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) in 2021 and similar ethical bodies in England and France and is funded by the Research Council of Norway (RCN) from 2021 to 2025 (project number 315985).

3.1.1 LANGUAGES sampling procedure

The participating countries were selected based on the varying status of the French and English languages in their respective societies and educational curricula (Brevik et al., 2025). The LANGUAGES project employed strategic purposeful sampling to recruit participating schools. LANGUAGES adopted a mixed method approach (Brevik, 2022). The research members at each partner university were responsible for recruitment in their respective countries based on the two LANGUAGES sampling criteria: socioeconomic status (SES) and linguistic diversity (LD) at the school or district level. To achieve maximum variation, the project sought to include half of the classes from the higher end and half from the lower end of each criterion, as specified in the table below (see Table 1). In Norway and France, an equal number of participating classes were recruited across the two countries, resulting in a total of 32 classes (16 French and 16 Norwegian classes), in addition to 16 classes in England. This purposeful sampling approach ensured diversity along these two parameters (SES & LD), see also Brevik et al. (2025).

Category	SES	LD	Classes	French classes	English classes	France	Norway	England
1	high	high	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
2	high	low	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
3	low	high	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
4	low	low	12	6	6	2+2	2+2	2+2
Total			48	24	24	16	16	16

Table 1: LANGUAGES sampling strategy and criteria on the school level (Brevik et al., 2025)^{1,2}

Access to the reuse of anonymised Ungspråk questionnaire data from LANGUAGES was granted through my supervisor, who is a LANGUAGES project member, and the PI. Although I hold the formal status of a student co-researcher in the project (Brevik, 2024), I did not participate in the data collection and was instead granted access to reuse data. However, I have analysed the anonymised Ungspråk questionnaire data and developed statistics to investigate participants' linguistic identities.

¹ In each country, there are 2 French classes and 2 Norwegian classes for each category.

² The sampling strategy was decided by the LANGUAGES project team for Cycle 1 of the project, in which the questionnaire was administered.

3.2 Research design - a quantitative approach

For this MA thesis, a quantitative research design is chosen, encompassing both data selection and analysis methods. This approach enables the identification of patterns across a medium-sized sample (521 respondents) that would be challenging to obtain through qualitative methods alone.

As Grønmo (2016) states, when data consist of numbers or are quantifiable, analysing them quantitatively is the appropriate method. Quantitative research methods investigate things such as test results or income levels, but can also be applied to measure other phenomena, such as attitudes in a survey (Grønmo, 2016, p. 141). In this project, questionnaire data is made quantifiable by transforming response options into numbers. Using closed questions from a questionnaire and applying statistical methods can illustrate relationships between numerical variables (p. 142), as this MA thesis will demonstrate. Survey investigations provide a comprehensive overview of various societal trends and can often accommodate a larger number of participants than qualitative research approaches. Choosing a quantitative approach provides measurable numbers, allowing for the application of statistical techniques to a greater extent than might be possible with qualitative research, which is often characterised by fewer units (p. 145).

The quantitative approach offers several advantages for this MA thesis. Firstly, the survey captures data from a larger number of participants across different contexts, providing broad coverage, enabling a more comprehensive analysis of patterns in Norwegian and French educational settings. With 521 respondents, the sample size provides sufficient foundation for testing statistical hypotheses to detect correlations between variables and allows for valid comparisons between national contexts (Ringdal, 2018, p. 284/285). This coverage would be challenging to achieve through qualitative methods such as interviews or observations. Secondly, the distance between the researcher and participants reduces potential bias in interpretation (Grønmo, 2016, p. 146), thereby providing a stronger basis for researcher objectivity. Unlike qualitative research, which is often characterised by closeness and sensitivity, a quantitative approach emphasises distance and selectivity (p. 145). In qualitative approaches, researchers often work directly with data sources or participants, which can introduce various interpretive biases. Employing a structured quantitative design provides a distance between the researcher and participants, limiting opportunities for misinterpretation

(p. 146). Thirdly, quantitative methods enable the identification of statistically significant patterns and relationships among the variables. Through regression and correlation analyses, I can determine not only whether relationships exist between self-reported multilingual identity, language usage, proficiency, and affective factors, but also the strength and direction of these relationships. Statistical testing enables one to determine whether observed patterns are likely to represent genuine relationships or merely chance occurrences, thereby enhancing the validity of the findings.

However, quantitative designs also have limitations. One concern relates to the suitability of data material for quantitative analysis. A questionnaire may include several questions that provide important contextual information, although these may need to be excluded if they don't function in a quantitative analysis framework (Grønmo, 2016, p. 146). This issue can sometimes make the data material superficial (p. 146). To address these concerns and to ensure valid results, validated research instruments, rigorous data collection procedures, strong theoretical foundations, and appropriate significance testing are essential. This approach enables consideration of the broader context surrounding the research project.

While a qualitative or mixed methods approach might have provided deeper insights into individual experiences, this quantitative design offers breadth of coverage and enables me to identify statistically significant patterns across the sample. This compromise between depth and breadth may be appropriate, given my research questions, which aim to identify general patterns rather than detailed individual narratives. Below is an overview of the MA thesis's research design.

Overarching research question	How do the learners' multilingual identities correlate with contextual usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors?
Research questions	RQ 1: Do French and Norwegian EFL learners consider themselves multilingual? RQ 2: In which contexts do French, and Norwegian EFL learners use English? RQ 3: What is these learners' self-perceived English proficiency? RQ 4: What is these learners' affective relation to the English language? RQ 5: To what extent do the learners' multilingual identities and the other factors listed above correlate?
Data material	Quantitative data: Students' questionnaire- Ungspråk, originally developed by Haukås et al. (2021) for the Ungspråk project, which in turn was adapted to the English, French and Norwegian contexts for the LANGUAGES project (Brevik et al., 2025).
Data analysis and analytical tools	RQ 1-4: Descriptive statistics using the programming language R to create tables and bar charts, some adapted in Excel. RQ 5: Regression and correlation analyses and significance test using the statistical software R. The table for significance was adapted using Claude (AI) (see section 3.4.4)

Table 2: Overview of MA thesis research design

3.2.1 Data material - The LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire

The primary data source for this MA thesis is a context-adapted LANGUAGES version of the Ungspråk student questionnaire. The LANGUAGES context adapted Ungspråk (Brevik et al., 2025) consists of three sections and aims to record participants' language use, language learning and views and ideas about language. The questionnaire collects students' own definitions of what it means to be multilingual and asks them if they identify as multilingual. Section One covers students' language background and usage, collecting information about their language repertoires (i.e., the languages they know and for how long they have known them), contextual language usage, and self-perceived proficiency. Section Two explores beliefs

about language learning and multilingualism, examining how multilingualism may impact various aspects, including intelligence, creativity, and understanding other languages or subjects. Lastly, section Three focuses on students' perceptions of the concept of multilingualism, asking them to define the term explicitly and whether they identify as multilingual themselves. In addition, section Three includes questions about the countries where the students have lived.

The questionnaire combines closed-ended questions (Yes/No and Likert scales) with open-ended questions, enabling more nuanced and individualised responses. As stated, my quantitative research approach only includes closed-ended questions, as the data analysis is limited to this type of data. It is worth noting that when students are asked whether they consider themselves multilingual (Item 13; see Table 3), they are also encouraged to provide an explanation for their response. While this open-ended question may provide valuable insights, it is not included in my data set due to the quantitative focus of this MA thesis and the scope of an MA thesis.

To investigate linguistic identities in L2 English learners, data from the French and Norwegian questionnaires were extracted. As stated, the quantitative method of analysis left only the closed questions found in the survey of interest. To answer the research questions, 13 questions from the LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire were selected as the data material (see Table 3 for the chosen variables). Due to only choosing closed questions with corresponding response options (e.g., Are YOU multilingual?, with three closed response options: “Yes”, “No” and “I am not sure”) from the survey, the recorded responses were quantitatively analysable. See section 3.3 for a description of the analysis. The project's data set consists of responses from 521 students. This is a medium-sized sample compared to larger ones, as found through other national data surveys, targeting a broader selection. It is still worth analysing due to the valuable comparison between different educational contexts.

3.2.2 Variables

For this MA thesis, 13 items were selected from the LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire, which relate to participants' multilingual identities, contextual English language usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors. Except for item 13, all chosen variables are from section 1 of the questionnaire. The table below describes the selected items chosen for this MA thesis:

Item number:	Item:	Response option:
1	How many years have you known English?	Less than 1 year 1-3 years 4-8 years 9-11 years My whole life
2	English is my first/native language	Yes/No
3	I use English with my family	Yes/No
4	I use English to speak to (some of) my friends	Yes/No
5	I (sometimes) use English when I go on holiday	Yes/No
6	I (sometimes) use English when I am on the Internet	Yes/No
7	I (sometimes) watch TV, films, or listen to music in English	Yes/No
8	I am proud that I know English	Yes/No
9	I think I know English well	Yes/No
10	It is important for me to know English	Yes/No
11	I avoid using English	Yes/No
12	How good do you think you are at the school subject English compared to others in your class?	Very good Good Average Below average
13	Are YOU multilingual?	Yes No I am not sure

Table 3: Overview of employed items from the LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire, English version³

³ Item 48 in the questionnaire is referred to as item 13 in this study.

Items 1 and 2 are included to provide contextual background and offer insight into how long the students feel they have known English. As this questionnaire investigates the students' attitudes, these answers are subjective; for instance, we do not know the students' understanding of what it means to "know a language." This represents the objective measure of when students start to learn English in the two national contexts covered in section 2.4. However, students may not necessarily view the starting point of learning a language as equivalent to "knowing a language." The second part of the section consists of 10 statements, to which participants responded either *Yes* or *No*. These items can be categorised into three groups, aligning with this MA thesis's research questions. The first three categories are the three factors which this MA thesis investigates. The categorisation of these items was done in collaboration with my supervisor, Associate professor Stephanie Wold.

1. *Contextual use* (Items 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7)

These five items investigate English use in various contexts (Yes/No): with family and friends, on holiday, on the internet, and when consuming media (i.e., watching TV, films or listening to music). The items related to contextual language usage map out these five contexts of use, in which students in France and Norway use English. The five may presumably be mainly outside of school situations.

2. *Self-perceived proficiency* (Items 9 and 12)

These two items investigate the students' self-perceived English proficiency. Item 9 asks the students if they think they are good at English (Yes/No). Item 12 examines the students' self-perceived proficiency in comparison to their peers, providing four relative measures of proficiency (ranging from below average to above average).

1. *Affective factors* (Items 8, 10, and 11)

The three statements relating to affective factors consider the students' emotional relationship to the English language (Yes/No). Item 8 examines the students' pride in knowing English, Item 10 explores the importance of knowing English, and Item 11 investigates avoidance behaviour.

These affective relations to the English language may have both emotional and cognitive value for the students (Haukås, 2016, p. 3). In addition, they may provide insight into the attitudes or possible motivations that students may have or lack.

Item 13 (from section 3) investigates whether students perceive themselves as multilingual, explicitly asking if they identify as such (Yes/No/I am not sure). Although the students were also asked to elaborate on their responses to this question, the connected inquiries are not included in this MA thesis due to the quantitative focus.

3.2.3 Limitations

A note should be made regarding one background variable. The questionnaire asks students to self-identify. There are slight differences in the response options for this question in the French and Norwegian questionnaires, due to context adaptation. In France, the students could respond with (a) “Girl”, (b) “Boy”, and (c) “Other”. In comparison, the Norwegian questionnaire includes an additional response: (d) “Non-binary.” For the analysis, categories c and d were combined, resulting in a total of 16 students for this combined category across the contexts, two more if *NA* is included. Although this variable is not included in the research questions for this MA thesis, it may add nuance to the understanding of how participants self-identify related to the use of English across various contexts, how their self-perceived proficiency might vary, or their affective relations to English. As most students identified as “Girl” ($n = 263$) or “Boy” ($n = 240$), the descriptive data presented for RQ 1-4 only compare these majority categories. Due to this, the total count of students ($n=521$) does not correspond to the sum of the counts for “Boy” and “Girl” ($n=503$).

Another note should also be made concerning the background responses and count in the tables found in the results (see Chapter 4). The descriptive statistics include all background responses in the total count for each question. Despite this, all tables in this MA thesis only compare the differences in results between the two majority categories (girls and boys). This leads to a discrepancy between the total count of responses and the number of responses from girls and boys (portrayed in the tables).

For transparency of the results, two notes should also be made concerning the percentages. All the percentages were calculated in the statistical software *R* and *Excel*. These were rounded off normally to the closest second decimal in each table. Secondly, one student response was

excluded from the data set due to incomplete completion. The data analysis is therefore continued without this student.

3.3 Data analysis

This section presents the procedures used to analyse the data to answer the research questions for this MA thesis. The extracted responses from the questionnaire were analysed using R, an open-source programming language and statistical software (Hermansen, 2019, p. 21). R is updated with the latest research methods and can be used for both simple and advanced statistical analyses and calculations. Compared to other similar programs, such as SPSS and Stata, *R* requires no payment and offers a broader range of applications and functions (p. 21).

For all research questions, codes in R were run to present findings from the data material. For RQ 1-4, descriptive statistics are presented in tables generated in R and formatted to the desired layout using Microsoft Excel. In preparation for the descriptive statistics, the data were first examined to determine the data type. Then they were changed from numerical values into categorical measures, making them eligible for analysis. Below follows a description of the recoding of the variables:

Name of variable(s) in dataset	Values of variable	Recoding and new values
<u>Background</u>	1 = Girl 2 = Boy 3 = Other	Recoded to categorical dummy variables: Girl=1, Boy =0 Other = (0, 1) ⁴ Girl: (reference value in the regression table)
<u>Country</u> SF (France) SN (Norway)	SF (France) = 1 SN (Norway) = 2	Recoded to categorical dummy variables: SN = 1, SF = 0 SN: (reference value in the regression table)
<u>Contexts</u> C_family C_friends C_holiday C_inet C_media.	Yes = 1 No = 2	Recoded to categorical dummy variables: (0,1)
<u>Self-perceived proficiency</u> Proficiency Compare (CP in the regression analysis)	Proficiency: Yes = 1 No = 2 Compare: 1 = Very good 2 = Good 3 = Average 4 = Below average (reference value in the regression table)	Recoded to categorical dummy variables: (0,1)
<u>Affective factors:</u> Pride Importance Avoidance	Yes = 1 No = 2	Recoded to categorical dummy variables: (0,1)
<u>Background information</u> Yrs_Eng First_lng_Eng.	Yrs_Eng Less than 1 year: (reference value in the regression table) 1 = 1-3 years 2 = 4-8 years 3 = 9-11 years 4 = My whole life First_lng_Eng Yes = 1 No = 2	Recoded to categorical dummy variables: (0,1)

Table 4: Recoding of variables

⁴ The 'Other' gender category was recoded as a separate dummy variable (0,1) and included in the regression model alongside the main dummy.

Descriptive statistics is a part of the quantitative methods used to identify, describe, and characterise patterns in the analysed data material. (Grønmo, 2016, p. 289). For the visual representation of the results for RQ 1-4, tables and bar charts provide a clear comparison between the differences and similarities of the Norwegian and French participants across the four research questions.

To investigate the correlations between French and Norwegian EFL learners' self-identification as multilingual (MLI) and three factors: contextual language usage (CLU), self-perceived proficiency (SPP), and affective factors (AF), a multivariate regression analysis is employed. The use of multilingual identity as the dependent variable in the study must be measured against the responses in these three categories of independent variables. However, as Wold (2017, p. 230) notes, it is insufficient to view these variables separately, as is done for RQs 1-4. Although descriptive statistics can describe the correlation between learners and how they respond to the four variables (MLI, CLU, SPP, and AF), a regression analysis considers all these variables together.

Rather than investigating the statistical significance of the variation between these four variables in isolation, a multivariate linear regression analysis is employed (p. 230). This analysis procedure is a useful, yet complex statistical analysis, but offers several advantages (p. 169). Firstly, it provides a clear overview of both the strength and direction of the impact of each independent variable on the dependent variable (Multilingual identity). Additionally, the model continuously controls for the effects of the other variables. (p. 230).

However, the regression analysis also has limitations. For instance, it can identify correlations, but not causation. This means that it can identify relationships between variables, but it cannot definitively determine which factor influences the other. For example, students might use English more because they have higher proficiency, or they might have higher proficiency because they use English more. These limitations are addressed in my discussion of results (see section 3.4).

There are several steps involved in the procedure of multivariate regression analysis. This section will outline the preparations. The results are presented in section 4.7. The analysis displays the correlation between the dependent variable, “multilingual identity”, and the three independent variables: Contextual language usage, Self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors), as well as the variables background, English as a first or native language, and the

number of years the students have known English. As this MA thesis compared these variables within the two national contexts, the Country variable is also included.

3.3.1 Block analysis

The nature of the study and the variables suggest that the best approach to handling the data is to group the variables for a block analysis. By doing so, the variables are organised for analysis based on block-wise selection (Wold, 2017, p. 171). Block analysis facilitates the evaluation of the effects of variables as coherent components rather than separately, particularly in cases where the original variants of the variables have been recoded as new variables (p. 230). Through block analysis, we can treat them as belonging to the same unit. The blocks are categorised into logical groups. It is worth noting that these six blocks are all analysed in correlation with the dependent variable: Multilingual Identity. In the multivariate regression analysis, each block is subsequently entered individually while disregarding the predictor variables, and the blocks are incorporated into the analysis one by one, providing insight into the relative impact of each block (p. 171). To prepare for the data analysis, the variables were first renamed to facilitate easier use in the dataset. A description of the six blocks and the variable names in the data set is as follows:

1. *Background*

The first block examines the effect of identity background (gender identity). In the dataset, this variable is named: *Gender*.

2. *Nationality*

The second block examines the effect of nationality through the *Country* variable. In the dataset, the two national contexts are denoted as *SN* (Norway) and *SF* (France).

3. *Contexts*

The third block measures the effect of using English in five contexts. The block contains five variables: (1) the usage of English with family, (2) friends, (3) on holiday, (4) on the internet, and (5) the use of *media* (TV, films, or listening to music). By making contextual language usage the first block, it can be investigated how students' contextual language usage affects their multilingual identity and then see whether other variables have any influence on this effect. In the dataset, these variables are named; *C_family*, *C_friends*, *C_holiday*, *C_inet* and

C_media.

4. *Self-perceived proficiency*

The fourth block measures the effect of self-perceived proficiency through two variables: self-perceived proficiency (whether students think they know English well) and compared proficiency (how good students think they are at English compared to their classmates). In the dataset, these variables are named: *Proficiency* (*SPP* in the regression analysis) and *Compare* (*CP* in the regression analysis).

5. *Affective factors*

The fifth block examines the effect of affective factors through three variables: Pride (whether students are proud to know English), Importance (whether students believe it is important to know English), and Avoidance behaviour (whether students avoid using English). In the dataset, these variables are named *Pride*, *Important*, and *Avoid*.

6. *Background information*

The sixth block includes background information about the students' English language knowledge, measured through two variables: Years of English (the number of years students have known English) and English as an L1 (whether English is the student's first or native language). In the dataset, these variables are named: *Yrs_Eng* and *First_lng_Eng*.

To prepare for the regression analysis, all variables must be recoded and controlled as categorical dummy variables. This means that all questions from Ungspråk, which only have two response options, were assigned two values: 0 and 1 (Ringdal, 2018, p. 417). This was accomplished by writing a piece of code in R that converts categorical variables into dummy variables and saves the result as a new dataset. The questions with multiple response options were also coded as dummy variables, but this was done for each response option. By doing so, variables that appear to be dummy variables (coded as "0" and "1")

Similarly, using this method, the Country variable was recoded from categorical (previously "SF" for France and "SN" for Norway) to numerical dummy variables (0 and 1). Norway was coded as 1 and serves as the reference category in the regression analysis. This process was applied to all variables that were used in the regression analysis. The variables with more than two possible answers, like the variable for "Years of English", were also recoded from a

categorical to several numerical values. After converting, all variables were checked to ensure the successful conversion from categorical to numerical variables.

3.4 Researchers' credibility

In the following sections, the reliability and validity of the present study are discussed, along with ethical considerations. To establish credibility as a researcher, it is essential to employ rigorous methods for collecting high-quality data, which are then carefully analysed to ensure both reliability and validity (Ringdal, 2018, p.102/103). While high reliability, or trustworthiness, implies that repeated measurements with the same instrument yield consistent results, high validity refers to research measuring what it aims to measure. Reliability is, therefore, a purely empirical question, whereas validity requires both empirical and theoretical assessments (Ringdal, 2018, p. 102).

3.4.1 Reliability

Reliability concerns "the degree to which the finding is independent of accidental circumstances of the research" (Grønmo, 2016, p.240/241). In this MA thesis, the question is whether the questionnaire effectively measures the intended concepts.

Several factors can lead to invalid measurements, such as variations in theoretical concepts. According to Tashakkori et al. (2020, p. 103), research reliability refers to the consistency, stability, or repeatability of a study's results, indicating that if the study were replicated, the same results would be obtained. For example, a survey may include questions that could be misinterpreted. Specifically, students' perception of "using English with family" may vary. For instance, does this imply speaking English constantly with one's entire family, or does it suggest using English frequently? These interpretive variations relate directly to the study's reliability.

Several factors strengthen the reliability of this MA thesis. Firstly, I use the LANGUAGES context-adapted Ungspråk questionnaire, which builds on the rigorously tested, validated and refined original Ungspråk version (Haukås et al., 2021) and was further developed by the LANGUAGES team of competent researchers (Brevik et al., 2025). This established instrument increases the likelihood that the data accurately represent the constructs being

measured and provides a standardised way of assessing students' language use and attitudes. The questionnaire was translated into the appropriate language for each context (Norwegian in Norway and French in France) and was administered under similar conditions across the contexts (Brevik et al., 2025). Secondly, the statistical analyses are conducted using R, a widely used and transparent statistical software that facilitates the replicability of analytical procedures (Hermansen, 2019). The specific procedures are documented in this chapter (see section 3.3), enabling other researchers to potentially reproduce the analyses. This transparency in analytical methods contributes to the overall reliability of the findings. Thirdly, the medium-sized sample of 521 respondents helps minimise the impact of individual variations in interpretation or response. Additionally, using multiple items to measure similar constructs (e.g., multiple items related to self-perceived proficiency) enhances the internal reliability of the measures.

However, there are also potential limitations to reliability. As Brevik (2015) notes, research involving people can never be fully replicated; for instance, the atmosphere in a classroom will never be identically recreated, and identical utterances will not be made. Additionally, the MA thesis relies on self-reported data, which introduces an inherent subjectivity that must be acknowledged. While this approach effectively captures students' perspectives, it is essential to recognise that the findings represent participants' perceptions rather than objective, falsifiable claims (Brevik et al., 2025). The self-reporting nature of the questionnaire may be subject to various biases, including social desirability bias (where participants answer in ways they think will be viewed favourably) and recall bias (inaccurate recollection of experiences) (Ringdal, 2018, p. 103). For example, students might under- or overestimate the number of contexts in which they use English or their own proficiency levels. Furthermore, participants' interpretations of questions may vary, particularly across different cultural and linguistic contexts, such as in Norway and France. Survey questions about language use might be understood differently by different respondents. For instance, when asked whether they use English with friends, some students might consider only face-to-face conversations, while others might include digital communication. Similarly, the survey item asking whether students consider themselves multilingual might be interpreted differently based on individual understanding of what multilingual identity implies.

3.4.2 Validity

Validity is referred to as “research that is plausible, credible, trustworthy, and therefore defensible” (Johnson, 2013, p. 299). It refers to whether a specific method employed is a good way of measuring what it intends to investigate (Grønmo, 2016). In this MA thesis, validity relates to whether the questionnaire effectively captures students' language practices, attitudes, and self-perceived proficiency. Several factors may lead to invalid measurements, for instance, variations in theoretical concepts (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104/105). Validity, therefore, refers not to the data themselves but to the researcher's evaluation to create findings that are correct and truthful (Tashakkori et al., 2020). Various types of validity are relevant to this MA thesis.

Content validity refers to the extent to which the questionnaire items accurately represent the concepts they are intended to measure (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104/105). The content validity of the original Ungspråk questionnaire is strengthened by its development through expert consultation (Haukås et al., 2021). The LANGUAGES context adapted Ungspråk (Brevik et al., 2025) comprehensively covers various dimensions of language use, including contexts of use, frequency, and attitudes, providing a “bigger picture” of students' language practices. Construct validity refers to the extent to which operational measures accurately reflect the theoretical constructs they represent (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104/105). In this MA thesis, construct validity is supported by the alignment between questionnaire items and established theoretical frameworks in the field of multilingualism research. For example, the items measuring language attitudes draw on well-established concepts in sociolinguistic research (Haukås et al., 2021). External validity refers to the extent to which findings can be generalised (Ringdal, 2018, p. 137). Although the sample size of 521 students provides reasonable statistical power, caution must be exercised when generalising beyond the specific contexts studied. The comparative approach between Norwegian and French contexts enhances external validity by identifying patterns that transcend cultural boundaries, but cultural specificity must still be acknowledged (Brevik, 2022; Brevik et al., 2025).

However, several limitations to validity must be acknowledged. First, the study relies entirely on self-reported data, which introduces inherent subjectivity. While self-reports effectively capture students' perceptions and attitudes, they may not always align with objective measures of language proficiency or observed language practices. Participants may overestimate their language abilities or misrepresent their language practices due to social desirability bias.

Second, the use of a single data source (the questionnaire) without triangulation with other methods (such as observations or interviews) limits the ability to cross-validate the findings. A mixed methods approach incorporating qualitative data could strengthen validity in future research (Brevik, 2022; Tashakkori et al., 2020).

Additionally, my position as a Norwegian researcher introduces potential bias in data interpretation, particularly in the comparative analysis between Norwegian and French contexts. Having grown up in the Norwegian educational system, I may possess implicit assumptions about language learning environments that could influence my interpretation of the data. To mitigate this bias, I have engaged in critical reflection throughout the research process and consulted with colleagues familiar with the French educational context to ensure contextual sensitivity in my analysis. This reflexive approach is crucial for maintaining validity when conducting cross-cultural research (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Furthermore, contextual sensitivity presents both a challenge and an opportunity for validity. While the questionnaire was carefully translated and adapted for both Norwegian and French contexts, certain concepts related to multilingualism and language learning may carry different cultural connotations in each setting. These cultural nuances could affect how participants interpret and respond to questions. However, this threat was minimised as members of the LANGUAGES project from France carefully studied and provided input concerning the French version (Brevik et al., 2025): As such, this cross-cultural perspective also provides valuable insights into how language learning experiences are shaped by broader sociocultural factors, enhancing the ecological validity of the findings.

The validity procedures employed in this MA thesis, including the use of a validated instrument, careful translation processes, appropriate statistical analyses, and reflexive consideration of researcher positionality, address the multiple validities requirement for legitimisation in quantitative research (Brevik, 2022; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). While acknowledging the limitations outlined above, these procedures establish a foundation for defensible findings that contribute meaningfully to our understanding of adolescent multilingualism across different contexts.

3.4.3 Significance testing: the F-test

Significance testing is a statistical practice that helps determine whether the results occurred by random chance or represent a real effect that can be generalised to the population (Ringdal, 2018, p. 285). These tests are conducted to find whether the regression analysis performed in the study is statistically significant. Using the statistical software R, the F-tests was conducted. Additionally, by using block analysis (running multiple models with the stepwise addition of variables), I assessed the robustness and stability of the significance through subsample analysis, which involved splitting the sample and adding the block one by one.

Researchers in education often state that their results are statistically significant at the 0.05 or 0.01 level (Mertens, 2010, p. 5). These levels refer to the researchers' confidence that similar results would probably be obtained if the study were repeated using other samples drawn from the same population. For this MA thesis, a significance level of $p < 0.05$ is considered statistically significant. However, it is essential to note that the findings should still be interpreted with caution.

For the regression coefficient table, the F-test was used to examine whether the models/blocks provide meaningful explanatory power (Ringdal, 2018, p. 390). This test was conducted in the statistical program R, where each block (see section 3.3.1) was tested individually before the full model was evaluated. The F-test assesses whether the combination of predictors offers statistically significant explanatory power beyond what may be attributable to chance. By employing the F-test, it confirms whether the chosen research approach captures meaningful relationships. The output from the F-test yields R^2 values ranging from 0.013 to 0.109. Although the F-test may pass this hurdle of controlling overall model significance and checking for multicollinearity, several other tests may be conducted to further strengthen the validity of the results. However, due to the scope of this MA thesis, the F-test serves as the primary foundation for validating the regression analysis results.

3.4.4 Ethical considerations

Throughout the data collection, processing, and writing of this thesis, research ethics have been a crucial part of conducting reliable and responsible research. The LANGUAGES project received approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) in 2021, alongside

similar ethical boards in England and France, ensuring compliance with ethical standards for research involving human participants (Brevik et al., 2025).

Firstly, all participants in this study participated voluntarily after being properly informed about the research purpose. For students under 15 years of age, parental consent was obtained prior to data collection when necessary (Brevik et al., NESH, 2022). This approach aligns with established ethical practices in educational research (Brevik, 2013; Busher & James, 2012; Ryen, 2011).

It is worth noting that consent procedures varied slightly between the Norwegian and French contexts due to differences in institutional requirements and cultural practices regarding research in educational settings. However, in all cases, the core principles of informed consent and voluntary participation were maintained. Participants were explicitly informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time without consequences, emphasising the voluntary nature of their involvement.

Data security and privacy have been prioritised throughout this research. The questionnaire data were collected, stored, and analysed using the University of Oslo's Services for Sensitive Data (TSD) portal. TSD provides a secure digital infrastructure specifically designed for research involving sensitive personal data, ensuring compliance with both Norwegian and European data protection regulations. Access to the raw data was strictly limited to authorised researchers within the LANGUAGES project, and all data processing adhered to the protocols outlined in the NSD-approved data management plan.

To ensure the anonymity of the participants, necessary identifying information was removed during data processing; specifically, the data used in this MA thesis was anonymised before I was granted access. No names of students, schools, or specific geographical locations are mentioned in this thesis.

Researchers have often discussed whether potential participants feel social pressure to participate in educational research (Ryen, 2011; Silverman, 2013). Blikstad-Balas (2013) claimed that "the fact that students usually have to consent to what teachers propose and that the power relation between students and teachers is uneven makes it problematic that the activities initiated by a researcher are often perceived by the class as approved by the teacher" (p. 47). However, in this study, the anonymous nature of the questionnaire was emphasised,

ensuring students understood that their individual responses would not be identifiable to their teachers or school administrators (Brevik et al., 2025).

In reporting the findings, I have tried to give an honest and accurate representation of the data. This includes acknowledging the study's limitations, avoiding overstatements of claims, and presenting both expected and unexpected findings. The ethical obligation of a researcher extends beyond data collection to the responsible communication of results, particularly when those results may inform educational practices affecting young people. These ethical considerations collectively demonstrate a commitment to conducting research that not only advances knowledge in the field but also respects the dignity, privacy, and autonomy of all participants involved.

3.4.5 Limitations

In the interest of transparency and academic integrity, an explanation of the two tools employed throughout the research process is provided. For this MA thesis, the artificial intelligence tool *Claude* and the writing tool *Grammarly Pro* have been employed. This is to ensure that the assessors can accurately evaluate my independent contributions to the project.

The artificial intelligence (AI) tool *Claude 3.7 Sonnet* has been used as a statistical computing tool in conjunction with the programming language R. Specifically, codes have been provided to create descriptive statistics (for RQs 1-4) and for the procedures of the regression analysis (for the main RQ). Although Claude automated these codes, I experimented to determine which codes needed to be run to analyse the data material. For the interpretation of the data, Claude provided ideas on how to interpret the regression coefficients, double checked numbers in tables, as well as highlighting the significant results found. While this tool automated certain computational aspects, I designed the analytical approach, selected the appropriate methods, interpreted the results, and drew conclusions based on them. In addition to providing codes for using R, Claude was employed to revise sections of texts, identifying potentially unclear phrasing or providing recommendations on structural coherence and grammar errors. The suggestions from Claude were evaluated before implementation. As AI tools have their limitations, suggestions were revised considering existing theory and independent critical thinking.

The writing tool *Grammarly Pro* was used as a technical tool for linguistic improvement. Specifically, it was used for proofreading and identifying grammatical errors and spelling mistakes. Additionally, it was used to enhance readability and clarity.

3.5 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the methodology of this MA thesis is outlined, including the research design of the LANGUAGES project and the quantitative approach adopted in this MA thesis. The data material has been presented, along with the chosen items from the LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire. Lastly, analytical procedures and considerations of reliability, validity, and ethics have been covered.

4. Results, analysis and discussion

To answer the research questions, this chapter will present, analyse, and discuss the data collected. As mentioned in the Methodology chapter, the data are collected using a questionnaire designed to record participants' language use, learning and views and ideas about language (Brevik et al., 2025); see section 3.3.1 for details on the LANGUAGES Ungspråk questionnaire. The statistical software R and Microsoft Excel are used to examine the data, and several significance tests were performed to provide information on the probability of the findings (see table 15 for the test results).

This chapter is structured according to the order of the research questions (RQ). First, a demographic overview of the participants is presented (4.1), followed by background information on the participants (4.2). Next, descriptive statistics for RQ 1-4 is presented: RQ1: multilingual self-identification (4.3), RQ2: contextual English usage (4.4), RQ3: self-perceived English proficiency (4.5) and RQ4: affective English relation (4.6). Finally, RQ5: results from the regression analysis and according to a significance test are presented and discussed, (4.7), measuring the correlation between students' multilingual identities and other factors investigated.

Since this is not an observational study, it is important to highlight that all data represent participants' self-reported responses. This means that the four aspects investigated: multilingual identity, contextual language usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors, reflect students' attitudes and their own understanding of the questions rather than objective measurements (cf. Ringdal, 2018, p.104).

4.1 Demographic overview of participants

National context	Girl	Boy	Other + NA	Total
France	114 (49,6%)	111 (48,3%)	5 (2,2%)	230 (100%)
Norway	149 (51,2%)	129 (44,3%)	13 (4,5%)	291 (100%)
<i>Total</i>	263 (50,5%)	240 (46,1%)	18 (3,5%)	521 (100%)

Table 5: Demographic overview of participants

As shown in Table 5, the Norwegian sample ($N=291$) is noticeably larger than the French sample ($N=230$). The gender distribution is relatively balanced in both national contexts, with a slight majority of girls in the overall sample (50.5% vs. 46.1%). A small percentage of students (3.5%) identified as "Other" or did not provide a response for this question. Although gender is not the primary focus of this MA thesis, it provides an additional dimension for understanding patterns in the data. Keeping in mind that, as stated previously (see section 2.5.4) gender differences often occur in language studies.

4.2 Background information

Two items from the questionnaire provide important background information about the participants' relationship with English: how many years they have known English, and whether English is their first/native language. These factors may influence their multilingual self-identification, language usage patterns, self-perceived proficiency, and affective relationship with English.

4.2.1 Years of English

To get insight into how long the participants have known English, the students were asked in the questionnaire, explicitly "How many years have you known English?". The response options ranged from «Less than 1 year», to "My whole life". Table 5 presents the distribution of responses. This question may provide background information about the students' knowledge of English.

National context	< 1 year	1-3 years	4 – 8 years	9 – 11 years	Whole life	Total
France	1 (0,4%)	46 (20,0%)	107 (46,5%)	53 (23,0%)	23 (10,0%)	230 (100%)
Norway	5 (1,7%)	6 (2,1%)	165 (56,7%)	93 (32,0%)	22 (7,6%)	291 (100%)
<i>Total</i>	6 (1,1%)	52 (10,0%)	272 (52,1%)	146 (28,0%)	45 (8,6%)	521 (100%)

Table 6: Years learners have known English

Table 6 shows that most students in both countries report having studied English for 4 to 8 years, with many also indicating 9 to 11 years of English experience. This aligns well with the duration that we know the students have actually been learning English at school.

A notable difference appears in the shorter duration categories: 20.4% of French students report knowing English for 0-3 years, compared to only 3.8% of Norwegian students. This difference may reflect variations in students' perceptions of how long they have known the language or when English instruction is introduced in the two educational systems. Interestingly, a similar percentage of students in both countries (around 8-10%) report knowing English their "whole life," which may indicate early exposure through family members, media, or society. The possibility that immigrants arriving in the respective countries in recent years may not have had English at school is a factor that may influence these results.

4.2.2 English as a first/native language

The second background question asked whether English is the student's first/native language. Table 7 presents these results.

	Yes	No	Total
France	12 (5,2%)	218 (94,8%)	230 (100%)
Boys	4 (3,6%)	107 (96,4%)	111 (100%)
Girls	8 (7,0%)	106 (93,0%)	114 (100%)
Norway	8 (2,7%)	283 (97,3%)	291 (100%)
Boys	4 (3,1%)	125 (96,9%)	129 (100%)
Girls	2 (1,3%)	147 (98,7%)	149 (100%)
Total	20 (3,8%)	501 (96,2%)	521 (100%) ⁵

Table 7: Students with English as their first/native language

⁵ The total counts include responses from the gender option "other".

The findings in Table 7 indicate that most students report not having English as their first or native language (96.2%), confirming that most participants are indeed EFL learners. Interestingly, slightly more French participants report English as their first language (French: 5.2%, Norwegian: 2.7%). In terms of gender differences, more girls in France report English as their first or native language (7.0% vs. 3.6%), whereas in Norway, the pattern is reversed, with 1.3% of girls and 3.1% of boys reporting English as their first or native language. However, these numbers are so small that they may not represent significant patterns.

Sections 4.3 through 4.7 will present the findings related to each of the four research questions, beginning with the results on multilingual self-identification.

4.3 Research question 1: Multilingual self-identification

Research Question 1 asks: "Do French and Norwegian EFL learners consider themselves multilingual?" To answer this question, students were asked directly: "Are YOU multilingual?" with response options of "Yes," "No," and "I am not sure." Two visualisations show the results; Table 8 illustrates the gender differences in the answers, and Figure 1 is used to discuss the differences between the French and Norwegian participants.

	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
France	154 (70,0%)	43 (18,7%)	33 (14,4%)	230 (100%)
Boys	79 (71,2%)	19 (17,1%)	13 (11,7%)	111 (100%)
Girls	72 (63,2%)	23 (20,2%)	19 (16,7)	114 (100%)
Norway	209 (71,8%)	40 (13,8%)	42 (14,4%)	291 (100%)
Boys	101 (78,3%)	15 (11,6%)	13 (10,1%)	129 (100%)
Girls	98 (65,8%)	23 (15,4%)	28 (18,8%)	149 (100%)
Total	363 (69,7%)	83 (15,9%)	75 (14,4%)	521 (100%)

Table 8: Students' multilingual self-identification⁶

⁶ The total counts include responses from the gender option "other".

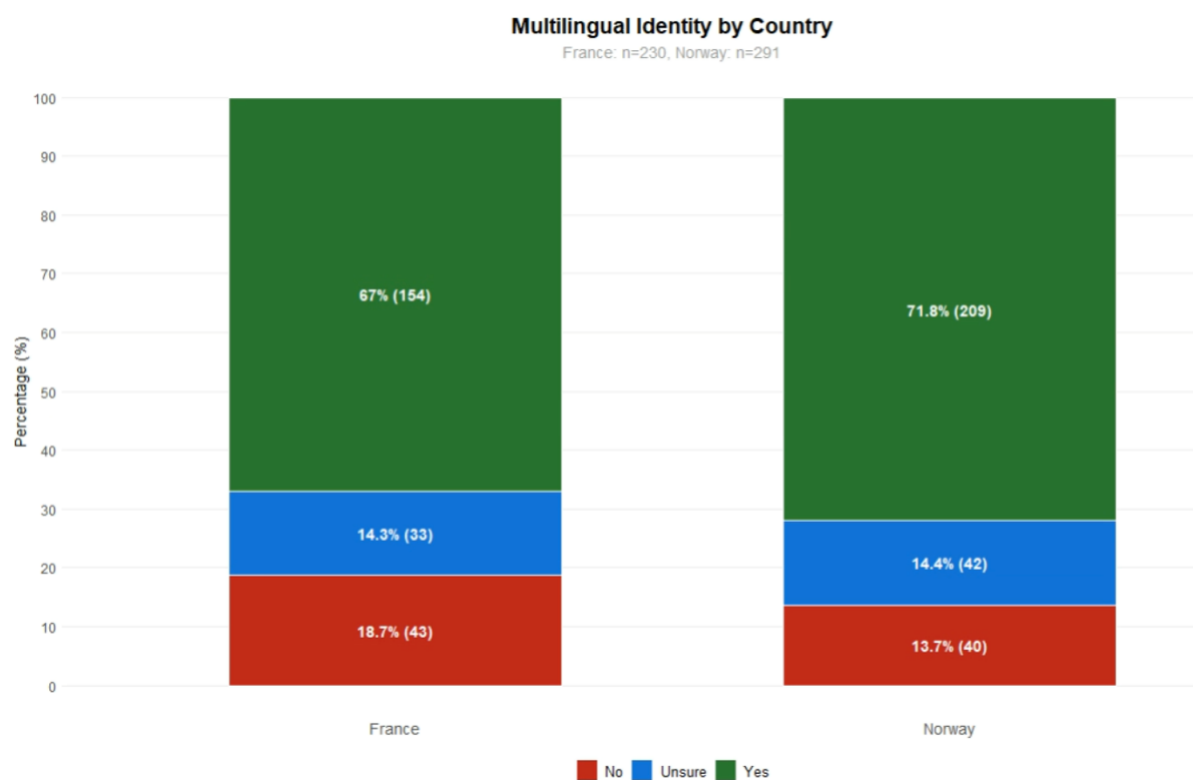


Figure 1: Students' multilingual self-identification

Table 8 indicates that approximately seven out of ten students in both countries identify as multilingual (France: 70.0%; Norway: 71.8%). This signifies a relatively high level of multilingual self-identification (MLI) among EFL learners in both national contexts. Interestingly, there is a resemblance between the countries, despite the differing language policies and patterns of English exposure discussed in Chapter 2. The way students define their multilingual identity is not investigated in the present MA thesis due to the quantitative nature of the study, although it is investigated in *Ungspråk*. Some students may consider their other languages when asked about their MLI, rather than focusing solely on English, as the results display little difference between Norwegian and French students, despite Norwegian learners being introduced to the language at a younger age.

Gender differences emerge in both countries, with boys being more likely to identify as multilingual than girls. In France, 71.2% of boys identify as multilingual, compared to 63.2% of girls. In Norway, this pattern is even more pronounced, with 78.3% of boys identifying as multilingual, compared to 65.8% of girls. These gender differences align with research suggesting that boys and girls may have distinct relationships with language learning and identity formation (Madsen, 2022, p. 70).

The reports for "unsure" capture approximately 14% of students in both countries, suggesting that multilingual identity may not be clearly understood among young language learners. This uncertainty may reflect the uncertainty of defining oneself as multilingual, maybe particularly for students who are currently developing their language competencies.

4.3.1 Discussion

These findings challenge traditional assumptions about multilingual identity in EFL contexts. The high rates of multilingual self-identification suggest that students do not require native-like proficiency to consider themselves multilingual. This aligns with the holistic approach to multilingualism adopted by the LANGUAGES project (Brevik et al., 2025).

The similar rates among countries, despite Norway's generally higher English proficiency levels (as discussed in section 2.4.1), suggest that the formation of multilingual identity may be influenced by factors beyond objective language competence. This supports Storto's (2022)

conceptualisation of multilingual identity as "an individual's explicit self-identification as multilingual precisely because of an awareness of the linguistic repertoire one has" (p. 609).

4.4 Research question 2: Contextual language usage

Research Question 2 investigates "In which contexts do French and Norwegian EFL learners use English?" Students responded to five statements regarding their use of English in various contexts: with family, with friends, on holiday, on the internet, and while consuming media (TV, films, and music). Table 9 and Figure 2 below present the results.

	France		Norway	
Context	Yes	No	Yes	No
Family	28 (12,2%)	202 (87,8%)	49 (16,8%)	242 (83,2)
Friends	50 (21,7%)	180 (78,3%)	117 (40,2)	174 (59,8%)
Holiday	144 (62,6%)	86 (37,4%)	268 (92,1%)	23 (7,9%)
Internet	159 (69,1%)	71 (30,9%)	284 (97,6%)	7 (2,4%)
Media	188 (81,7%)	42 (18,3%)	289 (99,3%)	2 (0,7%)

Table 9: Students' contextual language usage⁷

⁷ The total counts include responses from gender option 3.

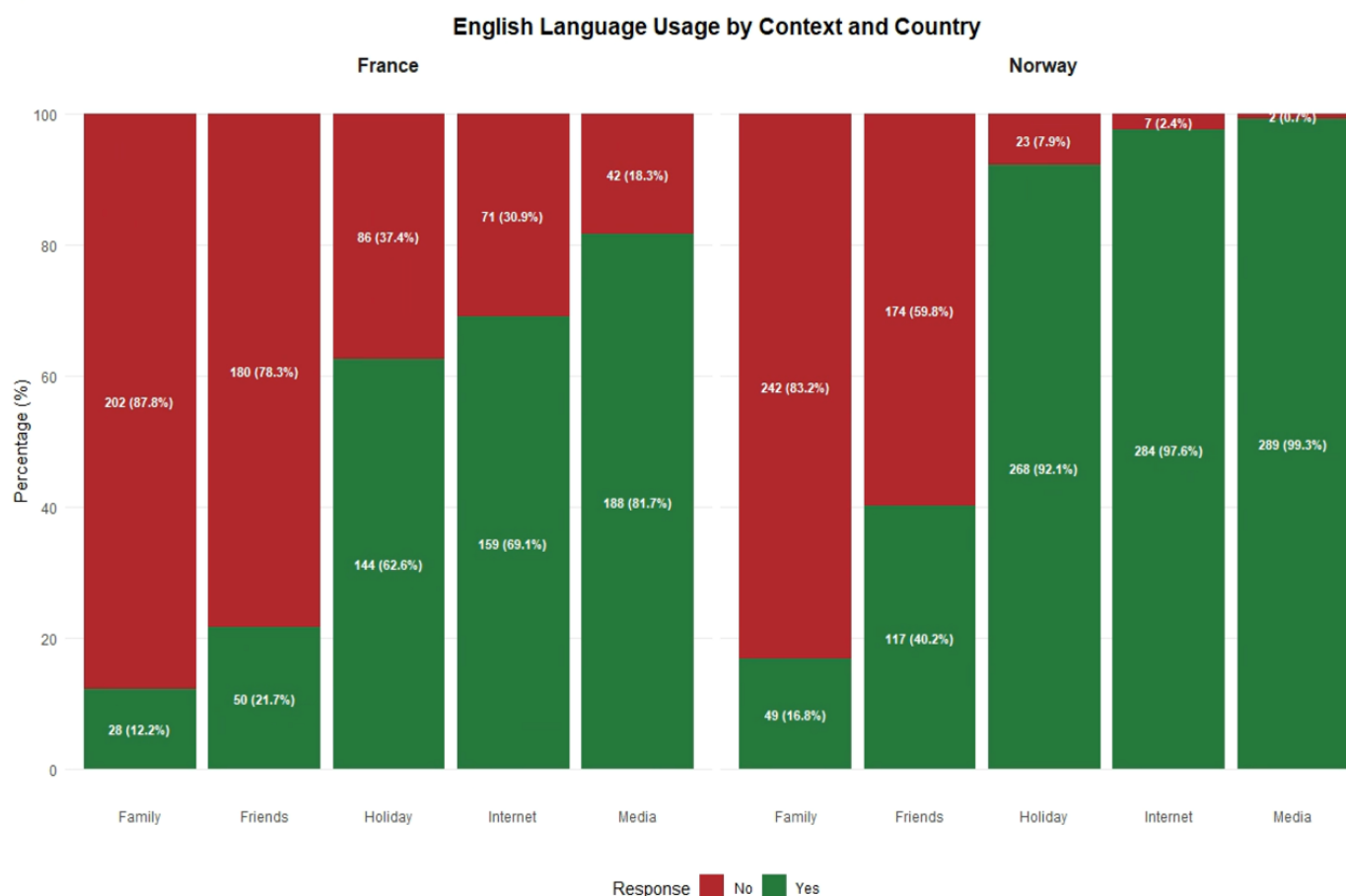


Figure 2: Students' contextual language usage

Table 9 and Figure 2 reveal a clear hierarchy of contexts in both France and Norway, with media consumption being the most common context for English use, followed by internet use, holiday use, interactions with friends, and interactions with family. However, Norwegian students report substantially higher usage across all contexts.

Media and internet consumption, as well as holiday usage represents the most common contexts. For media 81.7% of French students and 99.3% of Norwegian students reporting English use while watching TV, films, or listening to music. This nearly universal usage in Norway suggests that English-language media is well integrated into the daily lives of Norwegian adolescent learners. Internet usage reveals the largest between-country difference (28.5 percentage points), with 97.6% of Norwegian students compared to 69.1% of French students using English on the internet. This difference may reflect varying patterns of internet consumption, possibly the availability of content in native languages, or the students' comfort level with using English in digital environments. Holiday usage also differs substantially (29.5

percentage points), with 92.1% of Norwegian versus 62.6% of French students using English when travelling. This difference may reflect variations in travel patterns, destinations, or cultural expectations regarding language use abroad. In addition, Rindal (2022) argues that Norwegian society has a socioeconomically strong population, allowing for frequent travel to destinations where English is often used for communication.

Interactions with friends and family represent the least common contexts. Friend interactions reveal moderate differences (18.5 percentage points), with 40.2% of Norwegian students versus 21.7% of French students using English with their friends. This suggests that English is used more with friends in Norway compared to France. One study investigated Norwegian students' use of translanguaging in English, showing that it was not uncommon for Norwegian students to use translanguaging as a necessary account (Prilutskaya, 2020). The common use of translanguaging among Norwegian adolescents may be one reason for the high report in the friend context compared to that of the French students. Family usage represents the least common context in both countries (16.8% in Norway, 12.2% in France), indicating that English remains largely outside the family domain for most students.

4.4.1 Discussion

These patterns suggest that Norwegian students engage with English as a more integrated part of their daily lived experience than students from France. The Norwegian pattern aligns with research indicating that English functions almost as a second language in Scandinavian countries due to extensive societal and media exposure and high proficiency levels (Rindal, 2024). The dominance of media and internet contexts supports theories about the importance of informal learning environments for language acquisition. These findings suggest that out-of-school exposure may be as important as formal instruction for developing English competence (Ahmadian et al., 2024; Sandsør & Brevik, 2024)

When considering gender differences in English usage across various contexts, only minor differences are observed. As these were not noteworthy, they are not included in the visual representation of the results. The results indicate that French girls use English with their families more than boys (17.5% vs. 7.2%), while in Norway, the gender difference is negligible (15.4% vs. 17.8%). Girls in both countries use English with friends slightly more often than boys, although the differences are minimal. Holiday usage revealed minimal gender differences in both countries, suggesting that this context is equally accessible regardless of gender.

Considering the pedagogical value of recognising that students engage with English differently across contexts, these findings could inform teaching approaches that better connect classroom learning with students' existing language practices, particularly in digital and media environments where students already demonstrate high engagement.

4.5 Research question 3: Self-perceived proficiency

Research Question 3 investigates: *What is these learners' self-perceived English proficiency?*

This was measured through two questions: general self-perceived proficiency ("I think I know English well") and comparative proficiency ("How good do you think you are at the school subject English compared to others in your class?").

4.5.1 Self-perceived English proficiency

Students responded to if they think they know English well. Table 10 and Figure 3 reveal substantial differences between French and Norwegian students' self-perceived English proficiency, presented below.

	Yes	No	Total
France	153 (66,5%)	77 (33,5%)	230 (100%)
Boys	74 (66,7%)	37 (33,3%)	111 (100%)
Girls	75 (65,8%)	39 (34,2%)	114 (100%)
Norway	267 (91,8%)	24 (8,2%)	291 (100%)
Boys	121 (93,8%)	8 (6,2%)	129 (100%)
Girls	133 (89,3%)	16 (10,7%)	149 (100%)
Total	420 (80,6%)	101 (19,4%)	521 (100%)

Table 10: Students' self-perceived proficiency⁸

⁸ The total counts included responses from gender option 3.

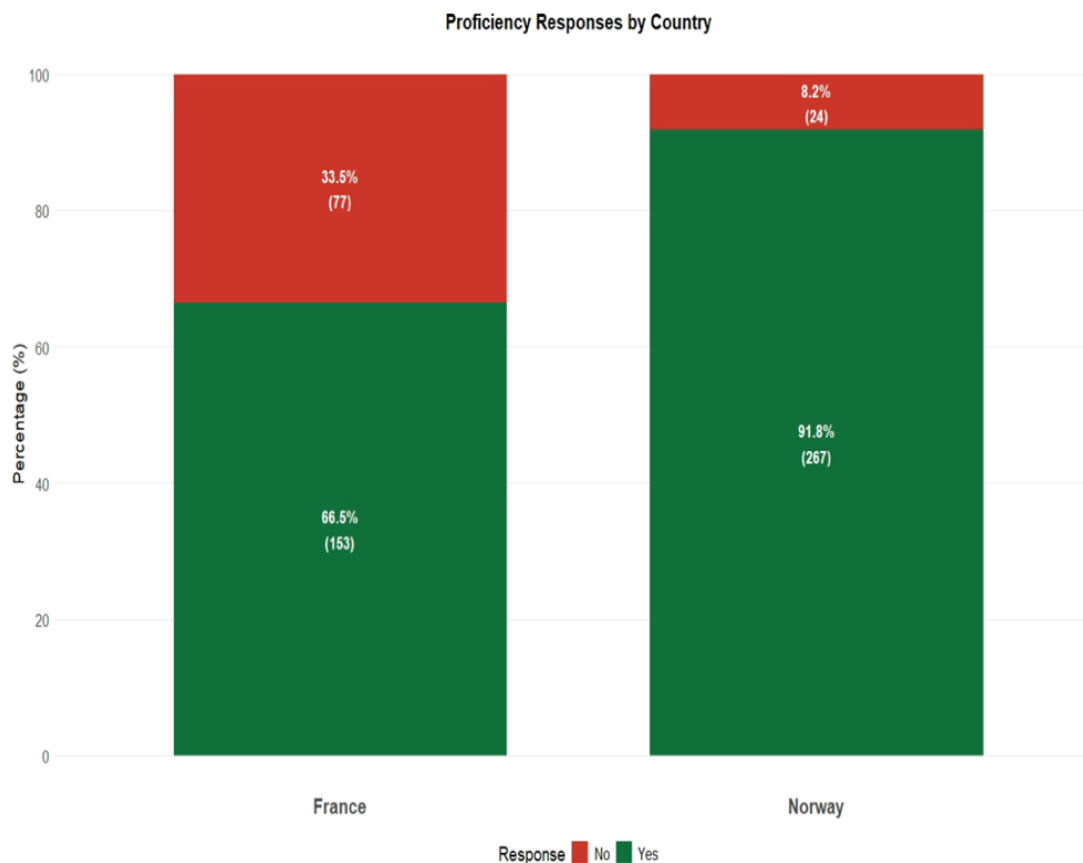


Figure 3: Students' self-perceived proficiency

Table 10 and Figure 3 reveals substantial differences in the self-perceived English proficiency of French and Norwegian students. When asked whether they think they know English well, most students in both countries responded positively, but with markedly different proportions. Norwegian students demonstrate considerably higher confidence in their English abilities, with 91.8% reporting that they know English well, compared to only 66.5% of French students, a difference of 25.3 percentage points.

This substantial gap suggests that Norwegian students have considerably greater confidence in their English language abilities compared to their French counterparts. Interestingly, while Norwegian students overall report higher proficiency, the gender patterns differ between countries. In Norway, boys report slightly higher self-perceived proficiency than girls (93.8% vs. 89.3%), which aligns with Sandsør and Brevik (2024), whereas in France, the gender difference is minimal (66.7% vs. 65.8%).

However, as the questionnaire is subjective and investigates attitudes, the results are not necessarily objective representations of actual English linguistic proficiency, although they align well with the EPI Index (EF, 2024).

4.5.2 Discussion

The differences between France and Norway may be rooted in several factors. Although these findings may be speculative, differences in language exposure, educational systems, and cultural attitudes toward English may influence the results.

These findings align with the contextual language usage patterns presented in section 4.4, where Norwegian students reported substantially higher English use across all contexts. Students who use English more frequently in their daily lives, through media consumption, internet use, and social interactions, may naturally develop greater confidence in their abilities (Ahmadian et al., 2024; Rindal, 2024).

These self-reported proficiency levels show some correspondence with objective measures. While these perceptions against standardised tests in this MA thesis cannot be fully validated, the relative difference between Norwegian and French students aligns with patterns observed in the EPI Index (EF, 2024).

However, it is crucial to note that self-perceived proficiency represents students' subjective evaluations rather than their objective linguistic competence. These perceptions are influenced by several factors, including individual experiences, cultural contexts, and personal confidence levels, making them valuable indicators of students' relationship with English, but not necessarily accurate measures of actual proficiency.

4.5.3 Self-perceived compared English proficiency

The second measure of self-perceived proficiency assesses how students rate their English abilities in comparison to those of their classmates. The students were asked: "How good do you think you are at the school subject English compared to others in your class?", with four response options: "Very good," "Good," "Average," and "Below average".

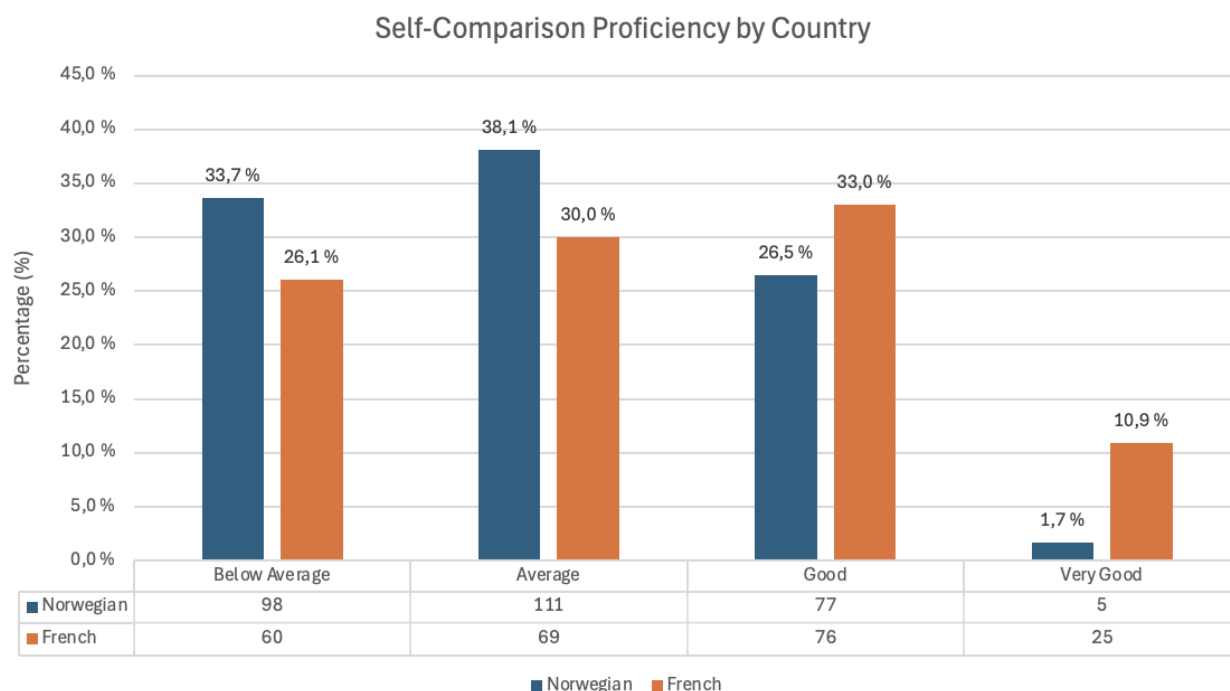


Figure 4: Students' compared English proficiency⁹

The bar charts reveal French students report higher self-assessment compared to the Norwegian students. When combining the reports for "Very good" and "Good", 44.4% of French students place themselves above average, compared to 27.8% of Norwegian students. A noteworthy difference is also observed between the students who report "Very good", with 10.9% of French students rating themselves as "Very good" compared to only 1.7% of Norwegian students. A noticeable 72.1% of Norwegian students rate themselves as "Average" or "Below average" compared to their peers, while only 55.7% of French students report on these categories.

The bar chart general patterns therefore reveal a difference in distribution in the French and Norwegian context, as the French responses approximate a more typical distribution across the four categories. In contrast, Norwegian responses are heavily skewed toward the lower self-assessments, with very few students (1.7%, $N=5$) reporting themselves as "Very good."

⁹ The total counts include responses from gender option 3.

4.5.4 Discussion: Self-perceived proficiency versus compared proficiency

The reported findings present an interesting paradox when compared with general self-perceived proficiency results (section 4.5.1). While Norwegian students are confident in their English knowledge (91.8%), they are remarkably reluctant to rate themselves highly when compared to their peers. This discrepancy may be rooted in several possible explanations, two of them are presented below.

Firstly, general English proficiency levels may differ between the two contexts, resulting in a higher threshold for reporting a “strong knowledge” of English. Based on the EP index, Norway generally has higher proficiency levels (based on general self-perceived proficiency). This stands in contrast to the results for compared self-perceived proficiency, where French students have higher comparative self-ratings, which correspond best with an objective distribution. The Norwegian sample portrayed different results, as a large group of the students believe they are average or below average (71,8%).

The Norwegian pattern may also reflect cultural values in terms of taking pride in oneself. The concept “Janteloven” (Sandemose, 1967) discourages individuals from considering themselves superior to others. This cultural norm may influence how Norwegian students assess their abilities relative to peers, even when they have confidence in their absolute proficiency (general self-perceived proficiency).

4.6 Research question 4: Affective factors

Research Question 4 investigates: "What is these learners' affective relation to the English language?" Affective factors encompass the emotional and attitudinal dimensions of language learning and use (Krulatz et al., 2018, p. 207). This MA thesis examines three key affective components: pride in knowing English, perceived importance of English, and avoidance behaviours. These factors represent both cognitive and emotional evaluations of students' relationships with English, which may influence their motivation and engagement with the language (Ortega, 2013). As discussed in the theoretical framework (section 2.5.3), affective factors play a crucial role in language learning and identity formation. These emotional dimensions can influence students' willingness to engage with English and their overall language learning experience.

4.6.1 Pride in knowing English

Students were asked whether they agreed with the statement: "I am proud that I know English."

Table 11 presents the results across both national contexts.

	Yes	No	Total
France	193 (83,9%)	37 (16,1%)	230 (100%)
Boys	89 (80,2%)	22 (19,8%)	111 (100%)
Girls	100 (87,7%)	14 (12,3%)	114 (100%)
Norway	238 (81,8%)	53 (18,2%)	291 (100%)
Boys	98 (76%)	31 (24%)	129 (100%)
Girls	127 (85,2%)	22 (14,8%)	149 (100%)
Total	431 (82,7%)	90 (17,3%)	521 (100%)

Table 11: Students' pride in knowing English¹⁰

The findings reveal remarkably similar levels of pride across both countries, with 83.9% of French students and 81.8% of Norwegian students expressing pride in knowing English. This near-identical result is particularly striking given the substantial differences observed in other measures, such as contextual usage and self-perceived proficiency.

There were found gender differences in terms of pride. In both Norway and France, girls report slightly higher levels of pride than boys. In France, 87.7% of girls express pride compared to 80.2% of boys. In Norway, 85.2% of girls report pride versus 76.0% of boys. This gender difference suggests that pride in language knowledge may be slightly more pronounced among female learners in both cultural contexts.

¹⁰ The total counts include responses from gender option 3.

4.6.2 Importance of English

Students responded to the statement: "It is important for me to know English." Table 12 shows the distribution of the French and Norwegian responses.

	Yes	No	Total
France	204 (88,7%)	26 (11,3%)	230 (100%)
Boys	95 (85,6%)	16 (14,4%)	111 (100%)
Girls	105 (92,1%)	9 (7,9%)	114 (100%)
Norway	273 (93,8%)	18 (6,2%)	291 (100%)
Boys	122 (94,6%)	7 (5,4%)	129 (100%)
Girls	138 (92,6%)	11 (7,4%)	149 (100%)
Total	477 (91,4%)	44 (8,4%)	521 (100%)

Table 12: Students' importance of knowing English¹¹

The recognition of English's importance is high in both countries, although Norwegian students show slightly higher agreement (93.8%) compared to French students (88.7%). This 5.1 percentage point difference suggests that while both groups recognise the value of English, Norwegian students may have a slightly stronger sense of its necessity.

In terms of gender difference, girls in both countries place marginally higher importance on knowing English. In France, 92.1% of girls versus 85.6% of boys consider English important. In Norway, 92.6% of girls and 94.6% of boys recognise its importance, showing less gender variation than in France.

The high percentages in both countries reflect students' awareness of English as a global lingua franca and its importance for future academic, professional, and social opportunities. This aligns with research on adolescents' recognition of the instrumental value of English in an increasingly globalised world. The slightly higher recognition among Norwegian students may reflect the more integrated role of English in Norwegian society, as discussed in the contextual usage findings (section 4.4).

¹¹ The total counts include responses from gender option 3.

4.6.3 Avoidance behaviours

Students were asked about their agreement with the statement: "I avoid using English." This item assesses negative affective responses that may hinder language use. Table 13 presents the findings.

	Yes	No	Total
France	51 (22,2%)	179 (77,8%)	230 (100%)
Boys	28 (25,2%)	83 (74,8%)	111 (100%)
Girls	23 (20,2%)	91 (79,8%)	114 (100%)
Norway	33 (11,3%)	258 (88,7%)	291 (100%)
Boys	15 (11,6%)	114 (88,4%)	129 (100%)
Girls	15 (10,1%)	134 (89,9%)	149 (100%)
Total	84 (16,1%)	437 (83,9%)	521 (100%)

Table 13: Students' avoidance behaviour¹²

The most substantial difference in the three affective factors investigated, appears in avoidance behaviours, where French students report notably higher avoidance (22.2%) compared to Norwegian students (11.3%). This 10.9 percentage point difference represents the largest gap among the three affective measures examined. Gender patterns reveal that boys in both countries show slightly higher avoidance rates than girls, with 25.2% of French boys versus 20.2% of French girls reporting avoidance, and 11.6% of Norwegian boys compared to 10.1% of Norwegian girls indicating similar behaviours.

The higher avoidance rates among French students may indicate greater language anxiety or lower confidence in English use, which is particularly noteworthy as it directly impacts students' willingness to engage with the language in both academic and social contexts. These avoidance patterns align closely with the contextual usage findings presented in section 4.4, where Norwegian students reported more extensive use of English across various domains. This correspondence suggests that students who use English more frequently in daily life may develop greater confidence and lower avoidance, while those with limited exposure may maintain higher anxiety levels despite recognising the language's value.

¹² The total counts include responses from gender option 3.

4.6.4 Comparison Between Norwegian and French Participants

Figure 5 illustrates the comparative patterns across the three affective dimensions which are investigated in this MA thesis, revealing both similarities and important differences between the two national contexts.

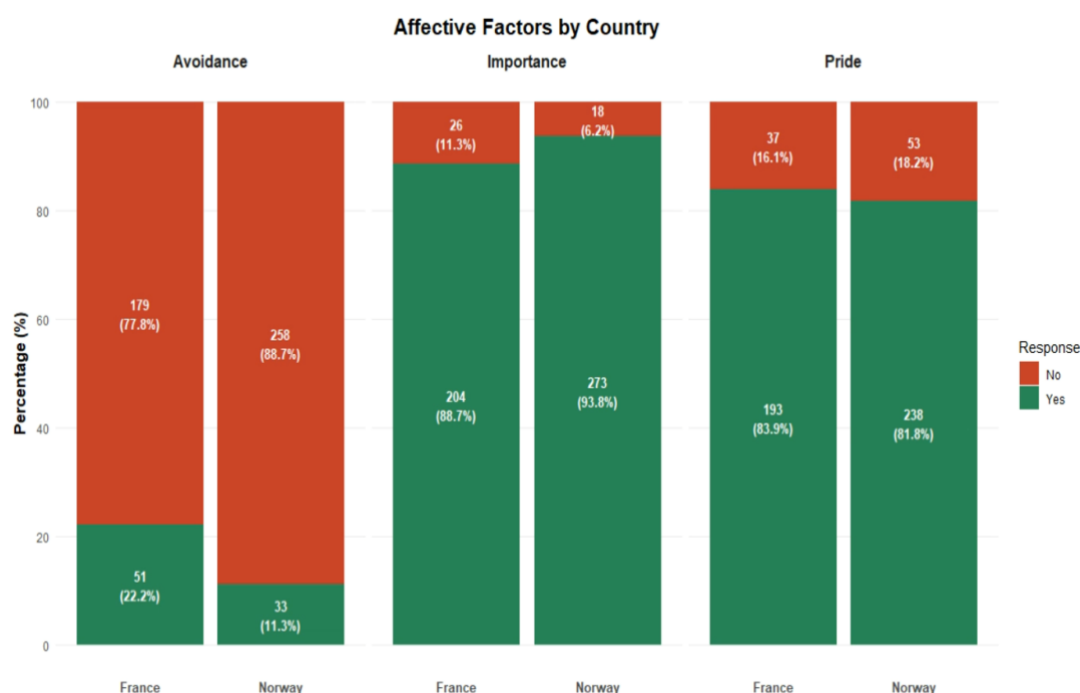


Figure 5: Students' affective factors

Figure 5 reveals that French students are more likely to avoid using English, while more Norwegian students (93.8%) consider English important compared to French students (88.7%). Interestingly, French students (83.9%) are slightly prouder of knowing English than Norwegian students (81.8%).

The most striking similarity emerges in pride levels, with nearly identical rates (France: 83.9%, Norway: 81.8%) suggesting that positive emotional connections to English transcend national differences in proficiency or usage patterns. Despite Norwegian students' higher self-perceived proficiency and more extensive contextual usage, French students maintain equivalent levels of pride in their English knowledge. Both groups also demonstrate a high awareness of the importance of English, with Norwegian students expressing slightly greater recognition.

However, the most substantial finding among affective factors appears in avoidance behaviours, where the considerable difference (France: 22.2%, Norway: 11.3%) aligns with the contextual usage data presented in section 4.4. French students present a particularly noteworthy paradox: they express high pride in knowing English while simultaneously showing greater avoidance behaviours. This suggests that pride in language knowledge does not necessarily translate to confidence in language use, as students may feel proud of their achievement in learning English while still experiencing anxiety about using it in practice.

The higher avoidance rates among French students may reflect several cultural and educational factors. Different pedagogical approaches may influence students' comfort with language production versus comprehension, while varying tolerance for linguistic errors in educational settings may impact willingness to use English. Additionally, lower levels of out-of-school English exposure, as demonstrated in section 4.4, may contribute to reduced confidence in practical language use.

4.7 Research question 5

Research question 5 examines the extent to which learners' multilingual identities correlate with their contextual usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors. To answer this question, a multivariate regression analysis was conducted using multilingual identity as the dependent variable and examining its relationship with the various independent variables described in section 3.3.1. The results are presented and discussed below, beginning with the results from the F-test, conducted to ensure validity of the results (see section 3.4.3) the factors that impact multilingual identity across France and Norway, followed by an examination of each individual variable in isolation.

Multivariate Regression Analysis:		<i>Multilingual Identity</i>				
Variable	Block 1	Block 2	Block 3	Block 4	Block 5	Block 6
Girl	-0.104** (0.041)	-0.105** (0.041)	-0.111** (0.040)	-0.109** (0.040)	-0.111** (0.041)	-0.118** (0.040)
Gender (Other)	-0.038 (0.112)	-0.037 (0.112)	-0.064 (0.112)	-0.094 (0.111)	-0.094 (0.111)	-0.090 (0.111)
Norway		0.031 (0.040)	-0.008 (0.046)	0.002 (0.047)	0.007 (0.047)	0.038 (0.049)
Family			0.157** (0.051)	0.131* (0.051)	0.125* (0.051)	0.104 (0.054)
Friends			0.039 (0.047)	0.018 (0.048)	0.012 (0.048)	0.009 (0.048)
Holiday			-0.014 (0.055)	-0.034 (0.055)	-0.037 (0.055)	-0.022 (0.055)
Internet			0.107 (0.064)	0.076 (0.064)	0.068 (0.064)	0.069 (0.064)
Media			0.110 (0.077)	0.109 (0.077)	0.093 (0.078)	0.095 (0.077)
Proficiency				-0.108 (0.065)	-0.121 (0.066)	-0.109 (0.067)
CP: Very good				-0.371*** (0.111)	-0.348** (0.113)	-0.352** (0.113)
CP: Good				-0.183** (0.058)	-0.169** (0.059)	-0.149* (0.059)
CP: Average				-0.098 (0.050)	-0.097 (0.050)	-0.091 (0.050)
Pride					0.032 (0.058)	0.036 (0.057)
Importance					0.071 (0.076)	0.073 (0.076)
Avoidance					-0.050 (0.058)	-0.033 (0.058)
1-3 years						0.093 (0.202)
4-8 years						-0.133 (0.192)
9-11 years						-0.033 (0.194)
Whole life						-0.037 (0.208)
English as L1						0.032 (0.111)
Constant	0.750*** (0.030)	0.732*** (0.037)	0.543*** (0.080)	0.789*** (0.106)	0.729*** (0.121)	0.768*** (0.214)
R²	0.013	0.013	0.050	0.075	0.080	0.109
Adjusted R²	0.009	0.010	0.036	0.053	0.052	0.073
Observations: 521						
*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001 Standard errors in parentheses.						

Table 14: Regression coefficients table

Table 14 presents the regression analysis results, illustrating the relationship between the different variables and students' multilingual self-identification across the French and Norwegian samples. This model enables the examination of the relative contribution of each variable while controlling for the others, providing a more nuanced understanding than the descriptive statistics presented earlier.

Block	Model Variables	F-statistic	df	p-value	R ²	Adj. R ²	Interpretation
1	Gender	3.238	2, 518	0.040**	0.012	0.009	Significant
2	Gender + Nationality	2.695	3, 517	0.045**	0.015	0.010	Significant
3	+ Contexts	3.396	8, 512	<0.001***	0.050	0.036	Highly Significant
4	+ Self-perceived Proficiency	3.434	12, 508	<0.001***	0.075	0.053	Highly Significant
5	+ Affective Factors	2.908	15, 505	<0.001***	0.080	0.052	Highly Significant
6	+ Background Information	3.058	20, 500	<0.001***	0.109	0.073	Highly Significant

Table 15: F-test for Overall Model Significance

4.7.1 Significance testing: F-test

As mentioned in the methodology chapter (section 3.4.3), significance testing is necessary to ensure the validity of the results. Table 15 presents the results of the F-test conducted to assess the statistical significance of each regression model. Table 15 reveals that all six models are statistically significant, meaning each represents a meaningful improvement over a null model. Several key findings emerge from this analysis. First, progressive model building demonstrates that each block of variables contributes meaningfully to explaining multilingual identity, with the most dramatic improvement occurring in Block 3 (Contexts), where significance drops from $p = 0.045$ to $p < 0.001$. Second, the robust final model (Block 6) explains 10.9% of variance in multilingual identity with high statistical significance ($p < 0.001$). Third, the theoretical validation is supported by the fact that all blocks remain significant, confirming that multiple factors—gender, nationality, contexts, proficiency, affect, and background, all contribute to multilingual identity formation.

4.7.2 Gender

The analysis reveals several significant predictors of multilingual identity. Firstly, *gender* shows a statistically significant negative coefficient ($\beta = -0.139$, $p < 0.05$), indicating that girls are less likely to identify as multilingual compared to boys, which aligns with the descriptive

findings presented in section 4.3. This gender effect remains consistent as more variables are added to the analysis, such as contextual usage and proficiency.

4.7.3 Contextual language usage

Concerning the variables of contextual language usage, only the family context serves as a significant predictor ($\beta = 0.157$, $p < 0.05$). Students who report using English with their family are more likely to identify as multilingual. Interestingly, in other contexts, such as using English with friends, during holidays, on the internet, or with the media, no significant relationships with multilingual identity are observed after controlling for other factors. This finding suggests that using English in a personal setting may contribute more strongly to students' self-identification as multilingual compared to media or entertainment-oriented contexts.

4.7.4 Self perceived proficiency & comparative proficiency

The most robust relationship appears in the self-perceived proficiency variables (*Proficiency* in the table). General self-perceived proficiency (investigating whether students think they know English well) shows a strong positive relationship with multilingual identity ($\beta = 0.213$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that students who believe they know English well are significantly more likely to identify as multilingual. However, comparative proficiency (i.e., how students rate their proficiency compared to their peers) shows a significant negative relationship ($\beta = -0.126$, $p < 0.01$). This creates a paradox: while confidence in one's English abilities positively correlates with multilingual identity, rating oneself highly in comparison to peers is negatively associated with multilingual self-identification.

Although one should be careful to speculate in the cause of these results, this counterintuitive finding may be linked with the broader linguistic repertoires that students consider when constructing their multilingual identities. Students who rate themselves lower compared to their English-speaking peers may be more aware of their competencies in other languages beyond English, leading them to identify as multilingual based on their total linguistic repertoire rather than English proficiency alone. Equally, students who perceive themselves as exceptional English users compared to their peers might focus primarily on this single language strength, potentially overlooking or undervaluing their knowledge of other languages when considering

their multilingual status. This suggests that multilingual identity formation involves complex self-assessments that extend beyond any single language and encompass students' entire linguistic landscape.

4.7.5 Years of English experience

The background information variables also reveal significant findings. The years students have known English are positively associated with multilingual identity ($\beta = 0.087$, $p < 0.05$), suggesting that if students report knowing English for a longer time, this may contribute to incorporating that language into one's identity construction, thereby leading to identification as multilingual. However, it is important to note that we cannot ascertain whether students have been exposed to English for extended periods; these responses are highly subjective and may reflect how long students believe they have maintained a relatively high proficiency level, rather than the actual duration of their learning or exposure to English. Having English as a first/native language does not significantly predict multilingual self-identification in this sample.

4.7.6 Country

Further, the country variable (Norway and France) does not show statistical significance in the model. This suggests that after accounting for the other variables, the national context alone does not predict whether students identify as multilingual. The differences observed in the descriptive statistics (section 4.3) may therefore be better explained by other factors in the model, such as contextual English use and self-perceived proficiency, rather than simply by national identity or educational context. This finding is particularly noteworthy because it indicates that the country differences in multilingual self-identification rates (France: 67.0%, Norway: 71.8%) become non-significant when other variables are controlled for. In other words, the factors that truly matter for multilingual identity formation appear to be individual-level characteristics, such as how students perceive their English abilities, whether they use English with family, and their years of experience with the language, rather than the broader national educational or cultural context in which they are situated.

4.7.7 Relationship between multilingual identity and other variables

The findings from the regression analysis reveal a multitude of relationships between multilingual identity and the factors investigated in this MA thesis. The significant positive relationship between self-perceived proficiency and multilingual identity aligns with theoretical perspectives that emphasise competence as a component of language identity (Haukås, 2022). Students who feel confident in their language abilities are more likely to incorporate that language into their self-concept as multilingual individuals. Although, as mentioned, self-perceived proficiency is not an objective measure.

However, the negative relationship between comparative proficiency and multilingual identity presents a somewhat contradictory situation. This suggests that students who perceive themselves as particularly strong compared to their peers may view their English proficiency as exceptional rather than as part of a broader multilingual repertoire. Alternatively, students who rate themselves lower compared to peers may be aware of other languages in their repertoire, for instance their home languages, and not solely related to their English proficiency.

The significance of identity and the family context may highlight the importance of more personal or intimate contexts for using English and how this shapes multilingual identity. Using English with family may represent a deeper or more personal integration of the language into ones' identity compared to other contexts. This aligns with Storto's (2022) conception of multilingual identity as an explicit self-identification based on awareness of one's linguistic repertoire; a repertoire that may be more salient when languages cross the boundary into intimate social domains.

The positive relationship between years of English knowledge and multilingual identity supports the view that identity formation is a gradual process shaped by experience with languages over time (Storto, 2022, p. 609/610 cf. section 2.3) The longer students have engaged with English, the more likely they are to incorporate it into their linguistic identity, regardless of their national context.

It is worth noting that insignificant coefficients do not necessarily mean that the opposite of the variable measure is true, but rather that there is not enough statistical evidence to suggest that the variable measure is significant within this MA thesis (Fricker et al., 2019).

5. Conclusion

This comparative study has investigated aspects of how EFL learners in Norway and France construct their multilingual identities and how these identities relate to contextual language usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors. Through analysis of data from 521 students across the Norwegian and French contexts, several patterns were identified that challenge simple assumptions about the relationship between proficiency, identity, and language practices. This chapter summarises the contributions of this MA study's findings (5.1), offers some pedagogical implications (5.3), and finally Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research. This MA thesis aimed to answer the overarching question: *How do learners' multilingual identities correlate with contextual usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors in Norway and France?*

To answer this research question, five sub-questions were constructed:

RQ1: *Do French and Norwegian EFL learners consider themselves multilingual?*

RQ2: *In which contexts do French and Norwegian EFL learners use English?*

RQ3: *What is these learners' self-perceived English proficiency?*

RQ4: *What is these learners' affective relation to the English language?*

RQ5: *To what extent do the learners' multilingual identities and the other factors listed above correlate?*

In this MA thesis, the adapted Ungspråk questionnaire has been used ($N=521$), collected during the school year 2022-2023 in the LANGUAGES project (Brevik et al., 2023). The data were collected from a sample of students from grade 9 in Norway, and equivalent grades in France, with a median age of 14. The results from these data sources were analysed using descriptive statistics and regression analysis to investigate what available background variables could explain multilingual self-identification across and within France and Norway. I argue that this is a contribution to the field of linguistic identities, where this MA thesis has compared how multilingual identity correlates with various factors among EFL learners in France and Norway.

It is crucial to recognise that the data in this thesis may not be generalisable due to the specific sample. However, this discussion suggests that the findings can offer insights into the multilingual identities of French and Norwegian EFL learners, and how these relate to contextual language use, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors. This contributes to tendencies worth further investigation and provides valuable pedagogical insights.

5.1 Summary of main findings

This MA thesis has several notable findings that contribute to our understanding of multilingual identity formation in EFL contexts. Firstly, approximately 70% of students in both countries consider themselves multilingual (France: 67.0%, Norway: 71.8%), despite differences in English proficiency levels and educational policies. Regarding contextual usage, media consumption represents the highest context for English use, followed by internet, holiday, friends, and family contexts, with Norwegian students reporting higher usage across all contexts. In terms of self-perceived proficiency, Norwegian students report higher general proficiency (91.8% vs 66.5%) but demonstrate lower comparative confidence when rating themselves against peers. Concerning affective factors, both groups show similar pride levels and high importance recognition for English, though French students demonstrate more avoidance behaviours. Finally, the regression analysis reveals that multilingual identities correlate most strongly with general self-perceived proficiency ($\beta = 0.213$), family English use ($\beta = 0.157$), and years of English knowledge ($\beta = 0.087$).

5.1.1 Multilingual self-identification

Contrary to expectations based on differing English proficiency levels and educational policies (see section 2.4.1 & 2.4.2), multilingual self-identification rates measured about the same across the two contexts (France: 67.0%, Norway: 71.8%). Although this indicates that most of the sample identifies as multilingual, as stated, all the students in the sample may be considered multilingual, based on the definitions used in this MA thesis and the educational systems in the two contexts. This suggests that multilingual identity develops independently of actual language proficiency, supporting approaches that value how students perceive themselves as language users rather than requiring specific skill levels. There were also revealed gender differences in multilingual identity, with more boys in both countries reporting a higher level of multilingual self-identification than girls (70.5% vs 63.2% in France; 78.3% vs 65.8% in

Norway). This pattern warrants further exploration regarding how gender interacts with the construction of language learning identity.

5.1.2 Contextual language usage

Noteworthy differences were found in contextual language usage between France and Norway. Generally, Norwegian students use English across more contexts compared to French students. The most substantial differences are observed in the use of media (99.3% vs 81.7%), internet (97.6% vs 69.1%), and during holidays (92.1% vs 62.6%). These patterns may suggest that Norwegian adolescents experience English as more integrated into their daily lived experience, while French students engage with English in more bounded, formal contexts. The digital divide is particularly striking and may reflect broader patterns of globalisation and English-language content accessibility. As the Norwegian students report both a higher usage in these contexts compared to the French, this may demonstrate the impact that interacting with English through digital environments can have on multilingual identity and possibly incorporating English into one's linguistic repertoire. This suggests that educational curricula should incorporate and encourage students to engage with English through digital platforms to an even greater extent than is currently the case. However, the descriptive statistics for contextual language usage indicate a high use of media-based context among Norwegian students. Based on this, it is primarily the French schools that may consider incorporating and encourage their students to interact with English through digital environments.

5.1.3 Self-perceived proficiency

Perhaps the most intriguing finding emerged in the patterns of self-perceived proficiency. Norwegian students demonstrated higher confidence in their absolute English proficiency (91.8% vs. 66.5%) but significantly lower comparative confidence (1.7% vs. 10.9% rating themselves "very good" compared to their peers). This paradox suggests different cultural frameworks for self-evaluation, highlighting the complexity of proficiency as a construct. While more Norwegian students believe they know English well (91.8% vs 66.5%), French students are more likely to rate themselves as "Very Good" compared to peers (10.9% vs 1.7%).

5.1.4 Affective factors

The findings regarding affective relations to English reveal interesting patterns. Students in both countries demonstrated remarkably similar levels of pride in knowing English (France:

83.9% vs. Norway: 81.8%), suggesting that positive emotional connections to English transcend differences in proficiency levels or usage patterns. Both groups also showed high recognition of English's importance, with Norwegian students agreeing slightly more (France: 88.7% vs. Norway: 93.8%). However, French students reported higher substantially higher avoidance behaviours (22.2% vs 11.3%). This creates somewhat a paradox, as French students express similar levels of pride in knowing English while simultaneously showing greater reluctance to use it. This may show the importance of understanding the connection between attitudes and practices in language learning.

The avoidance patterns also align closely with the contextual usage findings presented in section 5.1.2, where Norwegian students reported more extensive English use across media, internet, and social contexts. This suggests students who use English more frequently in daily life may develop greater confidence and lower avoidance, while those with limited exposure may maintain higher anxiety levels despite recognizing the language's value.

These affective patterns may have important pedagogical implications, particularly for French educational contexts. For instance, teachers may address language anxiety and try to build confidence for using English in various contexts, trying to bridge the gap between students' appreciation of English and their willingness to engage with it actively.

5.1.5 Patterns in correlations

The regression analysis revealed that multilingual identity correlates most strongly with general self-perceived proficiency (“proficiency” in regression analysis) ($\beta = 0.213$, $p < 0.01$), English use in family contexts ($\beta = 0.157$, $p < 0.05$), years of English knowledge ($\beta = 0.087$, $p < 0.05$), and Gender ($\beta = -0.139$, $p < 0.05$, indicating higher multilingual self-identification among boys). Surprisingly, comparative proficiency showed a negative relationship with multilingual identity ($\beta = -0.126$, $p < 0.01$), and national context was not a significant predictor after controlling for other variables.

5.2 Pedagogical implications

The findings in this MA thesis have several pedagogical implications for language education in both France and Norway. First, teachers should acknowledge and validate students' multilingual identities regardless of their proficiency levels. Recognizing that most students

already consider themselves multilingual could serve as a foundation for more inclusive language teaching approaches that build on existing linguistic resources.

For French educators, the higher incidence of avoidance behaviours among students suggests opportunities to develop teaching strategies that reduce “language anxiety” (Ortega, 2013, p. 202/203) and promote confident language learners. Given that French students use English less frequently in the presumably out-of-school contexts this MA thesis investigates, such as the internet and media, teachers might consider incorporating a broader variety of authentic materials to create opportunities for meaningful language use beyond the classroom, such as the Norwegian curriculum uses a broad understanding of text (NDET, 2024, p.3).

For both the French and Norwegian contexts, teachers should recognise the role of digital environments in students' language practices. The high rates of English usage in media and internet contexts suggest that using these contexts in language teaching could make instruction more relevant to students and help them connect classroom learning with their everyday language practices.

5.3 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

While this MA thesis gives insights into multilingual identities across two different educational contexts, several limitations should be recognised. As this MA thesis is based on self-reported data, the findings reflect students' perceptions rather than objective measures of language use or proficiency. Additionally, the questionnaire is only conducted at a single point in time. Conducting a longitudinal research project would be valuable for understanding how multilingual identities develop and change over time, particularly during the adolescent years of EFL learners.

While this MA thesis compared two national contexts, further research could examine how other factors may influence the formation of multilingual identity, such as socioeconomic status, regional differences, or migration background. In addition, several other national contexts may be explored.

6. Conclusion

This comparative MA thesis has investigated aspects of how EFL learners in Norway and France construct their multilingual identities in looking at how these identities correlate with their language practices, self-perceived proficiency, and affective relationships with English. The findings underscore the complex interplay between educational contexts, cultural factors, and individual experiences in shaping linguistic identities.

As language education continues to evolve toward more multilingual approaches, understanding how learners perceive themselves as language users becomes increasingly important. By recognising the various factors that influence multilingual identity formation, educators can create and improve their learning environments that draw on students' diverse linguistic experiences and help them develop positive relationships with all the languages in their repertoire.

This MA thesis emerges at a crucial moment in language education, as curricula increasingly emphasise multilingual approaches and global competence (NDET, 2024, p.3). The findings demonstrate that multilingual identity formation is more complex and culturally situated than simple proficiency-based models might suggest.

As language education continues to evolve toward more inclusive, multilingual pedagogies, research such as this MA thesis, may provide an empirical basis for evidence-based practice. By understanding how learners construct their linguistic identities across different contexts, educators can better support the development of confident, capable multilingual citizens ready to engage with our increasingly interconnected world.

The goal of language education should be to help students develop positive, empowered relationships with all the languages in their repertoires (Krulatz et al., 2022). This MA thesis suggests that achieving this goal requires attention not only to linguistic competence but to the complex interplay of identity, context, and affect that shapes how students experience themselves as language users.

English summary

This MA thesis investigates the relationship between multilingual identities and their correlation with contextual English usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Norway and France. With the development of multilingualism as a resource in the new Norwegian curriculum (LK20), research on this topic is increasingly relevant (NDET, 2024). The overarching research question of this MA thesis is:

How do learners' multilingual identities correlate with contextual usage, self-perceived proficiency, and affective factors in Norway and France?

To answer this question, anonymised survey data collected and made accessible through the *Language Use and Instruction Across Contexts* (LANGUAGES) project is reused. The data sample in the study is from the LANGUAGES Ungspråk student questionnaire in Norway and France ($N=521$).

The findings of this MA thesis reveal several key insights. Firstly, there are differences between Norwegian and French EFL learners regarding multilingual self-identification, with Norwegian students a little more likely to consider themselves multilingual. Secondly, Norwegian students reported higher self-perceived English proficiency, despite reporting lower proficiency when compared to their peers. The French students reported lower “general self-perceived proficiency” compared to the Norwegian students, but a higher “compared proficiency” of English. Thirdly, the Norwegian students reported more varied English usage across contexts compared to the French students, especially related to the internet and varieties of media.

The regression analysis demonstrates that multilingual identity correlates most strongly with general self-perceived proficiency ($\beta = 0.213$), English use in family contexts ($\beta = 0.157$), years of English knowledge ($\beta = 0.087$), and gender (with higher rates among boys). Notably, after controlling for other variables, national context was not a significant predictor, suggesting that individual factors transcend educational system differences.

This MA thesis contributes to understanding linguistic identities in different educational contexts where the status of the English language differs and provides insights into the relationship between multilingual self-identification and language practices.

Norwegian summary

Denne masteroppgaven undersøker forholdet mellom flerspråklige identiteter og hvordan dette henger sammen med engelskbruk i ulike kontekster, selvoppfattede engelskferdigheter og affektive forhold blant innlærere av engelsk som fremmedspråk (English as a Foreign Language, EFL) i Norge og Frankrike. Med utviklingen av flerspråklighet som en ressurs i den nye norske lærerplanen (LK20), blir forskning på dette temaet stadig mer relevant (UDIR, 2024). Den overordnede problemstillingen i denne studien er:

Hvordan korrelerer elevers flerspråklige identiteter med kontekstuell engelskbruk, selvopplevde ferdighet og affektive faktorer i Norge og Frankrike?

For å svare på problemstillingen gjenbrukes anonyme data fra en spørreundersøkelse som er tilgjengeliggjort gjennom forskningsprosjektet *Language Use and Instruction Across Contexts (LANGUAGES)*. Datautvalget i studien er fra LANGUAGES Ungspråk-elevspørreskjemaet som er gjennomført i Norge og Frankrike (Brevik et al., 2025) ($N=521$).

Denne masteroppgaven avdekker flere sentrale funn. For det første er det forskjeller mellom norske og franske EFL-elever når det gjelder flerspråklig selvidentifikasjon, hvor norske elever er noe mer tilbøyelige til å anse seg selv som flerspråklige. For det andre rapporterte norske elever høyere selvoppfattede engelskferdigheter, til tross for at de rapporterte lavere ferdigheter sammenlignet med sine medelever. De franske elevene rapporterte lavere "generell selvoppfattet kompetanse" sammenlignet med de norske elevene, men høyere "sammenlignende kompetanse" i engelsk. For det tredje rapporterte de norske elevene mer variert engelskbruk på tvers av kontekster sammenlignet med de franske elevene, spesielt knyttet til internett og bruk av ulike type medium.

Regresjonsanalysen viser at flerspråklig identitet korrelerer sterkest med generell selvoppfattet kompetanse ($\beta = 0,213$), engelskbruk i familiekontekster ($\beta = 0,157$), antall år med engelskkunnskaper ($\beta = 0,087$), og kjønn (med høyere forekomst blant gutter). Etter å ha kontrollert for andre variabler, var ikke nasjonal kontekst en signifikant forklaringsfaktor, noe som tyder på at individuelle faktorer overgår forskjeller i utdanningssystem. Denne studien bidrar til å forstå språklige identiteter i ulike utdanningskontekster hvor statusen til det engelske språket varierer, og gir innsikt i forholdet mellom flerspråklig selvidentifikasjon og språkpraksis.

List of References

- Ahmadian, S., Brevik, L. M., & Öhrn, E. (2024). Adventures with Anxiety: Gender bias in using a digital game for teaching vocational English. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 40(6), 2715–2734. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.13006>
- Beiler, I. R. (2021). Marked and unmarked translanguaging in accelerated, mainstream, and sheltered English classrooms. *Multilingual*, 40(1), 107–138. <https://doi.org/10.1515/multi-2020-0022>
- Brevik, L. M., Rindal, U., & Aisato, L. (2020). *Teaching English in Norwegian classrooms: From research to practice*. Universitetsforlaget.
- Brevik, L. M. (2022). The emergent multiphase design: Demonstrating a fully integrated approach in the context of language research in education. In A. Onwuegbuzie & J. H. Hitchcock (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook for advancing integration in mixed methods research*, 196–212. Routledge.
- Brevik, L. M. (2024). Student teachers as co-researchers. Connecting research and education in the Co-research model. In I. K. R. Hatlevik, R. Jakhelln, & D. Jorde (Eds.), *Transforming university-based teacher education through innovation. A Norwegian response to research literacy, integration and technology* (pp. 116-130). Routledge
- Brevik, L. M., Cohen, C., & Myhill, D. A. (2025). Language research across classrooms and contexts: Methodology and ethics. In T. Mutton, & C. Brooks (Eds.). *Research Handbook on Post Pandemic Education*. Edward Elgar publishing.
- Council of Europe. (2020). *The CEFR Levels*. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/level-descriptions>
- Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice*, 39(3), 124-130. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip3903_2
- Deneire, M., & Forlot, G. (2024).
- Deneire, M., & Forlot, G., (2024). The progress and stability of English in the French context. *World Englishes*. 43. 228-243. 10.1111/weng.12644.
- Education First (2024). EF English Proficiency Index - A Ranking of 116 Countries and Regions by English Skills. <https://www.ef.no/eipi/>
- Fisher, L., Evans, M., Forbes, K., Gayton, A., & Liu, Y. (2018). Participative multilingual identity construction in the languages classroom: A multi-theoretical

- conceptualisation. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 17(4), 448–466.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2018.1524896>
- Fisher, L., Evans, M., Forbes, K., Gayton, A., & Liu, Y. (2020). Participative multilingual identity construction in the languages classroom: A multi-theoretical conceptualisation. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 17(4), 448–466.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2018.1524896>
- Fricker, R.D., Burke, K., Han, X., & Woodall, W.H. (2019). Assessing the Statistical Analyses Used in Basic and Applied Social Psychology After Their p-Value Ban. *The American Statistician* 73(1), 374–384.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00031305.2018.1537892>
- Grønmo, S. (2016). *Samfunnsvitenskapelige metoder* (2. utg.). Fagbokforl.
- Hall, R. (2013). *Mixed Methods: In search of a paradigm*.
- Haukås, Å. (2016). Teachers’ beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13(1), 1–18.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2015.1041960>
- Haukås, Å. (2022). Who Are the Multilinguals?: Pupils’ Definitions, Self-Perceptions and the Public Debate. In L. Fisher & W. Ayres-Bennett (Eds.), *Multilingualism and Identity: Interdisciplinary Perspectives* (pp. 281–298). Cambridge University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108780469.014>
- Haukås, Å., Storto, A., & Tiurikova, I. (2021a). Developing and validating a questionnaire on young learners’ multilingualism and multilingual identity. *The Language Learning Journal*, 49(4), 404–419. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2021.1915367>
- Haukås, Å., Storto, A., & Tiurikova, I. (2021b). *The Ungspråk project: Researching multilingualism and multilingual identity in lower secondary schools*.
- Haukås, Å., Storto, A., & Tiurikova, I. (2022). School students’ beliefs about the benefits of multilingualism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 45(7), 2817–2830. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2022.2075001>
- Hermansen, S. S. L. (2019). *Lær deg R : en innføring i statistikkprogrammets muligheter* (1. utgave.). Fagbokforlaget.
- Hosseini, M., & Haukås, Å. (2024). The Role of Parental Language Profile and Home Linguistic Environment in Shaping Teenagers’ Multilingual Identity. *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 12(2), 222–239.
<https://doi.org/10.46364/njltl.v12i2.1287>
- Jensen, J. V. (1962). Effects of childhood bilingualism. *Elementary English*, 39(2), 132–143.

- Johnson, B. R. (2017). Validity of Research Results in Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Research. I B. R. Johnson & L. Christensen (Red.). Educational research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches (Sixth edition, s. 277–316). SAGE Publications.
- Katsarova, I. (2022). *Multilingualism: The language of the European Union*.
- Krulatz, A., Dahl, A., & Flognfeldt, M. E. (2018). *Enacting multilingualism: From research to teaching practice in the English classroom*. Cappelen Damm akademisk.
- Krulatz, A., Neokleous, G., & Dahl, A. (2022). *Theoretical and applied perspectives on teaching foreign languages in multilingual settings: Pedagogical implications* (Vol. 100). Multilingual Matters.
- Madsen, M. (2022). *The Role of the L2 Motivational Self System in Predicting L2 Willingness to Communicate*.
- Marshall, S., & Moore, D. (2018). Plurilingualism amid the panoply of linguisticisms: Addressing critiques and misconceptions in education. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 15(1), 19–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2016.1253699>
- Mertens, D. M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods* (3rd ed.). SAGE.
- Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training. (2024). Curriculum in English (ENG01-05). Established as a Regulation by the Ministry of Education and Research, 15 December 2024. <https://www.udir.no/lk20/ENG01-05>
- Myklevold, G.-A., & Speitz, H. (2021). Multilingualism in Curriculum Reform (LK20) and Teachers' Perceptions: Mind the Gap?: *Nordic Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 9(2), 25–50. <https://doi.org/10.46364/njltl.v9i2.947>
- NESH (2022). Guidelines for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities (5th edition). The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committees.
- Norwegian Media Authority. (2024). Barn og medier 2024: en undersøkelse om 9–18 åringers medievaner [Children and media 2024: a survey on the media habits of 9–18 year olds] <https://www.medietilsynet.no/>
- Ortega, L. (2013). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Routledge.
- Prasad, G. L. (2018). 'But do monolingual people really exist?' Analysing elementary students' contrasting representations of plurilingualism through sequential reflexive drawing. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 18(3), 315–334. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2018.1425412>

- Prilutskaya, M. (2020). *Writing in L2: Norwegian Students' Use of Translanguaging at the Draft Stage* [Nord University].
<https://journal.uia.no/index.php/NJLTL/article/view/677>
- Rindal, U. (2013). Meaning in English: L2 attitudes, choices and pronunciation in Norway. [Doctoral's Thesis]. University of Oslo.
- Ringdal, K. (2018). *Enhet og mangfold: Samfunnsvitenskapelig forskning og kvantitativ metode* (4. utg.). Fagbokforl.
- Rindal, U. (2020). English in Norway – A language and a school subject in transition. In L. M. Brevik & U. Rindal (Eds.), *Teaching English in Norwegian classrooms: From research to practice* (pp. 23-39). Universitetsforlaget.
- Rindal, U. (2024). Explanations for language choice in the social context of the L2 classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 108(4), 846–865.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12960>
- Sandemose, A. (with Yngvar Ustvedt & Francis Bull). (1967). *En flyktning krysser sitt spor: Fortelling om en morders barndom* (Vol. 28). Gyldendal.
- Sandsør, A. M. J., & Brevik, L. M. (2024). Gender gaps in English as a second language over time: A shift in favour of boys. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 31(5–6), 301–324. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0969594X.2024.2423151>
- Showstack, R., Pascual Y Cabo, D., & Vergara Wilson, D. (2024). *Language Ideologies and Linguistic Identity in Heritage Language Learning* (1st ed.). Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003349686>
- Storto, A. (2022). 'To be multilingual means ...': Exploring a participatory approach to multilingual identity with schoolchildren[†]. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 21(2), 607–627. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2022.2082441>
- Storto, A., Haukås, Å., & Tiurikova, I. (2024a). Visualising the language practices of lower secondary students: Outlines for practice-based models of multilingualism. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 15(5), 2035–2059. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2022-0010>
- Storto, A., Haukås, Å., & Tiurikova, I. (2024b). Visualising the language practices of lower secondary students: Outlines for practice-based models of multilingualism. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 15(5), 2035–2059. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2022-0010>
- Thompson, G. G. (1952). *Child psychology*. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Tiurikova, I., Haukås, Å., & Storto, A. (2021). The link between multilingualism, language learning and open-mindedness in secondary school students in Norway. *Nordic*

Journal of Language Teaching and Learning, 9(2), 1–24.

<https://doi.org/10.46364/njltl.v9i2.945>

University of Oslo. (2021, June 29). *Language use and instruction across contexts*.

University of Oslo.

<https://www.uv.uio.no/ils/english/research/projects/languages/index.html>

Vihman, V.-A., & Praakli, K. (Eds.). (2014). *Negotiating linguistic identity: Language and belonging in Europe*. Peter Lang.

Wold, S. H. (2017). *INGlish English. The progressive construction in learner narratives*

[Doctoral thesis, The University of Bergen]. <https://hdl.handle.net/1956/16798>

Appendix

Appendix A: Results of the F-test for Model Significance

Block 1: Background

```
> summary(model1) # F-statistic appears at bottom

Call:
lm(formula = multilingual_dummy ~ gender_girl_boy + gender_other,
    data = cleaned_data)

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-0.7500 -0.6464  0.2500  0.3536  0.3536

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   0.75000    0.02957  25.361  <2e-16 ***
gender_girl_boy -0.10361    0.04090  -2.533   0.0116 *
gender_other   -0.02778    0.11196  -0.248   0.8042
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.4581 on 518 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.01235, Adjusted R-squared:  0.008534
F-statistic: 3.238 on 2 and 518 DF, p-value: 0.04004
```

Block 2: Nationality

```
> summary(model2)

Call:
lm(formula = multilingual_dummy ~ gender_girl_boy + gender_other +
    country_norway, data = cleaned_data)

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-0.7737 -0.6174  0.2636  0.3314  0.3826

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   0.72247    0.03671  19.683  <2e-16 ***
gender_girl_boy -0.10510    0.04089  -2.570   0.0104 *
gender_other   -0.03724    0.11215  -0.332   0.7400
country_norway  0.05122    0.04049   1.265   0.2065
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.4579 on 517 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.01539, Adjusted R-squared:  0.009682
F-statistic: 2.695 on 3 and 517 DF, p-value: 0.04542
```

Block 3: Contexts

```
> summary(model3)

Call:
lm(formula = multilingual_dummy ~ gender_girl_boy + gender_other +
    country_norway + C_family + C_friends + C_holiday + C_inett +
    c_media, data = cleaned_data)

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-0.9345 -0.5429  0.2400  0.3338  0.5818

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   0.542890   0.079529   6.826 2.47e-11 ***
gender_girl_boy -0.110930   0.040446  -2.743  0.00631 **
gender_other   -0.063739   0.111530  -0.571  0.56792
country_norway -0.008433   0.046012  -0.183  0.85465
C_family       0.157377   0.060587   2.598  0.00966 **
C_friends      0.039259   0.047468   0.827  0.40858
C_holiday     -0.013723   0.054932  -0.250  0.80282
C_inett        0.107109   0.063761   1.680  0.09360 .
c_media        0.109980   0.077325   1.422  0.15555
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.4519 on 512 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.05038, Adjusted R-squared:  0.03555
F-statistic: 3.396 on 8 and 512 DF, p-value: 0.0008209
```

Block 4: Self perceived proficiency

```
> summary(model4)

Call:
lm(formula = multilingual_dummy ~ gender_girl_boy + gender_other +
    country_norway + C_family + C_friends + C_holiday + C_inett +
    c_media + proficiency + compare_1 + compare_2 + compare_3,
    data = cleaned_data)

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-0.9739 -0.5490  0.2304  0.3252  0.5998

Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   0.779877   0.105893   7.365 7.22e-13 ***
gender_girl_boy -0.105465   0.040242  -2.621  0.009036 **
gender_other   -0.094147   0.110943  -0.849  0.396499
country_norway  0.002375   0.046537   0.051  0.959324
C_family       0.131024   0.061114   2.144  0.032511 *
C_friends      0.016106   0.047669   0.338  0.735593
C_holiday     -0.034117   0.055509  -0.615  0.539089
C_inett        0.075880   0.064057   1.185  0.236739
c_media        0.108544   0.076786   1.414  0.158092
proficiency    -0.105795   0.065212  -1.622  0.105354
compare_1      -0.370643   0.111932  -3.311  0.000995 ***
compare_2      -0.168453   0.058034  -2.903  0.003861 **
compare_3      -0.096451   0.049955  -1.931  0.054070 .
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.4477 on 508 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.07504, Adjusted R-squared:  0.05319
F-statistic: 3.434 on 12 and 508 DF, p-value: 7.157e-05
```

Block 5: Affective factors

```
> summary(model5)
```

Call:
lm(formula = multilingual_dummy ~ gender_girl_boy + gender_other +
country_norway + C_family + C_friends + C_holiday + C_inett +
c_media + proficiency + compare_1 + compare_2 + compare_3 +
pride + important + avoid, data = cleaned_data)

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.9833	-0.5265	0.2273	0.3183	0.6357

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t)	
(Intercept)	0.728869	0.121138	6.017	3.42e-09	***
gender_girl_boy	-0.111853	0.040643	-2.752	0.00614	**
gender_other	-0.094320	0.111277	-0.848	0.39705	
country_norway	0.007358	0.047167	0.156	0.87610	
C_family	0.127935	0.061187	2.091	0.03704	*
C_friends	0.011874	0.047896	0.248	0.80431	
C_holiday	-0.036516	0.055567	-0.657	0.51138	
C_inett	0.068314	0.064379	1.061	0.28914	
c_media	0.092926	0.077770	1.195	0.23270	
proficiency	-0.120708	0.066258	-1.822	0.06908	.
compare_1	-0.345644	0.113348	-3.049	0.00241	**
compare_2	-0.158685	0.058615	-2.707	0.00701	**
compare_3	-0.096687	0.050102	-1.930	0.05419	.
pride	0.031790	0.057501	0.553	0.58061	
important	0.071448	0.076399	0.935	0.35014	
avoid	-0.049736	0.057605	-0.863	0.38833	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.4479 on 505 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.07951, Adjusted R-squared: 0.05217
F-statistic: 2.908 on 15 and 505 DF, p-value: 0.000197

Block 6: Background information

```
> summary(model6) # Look for "F-statistic" line at bottom

Call:
lm(formula = multilingual_dummy ~ gender_girl_boy + gender_other +
    country_norway + C_family + C_friends + C_holiday + C_inett +
    c_media + proficiency + compare_1 + compare_2 + compare_3 +
    pride + important + avoid + yrs_eng_1to3 + yrs_eng_4to8 +
    yrs_eng_9to11 + yrs_eng_wholelife + first_lng_Eng, data = cleaned_data)

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-0.9700 -0.4875  0.1931  0.3254  0.7127

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)    0.766479    0.214197   3.578 0.000379 ***
gender_girl_boy -0.118320    0.040298  -2.936 0.003477 **
gender_other    -0.089563    0.111373  -0.804 0.421677
country_norway  0.038061    0.049054   0.776 0.438171
C_family        0.104466    0.063778   1.638 0.102057
C_friends       0.008524    0.047626   0.179 0.858029
C_holiday      -0.022307    0.055308  -0.403 0.686880
C_inett         0.068512    0.063743   1.075 0.282975
c_media         0.095240    0.077039   1.236 0.216945
proficiency     -0.109023    0.066806  -1.632 0.103326
compare_1       -0.352092    0.113228  -3.110 0.001980 **
compare_2       -0.149012    0.058964  -2.527 0.011806 *
compare_3       -0.091413    0.050025  -1.827 0.068243 .
pride           0.035815    0.057089   0.627 0.530710
important       0.073179    0.075978   0.963 0.335938
avoid          -0.032941    0.057942  -0.569 0.569942
yrs_eng_1to3    0.093197    0.202311   0.461 0.645241
yrs_eng_4to8    -0.153070    0.191648  -0.799 0.424842
yrs_eng_9to11   -0.033413    0.193647  -0.173 0.863078
yrs_eng_wholelife -0.037459    0.202549  -0.185 0.853352
first_lng_Eng   0.032255    0.110812   0.291 0.771112
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.4429 on 500 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared:  0.109,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.07334
F-statistic: 3.058 on 20 and 500 DF,  p-value: 1.122e-05
```