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Use of Students' Linguistic Resources in Teaching English as an Additional Language in Norway:

An Empirical Study

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THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND ARTS

NORD University

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Marina Prilutskaya

Bodø, June 2020.

Sammendrag på norsk

Denne avhandlingen undersøker videregående skoleelevers bruk av språklige ressurser når de lager en tekst på engelsk og består av tre studier som retter søkelyset mot de pedagogiske fordelene ved en flerspråklig tilnærming til engelsk skriveundervisning i norske skoler.

Den første studien bruker en kvantitativ tilnærming for å utforske effekten av tre skriveforhold (kun engelsk, oversettelse og *translanguaging*) på tekstkvaliteten. Studentene ble bedt om å lage et utkast på engelsk, morsmålet eller benytte seg av hele sitt språklige repertoar (*translanguaging*). Resultatene viser at studentene som laget utkast på morsmålet (evt. annet dominerende språk) før de skrev ferdig teksten på engelsk hadde jevnt over bedre struktur og sammenheng i sine tekster.

Den andre studien kombinerer kvantitative og kvalitative metoder for å undersøke studentenes selvrapporterte bruk av språklige ressurser mens de skriver på engelsk og dokumenterer studentenes tilbakemeldinger om hvordan de opplevde det skriveforholdet de ble tildelt. I tillegg til at engelsk hadde en sterk tilstedeværelse under alle tre skriveforholdene, viste resultatene også at visse aspekter ved skriving kan styrkes når studenter bruker morsmålet for å organisere ideer, samt elevenes vilje til å eksperimentere med språk.

Den tredje studien undersøker studentenes bruk av *translanguaging* i utkastet, ved å bruke et spesialutviklet integrert rammeverk for *translanguaging* og skriftlig kodeveksling. Analysen viser hvordan bruken av *translanguaging* spenner fra pragmatisk kodeveksling til tverspråklig språklek, med sikte på å skape innhold eller eksperimentere med ens språklige repertoar.

Å anerkjenne den pedagogiske verdien av oversettelse og *translanguaging* som legitime alternativer til ettspråklig opplegg gir dermed elevene et bredere

spekter av individualiserte skrivestrategier som kan styrke visse aspekter ved skriving og fremme flerspråklighet som en ressurs. Denne studien er et svar på oppfordringen til mer forskning som omfavner en flerspråklig tilnærming til skriveopplæring i engelsk i Norge. Den gir støtte til lærere som møter utfordringene med å undervise i engelsk i et samfunn som blir mer og mer flerspråklig.

Summary in English

This thesis investigates upper secondary school students' use of linguistic resources when writing in English, and consists of three studies that relate to the pedagogical affordances of a multilingual approach to English writing instruction in Norwegian mainstream schools.

The first study quantitatively explores the effect of three writing conditions (English only, translation, and translanguaging) on the quality of students' essays, and suggests that drafting in L1 or a dominant language before composing texts in English may improve the organization, coherence, and communicative ability of students' writing.

The second study combines quantitative and qualitative approaches to investigate students' self-reported use of background languages while writing in English, and captures students' feedback on the assigned writing condition. In addition to a strong English presence in all three writing conditions, the results also indicated use of L1 for organizing ideas and students' willingness to experiment with languages to enhance certain aspects of writing.

The third study explores students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage, using a specially developed integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching. The analysis shows how the uses of translanguaging range from pragmatic code-switching to highly flexible language alternation, with the aim of generating content or experimenting with one's linguistic repertoire.

Making space for translation and translanguaging as legitimate alternatives to English-only writing instruction thus offers learners a wider range of individualized writing strategies that may enhance certain aspects of writing and promote self-recognition of multilingualism as a resource. The present study answers the call for

more research that embraces a multilingual approach to English writing instruction in Norway, and provides support for teachers who face the implications of teaching English in an increasingly multilingual society.

List of Abbreviations

ANCOVA	Analysis of covariance
CEFT	The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
EAL	English as an additional language
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
FL	Foreign language
ICC	Intra-class correlation coefficient
L1, L2, L3, L4	First, second, third, fourth language
MANCOVA	Multivariate analysis of covariance
NESH	The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities
NSD	Norwegian Centre for Research Data
SLA	Second language acquisition
TL	Target language

Overview of the Papers

Paper I: Prilutskaya, M., Knoph, R. & Hanssen Allen, J. (2020). Use of Students' Linguistic Resources in Teaching English as an Additional Language in Norway. Chapter submitted for publication in Multilingual Matters. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Paper II: Prilutskaya, M. & Knoph, R. (2020). Research on Three L2 Writing Conditions: Students' Perceptions and Use of Background Languages When Writing in English. *Cogent Education*, 7(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2020.1832179

Paper III: Prilutskaya, M. (2020). Writing in L2: Norwegian Students' Use of Translanguaging at the Draft Stage. *Nordic Journal of Modern Language Methodology,* 8(2), 1-26. https://doi.org/10.46364/njmlm.v8i2.677

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This thesis is structured as follows: the three papers that form the main body of the thesis are connected by an extended introduction. The extended introduction is composed of the following chapters: Introduction, Theory and literature review, Methodology and research design, Discussion of findings and contributions, and Conclusion.

I begin this introductory chapter by describing the status of English in the Norwegian educational system and in Norway in general (Section 1.1.). Next, I put the thesis first in the context of national research on writing skills and writing instruction practices, and second, national and international language policy documents that promote individual pluralism and multilingual pedagogies in language classrooms (Section 1.2.). Since the present thesis is a product of the doctoral program in the study of professional praxis, I explain how the beginnings of this research are related to my own experience as an English teacher in Norway (Section 1.3.). I then move on to presenting the three studies, focusing specifically on the research questions, hypotheses, and objectives of each individual study (Section 1.4.). Finally, I give a brief outline of the remaining chapters of the extended introduction (Section 1.5.).

1.1. English in the Context of the Norwegian Educational System and Beyond

The status of English in Norway and other Scandinavian countries has been described as dynamic due to its transition from being a foreign to becoming a second language of the communities (Rindal, 2014; Rindal & Piercy, 2013; Simensen, 2014). With this in mind, I use the term "English as an Additional Language" (EAL) in the title of the thesis and elsewhere to refer to an educational context in a non-native English-speaking environment where learners have been previously exposed to at least one language other than English. EAL is thus employed as a generic term for learning and

teaching English as a second or foreign language in the Norwegian and other similar settings.

The special status of English in Norway is evident both in the place it occupies in the Norwegian educational system and in Norwegian society at large. As far as the Norwegian educational system is concerned, English is taught from the 1st grade and remains an obligatory subject for 11 years[1], until Year 1 of the general studies program in upper secondary schools. In the current National Curriculum, English is distinguished from other foreign languages taught in school (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). In addition, newly introduced requirements (Lærerløftet, 2018) for formal qualifications in English for teachers working in primary and secondary schools are a further step towards strengthening the professional status of English teachers in Norway as well the overall quality of teaching. Moreover, the amount of English exposure many Norwegian children and adolescents experience on a daily basis outside of classrooms has increased significantly due to new internet-based media platforms such as social media and gaming that add to more traditional sources of English input in Norwegian households, such as English-language music, TV, advertising, and movies (see, for instance, Brevik, 2019). Research, carried out in the Scandinavian context, indicates that extensive use of English outside of the classroom facilitates the development of English proficiency (Brevik, 2016; Sundqvist, 2009). Furthermore, English is increasingly present in Norwegian higher education as more English-medium programs are introduced (Lojosland, 2011), and a larger share of compulsory readings in English is required for both Norwegian- and English-taught courses. Therefore, Norway represents an interesting case of an L2 environment "where L2 speakers are proficient enough to use English as part of their linguistic and identity repertoire, but

[1] This was the case at the time of the data collection for the present thesis. The recently published Granavolden platform (2019) announced the Government's plan to make English mandatory also in the 2nd and 3rd years of the general studies program in upper secondary schools.

where English does not have status as an official second language or is used as a necessary language of communication" (Rindal, 2013, p. 1).

1.2. National Research on English Writing Skills and Writing Instruction

Given what was stated in the previous section, it is not surprising that Norwegians have a generally high level of English proficiency, which is reflected in EF English Proficiency Index (EF EPI Reports, 2019) that ranks the country third out of 100 countries and regions around the world. However, Norwegian users of English do not perform well in all areas. Despite consistently high rankings over the past few years, the EF 2015 report (EF EPI Reports, 2015) contains some comments regarding Northern Europe that are worth noting in the context of the present thesis. In spite of performing well in terms of perceptive skills and conversational English, students conspicuously often fail to develop the level of academic English necessary for further academic development or/and success in professional careers. The latter might be due to fossilization of certain linguistics features in learners' interlanguage, and, as a result, their inability to achieve a target-like proficiency, despite adequate motivation to learn and plenty of exposure to a target language (e.g. Long, 2003; Selinker, 1972). This might be an indicator of Norwegian learners' need for more proactive and innovative teaching and learning practices targeting writing skills in English specifically, since literacy lags behind oral and listening skills. The current investigation of the alternative approaches to English writing instruction may offer some new insights with regard to assisting Norwegian learners in developing their literacy skills in English in close proximity to other languages they know.

Research in Norway focusing on the English writing and reading skills of tertiary level students echoes the described assessment of Norwegian students' literacy skills as inadequate. Hellekjær (2009, 2010) provides evidence that students have difficulty in reading academic literature, following lectures, and writing

academic texts. Furthermore, several studies of both L1 and English writing skills of Norwegian lower and upper secondary school students (Berge & Hertzberg, 2005; Hundahl, 2010; Nygaard, 2010) show that students experience problems with creating coherence and structure in their texts. This is of particular concern given that writing well-structured, coherent texts in English is especially emphasized in The National English subject curriculum as a competence aim to be achieved by Year 10 (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). The fact that Norwegian students struggle with written English is further supported by English exam results in Norwegian lower secondary school from the previous five years, which bear out that students score higher on oral exams than on written (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019).

Other recent studies in the Norwegian context provide valuable insight into existing practices and attitudes towards various aspects of English teaching in Norway. A qualitative study of current English writing instruction practices in Norwegian upper secondary schools (Horverak, 2015) investigated teachers' beliefs and approaches to teaching writing. The investigation demonstrated the use of good quality writing instruction with a focus on the context and purpose of writing in at least some of the schools that participated in the study. However, there was a lack of agreement among teachers as to how explicit writing instructions should be, and what teaching materials they should use. The teachers that participated in the study also pointed to the insufficient attention given to writing instruction in teacher education, which led to wide variation in the quality and content of writing instruction across schools. The teachers also reported that they often felt that they were left without adequate grounding to decide which teaching techniques and materials would work best for their students.

Another study by Dahl & Krulatz (2016) takes into account the growing number of students in Norwegian schools that are not native speakers of Norwegian, and who learn English as their L3 or even L4. The authors concluded that teachers working in

such multicultural and multilingual classrooms needed more expertise in this area, which would help provide education with support for multilingual practices.

In the last fifty years, the number of immigrants to Norway has been increasing (Statistics Norway, 2019), bringing steadily more children with various language backgrounds into the Norwegian educational system. A recent report shows that up to 17% of students in Norwegian upper secondary schools have a foreign background[2] (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2017). Although there are minority students in all Norwegian municipalities, the majority are found in the capital city of Oslo and surrounding areas. In some schools in Oslo, the percentage of the linguistic minority children (age 6-16) may even be as high as 90% (Özerk & Kerchner, 2014). The increase in the number of multilingual classrooms means that students now bring skills that may be leveraged in more efficient and learner-centered ways, inviting reassessment of existing approaches to teaching English in mainstream compulsory schools.

Considering the complex nature of writing in a target language, and the fact that Norwegian learners have shown a lower level of proficiency in written English compared to their oral and receptive skills (Alabau et al., 2002; Berge & Hertzberg, 2005; Hundahl, 2010; Nygaard, 2010), it is timely to look into possible alternatives to existing practices in English writing instruction. The present thesis answers the call for more research that embraces a multilingual approach to English writing instruction in Norwegian mainstream compulsory schools. Specifically, the three studies address different aspects of the bi- and multilingual pedagogical practices in relation to English writing instruction: (i) the effect of two alternative writing conditions on the quality of students' essays, (ii) students' language use and perceptions of the

[2] Children, both foreign-born and Norwegian-born, of whom both parents, or the only known parent, were born abroad are considered to be of foreign background.

assigned writing condition, and (iii) students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of producing a text in English.

The present investigation of multilingual pedagogies in Norwegian mainstream language classrooms is in line with the Council of Europe's language education policy for the promotion of plurilingualism and linguistic diversity (Council of Europe, 2019) among citizens of Europe and beyond. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages or CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) together with its recent extension (the CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors, Council of Europe, 2018) is the main policy document of language education in Europe. The CEFR was introduced into Norwegian schools through the European Language Portfolio and the national tests in English (Charboneau, 2016). According to the CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors (2018, p. 28), an ability to "bring the whole of one's linguistic equipment into play, experimenting with alternative forms of expression" is an important facet of plurilingual competence. The latter is concretized at the level of the descriptors for plurilingual and pluricultural competence as "the capacity to exploit one's linguistic repertoire by purposefully blending, embedding and alternating languages at the utterance level and at the discourse level" (p. 158). This description is particularly relevant to the research topic of the present thesis, i.e. the students' flexible use of linguistic resources when writing in a target language.

At the national level, the emphasis on developing Norwegian learners' plurilingual competence and metalinguistic awareness is articulated in the introduction section of the National English subject curriculum, as well as in a number of competence aims (benchmarks) under the Language learning subject area of the curriculum (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). Moreover, the recently revised version of the National Curriculum for English (LK20, a.k.a. Fagfornyelsen; The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019), which is to be implemented from August 2020, stresses more explicitly than before the importance of promoting learners' ability to recognize multilingualism as a resource

in school and in society at large. Learners' ability to recognize, explore, and utilize their linguistic repertoire may facilitate deep learning, which is an overarching principle for learning in the revised version of the National Curriculum. Deep learning is defined as an ability to understand the content beyond superficial level, see the connections between different subject areas and disciplines, reflect on one's own learning process, and apply gained knowledge and skills to new contexts (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019). In the context of language learning and teaching, the deep learning approach, with its reflective, exploratory, and pragmatic orientations, could entail a stronger focus on the development of metalinguistic awareness (e.g. cognates, grammatical parallels) and communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) in multiple languages as learners acquire a repertoire of speech acts and written discourse strategies across languages together with the ability to use them purposefully and appropriately depending on the goal and context of communication. Furthermore, recognizing the value and building on one's own, and others', multilingual and multicultural competence has a natural connection to the interdisciplinary themes outlined in the revised version of the curriculum, namely, democracy and citizenship, health and life skills, and sustainable development.

The overall theme and empirical methodology of the thesis are thus a good fit with the current national and international movement towards development and implementation of innovative and learner-centered multilingual pedagogical practices. It specifically addresses the challenges and opportunities that arise in language classrooms in Norway—and elsewhere—as they become more linguistically and culturally diverse.

1.3. Research Into Professional Praxis in Light of John Dewey's Concept of Inquiry

The idea for the present research was conceived during my work as an English teacher in Norway. At the time, I had just started teaching English in the 6th grade of

a Norwegian school. Since I had limited knowledge of Norwegian, I relied heavily on English in most situations. I considered it a major advantage to my students that they would have to use English as the only classroom (working) language. However, I quickly noticed that things were not going as smoothly as I expected, mainly, because my English-only approach would not work in certain situations, for instance, for explanations of abstract concepts, certain grammatical rules or giving instructions. My response was to use more English instead of "giving in" to Norwegian translation. After witnessing my students' frustration, I attempted to understand what I could do differently, since my chosen theory-informed approach was failing in practice. Later, I realized that my choices as a teacher were filtered through the theoretical framework I adopted during my final years of teacher training, which entailed keeping L1 out of L2 language classroom as much as possible. This is an example of the effect of the *scholastic paradigm* (Wackerhausen, 2017, p. 77) and, in particular, one of many dogmas that the paradigm promotes, i.e. that professional praxis is the arena of direct application of theoretical knowledge acquired during formal education. The theoretical framework that dominated my reasoning overshadowed my own intuition as a teacher and, more importantly, as a learner of foreign languages before that. In other words, my implicit experience-based beliefs about language learning and consequently language teaching conflicted with the explicit theory I was trying to put into practice. The reason why my theoretical stance was not translating into success in practice is that the relationship between theory and practice is complex and multiform. Grimen (2008), for instance, describes two models that explain the relationship between theoretical knowledge (also known as propositional/declarative knowledge, knowledge-that) and practical knowledge (or procedural knowledge, knowledge-how). According to the traditional and still dominant model, practice is where book knowledge is applied, so theory comes before practice. This is consistent with my experience of the way I was taught during my teacher training. The second model assigns practice the primary position, and theory is seen as articulated knowledge that is accumulated through practice. Both models represent

simplifications of the complex relationship that is captured in Freire's (2003) notion of "praxis" as a reflective approach to taking action rooted in a synthesis of theory and practice.

My experience of the tension between theory and practice is far from unique. It often happens that in-service teachers face certain challenges in their professional praxis that prompt them to take a closer look at existing practices, which in turn might stimulate the development of better models, frameworks, and practices. Furthermore, the driving force behind research on professional praxis tends to be born out of some sort of tension that a practitioner/researcher encounters at some point of their professional carrier. This driving force is easily recognizable in John Dewey's (1910/2008) concept of *inquiry* as a process of careful reflection and self-conscious decision making, which fits into a larger framework of pragmatism as a research paradigm that focuses on human experience as the starting point of the process-based approach to knowledge (Morgan,2014). *Inquiry* in Dewey's sense is a special kind of human experience that involves "a process by which beliefs that have become problematic are examined and resolved through action" (Morgan, 2014, p. 3). For Dewey, *inquiry* is essentially a process of interpretation of our situated experience, i.e. on the one side, implicit beliefs must be interpreted and understood to generate appropriate action; on the other side, also actions must be interpreted to generate new beliefs (Morgan, 2014). The intimate link between beliefs and actions in Dewey's "theory of inquiry" (1938) takes us back to Freire's (2003, p. 125) notion of "praxis" as a human activity that is both "theory and practice", or "reflection and action".

For Dewey, research is a special form of inquiry happening as a result of human experience, and a response to a problematic situation in a given context (Morgan, 2014). This project was conceived in praxis and through praxis in the context where my theoretical and methodological preconceptions became an impediment to my ability to find an appropriate solution to a concrete problem in the

classroom. Seen from Dewey's standpoint on the nature of research, the current thesis is an inquiry that is carefully designed to investigate a part of reality in the interest to create new knowledge and possibly bring change in that part of reality (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Empirical educational research has a natural connection to teaching praxis, since its purpose, generally speaking, is to add new knowledge, evaluate existing approaches, and suggest improvements within a given educational context. Likewise, this inquiry seeks to contribute to teaching praxis through the investigation of the students' use of linguistic resources when writing in English. Indeed, the overarching goal of this research is to inform teachers' professional praxis in the chosen aspect of English language teaching (ELT) in Norway and internationally.

1.4. Three Studies: Research Questions and Objectives

Three individual studies have been conducted in order to examine Norwegian students' use of linguistic resources when writing an essay in English. Study I, with the tittle "Use of Students' Linguistic Resources in Teaching English as an Additional Language in Norway", explored the effect of three different writing conditions: (i) direct composition, (ii) translation from L1 into English, and (iii) translanguaging (García & Wei, 2014), on the quality of students' essays. The study employed a quantitative methodology to examine whether such accessible pedagogical practices as translation and translanguaging could provide learners with important scaffolding in their writing process. Specifically, it asked: how does the quality of essays produced using translation and translanguaging compare with those written directly in English?

The study recruited 288 first-year upper secondary school students (age 15-16) from two mainstream schools in Norway. The task they received was to write a fantasy narrative essay in English. The participants were assigned randomly (within each class) to groups corresponding to one of the three conditions. The students in the English-only group wrote their drafts and final essays in English; the students in

the translation group were asked to write the drafts in Norwegian and then translate them into English. Finally, the students in the translanguaging group were prompted to mix languages in their drafts before writing a final product in English. The language(s) of instruction including the writing prompts (see Appendix A: Writing Prompts) varied from group to group. English was used in the prompt for the English-only condition, Norwegian for the translation condition, and a mix of Norwegian and English was used for the translanguaging condition.

To begin with, the overall quality of the essays was assessed according to three groups of parameters: *Grammar/syntax, Coherence/transitions* and *Expression* (adapted from Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001). The *Grammar/syntax* category (see Appendix B: Rating Scale) included 12 items focusing on accurate use of grammatical and syntactical structures, for instance, accurate use of verb tense morphology, subject-verb agreement, prepositions, articles, word order, and others. Regarding the *Grammar/syntax* category, we anticipated high scores across all three writing conditions because, first, Norwegians are generally proficient in English (EF EPI Reports, 2019) and, second, previous research showed no significant difference in grammar processing across the direct and translation modes (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001).

The category of *Coherence/transitions* contained six items to do with assessing features including relevance, elaboration of ideas, complex syntax, and the flow and structure of the essay. The *Expression* category consisted of four items intended to capture both range and specificity in the use of vocabulary and idiomatic language as well as use of variety of syntactical structures. As far as these categories are concerned, we hypothesized that use of the L1 or dominant language and multiple languages would give learners advantages in these areas of writing ability since learners would employ a broader repertoire of linguistic resources. Previous studies on translation and translanguaging support this assumption (Canagarajah, 2011;

Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Turnbull, 2019; Uzawa, 1996; Velasco & García, 2014).

In the follow-up Study II called "Research on Three L2 Writing Conditions: Students' Perceptions and Use of Background Languages When Writing in English", my co-author and I examined the students' self-reported use of linguistic resources and their perceptions of the assigned writing condition. We collected questionnaire data that allowed us to focus on two aspects of the writing process: (i) reported language use, and (ii) the students' perceptions of the respective writing condition. We adopted a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to the analysis of the questionnaire data. In Study II we aimed to gain insights into the students' writing process, specifically, the way they utilized their linguistic resources at the drafting and final stages of text production under three different writing conditions. This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What language(s) is/are reported to be employed during the drafting and final stages of the writing process in different conditions?

2. What are the students' perceptions of the English-only, translation, and translanguaging writing conditions?

Study III, entitled "Writing in L2: Norwegian Students' Use of Translanguaging at the Draft Stage", reports on a study of Norwegian students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing an essay in English. I examined 78 drafts written under translanguaging writing condition. These students had been given a prompt to mix languages during the draft stage of writing as a scaffolding technique before producing a final product in English. This definition of translanguaging is based on its original conceptualization as a pedagogical language alternation practice used to promote students' literacy development in one or more languages (Williams, 1994, 1996). Out of 78 drafts, 37 (47%) contained language alternation, and these were

analyzed in detail in order to investigate the students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in a target language. Drawing on the work by Alvarez-Caccamo (1998), I employed the term "language alternation" in a broad sense to denote the alternating use of two or more recognizable linguistic varieties that may or may not carry discourse meaning and thus function as an intended contextualisation strategy (Auer,1999). In other words, the term keeps "the notions of communicative code and linguistic variety separate" (Alvarez-Caccamo, 1998, p. 38) allowing for the possibility to switch the communicative intent (code) with or without a switch to another language (dialect, register, style, prosodic register). The opposite is also possible, i.e. the change in a linguistic form may not necessarily signify an intended discourse function.

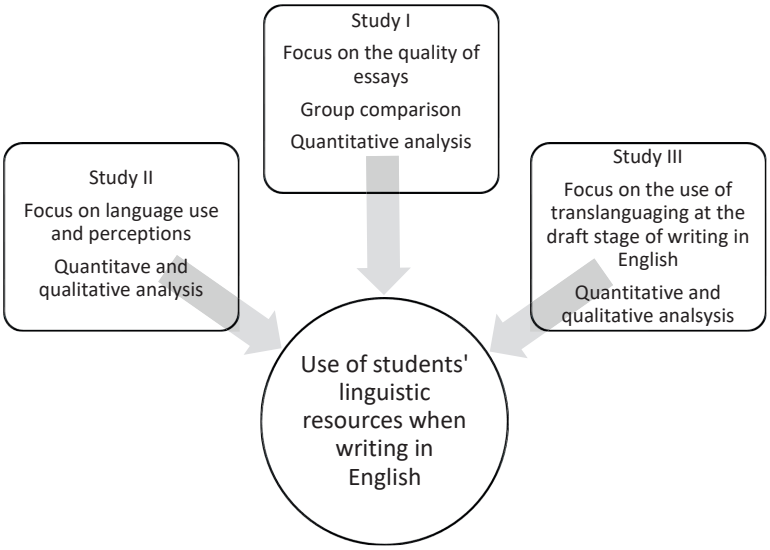
The drafts were analyzed using the proposed integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching. As far as code-switching is concerned, different ways of conceptualizing code-switching have led to the divergence of the code-switching research paradigm from the translanguaging paradigm. While acknowledging a certain degree of overlap between code-switching and translanguaging, many scholars are concerned with the differences between the two concepts (García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014; Slembrouck & Rosiers, 2017). More specifically, researchers (García & Kano, 2014; Jonsson, 2017; Lewis et al., 2012; Paulsrud et al., 2017) often stress that code-switching is first and foremost a linguistic term invoking its structuralist heritage, whereas translanguaging is grounded in a broader sociolinguistic and ecological approach, not least as a pedagogy of language and an antidote to the monolingual norm and ideology in language classrooms and beyond. I proposed to synthesize the two research paradigms by examining the students' use of translanguaging in writing through the lens of the analytical framework of pragmatic functions of written code-switching. So far, the pedagogical potential of the written form of translanguaging in multilingual classrooms has received scant attention in the literature (Canagarajah, 2011; Velasco & García,

2014). To the best of my knowledge, no previous study has investigated the discourse-related aspect of translanguaging in L2 writing. This study seeks to fill the gap in our knowledge by arguing for the utility of the sociolinguistic perspective in research on code-switching. The latter is employed to answer the call for more empirical research on translanguaging as a writing strategy in multilingual language classrooms. The overall goal of Study III is to lay the groundwork for an integrated framework of translanguaging and pragmatic code-switching and to demonstrate the utility of the integrated approach in enhancing our understanding of how Norwegian learners may employ their linguistic resources at the draft stage of writing in English.

In sum, Study I examines the effect of the alternative writing conditions on the quality of the essays; Study II focuses on the students' language use and their perceptions of the assigned writing condition, and Study III reports on the students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in English. Furthermore, this thesis breaks new ground with its three studies extending beyond research on direct versus translated writing and incorporating translanguaging as a multilingual alternative to English writing instruction. Considered together, the three studies contribute to a better understanding of the educational affordances of drawing on the whole of learners' linguistic repertoire when they write in a target language. Figure 1 illustrates the thematic and methodological interconnection of the studies:

Figure 1

The Interconnection of the Studies



1.5. Outline of the Extended Introduction

The remainder of this extended introduction is organized as follows: Chapter 2 ("Theory and literature review") presents the theoretical and empirical foundations of the thesis, placing it in the context of the current shift in views on bilingualism and bilingual education[3]. It further examines the origins and evolution of the concept of translanguaging as well as its relation to the code-switching research paradigm. In the remaining sections of the chapter I provide a literature review focusing on studies investigating the role of the background languages when writing in a target language.

In chapter 3 ("Methodology and research design") I first address the methodological and ethical dimensions of my research, focusing on the scientific method of hypothesis testing in experimental design. Next, I give a detailed

[3] I use the terms "bilingualism" and "bilingual education" to refer to the contexts where two or more languages are involved.

presentation of the participants' characteristics, the data collection process, and the analytical procedures involved in each of the three studies. Finally, I reflect on the validity of the research design and procedures and draw some conclusions about the reliability of the findings.

Chapter 4 ("Discussion of findings and contributions") summarizes the findings of each study. In addition, the empirical, theoretical, and methodological contributions of the research are discussed in light of relevant theory and previous research.

Chapter 5 ("Conclusion") discusses the limitations of the studies, provides suggestions for further research, and outlines the pedagogical implications of the thesis.

Chapter 2: Theory and Literature Review

In the sections to follow I present the theoretical and empirical grounds for the three studies that make up the thesis. I start off by outlining the shift in views on bilingualism and bilingual education that constitutes the overall theoretical rationale for the adopted perspective on bilingual speakers' competence and language practices (Section 2.1.). I provide a concise account of the origins of translanguaging as a scaffolding technique involving the concurrent use of languages, and its current conceptualization as a sociolinguistic and ecological approach to language pedagogy (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; García, 2009; García & Kano, 2014; Jonsson, 2017). I also look into the connection between translanguaging and code-switching since the issue of synthesizing the two research paradigms is central to the integrated framework proposed in Study III (Section 2.2.). Next, in Section 2.3., I review the empirical findings of previous studies on the use of background language(s) in L2 writing. I conclude the chapter with a short summary (Section 2.4.).

2.1. Views on Bilingualism and Bilingual Education

The present research investigates a bi- and multilingual approach to English writing instruction. I begin the section with the discussion of how research on bilingualism has progressed from early assumptions about detrimental effects of bilingualism on children's development to recent evidence of cognitive and academic benefits of knowing more than one language. I also explain how this evolution of theories and approaches to understanding bilingual[4] competence motivates the present investigation.

[4] Throughout the theoretical discussion the term *bilingual*/*bilingualism* is used to refer to the contexts where two or more languages are involved. However, when reviewing empirical research in the field, the distinction between bi- and multilingualism will be emphasized to contextualize the goals, methodology, and results of the reported studies.

In its early stages, research on bilingualism was largely based on a "monolingual" or "fractional" view of bilingual individuals as "two monolinguals in one" (Grosjean, 1985). The language proficiency of bilinguals in these studies was measured against native speakers of the target language in question. The results often seemed to point to a deficiency on the part of bilinguals both in linguistic and cognitive terms (Baker, 1996). Barac & Bialystok (2011) outline three possible factors underlying these results: (i) vaguely formulated research questions, (ii) faulty methodology, and (iii) a preexisting bias rooted in an assumption about harmful effects of bilingualism on children's development. Over time, with the introduction of more adequate theoretical approaches and methodology, the field progressed towards a more positive view on bilingualism (Hakuta, 1986). In this regard, Peal and Lambert's (1962) study of middle-class French-Canadian bilingual children is important since it was the first one to provide empirical evidence of the positive effects of bilingualism. The study showed that French-English bilingual children outperformed monolinguals on both verbal and non-verbal measures in either language, which suggested a positive transfer between the languages. Peal & Lambert's study evoked a new wave of interest in bilingual research in finding evidence of bidirectional interaction between L1 and L2 that could facilitate cognitive development and verbal intelligence in the studied bilinguals. In addition, the study made a significant methodological contribution to the field by recruiting bilingual children that were fully competent in both languages, and ensuring that the monolingual and bilingual children were matched on age, gender, and socio-economic status.

Generally speaking, bilingual research has evolved "[…] from the search for effects of bilingualism on intelligence, through interest in linguistic outcomes, to school achievement and, finally, to cognitive development" (Barac & Bialystok, 2011, p. 37). In the last twenty years, the main focus has been on the effects of bilingualism on the cognitive development of children and adults. Recent research confirms

beneficial aspects of knowing more than one language when it comes to reinforcing cognitive development and counteracting cognitive decline (Barac & Bialystok, 2011; Barac, Bialystok, Castro & Sanchez, 2014; Grady, Luk, Craik & Bialystok, 2015; Luk, Bialystok, Craik & Grady, 2011).

Another aspect of bilingual research concerns possible models of language representation in a bilingual's mind. Weinreich (1953) and Ervin & Osgood (1954) introduced a distinction between coordinate and compound bilingualism as a functioning model to explain the ways two languages may interact. The notion of *compound bilingualism* implies that a person acquires both languages simultaneously, usually in the early years of childhood, and thus develops a fused representation of two language systems in the brain. By contrast, in the minds of *coordinate bilinguals*, who learn another language in life under different circumstances than L1 (in university settings, for instance), the two languages are by hypothesis stored separately. Weinrich (1953) also introduced a third intermediate category of *sub-coordinate* bilinguals to refer to bilinguals who access words from a weaker language through their dominant language. Despite its strong influence on most subsequent research on bilinguals, the compound-coordinate model was abandoned by the end of the 1960s because of conceptual and methodological problems (Diller, 1970; Keatly, 1992). In particular, Macnamara (1967) criticized the classification for being too simplistic. However, the nature of language representation and processing mechanisms in bilinguals has remained an active area of research. Specifically, a number of neuroimaging techniques for studying bilingual brain organization and functioning have been developed. A comprehensive review of recent literature of neurolinguistic studies (Higby, Kim & Obler, 2013) provides several tentative conclusions with regard to language processing in bilinguals: (i) the same brain areas are used for processing L1 and L2, but with additional activation of other areas in case of L2; (ii) at lower levels of L2 proficiency, the brain processes L2 differently from L1, but the difference may disappear as the level of proficiency in L2 rises; (iii) when

proficiency level is controlled for, the age of L2 acquisition has a separate effect on brain activation patters; (iv) semantic information in L2 is processed more readily than syntactic.

Further, the issue of the degree of interaction of languages in a bilingual mind has been the object of study in many psycholinguistic studies. Early investigations of bilinguals (such as Pavio, 1991) seemed to provide evidence for separate storage of the two languages' vocabularies. By contrast, more recent studies challenge the clear-cut separation of lexical storage in early and late bilinguals and provide evidence that even the brains of late bilinguals have a common conceptual system allowing them to constantly mediate between the languages (Illes et al., 1999; Proverbio, Roberta & Alberto, 2007). For instance, Thierry and Wu's (2007) study, which included participants who learned a second language after the age of twelve, provides empirical evidence for the existence of a common conceptual system. During the experiment, the brain activity of Chinese monolinguals, English monolinguals, and Chinese-English bilinguals was measured as they were presented with semantically related and unrelated word pairs. The outcome of this and the following study involving the auditory modality showed that the participants regularly accessed their L1 while processing L2 during reading and listening experiments. The authors conclude: "The present study makes a direct observation of spontaneous lexical activation of the native language during an experiment involving only second-language stimuli" (p. 12534).

Even though the issue of the exact nature and level of language interaction/integration in bilinguals remains unresolved, there is a general agreement to view language development in bilinguals/multilinguals as a dynamic system that is qualitatively different from monolingual. In the context of bilingual research, Grosjean's (1985, 2008) holistic approach to bilingualism prompted a new wave of bilingual studies that recognize the need for a different theoretical approach and methodology to ensure that bilinguals are studied as unique and competent language

users in their own right. Grosjean (2008) describes bilinguals as "an integrated whole which cannot easily be decomposed into two separate parts" and argues that the bilingual "has a unique and specific linguistic configuration" (p.13). Furthermore, he introduced the notion of *language mode*, which refers to a degree of activation of language processing mechanisms available for use with either of the speaker's languages at a certain point in time and in a certain communicative context. In other words, bilingual individuals will find themselves on a *language mode continuum* between two extreme points: a monolingual language mode and a bilingual language mode (p. 40). In the bilingual mode, both languages are activated, whereas in the monolingual mode, only the subset corresponding to one of the languages is. Grosjean's concept of *language mode* was applied in the design of the writing prompts (Appendix A: Writing Prompts) in Study I. Through manipulation of the languages in the prompts, my co-authors and I tried to put the students in the English-only group in a monolingual mode with English being the base language; in the participants in the translanguaging group we tried to induce a bilingual mode where both Norwegian and English would be activated. Finally, the participants in the translation group were supposed to start writing in the monolingual mode with Norwegian as the base language and then switch to English monolingual mode when it was time to translate.

Grosjean's (1985, 2008) holistic perspective on bilingual competence views language development as a non-linear process that involves interaction with the environment as well as internal self-reorganization. Specifically, Grosjean's notion that language restructures the speaker's whole system as a result of managing communicative needs when two or more languages are involved, is compatible with a *Dynamic Model of Multilingualism* put forward by Herdina & Jessner (2002). The model reconciles cognitive with social aspects of language development and underscores dynamic properties of multilingual proficiency, with language systems

being in a state of constant flux, interwoven with changing physical and social environment, learners' individual characteristics, and demands of communication.

When it comes to the domain of SLA research, once the early assumptions about cognitive deficiency of bilingualism were rejected in light of a large body of evidence produced by studies of bilinguals, finding alternative explanations for the underachievement of L2 learners when compared to monolingual speakers became the focus of much research in this area. As a result, early SLA research focusing on learner-internal factors (Ellis, 1994) adopted the principles of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (see for instance, Lado, 1957), according to which learners' L1 interfered with L2 development and caused errors in L2 performance. Furthermore, the degree of L1 interference could be predicted based on the amount of structural dissimilarity between L1 and L2: the greater the difference between the languages, the greater level of interference was expected. Weinreich (1953, p. 1) initially defined interference as "those instances of deviation from the norms of *either* [emphasis added] language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language" (as quoted in Herdina & Jessner, 2002, p. 10). However, in the context of SLA research, interference was seen as a unidirectional phenomenon, namely when L1 interfered with the process of SLA causing errors and delays in L2 development. As far as language teaching is concerned, pedagogical approaches based on this understanding of the underpinnings of bilinguals' and L2 learners' performance have adopted the same principle in the second/foreign language classrooms: it is undesirable to bring the languages into contact with each other as it could result in delays in the development of language competence, and the introduction of errors. Cummins (2007) refers to this attitude as "monolingual instructional assumptions" that have been implemented in both bilingual and second/foreign language teaching contexts. Specifically, according to Cummins (2007, p. 221), these monolingual assumptions include: (i) using a target language should be the only means of instruction; (ii) translation and other forms of cross-lingual

practices between L1 and a target language should be avoided; (iii) a strict separation between languages in immersion and bilingual programs should be maintained. Cummins (2007, 2013) then points to the lack of empirical support for these assumptions in the outlined teaching contexts. For instance, there is no evidence that maximizing instruction in a target language leads to better learning outcomes compared to a bilingual approach or explicit teaching for cross-linguistic transfer (2013, p. 291).

The discussion of the monolingual instructional assumptions in language teaching is closely related to Cummins' (1979, 1981, 2007, 2013) Interdependence hypothesis that was proposed to account for the processes in the mind of bilinguals in the context of bilingual education. The hypothesis posits that:

> […] although the surface aspects (e.g. pronunciation, fluency, etc.) of different languages are clearly separate, there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across the languages. This common underlying proficiency makes possible transfer of cognitive/academic or literacy-related proficiency from one language to another.
>
> (2007, p. 232)

The Interdependence hypothesis supports a cross-linguistic teaching strategy that capitalizes on the built-in tendency to transfer conceptual elements, metalinguistic and metacognitive strategies, and shared pragmatic aspects of language use. In addition, the hypothesis is consistent with the conclusions of research on what facilitates learning (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000; Donovan & Bransford, 2005), i.e. the importance of activating prior knowledge and conceptual frameworks in the process of effective learning. In the same vein, Baker's (2001) *common operating system*, Kecskes & Papp's (2000) *common underlying conceptual base*, and Riches & Genesee's (2006) *common underlying reservoir of literacy abilities*

are compatible with the original Interdependence hypothesis as they further develop the concept of cross-linguistic interdependence consisting of both declarative knowledge (concepts) and procedural knowledge (how to use language for effective communication) (Cummins, 2007, p. 292).

Grosjean's holistic perspective on the nature of bilingual competence and Cummins' Interdependence hypothesis that supports bilingual instructional approaches in language classrooms are important prerequisites for the formulation of the translanguaging framework. The latter has developed into a facilitator of the so-called "multilingual turn" (e.g., May, 2013) in a broad spectrum of educational contexts from bilingual education to foreign and second language learning environments. Multilingual pedagogical practices are gradually being incorporated in language classrooms around the world (Prada & Turnbull, 2018). The multilingual turn in SLA research entails critique of monolingualism and deficit approach as organizing principles in investigating the development in an additional language (Cook, 2003; Kay, 2014; Ortega, 2013). As Ortega (2013) points out:

> A bi/multilingual turn is urgently needed to replace SLA's existing research goal of explaining why late bi/multilinguals are not native speakers (by which monolinguals are often meant) with the goal of understanding the process and consequences of becoming bilingual or monolingual later in life.
>
> (p. 33)

In the spirit of the multilingual turn in foreign and second language educational contexts, Turnbull (2018) argues for reframing the status of foreign and second language learners because foreign and second language learners need to be recognized as unique bilinguals in their own right. Turnbull proposes extending the term "emergent bilinguals", which was originally introduced by García (2009) to describe minority leaners of English in the US context, to include learners of

additional languages (all ages included) who are "in the process of acquiring knowledge of a second language and developing bilingual language skills for use in a given situation relevant to their individual needs to learn the TL [target language]" (p. 1043). Turnbull's extended definition of emergent bilinguals is fully applicable to the participants of the present study who are engaged in the ongoing process of learning English as an additional language and thus actively developing their bilingual skills.

To recapitulate, in Section 2.1. I looked into how research on bilingualism has evolved to overcome the pre-existing bias to perceive bilingualism as detrimental to children's development. A more positive outlook on bilingualism sparked a new wave of research in the area, advancing the field towards better theoretical models and methodology. In addition, I linked a holistic perspective on bilingual and multilingual competence that emerged from bilingual research to the multilingual turn in SLA and language pedagogy. The translanguaging framework, which I detail in the next section, capitalizes on the holistic perspective on bilingualism and the notion of cross-linguistic interdependence, and takes a step further in recognizing and supporting bilinguals' complex hybrid language practices and use of their entire linguistic repertoire to express themselves and to learn.

2.2. The Translanguaging Framework

This section starts with a concise account of the origins of translanguaging and its current conceptualization as a sociolinguistic and ecological approach to language pedagogy (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; García, 2009; García & Kano, 2014; Jonsson, 2017). The remaining subsections look into the connection between translanguaging and code-switching since the issue of synthesizing the two research paradigms is central to the integrated framework proposed in Study III of the thesis.

As noted earlier, the translanguaging framework has played an important role in promoting the normalization of bilingual language practices and stimulating new

pedagogical approaches based on flexible use of languages in the language classroom (Prada & Turnbull, 2018). The term *translanguaging* was conceived in an educational context by the Welsh educator Cen Williams (1994, 1996) to denote a planned teacher-initiated pedagogical activity based on a purposeful concurrent use of two languages within a lesson or task. For instance, students may listen to a dialogue in English, discuss it and then write a short summary of the discussion in Welsh (L1) or vice versa. For Williams, translanguaging is a valuable strategy that should be encouraged and utilized in bilingual language classrooms to promote children's development in both languages. In the last decade or so, the concept has gained its strong position within the field of multilingualism research as an umbrella term for various means of incorporating the entire linguistic repertoire of an individual language user to achieve communicative goals in varied communicative contexts and modalities (García, 2012). In the context of this study, translanguaging is understood in its classroom application, where languages are used in a flexible and functional manner in order to further literacy in both or all languages (Lewis et al., 2012). In other words, this research draws on translanguaging pedagogy understood as "the instructional mobilization of students' full linguistic repertoire and the promotion of productive contact across languages" (Cummins, 2019, p. 21). In the translanguaging condition in our experiment we prompted the students to alternate languages in their drafts before writing the final draft in English. This is consistent with the weak version of translanguaging (Williams, 1996; García & Lin, 2017; Turnbull, 2019), which pertains to the softening of the borders between the languages to tap into the students' background knowledge and linguistic repertoire, while acknowledging the existence of a target language (and the goal of developing it) as opposed to other available languages. By contrast, the strong version of translanguaging calls for the elimination of the social construct of "named languages" and argues for providing the students with the opportunity to " […] fully use their entire language repertoire, without regard to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named languages […]" (García & Lin, 2016, p. 125).

2.2.1. Translanguaging and Code-switching

As stated at the beginning of the section, since its origin in the context of Welsh bilingual education, the framework of translanguaging has been further developed by a number of scholars (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Jonsson, 2017; García, 2009; García & Kano, 2014; García & Li Wei, 2014; García & Otheguy, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012; Li Wei, 2018; Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015; Paulsrud, Rosén, Straszer & Wedin, 2017) to refer to a wide range of complex language behavior of multilingual speakers in and outside of the educational context. Consequently, translanguaging has evolved into an open-ended construct (Slembrouck & Rosiers, 2017), which may accommodate diverse bilingual practices, including code-switching (García, 2009). A common thread in many existing formulations of translanguaging is that it involves a fluid and dynamic use of speakers' linguistic resources. In the same vein, such concepts as *dynamic bilingualism* (García, 2009), *continua of biliteracy* (Hornberger, 2003), *codemeshing* and *translingual practice* (Canagarajah, 2011, 2013), *polylingual languaging* (Jørgensen, 2008), *multilanguaging* (Nguyen, 2012) all seek to capture the holistic view on bilingualism and bilingual education and its potential for enhancing literacies across an individual's languages.

In the context of Study III, the nature of the relationship between translanguaging and code-switching is an important issue since the study draws on both research paradigms in the analysis and interpretation of the students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing. Despite observable commonalities between pedagogical translanguaging and classroom code-switching (Lewis et al., 2012), code-switching studies have been criticized for supporting the dual competence perspective on bilingual proficiency since "codes" imply the separation of linguistic systems (García & Otheguy, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015). In the next subsection, I show that in the sociolinguistic approach to code-switching the understanding of "codes" as separate linguistic systems has been reexamined by a number of scholars. As a result, the notion of "code-switching" may be reserved to

pragmatically motivated language alternations, while the notion of "language mixing" may represent language alternations that lack the discourse-functional aspect, and thus should be distinguished from code-switching.

As a response to the critique of code-switching studies for supposedly promoting the dual competence model, in his review MacSwan (2017) points to ample literature on bilingualism and code-switching that adopts the holistic perspective on bilingualism to account for high levels of complexity, systematicity, and creativity involved in language alternation. Moreover, MacSwan (2017) maintains that, similar to the translanguaging line of research, studies of classroom code-switching have been an important catalyst in the positive shift among educators and researchers towards recognition of the pedagogical potential of the linguistic resources of bilingual students. It is against this background that code-switching in the third study of this thesis is conceptualized as one possible realization of translanguaging since both are rooted in the holistic view on bilingualism. In the next subsection, I lay out the premises of the integrated framework of pragmatic code-switching and translanguaging in light of different interpretations of "codes".

2.2.2. Code-switching, Language Mixing, and Translanguaging: Towards an Integrated Framework

Code-switching has been studied since the 1950s. Jakobson (Jakobson, Fant & Halle, 1952), Fano (1950), and Fries & Pike (1949) first introduced the notion of "switching codes" to refer to the coexistence of phonemic systems in the mind of a monolingual or bilingual speaker. A more recent definition of code-switching as an alternation between languages (dialects, styles, etc.) stems from early studies on bilingualism (Haugen, 1956; Mackey, 1962; Weinreich, 1953) that focused on a systematic description of bilingual speech with the purpose of mapping linguistic choices of bilinguals. In order to predict when, how, and why the switch to another language would occur at least two distinct "codes" had to be identified. A "code"

became synonymous with a language (or/and a language variety) and thus was reified by the analyst from actual speech data into the mind of the speaker.

A different, interactional, approach in research on language alternation in speech was introduced and developed by Gumperz (1957, 1964) who looked into the social functions of code-switching, that is, in relation to the enactment, maintenance, and deconstruction of communicative roles and social identities. The interactional approach to code-switching resulted in the framework of socio-pragmatic functions of oral code-switching (Gumperz, 1982; McClure, 1981; Poplack, 1980; Valdés-Fallis, 1976). A more detailed account of this framework and its application to the analysis of written code-switching is given in Paper III.

The interactional approach to code-switching marked an important shift from the structural to the interpretative perspective. The latter requires linguists to regard a speaker's and/or listener's perception of language alternation in conversation as a point of departure. In this connection, Alvarez-Cáccamo (1998) challenges the way code-switching research often presupposes the existence of at least two distinct codes in bilingual conversation, each used to fulfill a particular pragmatic function whereas numerous examples of bilingual data contain language alternation that is perceived by the participants and linguists as virtually functionless. Instances of so-called "unmarked" or "free switching" were labeled as such and have not been explicitly addressed in the literature. With this in mind, Auer (1998) points out that a more appropriate approach to the analysis of data containing language contact entails establishing function rather than codes, i.e. functionally meaningfully transitions should be labeled "code-switching", whereas those not exhibiting any clear pragmatic intention on the part of the speaker, may be referred to as instances of "mixed code". When describing "mixed code", Auer (1998) emphasizes a frequent and seamless alternation between languages or language varieties that "does not carry meaning *qua* language choice for the bilingual participants" and often does not "receive neither discourse- nor participant-related interpretations" (p. 16, emphasis

in the original). In his later work, Auer (1999, 2014) employs the term "language mixing" to refer to the type of language alternation phenomenon described above. Auer (2014) stresses that "language mixing" should be distinguished from code-switching as, unlike code-switching, it lacks the discourse-functional aspect. The notion of "language mixing" seems to capture much of how translanguaging—as a naturally occurring bilingual practice—has been defined in the literature, for instance, "as bilingualism without diglossic functional separation" (García, 2007, p. xii), and later as a dynamic communicative practice where "languages are no longer assigned separate territories or even separate functions, but they may co-exist in the same space" (García, 2009, pp. 78-79).

In view of what has been discussed so far, alternating use of languages by bilinguals appears to be much less homogeneous than what some translanguaging researchers (García & Otheguy, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015) label as a traditional understanding of code-switching. Instead, the last 40 years of code-switching research from the socio-linguistic perspective have shown that language alternation has properties of a continuum that stretches from an intentional pragmatic contrast of two codes (pragmatic code-switching) to a smooth and uninterrupted flow of language alternations in which none of the languages assumes any distinct discourse function ("language mixing")[5]. It is interesting to consider a possible relationship between Grosjean's (2008) notion of language mode continuum (from monolingual to bilingual) and the continuum between pragmatic code-switching and language mixing in Auer's (2014) classification. It seems that bilinguals would tend to alternate between the languages more in a situation that induces simultaneous activation of both languages (bilingual speech mode), for instance, in a conversion with another bilingual person who frequently alternates between the languages. However, the frequency of language alternation alone would not necessary determine the

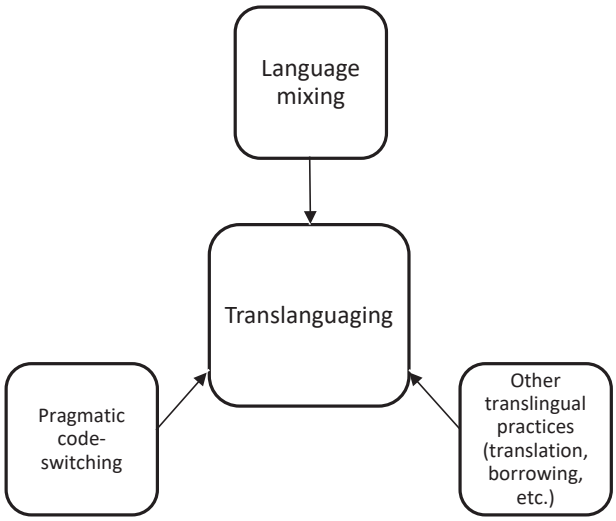
[5] Note that Auer (1999, 2014) extends the continuum further to include "fused lects" and "language fusion" as the extreme forms of language contact happening on a deeper grammatical level and resulting in new structures.

pragmatic choices on behalf of a bilingual person since any number of factors, including the communicative intent, interlocutors' relationships, and bilingual person's language alternation habits, may have an impact on the speaker's position on the discourse functional/non-discourse functional continuum of language alternation. Put differently, a bilingual speaker in the bilingual language mode may engage in both pragmatically motivated code-switching and not pragmatically motivated language mixing.

To sum up, a more differentiated analytical approach is needed to grasp the diverse nature of language alternations in the students' drafts. In this approach, the label of code-switching is reserved for the type of language alternation that carries a particular pragmatic function (e.g. clarification, lexical needs, quotes, parenthetical comments, etc.), while translanguaging is an overarching concept that includes all kinds of translingual practice, i.e. pragmatic code-switching, language mixing, translation, borrowing, etc. Figure 2 illustrates the proposed integrated framework:

Figure 2

The Integrated Framework of Translanguaging and Code-switching (Study III)



In conclusion, Section 2.2. discussed the origins and evolution of the translanguaging framework and laid the groundwork for the proposed integrated framework of translanguaging and code-switching utilized in Study III. In the following section, I review the findings of empirical studies on the use of background language(s) in L2 writing to provide a context for the present investigation.

2.3. Use of Background Language(s) When Writing in a Target Language: Empirical Findings

In Wang & Wen's (2002) study of L1 use in the L2 composing process of 16 Chinese EFL writers, the authors conclude that "[…] the L2 writing process is a bilingual event: L2 writers have two languages (i.e., L1 and L2) at their disposal when they are composing in L2" (p. 239). The analysis of the think-aloud protocols showed that the L1 accounted for around 30% of the data and was used predominantly in process-controlling, idea-generating, and idea-organizing activities. Another important conclusion that the authors draw from their analysis is that the proportion of L1 usage decreases as students engage in the types of activities that are closely related to textual output, while the processes leading to text-generating are L1 dominant.

Similar findings are reported in several studies that focused on the interaction of languages in the mind of L2 writers (Manchón, de Larios & Murphy, 2007; Woodall, 2002). The upshot of research on the role of L1 in L2 writing is that purposeful use of L1 occurs in different stages of the composing process and appears to be an integral part of composing in a target language (see Van Weijen, Van den Bergh, Rijlaarsdam & Sanders, 2009). However, L2 writers employ this strategy to achieve different goals as their L2 proficiency develops. More proficient writers resort to their L1 when handling tasks of higher complexity (Manchón, de Larios & Murphy, 2009; Van Weijen et al., 2009), whereas the amount of L1 use for the formulation purposes correlates negatively with the increase in the L2 proficiency level. The only exception

is linked to the use of L1 for monitoring function, that is, when L1 facilitates the writer's ability to cope with the cognitive overload and working-memory constraints, and manage the writing process by means of self-instruction and meta-comments (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Cumming, 1989; Woodall, 2002). In this case, writers tend to utilize their L1 in a similar way and to a similar degree regardless of the level of L2 proficiency.

In order to examine how the students use their languages when encouraged to draw on their entire linguistic repertoire, we prompted our participants in the translanguaging group to employ translanguaging at the draft stage of writing an essay in English. Studies that target multilingual writers' language use are particularly relevant to this research since we incorporated translanguaging as a multilingual approach to English writing instruction. For instance, Beiler's (2019) study of English writing instruction in two introductory classes for newly arrived students in Norway involved newly arrived students with diverse language background and emerging Norwegian. The results of the study are of interest to this investigation since the way teachers and learners drew on multilingual resources to develop English writing proficiency could be beneficial to learners of English in the context of mainstream compulsory education as well. Further, Cenoz & Gorter (2011) report that the participants in their study, 165 Basque-Spanish bilinguals and secondary school students, activated both of their background languages while writing in English. The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the writing samples indicated that the students engaged in multidirectional cross-linguistic transfer and employed similar general writing strategies across the languages. Another study of multilingual students' writing (Tullock & Fernández-Villanueva, 2013) suggests that multilinguals, in this case 16 and 17-year-old Spanish-Catalan-German trilinguals composing essays in English, resort to all three background languages to solve lexical problems. However, the participants' L1 was activated to a greater degree than other languages. A study of multilinguals' use of background languages in the Swedish

context (Gunnarsson, Housen, Van de Weijer & Källkvist, 2015) includes participants of a similar age group (15-16) as our own study. The participants were divided into three groups according to their L1, i.e. *Swedish L1, simultaneous L1s group* (exposed to Swedish and another L1 from early age), and *Other L1 group* (with L1 other than Swedish). The authors analyzed the survey data on participants' language background and their use of different languages as they composed an essay in English (L2 or L3). The students reported Swedish (their L1 or L2) as the most frequently employed language of thought; while English was reported to be activated considerably more often once the students started writing their texts.

The empirical evidence supports claims put forward by the proponents of the translanguaging framework (García, 2009, 2012; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012; Williams, 1996) in that users of two or more languages rely on all of their linguistic repertoire by choosing flexibly and strategically from an integrated system of linguistic resources (Gort, 2006; Kibler, 2010). To be specific, Velasco & García (2014) examined the way young bilingual writers utilized translanguaging as a writing strategy in the planning, drafting, and production stages. The qualitative analysis of the five writing samples produced by the K–4th grade Spanish-English and Korean-English bilingual students revealed that the young writers used translanguaging to organize ideas related to the topic and to engage the reader. In addition, translanguaging was employed as a vocabulary learning strategy (text annotations) and a discourse feature (internal speech). A recent study of translanguaging in the planning of academic and creative writing of Japanese EFL learners (Turnbull, 2019) is particularly relevant to the present research since it employs similar methodology and theoretical framework. The investigation of the effect of translanguaging on the quality of students' academic and creative writing showed better results for those who engaged in the translanguaging practices during the planning stage compared to those who used one language at a time, either English or their L1.

2.4. Research on Translation in L2 Writing

Despite its limited presence in language classrooms dominated by the monolingual paradigm, translation seems to be reestablishing its position thanks to new awareness of the role of L1 in teaching and learning of L2. A number of scholars (Butzkamm, 2003, 2011; Cook, 2010; House, 2009; Källkvist, 2013; Malmkjær,1998; Whyatt, 2009) propose to revive translation as a tool that helps learners to acquire, develop, and strengthen their knowledge and competence in a foreign language. I will now turn to a brief overview of previous research focusing on the use of translation in the development of learners' writing skills in a target language.

In their study of the effect of L1 in translated versus direct EFL writing, Kobayashi & Rinnert (1992) asked 48 fourth-year Japanese university students to write two texts: a direct composition in English and a draft in Japanese, which was then translated into English. Analysis of the data showed that the translation mode produced texts with higher levels of syntactic complexity, as well as better style, organization and content. In addition, students of a lower level of proficiency benefited more from using the translation mode. However, in their feedback on the different modes, the students reported that they preferred the direct condition because they wanted to think in English, or because they found it difficult to convey nuances of meaning between the languages. At the same time, the students reported feeling that it was easier to develop their ideas, express their thoughts and opinions in the translation mode.

In another study, Ali (1996) replicated the Kobayashi and Rinnert investigation with Arabic L1 learners of English. Sixty Arabic-speaking university students wrote essays in English and in Arabic, and then translated the essays from Arabic into English. The essays were evaluated on the basis of holistic ratings of writing ability. The analysis showed that the direct mode produced better results, hence, contradicting the original study.

Uzawa (1996) investigated the processes in L1 writing, L2 writing and translation from L1 into L2. The results revealed that attention patterns measured through think-loud protocols were very similar in the L1 and L2 tasks. In this study, the participants were 22 Japanese-speaking ESL students (age 19 to 23) who wrote essays in Japanese, another essay on a different topic in English, and translated an article from Japanese into English. Think-aloud protocols, which were carried out individually, showed that the students talked about the content of their essays, paragraph division and organization of sentences into groups in a similar manner across all writing tasks. Attention to language use, however, was significantly higher in the translation task. The assessment of the writing samples was carried out by two judges on the basis of a holistic scoring scale. The English in the translated essays was more expressive in using varied vocabulary and syntax. The author highlights an important point about the difference in the nature of translation task that might have contributed to the increased complexity of language: translating a ready-made text reduced the cognitive space necessary for generating ideas and organizing content, thus giving the writers the opportunity to focus on language use. Students with lower proficiency levels seemed to benefit more from the use of translation.

Yet another study of direct versus translated writing (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001) included 25 English-speaking, 10 Spanish-speaking and 4 native speakers of other languages who wrote essays directly in French and in their L1 (or another dominant language), which were then translated into French. The participants were all university level students. Both sessions were in-class sessions each limited to fifty minutes. A background questionnaire, text rating and strategy checklist combined with the evaluative feedback were employed for data collection. The authors reported that two-thirds of the students did better in the direct writing mode, while one-third did better in the translation mode. Grammar ratings were similar across the modes. The students reported thinking more in their dominant language in both modes; they indicated a better organization and vocabulary use in their L1 drafts,

which helped achieve better organization and more varied vocabulary in their translated essays. Despite having registered the advantages of using translation, they felt that thinking directly in French would help them learn better and faster.

In a more recent study of English learners' performance and strategy use when writing an essay directly in English and translating the essays from L1 into English (Ismail & Alsheikh, 2012), thirty-six female university-level, Arabic-speaking learners wrote three different essays in class under time-limited conditions. The statistical analysis as well as the analysis of the obtained qualitative data showed better results were obtained in the direct writing mode.

Finally, similar results were reported in Tavakoli, Ghadiri, & Zabihi's study (2014) of the effect of translation on the writing ability of sixty adult beginner level learners of English (Persian speakers) in Iran. The data analysis indicated better results for the direct writing mode in terms of expression, transition and grammar. The authors point to the fact that it might be useful to incorporate translation strategies into the writing courses due to the reported extensive use of L1 in the direct writing mode.

To sum up, keeping in mind the variety of the goals, research designs and methodology, as well as the scope of the empirical studies in this area, it is not surprising to see somewhat conflicting results. Lack of agreement among researchers is in fact evidence of contextual, socio-linguistic, and cultural diversity associated with L2 writing processes and practices. Among the factors influencing participants' performance are writers' L2 proficiency level and experience with L1 instruction (Beare & Bourdages, 2007; Wang, 2003; Wolfersberger, 2003; Woodall, 2002), the type of task (Wang & Wen, 2002), topic-knowledge (Friedlander, 1990; Qi, 1998), and whether the assignment is done in class, as homework, or as a form of assessment with a set time limit.

The conflicting results of the empirical studies focusing on direct versus translated writing and the fact that the pedagogical potential of the written form of translanguaging in language classrooms has received scant attention in the literature (Canagarajah, 2011; Velasco & García, 2014) point to a knowledge gap that the present thesis may help to fill. In particular, the thesis may extend our knowledge of the effect of the alternative approaches to English writing instruction on the quality of the essays. In addition, it may provide a deeper insight into the students' use of background languages at the draft stage of the writing process in a target language. Furthermore, the thesis may contribute to our understanding of the students' perceptions of various writing conditions. Finally, it may enhance our understanding of how Norwegian learners may employ written translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in English.

2.5. Summary of the Chapter

The theoretical perspectives, models, and frameworks outlined here constitute the theoretical foundation of the thesis. The holistic view on bilingualism in the context of bilingual research (Grosjean, 2008) and the Interdependence hypothesis in the context of language education (Cummins 1979, 1981, 2007, 2013) make up an overarching theoretical rationale for all three studies. Furthermore, translanguaging, originally a pedagogical practice conceived in Welsh bilingual programs and later a pedagogical framework that expended into a multitude of educational settings, places this thesis into a broader context of theoretical and empirical literature that promotes the multilingual turn in language education.

As far as the empirical evidence is concerned, a considerable body of research into L2 writing confirms that L2 learners use their L1 in their writing to various extent and for various purposes, for instance, brainstorming ideas, planning, reviewing or solving linguistic problems. There is also a strong indication of the possible transfer of L1 writing strategies into L2, thus pointing to the fact that activation of the L1 can be

beneficial to some learners under certain conditions (Cohen & Brooks-Cohen, 2001; Knutson, 2006; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Uzawa, 1996; Woodall, 2002).

Chapter 3: Methodology and Research Design

In this chapter I address the methodological and ethical dimensions of my research and give a detailed presentation of the participants' characteristics, the data collection process, and the analytical procedures. In addition, I reflect on the validity of the research design and procedures and draw some conclusions about the reliability of the findings.

To begin with, I discuss the scientific method of hypothesis testing and the positioning of the thesis in relation to the postpositivist and pragmatist research paradigms (Section 3.1.). Then, I address the ethical dimensions of the present research (Section 3.2.). In Section 3.3., I outline an overall research design and review the methodology employed in each of the three individual studies. Subsequent sections detail the characteristics of the sample (Section 3.4.), the data collection process (Section 3.5.), and the analytical procedures employed in each of the studies (Sections 3.6. and 3.7.). Next, I address several aspects related to validity and reliability of the research in conjunction with the steps taken to minimize the major threats to validity and reliability (Section 3.8.). Finally, I conclude the chapter with a brief summary (Section 3.9.).

3.1. The Scientific Method and Experimental Design

The present research as a whole is based on the principles of scientific method which is defined by "systematic observation and experimentation, inductive and deductive reasoning, and the formation and testing of hypotheses and theories" (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2015). In this chapter, I choose to focus primarily on experimental design in view of the fact that Study I, which employs this type of design, provides a backdrop for the investigations carried out in Study II and III.

The design of my experimental study follows the logic of inductive inference, that is, my point of departure is a single observation collected through manipulating an aspect of the environment (writing instruction) and observing the effect (or absence of it) on the chosen variable (essay quality). However, there is also an element of deductive thinking insofar as I carry out the experiment as a tool to test a theory that I chose in advance of the experiment. To put it briefly, my theory is predicated on the holistic view on bilingualism (Grosjean, 2008), the Interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1979, 1981, 2007, 2013), and the translanguaging framework that promotes use of leaners' entire linguistic repertoire in developing literacies across languages. I formulate a hypothesis, which is a prediction from the theory, i.e. translation and translanguaging might have a measurable effect of the quality of the students' essays because use of the L1 (or dominant language) and multiple languages may give learners advantages in certain areas of writing ability since learners would employ a broader repertoire of linguistic resources.

Attempting to establish new facts through observation is predicated on inductive reasoning that was criticized by Hume and Popper for its inadequacy to explain phenomena based on a limited number of observed cases (Okasha, 2016). To manage the perils of inductive reasoning, I follow the rules of the most widely accepted statistical model to test hypothesis by formulating the null hypothesis, which is the opposite of the alternative hypothesis that I deduce from the theory. Specifically, the null hypothesis that is put to test in Study I posits that there will be no measurable effect on the quality of students' essays written under three writing conditions. As Wilkinson (2013) points out, "testing the null hypothesis is a fundamental aspect of the scientific method and has its basis in the falsification theory of Karl Popper" (p. 919). By falsifying the null hypothesis, I hope to be able to produce evidence supporting my alternative hypothesis, which predicts a measurable effect of translation and translanguaging writing conditions on the quality of students' writing. Mathematics is used to draw inferences based on confidence about

the result: as the probability of the results occurring due to chance decreases, the investigator's confidence that the results reflect some real state of affairs increases (Field & Hole, 2010). However, this simplified description of the traditional approach to experimental research does not imply that statistics has the power of producing absolute true statements about the studied phenomenon. The experimental design that I pursue in my research is a conscious effort to take on board Popper's warnings against putting too much faith in induction as a method and a logic. Therefore, controlling extraneous factors (covariates) and choosing adequate statistical procedures, understanding biases and limitations related to the design and method as well as showing a strong commitment to the postulates of research ethics were important aspects in the design and implementation stages of the research.

In view of the fact that experiment is the primary method of data collection in Study I, I flesh out several facets of the quasi-experimental design adopted in the study. Experiment is a well-established form of empirical research that aims at gathering evidence through careful manipulation of some aspects of environment, and measurement with the purpose of establishing and explaining relationships between independent and dependent variables. In his books, Fisher (1925, 1925/91) advanced the concept of random assignment alongside some of the statistical procedures and thus enhanced experimental research in education (Creswell, 2014). It is common to differentiate between two major types of experimental design: true experiment and quasi-experiment. A true experiment is regarded as the most reliable way of conducting research and is strongly associated with physical sciences and randomized controlled clinical trials. The key features of a true experiment include random assignment, control over extraneous variables, manipulation of the treatment condition, outcome measures, group comparisons, and evaluation of threats to research validity (Creswell, 2014). The notion of random assignment entails that a researcher randomly assigns participants to groups in order to minimize the number of variables that may affect the outcome of the treatment. As Creswell

(2014) explains, “You use random assignment so that any bias in the personal characteristics of individuals in the experiment is distributed equally among the groups” (p. 322). The importance of randomization in making true experiments rigorous has to do with the idea that randomization leads to samples that closely resemble the general population, thus enabling the researcher to draw valid general conclusions from the results. It is here that the main difference between a true and a quasi-experiment lies: in a quasi-experiment the possibility for randomization may be limited or absent. This research employs the quasi-experimental design since the students were divided into groups not individually, but on a class-by-class basis, which means that everyone in the same class was assigned to the same writing condition. Generally speaking, researchers turn to quasi-experimental design for practical and/or ethical reasons. In fact, this occurs frequently in educational research when randomization leads to a high level of disruption of the existing system. For instance, a researcher would not be allowed to interfere with the existing division of children into classes or groups, or when rearranging children into particular groups would be considered unethical. It is worth noting that, despite well-known disadvantages of non-random assignment, for an educational researcher to keep the pre-existing conditions does not necessary mean compromising the validity of the experiment. By minimizing the level of interference with students’ environment and daily routine, a researcher might be able to gain more control over extraneous factors by simply not introducing them, and at the same time focusing on securing an overview over possible threats to their experiment in the existing setting, for instance, by using statistical models allowing for control over the extraneous factor. In a sense, a quasi-experiment is similar to field studies insofar as it allows a researcher to immerse themselves in the natural environment of the studied phenomena and avoid the artificial aspect of laboratory settings (Ringdal, 2013). The abovementioned practical, methodological, and ethical reasons for utilizing the quasi-experimental design in educational research are fully applicable to the present study.

After having detailed the facets of the quasi-experimental design employed in Study I, in the paragraphs that follow I outline the positioning of the thesis in relation to two research paradigms.

The given description of the inquiry's aims, design, and research methods places this thesis in the context of the postpositivist tradition (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018, p. 114-131), which is a quantitative-based paradigm that capitalizes on the following selected perspectives:

- There is an independent reality that can be studied even though people's observations of the world are always partially biased.
- Nature can never be fully understood because of the existence of hidden variables.
- Researchers use the scientific method and statistics to approximate nature and to develop deeper understanding.
- The validity of research comes from peers (peer-review process) and carefully chosen/designed analytical procedures.
- Combination of multiple perspectives, i.e. triangulation of theory, methods or data, can facilitate the approximation of objectivity of research.

The final point indicates that a predominantly quantitative-based postpositivist paradigm allows for some kinds of qualitative analysis (e.g. use of content analysis to extract the themes from the qualitative data) to reflect the complexity of the studied phenomenon (Onwuegbuzie, Johnson & Collins, 2009). However, this research draws on a larger integration of quantitative and qualitative analysis. Therefore, the thesis is most accurately seen as belonging to a between-paradigm rather than a within-paradigm research (Onwuegbuzie, 2007). In particular, the mixed method design adopted here, which is discussed in detail in Section 3.3. of this chapter, is indicative of the pragmatic paradigm (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). In brief, pragmatism as a research paradigm gives priority to the research question and outcomes rather than a

certain type of methodology, which means that the researcher should use the philosophical and/or methodological approach that serves best in answering the research question (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). When applied to social research, pragmatism may ascribe to the following philosophical and methodological tenets (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019):

- There are multiple realities based on individuals' unique experiences in the world; however, worldviews can be both individually unique and socially shared (Morgan 2014).
- By inviting multiple perspectives on knowledge construction, a researcher can utilize the experiences and expertise of the participants to advance theories, address research goals, and create socially useful knowledge (Feilzer 2010; Koenig, Spano & Thompson, 2019; Thompson, 2012).
- The flexibility of various combinations of methods allows researchers to gather evidence from a range of sources and to critically evaluate them in terms of their strengths, limitations, and applicability to the practice setting (Plath, 2013).
- Interpretivist (qualitative) approaches are important and useful in understanding and interpreting the nature, context and outcomes of interventions (Hausman, 2002).

The tenets of the postpositivist paradigm that the present thesis draws on involve focus on generalizability, replicability, and reliability of the procedures and instruments used to collect the data and measure variables in the quantitative part of the investigation. At the same time, the pragmatic paradigm with its strong commitment to the use of mixed method design in gathering and analyzing multiple data sources to explain complex human behavior is an important aspect of the present research. To be specific, the qualitative analysis of the students' self-reports (Study II) and use of translanguaging in the drafts (Study III) is carried out to avoid

reducing the multidimensional phenomenon (students' use of linguistic resources when writing in English) to a number of quantifiable and measurable variables (Plath, 2006) and to prevent isolating the students from their context, thus removing them from the discourse.

3.2. Ethical Considerations

This research involves human subjects. Before addressing the ethical considerations of the study, it is important to consider a broader ethical perspective on conducting research. As Israel (2014) rightly points out, the discussion of the ethical aspects of research should begin with the fundamental yet seldom explicitly stated rationale behind research ethics:

> Ethical behaviour helps protect individuals, communities and environments, and offers the potential to increase the sum of good in the world. As social scientists trying to make the world a better place we should avoid (or at least minimize) doing long-term, systematic harm to those individuals, communities and environment.
>
> (p. 2)

Despite the self-evident desirability of an ethically grounded science, past and present examples of research misconduct and unethical practice in a range of scientific disciplines are abundant. As a consequence, initiatives governing research on human subjects have been introduced in numerous countries around the world to set a standard of ethical conduct, ensure transparency of research practices and accountability at the level of the individual researcher as well as institutions. Documenting compliance with the postulates of research ethics is an important prerequisite of establishing trust among researchers, subjects, and society more generally. As Israel (2014, p. 2) reminds us, conducting research on other people is

not an “inalienable right”, but “the product of individual and social goodwill” and thus “depends on us [social scientists—MP] acting in ways that are not harmful and are just”.

The emergence of national and international codes and guidelines of contemporary research ethics has its roots in biomedical research. In particular, the Nuremberg Code (1947) outlines several key principles for ethical treatment of subjects in medical experimental research with a strong emphasis on the voluntary and informed consent (Israel, 2014). Other highly influential research ethics documents that have had an impact on the social sciences include the Declaration of Helsinki (1964), the Belmont Report (1979), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization’s (UNESCO) Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights (2005) (see Israel (2014) for a detailed overview). As Israel (2014) observes, notwithstanding the fact that national and international guidelines have been reactive in nature mostly responding to exposed research malpractice rather than anticipating possible violations, most guidelines are unanimous in their emphasis on respect for individuals and their wellbeing as well as researchers’ duty to obtain informed consent and maintain confidentiality.

This research was conducted in Norway. The first system of the Norwegian regional health-related research ethics committees was established in 1985 (Israel, 2014). In 1990 the National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities (NESH in Norwegian) was established to provide guidelines, evaluation and support for researchers working in the social sciences, the humanities, law, and theology. The guidelines were revised and updated in 2006 (NESH, 2019). According to the general guidelines for research ethics outlined by NESH (2019), respect for individuals is imperative for good research practice. For this investigation, we recruited nearly 300 participants who were 15-16 years old at the time of the experiment. In advance of the data collection, the project was approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD, 2019). Due to the age of the participants,

the written voluntary informed consent was obtained from the participants before the data collection process started (see Appendix D: Information Letter). The template for the consent adopted from the NSD contained information about the purpose of the study and the researchers involved, and description of the data processing and storage. The form stated clearly and explicitly that the participants could withdraw from the study at any time without providing an explanation for their decision, and that their data would be excluded from the project and handled in a responsible manner. The written consent was obtained during face-to-face interaction with the participants, which allowed the participants to ask any questions they had and clarify any points of the consent form before they signed the document.

The collected data for the studies included 288 essays and questionnaire data elicited by means of two online surveys. All personal information, such as name, email address and gender, were anonymized and later codified to make sure that the raters could not identify any individual student by their writing, background information or group affiliation. Following the NSD's recommendations for data storage, all of the raw data were stored on a separate hard disc. In addition, as part of the NSD approval process, I have committed to store the research data at a dedicated institution (NSD or my home institution) after the project is completed. It is important to note that the data that will make it possible for other researchers to verify our analysis and conclusions are provided in the form of correlation tables and similar formats which do not permit the identification of individuals and/or the source of the data.

One particular aspect that is worth examining in light of research ethics is use of incentives during the data collection for the present investigation. In order to thank our participants for their time and effort we provided them with the merchandise products from our home institution (water bottles and scarves). These were made available for all the participants who wanted them. However, in an attempt to improve our chances for high response rate on the questionnaires we

promised our students to bake cupcakes for the classes that achieved 100 % participation. Low response rates in surveys are a well-known problem in social sciences, and it is not unusual for researchers to employ incentives in a form of lottery or similar to motivate people to partake in surveys. As Grant & Sugarman (2010) point out, the use of incentives becomes problematic if one or several of the following factors are present: (i) subjects are in a dependency relationship with the researcher; (ii) the risks for the subjects' well-being are particularly high; (iii) participation in the research is degrading in some way; (iv) the incentive is relatively large while the subjects' aversion to the tasks is strong. In the context of the present study, i.e. considering socio-economic background of the participants and their age, the use of cupcakes as a form of incentive might not be problematic in terms of affecting the participants' free will to contribute to the study. That is not to say that such seemingly harmless way of motivating the responders is not worth careful consideration in other circumstances, for instance, when younger participants are involved.

3.3. Mixed Method Design

As a whole, the present thesis employs a mixed-method design. According to Creswell & Plano Clark (2011), a mixed method design allows the investigation of a complex problem from multiple perspectives by collecting, analyzing, and combining quantitative and qualitative data. In this research I utilize a mixed method design to examine the students' use of linguistic resources from multiple perspectives by asking the research questions and formulating the objectives that require a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and analysis. More specifically, though the experimental Study I yielded interesting results based on the quantitative analysis, the analysis of the additional qualitative data in Study II and Study III helped gain a more in-depth understanding of the reasons behind the results of the experimental treatment. This illustrates the *complementarity* of the mixed

method research, which refers to elaborating and enhancing results through the combination of quantitative and qualitative methodology (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018).

Mixed method studies can vary in design depending on the overall purpose of the research (see Creswell (2014) for a detailed description). Seen together, the three studies employ the *explanatory sequential* type of mixed-method design, in which the collection and analysis of the quantitative data precede the collection and analysis of the qualitative data. As Creswell (2014) explains, "The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and results provide a general picture of the research problem; more analysis, specifically through qualitative data collection, is needed to refine, extend, or explain the general picture" (p. 572). In this research, the findings of the quantitative analysis carried out in Study I provided a general picture, i.e. whether the type of the writing instruction could have affected the essays' quality scores. This information was then contextualized and interpreted in light of the qualitative investigation of the students' responses to the questionnaire in Study II and the investigation of the students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in Study III. In other words, the qualitative methodology of the two follow-up studies was useful in answering different types of questions ("why" and "how"), which the quantitative analysis of Study I could not achieve. At the same time, as a free-standing investigation of the students' language use and perceptions, Study II makes use of another type of mixed method design, namely, the *convergent parallel* design (Creswell, 2014, p. 570) involving simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data followed by an analysis that combines the two types of data in order to answer a research question. During a single data collection phase both quantitative and qualitative survey data were collected and then analyzed in close connection to each other, so that one could contribute to elucidating the other. Specifically, in addition to the reported use of languages, including to which extend they were used in different stages of writing, the students explained their strategies

for language use and gave their feedback on the assigned writing condition through the open-ended response items of the questionnaire.

The following sections of the chapter deal with the methodological aspects of the individual studies. For convenience, I present the summary of the studies in Table 1 below:

Table 1

Summary of the Studies

	Study I	Study II	Study III
Title	Use of Students' Linguistic Resources in Teaching English as an Additional Language in Norway	Research on Three L2 Writing Conditions: Students' Perceptions and Use of Background Languages When Writing in English	Writing in L2: Norwegian Students' Use of Trans-languaging at the Draft Stage
Research questions/ objectives	How does the quality of essays produced using translation and translanguaging compare to those written directly in English?	(1) What language(s) is/are reported to be employed during the drafting and final stages of the writing process in different conditions? (2) What are the students' perceptions of the English-only, translation, and translanguaging writing conditions?	The overall goal of the study is to lay the groundwork for the integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching and to demonstrate the utility of the integrated approach in enhancing our understanding of how Norwegian learners may employ their linguistic resources at the draft stage of writing in English.
Research design and methodology	Quasi-experimental design + Quantitative methodology	Survey design + Quantitative and qualitative methodology	Text analysis + Mostly qualitative methodology
Participants	288 first-year upper secondary school students	200 first-year upper secondary school students from the original sample	78 first-year upper secondary school from the translanguaging group in the original sample
Data	Quality scores for essays in English	Questionnaire data	Students' drafts

Analysis	Rating process + Exploratory Factor Analysis + Inter-rater reliability statistics + MANCOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Covariance)	Descriptive statistics (percentages and raw frequencies) + Qualitative analysis of the students' responses to open items on the scales	Descriptive statistics (percentages, mean word count) + Qualitative analysis of the drafts using the analytical framework for socio-pragmatic functions of code-switching in writing
Summary of the findings	(i)Two dimensions/factors to the construct of writing ability (outcome of the EFA of the rating scale). (ii)No statistically significant difference between the writing instruction groups on Lexical and grammatical accuracy factor. (iii)A statistically significant difference on Communicative ability between the translation and translanguaging writing modes. Essays produced under the translation writing mode were significantly better than those produced in the translanguaging mode, but only with regard to Communicative ability. Comparing the English-only group to both the translation and the translanguaging groups provided nonsignificant results.	(i) Strong presence of English as a metacognitive language of choice in all three writing conditions. (ii) Students' strategic use of L1 for organizing ideas and structuring information. (iii) Students' ability and willingness to experiment with languages to enhance certain aspects of their writing.	The students' use of translanguaging was manifested through: (i) pragmatic code-switching, (ii) language mixing, (iii) triggered switches

3.4. Participants

Two hundred and eighty-eight first-year upper secondary school students, age 15–16, from two schools in the northern region of Norway participated in the study. Since English is taught from the first grade in Norway, every student that had started the first grade in the Norwegian educational system had 10 years of classroom exposure to English at the time the data were collected. However, some students may have had some of their schooling outside of Norway. Norwegian schools are obliged to provide adapted language education to students who cannot follow regular curriculum. To the best of my knowledge, none of the students attended any language support classes outside of the regular curriculum, which suggests that all of the participants had achieved the required level of proficiency in Norwegian and English. At the time of the data collection, the first year of upper secondary education was the final year that English was mandatory for all students, which played an important part in our choice of potential participants. We wished our sample to include learners with different attitudes and various degrees of motivation to learn English, since previous research shows the importance of motivation for successful learning of additional language(s) (see, for instance, Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

An online questionnaire (see Appendix D: Questionnaire "Language background") was sent out to obtain information on language background and self-reported proficiency level in English, Norwegian and other languages. Table 2 contains the overview of the data (variables) included in the final analysis (the MANCOVA model):

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Variables Included in the MANCOVA Model

	Group 1: Translation	Group 2: English only	Group 3: Translanguaging
Essay count			
Raw	116	106	84
Essays kept for analysis	91	90	57
Omitted Essays			
Word count less than 100	3	6	7
Native English speaker	0	1	1
Greater than 5% data missing	22	9	19
Gender			
Male	25	37	25
Female	66	53	32
Norwegian Proficiency			
Beginner	0	0	0
Intermediate	0	1	1
Fluent	3	3	1
Native	88	86	55
English Proficiency			
Beginner	6	5	3
Intermediate	28	25	19
Advanced	39	46	22
Fluent	18	14	13
L3 (or L4) Proficiency			
None	32	32	20
Beginner	24	20	16
Intermediate	21	27	10
Advanced	7	4	4
Fluent	3	3	0
Native	4	4	7
Mean Word Count	537.46	621.72	487.00
Standard Deviation	233.23	368.80	355.97

Note: Frequencies for covariates are based on essays kept for analyses only. All proficiencies are self-reported.

As seen from Table 2, the majority of the students in all three groups reported Norwegian to be their L1, while 7 out of 9 students with an L1 other than Norwegian reported that they were fluent in Norwegian. The levels of self-reported proficiency in English are somewhat similar across the groups. In all three groups, there were students who had had some experience in using English for communication outside of Norway. It is noteworthy that over 60 % of the participants in each group reported that they could speak another language in addition to Norwegian (both as L1 and as a dominant language) and English, which means that a considerable share of the participants was plurilingual. Though it is evident that the reported proficiency level in additional languages (L3, L4) is lower compared to English, there is still good reason to consider these students to be in possession of a broader linguistic repertoire and more diverse linguistic resources than their classmates who could speak two languages. Overall, our sample appears to be a fair representation of Norwegian upper-secondary level students insofar as students' language background is becoming increasingly diverse due to immigration, the internationalization of education, and increased travel generally.

Out of 238 students whose essays were retained for analysis in Study I, 200 answered the questionnaire about language use and feedback on the assigned writing condition (see Appendix E: Questionnaire "Use of languages and feedback on writing conditions"). These responses constitute the data for Study II. Since only around 84% of the participants who wrote essays responded to the questionnaire on language use and feedback, we took steps to address the issue of sample representativeness in this study. One concern was that the students who answered the questionnaire might not be representative of all students who wrote essays. To test this theory, we compared the students who did answer the questionnaire about language use and feedback to the students who did not but wrote an essay, and we carried out the comparison across the three writing groups. No significant differences ($\alpha = .05$) were found between omission and inclusion in this study across writing

condition groups in terms of essay quality (Grammatical and lexical accuracy or Communicative ability). A main effect was found for word count (where students who answered the questionnaire in any group did, on average, write longer essays; $F(1,272) = 5.14$, $p = .02$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$), however, the effect size is negligible. No significant differences ($\alpha = .05$) were found between the three writing groups for Norwegian proficiency, English proficiency, or proficiency in a language beyond English and Norwegian. In addition, there were no significant differences in response rate on the questionnaire "Use of languages and feedback on writing conditions". However, significantly fewer in the translanguaging group responded to the demographics questionnaire (i.e. proficiency levels and gender) ($\chi^2(4) = 79.85$, $p < .01$, $\varphi = .50$).[6] Based on these results, we can conclude that the sample in Study II is representative of the original sample in Study I. Consequently, the students' language use and perceptions appear to represent those of all the students whose essays were analyzed in Study I.

As far as Study III is concerned, 78 drafts were obtained from the translanguaging group as part of the original experiment. To provide a more adequate information about the subset of the participants involved in Study III, I present a separate summary of the responses to the language background questionnaire from the translanguaging writing condition in Table 3 below:

[6] The sample representative analyses are based on setting $\alpha = .05$ with no correction for Type I error. If we set $\alpha = .01$ and/or correct for Type I error, then only the final difference would continue to be significant (reporting differences). We chose the less stringent criterion to be as transparent as possible and provide the reader with the opportunity to see potential group differences, even if not commonly considered significant.

Table 3

Language Background and Gender

Item	Responses
Gender	
Male	29
Female	40
Not Reported	9
Norwegian proficiency	
Beginner	0
Intermediate	0
Fluent	0
Native	57
Not Reported	21
English Proficiency	
Beginner	2
Intermediate	18
Advanced	22
Fluent	17
Not Reported	19
L3 (or L4) Proficiency	
None	25
Beginner	15
Intermediate	11
Advanced	2
Fluent	1
Native	4
Not Reported	20

Note: All data are self-reported.

3.5. The Data Collection

The data for the whole project were collected during the writing sessions and through two online questionnaires, which were administered shortly after the students wrote their essays. Multiple data were collected within a short period of time to reduce the interference with the students' and teachers' schedule and to

ensure that the students' responses were collected while the writing experience was still fresh in their minds.

3.5.1. Writing Sessions

Fifteen English classes from two upper-secondary schools were recruited. Each class was randomly assigned to one of three writing conditions; we presented each group with the same task: to write a short fantasy narrative essay. They wrote under three different conditions:

- The *translation group* was asked to write a text in Norwegian (or another dominant language) and then translate it into English.

- The *English-only* group wrote their texts directly in English.

- The *translanguaging group* could choose to use any language they wished (or a mix of languages) to write a draft which they then used to produce a text in English.

The students could use up to 90 minutes. The task did not count to their final grade. The same experienced university lecturer introduced the activity to all three groups to ensure consistency of the instructions as well as to reduce individual teacher impact. The content and the form of the writing prompts (see Appendix A: Writing prompts) differed slightly from group to group. The writing prompt for the translation group was in Norwegian[7]; the writing prompt for the translanguaging group had the same content but was a mix of English and Norwegian; the writing prompt for the direct composition group was in English, and English was the only language of instruction.

[7] All of the participants in the translation group whose L1 was not Norwegian reported themselves to be fluent in Norwegian and chose to write their drafts in Norwegian.

3.5.2. Questionnaire Data

Out of 238 students whose essays were analyzed in Study I, 200 students provided the answers to the online questionnaire "Use of languages and feedback on writing conditions" (see Appendix E). Parts of the questionnaire were adopted from Cohen & Brooks-Carson's study (2001) of direct versus translated writing. The subscale for the translanguaging group was designed specifically for Study II. The questionnaire was translated to Norwegian to assure that the students understood the items and could provide exhaustive answers to the open-ended questions. Most of the items were based on a 4-point Likert scale with four options available, i.e. "strongly disagree", "disagree", "agree" and "strongly agree". A few items required the students to indicate the extent to which a particular language was used ("very little" to "very much"). Finally, a few items were formulated as open-ended questions, specifically, the ones that were designed to elicit the students' attitudes.

3.6. Data Analysis in Study I

The analytical procedures included three consecutive steps: (i) design and validation of the rating scale, (ii) the rating process, and (iii) the final statistical analysis based on the MANCOVA model.

3.6.1. The Rating Scale

The multitrait rating scale (see Appendix B) from Cohen & Brooks-Carson's (2001) study of direct versus translated writing was adopted for the rating process of the essays. We started out with the original division into three thematic blocks, such as *Expression*, *Cohesion/transition* and *Grammar/syntax* because these categories attended to distinct facets of students' writing (rhetorical, communicative, linguistic dimensions), and therefore could make it possible for the raters to evaluate the use of specific features and an overall effect of a piece of writing on the reader. Other aspects of the scale have been tailored to fit the objectives and the design of our

study. First, we adopted a 4-point Likert scale in which the "neutral" option was excluded leaving the raters with only four options: "strongly disagree", "disagree", "agree" and "strongly agree". The so-called "forced choice scale" design was a better choice considering the purpose of the rating process, which was to elicit more actionable data on the essays. Second, a "non-applicable" alternative was introduced for four rubrics in the *Grammar/syntax* section when insufficient or no information was available for a particular "optional" feature. These included, for instance, presentational sentences since they could be avoided as opposed to subject-verb agreement in complete sentences. We hypothesized that essays produced in two alternative writing conditions would be superior in terms of writing complexity and expressiveness, so we provided the raters with an opportunity to assign an appropriate score for using more elaborated and complex structures, for instance relative or presentational clauses, whenever such were present in the text. Finally, we extended the number of items in each category for two reasons: to achieve a more balanced focus on form and content (as the original scale was intended to assess form and function rather than content and ideas); and to obtain more nuanced data on all three dimensions of writing. Examples of incorrect use were provided for clarification.

3.6.2. The Raters and the Rating Process

Two highly qualified raters carried out the evaluation of the essays. Rater 1, a native speaker of English, has lived and worked in Norway for over two decades and can be considered a balanced bilingual. Throughout much of his career, he has been teaching university-level linguistics and English language programs in Norway. Furthermore, he has extensive experience grading Norwegian learners' written work in English. Rater 2 is a native English speaker with rudimentary knowledge of Norwegian. She has a Master's degree in experimental psychology and 3 years' experience scoring student essays in English for international standardized testing.

First, over a six months period, the raters participated in several sessions of extensive discussions of the rating scale and the rating process. During these sessions every item of the rating scale was carefully examined to check whether there was a common understanding between the raters as to what was being evaluated in each rubric item, and what level of skill corresponded to each potential score. The rating scale itself went through several revisions in light of the raters' input and suggestions before going ahead with the rating of all the texts. Each item was accompanied by examples of the kind of errors the raters were looking for. The text samples were randomized and coded in order to preserve anonymity. Next, several practice sessions were set up to elucidate the raters' rating patterns and how they decided on a score. During the practice sessions, both raters scored 10 randomly selected essays independently of each other, and then compared their scores. Discrepancies in ratings exceeding 1 point were discussed by both raters and a third party until a joint decision in rating was made without discrepancies. The purpose of the practice seasons was to continue to update the rating scale and provide documentation of any decisions made at the early stages of the rating process. After sufficient training, the raters completed the ratings of the whole data set. After completion of the ratings, a series of steps were taken to prepare the data set for the further analysis. Specifically, the raters decided to omit 18 essays due to inadequate length (less than 100 words), leaving 288 scorable essays[8]. Then the raters reexamined another 18 essays with the largest number of discrepancies (> 15%)[9]. Lastly, another 9 essays with the largest number of adjacencies (> 60%)[10] were re-evaluated by the raters. It follows than that in every stage of the rating process the decisions were taken to ensure an acceptable level of inter-rater reliability. The latter is a measure of the total

[8] The final number of essays for MANCOVA is reduced to 238 due to the process of merging the rating data with the survey data (see Table 2).

[9] Discrepancy equals a difference of 2 points and more on one of the criteria.

[10] Adjacency equals a difference of 1 point on one of the criteria.

trustworthiness of the ratings as it assesses the degree of agreement and consistency in the ratings provided by multiple raters.

3.6.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis and Multivariate Analysis of Covariance

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is a statistical procedure that serves multiple purposes. First, EFA is used to assess how well a scale or a questionnaire measures the constructs that it is supposed to measure. As mentioned earlier, the rating scale designed for the present study is inspired by Cohen and Book-Carson (2001), but it departed from the original considerably during the preparation and refining of the scale in advance of the ratings (see Subsections 3.6.1 and 3.6.2. above). Therefore, EFA was used to establish the internal consistency of the revised scale. Another application of EFA is concerned with measuring so-called latent variables (Field, 2014), which are variables that are not directly observable. In our study, the latent variable is writing ability. When measuring any sort of ability, we cannot measure it directly. Instead, we measured evidence of it in various forms. We assessed the constructs of writing ability by using measurable variables, which are "examples of behavior that tap that construct" (Hamp-Lyons, 2003, p. 165). EFA was employed to assess the probability of underlying constructs being reflected in the scores on certain items. To be specific, we used our data (scores assigned by the raters) to determine if the rating scale really did have the three underlying factors incorporated in the rating scale (*Grammar/syntax, Cohesion/transitions*, and *Expression*). Finally, EFA was used to reduce a large amount of data—over 6000 individual raw scores—to make it more manageable for further analysis, specifically, inter-rater reliability (the intraclass correlation coefficient or ICC), and Multivariate Analysis of Covariance. Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was applied to determine group differences while controlling for additional factors (so-called "covariates") that might or might not affect the outcome of the experiment.

3.7. Data Analysis in Study II and Study III

In Study II, the analysis of the students' responses to the questionnaire "Use of languages and feedback on writing conditions" (Appendix E) was structured in accordance with the research questions (see the detailed account in Paper II). The main approach to the analysis was as follows: the responses to the items eliciting quantifiable information were presented in the form of graphs; the responses to the open-ended items of the questionnaire were analyzed qualitatively and summarized into the thematic blocks. The examples of the students' answers to the open-ended questions are given in Paper II.

As far as Study III is concerned, 78 drafts collected under the translanguaging writing condition constituted the data for the study. The drafts were analyzed according to the adapted framework of socio-pragmatic functions of written code-switching, which is described in detail in Paper III.

3.8. Research Validity and Reliability

Irrespective of the type of experimental design, all studies are subject to threats to validity (accuracy of a measure) and reliability (consistency of a measure) (Creswell, 2014). In Table 4, I consider a number of threats to validity and reliability related to such domains of the present research as its participants, experimental treatment, procedures, and the type of data. In addition, I present the measures taken to deal with the outlined threats to validity/reliability.

Table 4

Validity and Reliability of the Research

Domain	Threats to validity/reliability	Measures taken/rationale
Participants	Non-random sampling concerns the variation between individuals who may be more receptive to treatment, motivated to please a researcher/ sabotage the process, or differ in some other way, which may or may not affect the outcome of the treatment.	The study has an obvious weakness due to the use of intact groups and a relatively small sample. However, the validity of the present study is strengthened through the use of homogeneous groups of participants and replicable, transparent research design and analytical procedures. In addition, Multivariate Analysis of Covariance was applied to manage a number of confounding variables (covariates) as a consequence of having a non-random sampling. Sample representativeness in Study II was addressed separately because only around 84% of the participants who wrote essays responded to the questionnaire on language use and feedback.
Experimental treatment	Diffusion of treatments: if control and experimental group(s) interact during the time of the experimental treatment, it can compromise the outcome of the experiment.	The participants from the first school were not informed about the fact that we were going to include the students from another school in the area. It is possible, though, that the students from the English-only and the experimental groups had some contact, but none of the groups were told that the writing instructions were different from group to group. In addition, since all writing occurred in class either on the same

	Compensatory equalization, compensatory rivalry and resentful demoralization: a threat to validity may occur in the situation when control and experimental groups perceive the process as beneficial only to those who undergo the experimental treatment.	day or during the next English class in the same week, the communication between the groups would be rather limited in time. As previously stated, we did not present the information about various treatments to our participants. Nevertheless, in order to motivate our participants in the English-only group we explained to them that we were interested in collecting their texts, data on language use and feedback so that we could get a better understanding of the writing process and how teachers could assist their students in improving their English writing skills. As for the experimental groups (translation and translanguaging) the focus was on the idea of "trying out" an alternative mode of writing a text in English with the purpose of development more varied and, perhaps, more individualized ways of teaching and learning to write in a target language.
Procedures	Instrumentation: the instruments that are used to collect data may prove to be unreliable, outdated or inadequate in some other respect.	In Study I, the rating scale (see Appendix B) has been adopted and adapted to assess the quality of the students' texts. Compared to the original scale in Cohen & Brooks-Carson (2001), the adapted version has undergone rather considerable changes to fit the objectives and the design of our experiment. Exploratory Factor Analysis combined with internal consistency reliability test (Cronbach's Alpha) were

		employed to assure that our instrument in fact delivered reliable scores and thus measured what it was supposed to measure. The two online questionnaires (see Appendices D and E) employed in the studies were utilized in previous research. I translated both questionnaires to Norwegian. When modifying the items on the questionnaires to fit the goals and the context of this study, efforts were made to steer away from potential pitfalls, such as unclear, wordy, overlapping or loaded questions. The length, the layout, and the logical progression of the items were carefully considered as well. The analysis was based on the similarity to the examples in previous studies and contextual clues present in the texts. The overall use of pragmatic code-switching was mostly unambiguous, i.e. individual switches fit well with the functional categories of the adopted analytical framework. Furthermore, multiple cases of code-switching associated with the same function found in numerous drafts allowed for copious examples, which supports the validity of the analytical framework and findings reported in previous studies. However, future studies should be carried out to verify the proposed approach to the

	Qualitative data coding: coding qualitative data may be problematic since it allows for multiple interpretations of the data. In addition, personal biases should be considered when the analysis is performed by one researcher. This issue concerns Study III where I carried out the analysis of the students' drafts using the adopted taxonomy of pragmatic code-switching in writing.	analysis and interpretation of the students' use of the written form(s) of translanguaging.
Data	Use of self-reported data may be problematic since researchers have to rely on the participants' understanding of the questions, their honesty, their introspective ability, and willingness to provide well-thought and adequate answers. The limitations that self-reports pose with regard to the use of inferential statistics do not allow for generalization of the results to a larger population.	A well-designed questionnaire can help prevent some of the hazards related to measurements based on self-reported data (steps taken to assure good quality of the questionnaires are described in the previous section of the table). The benefits of using the self-reported data may outweigh its limits, i.e. in Study II, we chose to elicit self-reports because of the nature of the phenomena being studied: internal processes and student perceptions. Therefore students' responses are the primary source of data suitable for the purposes of this investigation.

		Though the use of self-reports makes generalization of the results to a larger population problematic in principle, replication studies in similar and dissimilar contexts may verify the methodology and findings of the present investigation.

3.9. Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter I discussed some of the common issues related to the design, implementation, validity and reliability of the scientific method of experimental design in general, and the quasi-experimental design utilized in the present thesis in particular. Also, the ethical considerations involving respect for individuals, anonymization of personal data, secure storage of the data, and use of incentives were addressed. Furthermore, I presented a detailed description of the participants' characteristics, methods and analytical procedures utilized in each of the studies. Finally, I provided a summary of possible threads to validity and reliability of the present research in relation to its sampling procedures, experimental treatment, analysis, and type of data, and described the measures taken to deal with the outlined threats.

Chapter 4: Discussion of Findings and Contributions

This chapter is a summary of the findings of each individual study. In addition, the empirical, theoretical, and methodological contributions of the research are discussed in light of relevant theory and previous research. The chapter is organized as follows: in Sections 4.1. through 4.3. I review and discuss the findings of each of the three studies; Section 4.4. outlines the empirical, theoretical, and methodological contributions of the research; Section 4.5. contains a brief summary of the chapter.

4.1. Study I: "Use of Students' Linguistic Resources in Teaching English as an Additional Language in Norway"

In Study I we asked the following research question: how does the quality of essays produced in the translation and translanguaging writing conditions compare to essays written in the English-only condition? First, our analysis showed that all three writing conditions resulted in essays that were similar in terms of grammatical and lexical accuracy. Second, the quality of the essays produced in the translation writing condition was significantly better than those produced in the translanguaging condition, but only in regard to rhetorical and stylistic features of writing that helped the students communicate their ideas in a more coherent and expressive way.

Our original expectation was that *Grammar/syntax, Cohesion/transitions*, and *Expression* were separate factors. However, based on the results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), it is more appropriate to speak of two distinct categories (Factor 1 and Factor 2) that represent the "latent variable" of writing ability. Judging from the nature of the items loading onto each of the two factors (see Table 5 below), we proposed to call Factor 1 "Lexical and grammatical accuracy" and Factor 2 "Communicative ability". To assess the level of inter-rater reliability, which measures the degree of agreement and consistency in the ratings provided by multiple raters, the intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) was computed using SPSS. ICC was

assessed using a two-way mixed effect average-measures model. The resulting ICCs for both Factor 1 and 2 were in the excellent range (ICC = .965 and .803, respectively, according to Cicchetti, 1994).

Table 5

Factor Loadings[11] for Two-factor Model

Construct/Item	*M*	*SD*	Loadings	α[12]
Factor 1: Lexical and grammatical accuracy	3.76	0.27		.85
Grammatically accurate	3.65	0.48	.88	
Accurate tense use	3.77	0.40	.68	
Consistently correct and appropriate vocabulary use	3.56	0.50	.64	
Uses prepositions accurately	3.58	0.49	.63	
Accurate word order use	3.78	0.39	.62	
Accurate use of subject-verb agreement	3.67	0.47	.60	
Accurate use of singular/plural forms	3.93	0.19	.57	
Accurate use of verb tense morphology	3.91	0.25	.55	
Uses articles accurately	3.87	0.29	.53	

[11] Factor loadings are correlation coefficients that show the importance of a given variable (item) to a given factor. For our sample size, in order to place a variable with a factor, a loading should be greater than .364 (Field, 2014).

[12] Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency (and thus reliability) of a scale. Values of .8 and above indicate a high level of internal consistency.

Factor 2: Communicative ability	2.75	0.72		.84
Ideas mentioned are elaborated	3.22	0.75	.92	
The essay has a clear narrative structure	3.17	0.72	.92	
Use of varied word order	3.31	0.65	.91	
Variation in use of tense, voice, and modality	3.22	0.64	.90	
Use of a broad vocabulary including idiomatic expression	3.02	0.66	.86	
Relevant ideas	3.12	0.63	.81	
Paragraph(s) correspond to meaningful wholes	3.52	0.53	.74	
The essay is clearly organized	3.38	0.55	.63	
Accurate use of presentational sentences	1.24	1.71	.49	
Accurate in distinguishing adjectives from adverbs	1.44	1.88	.47	
Uses relative clauses accurately	2.07	1.98	.46	
Accurate distinction between “ing” forms and infinitives	2.24	1.95	.42	
Non-loading items[13]				
Does the text flow smoothly?				

It is noteworthy that the two-dimensional approach to the assessment of writing ability is consistent with the text characteristics model outlined in Cumming, Kantor, Powers, Santos & Taylor (2000). The model draws on a number of the evaluation criteria of L2 writing ability that emerge from a considerable body of

[13] A non-loading item does not correlate with any of the factors and thus should be excluded from the analysis.

research on ESL writing assessment. According to the model, two sets of text characteristics are distinguishable: *Discourse and ideas* and *Language use*. The former includes such variables as hierarchy of related ideas, introductory framing, appropriate and accurate paragraphing, and other aspects of organization of written discourse and presentation of ideas. The *Language use* variables include, for example, appropriate, accurate and extensive use of lexical items, grammatical forms, and syntactical structures. The items represented in the *Communicative ability* factor on our scale reflect discourse and content organization features, such as progression and development of ideas, clear narrative structure, but also variation in the use of tense and aspect, voice, and modality for discursive purposes. The items of the *Lexical and grammatical accuracy* factor, on the other hand, fit well with the second dimension, that of accurate and appropriate use of vocabulary and morphosyntax. In the revised two-factor hypothesis the core relationship between the writing conditions and average quality scores remained unchanged, that is, we predicted higher scores in *Communicative ability* rather than *Lexical and grammatical accuracy* when the participants used their dominant language or multiple languages. Previous studies on translation and translanguaging support this assumption (Canagarajah, 2011; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Turnbull, 2019; Uzawa, 1996; Velasco & García, 2014).

A one-way between-subjects MANCOVA with two dependent variables and six covariates was assessed to determine if significant differences on the essay quality were present between the different writing conditions, after controlling for potentially-mediating variables, such as English proficiency, Norwegian proficiency, proficiency in other languages outside of English and Norwegian, motivation to learn English, gender, and essay length (all referred to here as “proficiencies, attitudes, and demographics” for ease). There was a statistically significant difference between the writing conditions on essay quality after controlling for proficiencies, attitudes, and demographics, $F(4,458) = 4.318$, $p = .002$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .929$, partial $\eta^2 = .036$. Therefore,

a post-hoc ANCOVA was conducted on each essay quality factor separately to determine where these differences lie.

We started with the *Lexical and grammatical accuracy* factor. A one-way between-subjects ANCOVA was assessed to determine if significant differences on essays' *Lexical and grammatical accuracy* were present between different writing conditions, when controlling for the same covariates discussed earlier. As predicted, there was no statistically significant difference between the writing instruction groups on *Lexical and grammatical accuracy* alone, after controlling for proficiencies, attitudes, and demographics, $F(2,230) = 1.424$, $p = .243$, partial $\eta^2 = .012$. Because no significant differences were present on this factor, no further post-hoc tests were conducted.

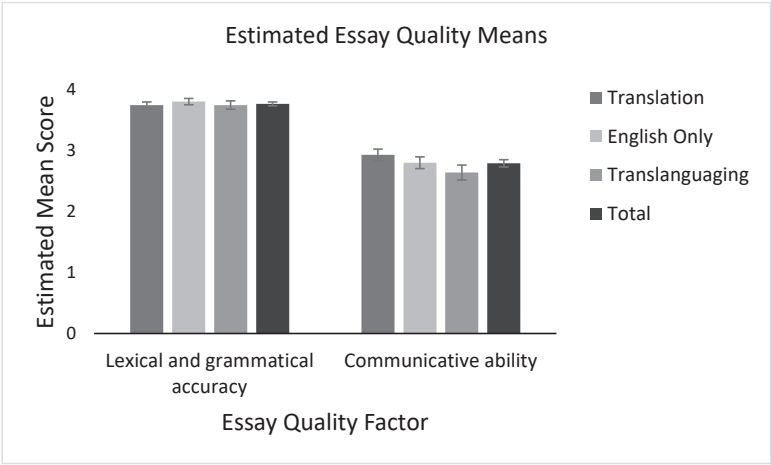
Next, a one-way between-subjects ANCOVA was assessed to determine if significant differences on essay *Communicative ability* were present between the different writing conditions, when controlling for the same covariates discussed earlier. In this case, there was a statistically significant difference found between the writing conditions on *Communicative ability* alone, after controlling for proficiencies, attitudes, and demographics, $F(2,230) = 6.993$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .057$.

Because this post-hoc ANCOVA was significant, a final set of post-hoc pairwise t-tests were conducted on the estimated means for each writing condition. Only two writing conditions had statistically significant differences in estimated mean scores on *Communicative ability*, after controlling for proficiencies, attitudes, and demographics: the translation and translanguaging groups (estimated *M*s = 2.93 and 2.64, respectively), $p = .001$. Comparing the English-only group (estimated $M = 2.80$) to both the translation and the translanguaging groups provided nonsignificant

estimated mean differences (p = .18 and .12, respectively). All pairwise t-tests used a Bonferroni correction[14]. Figure 3 shows estimated quality means by group and factor:

Figure 3

Estimated Essay Quality Means by Group and Factor



To recapitulate, our analysis showed that all three writing conditions resulted in essays that were similar in terms of grammatical and lexical accuracy. This was consistent with our hypothesis, which was based on previous studies that compared translation and direct composition (for instance, Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001). Our participants appear to have paid equal amounts of attention to grammatical and lexical features of their texts independently of the language of the drafts. The absence of a statistical difference on *Lexical and grammatical accuracy* suggests that students engaged in similar underlying cognitive processes even though the writing conditions were different on the surface. It follows then that the final stage of writing, that is the production of an English text, elicits similar types of lexico-semantic processing and sentence-level restructuring either through mental

[14] When multiple significance tests are carried out, the risk of finding a statistically significant result when there is none increases (Type I error). A Bonferroni correction is a method used to control the overall Type I error rate.

translation (the English-only condition), explicit translation (the translation condition) or through the alternation between the languages (the translanguaging condition). This is supported by other studies that report learners thinking in their L1 during certain stages of writing in L2, thus engaging in some form of mental translation (see, for example, Cohen & Brook-Carson, 2001; Cumming, 1989; Gunnarsson et al., 2015; Tavakoli et al., 2014; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989).

Second, the results also showed that the quality of the essays produced in the translation writing condition was significantly better than those produced in the translanguaging condition, but only in regard to *Communicative ability*. Translation resulted in essays with a clearer narrative structure, more varied use of word order, tense, voice and modality, as well as more relevant content and other rhetorical and stylistic features of writing that helped the students communicate their ideas in a more coherent and expressive way. This result provided partial support for our hypothesis since the significant effect was detected only between the translation and the translanguaging conditions, while the English-only condition resulted in essays similar in overall quality to both translation and translanguaging. In sum, the beneficial effect of translation, in terms of enhancing certain features of writing related to communicative effectiveness, proves to be significant when compared to the translanguaging condition[15].

Previous studies that found a positive effect of translation provide some insight into why this should be the case. Uzawa (1996), for instance, argues that the reason why the translated samples were "more vivid and colourful", but also "far more precise and logical than the L2 writing" (p. 287), is because translating a given article allowed the participants to reduce cognitive load and concentrate on delivering their ideas in a more efficient manner. This explanation is not fully

[15] Despite the mean differences between translation (estimated *M* = 2.93), English only (estimated *M* = 2.80) and translanguaging (*M* = 2.64), only comparing the translation and the translanguaging modes prodived significant results.

applicable to our results, however, since our students produced their texts from scratch, and thus had to focus their attention on generating and organizing the content in addition to attending to the linguistic features of the text. Nevertheless, the idea that when the translation group participants were prompted to stick to the L1/dominant language throughout their drafts they gained extra time to develop the ideas and think through the organization of their texts, is plausible. Now we need to understand why this is not the case for the translanguaging or the English-only group since they too produced a complete draft before they started working on their final products. A possible explanation can be found in Cohen & Brooks-Carson's (2001) discussion of their results in light of psycholinguistic findings. The fact that links between L1 words and conceptual information are stronger than for L2 words (Kroll & de Groot, 1997; Talamas, Kroll & Dufour, 1999) is considered helpful in reducing learners' cognitive load because it aids learners' ability to tap into their background knowledge more easily when their dominant language is fully activated. As Macaro (2005) explains, the role of L1 in possible reduction of cognitive load when dealing with complex tasks in L2 has been elucidated in light of the constraints of the components of working memory, both in terms of duration and capacity. In other words, use of L1 may free up the working memory capacity to work on larger and/or more complex chunks of language input and output. This may help explain why our participants produced better texts when provided with the opportunity to fully activate their L1/dominant language at the draft stage. There are still some issues with this account in light of more recent studies of the neural underpinnings of lexical and conceptual links in L2 learners and bilinguals. Recent studies in neurolinguistics show that in certain instructional contexts elementary school children are capable of directly assessing L2 meaning through L2 word form-to-concept mapping, thus forming links on a conceptual level rather than lexical (Van Hell & Kroll, 2013). As Van Hell & Kroll (2013) conclude, it is variation in the conditions in which L2 words are learned (through L2 translations or in the context-rich natural settings) that may have an effect on the strength of L2 word form-to-concept mapping. Considering the fact

that our participants are emergent bilinguals (as defined by Turnbull, 2018) who have had many years of exposure to English both in formal classroom settings and outside of school, we expect them to be able to bypass their L1/dominant language and access English meanings directly. The reduced cognitive load argument should therefore be approached with some caution. Though the MANCOVA model allowed us to take into account individual differences in our participants' level of proficiency in English, we need to consider the limitations associated with the use of self-reported data. Thus, it is quite possible that for some of the participants writing a draft in their L1/ dominant language helped reduce cognitive load, so that they could devote more effort to organizing their ideas in a coherent manner. A similar line of reasoning can be traced in the L2 composing process model developed by Wang & Wen (2002). One of the components of this model is the writer's long-term memory. The model states that the composition process activates not only the writer's language systems, but also content schemas in long-term memory. The notion of schema (or schemata) comes from cognitive sciences and refers to an organized unit of knowledge that is based on previous experience and is activated to gain understanding of current subjects or events (Pankin, 2013). With regard to writing, the content schemas deliver the information about the topic, how to organize ideas as well as linguistic knowledge. Wang & Wen (2002) argue that the background knowledge and rhetorical knowledge (information about how to organize ideas) are L1 dominant, while L2 is usually associated with linguistic knowledge, i.e. how to construct sentences.

On the basis of the essay quality comparison we could conclude that staying in a monolingual mode during the draft stage may enhance learners' ability to exploit their linguistic resources in the matter of communicating their message. However, the results indicate that it was the use of L1 or dominant language during the draft stage that had a significant positive effect on the rhetorical aspects of the quality of final products. We argue that this effect can be probably explained by a reduction in

cognitive load due to a more direct access to long-term memory, including experience in writing in L1.

4.2. Study II: "Research on Three L2 Writing Conditions: Students' Perceptions and Use of Background Languages When Writing in English"

Our first research question addressed the students' use of languages in different writing conditions during the drafting and final stages of the writing process. As anticipated, English had a strong presence in all writing conditions as a metacognitive language of choice. It is reasonable to assume that thinking in English had to be a prerequisite of composing a final product in English even when other languages were employed at the draft stage in the translation and translanguaging writing conditions.

Interesting findings in terms of language use were obtained from the translanguaging group because translanguaging allowed the students to employ the language(s) of their choice while the English-only and translation conditions limited the language of the draft to either English or Norwegian (or another L1/dominant language). English-only, Norwegian-only, and translanguaging language modes were reported by the students in the translanguaging group. Within the framework of Grosjean's (2008) language mode continuum, English-only and Norwegian-only modes correspond to the monolingual end of the continuum, whereas translanguaging constitutes the bilingual language mode. Translanguaging was employed mostly for generating ideas and writing a draft. This indicates that the students responded well to translanguaging as an alternative approach to compose a text in English even though it was an unfamiliar way of writing an essay in a typical English classroom in Norway. In this respect, it is important to note that the context of teaching English in Norway is monolingually oriented, i.e. in addition to the English-only format of nationally administered exams, the purpose of introducing other languages to ELT is currently limited to fostering metalinguistic awareness

between English and L1 (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).

In light of Wang & Wen's (2002) model of the L2 writing process, the correspondence between various language modes and various stages of the writing process is of interest. A large proportion of our participants reported using substantially more English at the task-examining and text-generating stages (writing the final product), whereas idea-generating, content-organizing, and text-structuring activities are reported to be strongly associated with Norwegian. These findings support Wang & Wen's model, according to which the outlined facets of L2 writing are labeled as L1 dominant. In addition, the strategic use of L1 for organizing ideas and structuring information is consistent with the empirical findings in the field (Gunnarsson et al., 2015; Manchón et al., 2007; Wang & Wen, 2002; Wolfersberger, M., 2003; Woodall, 2002). However, the indicated use of L1 is associated with the responses of the translanguaging group, whereas the students in the English-only condition did not report using Norwegian for these purposes.

The students in the translanguaging group also answered an open-ended question about their choice of language(s) at the draft stage. The responses show that the students are highly aware of their choice of language(s) for certain purposes (see the examples of the students' responses in Paper II). For instance, the choice of the English-only approach for the draft and the final product was often explained in terms of saving time and effort. It is noteworthy that the students who decided to stick to either English or Norwegian in their drafts had concerns about "bad English" or "Norwenglish" and thus purposefully avoided mixing the languages. Their negative attitude towards mixing languages suggests that the students do not engage in translingual writing practices in school settings on a regular basis.

An important aspect of the students' language preferences had to do with self-presence, rhetoric, and stylistic facets of writing. As a case in point, the students who

wrote their drafts in Norwegian felt that it helped them strengthen their sense of authorship. This might be beneficial to Norwegian learners beyond our sample who, according to Horverak's study (2015) of students' feedback on writing instruction in Norwegian upper secondary schools, lack confidence in their English writing skills. Enhancing stylistic and rhetorical features of the texts is another facet of translanguaging mentioned by the participants; some of them reported that incorporating other languages into the fabric of the text gave them an opportunity to engage the reader and convey desired atmosphere. Importantly, the students in the translanguaging group expressed their willingness to engage in translanguaging for the purposes of exploration, thus demonstrating their openness to experiment with languages. The openness to crosslingual writing practices in classroom settings conveyed by our participants can be a potentially effective tool for creating engaging and stimulating learning activities, and may facilitate students' ability to employ their linguistic repertoire in more innovative and learner-oriented ways.

We also asked the participants in the translation and translanguaging groups whether they would consider using the respective writing approaches in the future. Roughly two thirds of the participants in both groups expressed a negative attitude towards the use of either translation or translanguaging at the draft stage of writing. For instance, some described translation as time consuming and demanding, while mixing languages or translanguaging was confusing and distracting. These responses may reflect a prevailing monolingual orientation in English instruction in the Norwegian context. Providing the students with more time and opportunity to practice both translation and translanguaging might be a way of counteracting some of the negative attitudes and persuading the students of the value of experimenting with translation and translanguaging while composing in a target language (see, for instance, in Turnbull, 2019). After all, about one third of the participants in the translation and translanguaging groups point to several important positive outcomes, i.e. achieving a better structure and content because of the scaffolding function of

translation attributed to having a draft in L1 as a starting point. When it comes to translanguaging, the students noted the creative side of composing a text in this way; they also felt that translanguaging resulted in longer and more engaging writing. To sum up, the benefits of translation and translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in a target language can be interpreted in terms of their potential for improving the communicative ability of the students' writing. The latter interpretation was partially confirmed in Study I, which showed that the students in the translation group were able to express their ideas in a more coherent and efficient manner compared to those in the translanguaging group. A possible explanation as to why the students in the translanguaging group failed to exploit the potential benefit of utilizing their entire linguistic repertoire may be because only 30% of the students in this group actually engaged in translanguaging. In addition, we must consider the novelty of translanguaging as a writing strategy for our participants.

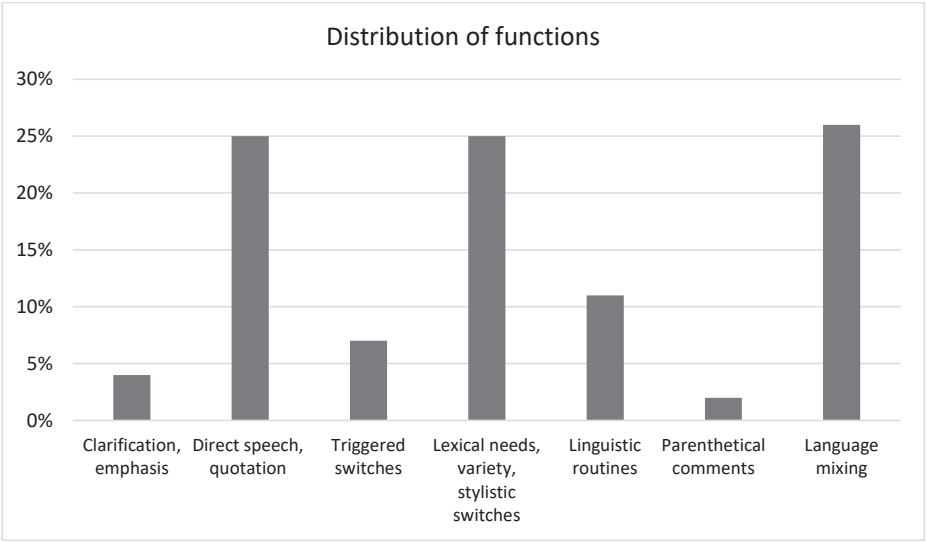
4.3. Study III: "Writing in L2: Norwegian Students' Use of Translanguaging at the Draft Stage"

The overall objective of this study was to develop an integrated framework for translanguaging and written code-switching in order to explore the students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing a text in English. The analysis of the students' drafts written under the translanguaging condition showed that the students' uses of translanguaging ranged from pragmatic code-switching to highly flexible language alternation, with the aim of generating content or experimenting with one's linguistic repertoire. Drawing on the theoretical discussion in this paper, I proposed a more nuanced approach to the conceptualization of code-switching as an intended contextualisation strategy (Auer, 1999) that fulfils one or more of the socio-pragmatic functions described in the adopted analytical framework. In summary, the results indicate that the students utilized code-switching for reasons similar to those identified in previous research, that is, they switched for a quote or direct speech, for clarification, elaboration and emphasis, for stylistic purposes, and for linguistic

routines (see examples in Paper III). The distribution of the functional categories that were identified in the drafts is illustrated in Figure 4:

Figure 4

Distribution of Functions



A large proportion of the switches for quotation found in the present corpus (25%) is not surprising, since switching to the original language of speech or thought helps achieve authenticity in written texts. Furthermore, when seen through the lens of Bakhtin's notion of *heteroglossia*, the insertion of another language/code for emphasis and, in particular, for direct speech and quotation adds a new dimension to the discussion of the students' use of translanguaging as a discourse strategy. The result of "incorporating intratextual discourses into the narrator's text" (Tjupa, 2009, p. 125) is the effect of multiple voices belonging to the narrator and characters and coexisting within the fabric of a single text. The use of a "hybrid construction" (Bakhtin, 1981) or "utterance within utterance" (Vološinov, 1929/1973) allows the narrator to distance themselves from the characters by giving the characters their own voice. As Tjupa (2009) points out, "the direct speech of a character often serves to express that character's linguistic view of the world, which can differ to a greater

or lesser extent from the view of the world on which the narration is based" (p. 126). The effect of multiple voices (*heteroglossia*) is not necessarily dependent on the use of different national languages, since in some cases the students turn to their local Norwegian dialect[16] for the same purposes of creating another voice for themselves. It is possible that this voice is a better match to their sense of identity than the standard variety of Norwegian employed in the main body of the text.

Lexical needs as a functional category that involves a switch to another language due to a genuine lack of an equivalent was rare in the present corpus, possibly, because of the participants' high level of proficiency in English. Code-switching was also used to create a mental note to remind the writer to edit a piece of text at a later point in time (*parenthetical comments)*.

The first six categories given in Table 4 are functionally distinct, and thus are indicative of pragmatic code-switching. However, the category of *language mixing* manifests a different phenomenon since it was not associated with any socio-pragmatic function. Interestingly, *language mixing* was the most productive category, which points to the fact that the students seem to have good command of both pragmatic code-switching and language mixing. A plausible explanation of the ample use of language mixing as a writing strategy was provided by the students in their answers to the online survey about their attitudes towards the translanguaging writing condition in Study II. The students explained that they mixed languages in their drafts as they tried to generate as many ideas as possible irrespective of the language of thought. Perhaps, allowing the thoughts to be expressed in whatever

[16] In Norway, there are two official languages, i.e. Norwegian and Sami. With regard to Norwegian, two standard written varieties of it (Bokmål and Nynorsk) are taught in schools. However, there are numerous spoken local dialects that Norwegians use on a daily basis. Since there is no standard variety of spoken Norwegian, these local variations are used in most contexts (Store norske leksikon, 2019).

language available at a given moment helped reduce cognitive load and facilitate access to content schemas in long-term memory. The content schemas deliver information about the topic and content organization and thus are important in terms of coping with cognitive demands of writing in another language. The students also noted that they mixed languages for stylistic and rhetorical purposes. However, not every case of language mixing indicated its use as a writing strategy as three of the participants reported mixing languages due to the nature of instruction and writing prompt as well as for the sake of experimenting with languages when given a chance to do so. A few cases of *language mixing* (see examples in Paper III) may thus represent task-induced artifacts rather than cases of naturally occurring language alternation since the switches do not match up syntactically definable constituent boundaries. The latter stands in contrast to a more commonly observed "constituent-by-constituent" pattern of switch in bilingual as well as monolingual speech production and processing (see, for instance, Azuma, 1996).

The category of *triggered switches* represents a curious phenomenon. On the one hand, switches of this type mark clear boundaries between the languages and in this regard are unlike the dense and multiple alternations of *language mixing*. On the other hand, the switches are not driven by any specific socio-pragmatic function. Montes-Alcalá (2000) suggested the following explanation of triggered switches that she identified in her data:

> It could well be that the sentence is already constructed in an abstract way in the mind of the speaker, before he/she knows in what language it will come out, so if a word is going to be switched later on, that could trigger a switch […].
>
> (p. 207)

The cognitive processes underlying triggered switches are likely to occur at the stage of translation that in Hayes & Flower's (1980) cognitive model of writing refers to the process of converting thoughts/ideas into symbols (written language). In this respect, *triggered switches* are more analogous to language mixing than pragmatic code-switching as they manifest the flexible and interconnected use of languages. However, since one can identify a trigger word or a phrase, *triggered switches* may occupy the middle ground between intentional switching and free language alternation.

Overall, Study III confirms that the students utilize their linguistic resources in diverse ways. Forty-one students (53%) chose to stick to one language per draft (either English or Norwegian), even when they were prompted to mix the languages. The participants' monolingual preferences are compatible with the previously mentioned monolingually oriented context of teaching English in Norway. Nonetheless, 37 students (47%) demonstrated that they are in possession of an array of diverse translingual writing strategies that range from a skillful and strategic use of contrasting linguistic elements fulfilling certain socio-pragmatic functions, to highly flexible language alternations that may occur for the purposes of generating content or experimenting with one's linguistic repertoire. The findings reported in this study attest to the fact that the integrated framework of translanguaging and pragmatic code-switching may be necessary to account for the students' diverse and complex use of translanguaging in writing as it allows for a more differentiated approach to study the written form of translanguaging.

4.4. Research Contributions

In this section I discuss the empirical, methodological, and theoretical contributions of the present thesis. Due to its empirical nature, this research contributes mainly in terms of empirical evidence and methodology. However, the proposed integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching, in

addition to offering a new framework for the empirical investigation of the students' use of translanguaging in writing, may be viewed as an original attempt to synthesize translanguaging and code-switching theory and research paradigms.

4.4.1. Empirical Contributions

The major empirical contribution is concerned with the effect of the three writing conditions on the quality of the students' essays. To begin with, the EFA analysis showed that writing ability is a two-dimensional construct that encompasses lexical and grammatical accuracy, on the one hand, and communicative ability, on the other. These findings shed new light on our understanding of the nature of writing ability compared to how it was defined in previous studies that examined the quality of writing in direct and translation mode, namely, as a tripartite construct composed of *Grammar/syntax, Cohesion/transitions*, and *Expression* categories (Cohen & Brooks-Carson's, 2001; Ismail & Alsheikh, 2012; Tavakoli et al., 2014). Second, the study revealed that all three writing conditions resulted in essays that were similar in terms of lexical and grammatical accuracy. However, the results also showed that the quality of the essays produced in the translation writing condition was significantly better than those produced in the translanguaging condition, but only with regard to communicative ability. Though the positive effect of translation has been reported in other studies (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Uzawa, 1996), the current investigation goes beyond the existing literature by including the translanguaging writing condition into the analysis. As mentioned earlier, according to our main empirical findings (based of the essay quality comparison only), the use of L1 or dominant language during the draft stage may enhance certain features of writing related to communicative effectiveness due to the students' ability to exploit their linguistic resources in a more efficient manner.

The findings of the two follow-up studies provide a deeper insight into the students' use of background languages. The empirical contribution of Study II is in its

dual-focus approach. To be specific, the study looks into the students' use of linguistic resources in different writing conditions and at various stages of the writing process, and it examines the students' perceptions of the assigned writing condition. The findings of Study II provided empirical support for the proposed theoretical model by Wang & Wen (2002) and showed purposeful and frequent use of L1 in the composing process of bi/multilingual learners. Furthermore, the findings offer a new understanding of the students' use of various languages for specific purposes during different stages of the writing process under three writing conditions. Specifically, translanguaging was utilized for idea-generating and writing a draft, English was used primarily at the task-examining and text-generating stages, whereas Norwegian was often employed during idea-generating, content-organizing, and text-structuring activities. The investigation of the students' perceptions of the translation and translanguaging conditions is another novel empirical contribution to the existing literature. To be specific, despite expressing that translation is time-consuming and demanding, about one third of the participants in the translation group reported achieving a better structure and content because of the scaffolding function of translation (having a complete draft as a starting point), which is consistent with the results of the quantitative analysis of the students' final products in Study I. As far as translanguaging is concerned, the students found the language-mixing condition to be somewhat distracting and confusing. However, one third of the students in the translanguaging group noted the creative side of composing a text in this way. They also felt that translanguaging resulted in longer and more engaging writing.

The analysis of the students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in English aimed to fill a knowledge gap in research on written translanguaging by investigating the discourse-related aspect of translanguaging when writing in a target language. The empirical contribution of Study III is that it revealed the students' diverse and complex use of translanguaging in writing. In fact, the analysis showed a continuum with a skilful and strategic use of contrasting

linguistic elements fulfilling certain socio-pragmatic functions at one point, and highly flexible language alternations that may occur for the purposes of generating content or experimenting with one's linguistic repertoire at the opposite point of the continuum.

4.4.2. Methodological Contributions

The overarching methodological contribution of this research pertains to its transparent and replicable research design and methodology that can be implemented in educational contexts involving other language pairs. On an instrumental level, the design and validation procedures of the rating scale (see Appendix B) employed to assess the quality of the students' essays is an important methodological contribution since the scale can be of interest and use to researchers focusing on the quality of texts as products of the complex processes involved in L2 writing. The scale attends to rhetorical, communicative, and linguistic dimensions of the students' writing. Compared to the original scale in Cohen & Brooks-Carson (2001), the revised scale contains an extended number of items in each category to achieve a more balanced focus on form and content on the one hand, and obtain more nuanced data on all the dimensions of writing on the other. Despite the fact that the scale was designed with the Norwegian learners of English in mind, it can be easily adjusted to fit the needs of learners with other L1s. It follows than that the rating scale may prove to be useful not only for researchers, but also for teachers who need reliable and comprehensive assessment tools for formative and summative assessment practices alike.

Another methodological contribution involves the questionnaire used in Study II to elicit the students' language use and feedback on the assigned writing condition (see Appendix E). The questionnaire was adopted from the same study by Cohen & Brooks-Carson (2001). However, it underwent substantial changes, i.e. (i) a 4-point Likert scale with various answer options was introduced to fit the content of the

items; (ii) open-ended questions were added to elicit the students' perceptions of the assigned writing condition; (iii) a new subscale for the translanguaging writing condition was added. In its present form the questionnaire may be of interest to other researchers looking into L2 learners' language use and perceptions.

The final methodological contribution has to do with the adopted and adapted analytical framework employed to analyze language alternation patterns in the drafts written by the translanguaging group. The framework, described in detail in Paper III, contains categories pertaining to socio-pragmatic functions of code-switching, on the one hand, and types of language alternation that are not driven by any specific socio-pragmatic function, on the other hand. The original contribution of the integrated analytical framework of translanguaging and written code-switching is that it represents an attempt to examine the discourse-related aspect of translanguaging in L2 writing by drawing on the extensive empirical research on code-switching.

4.4.3. Theoretical Contributions

The theoretical contribution of this thesis is related to the way theoretical concepts/frameworks are applied to the study of English writing instructions and Norwegian students' use of linguistic resources in the context of this quasi-experimental research. Specifically, the application of Grosjean's (2008) *language mode* concept to the design of the writing prompts and instruction in each group is an example of how the theoretical concepts of *language mode* and *language mode continuum* were incorporated into the experimental setting aimed to induce a certain language mode at the draft stage of writing. As explained previously, *language mode* refers to a degree of activation of language processing mechanisms available for use with either of the speaker's languages at a certain point in time and in a certain communicative context. In other words, a bilingual person will find themselves on a *language mode continuum* between two extreme points, i.e. a monolingual language mode and a bilingual language mode (p. 40). In the bilingual mode, the whole

repertoire is activated, whereas in the monolingual mode, only the subset corresponding to one of the languages is. Despite the limitations related to the fact that the writing sessions took place in regular classrooms rather than laboratory settings, the students responded to the instructions as expected and wrote their drafts using one, two or multiple languages depending on the assigned condition.

Another theoretical contribution is concerned with the proposed integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching (Study III). Synthesizing the two theoretical and empirical research paradigms allows to fill the knowledge gap in research on written translanguaging and offers a more differentiated approach to the study of the students' diverse and complex use of translanguaging in writing. In Study III, the discussion of the origins of the notion of "code" in early studies on code-switching and its current conceptualisation in the sociolinguistic approach to language alternation phenomena is brought side-to-side with the theoretical underpinnings of translanguaging to encourage a shift towards a more unifying discourse on translanguaging and code-switching in the literature on bilingualism and bilingual pedagogies.

4.5. Summary

In this chapter I brought together the discussion of the findings of the studies and the empirical, methodological, and theoretical contributions of this thesis. The findings reported in the studies are viewed as the empirical contributions to the research on the students' use of their linguistic resources when writing in an additional language. To be specific, (i) the thesis has extended our knowledge of the effect of the alternative approaches to English writing instruction on the quality of the essays; (ii) it provided a deeper insight into the students' use of background languages in various stages of the writing process; (iii) it contributed to our understanding of the students' perceptions of various writing conditions; and (iii) it revealed the students' complex and diverse use of translanguaging at the draft stage

of writing in EAL. The methodological contributions of this research include its overall transparent and replicable design, carefully chosen analytical procedures designed to strengthen validity and reliability of the research, and the development of the rating scale and online questionnaires that may be of use to researches and teachers alike. As far as the theoretical contributions are concerned, these involve the application of the relevant theoretical concepts to the context of this research as well as the development of the integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

In this final chapter of the extended introduction I address the limitations of the studies and provide some suggestions for further research (Section 6.1.). In addition, the pedagogical implications of this thesis are discussed (Section 6.2.).

5.1. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The major limitation of Study I, given its quasi-experimental design, is its use of intact groups, which prevented proper randomization. Use of intact groups allowed us to conduct our experiment in a natural setting and minimize the level of interference with the students' and teachers' environment and daily routine. Although use of intact groups places constrains on how much the results can be generalized to a larger population, the validity of the present study is strengthened through the use of homogeneous groups of participants, replicable, transparent research design and analytical procedures. In particular, we addressed this issue by utilizing the MANCOVA model, which allowed us to control or compensate for a number of confounding variables (covariates) as a consequence of having a non-random sampling. Despite our best effort to design and carry out the study with a primary focus on the effect of writing conditions on the quality of students' essays, writing in a target language is highly susceptible to contextual factors. Therefore, the outcomes of this study should be viewed in close relation with the context of the experiment, type of task, the languages involved, and other aspects.

In Study I we relied on the self-reported data on English and Norwegian proficiency and proficiency in more languages outside of English and Norwegian, since our attempts to procure the students' education records were turned down because of data privacy laws. Further research on the use of alternative approaches to L2 writing instruction needs to employ more reliable measures of proficiency levels (for instance, reliable proficiency tests) in order to be able to examine the

relationship between learners' proficiency in L2 and their use of L1 in L2 writing under different writing conditions. It is also desirable for future studies to make sure that multiple texts representing different genres are collected from each participant. This will make quality scores more reliable[17] and allow for the comparison of the effect of writing conditions on the quality of different types of texts.

The main limitation of Study II lies in its use of self-reported data. Self-reports are prone to biases associated with participants' interpretation of the questions, their honesty, and introspective ability. We chose to elicit self-reports because we targeted internal processes and student perceptions. Therefore, the students' responses were the primary source of data suitable for the purposes of this investigation. In addition, administering the questionnaire to the students shortly after the writing sessions was a time-efficient and inexpensive way of gathering different kinds of data from the whole sample in a single data collection episode. Another important limitation of this study concerns the analysis of the data: we employed descriptive statistics and a qualitative approach, which does not allow for generalization of the results to a larger population. However, replication studies in similar and dissimilar contexts may verify the methodology and findings of the study. Future studies investigating the use of background languages and student perceptions may benefit from expending the methodological apparatus to include think-aloud protocols, focus-group interviews, and stimulated recall data in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamic processes in the mind of bi- and multilingual learners when they write in a target language.

Study III has possible limitations related primarily to the theoretical and analytical framework, since the integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching was proposed and utilized for the first time. Therefore, future studies should be carried out to further investigate this approach to the analysis and

[17] It has been pointed out that a single-task-per-condition design is problematic as writing quality and writing process may vary strongly for individual writers (Schoonen, 2005; VanWeijen et al., 2009).

interpretation of the students' use of the written form(s) of translanguaging in other educational, instructional, and linguistic contexts.

Finally, another line of research may include participants with various experience in translanguaging both inside and outside of the classroom. Such participants may utilize their linguistic resources in a different way than the participants in the present research who are not used to alternating between languages when they write in English in school settings.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

Seen together, the studies indicate that translation and translanguaging should be incorporated as scaffolding techniques, and, preferably, as feasible classroom-based assessment practices that provide emergent bilingual students with an opportunity to demonstrate a unique set of skills that remains obscured in the traditional monoglossic context.

First, the investigation of two alternative English writing instructions showed that creating a draft in L1 or a dominant language before composing a text in English may have a positive effect on the quality of students' writing in terms of content organization, coherence, and ability to communicate the message in a clear and appropriate way. In addition, our analysis showed that the lexical and grammatical accuracy of the essays was not significantly influenced by the three different writing conditions. Therefore, teachers' concerns that interference may have a detrimental impact on the quality of students' writing (see for instance, De Angelis, 2011) are not supported on the present evidence. Given the results, there may be scope for introducing translation and translanguaging as scaffolding techniques when teaching writing in English in Norwegian mainstream language classrooms. Making space for translation and translanguaging as legitimate alternatives to existing English writing instruction practices means offering learners a wider range of individualized writing strategies enabling them to produce more fluid writing. The form of pedagogical

translanguaging, including translation, investigated in the present research is compatible with the moderate translanguaging lens adopted in Brevik & Rindal's (2020) large-scale study of actual language use in English lower secondary classrooms in Norway. Brevik & Rindal explain the teachers' and students' language practices that were observed in the study as a scaffolding tool and an attempt to "find ways of making both the target language and students' linguistic repertoires part of the target language classroom" (p. 22). Similarly, the present research argues that the alternative approaches to English writing instruction may help balance the goal to develop students' English writing skills with their need to explore and utilize their linguistic resources, and thus engage in more holistic multilingual practices.

Second, this research revealed that the students in the translanguaging group expressed their willingness to engage in translingual writing practices for the purposes of exploration, thus demonstrating their openness to experiment and play with languages. Openness to translingual writing practices in classroom settings conveyed by our participants can be viewed as a rationale for creating engaging and stimulating learning activities, which may facilitate students' ability to employ the entire linguistic repertoire in more innovative ways. The results indicate that the students are strategic and inquisitive in the way they use their linguistic repertoire. Therefore, there is more work to be done to harness the existing potential for the development of more individualized and engaging pedagogical practices.

Third, drawing on the results of this research, further studies of the pedagogical affordances of the written form(s) of translanguaging, including translation, may contribute to the expansion of student translanguaging to the domain of language assessment practices that need to accommodate the realities of multilingual classrooms in Norway and elsewhere. The findings of this investigation indicate that including student translanguaging in English writing instruction may be beneficial in terms of making a full range of the students' diverse use of their linguistic repertoire visible. The recently renewed version of the National Curriculum

for English (LK20, The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019), which is scheduled to be implemented from August 2020, stresses the importance of promoting learners' ability to recognize multilingualism as a resource in school and in society at large. In addition, teachers are required to plan and implement diverse assessment practices that allow learners to demonstrate their knowledge of English in various ways and in various contexts. With this in mind, translation and translanguaging-based writing assessment practices can offer a way of recognizing and promoting learners' dynamic use of their linguistic resources in English language classrooms.

In sum, this thesis highlights some of the pedagogical affordances of translation and translanguaging, in tune with the shift towards a multilingual approach to teaching writing in L2 classrooms. The alternative approaches and the students' perceptions investigated in this thesis offer teachers a more learner-oriented and ecologically valid perspective on English teaching pedagogy adapted to the reality of the multilingual classroom, which is increasingly a feature of education in Norway and in other parts of the world.

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Appendix A: Writing Prompts

Group 1: Translation

Du har akkurat ankommet Tokyo! Du har pass, telefon, kredittkort, og klærne du har på deg. Neste fly hjem går om tre dager, du snakker ikke språket, så du må klare deg selv i en stor fremmed by. Å oppholde seg på flyplassen er ikke aktuelt. Hva vil du gjøre for å skaffe deg mat, overnatting, og transport mens du er der? Hva syns du om denne opplevelsen?

Group 2: English only

You are asked to write a short essay in English on the following theme: You have just arrived in Tokyo! You have your passport, your phone, a credit card, and the clothes on your back. The next plane home is in three days, so you'll have to stay on your own in a very big city where you do not speak the language. Staying in the airport is not an option. What steps will you take to find food, housing, and transportation while you're waiting? How do you feel about this experience?

Please use the entire time you are given to write as much as you can. Don't worry about looking up words or facts, just be creative and describe as much as you can.

Group 3: Translanguaging

You are asked to write a short essay in English, eller på norsk eller annen språk, or a blend of languages, on the following theme:

Du har akkurat ankommet Tokyo! Du har pass, telefon, kredittkort, og klærne du har på deg. Neste fly hjem går om tre dager, and you don't speak the language, så du må klare deg selv i en stor fremmed by. Å oppholde seg på flyplassen er ikke aktuelt. Hva

vil du gjøre for å skaffe deg mat, overnatting, og transport mens du er der? Hva syns du om denne opplevelsen?

Appendix B: Rating Scale

Essay ID:

Rater's name:

Word count:

Rating scale for English essays

Please choose the alternative that reflects the degree to which you agree with the statement about the essay. Circle NA (not applicable) when insufficient or no information is available concerning the particular feature.

1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Agree 4=Strongly agree

Grammar

Statement		**Rating**			
1	Accurate use of verb tense morphology Examples: *I cutted my finger last week* vs *I cut my finger last week* *He eated the whole cake by himself* vs *He ate the whole cake by himself*	1	2	3	4
2	Accurate use of tense Example: *I have visited Niagara Falls last weekend* vs *I visited Niagara Falls last weekend* *She knew that he found her letter a week before* vs *She knew that he had found her letter a week before* *I am studying English every day* vs *I study English every day* *She is writing many e-mails* vs *She writes many e-mails* *It is raining for two days* vs *It has been raining for two days* *The baby is sleeping for three hours now* vs *The baby has been sleeping for three hours now* *I have seen him yesterday* vs *I saw him yesterday* *She has returned from London last week* vs *She returned from London last week* *I gave you my answer tomorrow* vs *I will give you my answer tomorrow*	1	2	3	4

3	Accurate use of subject-verb agreement Examples: *Every student like the teacher* vs *Every student likes the teacher* *She don't want to listen to me* vs *She doesn't want to listen to me.* *We was there last summer* vs *We were there last summer*	1	2	3	4	
4	Uses prepositions accurately Example: *I traveled with bus* vs *I traveled by bus*	1	2	3	4	
5	Uses articles accurately Example: *I love the nature* vs *I love nature*	1	2	3	4	
6	Accurate use of singular/plural forms Examples: *Cat has many life* vs *Cat has many lives* *Four gooses crossed the road* vs *Four geese crossed the road* *Sheeps are good at climbing the mountains* vs *Sheep are good at climbing the mountains.* *This scissor is blunt* vs *These scissors are blunt*	1	2	3	4	
7	Accurate use of word order Examples: *When it was closed could we go there* vs *When it was closed we could go there* *Suddenly heard I a shot* vs *Suddenly I heard a shot* *I said I not would do it* vs *I said I would not do it* *He liked not that one, but he liked the other one* vs *He didn't like that one, but he liked the other one* *Siri said that the students not read the book* vs *Siri said that the students did not read the book* *Play you football or handball?* vs *Do you play football or handball?* *What ate you for dinner?* vs *What did you eat for dinner?* *They got never salad* vs *They never got salad* *They answer always my e-mails* vs *They always answer my e-mails* *I need really to borrow some money* vs *I really need to borrow some money* *Now was he disappointed* vs *Now he was disappointed* *Sometimes drew we a picture in class* vs *Sometimes we drew a picture in class*	1	2	3	4	
8	Uses relative clauses (containing relative pronouns *which, who, whom, whose, that, where, when, why*) accurately Example: *The woman which works here is from Japan* vs *The woman who works here is from Japan*	1	2	3	4	NA

9	Accurate distinction between "ing" forms and infinitives Examples: *I am thinking about to go abroad* vs *I am thinking about going abroad* *I'm not used to wait for busses* vs *I'm not used to waiting for busses* *I avoid to go to the dentist* vs *I avoid going to the dentist* NB! Cases where "ing" forms are used as nouns or adjectives should not be taken into account in this section: Examples: *Swimming is very good for your health* (noun) *Driving too fast is dangerous* (noun) *We all worry about rising prices* (adjective)	1	2	3	4	NA
10	Accurate in distinguishing adjectives from adverbs Examples: *You speak English good* vs *You speak English well* *She sings beautiful* vs *She sings beautifully*	1	2	3	4	NA
11	Accurate use of presentational sentences Example: *It is a table in the corner of the room* vs *There is a table in the corner of the room* *He told me that it was a large garage next to the house* vs *He told that there was a large garage next to the house* *I like that it is a double bed here* vs *I like that there is a double bed here*	1	2	3	4	NA
12	Grammatically accurate	1	2	3	4	

Coherence/ transitions

Statement		**Rating**			
13	The ideas of the essay are all relevant to the topic (What can you learn about Tokyo from this essay?)	1	2	3	4
14	The essay is clearly organized	1	2	3	4
15	Ideas mentioned are elaborated	1	2	3	4
16	The essay has a clear narrative structure	1	2	3	4
17	Paragraph(s) correspond to meaningful wholes	1	2	3	4
18	Does the text flow smoothly? • Use of connectors Examples: *to begin with, first of all, then, that is why, finally,* and others • Spelling is adequate and does not detract from the reader's ability to understand the text	1	2	3	4

	• Effective use of punctuation, including correct use of apostrophes • Accurate use of sequence of tenses Examples: *We were late. John does not like it* vs *We were late. John did not like it* *We arrived in the evening. The hotel room is tidy and nicely decorated* vs *We arrived in the evening. The hotel room was tidy and nicely decorated* • Use of anaphoric reference Examples: *She dropped the glass and it broke into pieces (glass)* *The child wanted a pony but her parents didn't buy one for her (pony)* *The teacher was disappointed, and so were the students (disappointed)*				

Expression

Statement		**Rating**			
19	Consistently correct and appropriate use of vocabulary	1	2	3	4
20	Use of a broad vocabulary including idiomatic expressions	1	2	3	4
21	Use of varied word order	1	2	3	4
22	Variation in use of: • Combinations of Tense (Present, Past, Future) and Aspect (Progressive/Continuous, Perfect) Examples: *John is kicking the ball* (Present Progressive/Continuous) *John has kicked the ball* (Present Perfect) *John was kicking the ball* (Past Progressive/Continuous) *John had kicked the ball* (Past Perfect) *John will be kicking the ball* (Future Progressive/Continuous) • Voice (Active and Passive) Examples: *John kicks the ball* (Active) - *The ball is kicked by John* (Passive) • Modality (mood, modal verbs and expressions, hypothetical and conditional sentences) Examples: *John kicks the ball* (Indicative Mood) *I would like that John kick the ball* (Subjunctive Mood)	1	2	3	4

	Kick the ball! (Imperative Mood) *John can/could/may/might/will/would kick the ball* (Modal verbs) *We cannot all stay in a hotel. It would be very expensive* (Hypothetical sentence) *If you followed/had followed the recipe, the cake wouldn't be/wouldn't have been such a disaster* (Conditional sentence)				

Do you think this essay should be excluded? **Yes** **NO**

If "Yes", please elaborate.

Appendix C: Information Letter

An inquiry about participation in a research project

(Use of Students' linguistic resources in teaching English as an additional language in Norway).

Background and purpose of the project
My name is Marina Prilutskaya, and I am a doctoral student at Nord University, campus Bodø. In my doctoral studies, I want to investigate the use of students' linguistic resources in teaching English as L2 in Norway.
Participants are first-year upper secondary school students.

What does participation involve for you?
Participants are asked to complete two online surveys before and after the writing sessions that will be completed during school hours. Prior to the writing sessions, the students answer questions about their language background and attitude to learning English. Then the students will write two texts. Depending on the assigned group, the first text (draft) will be written in English or in the students' L1 or in any language(s) they want to use. The final product should be in English. The participants will be asked to evaluate the two activities after performing them (the second survey).

What happens to the information about you?
All personal information will be treated confidentially. A code will link the student to their information through a participant list. Only authorized personnel (the researcher) associated with the project have access to the list of participants. Only the researcher has an overview of the names associated with the code. This overview will also be deleted when the study is complete. All information will be anonymized at the end of the project, and all information provided in the survey will be treated confidentially. It will not be possible to identify the student in the results of the study when they are published. The school will also be anonymized.

The project is scheduled to end on 1.01. 2020.

Participation is voluntary
Participation in the study is voluntary, and you can withdraw your consent at any time without giving any reason. If you withdraw, all information about you will be deleted.

If you would like to participate or have questions about the study, please contact Marina Prilutskaya (marina.prilutskaya@nord.no, mobile: 45296943). The main supervisor is Patrik Bye, associate professor, Faculty of Education and Arts at Nord University (patrik.bye@nord.no, mobile: 97777513).

The study is reported to the Norwegian Center for Research Data.

Consent to participate in the study

I have received information about the study and am willing to participate

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(Signed by project participant, date)

Appendix D: Questionnaire “Language background”

1. Is Norwegian your mother tongue?
   1.1. If yes, have you got another mother tongue?
   1.2. If no, what is your mother tongue?
   1.3. If no, how proficient are you in Norwegian? (basic, intermediate, fluent)
2. How do you assess your general proficiency level in English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)?

3. Assess your ability to:

   3.1. Read in English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)
   3.2. Write in English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)
   3.3. Speak English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)
   3.4. Understand spoken English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)

4. Have you ever stayed in any English-speaking countries over a longer period of time (longer than a month)?

   4.1. If yes, where and for how long?

5. Have you ever stayed in any non-English speaking countries (where you had to speak English) over a longer period of time (longer than a month)?

   5.1. If yes, where and for how long?

6. Do you speak any other languages besides Norwegian and English?

   6.1. If yes, which ones? Assess your general proficiency level in this (these) languages: basic, intermediate, fluent.

Appendix E: Questionnaire "Use of languages and feedback on writing conditions"

Please assess the following statements by choosing the alternative that describes your writing strategies and opinion best. Remember there is no right or wrong answer, just be honest and assess the statements as accurately as possible. Use the scale below:

1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Agree 4=Strongly agree

Other options are provided when necessary.

Note: you can only choose one alternative for each of the statements.

For open questions, provide full answers.

English only

Statements	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I found myself thinking in Norwegian and translating				
How much did you use Norwegian to organize your text?	Very little	Fairly little	Fairly much	Very much
How much did you think in Norwegian as you were writing the text?	Very little	Fairly little	Fairly much	Very much
I think that writing directly in English helps to learn the language				
I think that writing directly in English helped me focus on English expressions				
I think that thinking in English during the whole process is better than translating				

Translation condition

Statements	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I found myself thinking in English as I was writing in Norwegian	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I think it is easier to write directly in English than to translate				
In my opinion, thinking in English during the whole process is better than translating				
I felt that I had time pressure to complete my translation into English				
I found it difficult to translate my Norwegian essay into English				
I found it easier to write first in Norwegian and then translate than to write directly in English				
Would you consider using translation more often when you write a text in English? Why/why not?				

Translanguaging condition

Statements	
Which language(s) did you think in as you were reading the writing prompt?	
Which language(s) did you use as you generated ideas for your essay?	
Which language(s) did you resort to when you organized the content of your essay?	
Which language(s) did you use when you thought through the structure of your essay (e.g., introduction, main part, and conclusion)?	

Which language(s) did you use when you started to write the final text?				
Which language(s) did you use in your draft? Please explain why you did it in this way.				
I believe that use of other languages in the writing process contributes positively in such areas as:				
Vocabulary	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Grammar	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Content	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Structure	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I prefer to stick to English during the whole writing process	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Would you consider using other languages more often when you write a text in English? Why/why not?				

Paper II

Research on Three L2 Writing Conditions: Students' Perceptions and Use of Background Languages When Writing in English

Prilutskaya, M. & Knoph, R.

Abstract

This paper gives an account of Norwegian upper secondary school students' self-reported use of linguistic resources while composing a text in English (L2) under three different writing conditions, i.e. English-only, translation, and translanguaging. After writing a text in English, 200 students answered a questionnaire about their use of background languages as well as their perceptions of the assigned writing condition. A combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to the analysis of the questionnaire data was employed to capture how the students use their background languages and what they consider to be relative advantages and disadvantages of the assigned writing condition. The results indicate: (i) a strong presence of English as a metacognitive language of choice in all three writing conditions, (ii) students' strategic use of L1 for organizing ideas and structuring information, and (ii) students' ability and willingness to experiment with languages to enhance certain aspects of their writing. By integrating translation and translanguaging into the drafting stage of writing in a target language, the present study contributes to the empirical research that embraces bi- and multilingual approach to English writing instruction in modern language classrooms as they become more linguistically and culturally diverse.

Keywords: *English writing instruction; translation; translanguaging; crosslingual writing*.

Introduction

This study examines Norwegian upper secondary school students' perceptions of three writing conditions as well as their use of background languages when composing essays in English, their L2.[24] In the course of the experiment, 238 first-year upper secondary school students (age 15-16) from two mainstream schools in Northern Norway were divided randomly (per class) into three groups. Each group was assigned one of three writing conditions: English only, translation from L1 into English, and translanguaging (Williams, 1996; García, 2009, 2012; García, O. & Wei, L., 2014; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012). The students received the same task, i.e. to write a fantasy narrative. The English-only group wrote their texts directly in English. The translation group wrote their drafts in Norwegian and then translated them into English. The translanguaging group could choose any language or a mix of languages to write a draft, which they then used to write a final essay in English. The writing prompts in each group varied in terms of the language(s) utilized, while the content remained unchanged (see Appendix B).

In the context of this study, translanguaging is understood in its classroom application, where languages are used in a dynamic and functional manner in order to further literacy in all languages involved (Lewis et al., 2012). In the translanguaging condition in our experiment we prompted the students to mix languages in their drafts before writing the final essay in English. This is consistent with the weak version of translanguaging (Williams, 1996; García & Lin, 2016; Turnbull, 2019), which pertains to the softening of the borders between the languages to tap into the students' background knowledge and linguistic repertoire, while acknowledging the existence of a target language (and the goal of developing it) as opposed to other

[24] It has been pointed out that English is in the process of becoming a second language in Norway (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). However, for 11 participants of this study English is a foreign language (or L3) in addition to their L1 and Norwegian. For simplicity, we use the "L2" abbreviation to refer to both FL and L2.

available languages. By contrast, the strong version of translanguaging calls for the elimination of the social construct of "named languages" and argues for providing the students with the opportunity to " […] fully use their entire language repertoire, without regard to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named languages […]" (García & Lin, 2016, p. 10).

The previous study of the quality of essays produced under different writing conditions (Prilutskaya, Knoph & Hanssen, 2020) showed that the students in the translation group were able to express their ideas in a more coherent and efficient manner compared to those in the translanguaging group. The study also indicated that there was no statistical difference among all three groups in scores on lexical and grammatical accuracy.

In the course of the experiment, in addition to the writing samples, we collected questionnaire data on students' language use employed in the English-only, translation, and translanguaging writing conditions. Participants in each group also provided their feedback on the assigned writing condition. We adopted a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to the analysis of the questionnaire data to provide an account of the students' language use and feedback. Keeping in mind the results of the previous investigation (Prilutskaya, Knoph & Hanssen, 2020), in this follow-up study we aim to gain insights into the students' writing process, specifically, the way they utilize their linguistic resources at the drafting and final stages of text production under three different writing conditions. This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

2. What language(s) is/are reported to be employed during the drafting and final stages of the writing process in different conditions?
3. What are the students' perceptions of the English-only, translation, and translanguaging writing conditions?

Previous Research

Use of Background Languages in the L2 Writing Process

In Wang & Wen's (2002) study of L1 use in the L2 composing process of 16 Chinese EFL writers, the authors conclude that "[…] the L2 writing process is a bilingual event: L2 writers have two languages (i.e., L1 and L2) at their disposal when they are composing in L2" (p. 239). The analysis of the think-aloud protocols showed that the L1 accounted for around 30% of the data and was used predominantly in process-controlling, idea-generating, and idea-organizing activities. Another important conclusion that the authors draw from their analysis is that the proportion of L1 usage decreases as students engage in the types of activities that are closely related to textual output, while the processes leading to text-generating are L1 dominant.

Similar findings are reported in several studies that focused on the interaction of languages in the mind of L2 writers (Woodall, 2002; Manchón et al., 2007). The upshot of research on the role of L1 in L2 writing is that purposeful use of L1 occurs in different stages of the composing process and appears to be an integral part of composing in L2 (see Van Weijen et al., 2009). However, L2 writers employ this strategy to achieve different goals as their L2 proficiency develops. More proficient writers resort to their L1 when handling tasks of higher complexity (Manchón et al., 2009; Van Weijen et al., 2009), whereas the amount of L1 use for formulation purposes correlates negatively with the increase in the L2 proficiency level. The only exception is linked to the use of L1 for monitoring function, that is, when L1 facilitates the writer's ability to cope with the cognitive overload and working-memory constraints, and manage the writing process by means of self-instruction and meta-comments (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Cumming, 1989; Woodall, 2002). In this case, writers tend to utilize their L1in a similar way and to a similar degree regardless of the level of L2 proficiency.

In order to examine language use of the students when they are encouraged to draw on their entire linguistic repertoire, we prompted our participants in the translanguaging group to employ translanguaging at a draft stage of writing an essay in English. Studies that target writing strategies of multilingual writers are particularly relevant to our research since in our study we incorporate translanguaging as a crosslingual approach to English writing instruction. As a case in point, Cenoz & Gorter (2011) report that the participants in their study, 165 Basque-Spanish bilinguals and secondary school students, activated both of their background languages while writing in English. The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the writing samples indicated that the students engaged in multidirectional cross-linguistic transfer and employed similar general writing strategies across the languages. Another study of multilingual students' writing strategies (Tullock & Fernández-Villanueva, 2013) supports that multilinguals, in this case 16 and 17-year-old Spanish-Catalan-German trilinguals composing essays in English, employed all three background languages to solve lexical problems. However, the participants' L1 was activated to a greater degree than other languages.

A study of multilinguals' use of background languages in the Swedish context (Gunnarsson et al., 2015) includes participants of a similar age group (15-16) as our own study. The participants were divided into three groups according to their L1, i.e. *Swedish L1, simultaneous L1s group* (exposed to Swedish and another L1 from early age), and *Other L1 group* (with L1 other than Swedish). The authors analyzed the survey data on participants' language background and their use of different languages as they composed an essay in English (L2 or L3). The students reported Swedish (their L1 or L2) as the most frequently employed language of thought; while English is reported to be activated considerably more often once the students turn to text-generating activities.

The above-mentioned empirical evidence supports claims put forward by the proponents of the translanguaging framework (Williams, 1996; García, 2009, 2012;

Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012) in that users of two or more languages rely on all of their linguistic repertoire by choosing flexibly and strategically from an integrated system of linguistic resources (Gort, 2006; Kibler, 2010). To be specific, Velasco & García (2014) examined the way young bilingual writers utilized translanguaging as a writing strategy in the planning, drafting, and production stages. The qualitative analysis of the five writing samples produced by the K–4th grade Spanish-English and Korean-English bilingual students revealed that the young writers used translanguaging to organize ideas related to the topic and to engage the reader. In addition, translanguaging was employed as a vocabulary learning strategy (text annotations) and a discourse feature (inner speech). In a recent study by Turnbull (2019), the author investigated the effect of weak and strong forms of translanguaging on the production of academic and creative texts by 60 first-year Japanese EFL university students. The results indicate that engaging in the strong version of translanguaging at the planning stage of writing in English allowed the students to produce more concise and well-formed essays.

Studies concerned with students' attitudes and use of writing strategies across different writing modes are scant and, to our best knowledge, focus exclusively on direct composition versus translation (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Ismail & Alsheikh, 2012; Tavskoli, Ghadiri & Zabihi, 2014). For instance, Cohen & Brooks-Carson (2001) looked into the students' self-reported use of writing strategies in direct and translated essays. The participants were 39 university-level students who wrote two essays in French (their L2 or L3) using translation and direct composition. The authors found that most of the students (80%) engaged in mental translation into L1 (English) for a considerable amount of time even though they were supposed to write directly in L2 (French). As for the students' attitudes towards direct and translated writing, even though the direct writing mode received more positive feedback, the students found translation to be advantageous for such aspects of writing as vocabulary and text structure.

To conclude this section, we argue that the original contribution of the present study lies in its multifocal approach to the study of Norwegian learners' language use and perceptions. The current investigation extends beyond research on direct versus translated writing as we incorporate translanguaging as a crosslingual alternative to English writing instruction. Previous research clearly indicates that all L2 writers make use of their L1 and other background languages if they are available. The present study offers an opportunity to explore the interplay of languages across three different (at least on surface level) writing conditions.

Method

Participants

The participants are 238 first-year upper secondary school students, age 15–16, from two schools in Norway. Since most Norwegians enter the education system at the age of six, and English education begins in the first year, most of our students had ten years of English instruction by the time of the experiment. However, some students may have had some of their schooling outside of Norway. Norwegian schools are obliged to provide adapted language education to students who cannot follow regular curriculum. To the best of our knowledge, none of the students attended any language support classes outside of the regular curriculum. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the participants with a foreign background had achieved the required level of proficiency in Norwegian and English during data collection. The data on language background and sex were elicited through the online questionnaire (see Appendix A). Table 1 contains the summary of the collected responses to the on-line questionnaire:

Table 1

Language Background and Gender

	Group 1: Translation	Group 2: English only	Group 3: Translanguaging
Participant count			
Raw	114	112	91
Participants kept for analysis	58	83	59
Omitted Participants			
Native English speaker	0	1	1
Greater than 25% data missing	56	28	31
Gender			
Male	12	32	20
Female	43	45	30
Not Reported	3	6	9
Norwegian Proficiency			
Beginner	0	0	0
Intermediate	0	0	0
Fluent	2	2	0
Native	53	77	46
Not Reported	3	4	13
English Proficiency			
Beginner	4	5	1
Intermediate	15	20	16

Advanced	22	43	18
Fluent	14	11	12
Not Reported	3	4	12
Proficiency in Other Languages			
None	22	26	19
Beginner	12	19	13
Intermediate	12	25	9
Advanced	4	3	1
Fluent	1	3	1
Native	4	3	4
Not Reported	3	4	12
Mean Word Count	590.91	653.04	443.02
Standard Deviation	241.76	381.50	335.53
No Linked Essay	2	6	7

Note: All proficiencies are self-reported.

Writing sessions

As mentioned earlier, each class was randomly assigned to one of three writing conditions, and the students were given the same task: to write a fantasy narrative essay. The translation group was asked to write a text in Norwegian (or another dominant language) and then translate it into English. The English-only group wrote their texts directly in English but could revise their texts if needed. The translanguaging group could choose to use any language they wished (or a mix of languages) to write a draft which they then used to produce a text in English. The students could use up to 90 minutes, and all writing had to occur in class either on the same day or during the next English class in the same week. The task did not

count to their final grade. The questionnaire data were collected shortly after the writing sessions. The same experienced university lecturer introduced the activity to all three groups to ensure consistency of the instructions as well as to reduce individual teacher impact. The language form of the writing prompts (see Appendix B) and the given instruction differed slightly from group to group, i.e. English only, Norwegian only, and a mix of English and Norwegian respectively. Through manipulation of the languages in the prompts and instruction, we attempted to apply Grosjean's (2008) concept of *language mode*. We tried to put the students in the English only group in a monolingual mode with English being the base language; in the participants in the translanguaging group we tried to induce a bilingual mode where both Norwegian and English would be activated. The participants in the translation group were supposed to start writing in the monolingual mode with Norwegian as the base language and then switch to English monolingual mode when it was time to translate. We acknowledge two major issues with this strategy: (1) it is impossible to control the amount of mental translation going on in the minds of the participants in all three groups, even though Norwegian and English were artificially separated in time in the case of translation; (2) giving the participants instructions in one language (or a mix of languages) does have a potential to activate a specific language or languages as a base, but "does not guarantee a particular position in the monolingual-bilingual mode continuum" (Grosjean, 2008, p. 58).

Questionnaire data

Out of 238 students whose essays were analyzed in the previous study (Prilutskaya, Knoph & Hanssen, 2020), 200 students provided the answers to the on-line questionnaire "Use of languages and feedback on writing conditions" (see Appendix C). These answers constitute the data for the present investigation. Parts of the questionnaire were adopted from Cohen & Brooks-Carson's study (2001) of direct versus translated writing. The subscale for the translanguaging group was designed specifically for the present study. The questionnaire was translated to Norwegian to

assure that the students understood the items and could provide exhaustive answers to the open-ended questions. Most of the items were based on a 4-point Likert scale with four options available, i.e. “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “agree” and “strongly agree”. A few items required the students to indicate the extent to which a particular language was used (“very little” to “very much”). Finally, a few items were formulated as open-ended questions, specifically, the ones that were designed to elicit the students’ attitudes.

Analysis and Results

Research question 1: What language(s) is/are reported to be employed during the drafting and final stages of the writing process in different conditions?

To begin with, we approached the first research question by looking into the use of L1/dominant language in the English-only condition because of the amount of L1 use reported in previous studies of the L2 writing process. Only 18 out of 81 students (22%) chose the option “agree” and “strongly agree” when responding to the item about thinking in Norwegian and translating into English while writing the text in English. Furthermore, 64 students (79%) in this group reported using “very little “ or “fairly little” Norwegian to organize their texts. Finally, 63 responders (78%) reported thinking “fairly” or “very little” in Norwegian when writing in English. As anticipated, the students’ responses suggest that most of them were in the monolingual mode (Grosjean, 2008) with English as the base language.

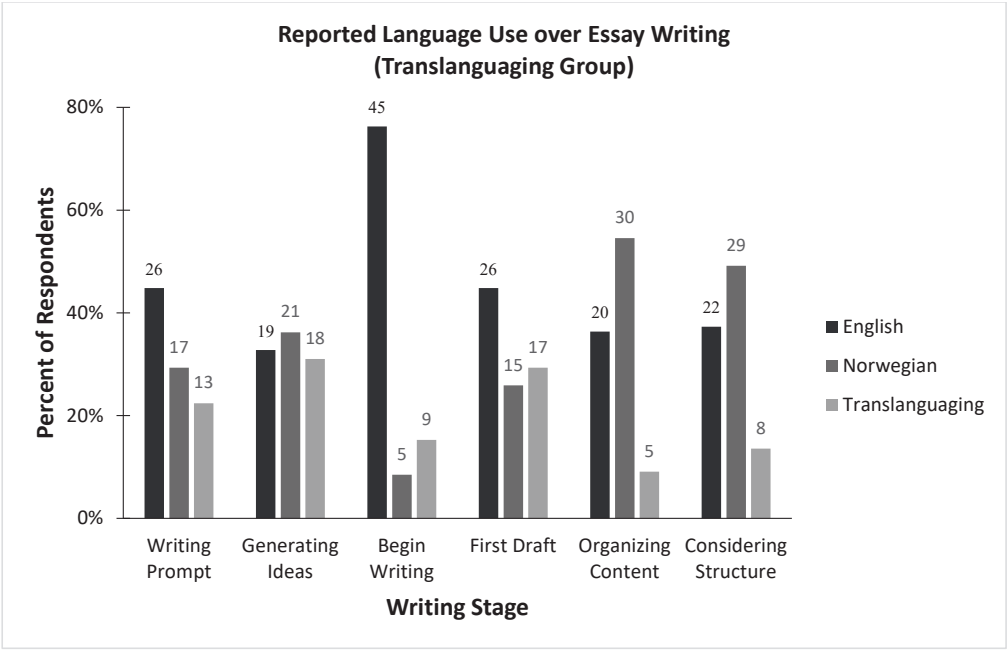
As pointed out elsewhere, the students in the translation group were supposed to start writing a draft in the monolingual mode with Norwegian as the base language and then switch to English for the final product. We asked the students in the translation group whether they found themselves thinking in English when writing their draft in Norwegian. 35 out of 58 responders (60%) gave a positive answer. In sum, the answers from the English-only and translation groups indicate

that the students employed English to a large degree not only in the English-only condition, but also when writing their drafts in Norwegian.

A closer inspection of the language use reported by the translanguaging group constitutes the next step in answering the first research question. Figure 1 contains the results from the translanguaging group and provides a more nuanced account of the students' strategic use of languages at different stages of the composing process when flexible language use is encouraged:

Figure 1

Translanguaging Group: Reported Language Use Over Essay Writing



These results indicate that different language modes (Grosjean, 2008) are associated with different stages of the composing process, i.e. the majority of the participants report to be in the English monolingual mode when they start writing the

text, whereas Norwegian becomes heavily activated when the students engage in idea-generating, content-organizing, and text-structuring activities. A smaller number of the participants remain in the translanguaging mode, in which mainly English and Norwegian but also additional languages are activated throughout most of the writing process. Interestingly, translanguaging is reported to be the second most preferred mode (after the English-only mode) at the draft stage.

In order to understand what motivates the students' choice of a particular language (or a combination of languages) at a draft stage when they are given the opportunity to choose freely, we added the following open-ended item to the translanguaging subscale: *Which language(s) did you use in your draft? Please explain why you did it in this way*.

Twenty-six (44%) out of 59 participants of the translanguaging group who answered the question reported that English was the only language of choice in their drafts. They provided several reasons[25]:

- It was faster and easier to stick to one language in the draft and in the final product.
- English was a natural choice considering that the prompt was partly in English as well.
- It was a personal preference to use English as much as possible.
- English was used to avoid translation since it would result in bad English.

Fifteen students (25%) chose to write their drafts in Norwegian primarily because it helped them generate ideas for the text. Other reasons for only writing in Norwegian are as follows:

- To avoid mixing the languages which presumably would resemble oral speech in writing.

[25] The responses are a rough translation of the original answers given in Norwegian.

- To enhance the presence of the author's personality in the text.
- To take advantage of the opportunity to write in a local Norwegian dialect, as opposed to one of the two written standard dialects, because it was faster and easier to do so.

The remaining 18 students in this group (30%) engaged in translanguaging as they mixed either Norwegian and English or Norwegian, English and additional language(s). The students explained why they chose this strategy in the following way:

- For word retrieval.
- For stylistic purposes, i.e. story was placed in certain linguistic and cultural settings.
- To generate as many ideas as possible regardless of the language of thought.
- Because the prompt contained the mix of languages.
- To engage the reader.
- To take advantage of the rare opportunity to try out different languages since it was allowed.

The languages reported by the students include English, Norwegian (standard and local dialect[26]), Spanish, French, German, Greek, Icelandic, and Japanese.

[26] In Norway, there are two official languages, i.e. Norwegian and Sami. With regard to Norwegian, two standard written varieties of it (Bokmål and Nynorsk) are taught in schools. However, there are numerous spoken local dialects that Norwegians use on a daily basis. Since there is no standard variety of spoken Norwegian, these local variations are used in most contexts (Store norske leksikon, 2019).

Research question 2: What are the students' perceptions of the English-only, translation, and translanguaging writing conditions?

We obtained the students' feedback on the respective writing condition both through Likert scale and open-ended items. We start this section with the analysis of the Likert scale items in each of the three groups.

English only group

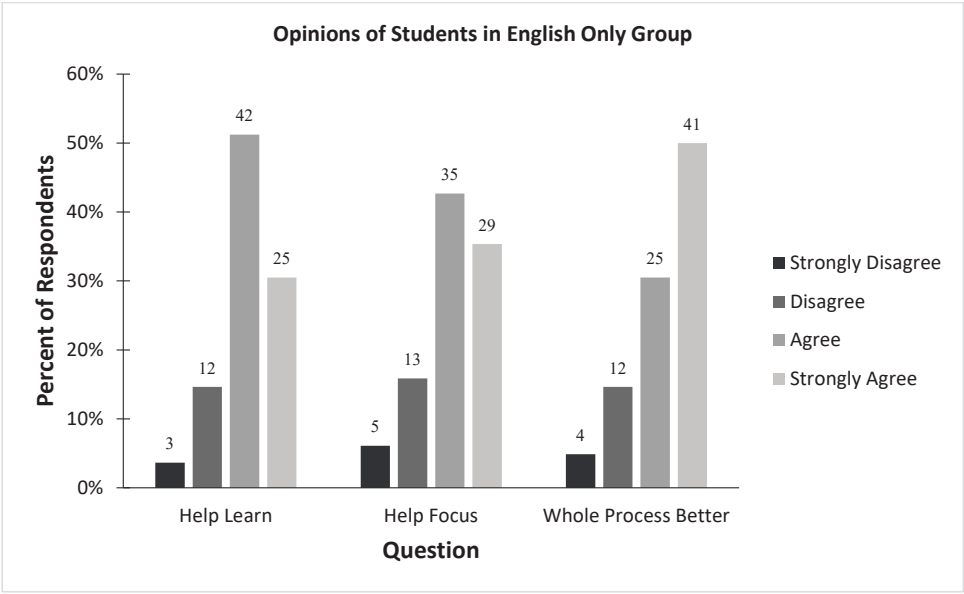
The three feedback-related items for the English-only group are as follows:

1. *I think that writing directly in English helps to learn the language.*
2. *I think that writing directly in English helped me focus on English expressions.*
3. *I think that thinking in English during the whole process is better than translating.*

Figure 2 contains the results of the analysis of the items in question:

Figure 2

Opinions of Students in English-only Group



We can see that most of the participants in this group evaluate writing directly in English in terms of the two outlined aspects as better while thinking in English during the whole process as far better. This may be explained by the fact that the first two items do not capture other aspects of writing that the student may associate with the English-only approach.

Translation group

For convenience, we repeat the items targeting the students' perceptions of the translation mode:

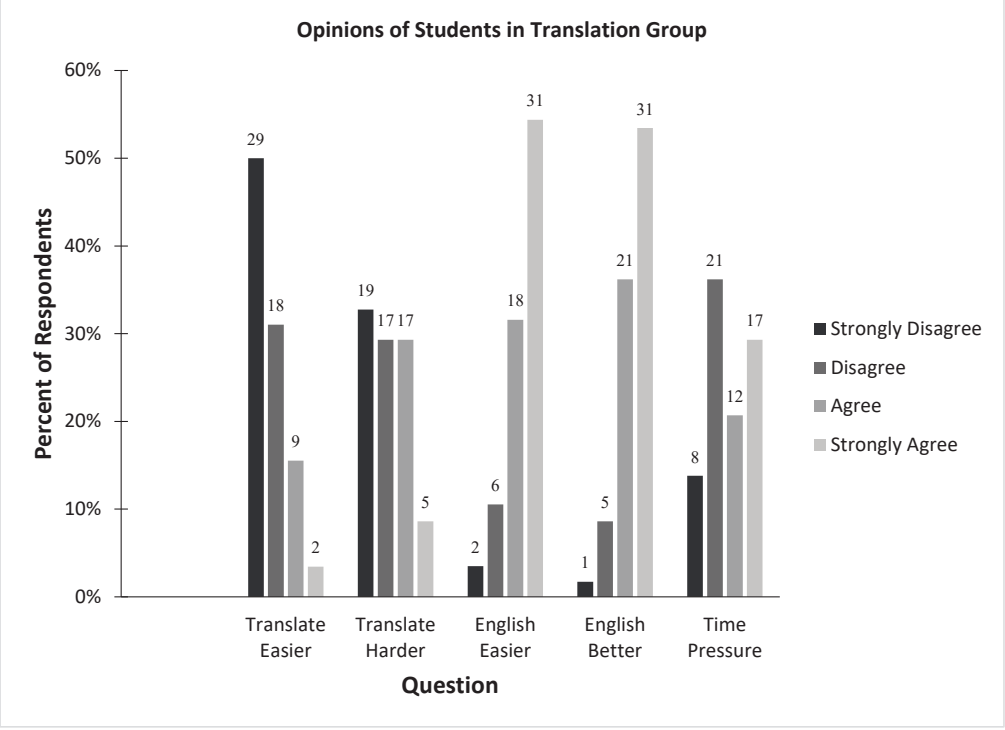
1. *I found it easier to write first in Norwegian and then translate than to write directly in English.*
2. *I found it difficult to translate my Norwegian essay into English.*

3. *I think it is easier to write directly in English than to translate.*
4. *In my opinion, thinking in English during the whole process is better than translating.*
5. *I felt that I had time pressure to complete my translation into English.*

The analysis of the items on the translation subscale is presented in Figure 3:

Figure 3

Opinions of Students in Translation Group



It is apparent from Figure 3 that the students agree that translation was more challenging than direct composition. Furthermore, half of the students report experiencing time pressure when translating their drafts to English.

Translanguaging group

The following two items on the translanguaging subscale aimed to evoke the students' opinions:

1. *I believe that use of other languages in the writing process contributes positively in such areas as (a) vocabulary, (b) grammar, (c) content, (d) structure.*
2. *I prefer to stick to English during the whole writing process.*

Figure 4 contains the analysis of the responses to the items above:

Figure 4

Opinions of Students in Translanguaging Group

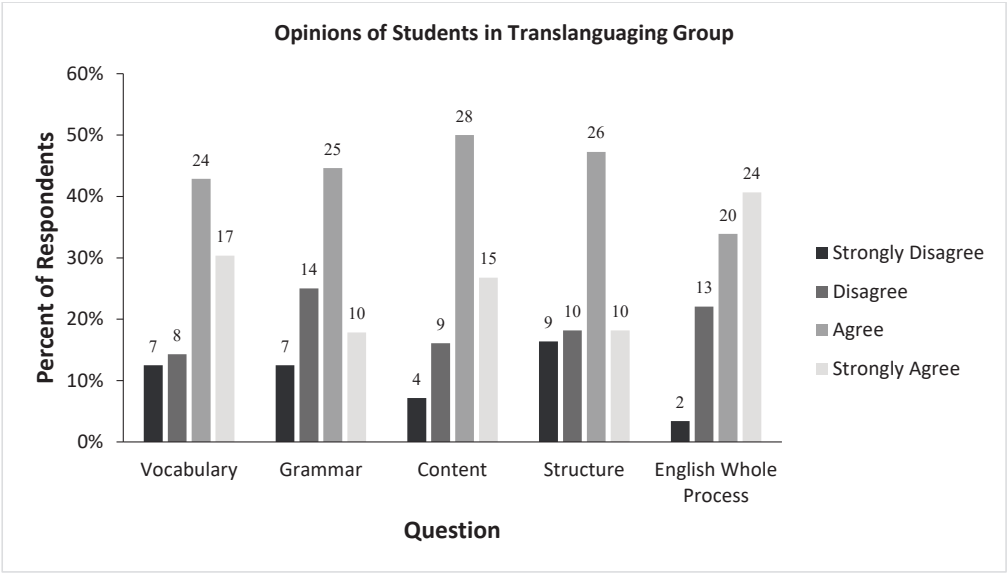


Figure 4 illustrates a striking discrepancy in the students' perceptions of the potential benefits of translanguaging, as many of the responders found translanguaging to have a positive effect on vocabulary, grammar, content, and

structure of their texts. Conversely, most students reported that they preferred to stick to English during the whole writing process, which contrasts with their positive assessment of translanguaging on the first item.

We now turn to the analysis of the final open-ended items eliciting the students' feedback on the alternative writing conditions, i.e. translation and translanguaging. The participants in the translation group answered the following question: *"Would you consider using translation more often when you write a text in English? Why/why not?"*

First, we divided the total number of the responses (*N*=53) from the translation group into two categories: namely, 41 negative (77%) and nine (17%) positive ones; three students (6%) formed a separate category as they pointed out both positive and negative sides of the translated writing. Then the negative responses were broken down into subcategories based on which kind of reasoning the students provided in their answers to the question. Out of 41 negative responses, 25 students (61%) found translation to be a time consuming and strenuous process, while 13 students (32%) thought that translation would have a negative effect on their English essays in terms of vocabulary choices, grammar and sentence structure. Specifically, one of the responders noted that use of translation could result in "Norwenglish". The remaining three negative responses provided reasons outside of the given areas.

The positive feedback from nine responders (17%) seemed to revolve around the idea of achieving a better structure and content in the English essays as a result of having a Norwegian draft as template. A few examples of the negative and positive comments are given in Table 2[27]:

[27] We preserved the original sentence structure and punctuation when we translated the examples from Norwegian to English. Words in square brackets are added for clarity purposes.

Table 2

Positive and Negative Feedback on Translated Writing

Positive feedback	Negative feedback
(1) I haven't tried it [translation] before but I think that it was considerably easier to write in English when I had a draft in Norwegian as a starting point. My text was better when I could write in Norwegian first. Thanks for the super writing- and learning strategy!	(6) *It takes twice as long to finish the task.*
	(7) It was much harder to translate than to write in English from the beginning.
	(8) English sentences can be constructed in so many different ways. If I translate from Norwegian, sentences in English text will be too "simplified".
(2) I got a better structure of my text.	
(3) … Those struggling with English can get some help.	*(9) It [translation] cripples my vocabulary horribly.*
(4) It is a good way to understand texts, and also how to translate from Norwegian into English.	(10) *… Norwegian expressions that may function well in a Norwegian text, do not work in an English text. The whole text must be written differently.*
(5) My problem is not about writing, but what to write about, I tend to get "writer's block" very easily, so this [translation]made it easier for me because I didn't have to come	*(11) My experience was that I had to concentrate really hard to*

	up with ideas as I was writing [the English text].	*prevent my English text from containing lots of Norwegian grammar, words and expressions.*
		(12) I feel that I am stuck with words and structure [of the Norwegian text], and I'd rather write freely from the beginning.
		(13) I personally like English better than Norwegian. That is why I think it is better to write texts in English. I feel less pressure since the English text doesn't have to be "perfect", which is required of the Norwegian text because Norwegian is my mother tongue.
		(14) It is important to be able to think in English […] considering written and oral exams.

As mentioned earlier, three respondents recognized both advantages and disadvantages of translation, namely, that it might be a good way to develop better writing skills in both Norwegian and English provided there was enough time to complete the task.

The students in the translanguaging group answered a similar question: *"Would you consider using other languages more often when you write a text in English? Why/why not"?*

Fifty-one students in the translanguaging group provided answers to this question. Thirty-four students (67%) gave negative feedback; 14 students (27%) found translanguaging to be beneficial in certain areas; one student noted both advantages and disadvantages, and two students answered "I don't know". The negative responses appear to be attributed to three distinctive factors: (a) some students found mixing language to be confusing and demanding, (b) some preferred to use English as much as possible, and (c) some did not see any purpose of mixing languages in terms of learning outcomes. For example:

(15) *My thoughts get fuzzy when I have to write in two different languages.* (a)

(16) *I don't like to switch to another language because then I have to change the way I think, and it is hard.* (a)

(17) *It is very confusing and annoying.* (a)

(18) *Even though Norwegian is my mother tongue, English and English-speaking friends are a large part of my life.* (b)

(19) *I find it easier to express myself in English.* (b)

(20) *English is an international language, and I'd like to use it as much as possible.* (b)

(21) *It is best to stick to the right language from the beginning.* (c)

(22) *It is easier to write in English if you think only in English.* (c)

(23) *I can't see any point in doing it.* (c)

(24) *It is all right to write in English, I can't see any reason why one should use other languages when one writes.* (c)

(25) *I'm not sure how much I learn from it.* (c)

Fourteen students (27%) who gave a positive feedback on translanguaging stressed the creative side of the process, as well as its potential to make texts more engaging and exciting. Some also pointed out that use of more than one language could help write longer texts in English. Below are some examples of the positive responses:

(26) *It opens up the possibility for including jokes and other stuff in the text.*

(27) *It gives a more multicultural feeling to the text, and also makes it more fun to write and read.*

(28) *I think it was a new and better way to write. I liked that it[text] turned out to be much more creative.*

(29) *It engages more parts of your brain and makes you think in a more varied way.*

(30) *It helps to write longer texts.*

(31) *I can use Norwegian because it helps me to write.*

(32) *I'd like to be able to use Norwegian… because I feel that I have more control over the text.*

(33) *The way you express yourself in English and Norwegian is rarely the same. Sometimes it might be good to use Norwegian words in English texts and vice versa to create the desired "effect". There is a lot you just cannot translate directly, so you have to rewrite it to make it fit another language, and then it loses its effect.*

One student pointed out that it could be fun to mix languages, though it could also be a bit strenuous to juggle two or more languages at the same time.

Sample representativeness

Since only around 84% of the participants who wrote essays responded to the questionnaire on language use and feedback, we took steps to address the issue of sample representativeness in this study. One concern is that the students who

answered the questionnaire may not be representative of all students who wrote essays. To test this theory, we compared the students who did answer the questionnaire about language use and feedback to the students who did not but wrote an essay, and compared across the three writing strategy groups. No significant differences (α = .05) were found between omission and inclusion in this study across writing strategy groups in terms of essay quality (grammatical and lexical accuracy or communicative ability). A main effect was found for word count (where students who answered the questionnaire in any group did, on average, write longer essays; F (1,272) = 5.14, p = .02, partial η^2 = .02), however the effect size is negligible. Another concern was that the writing conditions may be composed of different demographics. A chi-square test indicated that there were significantly less males in the translation group compared to the English-only and translanguaging groups (χ^2(2) = 6.19, p = .045, φ = .18). However, no significant differences (α = .05) were found between the three writing strategy groups for Norwegian proficiency, English proficiency, or proficiency in a language beyond English and Norwegian. In addition, there were no significant differences in response rate between the groups on the use of languages and feedback questionnaire, however significantly fewer people in the translanguaging group responded to the demographics questionnaire (i.e. proficiency levels and gender) (χ^2(4) = 79.85, p < .01, φ = .50).[28] Based on these results, we can conclude that the sample in this study is representative of the original sample in Prilutskaya, Knoph & Hanssen (2020). Consequently, the students' language use and perceptions appear to represent those of all the students whose essays were analyzed in the previous investigation.

[28] The sample representative analyses are based on setting α = .05 with no correction for Type I error. If we set α = .01 and/or correct for Type I error, then only the final difference would continue to be significant (reporting differences). We chose the less stringent criterion to be as transparent as possible and provide the reader with the opportunity to see potential group differences, even if not commonly considered significant.

Discussion

Our first research question sought to understand the students' use of languages in different writing conditions during the drafting and final stages of the composing process. English as a metacognitive language of choice had a strong presence in all writing conditions. It is reasonable to assume that thinking in English had to be a prerequisite of composing a final product in English even when other language(s) was/were employed at a draft stage in the translation and translanguaging writing conditions.

Interesting findings in terms of language use were obtained from the translanguaging group because translanguaging allowed the students to employ the language(s) of their choice while the English-only and the translation modes limited the language of draft to either English or Norwegian (or another L1/dominant language). All three language modes (Grosjean, 2008), i.e. English-only, Norwegian-only, and translanguaging were reported by the students in the translanguaging group. Translanguaging was employed mostly for idea-generating and writing a draft. This indicates that the students responded well to translanguaging as an alternative approach to compose a text in English even though it was an unfamiliar way of writing an essay in a typical English classroom in Norway. In this respect, it is important to note that the context of teaching English in Norway is monolingually oriented, i.e. in addition to the English-only format of nationally administered exams, the purpose of introducing other languages to ELT is limited to fostering metalinguistic awareness between English and L1 (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).

In light of Wang & Wen's (2002) model of the L2 writing process, the correspondence between various language modes and various stages of the writing process is of interest. A large proportion of our participants reported utilizing substantially more English at the task-examining and text-generating stages (writing

the final product), whereas idea-generating, content-organizing, and text-structuring activities are reported to be strongly associated with Norwegian. These findings support Wang & Wen's model, according to which the aforementioned facets of L2 writing are labeled as L1 dominant. In addition, the strategic use of L1 for organizing ideas and structuring information is consistent with the empirical findings in the field (Wang & Wen, 2002; Manchón et al., 2007; Woodall, 2002; Wolfersberger, M., 2003; Gunnarsson et al., 2015). However, the indicated use of L1 is associated with the responses of the translanguaging group, whereas the students in the English-only condition did not report using Norwegian for the outlined purposes.

The students in the translanguaging group also answered an open-ended question about their choice of language(s) at a draft stage. The responses show that the students are highly aware of their choices of language(s) for certain purposes. For instance, the choice of the English-only approach for the draft and the final product was explained in terms of saving time and effort. It is noteworthy that the students who decided to stick to either English or Norwegian in their drafts had concerns about "bad English" or "Norwenglish" and thus purposefully avoided mixing the languages. Their negative attitude towards mixing languages suggests that the students do not engage in translingual writing practices in school settings on a regular basis.

An important aspect of the students' language preferences had to do with self-presence, rhetoric, and stylistic facets of writing. As a case in point, the students who wrote their drafts in Norwegian felt that it helped them strengthen their sense of authorship. This might be beneficial to Norwegian learners beyond our sample who, according to Horverak's study (2015) of students' feedback on writing instruction in Norwegian upper secondary schools, lack confidence in their English writing skills. Enhancing stylistic and rhetorical features of the texts is another facet of translanguaging mentioned by the participants, namely, that incorporating other

languages into the fabric of the text gave the students an opportunity to engage the reader and convey desired atmosphere.

Importantly, the students in the translanguaging group expressed their willingness to engage in translanguaging for purposes of exploration, thus demonstrating their openness to experiment with languages. Openness to crosslingual writing practices in classroom settings conveyed by our participants can be viewed as a potentially effective tool for creating engaging and stimulating learning activities, which may facilitate students' ability to employ their linguistic repertoire in more innovative and learner-oriented ways.

We also asked the participants in the translation and translanguaging groups whether they would consider using the respective writing approaches in the future. Roughly two thirds of the participants in both groups expressed a negative attitude towards the use of either translation or translanguaging at the draft stage of writing. For instance, some described translation as time consuming and demanding, while mixing languages or translanguaging was confusing and distracting. These responses may reflect a prevailing monolingual orientation in L2 instruction in the Norwegian context. Providing the students with more time and opportunity to practice both translation and translanguaging might be a way of counteracting some of the expressed negative attitudes and persuading the students of the value of experimenting with translation and translanguaging while composing in additional language (see Turnbull, 2019). After all, about one third of the participants in the translation and translanguaging groups point to several important positive outcomes, i.e. achieving a better structure and content because of the scaffolding function of translation attributed to having a draft in L1 as a starting point. When it comes to translanguaging, the students noted the creative side of composing a text in this way; they also felt that translanguaging resulted in longer and more engaging writing. To sum up, the benefits of translation and translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in a target language can be interpreted in terms of their potential for improving the

communicative ability of the students' writing. The latter interpretation was partially confirmed in the previous study of the quality of essays produced under three different writing conditions (Prilutskaya, Knoph & Hanssen, 2020), which showed that the students in the translation group were able to express their ideas in a more coherent and efficient manner compared to those in the translanguaging group. A possible explanation as to why the students in the translanguaging group failed to exploit the potential benefit of utilizing their entire linguistic repertoire may be because only 30% of the students in this group actually engaged in translanguaging. In addition, we must consider the novelty of translanguaging as a writing strategy for our participants.

Concluding Remarks: Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

This study has its limitations. First, all data reported in this current study was based on self-reports and thus relies on the participants' understanding of the questions, their honesty, their introspective ability, and willingness to provide well-thought and adequate answers. We chose to elicit self-reports because of the nature of the phenomena being studied: internal processes and student perceptions. Therefore, it is not surprising that the students' responses are the primary source of data suitable for the purposes of this investigation. Another important limitation of this study concerns the analysis of the data: we employed descriptive statistics and a qualitative approach, which does not allow for generalization of the results to a larger population.

The main contribution of this study lies in its focus on the use of students' linguistic resources as well as the students' perceptions of crosslingual writing practices. Our results indicate that the students are strategic and inquisitive in the way they use their linguistic repertoire, and that there is more work to be done to harness the existing potential for the development of more individualized and engaging pedagogical practices. Specifically, empirical research is needed to explore

the potential of translation and translanguaging as crosslingual scaffolding techniques in teaching writing in L2. Future studies may benefit from expending the methodological apparatus to include think-aloud protocols, focus-group interviews, and stimulated recall data in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamic processes in the mind of emergent bi- and multilingual learners when they compose in a target language. A fruitful area for further work may include focusing on the utility of translation and translanguaging in classroom assessment design and practice due to the growing demand for innovative and inclusive approaches to language assessment in multilingual settings (see, for instance, García, 2009; López, et al., 2017; Schissel, 2014).

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Appendix A: Questionnaire "Language background"

1. Is Norwegian your mother tongue?

   1.1. If yes, have you got another mother tongue?

   1.2. If no, what is your mother tongue?

   1.3. How proficient are you in Norwegian? (basic, intermediate, fluent)

2. How do you assess your general proficiency level in English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)?

3. Assess your ability to:

   3.1. Read in English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)

   3.2. Write in English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)

   3.3. Speak English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)

   3.4. Understand spoken English (basic, intermediate, advanced, fluent)

4. Have you ever stayed in any English-speaking countries over a longer period of time (longer than a month)?

   4.1. If yes, where and for how long?

5. Have you ever stayed in any non-English speaking countries (where you had to speak English) over a longer period of time (longer than a month)?

   5.1. If yes, where and for how long?

6. Do you speak any other languages besides Norwegian and English?

   6.1. If yes, which ones? Assess your general proficiency level in this (these) languages: basic, intermediate, fluent.

Appendix B: Writing Prompts

Group 1: Translation

Du har akkurat ankommet Tokyo! Du har pass, telefon, kredittkort, og klærne du har på deg. Neste fly hjem går om tre dager, du snakker ikke språket, så du må klare deg selv i en stor fremmed by. Å oppholde seg på flyplassen er ikke aktuelt. Hva vil du gjøre for å skaffe deg mat, overnatting, og transport mens du er der? Hva syns du om denne opplevelsen?

Group 2: English only

You are asked to write a short essay in English on the following theme: You have just arrived in Tokyo! You have your passport, your phone, a credit card, and the clothes on your back. The next plane home is in three days, so you'll have to stay on your own in a very big city where you do not speak the language. Staying in the airport is not an option. What steps will you take to find food, housing, and transportation while you're waiting? How do you feel about this experience?
Please use the entire time you are given to write as much as you can. Don't worry about looking up words or facts, just be creative and describe as much as you can.

Group 3: Translanguaging

You are asked to write a short essay in English, eller på norsk eller annen språk, or a blend of languages, on the following theme:

Du har akkurat ankommet Tokyo! Du har pass, telefon, kredittkort, og klærne du har på deg. Neste fly hjem går om tre dager, and you don't speak the language, så du må klare deg selv i en stor fremmed by. Å oppholde seg på flyplassen er ikke aktuelt. Hva vil du gjøre for å skaffe deg mat, overnatting, og transport mens du er der? Hva syns du om denne opplevelsen?

Appendix C: Questionnaire "Use of languages and feedback on writing conditions"

Please assess the following statements by choosing the alternative that describes your writing strategies and opinion best. Remember there is no right or wrong answer, just be honest and assess the statements as accurately as possible. Use the scale below:

1=Strongly disagree 2=Disagree 3=Agree 4=Strongly agree

Other options are provided when necessary.

Note: you can only choose one alternative for each of the statements.

For open questions, provide full answers.

English only

Statements	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I found myself thinking in Norwegian and translating				
How much did you use Norwegian to organize your text?	Very little	Fairly little	Fairly much	Very much
How much did you think in Norwegian as you were writing the text?	Very little	Fairly little	Fairly much	Very much
I think that writing directly in English helps to learn the language				
I think that writing directly in English helped me focus on English expressions				
I think that thinking in English during the whole process is better than translating				

Translation mode

Statements	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I found myself thinking in English as I was writing in Norwegian	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I think it is easier to write directly in English than to translate				
In my opinion, thinking in English during the whole process is better than translating				
I felt that I had time pressure to complete my translation into English				
I found it difficult to translate my Norwegian essay into English				
I found it easier to write first in Norwegian and then translate than to write directly in English				
Would you consider using translation more often when you write a text in English? Why/why not?				

Translanguaging mode

Statements				
Which language(s) did you think in as you were reading the writing prompt?				
Which language(s) did you use as you generated ideas for your essay?				
Which language(s) did you resort to when you organized the content of your essay?				
Which language(s) did you use when you thought through the structure of your essay (e.g., introduction, main part, and conclusion)?				
Which language(s) did you use when you started to write the final text?				
Which language(s) did you use in your draft? Please explain why you did it in this way.				
I believe that use of other languages in the writing process contributes positively in such areas as:				
Vocabulary	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Grammar	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Content	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Structure	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
I prefer to stick to English during the whole writing process	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**

Would you consider using other languages more often when you write a text in English? Why/why not?	

Paper III

Writing in L2: Norwegian Students' Use of Translanguaging at the Draft Stage

Marina Prilutskaya

Abstract

This study explores Norwegian students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing in English (L2). 37 drafts containing language alternation were analyzed using the proposed integrated framework of translanguaging and pragmatic code-switching. The analysis showed that the students' uses of translanguaging range from a strategic juxtaposition of linguistic elements fulfilling certain socio-pragmatic functions, to highly flexible language alternation with the aim of generating content or experimenting with one's linguistic repertoire. Based on the results, the study argues for the utility of the integrated framework of translanguaging and code-switching in answering the call for more empirical research on written form(s) of translanguaging in mainstream multilingual language classrooms.

Keywords: *pragmatic code-switching; language mixing; linguistic repertoire; integrated framework.*

Introduction

This paper reports on a study of Norwegian first-year upper secondary school students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing an essay in English, their L2[29]. I collected 78 drafts written under a translanguaging writing condition, that is

[29] English is in the process of becoming a second language in Norway (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). However, English may be a foreign language (or L3) for some of the participants who did not report their proficiency in Norwegian (See Table 1). For simplicity, I use the "L2" abbreviation to refer to both FL and L2.

when the students were given a prompt (see Appendix) to mix languages during the draft stage of writing as a scaffolding technique before producing a final product in English. This definition of translanguaging is based on its original conceptualization as a pedagogical language alternation practice used to promote students' literacy development across languages (Williams, 1994, 1996).

Out of 78 drafts, 37 (47%) contained language alternation. Drawing on the work by Alvarez-Caccamo (1998), I employ the term "language alternation" in a broad sense to denote the alternating use of two or more recognizable linguistic varieties that may or may not carry discourse meaning and thus function as an intended contextualisation strategy (Auer,1999). In other words, the term keeps "the notions of communicative code and linguistic variety separate" (Alvarez-Caccamo, 1998, p. 38) allowing for the possibility to switch the communicative intend (code) with or without a switch to another language (dialect, register, style, prosodic register). The opposite is also possible, i.e. the change in a linguistic form may not necessarily signify an intended discourse function.

37 drafts containing language alternation were analyzed using the proposed integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching. Different ways of conceptualizing code-switching have led to the divergence of the code-switching research paradigm from the translanguaging paradigm. While acknowledging a certain degree of overlap between code-switching and translanguaging, many scholars are concerned with elucidating the differences between the two constructs (García, 2009; García & Li Wei, 2014; Slembrouck & Rosiers, 2017). More specifically, researchers often stress that code-switching is first and foremost a linguistic term invoking its structuralist heritage, whereas translanguaging is grounded in a broader sociolinguistic and ecological approach, not least as a pedagogy of language and an antidote to the monolingual norm and ideology in language classrooms and beyond (García & Kano, 2014; Jonsson, 2017; Lewis et al., 2012; Paulsrud et al., 2017). So far, the pedagogical potential of the written form of translanguaging in mainstream

multilingual classrooms has received scant attention in the literature (Canagarajah, 2011; Velasco & García, 2014). To the best of my knowledge, no previous study has investigated the discourse-related aspect of translanguaging in L2 writing. Therefore, I propose to synthesize the two research paradigms by examining the students' use of translanguaging in writing through the lens of the pragmatic functions of written code-switching. Otherwise stated, this paper seeks to fill a knowledge gap in research on written translanguaging by arguing for the utility of the sociolinguistic perspective in research on code-switching in answering the call for more empirical research on translanguaging as a writing strategy in multilingual language classrooms. The overall goal of the paper is to lay the groundwork for an integrated framework of translanguaging and pragmatic code-switching and to demonstrate the utility of the integrated approach in enhancing our understanding of how Norwegian L2 learners may employ their linguistic resources at the draft stage of writing in English.

I begin with a theoretical exploration of the origins of translanguaging and code-switching as well as the relationship between the two concepts. The remaining part of the paper is concerned with the empirical investigation of the students' translingual writing. The analysis is based on the integrated framework of code-switching and translanguaging proposed in the theory section of the paper. According to this framework, code-switching that serves as a contextualization cue (Auer, 1999) may constitute one manifestation of translingual practice (Canagarajah, 2013) under the umbrella term of translanguaging since the latter encompasses "a variety of discursive and pedagogical practices" (Cenoz, 2017).

Theory

Translanguaging and Code-switching

The term *translanguaging* was conceived in an educational context by the Welsh educator Cen Williams (1994, 1996) to denote a planned teacher-initiated

pedagogical activity based on a purposeful concurrent use of two languages within a lesson or task. For Williams, translanguaging is a valuable strategy that should be encouraged and utilized in bilingual language classrooms to promote children's development in both languages. Since then the term has been further developed by a number of scholars (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García, 2009; García & Kano, 2014; García & Li Wei, 2014; García & Otheguy, 2014; Jonsson, 2017; Lewis et al., 2012; Li Wei, 2018; Otheguy et al., 2015; Paulsrud et al., 2017) to refer to a wide range of complex language behavior in multilingual speakers in and outside of the educational context. Consequently, translanguaging evolved into an open-ended construct (Slembrouck & Rosiers (2017), which may accommodate diverse bilingual practices, including code-switching (García, 2009).

Despite observable commonalities between pedagogical translanguaging and classroom code-switching (Lewis et al., 2012), code-switching studies have been criticized for supporting the dual competence perspective on bilingual proficiency since "codes" imply the separation of linguistic systems[30] (García & Otheguy, 2014; Otheguy et al., 2015). As a response to the critique of code-switching for supposedly promoting the dual competence model, MacSwan (2017) points to ample literature on bilingualism and code-switching[31] that adopts the holistic perspective on bilingualism to account for high levels of complexity, systematicity, and creativity involved in language alternation.

It is against this background that code-switching in this paper is conceptualized as one possible realization of translanguaging since both are rooted in the holistic view on bilingualism. In the next section, I lay out the premises of the integrated model of pragmatic code-switching and translanguaging in light of different interpretations of "codes".

[30] In the next section, I show that in the sociolinguistic approach to code-switching the understanding of "codes" as separate linguistic systems has been reexamined by a number of scholars.
[31] See MacSwan (2017) for the overview of studies.

Code-switching, Language Mixing, and Translanguaging: Towards the Integrated Framework

Code-switching has been studied since the 1950s. Jakobson, Fant & Halle, (1952), Fano (1950), and Fries & Pike (1949) first introduced the notion of "switching codes" as a scientific phenomenon to refer to the coexistence of phonemic systems in the mind of a monolingual or bilingual speaker. A later definition of code-switching as an alternation between languages (dialects, styles, etc.) stems from early studies on bilingualism (Weinreich, 1953; Haugen, 1956; Mackey, 1962) that focus on a systematic description of bilingual speech with the purpose of mapping linguistic choices of bilinguals. In order to predict when, how, and why the switch to another language would occur at least two distinct "codes" had to be identified. A "code" became synonymous with a language (and/or a language variety) and thus was reified by the analyst in actual speech data.

A different, interactional, approach in research on language alternation in speech was introduced and developed by Gumperz (1957, 1964) who looked into the social functions of code-switching, i.e. code-switching was studied in relation to the enactment, maintenance, and deconstruction of communicative roles and social identities. The interactional approach to code-switching resulted in the framework of socio-pragmatic functions of oral code-switching (McClure, 1981; Gumperz, 1982; Poplack, 1980; Valdés-Fallis, 1976). A more detailed account of this framework and its application to the analysis of written code-switching is given in the "Analytical framework" section.

The interactional approach to code-switching marked an important shift from the structural to the interpretive perspective with the starting point in meaning rather than structure. The latter requires linguists to regard a speaker's and/or listener's interpretation of language alternation in conversation as a point of departure. In this connection, Alvarez-Cáccamo (1998) challenges the way code-switching research often presupposes the existence of at least two distinct codes in

bilingual conversation, each used to fulfill a particular pragmatic function whereas numerous examples of bilingual data contain language alternation that is perceived by the participants and linguists as virtually functionless. Instances of so-called "unmarked" or "free switching" were labeled as such and have not been explicitly addressed in the literature. With this in mind, Auer (1998) points out that a more appropriate approach to the analysis of data containing language contact entails establishing function rather than codes, i.e. functionally meaningfully transitions should be labeled "code-switching", whereas those not exhibiting any clear pragmatic intention on the part of the speaker, may be referred to as instances of "mixed code". When describing "mixed code", Auer (1998) emphasizes a frequent and seamless alternation between languages or language varieties that "does not carry meaning *qua* language choice for the bilingual participants" and often does not "receive neither discourse- nor participant-related interpretations" (p. 16, emphasis in the original). In his later work, Auer (1999, 2014) employs the term "language mixing" to refer to the aforementioned type of language alternation. Auer (2014) maintains that "language mixing" should be distinguished from code-switching since, unlike code-switching, it lacks the discourse-functional aspect. The notion of "language mixing" seems to capture much of how translanguaging has been defined in the literature, for instance, "as bilingualism without diglossic functional separation" (García, 2007, p. xii), and later as a dynamic communicative practice where "languages are no longer assigned separate territories or even separate functions, but they may co-exist in the same space" (García, 2009, pp. 78-79).

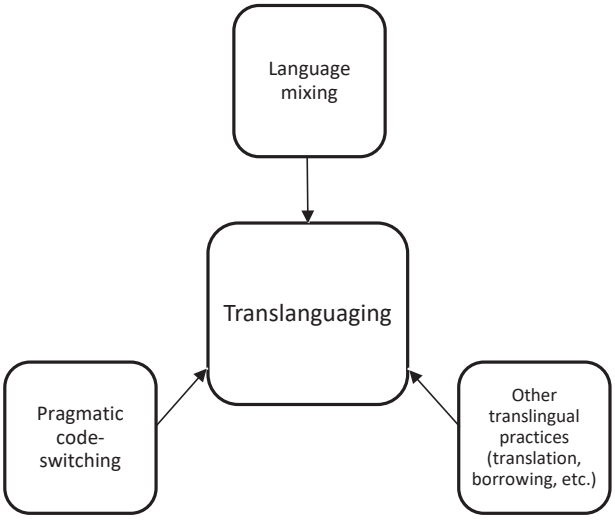
Given what has been discussed so far, alternating use of languages by bilinguals appears to be much less homogeneous than a traditional understanding of code-switching entails. The last 40 years of code-switching research from the sociolinguistic perspective have shown that language alternation has properties of a continuum spanning from intentional pragmatic contrast of two codes (pragmatic code-switching) to a smooth and uninterrupted flow of language alternations in

which none of the languages assumes any distinct discourse function ("language mixing")[32].

Consequently, a more differentiated analytical approach is needed to grasp the diverse nature of language alternations in the students' drafts. In this approach, the designation code-switching is reserved for the type of language alternation that carries a particular socio-pragmatic function (e.g. clarification, lexical needs, quotes, parenthetical comments, etc.), while translanguaging is an overarching concept that includes all kinds of translingual practice, i.e. pragmatic code-switching, language mixing, translation, borrowing, etc. Figure 1 illustrates the proposed integrated framework:

Figure 1

The Integrated Framework of Translanguaging and Code-switching



[32] Note that Auer (1999, 2014) extends the continuum further to include "fused lects" and "language fusion" as the extreme forms of language contact happening on a deeper grammatical level and resulting in new structures. Such extreme forms of language contact are not applicable to the present corpus.

In the sections that follow, the integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching is applied to the analysis and interpretation of the students' translingual strategies in writing.

Method

Participants and Data

The original corpus of 78 drafts was obtained as part of a larger study of the effect of three writing instructions on the quality of essays written by Norwegian first-year upper secondary school students (Prilutskaya, Knoph & Hanssen, 2020). A total of 288 first-year upper secondary school students (age 15-16) from two mainstream schools in Norway received a task to write a fantasy narrative essay in English. The participants were assigned randomly (on a class-by-class basis) to one of three writing instruction groups: English-only, translation, and translanguaging. The students in the English-only group wrote their drafts and final essays in English; the students in the translation group were asked to write the drafts in Norwegian and then translate them into English. Finally, the students in the translanguaging group were prompted to mix languages in their drafts before writing a final product in English. The language(s) of instruction including the writing prompts varied between the groups. English was used for the English-only condition, Norwegian for the translation condition, and a mix of Norwegian and English for the translanguaging condition (see Appendix). The drafts collected from the translanguaging group are the focus of the analysis in the present study. In addition to writing the essays, the participants in all three groups filled out an on-line questionnaire where they reported their language background and gender. The responses from the translanguaging group are summarized in Table 1:

Table 1

Language Background and Gender

Item	Responses
Gender	
Male	29
Female	40
Not Reported	9
Norwegian proficiency	
Beginner	0
Intermediate	0
Fluent	0
Native	57
Not Reported	21
English Proficiency	
Beginner	2
Intermediate	18
Advanced	22
Fluent	17
Not Reported	19
L3 (or L4) Proficiency	
None	25
Beginner	15
Intermediate	11
Advanced	2

Fluent	1
Native	4
Not Reported	20

Note: All data are self-reported.

Analytical Framework: From Oral to Written Code-switching

Most proposed taxonomies of socio-pragmatic functions of oral code-switching include quotation, emphasis or clarification, triggered switches, stylistic switches, parenthetical comments, linguistic routines/idiomatic expressions, and lexical need switches (Valdés-Fallis, 1976; Poplack, 1980; McClure 1981; Gumperz, 1982; Zentella, 1997).

Edelsky (1986) was the first researcher who consistently applied the functional categories for oral code-switching to code-switching patterns in bilingual writing. In her comprehensive study of writing by elementary students enrolled in an English-Spanish bilingual program, Edelsky found that the children code-switched for clarification, direct quotation, ethnic group identity, emphasis, lexical variety, and because they learned a word or a phrase in that language. More recent studies of socio-pragmatic functions of written code-switching in adult bilingual writing showed that bilingual writers utilized code-switching in a similar manner (Montes-Alcalá, 2005, 2007; Losey, K. M., 2009).

It follows then that previous empirical research has provided the present study with a basic taxonomy of socio-pragmatic functions that is flexible, yet by no means exhaustive. It represents some of the most common functions of code-switching and thus offers a suitable starting point for examining language alternation in writing in the context that has not been explored before. The analytical procedures and the results obtained from them are described in the next section.

Analysis

To begin with, I grouped the drafts written under the translanguaging condition according to the students' choice of language(s). Here the term "translanguaging" is narrowed down to refer to language alternation within a single draft to separate it from translation. Table 2 shows the students' choices of language(s) in the drafts:

Table 2

Choice of Language(s) in the Drafts

	English only	**Norwegian only**	**Translanguaging**
Number and % distribution of drafts	14 (18%)	27 (35%)	37 (47%)
Mean Word Count	409.47	393.46	536.78
Standard Deviation	331.12	264.09	383.48

As seen from Table 2, nearly half of the students chose to mix languages in their drafts. By definition, the translanguaging sub-corpus was the one that contained language alternations and thus provided the data for the main investigation. The languages employed by the students include Norwegian (standard and a local dialect[33]), English, Swedish, French, Spanish, German, Greek, Icelandic, Japanese, and Nyanja (a Bantu language spoken in Malawi, Zambia, and other countries in Southern

[33] In Norway, there are two official languages, i.e. Norwegian and Sami. With regard to Norwegian, two standard written varieties of it (Bokmål and Nynorsk) are taught in schools. However, there are numerous spoken local dialects that Norwegians use on a daily basis. Since there is no standard variety of spoken Norwegian, these local variations are used in most contexts (Store norske leksikon, 2019).

Africa). Using a bottom-up approach to the analysis of 37 drafts that contained language alternations, I examined the patterns in the texts in the light of the previously outlined socio-pragmatic functions of code-switching in writing. These functions include:

- clarification and emphasis
- direct speech, quotation
- triggered switches
- lexical needs, variety, stylistic switches
- linguistic routines
- parenthetical comments
- language mixing (synonymous with "free switching" in other taxonomies)

The functional categories of code-switching in the drafts were determined based on the similarity to the examples in previous studies, contextual clues present in the texts, and my own judgement. Drawing on the nature of the patterns in the drafts, I adapted the existing analytical framework to reflect the students' use of translanguaging as accurately as possible. Specifically, the categories that are treated separately in the literature on written code-switching, such as *lexical needs, variety, and stylistic switches*, were collapsed into a single category for simplicity since (a) only three cases of genuine lexical need were detected, and (b) the other two categories seemed to overlap to a large degree.

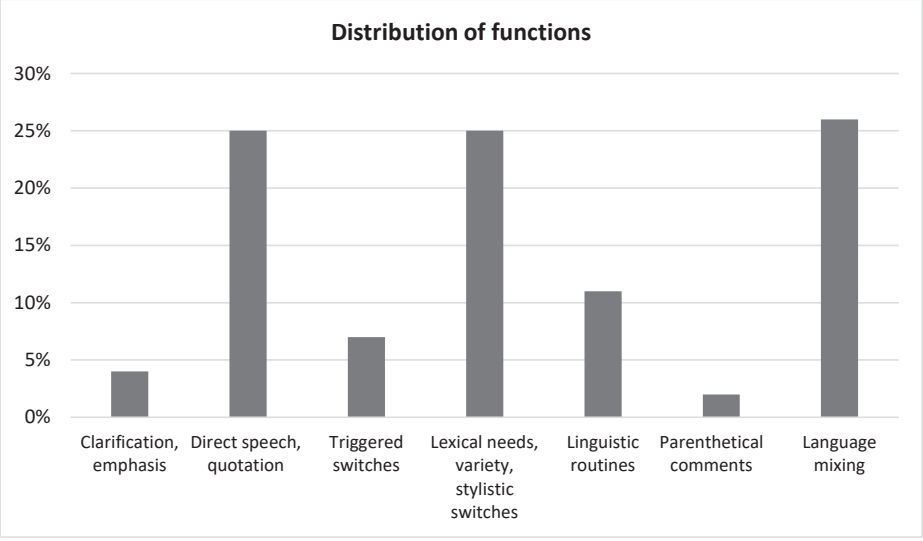
It is necessary to point out that the instances of *language mixing* were handled differently from other types of alternations, i.e. instead of counting every switch of this kind as an individual case, I chose to categorize *language mixing* as a single type of language alternation because it was employed consistently throughout the respective drafts. In such cases, it was difficult to determine where one case of *language mixing* ends and another one begins. In order to avoid a situation when the

proportion of *language mixing* would be artificially inflated due to the density of alternations within one text, I treated these dense language alternations as evidence of a single case of translanguaging, namely, *language mixing*.

The distribution of the functional categories that were identified in the drafts is illustrated in Figure 2:

Figure 2

Distribution of Functions



In the following section, I will provide a brief description of the outlined functions followed by the examples from the corpus.

Clarification, Emphasis

This type stands for around 4% of the total number of switches. As the name suggests, these switches are introduced to elaborate an idea or emphasize a certain image. Here I found alternations involving Norwegian and English:

(1) This huge and unknown city scares me. *Jeg er bare vant til lille og ufarlige X.* [I am only used to small and safe X][34]

(2) It would be the biggest and best party Tokyo *noen gang har sett.* [It would be the biggest and best party Tokyo has ever seen]

(3) […] *jeg snakker ingen japansk,* whatsoever. [I don't speak any Japanese, whatsoever]

Direct speech, Quotation

This is a productive category that accounts for 25% of the switches. There is a variety of languages associated with the switches for quotation, such as, English to Spanish (Example 5), Swedish to Norwegian (Example 6), French to Norwegian (Example 7), and others. Interestingly, the students make use of the opportunity to alternate not only between the languages but also between the standard and local varieties of Norwegian as in Example 8 where the author alternates between standard Norwegian and the local dialect.

(4) "Get in the car" *sier mannen med en gebrokken engelsk.* ["Get in the car" says the man in broken English]

(5) Then I tried in Spanish. "*Perdon, hola señorita".*

(6) *Var är du?* spør mamma, som forresten er svensk. [Where are you? Mom asks, who is Swedish by the way]

(7) *"Qui, je juste arrive á Tokyo … ça va bien … au revoir, tu me manque aussi".* Jeg legger mobiltelefonen i vesken min og tar frem kartet. ["Yes, I just arrived in Tokyo … it's ok … goodbye, I miss you too". I put my mobile phone in my purse and take out the map]

[34] All examples contain my close translation from Norwegian in square brackets, unless another base language is specified. The translated parts are intended to retain as many features of the original text as possible. Typos and misspellings that did not affect the content are corrected for clarity. Switches from a base language to a different one are in italics. In Example 1 "X" is used instead of the name of the city for anonymity purposes.

(8) Mamma babler i vei om at jeg skulle ha tatt et kart og kompass kurs før jeg dro hit. Det er så typisk mamma – å stresse over alt. *"Jada mamma, d går fint … næi, æ har ikke gløмt noe … men æ må gå nu mamma … jada … hade …".* [Mom is jabbering on and on that I should have taken a map and compass course before I went here. It's so typical mom – to stress about everything. "Yes mom … it's all right… no, I haven't forgotten anything … but I have to go now mom … yes, bye…"]

(9) *Jeg ser ut vinduet på de gigantiske bygningene, de ser enda større ut nærmere.* Welcome to Tokyo my friend. [I look out the window at the gigantic building, they look even bigger close up. Welcome to Tokyo my friend]

(10) I remember thinking "*Jeg vet jo at jeg kommer hele veien fra Norge men det er jo helt merkelig hvor mye folk endrer seg fra land til land*". [I know that I come all the way from Norway but it is weird how much people change from country to country]

(11) *"Hmmmm, jeg kan jo finne noe i dag og dra dit i mårra"* I think to myself. ["Hmmmm, I can find something today and go there tomorrow" I think to myself]

Triggered Switches

This category consists of around 7% of the total number of switches. Triggered switches appear to be prompted by the preceding word or phrase. In this category, I found alternations between Norwegian and English. The triggering word(s) is/are marked in bold face.

(12) Så drar jeg til **"Tokyo stock exchange"**. *There I will buy stocks in promising companies.* [So I go to "Tokyo stock exchange"]

(13) The second and last day I decided to do some business, so I could continue ***å tjene penger****. Jeg kjøpte aksjer.* [The second and last day I decided to do some business, so I could continue to earn money. I bought stocks]

(14) Jeg spør rundt meg om det er noen som kan engelsk *"**You talk English**???????" I ask several people, but everyone just looks at me like I'm some huge idiot.* [I ask around me if anyone can speak English]

Lexical Needs, Variety, Stylistic Switches

Lexical switches make up a productive category with around 25% of the total number of switches. The word "need" in this context does not necessarily refer to switches due to the participants' lack of language proficiency. As mentioned earlier, I could identify only three cases of what could be interpreted as a genuine lexical access problem. All three cases are from the same essay (see Example 15). The rest of the switches in this category can be ascribed to serving stylistic purposes, mainly, to enhance expressiveness. For instance, in Examples 16 and 17 the Japanese word and phrase are utilized for authenticity since the action is placed in Japan. Examples 18-23 illustrate how English words and expressions are employed for stylistic purposes, i.e. the students resort to English because it is a better fit for the message being conveyed. The students' stylistically motivated switches advertise the writers' intercultural competence, which is evident in the reference to the movie title and a rather habitual use of English colloquialisms.

(15) As I step out of the yellow taxi, a warm (*bris*) hits my face. The road is full of cars, buses and people biking, and the (*fortau*) is full of people. Finally, I find a site where the letters are (*gjenkjennelige*), and I search for the best hotel they have available. [breeze, pavement, recognizable]

(16) I will be sure to say *arigato* a lot.

(17) 良い一日 ["Good day" in Japanese]

(18) Kanskje, som i *the inception*, har du sett den? Veldi *mind twisting*! [Maybe like in "The Inception", have you seen it? Very mind twisting!]

(19) Ettersom jeg ikke kan språket er jeg ganske så *lost in this town.* [Since I can't speak the language, I'm quite lost in this town]

(20) Jeg ville ha tenkt at dette var en gylden mulighet *to explore*, og få nye opplevelser fra deres kultur og væremåte. [I would have thought this was a great opportunity to explore and to get new experiences from their culture and way of living]

(21) […] kredittkorte e "*limitless*" så æ bare tar d æ vil kjøp t kassa å dræg korte. *No question asked.* [Credit card is "limitless" so I just take what I want to buy to the cashier of swipe the card. No question asked]

(22) Jaja, d får vi ta på "*the big girl pants*" … bløh, æ hata sånne uttrykk. [Okay, on with the "big girl pants"…bløh, I hate sayings like that]

(23) De beste opplevelsene tror jeg fines hvor man kan ta et lite "*step back*" og ta inn alle minnene og plassene jeg hadde vert på. [The best experiences I think can be found when one can take a little 'step back' to reflect on all the memories and places I had visited]

Linguistic Routines

Around 11% of the total number of switches falls under this category. *Linguistic routines* imply use of a range of brand names, words, and phrases that are routinely used by Norwegian speakers in the original language, which is primarily English.

(24) "Hvorfor bruker du ikke bare *Google translate*?" ["Why don't you just use Google translate?"]

(25) Plutselig kommer vi på at vi må bestille flybillettene hjem, men når jeg skal betale, kommer det "*error*". [Suddenly we realize that we have to book our flight tickets home, but as I am about to pay, there is an "error"]

(26) "Hva slags sykt *game show* er dette?" ["What sort of a sick game show is this?"]

(27) Etter at jeg var ferdig gikk jeg ut og brukte *google maps* får finne en *shopping mall* får å kjøpe noen klær […]. [After I was done I went out and used google maps to find a shopping mall to buy some clothes]

Parenthetical Comments

This least productive category includes three cases and amounts to around 2% of the total number of switches. The first two examples (29 and 30) come from the same essay. Here the author inserts additional information in Norwegian to clarify and expend on the message expressed in the English sentence. The parenthetical comment in (31) serves a different purpose, i.e. it functions as a mental note to remind the author to add more information to the text at a later point of time.

(28) Carpets are usually soft and nice to walk on, which is why you find them in so many places, one of those places may be Japan (*æ veit ikke, har ikke vært der*). [I don't know, I haven't been there]

(29) Seeing how I can buy practically anything that I want (*som e lovlig i hvert fall*). [that is legal at least]

(30) Alle sansene som trigges. Lukten av mat; (*list of foods*). [All the senses triggered. Smell of food]

Language Mixing

This is the most prolific category in the corpus with around 26% of coverage. *Language mixing* includes cases where the alternation between languages seems to be unmotivated in terms of the socio-pragmatic functions mentioned earlier. The patterns of the switches in this category vary substantially, i.e. from rather dense multiple alternations within a single phrase or a sentence (Examples 31-35) to more orderly structured patterns where the author sticks to one language per paragraph, such as in Example 37 with one paragraph written in a non-standard French and the

next one in Norwegian. Mixing more than two languages is another distinct characteristic feature of *language mixing*, which is illustrated in Example 36 where the author shuttles between German (in italics), Norwegian, and English (in bold).

(31) The *første* [first] day I wanted to *se* [see] the city. I *hadde* [had] never been *i* [to] Tokyo before *så* [so] although I was disappointed with the plane delay, I figured this *kunne* [could] be a nice opportunity *til* [to] enjoy *meg* [my] selv *i* [in] a *nytt* [new] place. The first *ting* [thing] I did was *å finne* [to find] a nice hotel to leave *min* [my] luggage. I didn't have to travel *veldig* [very] far until I *fant* [found] a *fem stjerne* [five stars].

(32) I also bought a nice car and other *viktige ting* [important things] which I would need when I *reiser dit igjen* [go there again].

(33) *Det var noe rart med dette stede, folka, lufta, bygningene. Noe stemte ikke.* [There was something strange about the place, people, air, buildings. Something was not right] Chills were sent up and down my spine, I could feel it in my core. As I stepped of my plane I couldn't help but to freeze. Being Tokyo, the temperatures were reasonably high, but still *klarte jeg ikke å vri meg ifra frysens grep.* [I could not escape the grip of cold]

(34) *Etter det gikk jeg til en restaurant* [After that I went to the restaurant] to eat and it was deep fried everything, it was good because they fried potato, shrimp, fish, chicken, *grønnsaker.* [vegetables] *Jeg var mett.* [I was full]

(35) How was I going *til å overleve her i* [to survive here for] three days? I had to find a *plass jeg kunne bo.* [place to live] *Det kunne ikke være et problem* [It could not be a problem] in a city like this. *Jeg har penger og alt annet nødvendig.* [I have money and everything else I need]

(36) **Since** *ich habe* ubegrenset **amount of money**, **plan A is to pay some Japanese dude** til og *schreibt mein* **Text, so I** *kann* bare **enjoy my** ferie **in Tokyo**. **It sounds easy, but** tro meg, *es ist nicht*. **I don't give up easy, so** *ich* **turn** *zu* **plan B right away**. [Since I have an unlimited amount of money, plan A

is to pay some Japanese dude to write my text, so I can just enjoy my vacation in Tokyo. It sounds easy, but believe me, it is not. I don't give up, so I turn to plan B right away]

(37) Day one : je voudrais visite les attractions touristiques. Après les attractions, je voudrais achète chaussures et visite louis Vuitton, Versace, Prada, Fendi, Chanel et achète beaucoup. [I would like to visit the tourist attractions. After the attractions, I would like to buy shoes and visit Louis Vuitton, Versace, Prada, Fendi, Chanel and buy a lot]

Day two : Æ har allerede vært i ett land som æ ikkje kan språke tel, så det e null problem å komme sæ imella de forskjellige plassan. Dag to ville også ha gått til masse luksus shopping. [I have already been to a country where I could not speak the language, so there is zero problem with getting to different places. On day two I would also do lots of luxury shopping].

In the following pages I discuss the empirical findings in light of the proposed integrated framework.

Discussion and Concluding Remarks

As was pointed out in the introduction, the overall objective of this paper is to develop an integrated framework of translanguaging and code-switching in order to explore the students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage of writing a text in English. Drawing on the theoretical discussion of this paper, I have proposed a more nuanced approach to the conceptualization of code-switching as an intended contextualisation strategy (Auer, 1999) that fulfills one or more of the socio-pragmatic functions described in the adopted analytical framework. The data analysis showed that the students utilized code-switching for reasons similar to those identified in previous research, i.e. they switched for a quote or direct speech, for clarification, elaboration and emphasis, for stylistic purposes, and for linguistic routines. A large proportion of the switches for quotation found in the present corpus (25%) is not surprising as switching to the original language of speech or thought

helps achieve authenticity in written texts. Furthermore, when seen through the lens of Bakhtin's notion of *heteroglossia*, the insertion of another language/code for emphasis and, in particular, for direct speech and quotation adds a new dimension to the discussion of the students' use of translanguaging as a discourse strategy. The result of "incorporating intratextual discourses into the narrator's text" (Tjupa, 2009, p. 125) is the effect of multiple voices belonging to the narrator and characters and coexisting within the fabric of a single text. The use of a "hybrid construction" (Bakhtin, 1981) or "utterance within utterance" (Vološinov, 1929/1973) allows the narrator to distance themselves from the characters by giving the characters their own voice. As Tjupa (2009) points out, "the direct speech of a character often serves to express that character's linguistic view of the world, which can differ to a greater or lesser extent from the view of the world on which the narration is based" (p.126). The effect of multiple voices (*heteroglossia*) is not necessarily due to the use of different national languages. In some cases (see Example 8) the students turn to their local Norwegian dialect with the same purpose of creating another voice for themselves. It is possible that this voice is a better match to their sense of identity than the standard variety of Norwegian employed in the main body of the text.

Lexical needs as a functional category that involves a switch to another language due to a genuine lack of the equivalent was rare in the present corpus, perhaps, because of the participants' high level of proficiency in English. Code-switching was also used to create a mental note to remind the writer to edit a piece of text at a later point in time (*parenthetical comments)*.

The categories discussed so far have a clear functional profile, and thus are indicative of pragmatic code-switching. However, the category of *language mixing* manifests a different phenomenon since it was not associated with any particular socio-pragmatic function. Interestingly, *language mixing* was the most productive category, which points to the fact that the students seem to have good command of both pragmatic code-switching and language mixing. A feasible explanation of the

ample use of language mixing as a writing strategy was provided by the students in their answers to the on-line survey about their attitudes towards the translanguaging writing mode (Prilutskaya & Knoph, 2020). The students explained that they mixed languages in their drafts as they tried to generate as many ideas as possible irrespective of the language of thought. Perhaps, allowing the thoughts to be expressed in whatever language available at a given moment helped reduce cognitive load and facilitate access to content schemas in long-term memory. The content schemas deliver information about the topic and content organization and thus are important in terms of coping with cognitive demands of writing in another language. The students also noted that they mixed languages for stylistic and rhetorical purposes. However, not every case of language mixing indicated its use as a writing strategy as three of the participants reported mixing languages due to the nature of instruction and writing prompt as well as for the sake of experimenting with languages when given a chance to do so. With this in mind, Examples 31 and 36 may represent the task-induced artifacts rather than cases of naturally occurring language alternation since the switches often do not comply with syntactically definable constituent boundaries. The latter stands in contrast to a more commonly observed "constituent-by-constituent" pattern of switch in bilingual as well as monolingual speech production and processing (Azuma, 1996).

The category of *triggered switches* represents a curious phenomenon, i.e. on the one hand, the switches of this nature mark clear boundaries between the languages and in this regard are unlike the dense and multiple alternations of *language mixing*. On the other hand, the switches are not driven by any specific socio-pragmatic function. Montes-Alcalá (2000) suggested the following explanation of triggered switches that she identified in her data:

> It could well be that the sentence is already constructed in an abstract way in the mind of the speaker, before he/she knows in what language it will come out, so if a word is going to be switched later on, that could trigger a switch […].
>
> (p. 207)

The cognitive processes underlying triggered switches are likely to occur at the stage of translation that in Flower & Hayes's (1980) cognitive model of writing refers to the process of converting thoughts/ideas into symbols (written language). In this respect, *triggered switches* are more analogous to language mixing than pragmatic code-switching as they manifest the flexible and interconnected use of languages. However, since one can identify a trigger word or a phrase, *triggered switches* may occupy the middle ground between intentional switching and free language alternation.

Overall, this study confirms that the students utilize their linguistic resources in diverse ways. Forty-one students (53%) chose to stick to one language per draft (either English or Norwegian), even when they were prompted to mix the languages. The participants' monolingual preferences are compatible with the monolingually oriented context of teaching English in Norway, since in addition to the English-only format of nationally administered exams, the purpose of introducing other languages to ELT is limited to fostering metalinguistic awareness between English and L1 (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). Nonetheless, 37 students (47%) demonstrated that they are in possession of an array of diverse translingual writing strategies that range from a skillful and strategic use of contrasting linguistic elements fulfilling certain socio-pragmatic functions, to highly flexible language alternations that may occur for the purposes of generating content or experimenting with one's linguistic repertoire. The findings reported in this paper attest to the fact that the integrated framework of translanguaging and pragmatic code-switching may

be necessary to account for the students' diverse and complex use of translanguaging in writing as it allows for a more differentiated approach to study the written form of translanguaging. The present study aims to further translanguaging as an alternative pedagogy to contest the English-only approach to writing instruction in Norway because it provides the students with an opportunity to demonstrate a unique set of skills that remains obscured in the traditional monoglossic writing context.

Future studies should be carried out to further investigate this approach to the analysis and interpretation of the students' use of the written form(s) of translanguaging in other educational, instructional, and linguistic contexts. Further studies of the pedagogical affordances of the written form(s) of translanguaging may contribute to the expansion of student translanguaging to the domain of language assessment practices that need to accommodate the realities of multilingual classrooms in Norway and elsewhere. The findings of this investigation indicate that including student translanguaging in L2 writing instruction may be beneficial in terms of making a full range of the students' diverse use of their linguistic repertoire visible. The recently renewed version of the National Curriculum for English (LK20, The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019) stresses the importance of promoting learners' ability to recognize multilingualism as a resource in school and in society at large. In addition, teachers are required to plan and implement diverse assessment practices that allow learners to demonstrate their knowledge of English in various ways and in various contexts. With this in mind, translanguaging-based writing assessment practices can offer a way of recognizing and promoting learners' dynamic use of their linguistic resources in English language classrooms.

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Appendix: Writing Prompts

Translanguaging group

You are asked to write a short essay in English, eller på norsk eller annen språk, or a blend of languages, on the following theme:

Du har akkurat ankommet Tokyo! Du har pass, telefon, kredittkort, og klærne du har på deg. Neste fly hjem går om tre dager, and you don't speak the language, så du må klare deg selv i en stor fremmed by. Å oppholde seg på flyplassen er ikke aktuelt. Hva vil du gjøre for å skaffe deg mat, overnatting, og transport mens du er der? Hva syns du om denne opplevelsen?

English-only group

You are asked to write a short essay in English on the following theme: You have just arrived in Tokyo! You have your passport, your phone, a credit card, and the clothes on your back. The next plane home is in three days, so you'll have to stay on your own in a very big city where you do not speak the language. Staying in the airport is not an option. What steps will you take to find food, housing, and transportation while you're waiting? How do you feel about this experience?

This thesis investigates upper secondary school students' use of linguistic resources when writing in English, and consists of three studies that relate to the pedagogical affordances of a multilingual approach to English writing instruction in Norwegian mainstream schools.

The first study quantitatively explores the effect of three writing conditions (English only, translation, and translanguaging) on the quality of students' essays, and suggests that drafting in L1 or a dominant language before composing texts in English may improve the organization, coherence, and communicative ability of students' writing.

The second study combines quantitative and qualitative approaches to investigate students' self-reported use of background languages while writing in English, and captures students' feedback on the assigned writing condition. In addition to a strong English presence in all three writing conditions, the results also indicated use of L1 for organizing ideas and students' willingness to experiment with languages to enhance certain aspects of writing.

The third study explores students' use of translanguaging at the draft stage, using a specially developed integrated framework of translanguaging and written code-switching. The analysis shows how the uses of translanguaging range from pragmatic code-switching to highly flexible language alternation, with the aim of generating content or experimenting with one's linguistic repertoire.

Making space for translation and translanguaging as legitimate alternatives to English-only writing instruction thus offers learners a wider range of individualized writing strategies that may enhance certain aspects of writing and promote self-recognition of multilingualism as a resource. The present study answers the call for more research that embraces a multilingual approach to English writing instruction in Norway, and provides support for teachers who face the implications of teaching English in an increasingly multilingual society.

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