



Language teacher multilingualism in Norway and Russia: Identity and beliefs

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Abstract

Multilingualism has witnessed growing interest as a subject of academic study and as a state to aspire to for many of the world's citizenry. In tandem with this growing interest, countries around the world have started to implement foreign language curricula at schools that seek to prepare the coming generations to thrive in an increasingly multilingual global environment. In this respect, language teachers are likely to play a pivotal role in promoting the learning of multiple languages among students, with their beliefs about multilingualism informing their practices. This study reports on the beliefs of 460 secondary school teachers of English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, and Chinese in Norway and Russia regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual, the affordances of multilingual teachers, and the promotion of multilingualism in their respective countries. The findings indicated statistically significant differences between the participants based on the number of languages they taught and, to some extent, their country of residence. The observed differences hold important implications for teacher education programs and initiatives promoting the use of multilingualism as a resource in language education.

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1 | INTRODUCTION

Efforts by states to implement multilingual approaches to language education in schools, in response to rising levels of super-diversity, can often collide with language teachers who continue to espouse monolingual beliefs about language education (e.g., Portolés & Martí, 2018). One can see this in the persistent popularity of the communicative approach to language teaching, where the emphasis is regularly placed on complete immersion in the target language (Genesee, 1985). Teachers who believe in the effectiveness of such an approach might not view their students' knowledge of other languages as an asset and could discourage them from drawing on this knowledge during lessons (Wang, 2019). They might believe that students will import rules and structures from other languages into the target language, leading to mistakes and confusion (Manan, Dumanig, & David, 2017). Such negative crosslinguistic transfer has been shown to occur during language learning (Efeoglu, Yüksel, & Baran, 2019), although drawing on one's knowledge of other languages when learning a new language is a normal process for multilingual students (Calafato, 2019). It is also by making mistakes that students can better understand how languages differ from one another, learn effective strategies to identify linguistic patterns, and become more successful at learning languages (Ticheloven, Blom, Leseman, & McMonagle, 2019).

In other words, the beliefs of language teachers influence their practices and have consequences for their students, many of whom can now learn more than one foreign language at school (see Calafato & Tang, 2019). Promoting the learning of multiple languages has become a key goal of language education in many countries (see Wright, Boun, & García, 2015). In Russia and Norway, where the current study took place, the school curriculum offers students the option to learn two foreign languages (Haukås, 2016; PIRAO, 2017) and both countries emphasise the importance of developing multilingual citizens who possess advanced intercultural competence. The aim is to boost intercultural understanding and cooperation between countries and furnish citizens with the necessary language skills to navigate a multilingual, globalised world (Norway UDIR, 2019a; Russia MoE, 2018). Studies, too, indicate that being or becoming multilingual can confer a range of language- and non-language-specific benefits on an individual, for example, improved metalinguistic knowledge and metacognition, heightened creativity and pragmatic knowledge, and greater earning potential (Calafato, 2019; Di Paolo & Tansel, 2015; Hofer & Jessner, 2019). In theory, multilingual language teachers can draw on many of these benefits to boost the learning process.

However, studies indicate that some language teachers do not believe in the importance of a multilingual pedagogy even if they evince positive beliefs about multilingualism in general (e.g., Burner & Carlsen, 2019; Otwinowska, 2014). This might be because teacher education programs have not traditionally developed language teachers' multilingual identity or their understanding of what a multilingual pedagogy entails (Otwinowska, 2017), although this has started to change (see Iversen, 2020; Raud & Orekhova, 2020). In situations where language teachers do not believe in the effectiveness of multilingual teaching practices, they may not draw on their and their students' prior language learning experiences as a resource during lessons, which might create learning difficulties for their students (see Zheng, 2017). At present, there are several research gaps with respect to the beliefs of language teachers regarding multilingualism. Firstly, many studies have prioritised the beliefs of teachers of English (e.g., Illman & Pietilä, 2018), with less attention paid to the beliefs of those teaching languages other than English (LOTEs) (Calafato, 2019; Zhang & Zhang, 2018). Due to this imbalance, one could alternatively classify a large portion of the research that has investigated language teachers' beliefs about multilingualism as covering mostly their beliefs about the status of English as a global lingua franca.

Studies also indicate that English often enjoys an elevated status vis-à-vis other languages (Duff, 2017; Speitz & Lindemann, 2002), which may lead to teachers of English subscribing to beliefs that are different from those held by other language teachers (Hall & Cook, 2012). Another issue is that several studies on teacher multilingualism have explored the beliefs of a small number of teacher participants (see Calafato, 2019). Such studies provide important insights into the beliefs of individual language teachers but do not shed light on how widespread a given set of beliefs is among language teacher populations. Studies with a larger number of participants are needed in

order to corroborate the findings of these smaller-scale studies and provide policymakers and institutions with actionable data that might highlight *broader* trends among language teachers concerning their beliefs. Finally, very few studies have reported on the beliefs of language teachers who teach more than one language (e.g., Aslan, 2015). This group of teachers constitutes a growing subset of the language teacher population in many countries and their beliefs about multilingualism and its benefits might significantly differ from the beliefs of those teaching only one foreign language.

The study on which this article reports sought to add to our knowledge of language teachers operating in multilingual contexts by exploring their beliefs about multilingualism as a teaching and learning resource. Specifically, the study investigated the beliefs of teachers of English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, and Chinese, employed in upper-secondary schools in Norway and Russia, regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual, the affordances of multilingual teachers, the native speaker ideal, and the extent to which the learning of multiple languages is promoted by families and the state. The study's findings contain important implications for the implementation of initiatives that promote a multilingual approach to language education and provide policymakers and the institutions involved in such initiatives with useful insights into the beliefs of language teachers regarding multilingualism as a teaching and learning resource and its promotion in society.

2 | THE MULTILINGUAL LANGUAGE TEACHER

Understanding the beliefs of language teachers regarding multilingualism as a resource for learners and teachers is important since their beliefs influence their teaching practices (Farrell & Ives, 2015). It might also be difficult to make targeted improvements to teaching approaches without first taking into account what teachers believe on a given subject. In this study, teachers' beliefs are defined as consisting of a complex system of explicitly and implicitly held assumptions regarding the legitimacy of a given proposition related to teaching (Buehl & Beck, 2014), for example, pedagogy or language ideologies. Some researchers stress that language teachers should ideally believe in a multilingual pedagogy so that their practices reflect and support their and their students' multilingualism. A multilingual pedagogy, according to these researchers, requires teachers to (a) view multilingualism as a valuable resource, (b) possess advanced metalinguistic and crosslinguistic awareness, as well as methodological knowledge of how to promote a multilingual identity among students, (c) be aware of their students' language backgrounds and levels of proficiency, (d) be willing to collaborate with other teachers to promote a multilingual identity among students, and (e) be familiar with research on multilingualism (Haukås, 2016; Raud & Orekhova, 2020). Some language teachers might find it difficult to adopt such a multilingual pedagogy in its entirety if they do not themselves subscribe to a multilingual identity (e.g., Zheng, 2017; for a discussion of multilingual identity, see Fisher, Evans, Forbes, Gayton, & Liu, 2018). Consequently, it is important for countries and institutions that wish to promote a multilingual identity among students to first encourage teachers to adopt a multilingual identity so that they may then pass this identity on to their students via a multilingual pedagogy.

2.1 | Language teacher identity and beliefs about multilingualism

Language teacher identity consists of a teacher's language background, emotions, ability, self-awareness, beliefs, and personality, as well as all the experiences that they can bring to their teaching (Pennington & Richards, 2016; Wolff & De Costa, 2017). For example, teachers' language backgrounds, emotions, and perceived ability in the languages they teach can strongly influence their identity based on whether they are non-native speaker teachers or native speaker teachers (Rodríguez & Cho, 2011; Wolff & De Costa, 2017). Research has shown that non-native speaker teachers sometimes doubt their language ability and question their authenticity as users of the languages they teach (Calafato, 2019). These doubts lead them to idealise native speakers and engage in practices

that marginalise their and their students' multilingualism, which can lead to their students perceiving languages as separate rather than interconnected entities (Zheng, 2017). Studies also indicate that language teachers who accept their non-nativeness tend to readily engage in multilingual practices like translanguaging, using cognates, and comparing morphosyntax crosslinguistically during lessons, and make significant efforts to promote a multilingual identity among their students (see Calafato, 2019).

In addition to the native speaker ideal, favouring (positive factors that support teaching like small class sizes) and disfavouring conditions (negative factors like poor quality materials or a lack of facilities) also affect teacher identity and beliefs (Pennington & Richards, 2016). For instance, disfavouring conditions like unsupportive school administrations and problematic curriculum requirements have been shown to demotivate teachers, leading to their actual classroom behaviour becoming detached from their beliefs and goals because they feel that they are unable "to realise a situated identity that is consistent with their values" (Pennington & Richards, 2016, p. 15). Institutionalised monolingual practices, which are a disfavouring condition for the implementation of a multilingual pedagogy, have similarly been shown to hamper teacher agency with respect to the use of multilingual teaching practices (e.g., Ng, 2018). The level of teacher multilingualism can also strongly influence the beliefs of language teachers and their identity, especially in terms of the number of languages they teach (see Aslan, 2015; Wernicke, 2018). Teachers who teach several languages might have beliefs about multilingualism as a resource that differ notably from those held by teachers who teach only one language.

Indeed, teachers who teach several languages have been seen to adopt different teaching styles and practices from language to language and have even shared content across the languages they teach (e.g., Aslan, 2015; Jiang, García, & Willis, 2014). Their students likely have language learning experiences that vary considerably from language to language and so it would add to our understanding of teacher multilingualism if more studies were conducted on this group of language teachers. Finally, teachers' beliefs about multilingualism as a resource can vary based on how multilingualism is framed by researchers. For example, several studies on multilingualism in education, including those on the beliefs of language teachers, have framed it in relation to immigrants and minorities (e.g., Burner & Carlsen, 2019; Krulatz & Dahl, 2016; Protassova, 2010). This is understandable since the growing super-diversity in many cities and countries around the world is at least partly a result of transnational migration and increased labour mobility (Iversen, 2019). In Scandinavian countries like Norway, much of the increase in population numbers can be attributed to immigrants.

Exploring the effects of such demographic developments on the beliefs of language teachers is, therefore, important but it can also be problematic if multilingualism is portrayed as *solely* an immigrant- or minority-specific phenomenon. For instance, by linking multilingualism in the classroom exclusively to immigrants and minorities, studies run the risk of otherising multilingualism as something uniquely foreign that teachers and schools must learn to cope with. When framed in this way, teachers may express more positive or negative beliefs about multilingualism based on how they view immigrants and minorities, and not necessarily the benefits of a multilingual pedagogy. An alternative approach would be to conceptualise multilingualism as an inclusive phenomenon that is present, to varying extents, in *all* learners and teachers and not only in a specific group of individuals. As has been demonstrated here, the literature on teacher multilingualism indicates that teachers' beliefs and identity are more than simply the accumulation of experiences via the act of teaching; rather, they represent a complex interplay of experiences, emotions, language background; and national, regional, and school cultures.

2.2 | Foreign language education in secondary schools in Norway and Russia

The teaching context is known to influence teachers' beliefs about multilingualism (Calafato, 2019; Kramsch & Zhang, 2018). In Norway, the Directorate for Education and Training (UDIR) recently announced a revised foreign

language curriculum for schools that calls for students to draw on their language learning experiences and knowledge of other languages when learning a new language (Norway UDIR, 2019a). This revision points to a greater appreciation of multilingualism as a resource at the policy-making level, although the benefits of being able to communicate in several languages were also recognised in the previous foreign language curriculum (Norway UDIR, 2006). UDIR's English curriculum differs from the foreign language curriculum in that it did not emphasise the importance of drawing on multilingualism as a resource or the use of crosslinguistic learning strategies until recently (Norway UDIR, 2013). This might have implications for the beliefs of teachers of English in Norway regarding multilingualism as a teaching and learning resource.¹ At present, students in Norway are introduced to English starting in grade 1 and can learn a second foreign language starting in grade 8 (Speitz & Lindemann, 2002).

In Russia, students generally begin learning English from grade 2, with a second foreign language becoming an option when they enter secondary school (Russia MoE, 2018). Foreign language lessons aim to develop students' intercultural competence and understanding of the multilingual, multicultural world they inhabit, as well as how languages influence communication, cognition, self-realization, employment opportunities, and social adaptation (PIRAO, 2017; Russia MoE, 2018). The Russian Ministry of Education's (MoE) federal standards for foreign language education in schools emphasise the importance of teaching foreign languages using the communicative and cognitive approaches, with a special focus on developing the following in students: (a) multifunctionality—acquiring the means of interpersonal and intercultural communication; (b) multilevel learning—mastering the morphosyntax and lexis of a language and the four language skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading and writing); and (c) multisubject and interdisciplinary use—developing universal learning skills via foreign languages that ensure effective work with information presented in different formats and from different fields of knowledge such as literature, art, history, geography, and mathematics (PIRAO, 2017). The foreign language curriculum in Russia, unlike its Norwegian counterpart, addresses both English and other languages.

Both the Norwegian and Russian foreign language curricula emphasise the importance of learning languages in a multilingual world. The Norwegian curriculum explicitly encourages students to use their knowledge of other languages and previous language learning experiences to learn new languages (Norway UDIR, 2019a). The Russian curriculum, in contrast, calls for the use of foreign languages to enhance productivity in other subjects (PIRAO, 2017; Russia MoE, 2018). This is an important difference in that it suggests that language teachers in Russia are responsible for not only developing their students' linguistic knowledge but they should also strive to create synergies between the languages they teach and the other subjects taught at school. It is worth mentioning here that the federal standards do not provide any advice regarding how language teachers can realise these synergies. Moreover, the national foreign language curricula in Norway and Russia mostly focus on what is expected of students; few references to language teachers are made. In theory, this lack of emphasis on language teachers and their need to develop a multilingual identity and employ a multilingual pedagogy could negatively affect the extent to which they value their students' and their own multilingualism as a resource during lessons (see Pennington & Richards, 2016).

2.3 | Research questions

Given the limited number of studies on the beliefs of language teachers, especially those teaching more than one language, regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do language teachers in Norway and Russia believe in the benefits of being or becoming multilingual for students and teachers?
2. To what extent do they believe that the learning of multiple languages is encouraged in their respective societies?
3. To what extent are they influenced by the native speaker ideal?

3 | METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS

3.1 | Participants

460 language teachers (339 women; 45 men; 76 did not state their gender) from Norway ($n = 229$) and Russia ($n = 231$), employed at upper-secondary schools, participated in the study. The participants were selected via random sampling. The participants in Norway were from the counties of Oslo ($n = 67$), Viken ($n = 50$), Vestland ($n = 69$), Rogaland ($n = 28$), and Trøndelag ($n = 15$). Those from Russia reported teaching in Moscow ($n = 106$), St. Petersburg ($n = 55$), Novosibirsk ($n = 15$), Voronezh ($n = 12$), Rostov ($n = 4$), Chechnya ($n = 3$), Kaliningrad ($n = 1$), and the Ekaterinburg–Nizhny Novgorod–Saratov triangle ($n = 35$). 216 participants from Russia reported Russian as their first language (L1). A minority from Russia listed other L1s: French ($n = 5$), English ($n = 3$), Armenian ($n = 2$), Chechen ($n = 2$), Tagalog ($n = 1$), Georgian ($n = 1$), and Korean ($n = 1$). 185 participants from Norway reported Norwegian as their L1 ($n = 185$). Other L1s reported by the participants from Norway included German ($n = 15$), English ($n = 11$), Spanish ($n = 4$), Polish ($n = 2$), Dutch ($n = 2$), and Danish ($n = 2$). 1 participant each from Norway reported Romanian, Swedish, Turkish, Urdu, Hungarian, Italian, French, or Czech as their L1.² 275 participants reported teaching only 1 foreign language, 168 participants reported teaching 2 foreign languages, and 17 participants reported teaching 3 foreign languages. 296 participants reported teaching English, 135 taught German, 67 taught Spanish, 61 taught French, 4 taught Chinese, and 3 taught Italian. The participants were also able to indicate if they taught Norwegian or Russian at school, in addition to a foreign language. 75 participants from Norway reported teaching Norwegian alongside English, French, German, or Spanish, whereas 19 participants from Russia reported teaching Russian alongside English, French or Spanish. 58 participants were between 20–29 years old, 125 were between 30–39, 111 were between 40–49, 70 were between 50–59, and 23 were between 60–69 years old (73 participants chose not to reveal their age).

3.2 | Instruments and data collection

The study employed an online questionnaire, designed and distributed using the SurveyXact platform, to collect data. The 61-item questionnaire, made available in English, Norwegian, and Russian, explored the participants' beliefs regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual, the promotion of multilingualism in society, the affordances of multilingual teachers, and their reported multilingual teaching practices (for a detailed overview, see Calafato, 2020). The questionnaire also collected biographical data like age and gender and contained an open-ended question on whether the participants preferred native speaker teachers or non-native speaker teachers when learning a new language. For Norway, a list of all upper-secondary schools in the five most populous counties was drawn up using the contact information available via the various official county portals. Emails were sent to school administrations with attached information sheets and a link to the online questionnaire. School administrations were asked to forward the information and questionnaire to interested language teachers. A similar method was used to contact language teachers in Russia, with the exception of Moscow, where, due to the presence of hundreds of schools, every third school was selected and contacted.

All schools were informed that participation in the project was voluntary and anonymous and that there would be no way to identify participating teachers, their schools, or students. The questionnaire also included a space towards the end where the participants could write down their email address if they wanted to contribute further to the project by doing an interview. Moreover, nowhere in the questionnaire were the words *multilingualism*, *bilingualism*, or any derivations thereof explicitly included; instead, the questionnaire contained references to the learning of multiple languages. This was done to avoid creating confusion among the participants, who might perceive the word *multilingual* in Norwegian (*flerspråklig*) and Russian (*многоязычный*) differently than its equivalent in English, for example, as exclusively denoting immigrants or minorities. As already mentioned, the aim

was to present multilingualism as an inclusive, society-wide phenomenon that is present in, and achievable by, everyone rather than only a particular group. Moreover, seeing as the project focused on language teachers, the ability to acquire a multilingual identity by learning multiple languages was emphasised in order to avoid running the risk of some teachers associating the questionnaire's content with only biographic multilingualism (see Kaçar & Bayyurt, 2018).

3.3 | Data analysis

The data from the questionnaire were analysed using SPSS 25 and significance testing was conducted using the chi-square, ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis, and Mann-Whitney U tests, followed by the Bonferroni procedure, to check for statistically significant differences between the participants based on country, level of multilingualism, languages taught, age, gender, and teaching experience. An alpha level of .05 was used for all tests. Effect size is reported alongside all statistically significant results using Hedge's *G* (*g*). The study uses Plonsky and Oswald's (2014) criteria when interpreting the size of the effect, with *g* values of .40 signifying a small effect, .70 indicating a medium effect, and values of 1.00 and over representing a large effect size. As for the open-ended question on the native speaker ideal, participant responses were analysed and coded for differences in their preferences for native speaker teachers and non-native speaker teachers using a two-stage process. The first stage identified whether the participants preferred non-native speaker teachers or native speaker teachers, a combination of the two, or felt that it did not matter. Next, the reasons that the participants provided for their preferences were collated and coded using thematic analysis. Kramsch and Zhang (2018) and Riordan (2018) were used as references during the coding process.

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | Learner background and level of multilingualism

Figure 1 illustrates the average number of languages the participants studied at school and university (excluding the first language at school but including it if studied at university)³ and the number of languages they reported teaching and being proficient in. ANOVA test results revealed that the participants from Norway studied [$F(1, 458) = 97.636, p < .001, g = .918$], were proficient in [$F(1, 458) = 37.558, p < .001, g = .563$], and taught [$F(1, 458) = 22.252, p < .001, g = .512$] a statistically significantly greater number of languages than did the participants from Russia; the effect size was small to medium. When the first language (L1) was excluded, the participants from Norway and Russia were found to teach a similar number of foreign languages overall [$F(1, 458) = .450, p = .503$].

The participants were also asked to report the number of foreign languages they used in their free time. 108 participants (47.16%) from Norway reported using only their L1 in their free time, whereas 87 (37.99%) used one foreign language in addition to their L1, 26 (11.35%) used two foreign languages, and 8 (3.49%) reported using three foreign languages. As for the participants from Russia, 125 (54.11%) reported using only their L1, 68 (29.44%) used one foreign language alongside their L1, 32 (13.85%) used two foreign languages, 4 (1.73%) used three foreign languages, and 2 (.87%) reported using four foreign languages in their free time. English was the most popular foreign language among those who reported using one foreign language alongside their L1 ($n = 102$), followed by German ($n = 26$), Spanish ($n = 15$), French ($n = 11$), and Chinese ($n = 1$). Out of the 58 participants that reported using two foreign languages alongside their L1, 53 indicated that English was one of the two foreign languages they used. 14 participants each mentioned using it alongside French, German, or Spanish. A small number of participants used English alongside Dutch ($n = 3$), Chinese ($n = 2$), or Italian ($n = 2$). A chi-square test revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between the participants from Russia and Norway

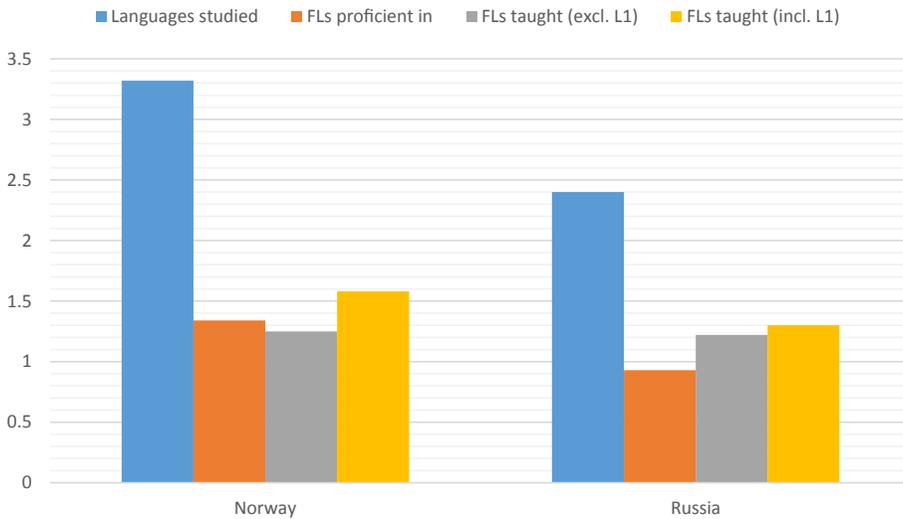


FIGURE 1 The participants' knowledge of foreign languages, their learner background, and the number of languages they taught. *Source:* Author

$[\chi^2(4, 460) = 7.515, p = .111]$ regarding the number of foreign languages they reported using in their free time. In addition, no statistically significant differences were found between the participants based on any other variable in this regard.

4.2 | Multilingualism as a resource for teaching and learning

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics for the participants' beliefs regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual. Overall, the participants believed quite strongly in the benefits of being or becoming multilingual, although those from Norway held more positive beliefs than did the Russian participants; the difference is notable for the statements addressing multilingual students serving as role models for others (item 5) and the positive effects of learning additional languages on languages already known (item 7). The participants also appeared least certain about how the learning of multiple languages could improve performance in non-language subjects.

Mann-Whitney U test results revealed that the participants from Norway agreed statistically significantly more strongly with each of the items regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual than did the Russian participants, although the effect size was mostly weak throughout (see Table 1). No statistically significant differences were found between the participants based on any other variable, including teaching experience and age.

Table 2 lists descriptive statistics for the extent to which the participants espoused monolingual beliefs regarding language education. The data indicated that the participants did not generally espouse monolingual beliefs, although they appeared more conflicted when it came to using only the target language in lessons. There were only a few instances where the participants from Norway and Russia appeared to differ notably from one another.

Mann-Whitney U test results revealed that the participants from Russia believed statistically significantly more strongly than did the participants from Norway that the simultaneous learning of multiple languages can hinder the language learning process and that using multiple languages during lessons causes confusion in students; the effect size was weak in both instances. No statistically significant differences between the participants were found based on any other variable, including teaching experience and age.

TABLE 1 The participants' beliefs regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual

| To what extent do you agree with the following statements? | Country | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>U</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>g</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|---|--------|-----|------|------|----------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|---|--------|-----|------|------|--------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|---|--------|-----|------|------|--------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|---|--------|-----|------|-----|--------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|--|--------|-----|------|-----|--------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|--|--------|-----|------|-----|--------|-------|------|
| 1. Learning multiple languages significantly improves one's intercultural competence. | Norway | 228 | 5.73 | .67 | 15,695 | <.001 | .747 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 231 | 5.11 | .96 | | | | 2. It is possible to learn to speak, read, and write in several foreign languages fluently. | Norway | 229 | 5.44 | .82 | 21,689.5 | .001 | .290 | Russia | 228 | 5.19 | .90 | 3. Learning multiple languages improves one's cognitive skills. | Norway | 226 | 5.56 | .77 | 20,675 | <.001 | .308 | Russia | 230 | 5.33 | .72 | 4. Learning multiple languages can improve performance in Science, Math, and Technology subjects. | Norway | 221 | 4.49 | 1.05 | 21,368 | .002 | .317 | Russia | 231 | 4.14 | 1.15 | 5. Students who speak several languages can serve as linguistic role models for other learners. | Norway | 225 | 5.23 | .85 | 16,883 | <.001 | .606 | Russia | 226 | 4.67 | .99 | 6. Knowing multiple languages makes it easier to learn additional languages. | Norway | 228 | 5.51 | .69 | 21,304 | <.001 | .392 | Russia | 229 | 5.26 | .82 | 7. Learning additional languages improves knowledge of previously learned languages. | Norway | 222 | 5.23 | .87 | 17,107 | <.001 | .610 |
| 2. It is possible to learn to speak, read, and write in several foreign languages fluently. | Norway | 229 | 5.44 | .82 | 21,689.5 | .001 | .290 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 228 | 5.19 | .90 | | | | 3. Learning multiple languages improves one's cognitive skills. | Norway | 226 | 5.56 | .77 | 20,675 | <.001 | .308 | Russia | 230 | 5.33 | .72 | 4. Learning multiple languages can improve performance in Science, Math, and Technology subjects. | Norway | 221 | 4.49 | 1.05 | 21,368 | .002 | .317 | Russia | 231 | 4.14 | 1.15 | 5. Students who speak several languages can serve as linguistic role models for other learners. | Norway | 225 | 5.23 | .85 | 16,883 | <.001 | .606 | Russia | 226 | 4.67 | .99 | 6. Knowing multiple languages makes it easier to learn additional languages. | Norway | 228 | 5.51 | .69 | 21,304 | <.001 | .392 | Russia | 229 | 5.26 | .82 | 7. Learning additional languages improves knowledge of previously learned languages. | Norway | 222 | 5.23 | .87 | 17,107 | <.001 | .610 | Russia | 228 | 4.63 | 1.08 | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Learning multiple languages improves one's cognitive skills. | Norway | 226 | 5.56 | .77 | 20,675 | <.001 | .308 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| | Russia | 231 | 4.14 | 1.15 | | | | 5. Students who speak several languages can serve as linguistic role models for other learners. | Norway | 225 | 5.23 | .85 | 16,883 | <.001 | .606 | Russia | 226 | 4.67 | .99 | 6. Knowing multiple languages makes it easier to learn additional languages. | Norway | 228 | 5.51 | .69 | 21,304 | <.001 | .392 | Russia | 229 | 5.26 | .82 | 7. Learning additional languages improves knowledge of previously learned languages. | Norway | 222 | 5.23 | .87 | 17,107 | <.001 | .610 | Russia | 228 | 4.63 | 1.08 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Students who speak several languages can serve as linguistic role models for other learners. | Norway | 225 | 5.23 | .85 | 16,883 | <.001 | .606 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 226 | 4.67 | .99 | | | | 6. Knowing multiple languages makes it easier to learn additional languages. | Norway | 228 | 5.51 | .69 | 21,304 | <.001 | .392 | Russia | 229 | 5.26 | .82 | 7. Learning additional languages improves knowledge of previously learned languages. | Norway | 222 | 5.23 | .87 | 17,107 | <.001 | .610 | Russia | 228 | 4.63 | 1.08 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Knowing multiple languages makes it easier to learn additional languages. | Norway | 228 | 5.51 | .69 | 21,304 | <.001 | .392 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 229 | 5.26 | .82 | | | | 7. Learning additional languages improves knowledge of previously learned languages. | Norway | 222 | 5.23 | .87 | 17,107 | <.001 | .610 | Russia | 228 | 4.63 | 1.08 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Learning additional languages improves knowledge of previously learned languages. | Norway | 222 | 5.23 | .87 | 17,107 | <.001 | .610 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 228 | 4.63 | 1.08 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note: 1—Strongly disagree; 2—Disagree; 3—Somewhat disagree; 4—Somewhat agree; 5—Agree; 6—Strongly agree.

Source: Author

TABLE 2 The extent to which the participants espoused monolingual beliefs

| How much do you agree with the following statements? | Country | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>U</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>g</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|---|--------|-----|------|------|--------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|---|--------|-----|------|------|--------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|---|--------|-----|------|------|--------|-------|------|--------|-----|------|------|--|--------|-----|------|------|---|------|---|
| 1. Learning multiple foreign languages simultaneously can hinder the language learning process. | Norway | 228 | 3.02 | 1.32 | 30,723 | <.001 | .340 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 226 | 3.47 | 1.32 | | | | 2. The presence of many foreign languages in a country can reduce the importance of national languages and associated cultures. | Norway | 228 | 2.53 | 1.30 | - | .679 | - | Russia | 231 | 2.48 | 1.30 | 3. It is better to learn one language at a time. | Norway | 228 | 3.18 | 1.26 | - | .150 | - | Russia | 227 | 3.34 | 1.16 | 4. Using languages other than the target language in lessons can cause confusion in students. | Norway | 228 | 2.68 | 1.10 | 33,385 | <.001 | .517 | Russia | 227 | 3.26 | 1.14 | 5. One learns more effectively if only the target language is used during lessons. | Norway | 227 | 3.63 | 1.34 | - | .144 | - |
| 2. The presence of many foreign languages in a country can reduce the importance of national languages and associated cultures. | Norway | 228 | 2.53 | 1.30 | - | .679 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 231 | 2.48 | 1.30 | | | | 3. It is better to learn one language at a time. | Norway | 228 | 3.18 | 1.26 | - | .150 | - | Russia | 227 | 3.34 | 1.16 | 4. Using languages other than the target language in lessons can cause confusion in students. | Norway | 228 | 2.68 | 1.10 | 33,385 | <.001 | .517 | Russia | 227 | 3.26 | 1.14 | 5. One learns more effectively if only the target language is used during lessons. | Norway | 227 | 3.63 | 1.34 | - | .144 | - | Russia | 227 | 3.81 | 1.22 | | | | | | | | |
| 3. It is better to learn one language at a time. | Norway | 228 | 3.18 | 1.26 | - | .150 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 227 | 3.34 | 1.16 | | | | 4. Using languages other than the target language in lessons can cause confusion in students. | Norway | 228 | 2.68 | 1.10 | 33,385 | <.001 | .517 | Russia | 227 | 3.26 | 1.14 | 5. One learns more effectively if only the target language is used during lessons. | Norway | 227 | 3.63 | 1.34 | - | .144 | - | Russia | 227 | 3.81 | 1.22 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Using languages other than the target language in lessons can cause confusion in students. | Norway | 228 | 2.68 | 1.10 | 33,385 | <.001 | .517 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 227 | 3.26 | 1.14 | | | | 5. One learns more effectively if only the target language is used during lessons. | Norway | 227 | 3.63 | 1.34 | - | .144 | - | Russia | 227 | 3.81 | 1.22 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. One learns more effectively if only the target language is used during lessons. | Norway | 227 | 3.63 | 1.34 | - | .144 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Russia | 227 | 3.81 | 1.22 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Note: 1—Strongly disagree; 2—Disagree; 3—Somewhat disagree; 4—Somewhat agree; 5—Agree; 6—Strongly agree.

Source: Author

Table 3 lists descriptive statistics for how strongly the participants, based on the number of foreign languages they reported teaching, believed that language teachers could benefit from being or becoming multilingual. The data indicated that the more foreign languages the participants taught, the greater was their agreement with each statement.

TABLE 3 The participants' beliefs regarding the benefits of being a multilingual teacher

| The more languages teachers know, the better they can... | FLs | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>H</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>g</i> |
|--|-----|----------|----------|-----------|----------|---------------|----------|
| 1. ...explain language structure | 1 | 352 | 4.94 | .96 | 18.232 | <.001 (<.001) | .434 |
| | 2 | 93 | 5.35 | .88 | | | |
| | 3 | 5 | 5.40 | .89 | | | |
| 2. ...identify the language-related challenges learners face | 1 | 348 | 5.10 | .87 | 12.221 | .002 (.002) | .351 |
| | 2 | 94 | 5.40 | .79 | | | |
| | 3 | 5 | 5.40 | .89 | | | |
| 3. ...use more appropriate teaching methods/approaches | 1 | 350 | 4.76 | 1.04 | - | .074 | - |
| | 2 | 95 | 4.92 | 1.24 | | | |
| | 3 | 5 | 5.20 | 1.10 | | | |
| 4. ...increase their repertoire of activities | 1 | 348 | 4.77 | 1.09 | 9.702 | .008 (.028) | .289 |
| | 2 | 95 | 5.08 | .99 | | | |
| | 3 | 5 | 5.60 | .55 | | | |
| 5. ...develop learners' intercultural competence | 1 | 350 | 5.15 | .86 | 7.263 | .026 (.024) | .328 |
| | 2 | 93 | 5.42 | .66 | | | |
| | 3 | 5 | 5.20 | 1.30 | | | |
| 6. ...inspire students to learn languages | 1 | 350 | 5.10 | .93 | 6.581 | .037 (.035) | .287 |
| | 2 | 94 | 5.36 | .80 | | | |
| | 3 | 5 | 5.20 | 1.30 | | | |

Note: 1—Strongly disagree; 2—Disagree; 3—Somewhat disagree; 4—Somewhat agree; 5—Agree; 6—Strongly agree.

Source: Author.

Kruskal–Wallis test results revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the participants based on whether they were teaching one or two foreign languages. The *p* values obtained from the Bonferroni procedure have been reported in brackets alongside the Mann–Whitney U test *p* values in Table 3. The results indicated that the participants teaching two foreign languages believed statistically significantly more strongly than did those teaching only one foreign language in the benefits of being or becoming a multilingual teacher in five out of the six items; the effect size was generally weak. There were no statistically significant differences between the participants based on any other variable.

4.3 | The promotion of multilingualism in society and the native speaker ideal

Table 4 provides descriptive statistics for how strongly the participants believed that parents and the government encouraged the learning of multiple languages. The data indicated that the participants believed somewhat strongly that parents encouraged their children to learn multiple languages, whereas the efforts of governments were not rated as highly.

Mann–Whitney U test results (see Table 4) revealed that the participants from Norway believed statistically significantly more strongly than did the Russian participants that the government promoted the learning of multiple languages by investing money in teacher education (item 4) and materials (item 5). The participants from Russia, in contrast, were statistically significantly more positive about the government's efforts to promote multilingualism by organizing campaigns (item 3); the effect size was generally weak throughout. No statistically significant differences were found between the participants based on any other variable.

TABLE 4 The participants' beliefs regarding how strongly parents and the state promote the learning of multiple languages

| | Country | n | M | SD | U | p | g |
|--|---------|-----|------|------|----------|------|------|
| 1. Parents promote their children's learning of multiple languages where I live. | Norway | 226 | 4.05 | 1.11 | - | .615 | - |
| | Russia | 230 | 4.06 | 1.23 | | | |
| 2. The government promotes the learning of multiple languages by providing sufficient time for language instruction in schools | Norway | 226 | 3.42 | 1.36 | - | .760 | - |
| | Russia | 228 | 3.37 | 1.39 | | | |
| 3. The government promotes the learning of multiple languages by organizing campaigns that promote language learning | Norway | 223 | 2.53 | 1.18 | 29,873.5 | .001 | .339 |
| | Russia | 227 | 2.95 | 1.29 | | | |
| 4. The government promotes the learning of multiple languages by investing money in language teacher education | Norway | 224 | 3.00 | 1.31 | 22,171.5 | .016 | .226 |
| | Russia | 227 | 2.71 | 1.25 | | | |
| 5. The government promotes the learning of multiple languages by investing money in language materials | Norway | 221 | 2.84 | 1.22 | 22,044.5 | .018 | .216 |
| | Russia | 228 | 2.58 | 1.18 | | | |

Note: 1—Strongly disagree; 2—Disagree; 3—Somewhat disagree; 4—Somewhat agree; 5—Agree; 6—Strongly agree.

Source: Author.

Finally, the participants were asked, via an open-ended question, if they preferred native speaker teachers or non-native speaker teachers when learning a new language, all else being equal (e.g., qualifications), and to offer reasons for their choices. 172 (39%) participants stated that they preferred native speaker teachers, 105 (24%) participants opted for non-native speaker teachers, 92 (21%) stated that the dichotomy was not important, and 44 (10%) replied that they preferred non-native speaker teachers when starting out, followed by native speaker teachers at more advanced levels. A small number of participants wanted to be taught by non-native speaker teachers and native speaker teachers in tandem ($n = 15$). As for the reasons behind their choices, out of those who expressed a preference for native speaker teachers ($n = 172$), 62 (36.05%) stated that native speaker teachers symbolised authenticity and had a deeper knowledge of the language. 26 participants (15.11%) felt that native speaker teachers had greater cultural knowledge while 31 (18.02%) cited their pronunciation as a reason. Smaller numbers felt that native speaker teachers provided an immersive experience ($n = 7$; 4.07%), possessed advanced knowledge of vocabulary ($n = 7$; 4.07%), and provided better opportunities for oral practice ($n = 5$; 3%). A few participants opined that native speaker teachers were more interesting, approachable, and motivating. Those participants that felt that the dichotomy was not important ($n = 92$) either did not provide a reason for why they felt this way or stated that qualifications and pedagogical competence were more important than how the teacher acquired the language.

The 44 participants who opted for non-native speaker teachers for the initial learning phase, followed later by native speaker teachers, felt that non-native speaker teachers could explain things more easily to beginner-level students and were better at verbalising the rules that governed the target language. Out of the 105 participants that opted for non-native speaker teachers, 34 (32.38%) said that they preferred non-native speaker teachers because they could better empathise with learners since they had been through the same experience. Another 20 participants (19.05%) felt that non-native speaker teachers could better verbalise the rules governing the structure of the language while 24 (22.86%) indicated that when non-native speaker teachers spoke the same first language as their students, it made communication easier. 5 participants (4.76%) specifically referred to non-native speaker teachers' multilingual competence, for example, their ability to compare and contrast the target language with the other languages they and their students knew. There were several participants ($n = 158$) that expressed a preference for non-native speaker teachers or native speaker teachers (or a combination thereof) without providing any reasons for their choice. No statistically significant differences were found between the participants

regarding their preference for native speaker teachers or non-native speaker teachers based on any variable, including the number of languages they taught.

5 | DISCUSSION

This study sought to explore the beliefs of language teachers from Norway and Russia regarding the benefits of being or becoming multilingual for both students and teachers, and the extent to which multilingualism was seen to be promoted by parents and the government. The findings indicated that the participants from Norway and Russia, on average, strongly believed that the learning of multiple languages was both beneficial and attainable for learners, and evinced little agreement with monolingual beliefs regarding language education. However, there was some ambivalence when it came to only using the target language during lessons (see Table 2). The participants also appeared to strongly believe that teachers could benefit from being or becoming multilingual.

The study's findings represent a first look at the beliefs of a large number of language teachers from Russia regarding the benefits and affordances that accrue to both teachers and students as a result of being or becoming multilingual. Given the dearth of studies on acquired multilingualism in Russia, it is hoped that the findings will serve as an impetus for further research on the beliefs and practices of Russian teachers and learners as these concern the cognitive, metacognitive, and affective effects of adopting a multilingual identity. The findings also support those from recent smaller-scale studies on language teachers in Norway where the participants evinced positive beliefs about multilingualism as a resource (e.g., Burner & Carlsen, 2019; Haukås, 2016). However, this study differentiates itself from previous studies (e.g., Burner & Carlsen, 2019; Krulatz & Dahl, 2016) in that it focused on acquired multilingualism rather than mostly biographic multilingualism and also explored the participants' beliefs about how the learning of multiple languages can positively influence performance in non-language subjects, a topic that elicited less agreement from the participants.

Their ambivalent attitudes suggest that the participants might not be enthusiastic about collaborating with non-language subject teachers since they did not strongly believe in the multisubject benefits that the learning of languages can bring. The findings expand on those reported by Haukås (2016), who found that language teachers in Norway were uncertain about collaborating with each other. Furthermore, regarding specifically the participants from Russia, their ambivalence might have negative implications for the Russian MoE's efforts to promote the multisubject use of skills acquired via the learning of foreign languages (PIRAO, 2017). Consequently, for governments that seek to promote a multilingual identity among citizens, it is important that they more explicitly help teachers understand the linkages between languages and other subjects and the benefits of engaging in multisubject collaboration (see Méndez García & Pavón Vázquez, 2012). For example, the relevant ministries could include an actionable framework for multisubject collaboration in the school curriculum for both language and non-language subjects that teachers could follow. Introducing a practicum on multisubject collaboration into pre-service teacher education programs or organising workshops for in-service teachers are other options that could be implemented.

Such initiatives could more strongly motivate teachers and students to adopt a multilingual identity because multisubject collaboration would tie the teaching and learning of languages to a larger number of domains (Nakamura, 2019). Moreover, it would help teachers and students see how language and non-language subjects can intersect and reinforce each other, as well as have a positive impact on language teachers' self-worth, especially since some teachers feel that foreign languages are valued less than other subjects in schools (Kouritzin, Piquemal, & Nakagawa, 2007; Speitz & Lindemann, 2002). It is also worth noting that the participants, regardless of whether they taught English, French, German, Spanish, Italian or Chinese, evinced similarly positive beliefs about the benefits of being and becoming multilingual for learners and teachers. This overall uniformity of beliefs indicates that the languages the participants taught, regardless of status, did not appear to significantly influence their beliefs, suggesting that the implementation of a general language policy regarding multilingualism as a resource in language education may be just as effective as language-specific initiatives that seek to promote a stronger multilingual identity among language teachers.

Furthermore, in contrast to the strong monolingual inclinations exhibited by teachers of English in studies done in other countries (e.g., Kim, 2020), teachers of English from Norway and Russia were in this study found to believe quite strongly in the benefits of being or becoming multilingual and no statistically significant differences were found between them and those participants that reported teaching other languages. The absence of any statistically significant difference is especially noteworthy in the Norwegian context, where the previous English curriculum (Norway UDIR, 2013), unlike the foreign language curriculum (Norway UDIR, 2006), made no real mention of multilingualism as a resource. In addition, the findings revealed that the participants did not generally believe that their governments were promoting the learning of multiple languages through investment in teacher education, materials, or campaigns (see Table 4). The low scores they accorded to such efforts lie in contrast to how explicitly Norway's UDIR and the Russian MoE have emphasised the need for citizens to be proficient in several languages in order to navigate a multilingual, multicultural world (Norway UDIR, 2006; Russia MoE, 2018). They also contrast with the participants' positive beliefs about the benefits of being or becoming multilingual for both students and teachers.

Doubts about government efforts to promote the learning of multiple languages could negatively affect the participants' desire to adopt a multilingual pedagogy, even if they believed strongly in the benefits of being or becoming multilingual (for a discussion of disfavouring conditions, see Pennington & Richards, 2016). Perhaps this is one reason why teachers' positive beliefs regarding multilingualism do not always lead to the adoption of a multilingual pedagogy (e.g., Haukås, 2016), although additional research is needed to shed more light on the impact of government activities in support of multilingualism on the beliefs and practices of language teachers. This study also documented an overall preference for native speaker teachers among the participants (see Section 4.3). A preference for native speaker teachers does not imply the presence of strongly held monolingual beliefs, although it does raise questions regarding how the participants who opted for native speaker teachers view their own identity as language teachers in terms of authenticity and subject knowledge. Pennington and Richards (2016) note that non-native speaker teachers who are not confident in their abilities can engage in multilingual teaching practices (when they share a first language with students) in order to compensate for their lack of confidence.

Alternatively, the participants' preference for native speaker teachers may represent a contradiction between their identity as multilingual teachers who have formally acquired the languages they teach and their belief in the native speaker ideal (Calafato, 2019; Riordan, 2018). Their ambivalence regarding the use of only the target language during lessons might be another indication of this inner contradiction (see Table 2). Moreover, the findings indicated that the participants' beliefs did not statistically significantly differ based on variables like age or teaching experience, which suggests that the most effective way to encourage language teachers to engage in a multilingual pedagogy would be through targeted interventions in pre-service teacher education programs rather than expecting them to adopt such an identity as they advance in age and experience. This is supported by a recent study (Calafato, 2019) that found that age and teaching experience did not predict teachers' willingness to adopt a multilingual pedagogy.

Finally, this study is one of the few to have explored the beliefs of teachers who teach two or more foreign languages at school. The findings indicated that this group of teacher participants believed statistically significantly more strongly in the benefits of being or becoming a multilingual teacher than did those teaching only one foreign language (see Table 3). It is likely that the act of teaching multiple languages has led to heightened language awareness among this group, making them more cognisant of their affordances as multilinguals (Aronin, 2014) and the possible synergies they might achieve between the languages they teach (see Jiang et al., 2014). It is also worth noting that it is specifically the *teaching* of multiple languages that appears to have had this effect and not simply being proficient in several languages, which had no statistically significant effect on the participants' beliefs. In fact, most participants, despite being proficient in multiple languages, reported using only their first language in their free time, which indicates that many limited the use of the languages they taught to the professional sphere and that these languages were not linked to other life domains outside of work. The findings underline the need to encourage language teachers to more actively engage with the languages they teach, which occurred in this study mostly through the teaching of multiple languages. Such engagement will likely boost their awareness of their affordances as multilinguals and motivate them to adopt a multilingual pedagogy.

6 | CONCLUSION

The language teacher in Norway and Russia is a complex individual that strongly believes in the benefits of being or becoming multilingual for both students and teachers, generally rejects monolingual beliefs regarding language education, and does not see the government as strongly promoting a multilingual identity among its citizens. Contradictions to this included a large number of the participants subscribing to the native speaker ideal and exclusively using their first language outside of school. In light of these findings, it is important to further explore how teachers relate to the languages they teach, especially outside of school, so that one might obtain deeper insights into how this might influence their beliefs, emotions, and identity, as well as their interactions with students. Secondly, more research is needed on how government efforts to promote multilingualism affect the beliefs and teaching practices of language teachers. There is an important distinction between believing in the benefits of a multilingual pedagogy and implementing it. Should language teachers view government efforts to promote multilingualism as being insufficient or ineffective, it might deter them from adopting a multilingual pedagogy even if they consider it beneficial for their students. In this respect, implementing initiatives that promote greater multisubject collaboration among teachers may prove effective in encouraging them to implement a multilingual pedagogy. Finally, the effects of teaching more than one foreign language on language teacher identity, beliefs, and cognition are areas that require greater attention since clear differences were found between the participants in this study based on the number of languages they reported teaching. More research is also needed on the cognitive abilities, teaching practices, and beliefs of teachers who teach a combination of languages from distant language groups, for example, Arabic and Chinese. In this study, such exploration was not possible since most participants taught languages from related language groups.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

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ENDNOTES

- ¹ Recent revisions to the English curriculum, however, do explicitly mention multilingualism as a resource that students can draw on to enhance their learning, although the revised curriculum will fully come into force in 2023 (Norway UDIR, 2019b).
- ² Participants were not asked to state their nationality.
- ³ Of the 460 participants, 230 reported studying languages belonging to the Germanic and Romance language groups, while 148 reported studying languages from only the Germanic group. A handful of participants ($n = 14$) reported studying languages from the Slavic group in addition to Germanic and Romance languages, that is, from 3 different language groups. 12 participants reported studying Classical languages in addition to languages from the Germanic and Romance groups.

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