

“A giant bowl of soup” – Language Varieties in the Lower Secondary ESL Classroom

A study of teachers’ beliefs, awareness and practices

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Abstract

This thesis focuses on lower secondary teachers' beliefs about and awareness of their own use of varieties of English related to their classroom practices. The study also revolves around teachers' views on students' language production related to English varieties. This was investigated through a survey, interview and observation, where respectively 89, seven and two teachers participated. The reason for choosing this topic was that the current curriculum The Knowledge Promotion does not explicitly address the large amount of varieties of English that exists with respect to what is expected of either teachers or students. The purpose of this thesis was therefore to gain an insight into how lower secondary school teachers' handle the many existing 'Englishes' related to their own language use and their classroom practices.

The data material from the survey and the interviews formed a solid basis for saying something about teachers' use of and views on English varieties. The teachers who participated in my research project are not fully consistent in their language production with respect to spelling and choice of words. In other words, they incorporate elements from more than one language norm when communicating in English. Yet they want their students to be consistent both when speaking and writing English – with an emphasis on written English, which suggests that teachers themselves are not sufficiently aware of their own switching between different language norms. The teachers acknowledge that their first language is a natural part of their second language too, but the majority of them characterize their English as close to either British English, American English or a combination of these two. It seems that the teachers want their students to choose the variety of English they are going to practice themselves, but the tendency is that the choice is limited to either British English or American English. The teachers recognize that the main goal of teaching English is that the students should learn to communicate in English in a comprehensible way. Meanwhile, they want to reduce the influence the Norwegian language has on students' English pronunciation, where students' Norwegian dialects are particularly described as problematic.

Sammendrag

Denne masteroppgaven omhandler ungdomsskolelæreres syn på og bevissthet over deres eget bruk av ulike varianter av engelsk, og hvordan de håndterer det store mangfoldet av eksisterende engelskvarianter i sine klasseromspraksiser. Studien fokuserer også på læreres syn på elevers språkbruk knyttet til engelskvarianter. Dette ble undersøkt gjennom spørreundersøkelse, intervju og observasjon, hvor henholdsvis 89, syv og to lærere deltok. Bakgrunnen for valget av tema var at det nåværende læreplanverket Kunnskapsløftet ikke eksplisitt adresserer det store mangfoldet av engelskvarianter som eksisterer med henhold til hva som forventes av hverken lærere eller elever. Hensikten med oppgaven var dermed å få en innsikt i hvordan ungdomsskolelærere håndterer de mange 'engelskene' som eksisterer knyttet til eget språkbruk og sin klasseromspraksis.

Datamaterialet fra både spørreundersøkelsen og intervjuene dannet et solid grunnlag for å si noe om læreres bruk av og syn på engelskvarianter. Det ser ut til at lærerne som deltok i mitt forskningsprosjekt ikke er tilstrekkelig konsekvente i deres språkproduksjon med henhold til staving og valg av ord. Med andre ord innlemmer de elementer fra mer enn én språknorm når de kommuniserer på engelsk. Likevel ønsker de at elevene skal være konsekvente både når de snakker og skriver engelsk – med vekt på skriftlig engelsk, hvilket vitner om at lærerne selv ikke er tilstrekkelig bevisste over sine egne vekslinger mellom ulike språknormer. Lærerne vedkjenner at deres førstespråk er en naturlig del av også deres andrespråk, men majoriteten av dem karakteriserer sin engelsk som nær enten britisk engelsk, amerikansk engelsk eller en blanding av disse to. Det ser ut til at lærerne ønsker å la elevene få velge hvilken engelskvariant de skal praktisere selv, men tendensen er at valget er begrenset til enten britisk engelsk eller amerikansk engelsk. Lærerne erkjenner at hovedmålet med engelskundervisningen er at elevene skal lære seg å kommunisere på engelsk på en forståelig måte. Samtidig ønsker de å redusere innflytelsen det norske språk har på elevenes engelskuttale, hvor elevenes norske dialekter spesielt betegnes som problematiske.

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1 Introduction

As a social construct, language is considered closely connected to our identity. Through language, we are able to express ourselves and communicate with others both verbally and in writing. English figures prominently and frequently in the Norwegian society, and children and youngsters are constantly exposed to the English language. A short train ride within the Norwegian borders will for instance include a voice with British pronunciation saying “The next stop is...” and a digital sign where “Thank you for travelling with us!” is written (presumably in British English). On some domestic flights with the Norwegian airline Norwegian, the passengers are required to understand English. A pre-recorded sound clip with an American female voice is in fact the only one providing instructions on the procedures of how to buckle up etc. on some of their domestic flights. This information is not given in Norwegian. The airline’s own magazine *N by Norwegian* that is placed at each passenger seat seemingly follows a British pattern of spelling and vocabulary – as ‘neighbourhood’ and ‘football’ (instead of soccer) are examples of their linguistic content. Similar instances are also occurring elsewhere in Norway.

Media has contributed to making the world a smaller place with the various possibilities of experiencing other cultures and languages through for instance TV-shows and online newspapers. Not only is the English language learned through the Norwegian educational system, it is also a language that is largely being pursued outside of the school arena. Byram (2008) claims that Norwegian students learning English have an advantage by the fact that they seemingly acquire extensive knowledge of the English language during their spare time – because they actually explore the language on their own. With the many different possible exposures to the English language within Norway, it is safe to say that the English language will present itself for students in several different ‘outfits’. Thus, it is important to have knowledge about different varieties of English. This is not only because there is a diversity of ‘Englishes’ that are present in Norway, but also because communicating with other second language speakers of English can pose a challenge if you are only accustomed to one variety of English.

This thesis aspires to connect and apply the concept of teacher cognition, meaning the mental processes of teaching, to ‘varieties of English’ in an educational context. This entails a focus on understanding teachers’ beliefs about and awareness of their use of language varieties

within the ESL¹ classroom. I have chosen to consistently use the neutral term ‘variety’ throughout my thesis. The terms ‘variety’ and ‘variant’ are both used to refer to different ‘Englishes’ and seem to differ somewhat in meaning. ‘Variety’ appears to be used more frequently to refer to the spoken language, while ‘variant’ more often seems to refer to standardized written forms. As I address spoken as well as written English in this thesis, I use ‘variety’ as an umbrella term in a general sense for the sake of brevity.

1.1 English in an International Perspective

With the largest number of second language speakers in the world, English is considered being a world language and it plays a key role as an international auxiliary language. 83% of the English native speakers are American and British, and just like the respective English-speaking countries, they each have their own variety of the English language – which makes the term ‘English language’ a very vague expression (SNL, 2009; Svartvik & Leech, 2006). Researchers debate whether the term ‘World English’ (WE) is appropriate or not, and not everyone agrees with the proposed existence of ‘World English’. Rajagopalan (2004) defines World English as a language used in international encounters – for different purposes, strikingly similar to a lingua franca. He also states that the number of World English-users is increasing rapidly, and as a consequence, “[...] those of us who accept the notion of WE need to go back to the drawing board and rethink our entire approach to ELT [English Language Teaching], no matter what the specific context we happen to find ourselves working in” (Rajagopalan, 2004, p. 112). Furthermore, he stresses that the evolution we will experience in the future by accepting World English is uncertain (Rajagopalan, 2004). However, ELT is bound to change as the number of second and foreign language learners of English increases.

English is undoubtedly a language that appeals to people worldwide and is thus subject to change, discussions and colliding opinions. It is the native language of around 400 million people, while it is the second language of approximately the same amount of people. In addition, English is the foreign language of around a billion people worldwide (Hansen, 2014, p. 211). Widdowson (1994) is one of many scholars who discuss whether the nations that are native speakers of English “own” the language or not. He claims that “The very fact that English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it” (Widdowson, 1994, p. 385). This statement expresses how the English language does not

¹ ESL refers to ‘English as a Second Language’, which is the unofficial position the English language has in the Norwegian educational system (Simensen, 2014)

“belong” to a specific country or culture, and because it is a language that is spoken worldwide – either by natives, second language speakers or foreign language speakers, it imposes a serious challenge in regards to language ideals and norms. Kachru (1990) points out the linguistic diversity within the English language, as its users have rapidly increased and continue to do so.

Traditionally, English as a second language has been taught with an idea of reaching a target language. In second language acquisition research, ‘target language’ is a term that appears frequently, and is therefore important to address in the context of this study. “The reality is that perfect mastery of a target language is rarely attained, even when learners begin at an early age” (Lightbown, 2000, p. 449). One of the reasons for this, she claims, is that the teachers who are modeling English almost exclusively are non-native speakers of English, that is; English is also their second or foreign language. Thus, the native-speaker norm, which has been prevalent in the ESL classroom for decades, has recently been challenged by several researchers. Due to the increased globalization of the English language, scholars debate whether the focus on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) calls for a different approach to the ideals of the English language. I will cover this perspective later in the thesis. Nonetheless, language teachers’ awareness has increasingly been devoted attention to, and is regarded as an important aspect of language teachers’ competence (Andrews, 2008). It is utterly important to be language aware in order to address specific elements of language, hence awareness of one’s own language also concern ESL teachers. Thus, language norms that apply to teachers are of interest in my research project in addition to how teachers themselves reflect on this issue.

1.2 Previous Research

Jenkins (1998), an advocate for International English², argues that

We no longer regard English as being taught mainly for communication with its native speakers (the goal of EFL [English as a Foreign Language³]), or the target of pronunciation teaching as a native-like accent, with the eradication of all traces of a ‘foreign’ accent, however unrealistic that target always was. We acknowledge that the EFL-ESL distinction is beginning to blur as the two merge into English as an International Language (EIL) (Jenkins, 1998, p. 119).

² The term ‘International English’ is discussed in section 2.1.4.

³ Henceforth, the abbreviation ‘EFL’ will be used when discussing ‘English as a foreign language’.

Although this statement was made over a decade ago, it is still valid in the light of recent research on the subject of teaching ESL on a native-speaker model. Risan (2014) wrote her MA thesis on prospective Norwegian ESL teachers' attitudes towards second language accents. Her study suggests that Norway's future ESL teachers have a desire to sound like native speakers of English themselves, but their emphasis and focus in the classroom is rather on communication and understanding. Although the participants of her study declare that they are acceptant of students' Norwegian-influenced English, they state that they would prefer students and teachers to aim for a British English⁴ or American English⁵ pronunciation (Risan, 2014, p. iii).

Although linguists, researchers and educators are seemingly concerned with the topic of the globalized English, its varieties and how this impacts the teaching of ESL, Norway's educational policy documents do not address these issues. The current curriculum, The Knowledge Promotion (LK06⁶) repeatedly refers to 'the English language' without further explaining what is meant by this expression – which in this context is understood as a vague term neglecting to address the fact that 'the English language' consists of a vast amount of varieties. Nor does the curriculum provide any sort of guidance as to what variety of English one should teach – or what is preferred or required of the students (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013). As mentioned, English is the mother tongue of around 400 million people from seven different countries and one large geographical region⁷. Naturally, this means that different varieties of English exist both between the seven countries, but also within these countries there are various dialects that are contributing to complicate the notion of 'the English language' as one united language.

1.3 Objective and Research Questions

As Hansen (2014) points out, the debate on English language ideals and norms is on the rise, suggesting that the discussion will emerge in Norway – not only at a personal level, but also politically. He calls for this topic to be debated on the basis of wanting clarification for ESL teachers, but also to ensure that all students have the same opportunities and are treated equally (Hansen, 2014).

⁴ British English is henceforth referred to as 'BrE'.

⁵ American English is henceforth referred to as 'AmE'.

⁶ LK06 is the accepted abbreviation for 'The Knowledge Promotion'. Henceforth I will use LK06 whenever the abbreviation of the Knowledge Promotion is used.

⁷ English is the mother tongue of different Caribbean regions, the United States of America, Canada, Britain, Ireland, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand (Svartvik & Leech, 2006, p. 3).

Introduction

I became interested in the topic of English language norms and ideals mainly because the Knowledge Promotion does not explicitly express what variety of English to teach – or how to address the issue of the many ‘Englishes’ that exist both within the ESL classroom and elsewhere in the world. Thus, I have explored practicing lower secondary ESL teachers’ awareness of their use of the English language, as well as their beliefs on ‘varieties of English’ related to their classroom practices. Awareness is a key term in this context; referring to the Norwegian ESL teachers’ notion and knowledge of the varieties of English. My study focuses on understanding teachers’ cognitions⁸. “Teacher cognition research is concerned with understanding what teachers think, know and believe. Its primary concern, therefore, lies with the unobservable dimension of teaching – teachers’ mental lives” (Borg, 2009, p. 1). What this means in relation to this thesis, primarily, is that I will explore language teachers’ beliefs of and awareness of their use of varieties of English. My study will not only focus on teachers’ spoken varieties of English, which might be the easiest way of distinguishing between the different varieties, but also concentrate on the written English language norms within a Norwegian context.

My main research question is:

What are Norwegian lower secondary ESL teachers’ beliefs about and awareness of their use of varieties of English and how does this relate to their teaching practices?

The main research question is supported by four subordinate research questions, which will be answered throughout the thesis;

- *What variety of English do teachers use and why?*
- *Is there a preferred ‘standard English’ in lower secondary school in Norway?*
- *Are teachers moving away from the native-speaker norm when teaching ESL or is the native-speaker norm still persistent in the lower secondary ESL classroom?*
- *What does this imply?*

These questions will be answered by investigating the survey responses of 89 lower secondary teachers. Additionally, an in-depth interview with seven practicing teachers will be presented. These interviews are supported by observations of two of the teachers’ teaching, meaning that

⁸ Although ‘cognition’ is regularly an uncountable noun, it is sometimes seen in plural form.

their unobservable mental understanding of their teaching will be seen in comparison with the observable teaching. The research questions are revisited in chapter 6.

The reason why lower secondary was chosen as the level of investigation was mainly because I have a teaching degree from a university college, meaning that I am familiar with this level. Additionally, I have always aspired to work with adolescents this age, as I fondly remember becoming aware of the diversity of the English language at lower secondary level myself.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of six different chapters, starting with an introduction in chapter 1 that has uncovered what the thesis is going to address. Previous research has been presented, establishing the relevance of the thesis' topic. Theoretical perspectives relevant for this project are addressed in chapter 2. Chapter 3 is a methodological chapter, discussing the different methods that were applied in order to answer the research question, as well as describing how and why my study was carried out. Relevant reflections regarding the methodological approaches are also found in chapter 3. Chapter 4 presents relevant results and analyses, followed by chapter 5 where the results are discussed in accordance with significant theoretical perspectives. The last chapter, chapter 6, will summarize the thesis and contains concluding remarks on my study. Additionally, the research questions will be revisited and answered.

2 Theoretical Perspectives

This chapter functions as a theoretical framework of my thesis, and an insight into the field of the English language within a historical context is provided here. In order to understand the current status of the English language and why there are so many ‘Englishes’, it is important to outline the historical aspects of the English language traveling across borders. The teaching of English as a second language will also be problematized here, with reference to the native-speaker norm and teachers as language models. Additionally, the concept of ‘teacher cognition’ is an important perspective in regards to my study, and will therefore be presented and thoroughly outlined at the very end of this chapter.

2.1 English in a Globalized World

2.1.1 Globalized English

The English language is relatively often referred to as a global language, and although it is not officially denoted as such, it is on its way of becoming the world’s first global language (Svartvik & Leech, 2006, p. 227). According to Crystal (2003), gradual development of a language’s importance within each country is what can cause a language to reach status as a global language. In other words; the language must achieve a ‘significant role’ globally. This clearly relates to Kachru’s (1985, 1990) description of English within concentric circles, which will be addressed in section 2.1.3. Although it might be perceived as an apparent characteristic of a global language, Crystal (2003) further explains that there are several aspects that are involved when a language achieves a ‘significant role’. First of all, countries where English is the mother tongue – such as the US and the UK, are examples where English naturally plays a key role. However, first-language use is not enough in itself to create and achieve a status of linguistic globalism. For it to be considered a global language, the language needs to be embraced by other countries as well.

Crystal (2003) distinguishes between two ways in which a language can be made significant within a society: 1) as a communicational tool in official instances such as the government and media, and 2) it can be prioritized through compulsory education. Ever since the 1960s, English has been a mandatory subject in the Norwegian educational system (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2007-2008). However, the position of the English language has varied according to the different curriculums. The current curriculum confirms the status of

English within Norway – convincingly stating that it is a language Norwegians *need* to know (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013). Report No. 23 to the Storting with the metaphorical title *Languages Build Bridges* (own translation) clearly acknowledges English as ‘common property’, and not as it traditionally was viewed; as a language reserved for the elite. The report moreover states that English holds a strong position as the first foreign language in Norway (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2007-2008). This implies that English is identified as an important component of Norwegian students’ language education, especially as English is separated from the other foreign languages and in this way emphasized. Simensen (2014) argues that English traditionally has had a foreign language status in Norway. In the 1990s, however, there was a general consensus that it was in the process of changing status to a second language in Norway, due to the wide use of English in business, studies abroad and the exposure of English in general through media.

2.1.2 The spread of English

It is important to understand how the English language has evolved in order to understand the complexity of the language’s spread and thus the ESL teachers’ task when teaching English.

Svartvik and Leech (2006) comment on the globalization of English by emphasizing that one should not credit the language itself or its speakers for its growth. This is also discussed by Mollin (2006), who criticize ‘language spread’ for being an imprecise term, because it indicates that language is an object that on its own has expanded in size. This is not the case, as its speakers are the ones who have made the English language travel across borders and consequently becoming an unofficial global language. Rather than manifesting itself on its own, the English language has primarily benefited from three historical events, according to Svartvik and Leech (2006). The imperial expansion made the English language spread, as did the technological revolution – where Britain and the US were leading parties. Additionally, international integration in the form of globalization has also made the English language spread widely.

Crystal (2003) similarly explains the growth of the English language as a global language on the basis of both geographical-historical and socio-cultural elements, relating to Svartvik and Leech’s (2006) explanation. The imperial expansion can be noted as geographical-historical, the technological revolution could be both geographical-historical and socio-cultural, while globalization can be characterized as socio-cultural. Crystal (2003) points out that the two

aspects were brought into unity, and have thus affected the English language into becoming a language that operates with several different varieties that can be separated through phonology, grammar and vocabulary. In the course of time, the English language has outgrown the size of its original native speakers.

2.1.3 The circles of English

To pick up Crystal's (2003) thread on the subject of the English language playing a key role in a society – we find Kachru (1985, 1990); one of many who point out the linguistic diversity within the English language. He stresses that what he calls the Concentric Circles of English – consisting of the 'Inner Circle', the 'Outer Circle' and the 'Expanding Circle' illustrate the large existing language community of the English language. Thus, these circles demonstrate the role of the English language within certain countries.

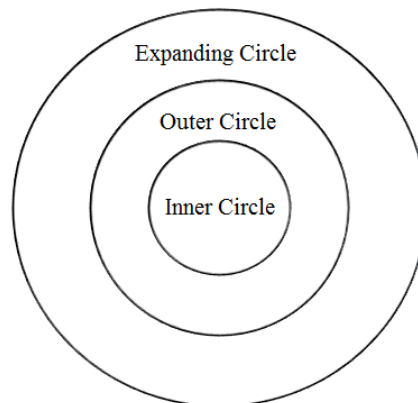


Figure 2.1. Concentric Circles of English (Kachru, 1985)

The Inner Circle consists of countries where English is the mother tongue, such as the US, the UK, Canada and Australia. According to Kachru (1985), the inner-circle countries are functioning as 'norm-providing', meaning that the varieties that are spoken and written within the borders of these countries represent English language ideals. The reason for this is that the holders of the language are native speakers. The Outer Circle consists of countries where the English language is of historical importance. Typically, English is regarded as a second language in outer-circle countries due to historical happenings (Kachru, 1985). Kachru (1990) states that countries such as Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and the Philippines are a part of this circle. These countries are by Kachru (1985) classified as 'norm-developing', meaning that there is an ambivalent relationship between linguistic behavior and the already set norms. The outer-circle countries are in fact developing their own varieties of English. The expanding-

circle countries, where English is considered being a foreign language, are described as 'norm-dependent'. These countries depend on the standard norms determined by the inhabitants of countries within the Inner Circle. A large number of countries are to be included in this circle, and following Kachru's (1985, 1990) classification of countries within these circles, positions Norway within the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1990). Report No. 23 to the Storting (2007-2008) clearly states that English is a foreign language, and thus it does not have an official status within our country (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2007-2008).

However, Svartvik and Leech (2006, p. 4) argue that in recent years, the distinction between countries belonging to the Outer Circle or the Expanding Circle is difficult to define. The reason for this is that linguistic influences from English have affected what was traditionally regarded as EFL countries and continues to do so. Norway is specifically mentioned as one of these countries, indicating that Norway might be located in a gray area between the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. This is in accordance with Simensen's (2014) notion of a merging of EFL and ESL in Norway. Crystal (2003) points out that distinguishing between 'second' and 'foreign' language use might be misleading, as one automatically expects people from a second language background to be more competent language users than those of countries where English is defined as a foreign language. Crystal (2003, p. 6) furthermore acknowledges that Scandinavians, which includes Norway, in general have a high level of language fluency, although the English language does not have an official status in the Scandinavian countries.

If we are to follow Kachru's (1985) model, the expanding-circle countries are not expected to develop their own 'Englishes', as they are dependent on the norms produced in the inner-circle countries. The model thus strengthens the native-speaker norm. According to Mollin (2006), this is one of the challenges of this model, seen in the light of the latest research on the topic of English as a second or foreign language. The model does not account for the recent status of the English language – an international language and a lingua franca. This means that English is used for communication not only between speakers from each of the three circles, but also within each circle, especially in the Expanding Circle. Although Kachru's (1985, 1990) model is subject to great discussion and subsequently many colliding opinions, it still illustrates the status of the English language and its different users in a comprehensible way. Also, it remains the most influential illustration of the different English speakers across the world.

2.1.4 English as a Lingua Franca

A lingua franca is defined as a language that is used as a contact language between people that do not have the same native language (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011, p. 281). Although this definition poses some challenges in regards to English as a lingua franca and might be a narrow description, as described by Jenkins (2014), it is the definition most frequently used. Mollin (2006) calls for a clear and specific definition of English as a Lingua Franca (henceforth referred to as ‘ELF’). Although there is a general agreement that the core of ELF is communication in English between speakers of different native languages, Mollin claims that “we do not yet seem to have a consensus as to the location of such conversations in theoretical, conceptual space” (Mollin, 2006, p. 42).

Jenkins (2014, p. 22) points toward the existence of lingua franca as a concept throughout the history, where different languages have functioned as lingua francas. English operated as a lingua franca through the period of the British colonization, as it does today. What has changed for ELF, however, is the number of users that are spread out geographically, which then leads to differences in the users’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds. This leads us to consider the term ‘International English’. International English is in this thesis used as a way of describing English with a lingua franca status. Thus it also refers to L2⁹ users of English that do not necessarily follow a native-speaker standard of English (e.g. Jenkins, 2004-2005).

As early as in 1998, Jenkins (1998) recognized that the distinction between ESL and EFL was beginning to fade out and the two were starting to merge. English was beginning to operate as a worldwide lingua franca due to the enormous number of non-native users. Thus, Jenkins proposed to establish a pronunciation syllabus suitable for non-native learners of English. This would concentrate on the three most frequent problems that challenges the intelligibility for non-native users of English¹⁰. This proposition was made on the basis of strengthening comprehensibility in the classroom. This would result in students being allowed to utilize their own norms for pronunciation, instead of aiming toward the unrealistic native-speaker norm. Although this proposal was never implemented, Jenkins still advocates for dismissing the native-speaker norm. She argues that it would be sensible to move away from such norms in the teaching of English, as languages constantly evolve due to their users (Jenkins, 2009). Jenkins (2000) also argued that ELF should be the leading linguistic model in the teaching of

⁹ ‘L2’ is an abbreviation used for ‘second language’.

¹⁰ The three areas are ‘segmentals’, ‘nuclear stress’ and ‘articulatory setting’ (Jenkins, 1998, pp. 122-123).

English for non-native speakers. This proposition is interesting in comparison with Mollin's (2006) study on ELF communication between European citizens. She analyzed a corpus of words in both written and spoken English, and found that the European non-native English speakers primarily followed a native-speaker standard. Errors did occur in their English communication, but these were individual mistakes that did not necessarily follow a pattern shared by all of the users. The study uncovered that there was scarcely ever mistakes common for all the users of English in a European setting – which then suggests that English as a lingua franca cannot be denoted as a separate variety of English. Mollin's (2006) paper furthermore points to the European language users' adherence to the standard varieties of English, which is what they learned at school. Thus, developing a standard international variety of ELF seems difficult and perhaps unrealistic considering that the native-speaker norm still dominates European non-native English users.

2.2 The Teaching of ESL

2.2.1 The native-speaker norm

Target language is a term frequently referred to in the context of language learning. It is not an unproblematic term, as it implies that there is an existing norm that students should strive toward mastering when acquiring a new language, as pointed out by Hansen (2014). Drew and Sørheim (2009) offer a narrow explanation of the term 'target language', by simply stating that it is "the language they [the students] want to learn" (p. 18). Thus, they do not give an account for the complexity of the term's content. When English is functioning as a target language, there is a suggested language norm present, typically a native-speaker norm. This norm is used as a guideline of correct and incorrect language use. Hansen (2014) furthermore points toward how the native-speaker norm is an unrealistic ideal, as students learning a second language can never achieve such a competence unless they have acquired the language in early childhood and manage to maintain their proficiency by constantly using it. Also, it would require an internal understanding of the given language. In regards to the English teaching in Norway, such a competence is difficult to achieve for the students. Kramsch (1993) argues that the native-speaker norm is perceived as intimidating not only for non-native students, but also for non-native teachers. Consequently, both parties try to live up to reaching a level of proficiency that approximates native-speaker proficiency, which is difficult to achieve. This is also touched upon by Cook (2001), who points out that the

students may acknowledge the native-speaker ideal¹¹ as an unrealistic goal. However, the advantage of the native-speaker model is that it is based on already standardized varieties, with specific existing norms, making it easier to establish criteria and thus facilitate the teaching (Hansen, 2014). Also, Mollin (2006) argues that the native-speaker norm should continue as the teaching model in expanding-circle countries, as her study suggest that ELF is not a variety in itself. Thus, it is of interest to explore what teachers' current practices are.

Drew and Sørheim (2009, p. 48) represent a view similar to Mollin's perspective – modestly suggesting to sustain the native-speaker norm. They emphasize that acquiring good intonation and pronunciation is dependent on the quality of the language the given learner is exposed to through listening. Implicitly they are thus requiring English teachers to be excellent speakers. Therefore, they note that it is significant that the students “[...] listen to as much authentic English in class as possible [...]” (2009, p. 48), almost suggesting to discard the non-native speaker teacher. A non-native English teacher would never achieve such a competence, as pointed out by Hansen (2014) and Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008) . Drew and Sørheim (2009) moreover claim that a native-like or near-native-like pronunciation is possible to achieve by listening to authentic audio or video material. This would require the authentic sound material to be performed by a native speaker or near-native speaker. Although taken out of context, these reflections are interesting, especially in regards to the ongoing debate on whether the native-speaker norm is still persistent in the Norwegian ESL classroom. Conveying attitudes like these might function counterproductive, as other scholars these days tend to aim toward moving away from the native-speaker norm as a target of the ESL education. Drew and Sørheim (2009) are thus contributing to reinforce the native-speaker norm. Hansen (2014, p. 214) refers to several scholars within applied linguistic research who advocate for dismissing the native-speaker ideal and replacing it with a different language ideal. Drew and Sørheim's (2009) *English Teaching Strategies* is on the reading lists of all the pedagogical English courses of the teacher education at Norwegian university colleges, as reported by Følgegruppen (2014, p. 5). Thus, it is fair to believe that this book is being widely used across the teacher education institutes of Norway, conveying attitudes that do not necessarily align with the current research on the topic of language norms in the ESL classroom. Drew and Sørheim (2009) do not problematize that the English language has become a global language,

¹¹ Note that there is a difference between ‘norm’ and ‘ideal’. The two terms have much in common, but ‘norm’ is in this context understood as a standard that people are supposed to adhere to, or are urged to follow. ‘Ideal’, on the other hand, has a more positive connotation, referring to a standard that is worthy of adhering to – something that you *want* to follow. Scholars seem to present these two terms as synonyms, and when I refer to one or the other I stick to the term used by the given scholar.

i.e. they do not account for aspects related to ‘varieties of English’ and the challenge of language norms.

Timmis (2002) surveyed around 600 teachers and students in over 45 countries, to find out whether there was a focus on sounding native-like when speaking English. The responses suggest a divide between the students and teachers, as the teachers seemed to move away from the native-speaker norm more rapidly than the students. Overall, the students expressed a desire to aim toward a native-speaker-like English, and non-native accents were considered unattractive. Although this study was conducted over 10 years ago, it is still valid as the debate on whether there is a need for a native-speaker norm still exists within the research field of ESL. My study does not include a student perspective, and thus Timmis (2002) findings are interesting to include as a juxtaposed perspective.

2.2.2 What (or ‘which’) English in the classroom?

Hasselgård, Johansson and Lysvåg (2012) raise the question of what English one should rely on or teach, referring to the substantial number of users and thus the variation within the English language. This variation does not only apply to the different countries where English is the mother tongue, but within the countries there are also different dialects, sociolects and accents. Harmer (2007, p. 22) rhetorically asks what model teachers should teach English with, i.e. what norm they should base their teaching on, and moreover addresses the correctness practice of teachers, by asking who decides what is considered acceptable English. The answers to these questions, he proposes, are that it depends on where in the world English is being taught and also on the given students. Organizing the teaching in the best possible way is also dependent on what the students’ purpose of learning English is. Applying this in a Norwegian context means that one has to consider the national regulations, the curriculum, in order to understand what implications it has for Norwegian students. Hansen (2014) argues that the vast amount of English varieties complicates the teachers’ task in terms of providing feedback to their students, as it is nearly impossible to have detailed knowledge of the different varieties in order to point out what is correct and incorrect language use.

Cook (2001) raises the question on whether the native speaker should be the target of language teaching. This question implies that there are other ‘Englishes’ that can function norm providing. He furthermore points out that “most language teachers, and indeed most

students, accept that their goal is to get as close to the native speaker as possible” (Cook, 2001, p. 177). This citation explicitly conveys that the native-speaker ideal presumably is present in the L2-classroom.

2.2.3 Teachers as language models

The framework for the Norwegian teacher education at university colleges, *National Curriculum Regulations for Differentiated Primary and Lower Secondary Teacher Education Programmes for Years 1 – 7 and Years 5 – 10*, were implemented in 2010 (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010). Teacher students are able to attend two different courses in the subject English; *Engelsk 1* (English 1) and *Engelsk 2* (English 2).

The guidelines for years 5-10, which are the most relevant in my context, present different learning outcomes intended for the teacher students, e.g.:

can use English confidently and functionally orally and written and be a good language model for the students (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010, p. 39, my translation from *Engelsk 1*)

As understood from this citation, being a ‘good’ language model is presented as an important aspect that the teacher students are supposed to achieve after attending the Engelsk 1 course. The teacher students are required to learn about different varieties of English through the Engelsk 2 course, but it does not explicitly mention what varieties of English that are of interest;

have knowledge about some of the varieties of English (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010, p. 41, my translation from *Engelsk 2*).

The learning outcome referred to above does not say what kind of knowledge the teacher students are supposed to gain after attending the English course. It does, however, acknowledge that there are different varieties of English and the teacher students are required to know about some of these – in order for them to teach English. This learning outcome is strikingly similar to one of the competence aims students should achieve during lower secondary school, because students at this level are supposed to be able to listen to and understand variations¹² of English (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013). For students to accomplish

¹² LK06’s English version translates ‘varianter’ into ‘variations’.

this competence aim, their teachers naturally need to have knowledge of some of the varieties of English. A third relevant learning outcome for the teacher students is;

can use the target language confidently and functionally orally and written in different situations and genres with precision, fluency and coherence (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010, p. 41, my translation *from Engelsk 2*).

What is particularly interesting here is the term ‘target language’. This term implies that there is indeed an existing language norm, as Hansen (2014) points out. English is the target language they refer to, implying that there is *one* English language. The English language might only be considered as one language, but the fact that there are several varieties of English complicates the notion of one ‘target language’.

The learning outcomes point to what the teacher students should acquire through participating in these courses. The documents signalize what the Government assesses as important in regards to being an English teacher, or what skills are significant. How these are achieved or acquired or what it entails is not described, leaving it up to each university college to determine what it means and how it is implemented. Nonetheless, the Government’s guidelines suggest that one of the aims of the English teacher education in Norway is that the candidates must attain a high level of competence in spoken English. This also concerns written text, but there is a big difference between spoken and written language, as the latter makes it possible to review the content and phrasing, as pointed out by Crystal (2004). Teachers as language models consequently play an important part in the teacher education, and thus the actual teaching of English as a subject in primary and lower secondary school in Norway. Also, the previous framework for the teacher education, which was replaced by the new reform in 2010, stresses the importance of the teacher as a language model for the students and in the context of the English subject. The aim of modeling the language for the students is directly transferred to the guidelines of 2010 (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2009).

Harmer (2007, p. 117) states that in addition to written texts, audio and video clips, the teachers themselves are models of the English language. Drew and Sørheim (2009, p. 55) also touch upon this topic, as they point toward the teachers’ many challenges of being an English teacher in a Norwegian context. One of these challenges is considered being a “[...] good model of spoken English in class” (Drew & Sørheim, 2009, p. 55). They claim that by aiming toward speaking English at all times, the teachers signalize the importance of doing so, and that it is easier for the students to do the same. Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008, p. 153) also stress

the importance of the teacher as a language model in the context of pronunciation. They state that the teacher's oral English skills have to be superior in the sense they are the ones who portray the English language. They moreover argue that it is utterly important that the teacher models an English pronunciation that is perceived as stable, as youngsters of the digital age are constantly exposed to different varieties of English. Lightbown (2000, p. 449) also touch upon the topic of the teacher as a language model in an L2-teaching context, and argues that learners achieving 'perfect mastery' of a language is the exception and not the rule. One of these reasons, she claims, is that their language model primarily is their teacher, who often also is a non-native speaker.

Bergsland (2014) suggests that poor pronunciation in English often can hinder communication and understanding. Therefore, she argues that it is important that teachers have sufficient knowledge of the students' mother tongue and also the foreign language being taught, so that they have the ability to both communicate and demonstrate how the students can achieve a good pronunciation. Good pronunciation and intonation in English is mentioned as a necessity of an English teacher. However, she does not elaborate on what is meant by the term 'good', which is then understood as a rather vague description. In order to acquire a 'good' pronunciation and intonation, it is perhaps wise to define what the criteria of being 'good' actually entail. Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008, pp. 124-125) state that Norwegian dialects can be challenging in terms of intonation, which concerns both teachers and students. Norwegian ESL teachers are therefore urged to lose their Norwegian intonation pattern, in order to influence their students positively. Norwegian dialect patterns that are transferred to the teachers' spoken English can possibly hinder the communication, resulting in unwanted effects. Bergsland (2014) furthermore points toward the importance of the teacher attempting to be consistent when choosing a variety of English in terms of pronunciation. This is in accordance with Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008, p. 8), who point toward the significance of representing consistency. They claim that teachers should use a sound system or an accent that is suitable for imitation. Being consistent would require awareness of the components of the English language. Bergsland (2014) clearly states that it is not, however, a requirement that the teacher should speak as a native speaker, but being consistent when speaking English is mentioned as an imperative asset of the teachers' oral competence. Representing a language model that students can base their own language learning on – often the standard variety of the target language is emphasized as important. She furthermore states that students easily detect whether the teacher is comfortable with his way of speaking English or if the

pronunciation is convincing. Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008) note that teachers' ambitions should extend beyond producing understandable language, and that teachers should "have a form of authentic reference to measure [themselves] against" (2008, p. 9). A native-speaker norm would be able to function as guidelines of pronunciation.

Lightbown (2000) argues that students learning a foreign language scarcely ever achieve native-speaker proficiency. Several factors contribute to this being an improbable objective for students. For one, the students' teachers are generally non-native speakers of English – hence, the students are not presented with a native speaker of English as a language model. Also, she points toward the students' amount of contact with the language they are learning. Because it in an L2 context is usually limited to the number of teaching hours at school, she claims that it is unlikely to achieve native-like mastery of an L2, indicating that contact with the language is an important factor when learning a language and maintaining it over time. Although Norwegian students can be considered fortunate in the way they surround themselves with English on an everyday-basis, as pointed out by Byram (2008, p. 54), there is a general consensus that the English teacher still plays an important role as language model in the ESL classroom.

2.2.4 Non-native speaker teachers

Who provides the better teaching of ESL; the native-speaker teacher or the non-native teacher, is a heated discussion. Cook (2001, p. 175) claims that the native-speaker teacher almost exclusively is favored over the non-native speaker teacher in an L2-learning context. The native speaker can present a model of English that the non-native speaker rarely is able to. The native speaker is sufficiently able to model the target language, and can furthermore intuitively answer questions regarding the language. Harmer (2007, p. 119), on the other hand, considers the advantages of teachers being non-native-speakers of English. The non-native speaker teacher can relate to the process of acquiring a new language. This understanding of the non-native teacher is supported by Cook (2001), pointing to Medgyes' (1992) notion of native-speaker teachers' drawbacks. As native-speaker teachers possibly are less able to relate to the students' learning processes, they consequently might not anticipate learning difficulties and cannot make full use of the students' L1¹³, which could be advantageous (cf. Harmer, 2007). Harmer (2007) similarly suggests that if the teacher's native

¹³ 'L1' is an abbreviation used for 'first language' or 'native language'.

language is the same as the students' L1, the teacher can draw on the advantages of this language when teaching the students English, and they can also be familiar with the possible pitfalls when it comes to for instance interference mistakes. Cook (2001) therefore proposes that a non-native teacher might “be a better model of a person who commands two languages and is able to communicate through both” (p. 176). Another potential advantage of being a non-native speaker teacher is that they might be more familiar with the local culture, although this is not necessarily applicable in all contexts (Cook, 2001; Harmer, 2007). However, as Cook (2001) points out, the native-speaker teacher is a representative of the language the students are learning, i.e. a member of the language community the students are trying to gain access to, by being L2 users. This means that a native-speaker teacher might achieve a status among the students that the non-native teacher is unable to, by being ‘one of them’.

2.2.5 English in Norwegian classrooms

Llurda (2004) denotes that until recently, ‘ambassador’ was a conventional term used in the context of referring to the English language teachers’ role. What is integrated in the ‘ambassador’ concept is that the teacher was regarded as a representative of not only the English language, but also of the English-speaking world or community. The predominant concentration in Europe – which also entails Norway, was to focus on British society and culture. This focus was also noticed in other parts of the world, although the American culture and society was seen included to some extent in the teaching of English. Stereotypical values of British or American culture was therefore the main focus.

As established in section 2.1.1, English is unofficially considered a second language in Norway. Simensen (2014) discusses the development of English as a subject in the Norwegian educational system by reviewing different Norwegian curriculums. The English subject was initially introduced in 1936, but not implemented until 1939, with the curriculum *Normalplan*. At this time, each municipality decided whether to include English as a subject or not, which naturally led to different decisions based on geographical locations. In 1969, the subject English was made compulsory for everyone attending school. From 1939 until 1987, BrE was the standard variety of the Norwegian school system. In 1987, BrE and AmE were considered equals, as the students were supposed to learn to respect different pronunciation varieties equally. The students were 10 years later, in 1997, required to notice different varieties of the English language. This brief overview of how the English subject has evolved, suggests a

change in focus resulting in a current emphasis on communication, with the implementation of the current curriculum The Knowledge Promotion in 2006.

2.2.6 The national curriculum: The Knowledge Promotion

LK06 expresses what competences and skills the students should attain after a given year. In the context of this thesis, the most relevant competence aims in the English subject curriculum are found after year 10. The formulations of the competence aims are very open, perhaps vague, and calls for interpretation. After year 10, the students should be able to “listen to and understand variations of English from different authentic situations” (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013, p. 9). This competence aim is found in the English version of LK06, while the Norwegian version uses the term “varianter”, meaning ‘variants’. Thus, it is fair to believe that the English version of the curriculum really intends to refer to ‘variants of English’ or ‘varieties of English’, a more established term, instead of ‘variations of English’. Nevertheless, this competence aim clearly refers to students having to comprehend different varieties of English. LK06 furthermore remarks that the basic skill ‘oral competence’ among other things “[...] involves being able to understand variations in spoken English from different parts of the world” (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013, p. 5). As this does not address any specific English-speaking country, but rather acknowledges that English is a global language, it most certainly can refer to students’ having to encounter English from all of the countries belonging to Kachru’s (1985, 1990) circles.

An interesting perspective in terms of the English subject curriculum is that the Norwegian version, i.e. the original, states that the English language is a “verdensspråk”, which basically means ‘global language’ or ‘world language’, while the English version of LK06 claims that English is a “universal language”. A universal language alludes to a rather different scope, as something being universal signalizes that it is existing for everyone (Merriam-Webster, 2015b). Global, on the other hand, means that it involves the entire world (Merriam-Webster, 2015a). Hence, the major difference is that a universal language would have to apply to everyone, while a global language is present everywhere in the world, but not necessarily a language everyone has acquired. To some extent, this suggests that the English version of LK06 is not revised sufficiently, or that the ones behind it do not necessarily acknowledge the difference between a global and a universal language. This also applies to the example from the competence aim above, where LK06 has not distinguished between the terms ‘variants’ and ‘variations’.

Although I have not considered LK06 in detail due to the scope of this thesis, it is worth mentioning that the English version of LK06's English subject curriculum includes vocabulary items specific for BrE. The subject curriculum incorporates spellings such as 'specialised', 'programme', 'generalised', 'recognise', 'emphasise' and 'socialise', which are considered BrE standards (Svartvik & Leech, 2006; Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013). LK06 also refers to 'pupils', a common term for children attending school in the UK, rather than the AmE equivalent 'student' (Summers, 1995). Also, LK06's terms for the different school levels are labeled primary school, lower secondary and upper secondary school. These are in accordance with the UK's educational system's terms 'primary school' and 'secondary school' (Oakland, 2011, p. 239). In the US, the educational system is divided into three main levels: elementary school, middle school or junior high school and high school (Mauk & Oakland, 2009, p. 287). It thus seems that the Norwegian version of LK06 has 'adopted' the BrE terms regarding the educational system. Of course it is difficult to match one country's educational system to another, but the terms used for the Norwegian educational levels in English are noticeably similar to the terms used in the British education. These few features suggest that BrE is the language norm used for the English version of LK06.

2.3 Studies within a Norwegian Context

There is to my knowledge few studies that focus on language varieties in the ESL classroom in a Norwegian context. However, four studies stand out as relevant related to this thesis – as they examine different perspectives of varieties of English in an educational context.

One of the Norwegian studies pointing toward an increased focus on varieties of English is Rindal's (2013) PhD dissertation. The aim of her research was to determine what variety of English pronunciation Norwegian upper secondary students have, and what kind of attitudes these students have toward their own and others' pronunciation of English. Throughout her study, she questions who has the right to use English and make it their own – which is a key element of language learning. Rindal's research indicates that Norwegian upper secondary students favor an AmE pronunciation rather than a BrE pronunciation for themselves; despite the fact that they believe that BrE is valued as a correct standard in a school context. Her study also reveals that some students do not follow the norms of sounding native-like, but that they rather attempt to speak a neutral form or variety of English. These students basically just want to speak English, however – their pronunciation is influenced by AmE (Rindal, 2013). Rindal comments on her own dissertation in an article by Sund (2013), where she states that

her findings suggest that the English language is closely connected to the feeling of identity of her informants. Thus the English language has become personal to the students and she claims that it in this manner no longer can be considered a foreign language (Sund, 2013). These are interesting reflections on Rindal's part, as they touch upon the social function of the English language in a Norwegian context and also raise questions about the existence and terminology of English as a foreign or second language in Norway.

Risan (2014) recently finished her MA Thesis on teacher students' attitudes toward accents in the Norwegian ESL classroom. Her study is directly related to verbal communication; meaning that it does not cover the whole spectrum of communicating in a foreign/second language. Her results suggest that there is an interesting ambivalence in prospective teachers' attitudes toward spoken varieties of English. It appears that the respondents in all seriousness are concerned with wanting their students to speak English in a way that promotes communication; and that it does not matter whether their English perfectly matches the phonology of one of the native varieties of English. On the other hand, and this is where the ambivalence is found – the future teachers in general expressed a strong desire to sound native-like when speaking English themselves (Risan, 2014).

In her MA thesis, Maria Tengs Sannes' (2013) studied both exposure to and attitudes toward native and non-native varieties of English in relation to the teaching of English in Norway. By surveying students in upper secondary school and interviewing three teachers, she concludes that the native-speaker norm is still persistent in the Norwegian ESL classroom. However, she points out that the students are exposed to a greater amount of English-pronunciation varieties now than what was customary earlier. This result was found as Tengs Sannes investigated audio material that is accompanying the students' textbooks. The pronunciation varieties are nevertheless often limited to varieties from countries of the inner circle, i.e. countries where English is an official language. She found that BrE and AmE varieties are still the most dominant. Although both teachers and students recognize communication as the main goal of the language teaching, and that you do not have to speak English like a native speaker in order to be understood – the native-speaker norm is still persistent.

Thomas Hansen's (2011) investigated whether teachers prioritize the native-speaker model or the intercultural-speaker model in his MA thesis. He surveyed 31 teachers, and found that their responses suggested that the intercultural-speaker model was only somewhat

acknowledged – in regards to teaching culture. His study indicates that the native-speaker norm is the preferred model when the students are acquiring the English language. Near-native speaker pronunciation and intonation is affecting the teachers' assessment of the students positively, i.e. that it is favored over Norwegian-influenced pronunciation.

These four studies all shed light to some aspects of the wide topic of English varieties in the Norwegian ESL classroom, and will be revisited later in chapter 5. It is important to note that although three of these studies include elements of teachers' cognitions, they are not explicitly teacher cognition studies.

2.4 Teacher Cognition and Awareness

Teacher cognition research has emerged as a central field within pedagogical research, as aspects of teachers' psychological processes are studied. Teacher cognition research devotes attention to teachers' mentalities; their thoughts, knowledge and beliefs (Borg, 2009). As understood by this description, teachers' cognitions are subject to interest among educational researchers, as such mental processes are able to contribute to the understanding of classroom practices. Teacher cognition is a central aspect of my thesis, as my conducted study is interested in teachers' awareness of their own use of English varieties, as well as their beliefs of varieties of English related to their teaching practices. The concept of teacher cognition pervades the study I have conducted, as lower secondary ESL teachers have reported their professional and personal opinions on the topic of language varieties related to their teaching practices.

Borg (2009) refers to a report from 1975 by the National Institute of Education that pointed out and acknowledged that cognitive processes were valuable in regards to teaching. In this report, the connection between teachers' thoughts and actions in the classroom was emphasized and regarded as crucial components of the teaching. The report moreover stated that the teachers' mentalities needed to be researched in order to receive an understanding of teachers' teaching. The behaviorist view on teaching had been the leading perception for decades at this time, meaning that the newfound emphasis on the psychological processes of teachers was pioneering. Instead of focusing on the teachers purely as instruments, they were now considered "active, thinking, decision-makers" (Borg, 2009, p. 2). Teacher cognition research consequently emerged as a field of interest for educational researchers, and it was finally in the 1980s recognized as an essential part of studies regarding teaching.

Phipps and Borg (2009) summarize what teacher cognition research indicate and these are the main findings about the role of teachers' cognitions:

- may be powerfully influenced (positively or negatively) by teachers' own experiences as learners and are well established by the time teachers go to university
- act as a filter through which teachers interpret new information and experience
- may outweigh the effects of teacher education in influencing what teachers do in the classroom
- can exert a persistent long-term influence on teachers' instructional practices
- are, at the same time, not always reflected in what teachers do in the classroom
- interact bi-directionally with experience (i.e. beliefs influence practices and practices can also lead to changes in beliefs) (p. 381).

These characterizations of teachers' cognitions are founded on several research papers that Phipps and Borg (2009) have examined. The set of points referred to above suggest that teachers' cognitions are powerful assets that should not be neglected, but rather be considered interesting facets of being human. Clearly, teachers' experiences and mentalities influence their way of teaching. However, this is not always the case, but *can* be. These examples are not specific for language teacher cognition, nor the L2-classroom, but they have a transfer value in the fact that it seems as though teachers behave the way they do due to their personal thoughts, beliefs and experiences. Also, Borg (2006, p. 35) notes that teachers' cognitions are dynamic. This is a relevant aspect, as it indicates that teachers' mentalities are constantly in development. Thus, it suggests that teachers' thoughts, knowledge and beliefs can progress or evolve over time.

Teacher cognition research initially only regarded general language studies, and it was not until the 1990s that it began concentrating on L2 teacher cognition. For instance, Borg (2006) reviewed several studies, and found that around 200 studies included teacher cognition research in some form from 1996. This review also includes L1-research. Although he found many studies that include the teacher cognition perspective, Borg (2009) calls for more research on topics such as writing and vocabulary teaching in connection to teacher cognition. He furthermore emphasizes that teacher cognition research has not given the attention needed to non-native speaker teachers of English in teaching settings. Nonetheless, the popularity of teacher cognition research is increasing and there are several possible ways to conduct teacher cognition research, as proposed by Borg (2006). Understanding the mental processes of teachers can help determining how and why they act the way they do.

As awareness is a central aspect of the study conducted in relation to this thesis, it is relevant to define what lies in the concept of awareness connected to language teaching. Awareness in a language teaching context is a relatively newfound interest area of linguists, but nonetheless an important one. Andrews (2008) accounts for the different aspects of this movement, and to define what teacher language awareness is concerned with, he quotes Thornbury (1997): “the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively” (in Andrews, 2008, p. ix). Thus, awareness is understood as an important perspective of the ‘knowledge’-aspect of teachers’ cognitions. Andrews (2008) furthermore points to the importance of awareness in relation to language teaching, as teachers who are language aware are considered more productive in promoting student learning. Language awareness entails explicit and implicit knowledge about language and consciousness in the sense that the teacher’s conscious mental processes are important aspects of being language aware. “[...] all L2 teachers require a certain level of TLA [Teacher Language Awareness], much of which is dependent on hard work, practice, reflection and sensitivity [...] (Andrews, 2008, p. 165). This citation emphasizes that several aspects are contributing to increase awareness among language teachers, and that it is a requirement for L2 teachers. Andrews also states that “any explicit attention to features of language in L2 teaching places on the L2 teacher’s language awareness” (Andrews, 2008, p. 22). This implies that awareness of teachers’ own use of the language may directly affect their students learning outcomes – and it is therefore a prominent concept in the ESL classroom.

2.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have addressed some theoretical perspectives that are relevant for my study. The English language has been subject to great changes over the last centuries and has spread worldwide. This has led to debates on language norms that also affect the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. By modeling English, the teacher is considered an important resource to knowledge of the English language. Some suggest that there is a need for the English teachers to master a stable and consistent language, and require teachers to be excellent speakers, whereas others argue that it is sensible to move away from language norms that are strictly based on native-speakers. The national curriculum does not address what language norm to follow – not how to write English and not how to speak English or what English to teach, and it therefore seems difficult to know how to deal with this. The English subject has changed over the years, and the current curriculum acknowledges that there are several varieties of English, and promotes communication as a main aspect of

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teaching English. Four Norwegian studies have been briefly outlined, all of them suggesting that BrE and AmE are strongly positioned in Norway.

Studies show that teachers' cognitions are important assets in understanding the teachers' teaching practices, and thus teacher cognition research forms the basis of this thesis. The most central theoretical perspectives will be revisited in chapter 5.

3 Methodology

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) state that the term ‘method’ means the way toward the goal, i.e. that methods are considered being important tools when researching on the basis of a research question. I will in this chapter present this thesis’ methodological approaches. That is, what kind of research I have carried out will be explained, as well as why the different data collection methods have been implemented. When relevant, theoretical aspects regarding methods and material will be presented and I will continuously refer to my project throughout the chapter. Each of the three methods that were carried out will be outlined, and discussed in relation to my project.

3.1 Research Design

Johannessen et al. (2010, pp. 396-397) characterize a research design as how a study is organized and implemented in order to answer the research question. Thus, the following paragraphs will disclose descriptions of my thesis’ research design, in order to provide an insight into what my methodological approach consists of.

3.1.1 Teacher cognition study

My methodological approach is based on the ways in which Borg (2006) recommends carrying out studies when exploring teacher cognition. Borg (2006) distinguishes between four different approaches to conduct teacher cognition research; ‘self-report instruments’, ‘verbal commentaries’, ‘observation’ and ‘reflective writing’. He repeatedly points out that studies on teacher cognition often include more than one data collection method. The four approaches each include several data collection strategies, providing the researcher with several options. Borg stresses that the methods he outlines are not free of problems, but that combining approaches can neutralize the limitations of one single strategy. Three of Borg’s concepts are applied in regards to my thesis, excluding ‘reflective writing’. The first approach is a ‘self-report instrument’, where I have designed an online survey that at the end of the data-collection period had been answered by 89 English-teachers. Secondly, a ‘verbal commentary’ in the form of an in-depth interview was designed, and seven teacher interviews were carried out. Finally, these interviews were supplemented by an observation of two of the interviewed teachers, to understand whether their awareness and beliefs regarding varieties of English was in accordance with the observable practical teaching in the classroom. In other

words; the intention was to carry out three different research methods and thus combine different methods, as proposed by Borg. By including both qualitative and quantitative approaches, it was possible to receive both rich information from few informants in addition to structured and comparable information in a wider sense from numerous respondents (Ringdal, 2007, p. 92).

3.1.2 Mixed methods design

Based on the different methods outlined above, the research design can qualify as a mixed methods design. What this mean, according to Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007), is that the researcher combines two or more methods, preferably qualitative and quantitative methods – as I have done in the context of this thesis. Furthermore, Truscott et al. (2010) advocate that the aim of utilizing a mixed methods research design is to purposely base the research on knowledge of the advantages of both quantitative and qualitative methods. They point out that combining methods could further reduce the limitations of these approaches, in accordance with Borg (2006). This corresponds with Grønmo's (1996) notion of a mixed methods research design. As Grønmo (1996, p. 99) argues, a mixed methods design can provide a more holistic picture of the given phenomenon. An extensive representation of teachers' awareness of their own use of English and their beliefs relating to language varieties in the lower secondary ESL classroom is what I aspire to provide in this thesis. The data from my study has the ability to complement each other but also confirm findings. My primary data are the survey and interview responses, and the observations function as secondary data.

3.2 Data Collection

My data collection consists of 89 survey responses, seven interview transcriptions and notes from two observations. The project was registered at the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) and the survey questions, the interview guide and the consent form designed for the interviewees were submitted to NSD. After receiving approval from NSD¹⁴, the process of locating respondents and informants began. The obvious choice was to find respondents and informants that work as English teachers at lower secondary school in Norway. This section includes relevant information on the different methods that were carried out, as well as a description of how questions were formulated. How the survey was distributed and how the interviews and the observations were conducted is also covered in the

¹⁴ Approval from NSD is found in Appendix 1.

following paragraphs. The survey questions and the interview guide were designed around the same time, and I structured them in a way that I believed would make it possible to compare the data.

3.2.1 Survey

I designed an online survey¹⁵ in SelecSurvey, an open code source survey package that enables you to create online surveys. SelectSurvey is in line with NTNU's internal guidelines for securing information, and was thus suitable for my project. I administrated the survey I designed, i.e. the only one with access to edit the survey and viewing the responses was me. The number of respondents an online survey can provide is limitless, and it had the possibility to disclose common features of a larger group of teachers than what a qualitative interview is able to provide. The aim was to receive at least 50 responses from lower secondary ESL teachers, and 89 teachers had replied by the time I closed the survey.

Designing the survey

Johannessen et al. (2010) distinguish between three different question categories that usually occur in surveys; questions attempting to understand a person's knowledge, actions and attitudes. The 33 questions that were formulated for the survey are in accordance with these three question categories, seeking to receive an understanding of the teachers' experiences, awareness and point of view regarding language varieties in the ESL classroom.

The survey consists of different kinds of questions; both open-ended questions, multiple choice questions, rating scale questions¹⁶ and more fact-oriented questions, as proposed by Ringdal (2007, pp. 178-179). The survey was designed with an idea of generating meaningful variation among the teachers, not just to receive statistical facts. Thus, the survey is not entirely quantitative, but includes qualitative elements, as described by Ringdal (2007, p. 97). The challenge of designing and phrasing questions for a survey, according to Johannessen et al. (2010, p. 259), is that the questions can be interpreted differently by the respondents than what the researcher had intended. To ensure that the questions were relevant and comprehensible I critically evaluated my formulations. Additionally, being familiar with the field of varieties of English assisted me in assessing the relevance of the questions (Johannessen et al., 2010, p. 260). The questions in the survey strived toward matching some

¹⁵ The survey is found in Appendix 3.

¹⁶ The rating scale questions are Likert-scales consisting of seven nuanced options (Johannessen et al., 2010).

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of the questions in the interview guide – making it possible to connect the data material of the two research methods.

Questions 12-22 asked the teachers to report how they would spell a given word, e.g. program/programme, and what words they use out of two options, e.g. lift/elevator. The respondents were also allowed to report that they did not know or that they switched between the BrE and the AmE varieties of the given words. These 11 questions all occurred in random order, meaning that it was difficult for the teachers to detect a pattern of what alternative applied to which variety. The words were carefully chosen and based on Svartvik and Leech's (2006, p. 154-155) presentation of the differences between spelling in AmE and BrE, as well as spellings and words found in *Fowler's Modern English Usage* (Allen, 2008) and Hasselgård et al. (2012). The words are examples of BrE and AmE words, as these two native varieties are the most influential and present in the Norwegian ESL classroom (Simensen, 2014). Some of the differences in spelling between BrE and AmE that I have made use of in the survey are:

- BrE words with more than one syllable that end with -our (e.g. colour) end with -or in AmE (e.g. color).
- BrE words that end with -re (e.g. centre) end with -er in AmE (e.g. center).
- BrE verbs that end with -ise (e.g. realise) end with -ize in AmE (e.g. realize).
- Some BrE words that end with -ence (e.g. defence) ends with -ense in AmE (e.g. defense).
- AmE verbs that end with an unstressed syllable vowel and a consonant (e.g. canceling/canceled) will in BrE double the consonant before the ending -ing and -ed (e.g. cancelling/cancelled)
- BrE nouns that end in -ogue (e.g. dialogue), usually end with -og in AmE (e.g. dialog). (Svartvik & Leech, 2006, pp. 154-155).

Additionally, vocabulary differences also separate BrE and AmE. Some words only exist in one of the varieties, whereas other might appear in both varieties carrying different meanings. There are approximately 4000 words in everyday speech that are used differently in the two varieties of English. Some of these words are more frequently occurring than others, and are thus more familiar to people (Svartvik & Leech, 2006). *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Summers, 1995) show 3000 of the most frequently used words in BrE and AmE. 12 of the 15 words that appeared in question 12-22 are high frequency words in

spoken and/or written English¹⁷. It is thus plausible that the teachers were acquainted with these words.

Selecting and Recruiting Respondents

In order to recruit respondents, several principals at lower secondary schools all over the country were contacted directly through e-mails¹⁸. In my e-mail I presented my project briefly, and the principals were urged to forward the e-mail to their employees that worked as English teachers. Some English teachers were contacted directly, either because I or fellow students knew that the given person was working as an English teacher at lower secondary level. It proved to be challenging to receive responses on the online survey. A possible reason for this is that the survey was distributed in the beginning of January. At this time, many of the teachers were occupied with midterm assessments of the students. Also, it is possible that some teachers did not want to participate in the survey, either because they in general did not want to, or because it takes time to reply to a survey. Several principals replied and some wrote that their school had stopped encouraging teachers to participate in student surveys, as it went beyond their statutory work as teachers. I eventually had to wait a few weeks, and forwarded over 60 e-mails to different principals. I aimed toward receiving responses from teachers that were geographically spread out, and I therefore chose to e-mail principals of lower secondary schools both north, east, west and south in the country. Due to the anonymity of the online survey, it is not possible to detect what part of the country the respondents are from. However, due to some of the principals' responses, it is reasonable to think that the teachers who responded actually do come from different parts of the country. The informants could access the survey through a link that was included in the e-mails forwarded to the principals. Altogether, 89 lower secondary ESL teachers responded to the survey.

The questions in the survey were written in Norwegian, and there are several reasons for this. As others who have designed online surveys have expressed a difficulty of receiving responses (e.g. Hansen, 2011), I thought that it would be wise to write the survey's questions in Norwegian, as it would not require linguistic adaptation by the teachers. Another reason for choosing Norwegian as the language of the survey was that I did not want the questions to come across as ambiguous. Hence, Norwegian was assessed as the language that would make it the easiest to receive responses.

¹⁷ The 12 high frequency words are: center/centre, program/programme, catalog/catalogue, traveling/travelling, defense/defence, film, movie, football, lift, elevator, autumn and fall (Summers, 1995).

¹⁸ The e-mail that was forwarded to a number of principals is found in Appendix 2.

Deploying the Survey

As mentioned, the survey was launched in the beginning of January and was open until the beginning of February. When opening the link, the first page informed the respondents about the intention of the survey and general information about the structure of the survey. It additionally explained that my research project was registered at and approved by NSD. By continuing to the questions and clicking the finish-button at the page with the final questions, the respondents consented to participate in my project, as the first page disclosed. Thus, the teachers that did not press the finish-button were excluded from the data material. The teachers left digital traces by responding to the survey, as their IP-addresses were registered. Being anonymous was therefore not achievable, and the respondents were informed that they would be anonymous when the data material was presented.

3.2.2 Interviews

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) point out that a qualitative interview is a professional conversation between the researcher and the informant. A certain structure is expected and the researcher conducting the interview will have individual expectations and beliefs going into the interview. My interviews were of a semi-structured character, meaning that a list of topics and relevant questions formed the basis of what was discussed during the interviews (Johannessen et al., 2010, p. 139). The pre-set questions were open-ended and attempted to be neutral, i.e. they did not uncover my own opinions – as this was not of interest and could possibly influence the informants. When collecting qualitative data, the researcher is the most important instrument. Because of the researcher's own bias and preconceptions, it is important that the researcher acknowledges his own pre-understanding (Nilssen, 2012, p. 26). Hence, I answered the questions on the interview guide myself, and furthermore reflected on my own opinions prior to conducting the interviews.

Designing the interview guide

An interview guide provides an overview of the topics and questions that are to be addressed in the interview setting (Johannessen et al., 2010). With this in mind, I designed a semi-structured interview guide¹⁹ consisting of 20 open-ended questions, in accordance with Johannessen et al.'s (2010, p. 141) description of how an interview guide should be outlined. Reading former MA theses (e.g. Hansen, 2011; Risan, 2014; Tengs Sannes, 2013) that to

¹⁹ The interview guide is found in Appendix 5.

some extent concern the topic of varieties of English within a Norwegian context was helpful, as noticing what kind of questions they asked was inspiring. The interview guide was divided into five different main topics; ‘personal background’, ‘teachers’ language use’, ‘students’ language use’, ‘use of texts’ and ‘assessment and correction practice’. These topics emerged as central and relevant in regards to the research question, and I found it useful to structure the interview guide by topics as interviewing was not a familiar activity for me.

The interviews included a list of words, where the informants were asked how they would spell the given words and furthermore report what words they would use when presented with a list of words that are synonyms, but used in either BrE or AmE. This could uncover what variety of English they used, and if they were consistent. The words chosen for the interviews are based on the same criteria as the words in the survey, thoroughly explained in section 3.2.1. Some of the words were taken from the list that Svartvik and Leech (2006) present to illustrate some of the differences in spelling and vocabulary in AmE and BrE. Also, Hasselgård et al. (2012) present a list of some words that differ in AmE and BrE, and some of the words were chosen from their list. The words are otherwise based on *Fowler's Modern English Usage* (Allen, 2008), who separate between both spelling and vocabulary in AmE and BrE.

The reason for choosing different words for the survey and the interview was that some of the interviewees had already responded to the survey, meaning that by including a set of new words, I would ensure that none of them had responded to the exact same words prior to the interview. I included a wide range of words to cover a variety of different words and spellings. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (Summers, 1995) show 3000 of the most frequently used words in BrE and AmE, and 14 of the 21 words that the teachers were presented with are high frequency words in spoken and/or written English²⁰. It is therefore believable that these words were familiar to the teachers.

Selecting and recruiting informants

The informants that participated in the interview were invited to do so based on accessibility and availability, and an ambition was to reach teachers that were geographically spread out, as this could potentially convey opinions from teachers working at different schools in different areas of Norway. An obvious requirement was that they all had to work as English teachers at

²⁰ The 14 high frequency words are: color/colour, meter/metre, apologize/apologise, analyze/analyse, license/licence, biscuit, chips, pants, trousers, jumper, vacation, holiday, gas and petrol (Summers, 1995).

the lower secondary level. The teachers were all contacted through the Internet, and although some of them did not have the opportunity to participate in an interview, I managed to reach seven teachers that were willing to partake in an interview. Within the frames of an MA thesis, the selection of informants cannot qualify as being representative. However, the choice of informants in this thesis is based on including a well-balanced selection of teachers, in order to make their insights as representative as possible. Thus, I purposely chose to interview seven teachers that work at five different schools across the country. They represent different school cultures and their views are not restricted to one geographical area. Relevant introductory information on each teacher is presented in chapter 4, where the results and analyses are introduced.

Conducting the interviews

The interviews were conducted over a time period of three weeks, starting in the middle of January. Four of the interviews were conducted at the lower secondary school the teachers worked at, while the remaining three interviews were conducted in meeting rooms of other suitable locations.

The interviewees were all presented with a consent form²¹ explaining the purpose of the study, what participating in the study entailed and what would happen with the information they provided. They were also informed that the project was registered at and approved by NSD. The seven teachers all signed the consent form without hesitation and were subsequently informed of the purpose of the study orally – where the emphasis was on the fact that I was not interested in any right- or wrong-answers, just their reflections and experiences on the topics addressed.

The interviews were all conducted in Norwegian, as it was most of the informants' native language. A person's knowledge of their L2 is not equal to native-speakers' knowledge of this language (Cook, 2001). Thus, I assessed that it would be easier for the teachers to express themselves and reflecting in their native language, even though they most likely were fluent in English as well. Additionally, by speaking English during the interviews, the teachers could then potentially reveal what variety of English they were aiming toward or were closest to, which could have led them to feel vulnerable and exposed. I was also worried that the teachers would feel that I was assessing their spoken English during the interviews, as the main theme was varieties of English, where topics such as native-speaker-likeness were

²¹ The consent form is found in Appendix 4.

addressed. My own way of speaking English was also assessed as a possible way of impacting the interviewees, which to some extent could have influenced them. I did not want the language to hinder what the teachers wanted to convey during the interviews, and Norwegian was therefore chosen as the language of the interview.

As clarified with the informants prior to the interviews, the interviews were recorded with a sound-recording application. Initiated by questions about the teachers' personal background, the interviews followed the structure of the already designed interview guide. Some of the teachers' answers invited follow-up questions, and thus required vigilance on my part, i.e. that I rapidly had to perceive what the informants reported and act on it. Although all of the interviews were based on the same interview guide with identical questions, the interviews each unfolded differently due to the informants' individual replies. On an average, the interviews lasted for approximately 25 minutes, leaving me with 79 transcribed pages. All of the conducted interviews can be characterized as professional conversations. The informants went into the interview with an open mind and were willing to share their beliefs and experiences. Thus, I was satisfied with the outcome of all the interviews.

3.2.3 Observations

The main research question considers both teachers' beliefs, i.e. what the teachers think, and teachers' practices, i.e. what they actually do in the classroom. Thus, to investigate the latter point – an observation of some of the given interviewees were carried out. Johannessen et al. (2010, p. 119) emphasize that it is not certain that what we say or believe we do, is what we actually do. It is difficult to understand how teachers act when teaching if one does not consider them in an actual educational setting.

Observation is a valuable strategy in the study of language teacher cognition because it provides evidence of what happens in classrooms. In this respect it is superior as a data collection strategy to both self-report instruments and interviews, as these can only capture teachers' reports of what they do (Borg, 2006, p. 247).

Thus, the observations could reveal whether what the teachers say they do actually corresponds with what they do in reality. Furthermore, Borg (2006) claims that an observation in the context of exploring teacher cognition does not give meaning in itself, but is excellent as a supplement to other research methods. This is in accordance with Johannessen et al.'s

(2010) notion of observation as a complementary method to answer a research question or to understand a phenomenon from a different perspective.

Carrying out the observations

The two teachers that were observed were chosen due to practical reasons, both concerning accessibility, time and place. Prior to the observations, the two teachers, Wilda and Caroline, were interviewed individually in a meeting room at their school. The observations took place in late January, and the lower secondary school that welcomed me is situated in a small town. I was invited to observe two English teachers, each teaching one lesson of English in two different 10th grades. They based their teaching on the same lesson plan, but because a pedagogical situation is dependent on various factors, such as the teacher and the students, the lessons unfolded quite differently. When preparing for the observation, I designed a form that involved different categories that functioned as a basis for the observation. I quickly realized that this form was redundant, as the lessons unfolded differently than what I had imagined. Nonetheless, designing the form was useful as it prepared me for the observation.

3.3 Methodological Challenges

3.3.1 Limitations of the methods

Although the interviewed teachers are unable to paint a complete picture of the current situation, they were still able to provide interesting insight into their views on the phenomenon of language varieties within some of the lower secondary ESL classrooms in Norway. Making generalizations based on the survey responses is also unachievable and the responses cannot be regarded as representative in this context, either. However, it was possible to distribute the survey to a larger group of ESL teachers, making it reach teachers across the country. As previously stated, the respondents gained access to the survey through a link that I either distributed to principals or directly to some teachers that I knew were working as ESL teachers at lower secondary level. The survey was open for everyone to respond to, meaning that there thus is a possibility that some of them, or actually everyone, are not teachers in real life. However, because I only distributed the link to what I denote as trustworthy sources, I believe that the people who responded to the survey were in fact ESL teachers. Johannessen et al.(2010, p. 259) point toward the vagueness of a survey, as answering factual questions might provide the “truth”, questions concerning attitudes and awareness might not reflect the “truth”, but simply be answered the way they are due to

external circumstances. Thus, the questions regarding how the teachers would spell different words and what words they would use included instructions asking the teachers not to consult a dictionary. Also, it is nearly impossible to detect whether the survey respondents were reporting their actual beliefs or if they were merely trying to please the researcher. Another challenge is that potential misunderstandings are impossible to clarify, as the respondents did not have direct contact with me and vice versa. The qualitative interviews, on the other hand, provided the opportunity to follow up statements from the informants, and possible misunderstandings were easier to resolve, as I met the informants in person. The notes I made during the observations function as data material. As I was in the situation when the lessons unfolded, the notes are my subjective perception of what was happening in the classrooms. Thus, there might have been something I missed or did not write down that regarded ‘varieties of English’ or could be relevant to my study.

3.3.2 The quality of the project

Validity and reliability are methodological terms that are applied to describe the quality of a given study (Repstad, 2007, p. 134). These are important aspects that are relevant to discuss in order to ensure the quality of my study. Validity is by Repstad (2007, p. 134) described as evaluating whether the researcher has measured what he sets out to measure, and if there is a correlation between the research question and the information presented when concluding. According to Repstad (2007, p. 134), reliability in research designs is as the term suggests, concerned with how reliable the studies are in regards to the preciseness of the measuring instruments. This also covers how reliable the presented information is, and if the analysis is conducted without flaws and errors.

Validity

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009, p. 253) state that validity pervades the whole process of conducting studies, i.e. that it does not only concern the final product, but is something that should be prevalent throughout the process of forming a research design. A study’s validity is strengthened by exploring what you inform that you are going to investigate. My research design attempts to understand the phenomenon of teacher cognition applied to the topic of ‘varieties of English’. This was employed by including research methods that both figured in a way that could uncover width, depth and could detect what was actually happening in the classroom, not only the teachers’ experiences of how they think they are acting in regards to English language varieties. The research design consists of two qualitative approaches –

interviews and observations, and one methodological approach that operates quantitatively; the survey. Truscott et al. (2010) argue that

[...] researchers who seek to substantiate the validity and trustworthiness of their mixed method research must clearly describe and justify their particular choices of methods within the context of their purposes and perspectives (Truscott et al., 2010, p. 10).

This quote functions as a reminder of the importance of accounting for the different aspects of collecting data through different approaches. My data material points to similar tendencies and comparable results, which strengthens the validity of the methodological approaches. Grønmo (1996, p. 98) mentions this as an advantage of using a mixed methods design. Johannessen et al. (2010, p. 230) also suggest that applying a mixed methods design can be contributory in increasing the validity of a given study. However, in the context of assessing the validity of these studies, one has to take into account that there is a possibility that the informants are conveying inaccuracies, particularly in regards to the qualitative interview (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 256-257). Borg (2006) points out that teachers' responses to a survey might reflect their opinions of what they find to be ideal, and not what they actually do. This could be the case for the interviewees, as well. Especially the informants that had responded to the survey prior to the interview might have understood what questions I was going to ask in the interview, and could thus have prepared. Also, the teachers participating in the interviews and the survey might have sensed what answers that would be the most accepted, and answered this way in order to fit in with the common view. Nevertheless, that I phrased the questions in the survey and the interview openly, i.e. that they were not leading, might strengthen the validity. I also ensured that I asked all the informants identical questions, making sure that they all were able to answer the exact same question. I was also able to provide clarification whenever needed. This was not possible with the survey, which could potentially make some of the respondents misunderstand some of the questions.

Reliability

Reliability is more often discussed in terms of purely quantitative research methods (Johannessen et al., 2010, p. 229). When conducting qualitative research, as two of my methodological approaches qualify as, the requirement of reliability is not advantageous in the sense that conversation often leads the collection of data. In addition, communicating with people will often affect the results – both the researcher's role and the informant's role is in

the center when carrying out qualitative research (cf. Nilssen, 2012). Although Johannessen et al. (2010) advocates for measuring the reliability only in quantitative studies, Repstad (2007, pp. 134-135) argues that reliability can also concern qualitative studies. Ringdal (2007, p. 77) also mention the transfer value in applying the terms reliability to qualitative studies. Johannessen et al. (2010, p. 40) argue that an approach of determining the reliability is if several researchers study the same phenomenon. High reliability is then found if a number of the researchers attain the same results. In the context of my thesis, I therefore see the usefulness of relying on previous studies that have been conducted in a Norwegian context with a similar aim. Unfortunately, there is a limited amount of studies on the topic of varieties of English in a Norwegian context. Nonetheless, the few studies that do exist are helpful in determining the reliability of my results. These studies will further be addressed and discussed in chapter 5, but it is relevant to mention that as some of the studies confirm my results, the reliability of my study is strengthened.

Reliability in the context of my qualitative approaches is understood as being open and honest during the process of collecting data and strengthening the reliability by presenting the context of the qualitative studies, as Johannessen et al. (2010, p. 230) suggest. Thus, I have attempted to account for the different processes involved before and after carrying out the research methods, and provide reasons for my choices – possibly enhancing the reliability of my project. Relevant citations from the respondents and informants are provided throughout chapter 4 and 5, adding to the level of transparency of this thesis. Elements that could have affected the reliability are the extensive data material I collected, consisting of 79 pages of transcriptions, 89 survey responses and notes from two observations. What I have assessed as the most relevant in regards to the research question has been withdrawn from this data material, possibly losing its context. Thus, including citations and excerpts from the original questions are provided in order to reduce the possibility of losing the context. Unforeseen incidents have a possibility of affecting the reliability, which is exemplified by Repstad (2007, p. 134). Being aware of such pitfalls before starting carrying out studies was significant in terms of overcoming possible challenges – and thus being able to increase the reliability. For instance, the interviews were recorded, strengthening the reliability as the results are based on accurate utterings.

3.3.3 Ethical concerns

Postholm (Postholm, 2010, p. 142) claims that ethical principles should be present when conducting studies. Ethical concerns are closely connected to researching, as assessing the value of the research participants and treat them and the information they provide with respect and caution is important. The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities (NESH) states that “the obligation to respect research ethics is part of responsibility for research in general” (NESH, 2006, p. 5). Thus, these guidelines are implemented in order to require researchers to consider ethical perspectives when conducting studies. According to NESH (2006), providing the research subjects with necessary information is crucial in order for them to understand what they are participating in. My research project was registered and approved by NSD, as referred to earlier and the informants and respondents that participated were given relevant information on how the material would be handled before consenting to participate. They interviewees had to sign a consent form agreeing to participate in the project before I started asking questions. Also, I stressed that it was voluntary to participate, in accordance with NESH’s (2006) guidelines. There is of course a possibility that some teachers responding to the survey felt that they had to, as some of them were encouraged to by their principals in an e-mail. It is impossible to know for sure whether the respondents really *wanted* to participate, but they were nonetheless provided with relevant information on the first page of the survey. If they then did not want to respond, they were able to just exit the survey. I consistently ensured the interviewees that they would be presented anonymously in the thesis, and their real names have been excluded from any written accounts, as encouraged by NESH’s (2006) guidelines. They have all been given pseudonyms in this thesis. Pseudonyms were chosen instead of referring to them as for instance ‘teacher 1’ and ‘teacher 2’, as they are not just considered being informants, but real people with individual identities. IP-addresses that could be linked back to the teachers responding to the survey were only visible to me, and were password protected.

3.4 Data Analysis Methods

As the collected data consist of different methodological approaches, this section will give an insight into the processes that were involved when analyzing the data material and organizing the data in a comprehensible way. The data were analyzed with a hermeneutical approach, meaning that the collected data were interpreted and thus organized in order to receive a holistic understanding, but also to comprehend the smaller pieces of the rather large puzzle. It

is important to note that my pre-understanding naturally was present when interpreting the data, which makes it possible that others would have interpreted the data differently (cf. Johannessen et al., 2010).

3.4.1 Quantitative analysis method

Analyzing quantitative data consists of organizing the data in order to be prepared to analyze the data and then carry out the analyses. Furthermore, it is important to find a way to present the results in an orderly manner (Ringdal, 2007). After receiving the 89 responses on the online survey, I read all of the answers individually in addition to going through the statistical overview of the responses. As SelectSurvey, the survey software used to design and deploy surveys for NTNU, is directly connected to SPSS, the software package used for statistical analysis, it was fairly easy to manage all the data received from the survey. Univariate analyses were carried out after receiving all of the responses, where one single variable is of interest to the given analysis, to simplify the large amount of data and make it comprehensible, as described by Johannessen et al. (2010, p. 277). I created tables and diagrams in order to receive a visual overview of some of the results, and by creating such illustrations; the complexity of the data material was reduced.

Complex statistical analyses were dismissed in the process of overviewing the data material, and I rather focused on relating the respondents' answers to the already conducted interviews. The applied methods complement each other, which is demonstrated in chapter 5. As the survey's respondents were unable to explain their answers or ask questions if they experienced some of the questions as ambiguous, the nature of the survey made the analysis more distant. When triangulating the data from the survey responses and the interviews, I found that it was sensible to also structure the survey responses by topics. These topics to some extent coincide, but not all of the topics from the interview were relevant to the survey responses.

3.4.2 Qualitative analysis method

I have carried out two different qualitative methods, and the methods of analyzing the interviews and the observations are included in this section, as they concern the same sort of analyses.

Nilssen (2012) claims that the process of analyzing a given data material is present even throughout conducting the studies. Immediately after carrying out each interview, the sound recordings were transcribed. After conducting all of the interviews; the transcripts were printed on paper and subsequently read carefully several times. While reading, I scribbled in the margin and coded different statements with colored markers. The colors represented topics and eventually categories I after a few read-throughs perceived as important and present during the interviews. Coding and categorization are described as core activities in the process of analyzing qualitative data material, searching for common themes, topics, perspectives or concepts (Nilssen, 2012). Structuring the empirical material was helpful in terms of detecting patterns and identifying relevant and central perspectives. Before conducting the interviews, I decided to answer the questions set up on the interview guide myself, so that I could become aware of any preconceived opinions or beliefs, either favorable or unfavorable. As there is a potential risk that the researcher colors the process of analyzing with his own perspectives (Postholm, 2010), I assessed it important to meet the data material with an open mind. Becoming aware of my own opinions regarding English varieties in the classroom was crucial in order to not let these be communicated unintentionally while interviewing. This decision was based on ‘grounded theory’, described by Glaser and Strauss (in Postholm, 2010, p. 87-88) as an inductive approach where the researcher meets the empirical material and interacts with it. After a process of thoroughly evaluating and identifying the main topics of the interviews, four topics emerged as the most significant; ‘Teachers’ Own Language Use’, ‘Students’ Language Use’, ‘Classroom Texts’ and ‘Purpose and Goal of the English Teaching’. The first three topics were already used to organize the interview guide, but the latter topic emerged as central from the empirical material. The topics are illustrated by a figure in section 4.2, preceded by tables of categories in the sections that follow. The categories appeared as a result of approaching the transcripts of the interviews both hermeneutically and inductively. After coding and structuring the amount of data received from the transcriptions, I had to focus on what I assessed as the most central perspectives within each main topic.

While observing the two teachers, I wrote down some of the things they said, did and how they pronounced different words. After the observations, my hand-written notes were inserted into digital tables to receive an overview of my observations. I also wrote down immediate thoughts that emerged after the observations. Analyses and interpretations of the observed teaching contexts were written down while observing, as well as what was actually happening

and what the teachers said. While writing down what I observed, I analyzed by excluding parts of the lesson that did not concern the topic of varieties of English. These analysis techniques are in accordance with Postholm's (2010, p. 62) notion of how to analyze observations. Furthermore, as she suggests, I read my notes carefully, and eliminated the material that I assessed as irrelevant. As I only carried out two observations, they will merely function as a supplement to underline points made in the survey responses or the interviews.

3.5 Chapter Summary

I have in this chapter presented and accounted for the different processes that were central when collecting data through each of my chosen methods; survey, interview and observation. These methods have also been outlined and connected to my project. As mentioned, the primary data material was the survey responses and the interview transcriptions, with the observation notes functioning merely as complementary data. Reflections related to some of the methodological challenges that were relevant to my study have been discussed in this chapter, in addition to a discussion of the quality of my research project. I have also explained the data analysis methods related to my data material.

4 Data and Analyses

This chapter consists of the results and the analyses of my study. I have chosen to present the results of the different methods separately, beginning broad with the findings of the 89 survey responses, followed by what a smaller selection of seven interviewed teachers reported, and lastly I will present the results of the observations. As I have both analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively I have detected common features among a larger group of teachers in addition to identifying individual beliefs. A discussion of the key results is found in chapter 5, where the results will be put into context. However, this chapter includes elements of discussion; in order to not only provide the “cold” facts, but to somehow imply what the teachers’ responses indicate. Although it might be perceived implicitly, it is essential to note that what is presented in this chapter is a representation of what the teachers reported.

4.1 Survey Results

I will in the following section present the survey results structured by topics. These topics partly correspond to the topics from the interviews, and were assessed as relevant when I worked with and processed the empirical data. To provide a visual overview of the given results, both tables and figures are used frequently in the following paragraphs. Citations from the respondents will also be presented whenever relevant.

89 English teachers working at lower secondary school participated in the survey and answered 33 questions regarding their personal background, their own language use, students’ language use, assessment and correction practice and general questions relating to language varieties in the ESL classroom. The majority of the respondents are women, 72%, and the remaining 28% of the respondents are men. The information system registering data from primary and lower secondary school, GSI²², report that 25% of primary and lower secondary teachers in Norway are male (GSI, 2014-2015), which suggests that the survey respondents reflect the present gender balance within the Norwegian educational system.

The average age of the respondents is 41 years, with an average of 12 years of working experience as English teachers.

²² GSI is an abbreviation for ‘Grunnskolen informasjonssystem’, meaning ‘primary and secondary school’s informational system’.

4.1.1 Teachers' own language use

I will in the following paragraphs present what the teachers reported about their own language use. Although I sometimes refer to what the teachers in fact do, it is important to note that this is a representation of what the teachers reported.

Variety of English

Question 8 directly asked the teachers what variety was the closest to their way of speaking English, implying that the teachers were indeed close to some language norm. As illustrated in figure 4.1. below, 46% of the teachers reported that their oral English is closest to BrE, 35% of them said that they speak a variety closest to AmE, 14% reported that they switch between BrE and AmE, 3% said that they speak a variety closest to International English²³, and 2% reported that their English is closest to Canadian English.

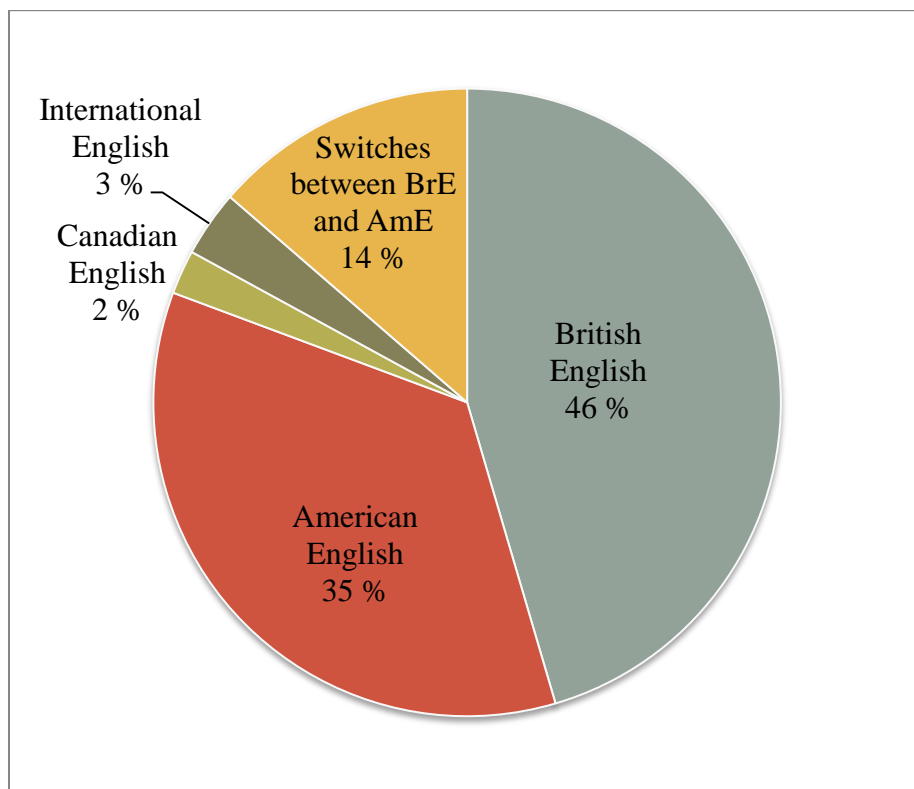


Figure 4.1. Variety of English reported by the teachers

²³ International English is in this context used as a way of referring to the English language as a lingua franca. As it is not a standardized variety yet, I therefore do not know how the respondents characterize this variety.

The respondents were presented with 12²⁴ different options of English varieties, where one of the options were ‘other, please specify’. Yet, the majority of the teachers reported that their way of speaking English is closest to either BrE or AmE. Also, some (14%) reported that they speak a mix of BrE and AmE. Added together, the native varieties of Canadian, BrE AmE, or a mix of the two latter, apply to 97% of the respondents. These answers suggest that the teachers perceive their manner of speaking English as closer to a native variety of English rather than for instance International English or native language-influenced English, which is advocated by current ESL research (e.g. Jenkins, 2009).

Several factors have influenced the teachers’ way of speaking and/or writing English. The respondents were allowed to choose more than one option when answering question 10, resulting in ‘higher education’ applying to two thirds of the respondents, as illustrated in figure 4.2. below.

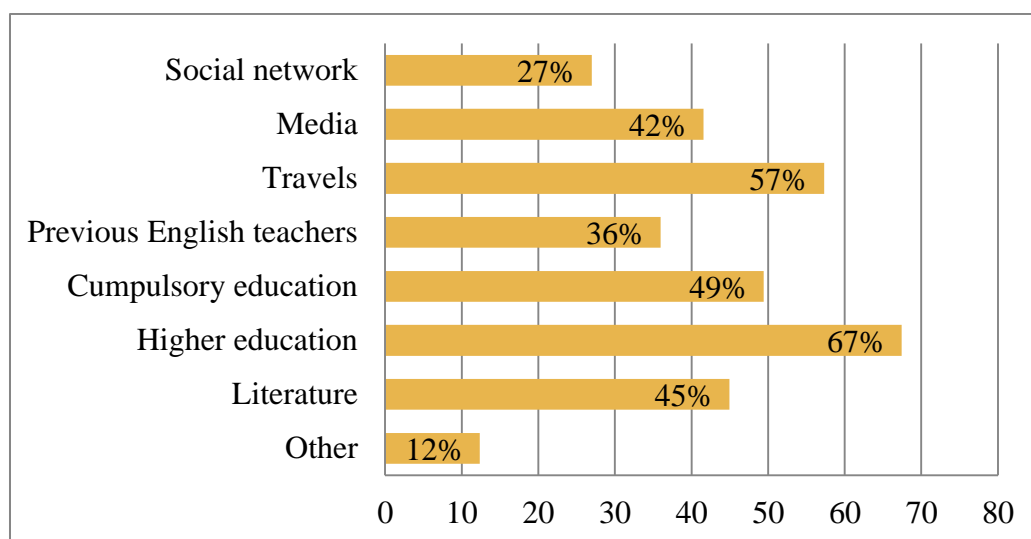


Figure 4.2. Factors that teachers report have impacted their oral and/or written English

What is noticeable is that various aspects have impacted the teachers’ way of communicating in English. The 12% that reported ‘other’ specified what factors that had influenced their English. Some of these responses could have been categorized with the pre-set options, such as TV-shows, but some reported that an English-speaking spouse and living in an English-speaking country had impacted their English.

²⁴ These 12 options were BrE, AmE, Canadian English, Australian English, New Zealand English, Irish English, Scottish English, Indian English, native-language influenced English, switching between BrE and AmE, International English and ‘other, please specify’.

The majority of the respondents furthermore reported that they are mostly exposed to BrE and AmE. 10% stated that BrE is the variety they are mostly exposed to, 40% reported that they are mostly exposed to AmE, and 45% reported they are mostly exposed to both BrE and AmE.

Consistency

Questions 12-22 asked the teachers to tick off how they would spell a given word and moreover report what word they use when presented with two synonym words, one from BrE and one from AmE. There were seven spelling questions and seven vocabulary questions, i.e. word choice questions. These questions were intended to indicate the teachers' level of consistency. Two examples of these questions are presented below:

<p>14. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?</p> <p>Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Catalogue</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Catalog</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Vet ikke</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Veksler mellom 'catalog' og 'catalogue'</p>
<p>22. Hvilken av disse variantene bruker du?</p> <p>Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Veksler mellom 'fall' og 'autumn'</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Fall</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Vet ikke</p> <p><input type="radio"/> Autumn</p>

Figure 4.3. Examples of survey questions.

The questions asked the teachers to base their replies on their own practice and without consulting a dictionary. Thus, the importance of reporting what they actually do was emphasized. What the teachers report suggests that there is an inconsistency regarding the way they spell and the words they use, both within the spelling questions (e.g. 'centre' vs. 'center' and 'harbour' vs. 'harbor') and within the word questions (e.g. 'football' vs. 'soccer' and 'autumn' vs. 'fall'). 85 of 89 respondents demonstrated this inconsistency by showing that their spelling corresponds to different varieties, and this is also reflected in the words they communicated that they use.

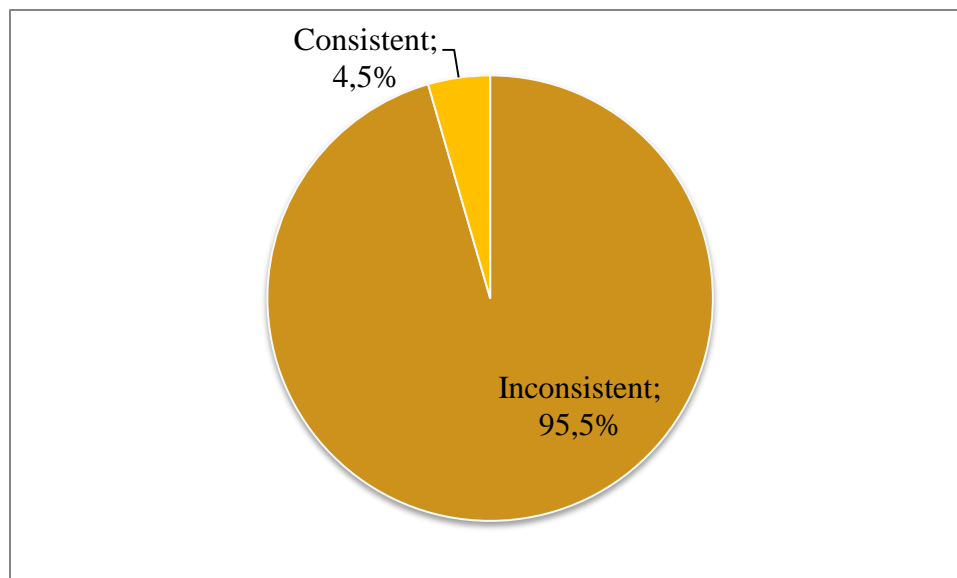


Figure 4.4. Percentage of teachers who are either consistent or inconsistent

Only 4 of the 89 respondents, 4.5%, were thoroughly consistent when reporting how they spell different words and what words they use. 14 of the teachers, 15.7%, demonstrate that they are quite consistent, i.e. that there is only one or two deviations from one language norm. However, the majority demonstrate that the consistency level is low among the teachers that participated in the survey.

4.1.2 Students' language use

Variety of English

When asked what variety of English the teachers preferred their students to use when speaking English, they were presented with five different alternatives; 'BrE', 'AmE', 'native language-influenced English', 'International English' or 'other', which they then would have to specify. I purposely chose not to mention another alternative of for instance 'whatever feels natural to the students'. Such an alternative could lead the teachers to justify their answer in accordance with what they felt was expected (cf. Johannessen et al., 2010, p. 262). Thus, I simplified the different options by only including four pre-set answers and then let those who felt otherwise formulate this in their own words. 21% reported that they prefer their students to speak BrE, 3% wanted their students to use AmE and 15% reported that they want their students to speak International English. The easiest way to answer this question is of course to tick off one of the pre-set answers, and just get on to the next question. Instead of doing so, the remaining 62%, 55 teachers, chose 'other' and elaborated what they meant. Some of these answers are presented here;

I want my students to develop a functional English that enables them to communicate (make themselves understood and to understand others) later in life. It is important to me that the students develop confidence in the subject and that they are not afraid of speaking aloud in front of other students (Survey respondent 71²⁵).

They are free to choose between British and American English (Survey respondent 55).

As long as they choose an English variety which they feel they have mastered, either British, American, Irish, Australian or other varieties that are considered English. Not native-influenced (Survey respondent 41).

Students are free to choose their own variety, as long as language and pronunciation is in accordance with the variety (Survey respondent 38).

What they master the best (Survey respondent 33).

What falls natural to them (Survey respondent 51).

These citations indicate that the teachers' ambitions for their students in this regard are very split. Unanimously, the teachers who chose 'other' specified that they want their students to be free to choose an English variety themselves²⁶. However, as shown in table 4.1. below, there is a divide in what the teachers want on behalf of their students. The teachers' responses could be categorized into two views; 1) the students are free to choose a variety for themselves and 2) the students are allowed to choose a variety for themselves – but they have to choose either BrE or AmE.

Table 4.1. Teachers' views related to students' choice of variety of English when speaking

Teachers' views	Number of respondents who chose 'other'	Percentage of those who chose 'other'	Percentage of the total number of respondents
Students can choose a variety themselves	41	74.5%	46%
Students can choose a variety themselves, limited to BrE or AmE	12	21.8%	13.4%
Did not comment on the question	2	3.6%	2.2%
Explicitly mentioned the importance of consistency	8	14.5%	9%

²⁵ To separate the respondents, they are given numbers in accordance with when they responded to the survey. This also applies to respondents' citations that are presented later in this chapter.

²⁶ 53 of the 55 teachers who chose 'other' commented on it, meaning that only two respondents did not specify what they meant by choosing 'other'.

As presented in table 4.1. above, 41 teachers who chose ‘other’ to some extent have an opinion that their students can choose whatever English variety they want, according to what they master or what feels natural to them. 12 respondents that chose ‘other’ commented that it is up to the students themselves to choose a variety – and that it does not matter as long as they choose either BrE or AmE. If these teachers are added to the teachers that in the pre-set options reported that they either want their students to use BrE or AmE when speaking English (respectively 21% and 3%), then 37% of all the respondents favor a native accent from these regions. On the other hand, almost half of the respondents (46%) clearly prefer their students to decide what variety they want for themselves. However, 8 of the teachers that emphasized that it is up to the students themselves to choose a variety when speaking English, at the same time reported that the students should be consistent. This is interesting in regards to the consistency level amongst the teachers themselves. Nonetheless, it seems as though there is a divide between the teachers that are very liberal as to what variety the students should speak, and that others are more conservative in the way they want their students adhere to a native-speaker norm.

The teachers were thereafter asked what English variety they want their students to use while writing. As the previous question, this question consisted of the same five alternatives; ‘BrE’, ‘AmE’, ‘native language-influenced English’, ‘International English’ or ‘other’, which they then would have to specify. 30% reported that British English was favored, while only one of the respondents wanted their students to write AmE. International English was again in this question favored over the well-established AmE, as 12% of the respondents reported that they want their students to write International English. Native language-influenced English received no answers. The majority of the teachers, 57%, chose ‘other’, and then specified what they meant. Some of their statements are presented below:

I want my students to use a variety of written English they think fit best for them. Some have consistently learned British English in elementary school and master this well. Others have lived in the US for a few years and write American. It is important that I know the difference so that I do not discredit students or tell them something is incorrect if it is a correct way of writing that is allowed to use (Survey respondent 71).

British or American, as long as they are consistent (Survey respondent 76).

Choose one, and stick to it (Survey respondent 73).

I emphasize to students that I speak and write American English, but of course they are free to choose the variety they want (Survey respondent 45).

I encourage them to try to be consistent no matter what they use (Survey respondent 30).

Correct English, regardless of British or American spelling/grammar (Survey respondent 4).

These passages suggest that the teachers have different opinions in regards to their students' written language production. However, as illustrated in table 4.2. below, there are two ways of categorizing the teachers' points of view; 1) those who wanted the students to choose a written variety of English for themselves – and 2) those who wanted their students to choose either BrE or AmE. Also, a third way of categorizing the teachers' answers regardless of what variety they want their students to write, is to consider the number of teachers who emphasize consistency in their students' writing.

Table 4.2. Teachers' views related to students' choice of variety of English when writing

Teachers' views	Number of respondents who chose 'other' ²⁷	Percentage of those who chose 'other'	Percentage of the total number of respondents
Students can choose a variety themselves	29	58%	32.5%
Students can choose either BrE or AmE	19	38%	21.3%
Did not comment on the question	2	4%	2.2%
Explicitly mentioned the importance of consistency	23	46%	25.8%

Thus, if the percentage of the teachers who explicitly mentioned either BrE or AmE when choosing 'other' are added together with the percentage that chose either BrE or AmE on the pre-set options (respectively 30% and 1%), over half of the teachers (52.3%) favor either BrE or AmE. As understood from the table above – of the 50 respondents that ticked off 'other', 23 of them mentioned that the students have to be or should be consistent. This means that they want their students to stick to one variety of English – and seems to be important to a larger number of respondents in regards to their students' written language than in their spoken language. This is an interesting point, especially considering how the teachers reported

²⁷ 48 of the 50 teachers who chose 'other' commented on it, meaning that only two respondents did not specify what they meant by choosing 'other'.

how they spell different words and what words they are using. These answers indicate that there are some contradictions in the teachers' answers about their own practice and their thoughts on students' language production, as the majority of the teachers themselves demonstrate that they are not consistent neither while spelling or when reporting what words they use.

The surveyed teachers were in the final question, question 33, asked what their thoughts on students' English being influenced by their native language's intonation and/or pronunciation. This question resulted in almost half of the teachers being neutral, as shown in figure 4.5. below:

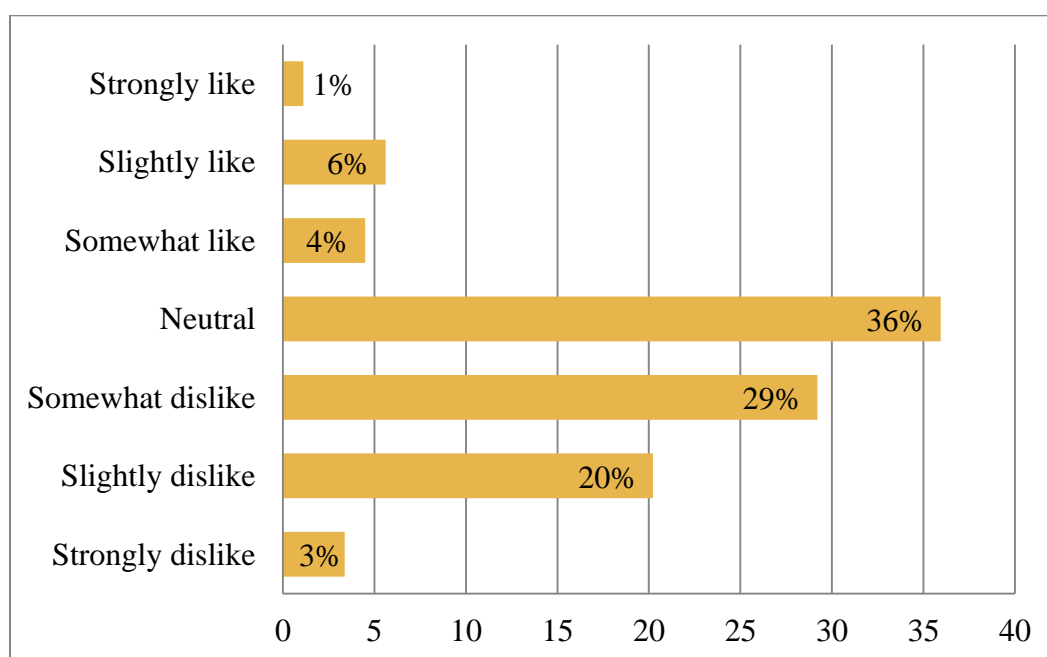


Figure 4.5. Teachers' views on students' English being affected by Norwegian²⁸ intonation and/or pronunciation

As understood from the table above, the majority of the teachers seem to have negative feelings toward their students' English being influenced by Norwegian intonation and/or pronunciation. Over half of the teachers (52%) to some extent reported that they dislike that their students' English intonation and/or pronunciation is influenced by their L1. Thus, there is a divide between the teachers who find it negative – or perhaps undesirable, and the ones (36%) that express they are indifferent by choosing to be neutral.

²⁸ Although question 33 asked the teachers what they thought of native language influence on the students' English, I presume that most of their students' L1 is Norwegian.

Assessment and correction practice

The teachers were asked to rate to what extent they agree that near-native speaker pronunciation and/or intonation affects the assessment of their students' achievements. They were provided with pre-set options expressing nuances. The teachers' responses are presented in figure 4.6. below.

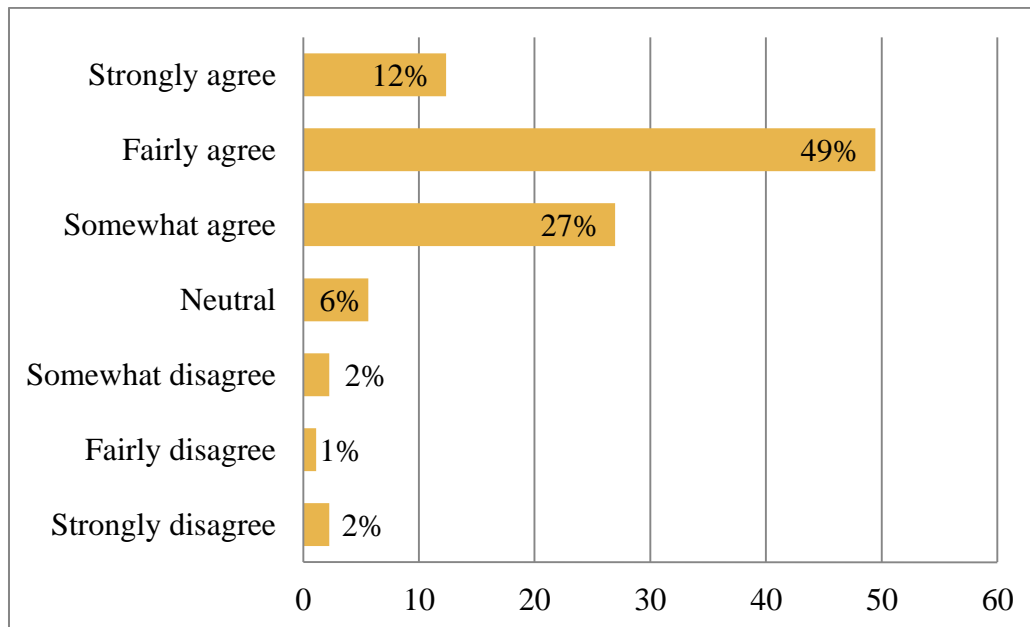


Figure 4.6. To what extent the teachers agree that the student assessment is affected by near-native speaker pronunciation and/or intonation²⁹

Altogether, as illustrated in figure 4.6. above, 88% of the teachers to some extent agree that near-native speaker pronunciation and/or intonation affects their assessment of the students.

The teachers were in question 31 asked to what extent they agree that near-native speaker sentence structure³⁰ and/or word choices affect the assessment of the students' achievements. Their replies are presented in figure 4.7. below:

²⁹ Due to rounding off decimals, the total only shows 99%.

³⁰ A native-speaker sentence structure is here meant as a correct form of expressing oneself in English, instead of a verbatim translation of the given sentence, i.e. 'I morgen vil jeg danse' becoming 'Tomorrow will I dance' instead of 'I will dance tomorrow' or 'Tomorrow I will dance'.

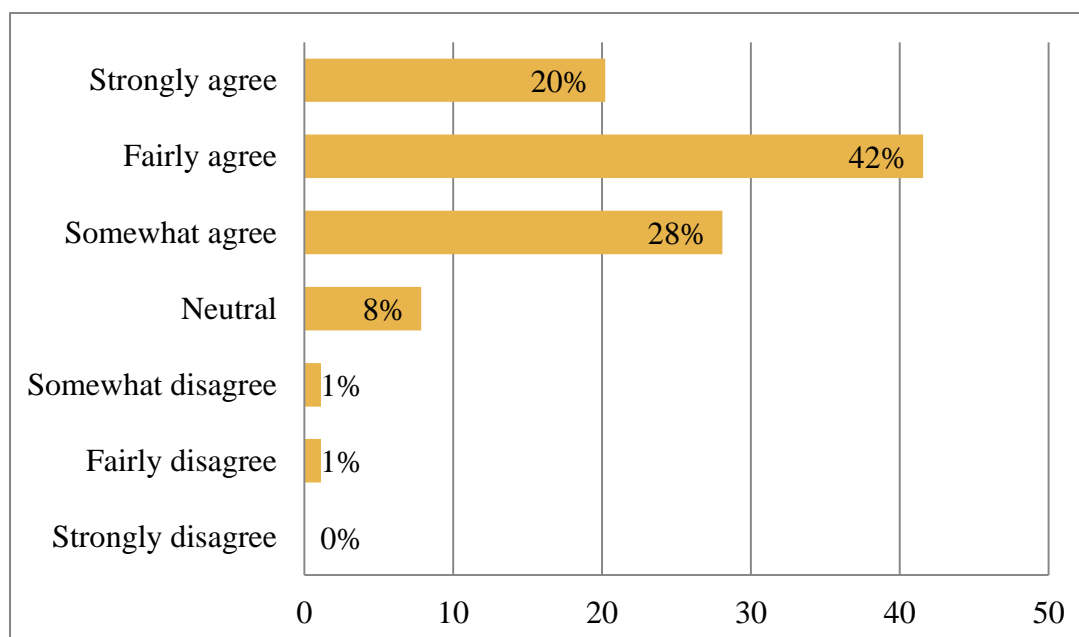


Figure 4.7. To what extent the teachers agree that the student assessment is affected by near-native speaker sentence structure and/or choice of words

Figure 4.7. illustrates that altogether, 90% of the teachers to some extent agree that close to native-speaker sentence structure and/or choice of words affect their assessment of the students.

These two bar charts (figure 4.6. and 4.7.) indicate that the surveyed ESL teachers somehow are affected by students' ability to speak or write close to native-speakers of English, which might suggest that the native-speaker norm is still persistent in the Norwegian ESL classroom at lower secondary school. In hindsight, I notice that the two questions fail to account for the ways in which the student assessment is affected by a native-speaker norm, i.e. positively or negatively. It is impossible to know *how* the assessments of the students' oral and written achievements are affected by native-speaker model. What the teachers' responses do suggest, however, is that a native-speaker norm is somehow present when the students are being assessed.

The teachers were furthermore asked if they correct their students' pronunciation and/or intonation that correspond to a specific variety of English. 65% reported that they do not, 5% did not know, and 30% answered that they do, and specified how. Some of the respondents' replies are presented below.

It depends on what English variety they have chosen. But they do need to stick to the one they want. Most of the students choose British (Survey respondent 10).

I correct them so that they can cultivate the variety they have chosen in the best possible way (Survey respondent 15).

If they've chosen an accent that isn't considered as an English accent. I correct NorwEnglish [Norwegian-influenced English] (Survey respondent 41).

The teachers that do correct students' pronunciation and/or intonation seem to emphasize consistency, i.e. that the students should stick to one variety when speaking English. They also point to awareness-raising as an important part of their correction-practice. Several of the respondents also mention Norwegian-influenced English as a reason for correcting the students' oral proficiency.

The teachers were thereafter in question 32 asked if they correct their students' sentence structure³¹ and/or vocabulary that correspond to one specific variety of English. 62% reported that they do not, 3% did not know and 35% answered that they do, which they then specified. Some of their replies are presented below;

Especially in cases of serious errors that change the meaning (British vs. American 'pants', for instance) (Survey respondent 8).

Yes, the students need to be consistent regarding for instance o/ou (color/colour) (Survey respondent 21).

Toward BE [BrE] (Survey respondent 27).

Yes, they are supposed to write English, not Norwagisms (Survey respondent 50).

These passages suggest that some of the teachers are in fact oriented toward correcting students' language, if they deviate from the native-speaker norm. What norm that is in focus in the different teachers' classrooms is not necessarily mentioned, but the respondents' answers suggest that both BrE and AmE are strongly positioned, with an emphasis on BrE.

4.1.3 Written texts

The respondents were asked what variety their textbooks were written in, resulting in 53% answering that their textbook was written in both BrE and AmE, 35% reported that their

³¹ In survey question 32 I have used the exact same phrasing as in question 31, which I did not notice until after I had distributed the survey. What I meant to ask was if the teachers would correct students' *spelling* and/or words that correspond to one specific variety of English. As BrE and AmE generally follow a subject-verbal-object-pattern, sentence structure corresponding to a specific English variety is irrelevant for students at lower secondary level.

textbook was written in BrE, 7% did not know, 3% reported it was written in AmE and 2% responded ‘other’ and specified that most of the texts were written in BrE, with some occurrences of texts in AmE. These responses indicate that 93% of the teachers experience their textbooks as written in either BrE or AmE, with an emphasis on the ones written in only BrE, as these constitute 35% of the teachers’ responses compared to the 3% who reported that their textbooks are written in AmE. Obviously, as teachers are not obliged to use the textbooks, the students are most likely presented with written material from other sources, meaning that they do not necessarily only experience the native varieties of BrE and AmE.

The teachers were asked if they knew what variety the English version of Knowledge Promotion³² is written in – where one teacher reported that he thought it was written in BrE, one teacher reported that it was written in AmE, 19% reported they knew it was written in BrE – and the majority, 79%, did not know what variety it was written in.

4.2 Interview Results

In the following paragraphs, a smaller selection of teachers’ beliefs will be presented. The purpose of interviewing seven teachers was to receive rich information from fewer respondents in order to consider their individual opinions, with the informants being able to express themselves freely without being provided with alternative answers. I thus had the opportunity to probe deeply into the interviewees’ beliefs, and there was a mutual opportunity to ask for clarification and ask follow-up questions on my part.

The interview results – the teachers’ reports of what they believe, think and how they act in regards to language varieties in the ESL classroom will be presented in this section. Figure 4.8. below frames the category tables first introduced in section 3.4.2, and will function as a frame of reference throughout the following sections. The results will be presented thematically, meaning that the topics presented below are functioning as organizers throughout the text. Citations from the interviewees will be presented where it is appropriate – and tables are also frequently used. This is not only to structure the text in the best possible way by providing an overview, but also to allow transparency into the interview process. The citations that are introduced are all translated into English by me, with the emphasis on conveying the meaning of the teachers’ statements rather than a verbatim presentation – which to some extent could interfere with the teachers’ intended meaning. Additionally,

³² The Knowledge Promotion is originally written in Norwegian, thus I was asking the respondents if they knew what variety it was translated to.

thoroughly explaining all the teachers' opinions on all the questions I asked is impossible due to the scope of this thesis. Also, it would not be a suitable way of presenting the results. I occasionally present citations from all the interviewees, and comment on these after they are all presented. This is to provide transparency in the sense that it conveys what *all* the teachers reported on the given question.

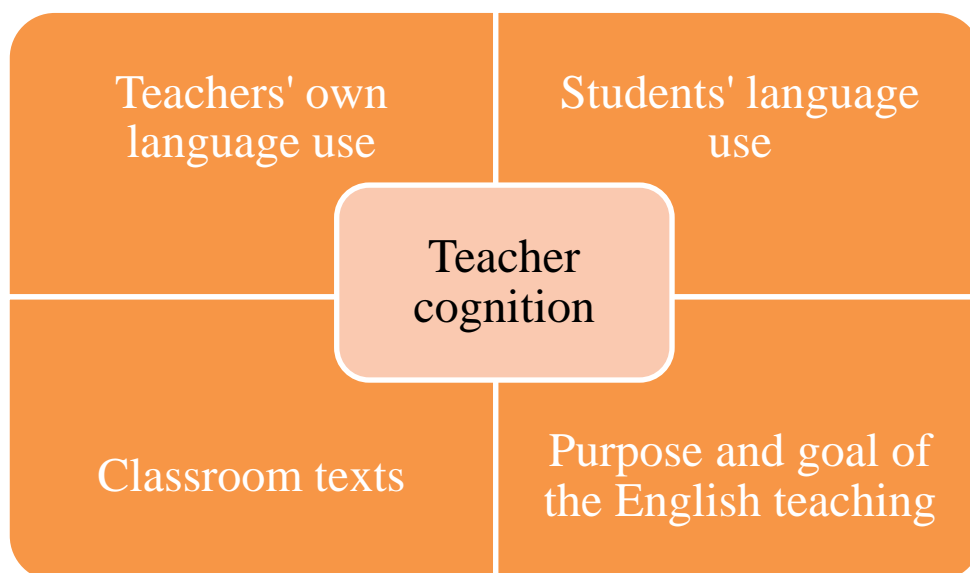


Figure 4.8. Topics of the data material from the interviews

As the concept of teacher cognition, i.e. teachers' thoughts, knowledge and beliefs, is a focal point in my study, it appeared as a natural center and core of the interview topics – as illustrated in figure 4.8. The topics that were discussed during the interviews are therefore representations of the given teacher's cognition. The four topics that are introduced side by side with 'teacher cognition' are all dependent on 'teacher cognition'. In other words, the topic of 'students' language use' is seen as 'teacher cognition regarding students' language use'. The four topics presented in figure 4.8. each contain different categories, which I composed after identifying the topics. I will present these categories in their separate table to introduce each paragraph that concerns the given topic. This seems both appropriate and orderly.

4.2.1 Presentation of the interviewees

The teachers are all given pseudonyms to ensure their anonymity. As understood from their pseudonyms, I interviewed six female teachers and one male teacher. I did not emphasize

gender balance when asking the informants to participate in the interview, as it proved to be difficult to get a hold of teachers that were willing to take the time to see me. The teachers work in different geographical areas and the interviewees thus conveyed beliefs among a varied group of ESL teachers from different types of districts. Norwegian is their first language, except for Olivia, whose native language is Spanish as she originates from Chile. Table 4.3. presents the teachers briefly.

Table 4.3. Presentation of the interviewees

Teachers	Years of experience as an English teacher	Area where the teachers are working	Completed the survey prior to the interview
Lily	10 years	City	Yes
Victor	4 years	City	No
Sarah	6 years	Suburb	Yes
Olivia	3 years	Suburb	No
Wilda	30 years	Small town	Yes
Caroline	10 years	Small town	No
Isabelle	2 years	Countryside	No

The table shows that the interviewees differ in seniority, i.e. in terms of how many years they have been working as English teachers. Isabelle is currently working her second year as a teacher, while Wilda has been working as an English teacher for 30 years. Three of the teachers had responded to the survey before the interviews were carried out, which could have affected their answers. For one, Wilda mentioned that responding to the survey had been an awareness-raising process, meaning that the three teachers could have changed their perspective on ‘varieties of English’ prior to the interview. Also, the teachers that had already completed the survey could to some extent perhaps understand what questions I would ask in the interview and could in this manner prepare for the interview, as mentioned in section 3.3.2.

4.2.2 Teachers’ own language use

Table 4.4. below presents the categories that were central to the topic ‘teachers’ own language use’. The results from each category are presented in separate sections, meaning that the

following sections will provide an insight into what the teachers reported about their own language use.

Table 4.4. ‘Teachers’ Own Language Use’

Categories	Description
Variety of English	What English language norm the teachers follow
L1 identity	How the teachers perceive their native language identity being noticed when they speak English
Consistency	Whether the teachers are consistent or not when speaking and writing English, i.e. sticking to features from one variety of English
Awareness	The teachers’ conscious knowledge of the language

Variety of English

The interviews included a question regarding what variety the teachers are using, but this question was phrased differently in the interviews than in the survey. I asked if the interviewees were aiming toward speaking and writing a specific variety of English, while the survey respondents were asked what variety is closest to the way they speak English. The interview question was thus an open-ended question, where the teachers were allowed to report what they wanted without restrictions, as they were not provided with any options. Six of the seven informants reported that they do not really *aim* toward speaking a specific variety. However, after reflecting aloud and some of them being asked how they would characterize their spoken English, all of the teachers concluded that they were closest to one or two native varieties of English, as presented in the citations below. Isabelle was the only one who did not dismiss the questions instantly, but reported that she was aiming toward an AmE version of the English language.

I don’t think I do, and I think I’m a good mix of American with some British words here and there (Lily, interviewee).

Hmmm, maybe more of a Standard American, I might say. That might be what I use the most (...) And the pronunciation too has a more thick ‘R’ (Victor, interviewee).

I am a little nasal in the language myself and have a more of a monotone use of the voice. So for me it’s... I probably tend toward the American, but it’s not a goal for me to have a very American pronunciation (Sarah, interviewee).

European... Or a mix between American and English [BrE] (Olivia, interviewee).

I am...Not sufficiently aware of it. But considering the schools I have attended, the tendency is that I mostly point toward British English, yes (Wilda, interviewee).

It tends to go toward British, I would say... But... Not something that I do consciously (Caroline, interviewee).

I feel that I... Represent a variety of American (...). Both choice of words and pronunciation is impacted by American English rather than British English (Isabelle, interviewee).

As understood from these citations, the teachers identify their spoken English as close to either BrE, AmE or a mix of these. The teachers do not *aim* at speaking a specific variety of English, with the exception of Isabelle, who reported that she tries to follow a language norm, AmE. The rest of the teachers were seemingly not consciously aiming at speaking English a specific way, but the way they were able to characterize their way of speaking English indicate that they to some extent are aware of their own use of the English language. Several of the informants furthermore emphasized that they speak with their 'own' English, raising questions on and addressing the issue of what English is considered the correct one.

L1 Identity

When asked how they would experience communicating a Norwegian or an L1 identity through their English, the interviewees' responses differed, but the main point made by the teachers was that it is not uncommon that your native identity is conveyed through your second language. Citations from all of the interviewed teachers concerning this question are presented below;

That wouldn't bother me. I mean, the secretary general of NATO speaks a sufficient amount of Norwegian-English, and no one cares (Lily, interviewee).

But you're not ever going to escape that; you can never become a native-speaker (...). Never. No matter how much we expose ourselves to the language or what we do, we will never be able to reach that (...). It's not a goal that we're supposed to sound like we're from a place we're not. We'll always be from Trondheim, Bodø, whatever (...) But, again, it all comes down to this, it's important to be understood, that has to be the goal. That it [the language] doesn't get in the way of the understanding and communication (...) (Victor, interviewee).

I personally think that... (...) Me expressing my Norwegian identity through the English language, I find it a bit unnecessary, really, to emphasize that (...). I think that you should speak with the English you have acquired (...) (Sarah, interviewee).

I don't speak like a native, so I do get revealed. At least not anymore, maybe when I lived in England, but not anymore. And I think that's nice, because it's a part of my identity. So... I like it (Olivia, interviewee).

Well, I'm trying my best to speak as authentic as I can, but it will shine through and... It doesn't bother me that much... (Wilda, interviewee).

Positive, I think (...). It has to do with your own identity, basically (Caroline, interviewee).

Well, it might not be that unnatural. It's probably difficult to avoid it. My English is naturally affected by the country I'm from (...). That's just the way it is (Isabelle, interviewee).

The attitudes displayed in the citations above toward communicating a Norwegian identity through English, willingly or unwillingly, demonstrate that the teachers perceive their native language as a natural part of their identity, and thus their English.

Lily had been mistaken for being a native-speaker of AmE when she lived in the States, meaning that she was able to hide the traces of her L1 when speaking English for a period of time. Although she does not care if anyone understands she is Norwegian through her English, she would still react positively if someone thought she was a native-speaker of English today. She explained that as a teacher of English, she wants to be speaking as close to a native-speaker as possible and is proud when realizing that she masters the language so well that others believe she is a native-speaker of English. Olivia and Victor shared Lily's experiences of speaking English closer to a native-speaker when staying in an English-speaking country for a period of time. The other teachers seemed to agree with Lily, that being mistaken for a native-speaker of English would be experienced as positive. However, they would rather receive positive feedback on their linguistic competence and mastery of the English language in general, than being mistaken for a native speaker of English. Compliments on their vocabulary and fluency were mentioned as being more desirable than passing as a native-speaker of English. These are also aspects Lily would highly appreciate receiving compliments on.

Consistency

The level of the interviewed teachers' consistency when spelling and using words in English is interesting seen the light of what the survey revealed. None of the interviewed teachers proved to be thoroughly consistent when informing me on how they spelled different words

and what words they used when speaking and writing English. The words the teachers were presented with are presented in table 4.5. below;

Table 4.5. List of words

How do you spell these words?	What word do you use?
Color/colour	Cookie/biscuit
Metre/meter	Fries/chips
Apologize/apologise	Pants/trousers
Analyse/analyze	Jumper/sweater
Licence/license	Car park/parking lot
Dialogue/dialog	Vacation/holiday
Modeling/modelling	Gas/petrol

It is important to note that some of the words presented in table 4.5.³³ exist in both BrE and AmE, with different meanings, e.g. fries/chips. Whenever the meaning was unclear, the teachers were informed what was meant by the given word(s). The written form of the word dialogue/dialog occurs in both BrE and AmE, and is allowed in both varieties, but ‘dialogue’ is considered more of a British spelling (Allen, 2008). The word ‘metre/meter’ can also pose a challenge, as it is not a length unit measurement that is being used in the US and can potentially be a word that the teachers do not use in English on a regular basis. Vacation/holiday refers to the Norwegian word ‘ferie’, meaning a period of time off from school or work where you are free to relax or go somewhere, for instance during the summer. When ‘holiday’ is used in AmE, it preferably signalizes that there is a religious celebration, e.g. Christmas (Allen, 2008). I thus explained to the informants that I was interested in what word they would use for the Norwegian ‘ferie’, which they all seemed to understand from the context.

The words purposely occur in a random order, not to confuse the informants, but to ensure that they would not recognize a pattern and subsequently stick to one side of the list. These two lists led to some interesting reflections on the interviewees’ part. Some of them laughed in a slightly embarrassed manner, signalizing that they understood that they were not being consistent. This, to me, suggest that some of the teachers were or became aware of being

³³ Although this paragraph could qualify as a methodological section, I find it more clarifying to present it here.

inconsistent, even though I did not tell them whether they were demonstrating consistency or not.

Olivia was particularly frustrated, because she thought there was a pattern to the list, and thus understood that she was inconsistent while looking at the words. When I told her that there was no pattern and that the words occurred in a random order, she calmed down and understood my purpose.

Victor uttered that he knew which words and spellings that are BrE and AmE. Because he was asked to tell me which of the words he used and how he would spell some of them, he emphasized that he explained his practice regarding these words. He tried putting himself in the situation of thinking about what first came to mind when seeing the words and which he consequently uses and how he spelled the words on a daily basis. As he had not responded to the survey, he was unaware of what sort of questions I would ask him, and I therefore see his answers as unprepared and honest.

Nonetheless, these lists and consequently the teachers' replies suggest that the consistency level among the interviewed teachers were low, as they switched between BrE and AmE in spelling *and* vocabulary. Isabelle was somewhat consistent, as the only deviation from the AmE norm was the way she spelled license, 'licence'. She did not know how to spell 'modeling' as it was not a word that was customary in her vocabulary. The six other teachers proved to be inconsistent over four times, i.e. switching between the varieties four times or more.

Awareness

As touched upon in chapter 2, Andrews (2008) mentions awareness as a key element of the L2-language teacher's competence. Awareness is in the context of this thesis understood as the teachers' conscious knowledge of the English language, and awareness requires the ability to register or perceive a situation and being able to act on it (cf. Andrews, 2008).

Although the Norwegian word for awareness, 'bevissthet', was addressed by six of the teachers, there was not one question explicitly asking the informants of their awareness. However, as one might assume, the word-list illustrated above did not necessarily address the teachers' awareness, as they were asked to report what words they use and how they spell different words. What is interesting in regards to awareness and these two lists of words is how the teachers themselves became attentive regarding their practices. The majority of the

teachers rapidly realized that they were mixing the norms for both words and spellings, which is interesting as they are the ones modeling English for their students. This clearly showed an existing awareness among the teachers – the majority of them became aware that they not necessarily were consistent when speaking and writing English. It is, however, difficult to know if they actually were aware of it or if they sensed that they were not being consistent and decided to explain that they knew they were not consistent, in order to portray themselves in a better way.

Several of the teachers noted throughout the interview that they while reflecting on it realized that they were not being consistent themselves when speaking and writing English. Some of them mentioned that writing English was easier in terms of sticking to one variant, as computer-based writing programs offer spelling checks and you are able to choose language. Throughout the interviews, several of the teachers mentioned that they were not sufficiently aware of the given situation, referring to the topic of varieties of English in the classroom and in regards to their students. After the final question, the teachers were asked if there was something they would like to add. Victor and Wilda expressed that they became more aware of the topic of varieties of English by participating in the interview, as central topics regarding their practice were addressed. These are not necessarily topics that the informants have the time to reflect on in a hectic day as teachers – as they explained themselves.

4.2.3 Students' language use

The categories that correspond to the topic 'students' language use' is presented in table 4.6. below. Two of these categories are similar to the categories of 'teachers' own language use', making it possible to connect the teachers' views on their own language use versus their views on students' language use.

Table 4.6. 'Students' Language Use'

Categories	Description
Variety of English	What variety of English the teachers prefer their students to use
L1 Identity	How the teachers feel if their students communicate a Norwegian identity through their English
Assessment and correction practice	How the teachers assess and correct the students in regards to language norms

Variety of English

The teachers were all asked if there was one specific variety they liked the best, or would encourage their students to use. “No, I don’t. As I said, I’m a mix myself, so I can’t throw stones in a glass house” (Lily, interviewee). Lily’s statement clearly implies that she does not expect her students to follow a specific language norm, but rather communicate that it is up to the students themselves to decide. This view is also shared by the other teachers, who express different concerns regarding their students’ choice of English variety.

Although Wilda personally prefers BrE, and experiences this as the prettiest English to listen to, she does not convey this to her students. She has, however, received comments from her students throughout her years as a teacher, where the students say that she speaks English-English, referring to BrE. Isabelle uttered that the question was rather difficult to answer, due to the fact that she herself lean toward AmE. However, she emphasized that she wants her students to have the ability to choose a variety for themselves, but she is unsure of how she affects the students by portraying an American English when speaking – which is difficult for her to control. This might be a view shared by Wilda, as her students perceive her speaking close to BrE.

The other four teachers emphasized that they wanted their students to do whatever feels natural to them. However, they seemed to have a basic understanding of BrE and AmE as the most common varieties to choose. Victor mentioned General American as an example of what he thought of as the simplest standard of English, as he described it as ‘neutral’ compared to Received Pronunciation, the current British standard. The majority of the interviewees mentioned that they would assist students if they themselves had a wish of sounding more like native speakers of English – but that it was not a requirement.

L1 Identity

The teachers all expressed different opinions regarding students communicating a Norwegian identity through their English. What the majority of them had in common, however, was that they mentioned their students’ Norwegian dialects as an issue especially in terms of intonation. This is seemingly not restricted to any geographical set dialect, as it according to the interviewees applies to the four different areas they work at.

Lily admitted to the lack of tools of how to remove the influence the students’ first language has on their English, i.e. L1 interference. She reported that it would be easier correcting

students on their pronunciation if she had more time to hear them speak one-on-one. Olivia explained that she regularly have ‘mini talks’ with her students, allowing her to comment on features that would disrupt the communication, which often is L1 interference. If the student’s pronunciation hinders the communication by L1 interference, and she becomes aware of it, Lily might comment on it. This view was shared by all the teachers, who attempts to eliminate or reduce Norwegian influence that prevents their message from becoming clear, i.e. when the communication is disrupted by Norwegian features.

Lily mentioned that students in lower secondary school often are reluctant toward speaking English aloud, and she experience that some of the students have a fear of speaking English aloud in front of their classmates. This view was shared by Caroline. Trying to fight such tendencies, Lily often tells the students that none of them speak English perfectly, not her, not anyone – as none of them grew up in the UK or the US. “In this classroom, we need to lower our shoulders and speak with the English we have, because it’s not that bad”. Caroline does not want to reinforce her students’ fears of speaking English aloud either. She thus uses examples of Norwegians speaking English with Norwegian traces, such as Petter Solberg, when pointing out that it is possible to be a successful English speaker although you do not sound like a native-speaker of English. Olivia was more concerned with comprehension: “I’m not really concerned with them [the students] getting rid of their Norwegian pronunciation as much as I am concerned with them communicating well. It [the students’ language production] has to be intelligible”.

Wilda explained that a lot of her students’ Norwegian identity is visible through their English, which they occasionally work on during lessons. The students all have different aptitudes, making her assess each situation individually. She furthermore emphasized that the goal is to strive toward an authentic pronunciation in oral communication. She has a negative experience of a lot of the students’ intonation, and students being influenced by Norwegian when speaking English is seen negatively, as they have been working on eliminating such pronunciation.

Assessment and correction practice

The teachers’ assessment and correction practices differed in many ways. The teachers were asked if they emphasized near-native speaker pronunciation when assessing the students’ oral achievements. They all expressed positive attitudes toward students who attempts to imitate

native-speakers of English, although the students' lack of such an aim would not necessarily affect the assessment negatively.

Lily explained that students who are experiencing difficulties of expressing themselves grammatically rarely are superior in regards to pronunciation. Thus, she emphasized that students performing above average and master English grammar in general often are very good at speaking English as well, referring to pronunciation. Whether she is affected by the students' speaking close to native-speaker English or not all depends on the assessment criteria, although she experiences students speaking near native-English highly positive.

Pointing toward the 'everlasting discussion' (his own words) on how to assess students' spoken English, Victor raised the question of what a native-speaker is, referring to the enormous amount of native-speakers of English from several different continents. His impression was that students practicing a near native-speaker pronunciation is positive and can affect his assessment of the student. However, it all comes down to the communication aspect of the student's spoken English. He admitted to favoring a native-speaker pronunciation, but simultaneously expressed that it depends on the communication. If the communication is hindered by the student's pronunciation and the listener becomes preoccupied by trying to figure out what the speaker is trying to convey, he claimed that it could definitely affect their assessment negatively – and that he would try to help the given student by commenting on it.

Sarah also expressed her confusion by referring to the ongoing discussion on native-speaker norms in regards to the students' spoken English. If the students' fluency prevents their message from becoming clear, or that they have a heavy Norwegian accent, she stated that it would affect her assessment of the student. Correct stress and intonation is something that she emphasizes when assessing her students' spoken English, in the sense that they are not able to obtain the highest grade if these elements of the pronunciation are disrupting the fluency.

Olivia almost exclusively assess her students based on their near-native speaker pronunciation. She grades the students both based on spoken and written English, and when their spoken English is being assessed, she only assesses their language. The content is being assessed when they write English. After a conversation with a student, she explains to them how they can improve their pronunciation and intonation.

Wilda reported that the students' oral competence is assessed based on the way her students speak English. She furthermore explained that the assessment criterion includes pronunciation and to what extent the students sound native. It is not specified in the criteria, but she uses near-native speaker pronunciation as a guideline when assessing her students.

Caroline emphasized that students using near-native speaker pronunciation as an example when talking about a topic that originates from one of the native English-speaking countries, is considered being positive in terms of assessment. This would prove that they know the difference between the native varieties, she claimed, but it is not something that she stresses when assessing her students. By doing something, in this context "performing" a given native-speaker pronunciation, the students show that they know it, which she considers to be positive.

Isabelle pointed toward the difficulty of answering the question, as it has been an issue among her and her colleagues, not really knowing what to do – as they are not provided with any guidelines regarding how to deal with the issue of assessing the students' spoken English. However, she feels that students' attempting to speak close to a native-variety of English affects her assessment in a positive way and sounds more natural than those speaking English with a Norwegian accent. She furthermore expressed that students who are speaking English with a Norwegian accent might receive a lower grade, due to the impression the teachers' receive when assessing the given student.

The teachers were furthermore asked if they would comment on a student's text if the student demonstrates an inconsistency in the words used and the spelling. All the teachers were presented with an example, where a student uses 'lift' (instead of elevator) and through the text uses 'behavior' (instead of behaviour). Citations from all of the teachers are presented below;

I comment sometimes, especially if there's typical words that deviate from one norm. Then I can comment that this is British and this is American. I don't tell them to choose one [variety], but tell them that it can be wise to go one way. But it's rarely *that* severe that it would affect the assessment negatively, no (Lily, interviewee).

I don't think I focus that much on it. If I'm like aware and notice it, then I might make them aware of it as well (Victor, interviewee).

Well... I don't always notice the words, it's more of the spelling. That's what I comment on, and then I tell them that they have to work on it and be consistent (Sarah, interviewee).

I wouldn't emphasize that in the assessment (...). If they use for instance 'lift' and 'behavior', I wouldn't make a deal out of it. But if they write 'behavior' differently in the text, then I would point it out. But I don't think it matters that much that I would make their grade go down (Olivia, interviewee).

If the student is on an average level and up, I would comment it. It's something I often point out. If I notice that the student isn't consistent and the student is able to understand it (Wilda, interviewee).

If it's very distinctive, then I would comment on it. They should be consistent on certain words, yes. I think so. They wouldn't achieve the highest grade, they would've received a 5 instead of a 6, to put it like that (...). I really nag them about expanding their vocabulary, so autumn/fall might appear in the same text. Then I usually say "this is what they say in England for the most part, and this is what it's like in America, but it's great that you know both" (Caroline, interviewee).

No, I don't think I would... Impact the assessment I make. But if they choose lift or elevator, no. I wouldn't comment on that. But different spellings, 'or' or 'our', I think I would comment on that (Isabelle, interviewee).

These citations suggest that the teachers *might* comment on students' inconsistencies, but that it does not necessarily affect their assessment. Sarah, Victor, Caroline, Wilda and Isabelle explicitly view consistency as an important part of their students' language production, as understood from these citations, especially in regards to written English. As Victor and Sarah point out – to be able to comment on inconsistencies, the teachers themselves need to be aware of different language norms. Understandably, their abilities to detect inconsistencies thus depend on their awareness of the English language.

4.2.4 Classroom texts

Table 4.7. presents the one category that stood out as relevant in regards to the topic 'classroom texts'. Awareness was the most central category, as the teachers when talking about classroom texts not necessarily proved to be aware of what variety their textbooks are written in.

Table 4.7. 'Classroom Texts'

Categories	Description
Awareness	Teachers' conscious knowledge of written varieties of English

Awareness

When asked what variety of English their textbooks were written in, the teachers were divided in their answers. While Wilda and Caroline reported that their textbook *New Flight* covers different varieties in the sense that if there is a text about Australia, it is written in Australian English, Lily and Victor were not really sure about their textbook. Lily believed *Searching* is written in BrE, but has not really reflected on it. Victor uttered “there you go, see how unaware one is... I assume that they stick to one variety, I hope so. But if there’s a chapter on America, I would think that it’s written in American” (Victor, interviewee). He reported that he had not really thought about it, and was therefore not sure what language norm *Searching* follows. His statement, especially referring to how unaware ‘one’ is, suggests that he thinks he is not alone in not being aware of the textbook, as his generalization indicates. Olivia said that she thought *Key English* is written in BrE, and Sarah explained that she had not thought about it. Isabelle reported that she thought *Crossroads* is written in British English, but she and her colleagues consistently avoid this textbook, as they have assessed it as not good enough in general. The other texts they use instead of the textbook are mainly British texts. The teachers’ responses suggest that they are rather unaware of the language of their provided textbooks. The teachers nonetheless explained that the audio materials that are included in the textbooks offer a wide range of varieties of English, mainly from native-speaker countries of English. This could imply that the teachers find it easier to detect differences in speech, in accordance with Hasselgård et al.’s (2012) description of the diversity of spoken English. It also suggests that the teachers are more attentive toward spoken English, or that they are more aware of the oral use of the language in comparison with the written varieties of the language.

Isabelle was not really satisfied that the largest proportion of the texts she and her colleagues use in the classroom are written in BrE, as she herself lean toward AmE in both speech and writing. At her school and the grade she teaches, they usually use texts from different textbooks instead of relying on *Crossroads*. She moreover proposed that the texts in the textbooks could be marked as either BrE or AmE, so that both the students and the teachers could be made aware of it before starting to use the text instead of trying to detect it themselves.

4.2.5 Purpose and goal of the English teaching

Table 4.8. below introduces the categories of the topic ‘purpose and goal of the English teaching’. This is the only topic that was not explicitly addressed by me, but rather emerged as central because the interviewees focused on it throughout the interviews.

Table 4.8. ‘Purpose and Goal of the English Teaching’

Categories	Description
Communication	What the teachers express is the main goal of the English teaching
‘The English language’	What the teachers perceive by the Knowledge Promotion’s term ‘the English language’
‘Target language’	How the teachers perceive the term ‘target language’

Communication

The word ‘communication’ appeared in six of the interviews, encouraged by the teachers themselves – and not specifically addressed by me. Isabelle, who did not specifically address ‘communication’, instead pointed out that the students were supposed to express themselves in English, certainly referring to ‘communication’. Communication was consistently mentioned by the six other teachers as the main goal of teaching English, i.e. teaching the students English in order for them to be able to communicate with others. Comprehensibility was mentioned as an aspect relating to communication and as put by Victor:

They [the students] need to find their way of communicating, and maybe it’s sort of Scandinavian English both in terms of structure and pronunciation. But they should strive for it [the students’ language production] to be intelligible, and not be colored by elements that hinder the communication (Victor, interviewee).

Similar reflections were made by Lily, Sarah, Olivia, Wilda and Caroline; hence they acknowledged the purpose of teaching English. It was apparent that communication is considered the main goal of the teachers’ English teaching, with the emphasis on communicative competence in the Knowledge Promotion (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013).

'The English Language'

The Knowledge Promotion refers to the term 'the English language' when addressing 'English', without further explaining what is meant by it or providing any guidelines that can reveal what is meant by it. The teachers were thus asked what they thought of this phrasing – and that they are supposed to teach the students 'the English language'. Isabelle's rhetorical questions are very interesting: "What is the English language? What are they [LK06] pointing toward?" (Isabelle, interviewee). Furthermore, she uttered that she thought it was a very vague expression, as it raises more questions than providing her with answers. She rhetorically asked if the curriculum referred to all the existing varieties of English or it was only a few of them. Without The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training specifying what they mean by 'the English language', she expressed a frustration by asking questions and pointing out that it was difficult to determine what is meant by the term, due to the lack of an explanation in the Knowledge Promotion. To her students, English is English – "a giant bowl of soup" – her own words, and she claimed that her students are not necessarily aware of what English they are learning at school. The soup-bowl metaphor describes that she regards the English language as a language consisting of a great amount of components, while her students experience English as English – one united language. Isabelle's students' perspectives were shared by Caroline, because in her opinion, English is English – and she thus assessed it as an acceptable term. She mentioned 'multicultural' as a key term relating to 'the English language', referring to the language that is spoken "there and there and there and there" (her own words).

Lily's first thought was that the term referred to BrE and AmE, although she mentioned that it also could refer to for instance Australian English, Indian English and South-African English, emphasizing that teachers do not teach these 'Englishes'. She furthermore conveyed that she felt that English was a jumble of AmE and BrE, because that is what Norwegians are mostly exposed to. Lily categorized the term as imprecise, but yet an open term that can possibly entail a whole lot. These thoughts were shared by Olivia, who had an idea of the term as being very open, allowing her to include varieties of English not only from the US and the UK, but also English from former British colonies. She emphasized that the term 'the English language' does not necessarily only refer to English from England. Wilda also specifically mentioned that the term does not necessarily refer to BrE. She furthermore suggested replacing 'the English language' with 'varieties of the English language', as it would be more clarifying for herself and for other English teachers in Norway. Sarah also addressed that the

term could entail several varieties of English, which she considered being positive. Sarah furthermore communicated that ‘the English language’ to her refers to a universal language that has spread across the globe, and she found the expression to be satisfactory, as it does not favor any of the native English varieties.

Victor thought the term ‘the English language’ is a good term, as he pointed out that it is difficult to pinpoint what native English really is, and raised the question on who can claim English as their language. He moreover expressed that teaching students ‘the English language’ to him entails teaching them to master a vocabulary and pronunciation – components of the language that are comprehensible to different speakers of English.

‘Target language’

‘Target language’ is a relatively common term in second language acquisition research, and the teachers were asked what they thought of students’ having to aim toward reaching a target language, in this context English. The majority of the teachers asked for clarification when I asked this question, suggesting that they were not so familiar with the term. Some of the teachers’ responses regarding this question are presented in citations below.

To me it’s not a specific goal when it comes to language, because languages are always evolving. Languages are alive. So, the term ‘target language’ appears vague to me – because I find that there isn’t one perfect language. It’ll always be possible to develop a language further (Olivia, interviewee).

Olivia’s thoughts illustrate the difficulty of the term ‘target language’, as languages are always changing. Additionally, she reflects on the potential of developing linguistic competence further, i.e. that language learning is not static, but dynamic.

The students have to, in some way or another, learn to communicate in English, which is now sort of a worldwide language, right. (...) Well, if they have a specific wish, you can help them achieve that, but it’s difficult to determine the template, as there might be no template, you know. What English is more correct than the other? So then, we’ll have to work on being understood, that’s what I think (Victor, interviewee).

Victor’s reflections touch upon the language norms of the ESL classroom. As pointed out by Hansen (2014), the notion of a ‘target language’ requires a language norm being present. He also refers to one of the purposes of learning and teaching English – mutual comprehension.

Well, when I hear that term I think that it was more like it was before, that the students had to acquire an American dialect or British dialect. And luckily, we've moved passed that. But that they're supposed to acquire an English variety, well – there's disagreement about that. But I think that it's positive that we are practicing fluency and intonation and... Pronunciation. I think that's important when learning a new language. You're supposed to do that when learning German and French, so why on earth should they not do that in English? When English is much bigger... (Sarah, interviewee).

These passages point toward the possibility of the term 'target language' being outdated, as it requires one variety to function as the norm. Sarah's notion of 'target language' is mostly linked to oral communication, which she stressed is important to practice, as English is such an immense language.

Well, that's a strange term. I think you should focus on the journey instead of it being a goal to reach the target language. When do you know that you've reached the target? Focusing on the way toward the goal, learning more and more and developing the language, that's what's important (Isabelle, interviewee).

Isabelle's reflections points toward focusing on the development of the students' interlanguage instead of centering the teaching on trying to achieve the students' competence in a 'target language'.

What all these passages express is that there are different views on the existence of a 'target language'. What they all have in common, however, is that they do now acknowledge or focus on developing the students' linguistic skills according to a 'target language'. English seem to be considered English, in the sense that only Victor pointed toward the fact that a focusing on reaching a specific 'target language' requires a language norm to be present – which is essentially what scholars nowadays debate. The teachers do not seem to think that reaching a 'target language' is the goal or the purpose of the English teaching, as understood by their statements presented above.

4.3 Observation Results

The following paragraphs consist of what the two observations uncovered. The observations took place at a school located in a small town, where Caroline and Wilda let me observe their English teaching for one lesson each. Both of them were interviewed prior to the observation, which could have affected their teaching – as they potentially could understand what I wanted

to observe. I started out with a pre-designed form that I was planning to fill in, but it was dismissed early on in the first lesson, as the lessons continuously unfolded. I therefore took field notes during the observations, allowing me to start the analyses at the very moment I entered the classroom.

4.3.1 Pronunciation

Both teachers reported that their English was influenced by BrE. However, Wilda expressed this more clearly in her interview, while Caroline said that she did not really aim toward a specific variety, but that BrE was the variety she had been taught at school and thus she believed this was closer to her way of speaking English. It was noticeable that their pronunciation varied in terms of switching between different ways of pronouncing given words. An example of this is that Caroline pronounced ‘start’ both /stɑ:rt/ and /stɑ:t/. A similar example applies to Wilda, who pronounced ‘your’ both /jɔ:r/ and /jɔ:/. These examples indicate that they were not fully consistent in terms of pronunciation. It is important to note that these were not the only inconsistencies I noticed. My observations of Wilda included the loss of post-vocalic /r/ more frequently than the use of it. Caroline on the other hand, skipped the post-vocalic /r/ from time to time, but stuck more to using it than losing it, making her pronunciation have a more American sound on this point. Also, her use of flap /t/ sounds seemed inconsistent, e.g. /bjɜ:Dirfəl/ and /lɪtəl/, as these two were mixed quite a bit. Wilda’s way of speaking English was slightly more consistent than Caroline’s, in terms of sticking to BrE intonation and pronunciation most of the time. Wilda’s intonation was generally slightly more ‘authentic’, to use her own words. Her intonation and pronunciation were clearly modeled on a British native-speaker norm, regardless of minor deviations from this norm.

4.3.2 The lessons

Both teachers used the poem *Red, Red Rose* by Robert Burns in their lessons. While Caroline told the students that the poem was written by a Scottish poet, Wilda asked her students if they were able to detect where the poem originated from. This allowed the students to look for and identify features specific for the region the poet was from. One of the students pointed out that the word ‘bonnie’ was Scottish and suggested that the text originated from Scotland. This indicates that Wilda’s class either has a general focus on pinpointing features of the English language that is specific for different regions, or that this particular student was interested in the English language and aware that different linguistic features separate different varieties.

This particular word could also have appeared in other texts the class had been working on, but nonetheless, one student was attentive. Wilda could have planned to ask the students this question, as she probably knew I was going to be interested in observing how she dealt with varieties of English. Whether this was a usual question asked in Wilda's class is difficult to know, as well as it is impossible to know whether Caroline would have asked a similar question if I was not present. Caroline several times expressed that she was nervous that I was observing and writing while she was teaching, which could have impacted her in several ways – for instance by her forgetting what she had planned to do. Her body language expressed that she was uncomfortable in the situation, mainly because she did not know what I was observing; the only thing she knew was that I was observing her and not her students. Nonetheless, these two lessons included an authentic text that both classes worked on, suggesting that these lower secondary students do experience some different varieties of English at school. The students were supposed to read the poem aloud while listening to a sound clip on YouTube. The poem was performed by a man with a classical BrE accent, RP, not Scottish, which I found somewhat misleading, as it was already pointed out that the poem was written by a Scot.

4.4 Chapter Summary

Briefly summarized, the survey responses indicate that the surveyed teachers are not thoroughly consistent when reporting what words they use and how they spell a range of different words. 97% of them assess their way of speaking English as closest to the BrE, AmE or Canadian English. This percentage also includes those who responded that they switch between AmE and BrE.

The interviews indicated that the teachers are aware that they to some extent are unaware of how to deal with the large amount of English varieties in the classroom. The teachers' consistency level when reporting how they spell different words and what words they use proved to be low. They collectively seemed to acknowledge that the English language is much more complex than one united language, and they reported that their practices regarding this was generally about informing the students of the differences of the varieties of English. However, they did express some frustration as there are no guidelines as to how to deal with the vast amount of English varieties in the ESL classroom. As the main goal of the English teaching is communication, they emphasized that correcting language in accordance with one specific native-speaker norm was not on the top of their list of priorities.

The observations uncovered that Wilda and Caroline do not only use their textbooks in their ESL classrooms. They include other varieties of English than the standard BrE and AmE varieties. The teachers each modeled different 'Englishes', and although there were some deviations from a native-speaker standard, it did set an example to the students; that they should speak with the English they have acquired. However, letting the students read a Scottish poem aloud at the same time as it was performed by a man with an RP accent on a YouTube clip, could function misleading in the sense that the teachers did not mention that the narrator was not portraying a Scottish accent.

5 Discussion

The results presented in chapter 4 are in this chapter discussed in relation to some of the theoretical perspectives that were presented in chapter 2. Although the results were presented separately according to the different methods, I will in this chapter connect the results of the different methods. This means that what method I am referring to, i.e. survey, interview or observation, will be mentioned throughout the chapter. Both the survey and interview responses will be emphasized here, with the observations functioning as additional information whenever relevant. However, when I refer to ‘the teachers’, it is used to comment on tendencies that apply to the majority of the surveyed and interviewed teachers. Where relevant, I will provide citations from the interviewees. The Norwegian studies that were briefly presented in section 2.3 will be used as points of reference throughout the chapter. I will start by summarizing my key results.

5.1 Overall Results

As mentioned in section 1.3, the objective of this study was not to generalize how lower secondary ESL teachers perceive the complexity of the varieties of English, but rather to reach an understanding of a selection of lower secondary teachers’ awareness of their own language use and beliefs regarding varieties of English in a classroom context. I will in the following section refer to the already presented analyses, in order to present my main results summarized. The key results are presented in the order they will be discussed in this chapter. Thus, this summarized presentation will not account for the significance of the different results.

- The teachers characterize their spoken English as close to either BrE or AmE, or a mix of these two native varieties.
- The interviewed teachers do not aim at speaking with a specific native variety.
- The interviewed teachers find that their L1 is a part of their identity and thus their way of speaking English.
- The teachers want their students to choose whatever variety of English that feels natural to them, although their choices seem to be restricted to either BrE or AmE.
- The interviewed teachers want to eliminate or reduce influence from their students’ Norwegian dialects, although they assess that it is unattainable for the students to sound like native speakers of English.

- The teachers seem to want their students to be consistent when speaking and writing English, i.e. that the students are encouraged to stick to one variety of English when communicating.
- The teachers demonstrate that they are not fully consistent themselves in regards to spelling and vocabulary. That is, they do not stick to one variety of English, but rather switch between BrE and AmE in spelling and word choices.
- The teachers are influenced by a native-speaker norm when assessing students' oral and written competence.
- The interviewed teachers reported that communication and understanding are the main goals of the English teaching.
- The teachers seem more aware of differences in spoken language than in written language, yet they are more concerned with students being consistent when writing rather than when they are speaking English.

5.2 Teachers' Views

5.2.1 Teachers' own language use

The majority of the lower secondary teachers characterize their way of speaking English as close to one or two native varieties of English, where the inner-circle varieties of BrE and AmE not surprisingly are dominant. These are also the varieties the majority of the surveyed teachers (95%) reported that they were mostly exposed to, and are considered the two most influential varieties of English in Norway (Simensen, 2014). Thus, there might be a correlation between the varieties the teachers are particularly exposed to, either intentionally or unintentionally, and the way they characterize their spoken English. That is, these might be the varieties that in general have impacted the teachers' spoken English the most. Altogether, the surveyed teachers mainly reported that several factors had made an impact on their way of speaking and/or writing English. There is no one factor that stands out as dominant in terms of influence; the teachers rather reported that various aspects have been contributory in affecting their spoken and/or written English. These include higher education, travels, compulsory education, media, literature, social network and previous English teachers at school, implying that the teachers have encountered English through multiple channels. That the teachers in general identify their spoken English as close to either BrE or AmE may correspond to Mollin's (2006) analyses of a corpus conducted on European non-native English speakers'

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speech and writing. Her study indicates that Europeans follow a native-speaker pattern both when writing and speaking.

Risan's (2014) teacher students were in the context of her thesis asked what English accent they are aiming toward when speaking English, implying that they were in fact aiming at speaking with a specific accent. The majority of the teacher students reported that they were aiming at speaking with features of the native varieties of either BrE or AmE, where AmE was the variety that applied to the majority. Six of my seven interviewed teachers, on the other hand, conveyed that they do not really *aim* at speaking with a certain accent, as they acknowledged their L1 as being a part of their identity and thus their English. This indicates that there is indeed an existing awareness among the teachers regarding their own spoken language production – an important perspective in regards to teachers' knowledge about the language (Andrews, 2008). The teachers mentioned awareness-raising as an imperative aspect with reference to the different varieties of English. The teachers' awareness of their own way of speaking English might be helpful when they are raising awareness among their students. After all, the students are supposed to listen to and understand different varieties of the English language through the subject English at the lower secondary level (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2013). This competence aim also requires the students' teachers to be able to understand and pinpoint differences of the various 'Englishes'.

The responses I received indicate that the teachers do not necessarily consciously attempt to speak English with a specific language norm in mind. There is a distinct difference in Risan's (2014) and my informant group, hers consisting of teacher students, while mine were practicing English teachers – which might clarify the difference in what the teacher students and the teachers reported. The teacher students were through the teacher education program acquiring knowledge of the English language, and were perhaps on a daily basis to some extent required to reflect on the English language through mandatory assignments etc. Hence, the teacher students were in a unique position on their way toward becoming teachers, in addition to being students. Thus, these might be factors that are contributing to their answers and opinions of *aiming* at a specific accent. In contrast, the practicing teachers are teaching English, and their students are thus in focus of their teaching, which might lead the focus away from themselves as speakers of English. As some of my informants pointed out – you do not have the time to worry about your own way of speaking English when you should be concerned with the way your students' progress linguistically etc. Thus, the focus on your

own English accent might be something that you are urged to consider during the teacher education, but not one of the most important aspect when you are working as an English teacher. Isabelle³⁴, the only one of my informants who confirmed that she was aiming at speaking with an AmE accent, was the youngest of the interviewed teachers and also the one with the least years of teaching experience, possibly with the teacher education fresh in mind. In my own experience from the teacher education, there was a rather large focus on becoming aware of the sound system of English and thus pronunciation, as we were taught phonetics where we also had to choose whether to go for an AmE or BrE phonemic system. These perspectives might still be influencing Isabelle, as this is only her second year as a practicing teacher and she graduated the teacher education only 1.5 years ago. Also, Risan's phrasing of the question could have something to do with her outcome. In both her interviews and her questionnaire, Risan directly asked the teacher students what accent they were aiming at, whereas I posed my question differently. Hence, in her question, Risan assumed that her teacher students were in fact aiming at speaking with a specific accent. Her informants could thus perceive her question about *aiming* at a specific variety as something that was expected of them. Nonetheless, both Risan's and my responses suggest that the majority of the teachers use a native variety of English as a reference when describing their way of speaking English – or perhaps as a guideline. There is thus an indication that a native-speaker norm is present when the teachers are describing or categorizing their way of speaking English. There could be several reasons for this. Firstly, they might categorize their way of speaking English as either BrE or AmE due to a lack of vocabulary on varieties of English, i.e. that they do not possess the vocabulary needed to discuss their own language productions beyond the well-known inner-circle standards. Secondly, they might not be sufficiently aware of their spoken English and recognize that it could be characterized as another variety than the inner-circle varieties – making them assess their English as close to BrE or AmE. A third reason might be that it is perceived as easier to categorize your personal use of the English language into the already familiar varieties of English. The tendency is nonetheless that the teachers identify their oral English as close to either BrE or AmE, or a combination of these two.

The interviewed teachers were moreover welcoming toward their Norwegian identity being detectable through their English, as they recognized that sounding like a native speaker is an almost impossible and unrealistic target, as pointed out by Hansen (2014) and Cook (2001).

³⁴ Isabelle and I attended the same English courses at a university college during our teacher education.

This is to some extent in conformance with Jenkin's (2009) ideas of moving away from the native-speaker ideal in the teaching of English in expanding-circle countries. The teachers' acknowledgement of their L1 also being present when they are communicating in their L2 suggests that they in some ways are moving away from a purely native-speaker ideal. Instead of resisting Norwegian features when speaking English, as Risan's (2014) teacher students did, my interviewees expressed the opinion that communicating a Norwegian identity through their English was a natural part of Norwegians speaking English. They furthermore assessed it as difficult to escape their linguistic backgrounds. Olivia, whose native language is Spanish, also viewed it as natural that her native language somehow was noticeable through her English. Victor, for instance, several times argued that it is impossible to become a native speaker of English, and that both teachers and students from Norway forever will be exactly that, Norwegian speakers of English. Although the interviewees would mainly react positively if someone mistook them for being a native speaker of English, they would rather appreciate compliments regarding their vocabulary, fluency or mastery of the English language in general. This is in contrast to Risan's teacher students, who expressed a desire to be mistaken for native speakers of English – where one of her informants uttered that her proudest moment was when she once was mistaken for being a native speaker of English. Olivia, Lily and Victor reported that their English was much closer to a native variety of English when they were surrounded by the language on a daily basis, either by for instance traveling to English-speaking countries or while they were studying abroad. These notions indicate that the teachers recognize their language proficiency as a skill that needs practice and “refill” – which could propose to discard the concept of *reaching* a target language. These views correspond to Lightbown's (2000) argument about contact with the language as essential in order to further develop or maintain the proficiency.

5.2.2 Teachers' notion of the term 'target language'

As suggested in section 4.2.5, the interviewees communicated that students reaching a target language is not the purpose of the English teaching. This indicates that the term is outdated in the sense that the teachers focus more on the students' journey toward acquiring linguistic competence rather than accomplishing perfect mastery, i.e. native-speaker proficiency, of the target language. Thus, their notion of reaching a native speaker or a near-native speaker in terms of the spoken language is in contrast with Drew and Sørheim's (2009) ideas of the possibilities of sounding like native speakers. It does not appear that the teachers agree that

sounding like a native speaker of English is neither essential nor likely to attain. The interviewed teachers rather agreed that encouraging students to sound like native speakers of English is not their first priority, as they are promoting communication in the ESL classroom. As pointed out by Olivia, languages are alive and constantly evolving, meaning that the language itself and its speakers' proficiency are likely to change. Isabelle wondered *when* you know that your students have reached the target language, in conformance with how Olivia acknowledged that languages forever will be alive. Although the majority of the interviewees seemed to not be fond of the term 'target language', Wilda thought of the term as a concept of what the students should have reached when they graduate lower secondary school. Victor was the only one of the interviewees who explicitly pointed out that there might not be one set template or norm, perhaps none, – which complicates the notion of a teacher helping the students to master a 'target language'. Victor's beliefs are in accordance with Hansen's (2014) views on the complexity of the term as the English language is multifaceted, that is, several varieties exist.

5.2.3 Dismissal of the native-speaker norm?

It is important to address Jenkins (e.g. 2009) and Rindal's (2013) proposal of dismissing the native-speaker norm. Nowadays, English as a second or foreign language is not only acquired with the aim of communicating with native-speakers of English, but also to negotiate meaning with other second or foreign language speakers, as pointed out by Mollin (2006). Some sort of standard needs to be present in the teaching of English, and it would seem that many of the teachers participating in my study to some extent agree. That they characterize their English linguistic features as close to a standard variety of either BrE or AmE suggest that they at least use one or both of these standards as guidelines when communicating in English. Although they demonstrate that they do not strictly follow one specific native-speaker pattern, the varieties of BrE and AmE are still present in regards to their communication patterns. It appears that the teachers use the standard-native varieties of BrE and/or AmE when creating explicit criteria to assess students, as Hansen (2014) points to as an advantage of the native-speaker model. As there is no other obvious standard English to make use of, it seems as though the native-speaker norm, i.e. inner-circle varieties' norms as models, remain the most influential varieties of English in the Norwegian lower secondary ESL classroom. This relates to Mollin's (2006) arguments of maintaining the native-speaker norm in expanding-circle countries, on the basis of ELF not being a variety in itself. However, the interviewees seemed

to acknowledge that it was an unrealistic goal for Norwegians to sound like native speakers of English, in line with Hansen (2014) and Cook (2001). Thus, keeping the native-speaker norm as a model and not the actual goal of the teaching of English seems to be the general consensus among the interviewees.

5.2.4 Students: what should they aim for?

The teachers are seemingly open-minded in terms of what variety of English they want their students to use while writing and speaking. Although they reported that they are quite accepting in regards to what language norm the students' should use as a guideline or as a point of reference, these seem to be restricted to the native varieties of BrE and AmE. Hence, the teachers give the impression that the students are allowed to choose freely, but that BrE and AmE are the only varieties that they consider as accepted varieties. One reason for this might be that these are the varieties the teachers themselves are mostly exposed to by living in Norway, as pointed out by the majority of the teachers. As a consequence, BrE and AmE might be the two varieties that the teachers have the most knowledge about, and these varieties may conceivably be within the teachers' comfort zones and their level of awareness. Historically, these are the two varieties that have dominated the education of English in Norway (Simensen, 2014). 15% of the surveyed teachers reported that they would want their students to use International English while speaking, and 12% want their students to write with the variety of International English. These are interesting numbers, suggesting that a native-speaker standard is not the *only* accepted variety of English in an educational context. However, the students are not necessarily presented with such a language model, as only 3% of the surveyed teachers characterize their way of speaking English as closest to International English. It does, nevertheless, suggest that there is a modest acceptance of allowing students to rely on a different variety than of a native variety.

Tengs Sannes' (2013) four interviewed teachers all reported that their students are free to aim at what variety they want, but they all mention the native varieties of BrE and/or AmE as the most likely chosen varieties – similar to my results from both the survey and the interviews. Risan's (2014) teacher students were through a questionnaire asked what accent they wanted their future students to aim at. They were allowed to choose more than one option, and 74% reported that they wanted their future students to aim at BrE and over 60%³⁵ wanted them to

³⁵ Risan's (2014, p. 24) figure does not present the exact percentage in numbers, which is why I use approximate numbers.

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aim for an AmE accent. 17% would prefer Norwegian English for their students and just below 30%³⁶ chose 'other', where their answers were rather divided. Several teacher students clearly preferred native-speaker accents as the goal for their students, while others emphasized that communication and understanding were the most important aspects when teaching English. Thus, it seems that the majority of Risan's teacher students would prefer their future students to aim at the native varieties of either BrE or AmE. This is to some extent in contrast to what my respondents' reported – where 21% preferred the students to aim at BrE and only 3% wanted their students to aim at AmE when speaking. The responses I received might have had a different outcome if I had allowed the teachers to choose more than one option, and Risan's responses might have turned out differently if she had only allowed one option per respondent. However, seen in the light of the fact that the majority of Risan's teacher students are in fact aiming at a specific native variety themselves, indicates that aiming at a 'target language' might be something they as teacher students assess as important for their students as well. Nonetheless, BrE and AmE seem to remain the most dominant varieties of English in the Norwegian ESL classroom – suggesting that a native-speaker norm exists, although it might merely be used as a guideline when the students are developing communicative competence in English.

The teachers that wanted their students to be able to choose a variety themselves, though it seems to be restricted to BrE and AmE, stressed that consistency is important. They seem to want their students to stick to one variety of English and not mix the different varieties – both when producing spoken and written language. However, the surveyed teachers seemed more concerned with students being consistent in regards to the written language, rather than the spoken language, suggesting that it might be easier to pinpoint inconsistency in written form. Perhaps this is the case because spoken language is characterized by spontaneous utterings, while written language often can be planned and revised, as pointed out by Crystal (2004). Thus, this might indicate that the students' spoken language needs more attention than the written language, but that it may be more difficult for the teachers to comment on spontaneous speech. Often speech occurs in front of the whole class, which might lead the teachers not to comment on the students' language production because they do not want to increase the already existing reluctance some of the students feel toward speaking English aloud. This was by for instance Lily and Caroline mentioned as a reason for not commenting on or correcting inconsistencies in students' spoken English. Victor emphasized that he does

³⁶ See footnote 35.

not want to take away the students' joy of practicing the English language and their interest in vocabulary, which he expressed that could be at risk if he persistently points out his students' inconsistencies.

Although the interviewees reported that they find it unproblematic to communicate their own native identity through their way of speaking English, they simultaneously expressed that there are certain Norwegian features that they want to reduce or eliminate from their students' speech. These mostly concern intonation patterns from the students' personal dialects that are distinct for the region the students are from. According to the interviewed teachers, the Norwegian dialects influence the students' way of speaking English, i.e. many students directly transfer their dialect's intonation pattern instead of speaking with some kind of native-speaker intonation. This is also mentioned as features some of the surveyed teachers would try to correct or reduce. This notion apparently applied to some students in each of the interviewed teachers' class, including students from different geographical areas with various dialects. Hence, it suggests that Norwegian dialects are an issue or a perspective that is common for all the interviewed teachers, despite what regional dialect the students speak. Nevertheless, Norway's many dialects require Norwegians to understand spoken variations of the Norwegian language on a daily basis. This could perhaps be an advantage for students when encountering different varieties of English, because they are already familiar with understanding variations of their native language. Dialects relate to our identities, and requiring the students to dismiss their native identity when speaking English in fact suggests that the teachers prefer their students to follow a native-speaker pattern in terms of intonation. However, the teachers emphasize that communication is the main goal of their teaching, and that the students should learn to produce intelligible language that promotes communication. After all, the students are unable to communicate with someone if the way they speak English is incomprehensible. The teachers' responses thus indicate that they to some extent find that Norwegian dialects can hinder the communication when the students are speaking English; hence, that is why they want to reduce this influence. This view corresponds to Nilsen and Rugesæter's (2008) perception of Norwegian dialects possibly causing unwanted effects if their intonation pattern is applied to the students' way of speaking English, such as misunderstandings and communicational breakdowns. Wilda, for instance, mentioned that one of the goals in English is for the students to reach an authentic pronunciation, possibly referring to a pronunciation close a native variety of English. Such a target, although

communication is emphasized as the main goal, contradicts the current proposals for ELF (e.g. Jenkins, 2009).

On a different note, Rindal (2013) found that students in upper secondary school in Norway experience English at a personal level, as they feel they can express their local and individual identities through English. Rindal's findings led her to argue that it is rather problematic to present native varieties of English as a standard in terms of the spoken language, and furthermore require students to follow such a model. According to her findings, it would in general indicate that some students have to put on an accent, but it would also require some students to put on an identity that they are not necessarily comfortable with. Rindal thus proposes that teachers who implement pronunciation drills should keep in mind the local and the global diversity of English, pointing toward the purpose of the teaching of English; communication and mutual comprehension. She argues to dismiss the native-speaker norm on the basis of it being unnecessary, and not because it is an impossible target. Rindal's reflections correspond to the way several of my interviewees want their students to speak English in a way that feels natural to them, i.e. that they do not require them to imitate native speakers, but instead want them to feel comfortable when speaking English. Additionally, the fact that the teachers acknowledged native-speaker proficiency as an unrealistic goal for their students suggest that they find it to be an unnecessary goal, in conformance with Rindal's views. Ultimately, the interviewees do not want to reinforce that some students feel apprehensive about communicating aloud in English, which is why some of them are seemingly open-minded when it comes to what variety of English their students should model their English on. However, if the students show an interest in sounding more like native speakers of English, the interviewees mentioned that they would gladly assist them in the best possible way. Timmis (2002) study suggest that that is the case for many students, and helping students improve their English in accordance with native-speaker norms would require the teachers to have acquired an extensive awareness of the native-speaker standards.

The interviewed teachers additionally seemed to regard the English language simply as 'the English language', although they recognized that there are many different varieties of English, and that they have to teach their students to understand different varieties. Basically, they were interested in allowing their students to speak with their 'own' English accent, similar to how the majority of them do not attempt to speak with a native-speaker accent. However, with reference to these 'own' English accents the students are allowed to develop, they at the same time want their students to eliminate dialectal influences and Norwegian features that they

consider not belonging to the English language. Although Isabelle, for instance, acknowledged that it is natural that her Norwegian identity is noticeable through her English, she still finds that students speaking English with a native-speaker accent, or close to such a pronunciation, sound more natural than the students who do not speak this way. To some extent, the teachers thus seem to want the students to follow a native-speaker pattern, to signify the importance of both fluency and intonation in their speech, hence, to promote comprehensible pronunciation.

5.3 Consistency in teachers' language production

The majority of the teachers demonstrated that they were not completely consistent in regards to spelling and vocabulary. Only 4.5% of all of the teachers are consistent, and the remaining 95.5% do not only follow one language norm, but switch between different varieties of English when communicating in English. By including vocabulary and spelling that is distinct for either BrE or AmE, (e.g. one respondent reported that she uses *centre*, *program*, *fall* and *football*), the teachers signalize that they are inconsistent. Yet they to some extent require their students to be consistent when it comes to varieties of English, i.e. sticking to one variety. This could indicate that their students are not using the language consistently either, perhaps because the teachers themselves are not sufficiently aware of the differences between various language norms and cannot or will not point it out, or that their students are encouraged to be consistent although the teachers themselves are not. Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008) argues that modeling a stable and consistent pronunciation are key elements of being an ESL teacher. This view is also shared by Bergsland (2014), who points out that consistency is utterly important in terms of pronunciation. Inconsistencies were found in the observed teachers' language production, as Caroline and Wilda were not fully consistent when pronouncing various words in English, as commented on in section 4.3.1. Although Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008) specifically only address this importance in regards to the spoken language, it can also be relevant in terms of the written language the teachers produce. Victor reported that because communication is regarded the goal of the English teaching, he emphasizes this in his teaching, but that he surely could benefit from being more consistent himself when speaking and writing English in a classroom context.

If the students sort of write American in their spelling, it's obvious that you as a teacher have to be cautious that you're consistent yourself. I think that's something we can think of more often, as we're like a role model to them [the students] (Victor, interviewee).

Here, Victor comments on teachers' functions as language models and the importance of consistency in teachers' language productions. He generalizes by not only mentioning himself and what he can do in order to improve as a language model. Thus, it seems as though he assumes that also other teachers fail to be consistent and that it is an element to consider, in the sense that teachers need to become more aware of the importance of their role as a language model in the classroom.

5.4 Teachers' Awareness

As mentioned in section 4.2.1, three of the interviewed teachers had responded to the survey prior to the interview, while the remaining four had not. There was thus a chance that three of them had become more aware of 'varieties of English' related to their classroom practice before the interview, as pointed out by Wilda in regards to the survey. Borg (2006) describes the mental constructs of teachers as dynamic, meaning that they are subject to change throughout their experiences along the way. Several of the interviewed teachers reported in the final comments that they had experienced the interview and/or the survey as positive, as it then made them become more aware of language varieties and their own use of the language and what they signalize to their students. Victor, for instance, stated that he became aware that he was not really aware of his own way of speaking English in regards to what variety he was closest to, and that this was something he advantageously could become more aware of. He thus assessed the interview as an awareness-raising process, because he had the ability to reflect on questions he had not necessarily thought of before. This suggests that reflection creates or supports development of awareness – in line with Andrews (2008) who argues that teacher language awareness depends on several aspects, where reflection is one of these perspectives.

Scholars' notions of the teacher as a language model strengthens the importance of awareness of own pronunciation, as awareness of language is an essential part of being a language teacher (cf. Andrews, 2008). Teachers being aware of their own pronunciation might be helpful when they are assisting students in becoming aware of their pronunciation, as pointed out by informant Victor. The interviewed teachers seemed realistic and aware of not sounding like native speakers of English, and did not regard it as an issue although they are English teachers modeling the English language. As the interviewed teachers in general were not aiming at speaking with a specific accent, and the fact that they acknowledged their L1's

being present, they gave the impression of being aware of their pronunciation. Victor and Sarah pointed out that they would comment on students' inconsistencies if they detected them, suggesting that they were not necessarily aware of all the components that separate different varieties of English. As pointed out by Hansen (2014), it is not likely that teachers are familiar with *all* the elements that are distinct for one specific variety.

5.4.1 Awareness of texts

Although my informants more or less were unaware of what English standard their textbooks were written in, almost everyone (93%) participating in the survey reported that the included texts are written in BrE or AmE, or that some textbooks include certain texts in BrE and others in AmE. It is possible and perhaps likely that the respondents reported what variety they *think* their textbook is written in, considering that the interviewees generally expressed an uncertainty in regards to what language norm their textbooks follow. However, the interviewees were more willing to talk about the audio material accompanying their textbooks, as they had noticed that these included a wide range of varieties of English, not only the standard BrE and AmE accents. Tengs Sannes' (2013) three interviewed teachers reported that BrE and AmE varieties no longer are the only English varieties represented in their teaching material, i.e. textbooks and the accompanying audio material. Tengs Sannes analyzed the audio material that accompanies two of the most used textbooks in upper secondary school, and found that the audio material includes a greater number of pronunciation varieties than what used to be the case. Nonetheless, these accents seem to be restricted to varieties from countries within the inner circle. Although her analysis does not regard textbooks for lower secondary school, it is plausible that this also applies to the audio material of lower secondary school's textbooks. Her findings are in accordance with what my informants reported regarding their textbooks' audio material, which they seemed to be more aware of than the written texts in their textbooks. This could indicate that the teachers are more observant and aware of the differences in the spoken varieties of English than the written varieties, as touched upon in section 4.2.4. Perhaps this could explain why the teachers demonstrate an inconsistency in how they spell and what words they use – because they are more attentive toward the spoken language. As pointed out by the informant Victor: “you are not able to see the spelling in the spoken language”, referring to the insignificance of spelling in oral language use. Also, that the majority (79%) of the surveyed teachers do not know, or have not noticed, what language norm the English version of LK06's English subject curriculum follows. This could either imply that the teachers find it difficult to detect

differences of written English varieties, or that they are not explicitly aware of it. Although I cannot for certain say that the English version follows the British standard, it still includes elements specific for BrE, as mentioned in section 2.2.6, mainly concerning spelling and vocabulary. Thus, the fact that the majority of the respondents do not know what variety the English version of LK06 includes elements from might strengthen my argument about the teachers' abilities to detect difference in written language versus spoken language. Although they might find it easier to detect deviations from a language norm in spoken language, the interviewees seemed to find it more difficult to comment on students' spoken language production. A reason for this might be that they want their students to communicate without restriction and not be reluctant toward speaking English in front of others, as touched upon by some of the interviewed teachers. An interesting perspective relating to the teachers' awareness of written varieties is that they are seemingly more concerned with students being consistent when they write English than when they speak English. Perhaps this is because the written standards of English are in fact standardized, while the spoken language consists of more variation.

5.5 Teachers' Classroom Practices

5.5.1 Non-native-speaker teachers as language models

The observed teachers, Wilda and Caroline, are both non-native speakers of English, and they characterized their spoken English as closest to BrE. They both believed that their compulsory education had influenced them toward a BrE norm. Good pronunciation, however vague that description is, and intonation are mentioned as important assets of English teachers, as they are operating as language models (cf. Bergsland, 2014; Drew & Sørheim, 2009; Harmer, 2007). Also, stability and consistency in pronunciation are significant in terms of modeling English for the students (Nilsen & Rugesæter, 2008). As understood from section 4.3.1, Wilda and Caroline were not fully consistent when speaking English, with an emphasis on Caroline who also to some extent seemed to use a Norwegian intonation pattern. Portraying such an English might perhaps be disappointing to the students, who might expect their teacher to be a superior speaker – or near a native-speaker, as pointed out by Cook (2001). However, it is also possible that teachers who model English that incorporates Norwegian features might make the students feel at ease and reduce their expectations of themselves. As pointed out by Lily and Caroline, many lower secondary students are reluctant toward speaking English aloud, perhaps because they believe that they are not proficient enough in terms of

pronunciation. If the students indeed feel like this, it is important not to reinforce the native-speaker ideal, as it can be perceived as intimidating (cf. Kramsch, 1993). Thus, Lily reported that she often points out that no one speaks English perfectly, and that the English the students speak is good enough. By experiencing a teacher who it is difficult to place in terms of accent, i.e. that the teacher does not appear to have an English language ideal set from one geographical area, the students might feel that they are allowed to speak English the way they want to or are able to. If they notice that their teacher is not trying to imitate a native speaker, they might perceive that as something they do not have to worry about, either. As emphasized by the interviewees, they do not attempt to speak English like native speakers and do in fact acknowledge that their L1 is a part of their way of speaking English. Thus, students are not presented with actual native-speakers as language models, which is mentioned as a reason for students not being able to achieve native-speaker proficiency in their L2 (Lightbown, 2000).

5.5.2 Correction related to students' inconsistencies

Approximately a third of the surveyed teachers would correct students if they produced spoken or written language that is specific for one variety, i.e. inconsistent language use. In hindsight, I have realized that the question the teachers were asked fails to provide an example, which perhaps made the question ambiguous. However, only 22.6% of Hansen's (2011) teachers reported that they would correct students that were inconsistent in terms of including vocabulary from different English standards. His findings therefore confirm my results. Thus, only a minority of Hansen's and my respondents say that they correct inconsistency in the students' language productions. This indicates that inconsistent language use is not the primary focus, but that it is a concern for some of the teachers. Some of my interviewees reported that they would comment on a student's text if they were inconsistent when spelling, but that the vocabulary did not really matter. Some of them also pointed to their own awareness, and reported that they might not discover deviations from one native-speaker norm. This indicates that some of the teachers realized that they were not necessarily aware of certain elements that divide the different varieties. That few of Hansen's and my respondents report that would comment on deviations from one specific native-speaker norm might be because the teachers themselves are either not that aware of all the different linguistic features that separate the different 'Englishes', or that they themselves are not consistent. Thus, they might find it unnecessary to emphasize students' inconsistency level – either because they are not able to due to their level of awareness or because they do not find

it important, as communication is the main goal of the teaching of English. However, it seems that some teachers are concerned with the students' level of consistency, as they report that they would comment on a student's text in order to let the student become aware of what variety of English he or she is practicing. Also – a noticeable number of surveyed teachers mentioned the importance of consistency in students' language production when being asked what variety of English they want their students to use. This seemed to be regarded as more important in terms of the written language than in the spoken language, perhaps because the written varieties are more standardized than the spoken varieties.

5.5.3 Assessing students' spoken language

The majority (88%) of the surveyed teachers to some extent agree that their assessment of students' oral competence is affected by a near-native speaker pronunciation and/or intonation. Hansen's (2011) results point in the same direction, as the majority (83.5%) of his teachers to some degree report that their grading of the students' oral competence is influenced by native-speaker pronunciation and/or intonation. His study included teachers from primary, lower secondary and upper secondary school, and one could perhaps assume that his numbers would have been higher if he only included lower and upper secondary teachers in his survey. Although these are similar results on approximately the same question, both Hansen's question and my question fail to account for ways in which the assessment of the students' oral competence are impacted by near-native speaker pronunciation and/or intonation. As the questions only asked the teachers to consider if assessment of their students' oral skills *is* being affected by native-speaker pronunciation and/or intonation, as touched upon in section 4.1.3, it does not ask the teacher *how* the assessment is affected by native-speaker standards. It is thus possible and perhaps likely that the ways the teachers' assess the students' oral competence vary. What both Hansen's and my respondents' answers indicate, however, is that there is a native-speaker norm present when the teachers' assess students' spoken English skills.

Connecting both Hansen's and my respondents' replies to what the interviewees expressed, might lead to a sensible interpretation of the respondents' replies. The seven interviewees unanimously expressed that students who practice a near-native speaker intonation and/or pronunciation leave a positive impression. This might be a view the surveyed teachers share considering that the majority report that they are influenced by near-native speaker pronunciation and/or intonation when assessing students. The interviewees reported that the

overall impression of the students' oral proficiency can drastically change if the students convincingly follow a native-speaker variety. Simultaneously, they emphasized that it is not a requirement to sound like a native speaker of English, and asserted that the students' competence would not necessarily be negatively affected by not managing to sound like a native speaker of English. However, the interviewees conveyed that they did not appreciate dialectal influence in the students' oral language production, and they want their students to practice a more 'English' intonation, in conformance with how Nilsen and Rugesæter (2008) characterize Norwegian dialects as somewhat problematic.

5.6 Chapter Summary

I have in this chapter discussed the results of my study, which were presented in chapter 4. There are many indications that the native-speaker norm is persistent in the Norwegian classroom, although it is not restricted to only one native variety of English. In the next chapter, which is the final chapter, I will present some concluding comments to the previous chapters, in addition to answering the main research question and the supplementary subordinate research questions.

6 Concluding Remarks

The objective of my study was to receive an understanding of lower secondary ESL teachers' beliefs about and awareness of their use of varieties of English related to their classroom practices. The purpose of this chapter is to bring the thesis to an end by revisiting the main research question and the subordinate research questions. That is, I will offer concluding remarks of my research project. Additionally, I will present implications for the teaching of English in Norway and my final thoughts related to 'varieties of English' in a Norwegian educational context.

6.1 Research Question

Before embarking on answering the main research question, I find it relevant to begin more specifically by addressing the subordinate research questions. Again, it is important to note that what I present here are representations of what the teachers reported.

- *What variety of English do teachers use and why?*

The teachers characterize their English as close to either BrE or AmE, which are native varieties from the inner circle. However, the interviews uncovered that the teachers do not consciously attempt to speak with a specific language norm in mind. The majority of the teachers are clearly influenced by both BrE and AmE in terms of spelling and vocabulary, as they include both varieties when spelling and when they report what words they use – demonstrating that there is a low level of consistency among the teachers. This implies that lower secondary students are exposed to several language standards through their teachers. The interviewed teachers acknowledged that their L1 was a natural part of also their L2, implying that the students are not presented with language models that are purely based on the native-speaker norm. The teachers report that various external factors have impacted their way of speaking English, suggesting that there is not one specific aspect that stands out as more influential than others. However, two thirds of the surveyed teachers mentioned that higher education has impacted their way of speaking and/or writing English, indicating that higher education has been an important contributor to their language practices. Also, over half of the surveyed teachers mentioned that travels had influenced their English, signifying that surrounding yourself in a different linguistic environment than your native country has contributed to their way of speaking and/or writing English.

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- *Is there a preferred 'standard English' in lower secondary school in Norway?*

The teachers do not display any consensus as to what variety of English that should be used in the lower secondary ESL classroom. The answer to the question is therefore: no, there is not one preferred 'standard English' in lower secondary school in Norway – based on the teachers' replies. There are, however, different opinions regarding this question, relating to different desires of language norms in the ESL classroom. What my study indicates is that BrE and AmE not surprisingly are the two most influential varieties of English in the Norwegian ESL classroom. Although many of the teachers emphasize that they want their students to choose a variety of English that they are comfortable with, they seem to restrict their students to choose either BrE or AmE. This is perhaps as expected, as these two varieties continue to dominate globally.

- *Are teachers moving away from the native-speaker norm when teaching ESL or is the native-speaker norm still persistent in the Norwegian lower secondary ESL classroom?*

Although the teachers seem to accept that the students' L1 will influence their way of speaking English, as they themselves acknowledge that their L1 is a part of their English, they still heavily rely on a native-speaker norm. The teachers are supposedly allowing the students to speak with their own English without interfering *too* much. Norwegian traces in the students' spoken English that can hinder communication are assessed as unattractive, and dialectal influences are strongly discouraged. However, the teachers do show a modest acceptance of Norwegian features of the students' English, as they acknowledge that it is a natural part of their own and students' identities. It seems that the native-speaker norm of either BrE or AmE, or both, functions as a guideline for the teachers in terms of assessment and correction practices. The interviewed teachers underline that flawless native-speaker proficiency is not the goal of their teaching, thus the ideal of sounding like a native speaker seem to have been decreased. Instead, they focus on communication and comprehension – which are accentuated as the target of the English teaching in lower secondary school. The native-speaker norm, however, is still present as a benchmark in the lower secondary ESL classrooms. Escaping the native-speaker norm might be complicated, and perhaps undesirable. It seems to function merely as a guideline of what is correct and incorrect

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language use, and is to some extent necessary to preserve until a different alternative is implemented. My fourth subordinate research question “*what does this imply?*” will be addressed in section 6.2.

And now, to my main research question:

- *What are Norwegian lower secondary ESL teachers’ beliefs about and awareness of their use of varieties of English and how does this relate to their teaching practices?*

It is challenging to offer conclusive comments to this broad question. There are numerous aspects that relate to the teachers’ awareness of their own use of varieties of English, meaning that I surely am only able to comment on a few of these elements. This is not only due to the scope of this thesis, but also because my study did not include all the perspectives related to teachers’ awareness of their use of the English language. Although there are individual differences related to the teachers’ beliefs, there are still some points that stand out and apply to the majority of them. They seem more aware of spoken English than written English, and they seemingly find it easier to detect differences in speech versus writing. It seems that the teachers do not expect their students to sound like native speaker of English, based on the survey replies and the interviews. The teachers are nonetheless using a native-speaker norm of either BrE or AmE, or both, when determining what is accepted as correct or incorrect language use. What also seemed to be a belief common for many of the teachers was that their students should be consistent in their language production, although they seemed to value consistency more in terms of the students’ written language production. The interviewed teachers unanimously acknowledged their L1 being a part of their L2, in this case it means that Norwegian linguistic features are noticeable through the teachers’ use of English. Hence, they demonstrate an awareness of their own use of the English language. The interviewees pointed to their own awareness when explaining how their students were assessed, and some of them claimed that they might not discover deviations from one specific language norm, as they were not necessarily aware of all the differences between the varieties of English. As teachers’ cognitions are dynamic and subject to change, it is conceivable that the teachers participating in my study became more aware of their own language production and how their own beliefs regarding varieties of English impact their classroom practices. This was by some interviewees mentioned as a bonus of participating in the survey and/or the interview, and was thus assessed as an awareness-raising process. My study points toward a low level of consistency among the teachers. This inconsistency applies to spelling and vocabulary, and

indicates that teachers are either not aware that they are inconsistent, or that they assess consistency as insignificant when communicating in English. Considering the study in its entirety, it is likely that the teachers are unaware that they are inconsistent, meaning that they are not sufficiently aware of the different varieties of English in regards to their own language production. However, this does not necessarily apply to all of the teachers, as some of them proved to be more consistent than others. However, the interviewees several times remarked that they were not sufficiently aware of various aspects relating to varieties of English, indicating that there are elements related to English varieties the teachers are not consciously aware of.

6.2 Teaching Implications

I will in the following paragraphs briefly address my fourth subordinate research question – which intends to approach the teaching implications of the main research question and the three subordinate research questions. The teachers' levels of consistency have different implications for the teaching of English. As the main goal is providing the students with communicative competence, it is possible that teachers find consistency less important. As some of the informants emphasized, they do not want their students to be hesitant toward speaking English aloud in class or elsewhere. Correcting them when they are not being consistent would perhaps function counterproductive and decrease their motivation for learning. Then again, teachers functioning as a language model and using vocabulary and spelling inconsistently could mislead the students into thinking that what the teacher produces is correct, and consequently make the students inconsistent in regards to language norms. In other words, it is difficult to encourage the students to be consistent when they speak and write English, if the teacher fails to adhere to one norm. How can the teachers expect the students to be consistent when speaking and writing English if they are unsuccessful at being consistent themselves? It seems that students might be exposed to several varieties of English from one teacher, as the teachers participating in this study are inconsistent in spelling and vocabulary. Awareness-raising was by the interviewees mentioned as an important aspect in regards to the many existing varieties of English that the students are exposed to. However, such an awareness-raising would require that the teacher themselves are aware of linguistic features of the many different 'Englishes' that exist. Students are nowadays exposed to various varieties of English, not only at school, but in their free time as well (Byram, 2008; Nilsen & Rugesæter, 2008). To navigate in such a large ocean of varieties requires the teacher to be aware of the diversity of the English language and to convey this in a comprehensible

manner to their students. The students are seemingly allowed to choose a variety of English for themselves – although their choices by some teachers are limited to either BrE or AmE. These are most likely the varieties of English the teachers have knowledge about, which is not unnatural considering how influential BrE and AmE are in Norway. However, that the students are in fact allowed to choose their own way of communicating in English can possibly make them preserve their identities when speaking English, and not being forced to imitate a native speaker of English, if they do not desire or are able to do so. The teachers thus accept that students develop their English on their own terms, in a way that feels natural to them; although BrE and AmE are the most likely native-speaker varieties the students model their English on.

6.3 Teacher Cognition

As the teachers' cognitions were subject to my entire study, it is perhaps not necessary to address teacher cognition explicitly. However, while the interviewed teachers were sharing their thoughts and beliefs on varieties of English and their use of the language, they also explicitly mentioned previous experiences that affected their classroom practices. Parts of their teaching practice concerning English varieties were based on what they themselves had experienced in relation to the English language, either while learning it, as noted by Borg (2009, p. 3), or by practicing it. That they pointed out how their teaching practices were indeed influenced by previous experiences with the English language suggested that there is an existing awareness concerning how their experiences have contributed to shaping their teaching practices. What is noticeable is that all of the teachers each reported different instances where they have accepted that previous experiences have influenced them in their teaching. For instance, Olivia's way of assessing her students orally is based on her own experiences with native speakers of English. She worked as a tourist guide for American soccer teams when she was studying to become a teacher and she has lived in England for a year. Thus, her interacting with different native speakers of English has made her tolerate and understand that there is no one correct English standard, which is reflected in her assessment practice. The fact that the interviewees all in addition presented several other explicit teacher cognition reflections suggests that there are other instances that are affected by their cognitions as well.

6.4 Final Reflections

Several aspects concerning ‘varieties of English’ in a Norwegian educational context stand out as relevant and interesting in terms of further research. It would have been interesting to include student perspectives in relation to the teachers’ beliefs and experiences. This could have included how the students perceive their teacher as a language model, and what they feel is expected of them in terms of language norms and ideals in the ESL classroom. Another interesting perspective would be to expand the vocabulary and spelling questions in order to investigate whether teachers’ use of specific elements follow a pattern. That is, if they for instance consistently use -our-spelling (e.g. ‘colour’ and ‘behaviour’) on different words, or if they switch between -or-endings and -our-endings (e.g. ‘color’ and ‘behaviour’). Additionally, collecting audio material from the teachers in order to find out how they *speak* English and note if they model a stable and consistent pronunciation would have been interesting.

The current curriculum acknowledges that there is an existing diversity of ‘Englishes’, although they are denoted ‘variations’ in the English version of LK06. Nonetheless, the curriculum does not explicitly address how to approach the many varieties in relation to the teachers’ own language use, or the students’ language production. My suggestion or wish is therefore for the policy documents to address the issue of language norms in the ESL classroom. This is important to devote effort to, in order to provide clarification for ESL teachers. Teachers’ cognitions seemingly influence their teaching practices, meaning that they could benefit from clear guidelines especially in regards to how they assess their students’ English competence, to ensure a fair and equal assessment of students’ linguistic competence across the country.

Non-native speaker teachers that share the same L1 as the students, i.e. the majority of the surveyed and interviewed teachers, operate within the same linguistic frame of reference. Thus, Harmer’s (2007) questions on who decides what is accepted in English might be discussed in relation to the fact that many Norwegian ESL teachers are native speakers of Norwegian, just like their students. That is, their frame of reference can possibly make them understand students’ spoken and written English that is influenced by their L1 and do not follow a native-speaker pattern. The main reason why Norwegians are learning English is to be able to communicate with others who do not share their L1; to negotiate meaning and understand each other. This is agreed upon by all the interviewed teachers and reflected in the Knowledge Promotion, and it can thus be notified as important to maintain aspects of the

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native-speaker norm for now. This would ensure that all second or foreign language speakers of English have the same ‘target’, making it possible to communicate with each other. Jenkins (1998) proposal of making ELF its own variety by eliminating items of language that pose a challenge to non-native speakers of English would perhaps be wise. But until such a norm would establish itself, it is too soon to dismiss the native-speaker norm entirely. However difficult to reach, pointed out by Hansen (2014), the native-speaker norm offers standardized criteria that learners of English can easily be measured against. As pointed out by most of the interviewees, the goal is not to reach a target language, or to reach native-speaker proficiency, but rather to focus on the journey toward a goal that perhaps is always evolving. Producing comprehensible language in order to communicate with other speakers of English is in this manner the main goal of the ESL teaching in lower secondary school.

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Appendix 1: Approval from NSD

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS

NORWEGIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE DATA SERVICES



Harald Hårfages gate 29
N-5007 Bergen
Norway
Tel: +47-55 58 21 17
Fax: +47-55 58 96 50
nsd@nsd.uib.no
www.nsd.uib.no
Org.nr. 985 321 884

Tale Margrethe Guldal
Program for lærerutdanning NTNU

7491 TRONDHEIM

Vår dato: 03.12.2014

Vår ref: 40812 / 3 / AGL

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 19.11.2014. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

<i>40812</i>	<i>Language Varieties in the Lower Secondary ESL-Classroom – Teachers' Awareness and Practices</i>
<i>Behandlingsansvarlig</i>	<i>NTNU, ved institusjonens øverste leder</i>
<i>Daglig ansvarlig</i>	<i>Tale Margrethe Guldal</i>
<i>Student</i>	<i>Anniken Seffjord Torbjørnsen</i>

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, <http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html>. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, <http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt>.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 25.05.2015, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Katrine Utaaker Segadal

Audun Løvlie

Kontaktperson: Audun Løvlie tlf: 55 58 23 07

Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.

Avdelingskontorer / District Offices:

OSLO: NSD, Universitetet i Oslo, Postboks 1055 Blindern, 0316 Oslo. Tel: +47-22 85 52 11. nsd@uio.no

TRONDHEIM: NSD, Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet, 7491 Trondheim. Tel: +47-73 59 19 07. kyrr.svarva@svt.ntnu.no

TROMSØ: NSD, SVF, Universitetet i Tromsø, 9037 Tromsø. Tel: +47-77 64 43 36. nsdmaa@svt.uit.no

Appendix 2: E-mail to principals

Emne: Forespørsel om engelsklæreres deltakelse til elektronisk spørreundersøkelse

Hei,

Jeg er masterstudent ved NTNU, og er nå i gang med masterprosjektet mitt med tittelen «Language Varieties in the Lower Secondary ESL classroom – Teachers' Awareness and Practices». I den forbindelse har jeg utformet en elektronisk spørreundersøkelse som vil ta ca. 10 minutter å gjennomføre. Tror du at noen av engelsklærerne som jobber på deres ungdomsskole kan være behjelpelige med å svare på denne? Spørreundersøkelsen omhandler språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet og linken foreligger under;

<https://survey.svt.ntnu.no/TakeSurvey.aspx?SurveyID=72K26o92>

Jeg hadde satt stor pris på om du kunne videresendt denne mailen eller linken til spørreundersøkelsen til engelsklærerne ved deres skole. Tusen takk for hjelpen!

Med vennlig hilsen

Anniken S. Torbjørnsen

Appendix 3: Survey



Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

Formålet med denne undersøkelsen er å studere hvilket forhold engelsklærere har til ulike varianter av engelsk, og hvordan dette håndteres i praksis. Datamaterialet vil bli brukt i undertegnede mastergradsoppgave ved Program for lærerutdanning, Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet (NTNU).

Det er frivillig å delta i undersøkelsen, og all informasjon vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Resultatene vil bli presentert slik at ingen enkeltpersoner kan gjenkjennes. Datamaterialet vil bli anonymisert ved prosjektslutt, senest ved utgangen av 2015. Undersøkelsen er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS (NSD).

Det tar ca. 10 minutter å svare på spørsmålene. Det er ganske mange sider i dette spørreskjemaet, men mange av dem inneholder få spørsmål og er veldig korte. Har du spørsmål, kontakter du Anniken Sefjord Torbjørnsen, tlf. 977 86 403.

Vennligst besvar alle spørsmålene i én økt - bryter du av underveis, må du starte på nytt. Du samtykker i å delta i undersøkelsen ved å svare på spørsmålene og sende dem inn ved å klikke på «Ferdig» på siste side.

Takk for at du er villig til å delta!

Anniken Sefjord Torbjørnsen
mastergradsstudent

Tale M. Guldal
førsteamanuensis, veileder

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

1. Kjønn:

- Mann
 Kvinne

2. Alder:

3. Morsmål:

4. Antall års arbeidserfaring som engelsklærer:

Her skriver du inn antall år med tall, f.eks. 8. Det er også mulig å angi halve år, f.eks. 2,5.

5. På hvilket klassetrinn jobber du *mest* som engelsklærer?

8. trinn
 9. trinn
 10. trinn
 Annet, vennligst utdyp:

6. Hva slags skole jobber du på?

- Byskole Forstadsskole Småbyskole Skole på landet

7. Hva slags utdanning har du i engelsk?

- Inntil 30 studiepoeng
 Inntil 60 studiepoeng
 Mer enn 60 studiepoeng
 Har ingen formell utdanning i engelsk
 Annet, vennligst utdyp

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

8. Hvilken engelskvariant ligger nærmest slik du selv snakker engelsk?

- Internasjonal engelsk
- Morsmålspåvirket engelsk
- Skotsk engelsk
- Australsk engelsk
- Kanadisk engelsk
- Amerikansk engelsk
- Newzealandsk engelsk
- Veksler mellom britisk engelsk og amerikansk engelsk
- Britisk engelsk
- Indisk engelsk
- Irsk engelsk
- Annet, vennligst utdyp

9. Har du vært bosatt i et engelskspråklig land?

- Nei
- Ja, hvilke(t) land?

10. Hva har påvirket måten du snakker og/eller skriver engelsk på?

Det er her mulig å krysse av på flere alternativer.

- Media
- Tidligere engelsklærere
- Litteratur
- Skolegang
- Sosialt nettverk (familie, venner etc.)
- Høyere utdanning
- Reise
- Annet, vennligst utdyp

11. Hvilken engelskvariant eksponeres du mest for selv? (For eksempel gjennom media, sosiale nettverk, reise etc.)

- Indisk engelsk
- Internasjonal engelsk
- Både britisk engelsk og amerikansk engelsk
- Morsmålspåvirket engelsk
- Amerikansk engelsk
- Skotsk engelsk
- Britisk engelsk
- Newzealandsk engelsk
- Kanadisk engelsk
- Australsk engelsk
- Irsk engelsk
- Annet, vennligst utdyp

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

12. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Centre
- Vet ikke
- Veksler mellom 'center' og 'centre'
- Center

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

13. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Program
- Vet ikke
- Veksler mellom 'programme' og 'program'
- Programme

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

14. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Catalogue
- Catalog
- Vet ikke
- Veksler mellom 'catalog' og 'catalogue'

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

15. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Harbour
- Veksler mellom 'harbour' og 'harbor'
- Harbor
- Vet ikke

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

16. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis - IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Travelling
- Veksler mellom 'travelling' og 'traveling'
- Traveling
- Vet ikke

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

17. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis - IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Socialize
- Socialise
- Vet ikke
- Veksler mellom 'socialize' og 'socialise'

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

18. Hvilken av disse stavemåtene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis - IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Veksler mellom 'defence' og 'defense'
- Vet ikke
- Defence
- Defense

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

19. Hvilken av disse variantene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Movie
- Vet ikke
- Film
- Veksler mellom 'film' og 'movie'

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

20. Hvilken av disse variantene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Soccer
- Football
- Veksler mellom 'soccer' og 'football'
- Vet ikke

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

21. Hvilken av disse variantene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Lift
- Elevator
- Veksler mellom 'lift' og 'elevator'
- Vet ikke

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

22. Hvilken av disse variantene bruker du?

Her er det viktig at du svarer på grunnlag av egen praksis – IKKE konsulter ordbok!

- Veksler mellom 'fall' og 'autumn'
- Fall
- Vet ikke
- Autumn

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

23. Hvilke(t) læreverk bruker du i engelskklasserommet ditt?

24. Hvilken engelskvariant er tekstene i læreboka klassen din bruker skrevet på?

Vennligst svar slik du oppfatter det uten å sjekke læreboka.

- Britisk engelsk
 Amerikansk engelsk
 Både britisk og amerikansk engelsk
 Vet ikke
 Annet, vennligst utdyp

25. Oppfatter du at Utdanningsdirektoratet ønsker at du skal bruke en bestemt variant av engelsk?

- Ja, britisk engelsk
 Ja, amerikansk engelsk
 Nei
 Vet ikke
 Ja, annet. Vennligst utdyp

26. Hvilken engelskvariant ønsker du at elevene dine skal bruke når de snakker engelsk?

- Britisk engelsk
 Amerikansk engelsk
 Morsmålspåvirket engelsk
 Internasjonal engelsk
 Annet, vennligst utdyp

27. Hvilken engelskvariant ønsker du at elevene dine skal bruke når de skriver engelsk?

- Britisk engelsk
 Amerikansk engelsk
 Morsmålspåvirket engelsk
 Internasjonal engelsk
 Annet, vennligst utdyp

28. Vet du hvilken engelskvariant den engelskspråklige utgaven av Kunnskapsløftet er skrevet på?

- Ja, amerikansk engelsk
 Ja, britisk engelsk
 Nei
 Ja, annet. Vennligst utdyp

Språkvarianter i engelskklasserommet

29. I hvilken grad er du enig i at 'native-speaker'-nær uttale og/eller intonasjon har innvirkning på vurdering av elevens prestasjoner?

Veldig uenig	Nokså uenig	Litt uenig	Nøytral	Litt enig	Nokså enig	Veldig enig
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

30. Korrigerer du dine elevers uttale og/eller intonasjon som tilhører én spesifikk engelskvariant?

- Nei
- Vet ikke
- Ja, vennligst utdyp

31. I hvilken grad er du enig i at 'native-speaker'-nær setningsstruktur og/eller ordvalg har innvirkning på vurdering av elevens prestasjoner?

Veldig uenig	Nokså uenig	Litt uenig	Nøytral	Litt enig	Nokså enig	Veldig enig
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

32. Korrigerer du dine elevers setningsstruktur og/eller ordvalg som tilhører én spesifikk engelskvariant?

- Nei
- Vet ikke
- Ja, vennligst utdyp

33. Hva syns du dersom noen av dine elevers engelsk hadde vært/er påvirket av morsmålets intonasjon og/eller uttale?

Misliker veldig	Misliker noe	Misliker litt	Nøytral	Liker litt	Liker noe	Liker veldig
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix 4: Interview Consent Form

Forespørsel om deltakelse i forskningsprosjektet

”Language Varieties in the Lower Secondary ESL classroom – Teachers’ Awareness and Practices”

Bakgrunn og formål

Formålet mitt med denne studien er å undersøke hvilket forhold engelsklærere har til ulike varianter av engelsk, og hvordan de håndterer dette i praksis. Problemstillingen er: What are Norwegian lower secondary ESL teachers’ beliefs about/awareness of varieties of English and how does this relate to their practice?

Dette er en mastergradsstudie som gjennomføres ved Program for lærerutdanning ved NTNU.

Jeg vil henvende meg til lærere ved ungdomsskoler i ulike deler av landet.

Hva innebærer deltakelse i studien?

Deltakelsen i studien innebærer å stille til et intervju med en varighet på 30-45 minutter. Spørsmålene som stilles i intervjuet vil omhandle bruk av native-engelskvarianter i klasserommet, samt spørsmål om hvordan læreren for eksempel vil stave et gitt ord på engelsk. Intervjuet vil dokumenteres ved lydopptak.

Data vil også bli innhentet ved hjelp av en elektronisk spørreundersøkelse og observasjon i klasserommet. Dersom du ikke har blitt spurt om å observeres i klasserommet, gjelder ikke observasjonen deg. Materialet registreres og oppbevares på privat PC. Datamaskinen beskyttes av brukernavn og passord og behandling av personopplysninger på privat PC er i tråd med NTNU sine interne retningslinjer for informasjonssikkerhet.

Hva skjer med informasjonen om deg?

Alle personopplysninger vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Navnet på intervjuobjektet vil ikke noteres på samme sted som materialet befinner seg, men en separat navneliste med en koblingsnøkkel vil lagres atskilt fra øvrig data. Denne navnelisten vil befinne seg på veileders kontor i et innelåst skap helt til prosjektets slutt. Når masteroppgaven ferdigstilles vil ikke deltakerne kunne gjenkjennes på noen som helst måte, og vil bli gitt anonymiserte navn.

Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes i slutten av mai 2015. Etter ferdigstilling av masteroppgaven vil det innhentede datamaterialet slettes.

Frivillig deltakelse

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

Dersom du ønsker å delta eller har spørsmål til studien, ta kontakt med Anniken Sefjord Torbjørnsen på enten anniketo@stud.ntnu.no eller på telefon 977 86 403. Eventuelt kan også veileder for prosjektet, Tale M. Guldal, kontaktes på enten tale.guldal@plu.ntnu.no eller telefon 73 59 04 08.

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

Samtykke til deltakelse i studien

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

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

Appendix 5: Interview Guide

Introduksjon: Informasjon om prosjektet. Som du vet skriver jeg en masteroppgave ved NTNU som omhandler bevissthet og praksis angående engelskvarianter i ungdomsskolens engelskklasserom. Jeg setter stor pris på at du vil delta, og dersom du ikke ønsker å svare på ett eller flere av spørsmålene er det helt greit. Alle innspill er velkomne og du kan når som helst bryte av. Det er lov å stille spørsmål underveis og si i fra dersom det er noe som er uklart. Det er også viktig at du vet at jeg ikke ser etter noe rett eller galt ved det du svarer, jeg er kun interessert i dine refleksjoner. Skrive under på samtykkeskjemaet.

Personlig bakgrunn

1. Hvor lenge har du jobbet som engelsklærer?
2. Hva er morsmålet ditt?
3. Har du bodd i et engelskspråklig land?

Lærerens språkbruk

4. Sikter du mot å snakke én spesifikk variant av engelsk? (Med variant av engelsk menes ulike native-varianter, f.eks. britisk engelsk, eller morsmålspåvirket/norskpåvirket engelsk, internasjonal engelsk).
5. Sikter du mot å skrive én spesifikk variant av engelsk?
6. Hvis ja, hvorfor tror du at du har valgt akkurat denne?
7. På bakgrunn av egen praksis, hvilken av disse skrivemåtene bruker du?

Color/colour

Metre/meter

Apologize/apologise

Analyse/analyze

Licence/license

Dialogue/dialog

Modeling/modelling

8. På bakgrunn av egen praksis, hvilket av disse ordene bruker du?

Cookie/biscuit

Fries/chips (pommes frites)

Pants/trousers

Jumper/sweater
Car park/parking lot
Vacation/holiday
Gas/petrol

9. Hva tenker du om at Kunnskapsløftet gjennomgående refererer til “det engelske språk”? (LK06: Hovedområdet språklæring dreier seg om hva det innebærer å lære et nytt språk, **å lære det engelske språket**, og å se sammenhenger mellom engelsk, morsmål og andre språk). (Syns du det er en god betegnelse på språket du skal lære elevene?)
10. Hva legger du i betegnelsen “det engelske språk”?
11. Hva syns du om å kommunisere en norsk identitet/morsmålsidentitet gjennom din egen engelskuttale?

Elevers språkbruk

12. Hva tenker du om at elevene skal sikte på å oppnå et målspråk eller ‘target language’?
13. Hva gjør du hvis du oppdager at en elev sikter å skrive på britisk engelsk, men har elementer av amerikansk uttale (eller omvendt)?
14. Hva syns du dersom elevers norske identitet kommer til syne gjennom engelskuttalen deres?
15. Er det én spesifikk engelskvariant du liker best eller ønsker å oppfordre elevene dine til å bruke? (F.eks. britisk eller amerikansk).

Tekstmaterialebruk

16. Hva gjør du dersom ord som **er** ulike på de forskjellige native-variantene av engelsk dukker opp i tekster klassen din bruker? (Eksempel: the movies/the cinema, vacation/holiday, cookie/biscuit, fries/chips). Poengterer du det på noen måte?
17. Hva gjør du dersom ord som **staves** ulikt på de forskjellige native-variantene av engelsk dukker opp i tekster klassen din bruker? (Eksempel: color/colour, center/centre, defense/defence). Poengterer du det på noen måte?
18. Hvordan er ditt læreverks posisjonering av de ulike engelskvariantene? (Er det mest britisk engelsk, mest amerikansk engelsk, diskuteres språklige forskjeller?)

Rette- og vurderingspraksis

19. Legger du vekt på native-speaker-nær uttale og intonasjon når du vurderer elevers muntlige prestasjoner?

20. Dersom en elev i en selvprodusert tekst veksler mellom å skrive på britisk engelsk og amerikansk engelsk, vektlegger du dette i vurderingen av teksten – eller kommenterer du det på noen måte? (F.eks. skriver behavior med -or, men bruker lift i stedet for elevator, evt. skriver trousers og videre skriver sidewalk).

- **Det var faktisk siste spørsmål. Er det noe du ønsker å tilføye?**