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MASTER'S THESIS

A study of the use of English varieties in EFL textbooks.

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MGUEN550 Master's in education with English didactics
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Abstract in English

This study examines the use of English varieties in Norwegian EFL textbooks for 8th and 10th grade. Additionally, the study investigates if the selection of English varieties follows certain patterns related to standard language ideology, gender and context. The textbooks that are selected for the investigation are created by two publishing houses: *Enter* by Gyldendal, and *Stages* by Aschehoug. These textbooks are both written for the new curriculum *Knowledge Promotion* 2020 (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). The reason for choosing books for 8th and 10th grade was to investigate whether it was any major differences between the exposure of English varieties in these two grades.

The study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches, therefore a mixed method approach. The data was collected with the help of three variables. The three variables were English varieties, gender and geographical context, where I aimed to see if there were any specific patterns for all four textbooks.

The result from the analysis shows that all four textbooks include more standard varieties than non-standard. In addition to including more standard varieties, all four books used more RP than GA. In regard to gender, the results shows that the textbooks included more male representation than female. It was also more men using an RP accent than women, however it was more female representation for GA and non-standard varieties. On behalf of geographical context, it was in fact more non-standard varieties used in a geographical context than standard varieties. RP was the accent which was used in most non-geographical settings and can be interpreted as the more neutral standard varieties in the Norwegian educational setting. This study shows that there is a need for more research in the field, which I will present in the final chapter.

Abstract in Norwegian

Denne studien undersøker bruken av engelske varianter i norske EFL-lærebøker for 8. og 10. klasse. I tillegg undersøker den om utvalget av engelske varianter følger visse mønstre relatert til standard språkideologi, kjønn og kontekst.

Lærebøkene som er valgt ut til studien er skrevet av to forlag: *Enter* av Gyldendal, og *Stages* av Aschehoug. Disse lærebøkene er begge skrevet for den nye læreplanen Kunnskapsløftet 2020 (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2019). Bakgrunnen for å velge bøker for 8. og 10. klasse var å undersøke om det var noen store forskjeller mellom eksponeringen av engelske varianter på disse to trinnene.

Studien brukte både kvalitative og kvantitative tilnærminger, derfor er det en blandet metode. Dataene ble samlet inn ved hjelp av tre variabler/kategorier. De tre variablene var engelske varianter, kjønn og geografisk kontekst, hvor jeg hadde som mål å se om det var noen spesifikke mønstre for alle de fire lærebøkene.

Resultatet fra analysen viser at alle de fire lærebøkene inneholder flere standardvarianter enn ikke-standardiserte. I tillegg til å inkludere flere standardvarianter, brukte alle fire bøkene mer RP enn GA. Når det gjelder kjønn, viser resultatene at lærebøkene inkluderte mer mannlig representasjon enn kvinnelig. Det var også flere menn som brukte en RP-aksent enn kvinner, men det var mer kvinnelig representasjon for GA og ikke-standard varianter. På vegne av geografisk kontekst var det faktisk mer ikke-standards varianter brukt i geografisk kontekst enn standard varianter. RP var aksenten som ble brukt i de fleste ikke-geografiske kontekster og kan tolkes som den mer nøytrale standardvarianten i den norske utdanningssettingen. Denne studien viser at det er behov for mer forskning på feltet, som jeg vil presentere i siste kapittel.

Acknowledgements

This thesis symbolizes the end of my time at HVL, and the five years have come to an end. This process has not been easy, and it has tested me in numerous ways. In spite of that, it has been an amazing time! I have learned a lot though these years, which I will take with me into the next chapter.

I would like to thank my supervisor Stephanie Hazel Grønstad Wold for all the good and inspirational conversations and feedback. Thank you for all your comments and positivity towards my project.

I am grateful for all my good friends whom I have shared all the ups and downs with. A special thank you goes to Anna-Julie, Hilde, Marte Irene, Lene og Anna for taking the time to help me to the finish line. I will also like to thank my family for believing in me and for all the encouraging words.

Silje Elise Bolli
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1. Introduction

1.1 Aim and scope

Over the last few decades, English has spread increasingly across the globe and has become the number one language for communication. As a result of this, English has become the most central franca in the world; used in almost all aspects of international communication (Jenkins, 2015, p. 41). Arguably, one can state that one cannot go anywhere without having an encounter with the English language in one form or another. For example, through the news, media, and conversations between people or related to travelling. With this said, English today plays an essential role in many countries, regardless of whether a country is considering English as a first, second or foreign language. The focus regarding language learning and usage is, therefore, to a much larger degree situated on the ability to communicate with people with a different first language. In that regard, the ability to know and know other English varieties is becoming more important, concerning the ability to understand differences and develop awareness and acceptance towards the diversity surrounding us. To be able to develop this awareness, exposure to English varieties must become a central focus across multiple platforms, on several levels. This is not merely done overnight but must be gradually developed. Without increased awareness and acknowledgement, attitudes surrounding stereotyping and negative associations towards language, culture, and people will continue to grow. In addition, the stigma surrounding accents will not change. However, it is important to mention that not all varieties and cultures are stigmatised, and not in all contexts.

One of the ideologies that has dominated foreign language learning in Norway, as well as other countries, is the Standard Language Ideology. This ideology has mostly been tied to the higher middle class and above (Milroy and Milroy, 2012, p. 151). The ideology also portrays some languages as more correct than others. Regarding foreign language teaching and learning, this view has for several years been considered to be the norm, and the model for what is believed to be correct and good English. Concerning education, the Norwegian educational system and curriculums have shown tendencies to favour British English (BE) and American English (AE) as the proper accents for foreign language learning. This can in many ways be tied to the influence that the UK and USA have had on the world, which has

given them the opportunity to influence and to be playing a role in increasing the spread of English as a language. This position has led to Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) now being considered to be the standard accents compared to non-native or non-standard accents (Galloway and Rose, 2015, p. 46). The tendency of a *Standard Language Ideology* influence can be found in curriculums such as Mønsterplanen 87 (M87) which states that students are supposed to learn a British *or* an American accent (Kyrkje- og undervisningsdepartementet, 1987, p. 210). That is no longer a specific aim, and the new curriculum Knowledge Promotion 2020 (LK20) has changed the focus to the ability to communicate and learn about various English accents (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019)

The standard language ideology has met opposition and has been, by some, viewed as an attempt to stop language change (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 8). Yet, this perspective is still present, and students might be consciously or unconsciously exposed and aware of this. It is necessary to be aware of how ideologies, such as the standard language ideology, might affect the way both children and others think about language and their view on different aspects of language. Viewing one accent as more correct than the other, will automatically portray the opposite as incorrect and undesirable. To be exposed to negative attitudes might, therefore, be a factor for continuing negative associations and stereotypical interpretations that has been created by categorizing something as improper. It is therefore important to be aware of and have a greater focus on working against the hierarchal positioning of varieties and its correlating aspects.

School should have a neutral position where the focus is on diversity, tolerance, and awareness. This is can also be seen in the core curriculum where the Ministry of Education (2017) states that the school should "ensure that the pupils are confident in their language proficiency, that they develop their language identity and that they are able to use language to think, create meaning, communicate, and connect with others". Furthermore, the Ministry of Education continues to argue that "Language gives us a sense of belonging and cultural awareness" (Ministry of Education, 2017). It is, therefore, important to be aware of what the teaching material includes and what the pupils are exposed to in their learning. Textbooks are one of the teaching materials that is most used and in many cases function as guide for what the pupils should learn; Publishers and textbooks have great influence on what is taught in Norwegian schools (Lund, 2020, p. 346-348). Even though most English learning is believed

to happen in the classroom, a large part of the learning happens outside of school, for example through gaming and media (Brevik et. al, 2020, p. 191). It is, therefore, essential that the school guides students in the right direction where they can be aware of and show understanding for the diversity of the world, in addition to explore their own language identity and gain acceptance for others.

With reference to the previous paragraphs, this study seeks to investigate the use of English varieties in Norwegian English textbooks for 8th and 10th grade. The four textbooks that are chosen for this investigation are written by two different publishers, *Enter* by Gyldendal, and *Stages* by Aschehoug. All of these books are written in correlation to the new curriculum LK20. The main points are to explore what pupils are exposed to and see if there are still tendencies of the Standard Language Ideology.

1.2 The structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters in total. Chapter one, the introduction, will briefly present the study, as well as some previous research. In addition, it will present the research questions and the relevance of the study. Chapter two includes the theoretical framework, where relevant theory for this study is presented. This includes theory regarding standard language ideology, accents, attitudes, and English as a global language. Chapter three, presents the methodology used for this study, presenting how the investigation was conducted. Additionally, the chapter includes a presentation of the material used for the investigation and the phonological categories which form the basis of the classification of the varieties. Chapter four presents the findings from the analysis. In chapter five the findings are discussed in light of the theoretical background, in combination with challenges and possibilities for teaching and learning English varieties. The final and sixth chapter includes the conclusion where the main results are summarised, and future research is presented.

1.3 Relevance

As already established, the world is becoming more globalised and the need to be able to communicate is becoming more vital. Additionally, the much-improved technology and exposure to the world has given pupils the opportunity to develop their English language further. This exposure can happen through different social mediums, such as online gaming, and English is becoming a central part of their everyday life. It is, therefore, important for

teachers to focus on what pupils actually learn and what they are exposed to. Moreover, it is essential for teachers to utilize teaching material in the classroom that shows the varieties within the English language. To show the significance of learning English varieties, LK20 have formulated a competence aim that directly states that pupils should know about and acknowledge various English varieties. Additionally, there are other competence aims that can be linked to learning English varieties as well as other aspects that are closely related. Such as to "describe and reflects over the role English has in Norway and in the world" (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019)

To be able to fulfil these aims, in most cases, teachers use learning materials which often are in the form of textbooks. The textbooks are most likely written in correspondence to curriculums. These textbooks are written by authors that have freedom to select content they believe are important to include. This results in the content being very much based on a few people's opinions on what should be taught to Norwegian learners of English. Therefore, to gain insight into what textbooks includes, might create awareness regarding what the students are exposed to and if there are in correlation to the curriculum. Additionally, by investigating various textbooks makes it possible to compare to see if there are any major differences which can influence in a more "positive or negative" direction.

1.4 Previous research and research gap

In my research, I found relevant materials within the field of standard language and language ideologies, as well as attitudes to English varieties, which are tied to different aspects of language. There are mainly studies investigating attitudes towards non-standard/non-native varieties, both in Norway and other countries. In this section, some of the relevant studies found will be presented.

The first study is conducted by Ulrikke Rindal. Rindal explored the attitudes and second language choices of learners in Norway. The results from the investigation showed that General American English was the most available accent for Norwegian L2 learners of English because of the major exposure of it in television and other media (Rindal, 2012). On the other hand, Standard Southern British English (BrE), which is frequently referred to as Received pronunciation, was considered the most high-status English accent. In other words, General American is the accent targeted for everyday speech, but Received pronunciation is still considered proper and associated with education (Rindal, 2012).

Another study investigating attitudes towards English varieties was conducted by Loftheim in 2013. He wrote a master's thesis that investigated Norwegian attitudes towards different English varieties. The accents he used for the investigation are General American, Received Pronunciation, Southern American accent, Cockney, Scottish English and New York City. The purpose is to map these attitudes and investigate if there are any difference across generations (Loftheim, 2013). The study is based on five different hypotheses, where three of them seems to be strengthen by the results from the results. The findings show that Received pronunciation was the accent that was most preferred amongst Norwegian learners and General American was rated in second place. In this study, age and gender seemed to not have a major impact on the results (Loftheim, 2013, p. 46-47).

One of the more influential studies done concerning attitudes are done by Coupland and Bishop. They conducted a study in the UK, which examined people's attitudes towards several accents. This study was inspired by Giles' previous work in the field and can be viewed as a continuing on the study. The study was conducted in 2007 and included specifically thirty-four different accents, which consists of both native and non-native accents, where the participants were all native speakers of English. The findings revealed that native accents were more preferred, compared to non-native accents. Additionally, standard, or native accents also evaluated higher than non-standard accents. Another interesting finding was that women in a larger degree held more favourable views towards the different accents compared to men (Coupland and Bishop, 2007).

Maria Tengs Sannes conducted a study in 2013, named *From the Native Speaker Norm towards English as an International Language*. This study investigates the exposure and attitudes towards native and non-native varieties in the teaching of English in Norway. The aim of the study was to gain overview of which English varieties that are included in two well-used English textbooks made for VGS students in Norway (Sannes, 2013). The textbooks used for this study, are Target and Experience. In addition, she interviews three English teachers, as well as a questionnaire. The results shows that students are exposed to more accents than before and that most of these accents fall underneath the category of native

accents. The accents that dominated were British and American accents. In regard of the questionnaires, the participants stated that the most important ability is to communicate with others. Although it was a common understanding that the native accents were not the target, it was highly validated (Sannes, 2013).

A natural research gap in this thesis is the fact that LK20 is fairly new and, therefore, there is little research on it. Another research gap is that my chosen investigation of looking gender, identity etc. connected to teaching materials has not been connected previously.

1.5 Research questions and hypothesis

This Master thesis is set out to investigate what English varieties are used by listening to a correlating audio material for four Norwegian textbooks. In addition to investigate what English varieties are included, I will also see if the selection of varieties follows certain patterns related to standard language ideology, gender, and context.
 I have included four research questions, and these are:

1. Which English varieties are included in Norwegian EFL textbooks?
2. To what extent do Norwegian EFL textbooks use non-standard varieties of English, compared to standard varieties?
3. In what geo contexts are non-standard varieties used?
4. Does the distribution of standard and non-standard varieties follow a gender-based pattern?

In addition to investigating the four research questions, I would like to look at three correlating hypotheses. One of the reasons for choosing these hypotheses is from when I went to school. I remember the teacher putting on the correlating CD for our textbooks and I remember wondering why it was merely RP that was used for the text reading, as well as often men reading.

The hypotheses are therefore:
1. There are more standard varieties than non-standard.

2. Non-standard accents more used in geographical context.

3. Women speak more standard varieties.

2.0 Theoretical background

This chapter will outline the main theoretical background for the present study. Firstly, it will include a section regarding English in the world context, as well as the function it has for both national and global purposes. In addition, it will include terms and definition used about and in English. Secondly, topics such as *dialects*, *accents*, and *standard language* will be presented, before proceeding to the theory of *Standard language ideology* and other perspectives on what is considered acceptable English and poor English. At the end of this section, topics such as *English in Norway*, *why teach English varieties.*

2.2 English in the world

2.2.1 English as a global language

Today, one can define English as a global language with extensive influence within many aspects of the world (Crystal, 2003, p. 1). One can now travel to almost all the corners of the world, and it is likely to encounter English in one way or another. English is an essential language for both tourism and the business industry (Rindal, 2020. p. 28-29). A question is how English has become such an important language in the world. This is a question we can ask ourselves about the English language and the role it plays. One knows of the impact the English language has in a world context, but not as much about the role it has within the Norwegian society.

To better create a picture of how it has become such a global language, it can be necessary to briefly dive into how English has gained the influence it has on so many people every day, as well as looking to Norway in particular.

2.2.2 Native versus non-native speakers

It has over decades been attempted to create operational distinctions between native and non-native speakers. This can be seen in Kachru's model of World Englishes, which explicitly separates the varieties of English into groups of who belongs to the native speakers and who belongs to the non-native speakers (Rindal, 2020, p. 26). Non-native and native are both terms which are frequently used when categorising English speakers, and they are widely

used. Native speakers are for that reason referred to as being speakers with English as the mother tongue, or *first* language (L1). Non-native speakers can be categorised as people who has English as a foreign language, or *second language* (L2) (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 8-10). There is, and has been, debated on whether it is necessary to maintain and create a focus on separating native and non-native speakers (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 8). Is the distinction between the two categories really that significant, or is it about to fade out? According to Kirkpatrick (2007), there is especially one real problem in the context of World Englishes and Kachru's model. One of the problems is that numerous of people believe that native speakers are automatically better at speaking English than non-native speakers (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 8). The use of terms such as native and non-native might give people false associations on what is correct and non-correct. Terms like this can help with continuing the standard language ideology.

This can also be related to teaching the English language. These associations can in general be interpreted in the direction of how native speakers are viewed as being more correct, and the stigma and stereotypical associations regarding other non-standard Englishes may continue.

In addition to native and non-native speakers, terms such as *native varieties* versus *nativised varieties* versus *lingua franca Englishes are* also used regarding the division between people with English as L1 or L2 (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 5-7). Traditionally, native varieties can relate to the term native speakers were standard varieties of British, American, and Australian are said to be native varieties (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 5). Nativised varieties on the other hand, is newer varieties that has developed in places where English was not initially spoken (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 5). These terms are central in discussions regarding standard and non-standard varieties, in addition to the question regarding who belongs within the categories. If these terms are only used about people having English as a first or second language, these terms exclude a big part of the English-speaking group in the world. Terms like this might be a factor for putting labels on the English language as well as who the English language belongs to. A question regarding perspectives on English, is related to ownership.

2.2.3 Language Models

As a result of the influence of the UK and the US in particular, numerous new English varieties have been established. Because of the scope of all the newer varieties, it can be challenging to gain an overview and to find a way to systemise all of them. This might never be possible, due to all living languages being constantly changing (Lippi- Green, 2012, p.6). However, some linguists have, through several decades, tried to create models for the purpose of gaining an overview of all English varieties. These models are much based on the language perspective and views of the person forming them. As mentioned in both *Global Englishes* (Jenkins, 2015) and *Introducing Global Englishes* (Galloway and Rose, 2015), there are four respected models created to give a visual presentation of the social function of English variations. An earlier attempt to categorise was Strevens' World Map, which is now considered to be too simple (Galloway and Rose, 2015, p.16). Moreover, in the 1980s, Kachru created a model where he divides English variations into categories by using three circles (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p.18-19). This model became well known, and the base for many linguists.

Kachru´s model gives a broad spectrum of the then-known world of English variations and has become a model that has influenced our understanding of the spread of English. The three circles "represent the types spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in the diverse cultural context" (Jenkins, 2015, p. 14). The first circle is the *inner circle,* which represents countries that have English as their first language or mother tongue (L1). The United States of America, England, Australia, and South Africa are all examples of inner circle countries. This circle is also what Kachru defines as norm-providing. The idea is that the English foreign language varieties are "regarded as "performance" varieties without any official status and therefore dependent on the standards set by native speakers in the inner circle" (Jenkins, 2015, p. 15). These countries have formed the foundation of English and have offered language norms for a majority of the world. The spread of these norms has its foundation in their power, such as colonialism and economic superiority.

The next circle is the *outer circle,* which includes countries where English is the second language, or where English is an official language. For a language to be seen as an official language it is necessary for it to be dominant in essential domains, such as education, government, and higher social classes (Rindal, 2020, p. 26). Countries that are placed within

the outer circle are Asian countries such as Singapore and India, as well as some African countries. These countries also have the role of norm-developing, which means they no longer "rely on the norms of the inner circle but use their own varieties as norms" (Rindal, 2020, p. 26).

The last circle of Kachru's model is the *expanding circle.* This circle consists of countries where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) in school. For these countries, English is important for international communication. This circle is classified as norm-dependent, which means they have used inner circle countries and norms as models for pronunciation by imitating the native speakers (Rindal, 2020, p. 26)

This model has, as mentioned, been used to describe the spread of world English, but are today seen as outdated by several linguists in the world. The linguistic diversity is not as black and white as this model visualizes. As mentioned in my introduction, the world has become more global, resulting in more movement, both in the landscape of people and language. It affects language use across borders and in various social groups.
Even though it is outdated concerning today's language picture, we can still use models such as Kachru's model as a base for further research because it, in many ways, "simplifies" the world and makes it easier for us to visualize.

However, one needs to take into consideration the criticism of Kachru's model; this model is not accurate for how the world picture is today (Galloway and Rose, 2015, p. 18-20). It has, to a larger degree, been criticized for "failing to portray the increased importance of the outer circle" (Rindal, 2020, p. 27). In addition, the model seems to emphasize that the inner circle is viewed as being the target language for both the outer and expanding circles (Munden, 2021, p. 71). Today, a large part of English speakers is non-native.

Graddols' perspective on Kachrus' model is that the model is too central and that the circles imbricate (Graddols, 2003, in Rindal, 2020) due to increased *International Communication* (IC), countries that previously were seen as EFL countries are now categorised as second language learners (SSL) countries (Rindal, 2020).

2.2.4 The spread of English

English has rapidly become one of the most spoken languages across the globe. In comparison with Spanish, Mandarin, and Russian, English is the language with the most speakers, native and non-native (Crystal, 2003, 6-7). As a result of the increased spread of English, almost every corner of the world has given the English language a role and function within important national domains. Furthermore, English has also become an essential communication tool between speakers with or without a common first language (Rindal, 2020, p. 35). The ability to communicate across nationalities and borders is a significant competence for people. This is because English has given many new and better possibilities for development and growth between people and cultures. A hundred years ago, much of what is happening now would not be possible. The increased communication has built bridges between countries and helped growth across various domains, such as in tourism, business, technology, and education. Likewise, in so many other countries, Norway has gone through a massive international development, and has allowed English to become a highly valued language within our society. It has become important on a national level, for business and politics, but and especially for education (Rindal, 2020, 27-30). Even though it does not have an official status here, as mentioned above, it is still a necessity. This role English has in Norway is also discussed, see section 2.5.

There have been and are ongoing discussions regarding which terms are more appropriate to use about all the new and old English varieties, and the function English has. English is now developing into the number one language for communication worldwide, with most non-native speakers. The well know linguist David Crystal came up with the perspective where he refers to English as a *global language*. The perspective of calling English as a global language is much based on the global position English has in the world today and, as well as the previously mentioned spread (Crystal, 2003, p. 4). He argues that the reason for English becoming such a global language, has nothing to do with how many who speaks it but rather who speaks it (Crystal, 2003, p. 7). He bases much of his definition on the historical perspective and which countries that holds the most influence (Crystal, 2003, p. 7).

2.2.5 English as a Lingua Franca

As already established, English has become one of the most known global languages, a language you will encounter in every corner of the world. It has even become *the* language for international communication, in other words: *a lingua franca.* Lingua franca is "a contact language among speakers from different first languages" (Jenkins, 2015, p. 44) and can function both nationally and internationally (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.7).

Over the centuries, different languages have functioned as lingua franca, depending on each language's status in a world context. Greek, Latin and Arabic have been considered lingua franca languages, but English is now the primary lingua franca (Jenkins, 2015, p. 41). This can be due to the number of people using English, as well as the many native and non-native speakers. Moreover, Crystal (2003) lists 5 reasons why it has become the primary lingua franca: historical, internal political, external economic, practical, and intellectual (Jenkins 2015, p. 43). Because so many people use English as an international communication tool, newer perspectives towards English learning have increased, including English as a lingua franca which has, as mentioned, grown increasingly over the last decades. This perspective focuses on the English "used by speakers of different L1s in interactions where English is used to achieve a communicative goal" (Rindal & Iannuzzi, 2020, p. 126). By this, I will now refer to English as a lingua franca as ELF. The goal of using an ELF approach is for the speakers to be fluent bilinguals and not use models that support the goal of becoming close to a native speaker. One argument that is presented within the ELF. perspective is that "non-native speakers use English in ways that enhances communication, while simultaneously expressing their sociocultural identities" (Rindal, 2012, p. 16). By focusing mainly on communication, people might not put that much stress on speaking "correctly", but rather use their accent and an "incorrect structure" with the goal of being understood. There is not only one form og English in the world "but rather ways of using English differently in different context depending on the contexts speakers are in, what their other language resources are, who the other speakers are and what the purpose of the interaction is" (Rindal, 2020, p. 35). English as a lingua franca can be close related to a similar concept, such as the perspective of English as an international language.

One of the arguments against the use of EFL is the lack of rules. The approach does not have a ready system that is functionable for teaching English learners and will vary from speaker

to speaker. Yet, Jennifer Jenkins (2015) came up with what she calls the lingua franca core, where she lists up the features of ELF and argues that these features need to be present in order for people of all backgrounds to understand each other (Rindal & Iannuzzi, 2020, p.127-128)Some of these features are consonant sounds, vowel length contrasts, restrictions on consonants deletion, sentence stress and the vowel /ɜː/. With more The increased focus on the use of EFL has resulted in more awareness among applied linguist about the diversity of English around the world. In addition, it has also created more awareness around the sociolinguistic uses of English between users of various L1 backgrounds (Sung, 2016).

2.3. English varieties

It is important to establish a common comprehension of some basic terms to better be able to grasp what is considered standard and non-standard English, which function as fundamental pieces in the "language puzzle". These terms are *dialects, accents,* and *standard/standardisation*. All these terms are all connected to what is one of the most significant concepts in this study, standard language.

2.3.1 Dialect

Language is a wide concept and there are several definitions on what a dialect is, and what dialect implies. Cambridge Dictionary (n.d) defines dialect as "a form of a language that is spoken in a particular part of a country or by a particular group of people and that contains some words, grammar, or pronunciations (= the ways in which words are said) that are different from the forms used in other parts or by other groups" (Cambridge dictionary, *dialect*)

In compliance with this, we can distinguish between regional dialects and social dialects. With reference to the Cambridge definition, Nilsen has defined regional dialects to be "the variety of a language used within a certain geographical area" (Nilsen, 2010, p.14). Examples of regional dialects are *Cockney* in the U.K. and *the Bergen dialect* in Norway.

The social varieties of dialects are based on people's educational backgrounds and jobs. Traditionally, people with higher education tend to a more standard dialect because it has been portrayed as more correct and associated with prestige (Trudgill & Hannah, 2008). Every language has various dialects, and everyone has a dialect. I have chosen to use Norway as an example to simplify. Norway is a country known for having many dialects and you can

find many varieties within a small area. We use the term dialects more freely than accents, which tends to be much less used, as any variation typically includes lexical and grammatical features, in addition to phonological ones. Therefore, it can be confusing to define the difference between dialects and accents. In this thesis dialects will be understood as "[t]wo varieties of a single language (that) are distinguished by accent when differences are restricted primarily to phonology" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 46). In addition, one can argue for it to be called dialects one needs "two varieties of a single language (that) also differ in morphological structures, syntax, lexicon, and semantics" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 46). However, if the variations within the language are different regarding "distinctive literary histories, distinct orthographies, and or geo-political boundaries, then they are general called different languages" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 46).

2.3.2 Accent

As seen in the previous paragraph, Lippi-Green (2012) argues that dialects focus more on grammar, vocabulary and, to a certain degree, pronunciation. In contrast, are *Accents,* used for the intonation and pronunciation of segments (Hughes. et. al, 2005, p. 2). Cambridge Dictionary defines accents as "the way in which people in a particular area, country, or social group pronounce words (Cambridge Dictionary, *accents*). People who speak more of a 'standard' English variety sometimes claim that they do not have an accent. This much due to them seeing the 'standard' English, or what is called 'the Queens English' as the normal variety and that everyone who does not speak this has an accent. For example, people from northern England. . This is supported by Lippi-Green (2012) who argues that everyone has an accent, regardless of it being the 'Queens English' or GA (p. 43). In other words, accents are a loose reference to a specific "way of speaking".

Both accents and dialects are essentially connected to the concept of identity and culture. The way we speak tells us a lot about where we come from, as well as the environment we are a part of. This makes dialects and accents closely linked to attitudes towards language, as well as related to how people view their own and other' identity. Derwing and Monroe (2009) state that "listeners' judgements are the only meaningful window into accentedness and comprehensibility" (Derwing and Monroe, 2009 in Lippi-green, 2012, p. 45). Moreover, since *Accent* is closely related to identity; it is significant that teachers approach dialects and

accents with a genuine respect and be aware about our attitudes and opinions when presenting it to their pupils.

2.3.3 Standard/standardization

The term *standard* is a broad term that is context based. Concerning language, *standard* is defined by Cambridge Dictionary as "the form of that language that is considered acceptable and correct by most educated users of it" (Cambridge, *Standard).* This definition differs from Jenkins' definition who claims that *standard* "is the term used for the variety of a language that is considered to be the norm" (Jenkins, 2015, p. 21). In other words, this means that *standard* is not a single person's decision, but rather a common acceptance of something being correct. These two definitions are just two out of many. Furthermore, standard is often referred to as being correct and for the purpose of this study, I will use Jenkins' version where the *standard language* is the *norm*. By *norm,* Jenkins' (2015) means "an accepted standard or a way of behaving or doing things that most people agree with" (Cambridge Dictionary, *norm*). The term *standard language* is commonly used in discussions regarding languages, both languages in general, and also in correlation with language attitudes and ideologies. As already mentioned, the *standard* is described as something that is considered to be correct and the norm. Standard is often more used in major domains such as politics, media and for educational purposes (Cambridge, *standard*). In correspondence to language, *standard language* is easily understood as a correct version of a language, where a majority of users across nations have come to an "agreement" that specifically this version will function as a model for both correct grammar and pronunciation.

Even though Standard English has traditionally been used in context of written English, it is also used when referring to spoken English (Trudgill and Hannah, 2008). In the perspective of written language, we usually refer to it as Standard English, but in spoken language context, the standard is often used about Received Pronunciation (R.P.) or Standard Southern British English (SSBE) in the U.K. and General American (G.A.) in the U.S.A (Rindal & Iannuzzi, 2020, p. 118). In regards of RP, there are various types of RP, amongst them mainstream RP and near-RP. In this context, these types are also considered standard varieties based on the fact that in Norway, students do not have enough knowledge about the features to be able to distinguish the difference. Teachers on the other hand, should in the

theory be able to distinguish. That these two accents are viewed as standard is a result of many different factors and perspectives.

One factor that might have an impact on what is considered standard and what is not, different countries put into what belong to a standard. In Britain and in the U.S., there are major differences into what they denote as standard and why. For example, in the U.S. are people who tend to speak a more a standard variant (GA), stated as having no accent and being more "accentless", but in Britain, however, R.P. has a more social function (Milroy and Milroy, 2012). This will be more elaborated further down in standard language ideologies (Milroy & Milroy, 2012, p. 151). Milroy and Milroy view the function of standard language this way: "Standard language should not be understood as any specific language but an idea in the mind rather than a reality-a set of abstract norms to which actual usage may conform to a greater or lesser extent" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 44).

In addition to RP and GA, other countries in the English-speaking world have their own standards. Some examples are Standard Australian and Standard South African, where these varieties are portrayed as being equally correct and regarded as *good* English. A necessity is to be aware that spoken standard language is not geographical but considered a rather social phenomenon. As Kortmann (2020) presented, "[w]hat is made up to be the standard is categorized based on social and functional considerations" (204).

For my research, Received Pronunciation and General American will be the two varieties I will use as standard varieties, based on earlier curriculums where British and General American have been the targeted pronunciation. Norwegian schools have traditionally oriented their teaching towards RP, and later included GA as a standard as well.

2.4. Attitudes and stereotypes

2.4.1 Attitudes

Attitudes are fundamental in all humans' perception of the world. Every single one of us have opinions and attitudes about everything and nothing.

This is not an attitude study, because the goal is not to examine people's attitudes towards other varieties. The intention is to rather research which varieties that are included, whether the selection of varieties can have a connection to attitudes towards non- standard varieties.

This can as well be tied to attitudes, concerning societies view on non-standard variety. Based on the intention, it is necessary to define what attitude is. In this case the target the specific content, but rather look at the form of oral language in connection with our preconceived perceptions of the speakers. Language is such a huge part of an individual's identity, where again attitudes and mindset are closely connected to identity.

When searching for a definition of what attitude is, you will find more than one definition. There are many ways to define 'attitudes', depending on the researchers' perspective. According to Merriam Webster dictionary, which is an online dictionary, there are seven different ways of interpreting the term attitude (Merriam -Webster, *attitude).* People might automatically think of beliefs and opinions as associations to attitudes, but on the contrary, definition can used in various settings. To mention two of the seven definitions, attitudes can be: "a position assumed for a specific purpose" (Merriam-Webster, "attitude") or "a feeling or emotion toward a fact or state" (Merriam-Webster, *attitude.* By having seven different ways of using the term written in *one* dictionary, indicates the wide usage of the term and the various settings and context it can be used in. "Definitions vary in their degree of elaboration and in the weighting given to different features of attitudes" (Garrett, 2010, p. 19).

Garrett (2010) is well-known for his research on attitudes and approaches to attitude studies. Just to mentioned some of his work, his book *Attitudes to language* where he presents some fundamental aspect for language attitudes as well as approaches to research of language attitudes. Garrett (2010) refers to amongst others, two definitions of attitudes, one by Openheim (1982) and one by Allport (1935). Oppenheim (1982) presents attitudes as:

> *"a construct, an abstract which cannot be directly apprehended. It is an inner component of mental life which expresses itself, directly or indirectly, through much more obvious processes as stereotypes, beliefs, verbal statements or reactions, ideas and opinions, selective recall, anger or satisfaction or some other emotion and in various other aspect of behavior" (Opennheim,1982, as cited in Garrett, 2010, p.19.)*

Allport (1936) on the other hand, refers to attitudes as being:
"Attitudes are never directly observed, but, unless they are admitted through inference, as real and substantial ingredient in human nature, it becomes impossible to account

satisfactorily either for the consistency of any individual's behavior, or for the stability in any society" (Allport, 1935 in Garrett, 2010, 20).

Both definitions define attitudes as being mental phenomena that cannot be uncovered without expression through actions or words. To better understand attitudes, attitudes has been talked about in terms of three components which are used to gain better structure (Garrett, 2010, p. 23). These components are cognition, affect and behaviour. Garret explains these three components as:

Cognitive:
"Attitudes are cognitive insofar as they contain or comprise beliefs about the world and the relationship between objects of social significant" (23).

Affect:
"Attitudes are affective in that they involve feelings about the attitude object" (23). Can be viewed as a barometer of favourability and unfavorability towards, for example language varieties.

Behavior:
"Behavioral component of attitudes concerns the predisposition to act in certain ways, and perhaps in ways that are consistent with our cognitive and affective judgements" (23).

These three components can also be viewed as triggers and causes of attitudes (23).

Attitudes can be linked to language and language varieties. Furthermore, Peterson (2020) has created her definition on language attitudes where she defines attitudes this as, "language attitudes: (a related concept to language ideology) beliefs or judgments people have about certain social styles of language, features of a language, or varieties of a language" (Peterson, 2020, p. 8). The concept of ideologies will be defined further down, but it is essential to highlight her statement that language attitudes are close related to language ideologies, based on the fact that they are functions in people's beliefs (Peterson, 2020, p. 8). In regard to attitudes, it is important to be aware that attitudes are in a large degree learned. Two significant sources of attitudes are through what we experience and the social environment we are a part of (Garrett, 2010, p.22).

Othering is a concept that is closely linked to attitudes, beliefs, and mindset. Within the society, there are people that fear what they consider different, and which are unfamiliar to them. According to Janks, "those who explicit this fear use language to dehumanize The Other and to set them up as

dangerous and a threat to *us*". (Janks et.al., 2013, p. 33). This comes from a top-down perspective where, for example someone consider themselves superior compared to someone else.

2.4.2 Stereotypes

In addition, and close related to attitudes, stereotypes are central components when discussing attitudes towards English varieties. Even though the world has become significantly more open to its diversity, stereotypes, and stereotypical attitudes are still as relevant and present now as they were before. In a way having the ability to travel, as well as having the world with us through our phones, gives us the chance to gain more acceptance and raise awareness. We are exposed the world in a larger degree, compared to what we were just 50 years ago, however, people still tend to hold on to beliefs, ideas and negative attitudes towards people, culture, and other aspects such as language. One way of stereotyping is when something or someone are categorized and placed in a hierarchy. A hierarchy is when people are ranking, for example languages or non-native varieties, as better or more correct than other (Cambridge dictionary, *hierarchy*). This ranking is based on people viewpoint, mindset, as well as attitudes.

Just like attitudes, stereotypes can be defined in several ways. Stereotypes, multiple explanations, and interpretations to what we include and our understanding. A common definition is "a set idea that people have about what someone or something is like, especially an idea that is wrong" (Cambridge dictionary, *Stereotypes).* Some common examples are that all Norwegians are blond with blue eyes and are born with skis on their feet or that all Americans are extremely friendly. Stereotypes are all socially constructed.

In addition, stereotypes can as well be tied to language, as briefly mentioned above. Like Milroy and Milroy (2012) presents it,

> "although discrimination on the ground of race, religion, gender or social class is not now publicly acceptable, it appears that discrimination on linguistics grounds is publicly acceptable, even though linguistics differences may themselves be associated with ethnic, religious and class differences" (Milroy & Milroy, 2012, p. 2).

Stereotypes in relation to language, also called language-based stereotypes, have been sorted along three dimensions: status, solidarity, and dynamism.

Status is based on an evaluation of a speaker's intelligence and componence, perception of socioeconomic status (Acheme and Cionea, 2022, p. 95). The standard accent speakers are usually categorized as having more status and are more favourable than speakers with nonstandard accents (Fuertes et. al. in Acheme and Cionea, 2022, p. 95). Stereotypes associated with a group's solidarity reflect loyalty, unlike "stereotypes associated with a group's dynamism (which are reflective of the vivacity of the group (Gluszek & Dovidio (2010) in Acheme and Cionea, 2022, p. 95). "The use of ingroup speech styles enhances feelings of solidarity within one's own linguistic community, resulting in the social stigmatization of individuals who fail to use ingroup speech variety (Giles et. al. (1977) in Acheme and Cionea, 2022, p. 95).

Attitudes and stereotypes are close related, especially in the correlation with the cognitive component of attitudes. The cognitive component is, again, the aspect of attitudes which focuses on the person beliefs and world-perspective. With this, are social stereotypes elemental.

2.4.3 Gender

Gender is a much-discussed construct that is quite challenging to define, where a possible reason for that is the general increased debate regarding what gender is based on. It is challenging to discuss gender without being obligated to reflect on gender as a whole. However, for this thesis, the main focus in regard to gender is the correlation between gender and spoken language. Presently, the sense of gender is viewed in regard of behaviour, specifically masculine or feminine behaviour for men and women (Edwards, 2009, 127). In debates about gender, this is a frequents argument. Statements such as, "you do not behave like a man" or "she is not very feminine" are examples that is often used.

Moreover, according to Edwards (2009), *gender* is usually, and usefully distinguished from 'sex'; biological characteristics define the latter, while gender, although built upon biological categorisation, is a social construction" (127). In other words, the term gender is more based on social factors than biological. One of the pioneers in the field of gender, language and

sexuality is Lakoff, who in 1975, published *Language and Woman's Place* which analysed and criticised 'common-sense' positions in regard of language, gender, and sexuality. This work has been significant in regards of establishing connection between language, gender, and power (Angouri, 2021, p. 2).

One common observation related to gender and language is the fact that women often seek to use a standard variety instead of a non-standard variety (Edwards, 2009, p.134). This observation has been found in several studies and fields. Both Fisher (1944) and Trudgill (1972), have conducted research resulting in findings which are correlated to females choosing, in a much higher percentage standard variety, compared to men (Fisher, 1958, in Trudgill, 1972, p. 181). There are various theories concerning this phenomenon. According to Trudgill, there are specifically two interconnected explanatory factors.

1. Women are more status-conscious than men

2. Working class speech

That women are more status-conscious than man is explained referring to two reasons. The first reason, according to Trudgill (1972), is the social position women have within the society where the social position is less secure than of men. Therefore, it may be more necessary for women to signal their social status in linguistic terms (183). The other factor is based on the idea of men being rated socially by their occupation, power; in other words what they do. For women this is portrayed as being not possible, where they instead are rated on how they appear (Trudgill, 1972, p.183).

The second factor is the working-class speech, which is set as a possible factor, based on the association of working-class speech having connotations of masculinity. This is research conducted in 1972, which one has to take into consideration.

According to John Edwards (2009), an additional factor besides the two explained by Trudgill, for women being more aware of their choice of accent, may be tied to their maternal role. Women might be more aware of the importance of the language acquisition of their children, in regard to prestigious speech varieties. This can be both conscious and unconscious, the role as linguistic model (Edwards, 2009, p. 135).

2.4.3 Standard language ideologies and perspectives on standard English

The myth of standard language persists because it is carefully tended and propagated, with huge, almost universal success, so that language, the most fundamental of human socialization tools, becomes a commodity. (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 61) This is the core of an ideology of standardization which empowers certain individuals and institutions to make these decisions and impose them on others (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 61).

The question about whether the standard language is the only correct way of speaking are constantly up for debate, resulting in multiple perspectives and notions on the matter. One can say that everyone has a set of ideas on what they believe is consider correct and incorrect. One fact many linguists on the other hand agree on is that language is constantly changing and are developing alongside the growth within the society and world community. While language change and change of societal ideals are not the same thing, they can be linked in various ways. Such as, changes in societal ideals can lead to changes in language people. According to Lippi-Green and Cambridge Dictionary we may use the following definitions :

- o **IDEOLOGY: "**a set of beliefs or principles, especially one on which a political system, party, or organization is based (Cambridge dictionary, *ideology*)

- o **Standard language ideology: "**A bias toward an abstracted, idealized, homogeneous spoken language (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 67)

Ideology cannot just be presented as personal thoughts, opinions, and attitudes, but rather ideas that are rooted in a considerable larger picture, influenced by external factors. These external factors can be related to politics, education, or the environment you have been surrounded with. The standard Ideology includes beliefs about one form of language portrayed as being more correct than others. Lippi-Green (2012) used the term *good* and *bad* English to simplify the essence of the standard language view. It is necessary to point out that

there is not *one* standard English language, but varieties which are viewed as more correct. Traditionally, varieties or accents such as Received Pronunciation in the U.K. and General American in the U.S have been considered the standard accents. As defined in section… standard is often associated with education and therefore prestige and intelligence. This has amongst other factors, resulted in the standard accents being used to create dictionaries and pronunciation guides (Milroy, 2001, p. 547).

One of the sociolinguists that have challenged the standard language ideology is Lippi-Green, who in her book *English with an Accent (2012)* discusses perspectives on language, ideology and how this is connected to various forms of discrimination in the United States in particular.
She has mainly focused the development within the USA, but her research can as well be tied to the similar situations for the rest of the world. In correlation to standard language ideology, she states that variation in language has more positive influence than just the idealized standard (p. 55-64). One of the terms she has described her book is the standard language myth. As presented in the beginning of this section, Lippi-Green shows that language is disseminated and twisted in favour of the ones in charge and is now becoming a commodity amongst people.

Furthermore, language is also vital in relation to identity and "we use variation in language to construct ourselves as social beings, to signal who we are, and who we are not and do not want to be". By asking people to put their own language away, we are asking them to drop allegiance to the people and places that define them" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p.66). It is important to acquire acceptance towards other varieties than just your own. Lippi-Green is one of the linguists that support more variety and diversity within the field of the English language. Instead, there are linguist that argues for the use of a more standardized language. As a counterpoint to the perspective of Lippi-Green, authors and linguists such as Edwin Newman and James Kilpatrick are supporters of a correct form regarding English learning, which again are people that come up with the more extreme definitions on what standard language is and comes from (Lippi-green, 2012, p. 59). Jonathan Smith wrote as early as in 1712 a "proposal for correcting, improving and Ascertaining English" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p, 55). This for mainly written form, yet it gives indications for his standpoint. James Kilpatrick is an more "modern" linguist, who in likeness to Smith, have a solid opinion on how English should be spoken and written. (Lippi-Green 2012, p. 59). A common trait they have in

common is that they in various ways glorifies the native speaker and view them as the correct answer on what is good and what is bad English. The expanding circle are viewed as the followers and the inner circle as leaders. Also, linguist such as Chomsky emphasizes the need of standard English as a model for correct use of English. He viewed the native speaker as the "ideal speaker listener" which meant that the native speaker model was the only proper model for foreign language leaning (Torgersen, 2020, p. 272). On the other side of the scale, as mentioned earlier, we can place Jenkins who promotes the focus on using English as lingua franca. This is a perspective that has come more into the light because of the global development. ELF should, as mentioned earlier, be viewed as a perspective and not a model. ELF is discussed in section 2.2.5.

Concerning countries, all countries have perspectives on language, in that regard standard language and the correlated ideology. For example, using the two most influential English-speaking countries, the USA and UK, where they have two different approaches where the US base their view on a historical perspective and the UK on social class and authority (Bex and Watts, 1999). USA, with their history involving the Civil right war and slavery, have based much of their language ideology on language discrimination based on race. UK, on the other hand, have based their language ideology on the social aspect where authority is a key factor in correlation with power and influence. Both of these countries have been able to spread their ideologies with the help of the media and their multiple platforms and channels, as well as politics, and that with great success. Because of the major impact of these power nations, these ideologies have become rooted in many countries around the world, within their systems and further influenced the mindset of what is, in many cases, viewed as being correct and the standard. In relation to education and school system, Milroy explained the situation of the standard language influence as **"difficult for scholars as for laypersons to penetrate the barrier of "of common sense" and identify the numerous effects of historically well-established language ideologies upon their thinking" (Milroy and Milroy, 2012 p. 160).** Ideas from the standard language ideology has merged into systems, almost creating a sense of it being common sense and being the norm of how it should be.

Nevertheless, the idea of a standard language is a social construct and is subject to change over time. Different varieties and dialects of a language may be valued differently in different contexts, and the standard may be challenged or revised as language use and attitudes evolve.

In addition , "despite being embedded in the mindset of most people, the standard language ideology is not something of which people are consciously aware (Garrett, 2010, p. 7). The standard language ideology has been intertwined in social settings and can possibly influence people's unconscious opinions and stereotypes of non-standard accents.

2.4.4 Identity

Identity is as well, a complex and wide term that can be explained in many ways. Mentioned and quoted by Matthew Sung (2016), Norton refers to identity as the way "people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future" (Sung, 2016, p. 56). This is one out of many ways to use this term. In addition to give a description, he also argues for how language can influence second language learners or foreign language learners' identity. He states that first language learners invest in a targeted language, and this investment, in particularly one accent, "can be seen as an investment in one's identity (Sung, 2016, p. 56) Furthermore, Andy Kirkpatrick presents a definition or perspective on the correlation between identity and language where he believes that "people use language to signal to people who they are and what group(s) they belong to" (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 10).

Identity can be influenced by both internal and external factors, where language can be one of the more major factors. Already from the beginning of life, we learn and use language to be understood and to understand and is the main skill we use to express ourselves. In that regard, we can go to the length and say that attitudes and opinions are key traits to whom we are as people.

One perspective in regards of identity is Norwegians children's identity when speaking English. Rindal conducted research amongst 70 Norwegian learners in their second year of upper secondary school. The Norwegian learners went to four different schools and four different classes. The learners where asked questions about which accent, they aimed for when they spoke English as well as the reason for choosing it. In a questionnaire, the students were asked to choose between six different alternatives: British, American, Other, Norwegian, Neutral and I don't care. The alternative Other is meant as other known accents of English, and Neutral is where the accent is not classifiable as British or American (Rindal & Iannuzzi, 2020, p. 120). The results of the questions were: British= 23, American=30,

Other=2, Norwegian=0, Neutral=11 and I don't care=4. Based on the results, British and American were the accents most learners aimed for, not surprising since British and American are most well-known accents. The explanation the students gave for the specific accent aims revealed that British is associated with prestige and being more "correct" in correlation with school standards. The American accent was associated with informality and a more modern expression (121). In addition, some students reported that they believed the teacher would prefer them to use a British accent, even if this was not actually the case. In connection to the alternative of a neutral accent, 15 % chose neutral. They chose neutral because they evaded native accents completely, "because these are associated with qualities the students did not wish to adopt" (123). They also described adopting to an American or British accent meant "putting on an identity" (123). This view of English use can be connected to the perspectives of English as a lingua franca or English as international language. English can be understood as a personal language to the students, and not a borrowed one. Society is constantly changing, and new situations arise, which again is a part of changing us. Children or youth seem to have multiple identities and language identities, depending on the context. As described in Rindal and Iannuzzi, this is related to imagined identities, "who a learner might imagine herself to be in the future related to the target language might affect the learner's investment in developing her language skills" (Rindal & Iannuzzi, 2020, p.124). Norwegian accent seems to not be so desirable, with 0 response. This can be a consequent of a stigma around non-native accents from many domains, such as media and among language teachers.

2.5 English in Norway and the Norwegian classroom

2.5.1 English as a school subject

English has currently a prominent status in Norway and is ranked high in many important areas, despite being considered a foreign language. People in all ages have, in a varying degree, knowledge and opinions about English and can use it in diverse settings. Especially the younger generation have more daily contact with English, through social media and other sources.

In an educational setting, English has become a more prioritized subject in secondary schools in 1969 and has by then become influenced by different language theories, especially during the 1970 and 80s . But since then, schools and curriculums have gone through considerable changes and opened up more for the diversity. Much of the foreign language teaching and learning were based on external influence, linked to countries that held status as the norm providers. The countries with the most influence on the EFL in Norway are the U.S. and Britain, in domains such as politics and media. RP and GA are therefore viewed as standard (Rindal, 2020, p. 26).

In Norway, Mønsterplanen 87 (Kyrkje- og undervisningsdepartementet, 1987), which was applied in 1987, included specific competence aims that directly stated that students should learn how to use a normalized variant of British or American English (my translation)(Kyrkje- og undervisningsdepartementet, 1987), which in most cases were Received pronunciation or General American. However, Mønsterplanen 87 additionally states that the students should listen to and respect other English varieties (Kyrkje- og undervisningsdepartementet, 1987). By stating that British and American are the targeted accents, limits the opportunity for including more diversity. In contrast, the newer curriculums, such as Knowledge Promotion reform 2020 (LK20) includes wider aims for diversity. LK20 has implemented new focus areas, where competence aims, and goals are more enhanced in correlation to societies development (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). LK20 includes less specific competence aims, which gives the teachers more independence and opportunities to use their professional autonomy to choose content and methods (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019).

In relation to language diversity, LK20 states the importance of including English varieties, by incorporating competence aim, directly aiming at the understanding of other English varieties. LK20, aims after 10th grade includes one explicit aim stating that students should be able to "listen to and understand words and expressions in variants of English" (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019)

In the curriculum, literature is referred to explicitly in the aims for all stages, but it gives little guidance about what type of texts and from which parts of the world (Carlsen, 2020, p. 210). This can as well be linked to English varieties, in regard of guidance about what kind of varieties are there and where are they from.

A second competence aim that reflects the need of an increased attention towards language diversity is the ability to "describe and reflects over the role English has in Norway and in the world" (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). This aims directly to the understanding and knowledge towards the function of English, addition to the diversity of English.

In addition to the two aims above, LK20 includes a third aim directed towards the understanding of English use in the world. This competence aims states that students should "explore and describe ways of living, ways of thinking, communication patterns and diversity in the English-speaking world" (Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). This can be linked towards the ability to understand and respect other cultures and ways of communication. This ability is referred to as intercultural competence. According to Dypedahl (2019), is intercultural competence "the ability to relate constructively to people who have mindsets and/or communication styles that are different from one's own" (Dypedahl, 2019, cited in Dypedahl & Bøhn, 2020, p. 81). To relate to other people's ways of thinking and communication can possibly be at help towards decreasing stereotypical perspectives and negative attitudes. Increased knowledge and reflection will as well be factors for decreasing the

2.5.2 Foreign language learners?

The status of English being a foreign language in Norway is a part of a much-needed widening debate. This debate is linked questions about who belongs to the second and foreign language learning category, which are based on Kachru's model, mentioned in section 2.2.3. This debate does not just apply to Norway, but numerous countries which fall between the categories. Norwegians now face English in many of their daily tasks and are in constant contact with English, whether it is at school, social media, or news in general. In addition, because of the increased travel, students meet other students with a different first language and will, in situations like that, use English as a communication tool. Because of the increased use and exposure of English, it is questioned whether Norwegian learners are considered foreign or second language learners, or neither.

According to Rindal (2020), there are reasons to why Norwegian learners do not fit into the commonly categories concerning English as a first language, second language, or foreign language. As mentioned earlier, English has for a long time held the status of being a foreign language; based on the role English has. The first argument for not belonging in within these categories is that there are a "generally high proficiency level of English in Norway" (Rindal, 2020, p. 28). Also, Norwegian 15-year old has been the highest proficient speakers of English for many years (Rindal, 2020, p. 28). This can be explained as an effect of globalization and development of new technology, as well as an increased focus on English as a school subject. Children are today much more exposed to English through social media, gaming and the ability to travel.

The second argument is that English is a mandatory subject for 11 years. Norwegian students begin their English learning in 1-3 grade, alongside subject such as Norwegian and Math (Rindal, 2020, p. 28). Children are now exposed to English since they are approximately 5-6 years old and from that age, uses English on a weekly basis in and outside of school.

2.6 Why include English varieties.

2.6.3. Language awareness

Language awareness is a term that in the recent years have come more into the light and more widely discussed. People are traveling across nations, and we are exposed to language and language varieties from many sources, as well as increased possibilities for traveling. To be more aware of what we encounter will increase our understanding and knowledge about the people and culture. The term Language awareness was coined by Bolitho and Tomlinson in 1980 and gained wider recognition after the publication of Eric Hawkins' book "Awareness of language" in 1984. For many years Language Awareness has been applied in "various settings globally, with the aim of acknowledging the linguistic diversity of students in multilingual classrooms, fostering a more comprehensive and ecological approach to language education, and challenging conventional assumptions about language and languages"(Blommaert 2010, in in Helot et.al, 2018, p. 1).

It has become such a broad term over time, that the majority have an idea of what it means but need context to concretize. The National Council for Language in Education came up with a definition that was suiting. Their definition is: "Language awareness is a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life" (Donmall, 1985, cited in James and Garrett, 1998, p. 4). According to the NCLE Report, the development of sensitivity and awareness in L.A. programs occurs within three broad parameters (James and Garrett, 1998, p. 4), which are as follows:

- A cognitive parameter which is developing awareness of pattern in language
- An affective parameter which is forming attitudes
- A social parameter which is improving pupil's effectiveness as citizens and consumers

Key concepts to language learning are therefore developing sensitivity to and knowledge about language learning. The sensitivity to language is the awareness of language and how they are used in different communicative context (Hauge and Angelsen, 2020, p. 322). These patterns can be described on different levels: sound, individual words and context, phrases, and sentences and text and communication. Another aspect of language awareness is explicit metalinguistics knowledge. Hauge and Angelsen describe explicit metalinguistic knowledge being a form of "discursive or declarative awareness, where we are able to discuss language using relevant terminology and systematically analyse language patterns" (p. 323).

All these components are important in encounters with other languages and other language varieties and can simultaneously help students develop their language skills. These are all important factors when defining language awareness, but for the purpose of this study, the perspective on language awareness is directed towards the how the students will be prepared and aware of the language diversity they will meet out in the real world. Since the scope of English has increased, the students will in most cases meet and interact with people who do not have English as their first language, but rather multiple English varieties. It is therefore important to develop abilities to understand and interact across cultural and linguistic differences.

In this chapter, relevant terms and perspectives regarding English varieties have been explained and discussed. It has first looked at terms such as native and non-native speakers as well as models regarding categorization of English varieties. Additionally, important, and relevant perspectives on English learning, such as the English as a lingua franca is presented

since the ELF is the opposite of the Standard Language Ideology. Furthermore, relevant terms such as dialect, accent and standard have been defined before narrowing it more towards the role of the Standard Language Ideology. This is the common thread throughout the study, therefore are terms such as identity, attitudes and stereotypes included. At the end of the chapter, topics such as the status English as in Norway is discussed with relevant connections to the curriculums and the role English has for Norwegian learners and their place in the English-speaking world.

3.0 Method and materials

This chapter presents the method that is used for my research. The data is collected by analysing digital textbooks for 8th and 10th grades in Norway, specifically two different books from different publishers. Further elaboration on this will be presented in the upcoming sections. My research mainly focuses on researching which English varieties are included in these audible textbooks. In addition to looking at English varieties, it includes an analysis of pictures seen in context with both the audiotext and the themes in each chapter. All of this will be explained in more detail in the upcoming sections. Furthermore, this chapter consists of sections regarding the teaching material, the analytical approach and an outline of the accents uncovered through the analysis. To specify the paper, this study does not primarily rely on a detailed phonological analysis; however, the varieties used in the material are identified based on their phonological characteristics and are, therefore, presented in this chapter.

3.1 Research design

As previously mentioned, the purpose of this study is not the phonological analysis, but rather to categorise the accents found through the investigation. Section 3.4 includes a section explaining the most distinctive phonological features in detail with regards to the different accents that are uncovered in the study. The reason for choosing a mixed method approach is that the thesis looks at both qualitative and quantitative data.

3.1.1 Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods

I have used a mixed method approach, where I have collected qualitative data, as well as analysed quantitative data to answer my research questions. The qualitative and quantitative data are of equal importance. However, they serve different functions to my research. While the qualitative data concerns *which* varieties are included, the quantitative date concerns *the amount* of varieties used. To better understand the differences between qualitative and quantitative data, Punch and Oancea (2014) have defined qualitative data as uncountable data and is used when the researcher wants to investigate the quantum of the targeted purpose (p.3). The qualitative method, regarding the collection of data, is commonly used when analysing words. Quantitative data differs from qualitive date, and in this study, they function

as a supplement to each other. Consequently, a mixed method is defined as "empirical research which involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data" (Punch & Oancea, p. 3).

I explore which different accents are included in the digital textbooks, as well as any correlation between the different varieties of English, the gender representation of the audible files, and the geographic context. I research whether some varieties are more used than others, and in what contexts they are used. This is the qualitatively collected data of my research, due to the low scale sampling of textbooks. The quantitative data of this study refers to the numbers and statistics collected from the number of different varieties included in each of the selected textbooks. In addition, they are compared to the non-standard varieties and gender representation.

3.1.4 Societal treatment studies and approach

An approach to attitude studies is a societal treatment approach. Societal treatment studies have been or tend to be somewhat overlooked in contemporary reviews of language attitude research (Garrett, 2010, p. 59). This approach can be a useful way of obtaining "insights into the social meanings and stereotypical associations of language varieties and languages, and the 'treatment' meted out to languages and language varieties out there in society" (Garrett, 2010, p. 51). Societal treatment usually involves analysing content from different sources related to the public domain, which are material that are already published. This can be content from the media, variants of advertisement, which can also be textbooks used in language education. Textbooks represent content targeted at a specific audience - EFL learners - and thus has quite a bit of influence when it comes to shaping and/or reinforcing the learners' attitudes. By already analysing published material, societal treatment studies do not contain any human response. In relation to studying attitudes, societal treatment studies do not specifically investigate people's attitudes, but rather explore different opinions and thoughts that circulates in the media (Garrett, 2010, 51). As mentioned in Loftheim 2013, p. 36).

One of the leading persons in the field, is Lippi-Green. She has done important research and one of her most well-known studies is her study on stereotypical representations of accents in Disney movies. She has in her book *English with an accent* included multiple chapters where she, in detail, presents how Disney and other media distinctively are central factors for incorporating negative views and attitudes for the audience. On the other hand, media do not only feature negative views, but it can also likewise be a more positive influence on attitudes and perspectives. Media can be a great channel for presenting the diversity of English varieties, where it can reach numerous of people on a broad scale. Yet, that is where the more negative consequence also can strike.

Luley (2014) summarized Lippi-Greens findings where she describes what Disney is doing as "revamping classic fairy tales to satisfy the tastes of popular culture and market those tastes to children, often without giving credit to the cultures from where they came and incorporating stereotypes based on language, class, gender, and color" (Luley, 2014, p. 548). The summary of her close examination of Disney and the animated movies showed that characters with more positive actions and motivations are usually speakers of socially mainstream varieties of English. Instead, the characters with strongly negative motivation and action were more linked to geographical regions and marginalized social groups. In addition, there were also differences in relation to gender. As Lippi-green presents, "even when stereotyping is not overtly negative, it is confining and misleading" (Lippi-green, 1997, p. 101). This quote is something I believe can be especially relatable for this study. Although the stereotyping of accents in the textbooks might not be that overtly negative, it may still limit the use of non-standard varieties to stereotypical contexts and might influence the children, consciously or unconsciously. Even though this study is not a clear societal treatment study, it can still be portrayed as a "mini version" of societal treatment study, although it is not the main focus. The reason for that is that the thesis analysis data which can possibly reveal attitudes towards language varieties.

3.1.5 This study: Comparative textbook analysis

The present study: Comparative textbook analysis

This study uses a mixed method research that uses both qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative and quantitative data result in a comparative textbook analysis where I compare four books from two different publishers, Gyldendal and Aschehoug. The four books are English textbooks written by Norwegian publishers, and in correlation to the new curriculum LK20. The *Enter*-series consists of three books: *Enter* 10, 9 and 8. For this study, *Enter 10* and *Enter 8* are the books used for the analysis. *Stages* is the series by Achehoug which includes three textbooks: *Stages* 10, 9 and 8. Similar to *Enter*, *Stages* 10 and 8 are the textbooks used for the analysis. Both books are accessed online and in the form of what is considered smart books, similar to the hard copy. However, the digital versions provide additional functions such as possibilities for notes and markings, audible alternatives, as well as video explanations on how to use the books. To access the books, I had to acquire a licensed admission, which can be bought or accessed for free in a trial period of three months. The trial period is for those who would like to take a look at the books before potentially purchasing them.

I analysed the texts read by voice actors using the raw material that was accessed through the licensed admission. Traditionally, according to my experience with teaching materials, audio files could be accessed through CD's included in the textbooks. However, the modern digital smart books include the audio function as a file on the publisher´s website, or one can access it through the schools´ licences. The audio function consists of the incorporated texts which are read by one or several voice actors. The two publishers have different approaches and structures on how the audio material is accessed in the books. In the *Enter* series, there is a sound symbol by the text that you can click on in order to listen to the audio. Additionally, it is also possible to click on the text you want to listen to. Aschehoug, on the other hand, have chosen a different layout for the *Stages* series. For *Stages* 8 (Pettersen & Røkaas, 2020) and 10, Aschehoug have included the sound function in the menu, it is shown with use of a headset symbol. In addition to having a separate listening function in the menu, *Stages* includes the ability to listen directly from the text as well.

Stages (Pettersen & Røkaas, 2020) has a structural overview of the texts that are read, where the pupil can easily click on the headset symbol to see all the texts divided into chapters. In

the text, the sound symbol is usually found at the top of the page, by the headline and the authors' name. This gives the reader two opportunities as to where they can retrieve the audio material from. For example, the pupils can easily listen while following the text with the in-text audio function, but the separate audio function in the menu can create a more focus if one just listens to the audio. In addition to the main text, supplementary information such as listed vocabulary, pre- and post-questions as well as activities are included. Some of this additional information are also read by voice actors, where the tasks are explained, or extra information is added. When it comes to the structure of the analysis, I use both dependent and independent variables. These will work together to help answer the study´s research questions. The *dependent variables* are the main variable and holds the purpose of this study. It will in multiple ways function as an anchor for the results and further discussion. For the analysis, I will investigate the occurrence of the variable(s). The dependent variable is the varieties of spoken English', with the specific varieties as variants that occur in the material. In addition to the dependent variables, several *independent variables* are included in order to investigate further if there are other factors which have an effect on the dependent variables. In other words, whether there are systematic correlations between accent use and contextual factors. I have included two independent variables, which are listed below.

Book	Chapter	Title	Genre	Accent	Gender	Geographic
Stages 8	Journeys	An epic journey	Factual text	RP	Female	Australia

Table 1: Examples of dependent and independent variables

The first independent variable is *gender*. It is included as a factor in the analysis. Some of the texts are read by several voices, where both male and female are represented. The purpose of using gender as an independent variable is to investigate, like the other independent variable, if there is any correlation between gender and the English accent. The second independent variable is the *geographical* context. Geographical context is relevant in relation to language use, and the purpose in this study is to examine whether there is any link between the English varieties and the location in which the text is situated; after all, language varieties primarily originate in geographical areas. An example can be, where a text in context is set to Australia,

but the accent used by the voice actor is RP or that the setting is still in Australia, but the accent used is Australian English. A question in this regard, what is the reason for choosing that exact accent?

3.2 Material

For this study, I use the digital versions of the English textbooks from Gyldendal and Aschehoug. The textbooks I have chosen are both written for the new curriculum, LK20, which is presently available for all schools. The books chosen for this analysis are books for 8th and 10th grade, from both publishers (see section 3.1.5). This makes a total of four textbooks. For further research, it would be interesting to look at the books for 9th grade and other publishers to get a larger scope. The reason for choosing 8th and 10th grade material is to be able to investigate if there are any measurable differences between books from the beginning to the last year of secondary school, that is from 8th to 10th grade. Furthermore, this will make it possible to see if there are any differences or development in content and to see if the degree of variants used as audio material changes throughout the textbooks and grades.

The *Enter* series are written by Gyldendal and consists of books written for 8th, 9th and 10th grade. Gyldendal have published English textbooks for both the new curriculum Knowledge Promotion 2020 (LK20), as well as earlier curriculums like Knowledge promotion 2006 and Læreplanverket 97 (LK06 and L97). For this study, the books written for LK20 are the most relevant since they belong to Knowledge Promotion 2020, which is the current national guide for schools. The 8th grade book, *Enter 8 (*Diskin et.al, 2020). was published in 2020 while *Enter 10 (*Diskin & Winsvold, 2021) was published in 2021, and both respective books are 2nd editions. As mentioned in 3.1.5, The *Enter* series is available as printed versions. However, with a school license you can buy it as a digital smart book for both tablets and computers. Many schools are looking towards digital books, because of the financial benefits. Printed copies are traditionally more expensive than digital licenses.

Stages is an English textbook series from Aschehoug, which consists of three English textbooks: *Stages* 8, 9 and 10. As mentioned in section 3.1.4, this study applies *Stages* 8 and 10. The 8th grade book was published in 2020 and the 10th grade book in 2022. Both books are 2end editions and revised in correlation to LK20. Like the *Enter* series, *Stages* can be bought as hard copies, but also as digital smart books. The digital version of *Stages* is called

Unibok and can be accessed and adjusted to computers, tablets and mobile. In the description of Unibok, Aschehoug states that all books have a text-to-speech function which gives a good reading support. Additionally, they state that with the including tools, the students can work efficiently and acquire an overview over what they should learn (Frontpage, my translation). Aschehough as well, in their review of the book states that *Stages* 8-10 provides sufficient sound support as the texts are read by professional actors (Pettersen and & Røkaas, 2021). Moreover, in addition to the learner's book, Aschehoug has created a digital platform called *Stages 8-9 Aschehoug Univers.* Through this platform, teachers and students can find supplementary resources for their teaching and learning. I chose these books because I know they are used as learning material in Norwegian schools today.

3.2.1. *Enter* 8 and 10
Both the 8th grade and 10th grade book include a broad range of topics that are both relevant and interesting for the students regarding topics about both the local and the global society. *Enter 8* was written by Elizabeth Diskin, Kirsti Grana Winsvold og Knut Kasbo and was published in 2020. *Enter 10* was published in 2021 and was written by Elizabeth Diskin and Kirsti Grana Winsvold. In the description, they specified that the book would provide a great breadth and variety in both text and tasks, which can arouse linguistic curiosity and encourage creativity, deeper learning, and reflection (introduction on the webpage).

Chapters	Enter 8	Enter 10
1	A fresh start	Getting along
2	Heroes	The US
3	The UK	Both sides
4	Action	Distant realities
5	Disaster	Precious drops
6	Science	Solving conflicts
7	India	

Table 2: Chapters in Enter 8 and 10

3.2.2. *Stages* 8 and 10
Stages 8 was published in 2020 and Stages 10 in 2021 and both are written by Synnøve Pettersen and Felicia Røkaas. In the chapter "Kolofon", p. 310 in *Stages 8* and p. 328 in *Stages 10,* it is stated that this edition of the teaching material is partially based on the first

edition published in 2013-2015, by Kristin Måge Areklett, Synnøve Pettersen, Felicia Røkaas and Hilde Tørnby (Pettersen and Røkaas, 2021, p.328). The digital versions are based on *Stages* 8 and *Stages* 10, both 2nd editions. For the structure of th*e book Stages* 8 and 10 consist of these chapters:

Chapters	*Stages* 8	*Stages* 10
1	School days	Choices
2	Amazing animals	Democracy and citizenship
3	Journeys	Indigenous peoples
4	The English-speaking world: The UK, Ireland, and India	The English-speaking world: Nigeria, South Africa, and Australia
5	Schools out	Sustainable development

Table 3: Chapters in *Stages* 8 and 10

In comparison, *Stages 8 (*Pettersen and Røkaas, 2020) and *Enter 8 (*Diskin et. al, 2020). include some of the same topics, including chapters about the UK and the beginning of the school year. For *Stages 10* (2021*)* and *Enter 10 (*2021), they share at least one chapter about the US.

3.2.3. Textbooks

As this is a comparative textbook analysis focusing on the audio-material, it is considered necessary to briefly present the function of the textbook and what role it plays in Norwegian foreign language teaching and learning. In this context textbooks are books that are written for a specific subject and written in correlation to the national curriculum. In Norwegian schools, textbooks are still a tool that schools prefer using for the purpose of English language teaching. Some teachers use them sporadically, while others prefer using them as a foundation for their teaching, while including other materials as a supplement. Today, we see that text outside of the traditional textbooks, as well as new digital tools are more included now than earlier. However, textbooks are still present in English teaching and learning (Summer, 2010, in Fenner & Ørevik, 2020, p, 338). A difference is that textbooks are now available in digital form, in addition to the printed version.

The digital books include everything the original textbook contains, as well as the ability to listen to the audio by clicking on the text. This might indicate that additional and external CDs are not necessary. With a digital book, they are not dependent on the teacher's presence to be able to listen to the text. Many schools are now moving away from printed versions and the students are now mainly using Chromebooks or tablets which increases the need for digital books. In regards of the use of textbooks, it is important it be aware of the factors surrounding the writing and usage of textbooks. One of these factors is that textbooks only present the authors´ interpretation of the curriculum. As stated by Fenner and Ørgesvik (2020), "The textbook author has to select a limited amount of different text resources to function as examples for the learners. His or her subjective views will also decide the types of tasks included, and there is no guarantee that the learners will reach the aims of the curriculum by employing the methods defined by the tasks" (p. 339). The teachers' job is to make sure that the pupils are given the resources to be able to reach the competence aims. "This is done by choosing good examples of texts, audio recordings and pictures, which can support the learners in their language development" (p. 347).

3.3. Linguistic categories

This section includes the varieties of English that are found in the textbook analyses. The varieties are organised so that the standard forms are described first, moving on to other native speaker accents and lastly non-native accents. Phonological features have functioned as the main criteria for evaluating which accents being present in the different texts. However, the contexts that the texts provide have also contributed to achieve insight into, for example, geographical markers. For a majority of the phonological features, I have used the newest edition of the book *English pronunciation and intonation* (Hannisdal and Nilsen, 2023). I chose to use this edition because it is published in 2023. In addition, it includes the majority of the accents I found in my analysis.

3.3.1. Inner circle

3.3.2. Received Pronunciation

Received pronunciation (RP) is a variety that is traditionally used in several contexts, both inside and outside school. RP is mostly a social accent and today has no specific geographical

belonging. Originally RP belonged to the London area, and it also been called the BBC pronunciation and the Queen's English. It has for many been viewed as the most correct variety of English. In Norway, RP as a variety has been prioritised for foreign language teaching and learning purposes through several decades, in addition to General American, which has been increasingly accepted as well (Kirke- og undervisningsdepartementet, 1987, p. 210). In the context of foreign language teaching and learning, RP has been used as a model of speech. It has traditionally been considered the "standard" variant and as the proper way of speaking. As Wells mentions, people have a "mental image of RP, even though they might not refer to it by that name and even though the image may not be very accurate" (Wells, 1982, p. 279). Since RP is so well known by many and has, as many other varieties and languages, gone through changes resulting in it being challenging to categorize in specific linguistics categories. Wells developed an overview of what he considered to be the four main categories of RP.

The four categories' Wells used to distinguish the RP variations are *U-RP, adoptive RP, near-RP* and *mainstream RP*. I will mainly focus on one of the categories, *mainstream RP*, for the phonological characteristics of RP.
In the analysis, some cases of near-RP were uncovered. However, these instances are categorised together with mainstream-RP because Norwegian pupils are most likely not able to distinguish whether the RP accent is near-RP or mainstream RP, thus referring both categories as RP.

Mainstream RP is defined as "the unmarked, neutral, modern type of R.P., typically spoken by B.B.C. newsreaders" (Hannisdal, 2006, p. 169). One of the phonological characteristics of mainstream RP is that the variety is non-rhotic, which mean that the final /r/ of the word is pronounced silently. For example, in words such as car- /kɑ:/, park - /pa: k/ or star-/sta:/. Below is a list of the most characteristic features of RP, according to Hannisdal and Nilsen (2023)

- o /r/- RP is non-rhotic
- o /t/- Intervocalic /t/ recognized as a fortis plosive /t/.
- o /l/- RP has a clear /l/ before vowels, where it otherwise is dark
- o BATH- BATH vowel recognized as a long open back vowel /ɑ:/
- o LOT- the vowel is recognized as a short open back rounded vowel /ɒ/
- o GOAT- This vowel is recognized as a diphthong with mid central starting point /əʊ/

3.3.3. General American (GA)

General American, or GA, is according to Merriam-Webster, "the native speech of natives of the US, whose speech is not that of the south or of the r-dropping Northeast" (Merriam-Webster, *General American*). According to Hannisdal and Nilsen, people speaking this accent have also been referred to as having no accent (p. 3). GA has also been used as a model for foreign language learning and teaching. It is considered a rhotic accent, where the /r/ is pronounced in words like car or far. To be able to determine if the variation is GA, these are some features that must be considered:

- o /t/- Intervocalic /t/ realized as a voiced tap /ɾ/
- o /l/- Dark /l/ in all contexts
- o BATH- The vowels recognized as an open front vowel /æ/
- o LOT- vowels recognized as a long open back vowel /ɑ:/
- o GOAT- vowel recognized as a diphthong with back rounded starting point /oʊ/

3.4.0. Other native accents

3.4.2. London English

London English, or 'popular London English, is a southern accent typically identified as a working-class accent, originating from London. As presented in Hannisdal and Nilsen (2023) one of the main features of the Cockney accent is that it is non-rhotic. Some of the other characteristic features are:

- o TH-fronting - This means that the articulation of dental fricatives [ð] and [θ], are in this case pronounced as fronted to labiodental /f/ and /v/. Example, *think* [fɪŋk] and *with* [wɪv].
- o H-dropping - H-dropping is the exclusion of /h/ in lexical words such as *hard* [ɑ:d] and *behave* [biˈæɪv].
- o T-glottaling - T-glottaling, also called a glottal stop, is when the glottal stop [ʔ] replaces /t/ in end of words or between vowels. Example, *city* [sɪʔi].

3.4.3. Northern English

Northern English "refers to the variety spoken in England, north of a line from Birmingham to the Was" (184). Within the northern area, there are numerous of accents. However, they have some common features. In the analysis, accents such as those of Manchester and Leeds will be categorised as Northern varieties of English. Some of the characteristic features are:

- o STRUT- "Northern English uses the same vowel in STRUT as in FOOT, with a short close-mid back rounded /ʊ/". For example, *cup* /kʊp/ and *bus* /bʊs/.
- o BATH- Words belonging to the lexical set BATH are pronounced with the same vowel as TRAP, which is a short open front [ɑ]. For example, grass [grɑs] which rhymes with gas [gɑs].
- o FACE and GOAT- In most areas of the North, the vowels in FACE and GOAT are realised as long monophthongs: a close-mid front [eː] and a close-mid back [oː]. For example, *name* [neːm] and *road* [roːd].
- o /l/- The lateral /l/ is usually "realised as dark velarised [ɫ] in all positions". For example, *little* [ɫitɫ]. Regardless, most Northern speakers "lack the allophonic variation between clear and dark /l/ found in RP" (185).
- o <ng>- Northern speakers, in some areas, pronounces the spelling <ng> as [ŋg]. For example, *bring* [brɪŋg].

3.4.4. Scottish Standard English

According to Hannisdal and Nilsen (2023), Scottish Standard English includes these phonological characteristics:

- o The accent of Scottish Standard English is rhotic, with several variants of the phoneme /r/. Some of these variants are the alveolar trill [r], postalveolar approximant [ɹ] and the tapped [ɾ]
- o KIT - The vowel used in the lexical set KIT is typically pronounced as a front open-mid [ɛ], for example in *itch* [ɛtʃ].
- o FOOT AND GOOSE - The lexical sets FOOT and GOOSE are pronounced with the same vowel, which is a close central rounded [ʉ]. Examples are words such as *full* and *fool* which are both pronounced [fʉl].

- o FACE AND GOAT - The lexical sets FACE and GOAT are regularly pronounced as monophthongs. The FACE vowel has a close-mid back monophthong [e], for example, *made* [med]. GOAT has a close-mid back monophthong [o], for example, *home* [hom].

3.4.5. Irish English

Here are some of the features they have included:
- o Irish is a rhotic accent where all the orthographic <r>'s are pronounced.
- o FACE and GOAT - The lexical sets FACE and GOAT are regularly pronounced as close-mid monophthongs [eː] and [oː]. This means that words such as *name* [neːm] and *oak* [oːk].
- o /l/- The lateral /l/ is usually pronounced as a clear, non-velarised [l] in every context.
- o LOT and TOUGHT- Usually pronounced with an open back rounded vowel [ɑ]. This vowel is short in LOT and long in TOUGHT. For example, *stop* [stap] and *talk* [tɑːlk].
- o BATH, PALM AND START- These lexical sets are all pronounced with the same vowel, which is a long open front [ɑː]. For example, *pass* [pɑːs] and *calm* [kɑːm].
- o TH-stopping- Several Irish speakers do not have the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, but rather pronounces the spelling <th> as dental plosives, [t̪] and [d̪]. For example, *think* [t̪ɪŋk] and *this* [d̪ɪs].
- o T-opening- "In intervocalic and final positions, /t/ may be realized with an incomplete closure, leaving narrow opening between the apex and the alveolar ridge, resulting in a fricative sound" (191). This can sometimes be symbolized as [ṭ]. Example, *bottom* [bɑṭəm].

3.4.6. Australian and New Zealand English

In addition to other accents, Australian and New Zealand is also presented by Hannisdal and Nilsen (2023). Australian and New Zealand English are quite similar, however there are some features that are different. The main differences between Australian English and New Zealand English are the lexical sets KIT, DRESS and TRAP. Some of the most common similarities and differences are:
- o /r/- Both Australian and New Zealand English accents are non-rhotic.

- o BATH, START, PALM –The vowel in the lexical sets BATH, START and PALM is fronted in compared to the open back RP vowel: [aː] instead of [ɑː]. Example, half [haːf] and spa [spaː].

- o DRESS and TRAP- In RP, the vowels in DRESS are pronounced with an open-mid [ɛ], while in Australian English the vowel are pronounced with a mid to close- mid [e]. In New Zealand English has a quality between close-mid and close [ɪ]. The TRAP vowel is, in RP, an open [æ], however in Australian English this vowel has some variation where some speakers have a fairly open vowel and others raising in to open-mid[ɛ]. In New Zealand English, the vowel is raised higher, almost towards a close-mid [e].

- o /t/- Mostly realized as a "voiced tap" when it occurs between vowels or before syllabic /l/. For example, butter [bʌɾə].

- o NURSE- The vowel is frequently fronted compared to RP [ɜː] and is pronounced with a lip rounding, usually in New Zealand English (200).

3.4.7. Southern American Accents

Here are some features for Southern American accent:

- o PRICE - This a one of the most characteristic features of the southern accent. The vowel in PRICE is pronounced as a long open front monophthong [aː]. For most speakers, the use of this monophthong is restricted to certain settings. This means that in some settings, they will use a GA diphthong before fortis consonants, e.g., like [laɪk], and [aː] in all the other settings, e.g., time [taːm].

- o STRUT- The vowel in STRUT might be raised to a mid-central [ə]. For example, in words such as mud [məd].

- o DRESS - The DRESS vowel is raised to a close-mid [I] before nasals. Example, pen and pin will sound the same: [pIn].

- o BREAKING- This refers to a "diphthongization of the short front vowels of KIT, DRESS and BATH/TRAP into [ɪə], [ɛə], [æə], with a central end-point" (196). Examples, hit [hɪət], step [stɛəp], pad [pæəd].

3.4.8. **Welsh English**

According to Hannisdal and Nilsen (2023), Welsh English has these phonological characteristics:

- o STRUT- "the vowel in the lexical set STRUT typically has a mid-central quality [ə]. Words like run and cup are pronounced [rən] and [kəp]
- o PRICE and MOUTH- In lexical sets such as PRICE AND MOUTH there is a tendency to use diphthongs with raised, mid central starting point such as [əɪ] and [əʊ]. Example: Like- [ləɪk]
- o Welsh is traditionally non-rhotic, but rhoticity appears in some areas.

3.4.9. **Jamaican English**

- o According to Trudgill and Hanna, Jamaican creole is non-rhotic. In addition, Jamaican creole also includes these features:
- o /a, ɔ/ and /ai, ɔi/ - No distinction between /a, ɔ/ or /ai, ɔi/. Examples, cat /kjat/ and cot /kat/ and boil /bwail/ and bile /bail/.
- o TH-stopping- Jamaican speakers do not have the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, but rather pronounces the spelling <th> as dental plosives, [t̪] and [d̪]. For example, *think* [t̪ɪŋk] and *this* [d̪ɪs].
- o Consonants- Consonant clusters often reduced, both initially but also finally. Yet, more extensively in final position (p. 114)
- o LOT/CLOTH and THOUGHT- All these lexical sets use a rounded [ɔ], "though a cot-caught merger is theoretically avoided by the latter set of words being more lengthened" (Devonish & Harry, 2004)

3.4.10 **South African English**

The South African English accent is a non-rhotic accent. There are differences in realization, such as tap [ɾ] and trill [r], depending on how broad the variety. Other features:

- o KIT - The vowel in KIT has two different pronunciations, depending on what it appears next to. If it appears next to a velar consonant, "before [ʃ], after /h/ or word-initially, it has a front and close quality [i]." (201). For example, *king* [kiŋ] and *big*

[big]. If it appears else where it will be pronounced as a mid-central vowel [ə].
Example, *tin* [tən] and *bill* [bəl].

- o BATH, PALM, START - This vowel is a long open monophthong with a fully back feature, [ɑ:].

- o /p, t, k/- Fortis plosives are usually "unaspirated in all positions, particularly in broad accents" (202).

3.5. Outer circle

3.5.1. **Indian English**

According to Hannisdal and Nilsen (2023), Indian English is variably rhotic and the /r/ is often realised as a tap or trill. Other features are:

- o The fortis plosives /p, t, k/ are often unaspirated in "the beginning of a stressed syllable" (204). Example, pen [pɛn].

- o /v/ and /w/ - both are realised as the labiodental approximant [ʋ]. Example, very well [ʋɛri ʋɛl].

- o /t/ and /d/ - Indian English has a retroflex pronunciation of the consonants /t/ and /d/: [ʈ, ɖ].

- o FACE and GOAT - The lexical sets FACE and GOAT are realized as the monophthongs /e:/ and /o:/. Example, *place* [ple:s], *stone* [sto:n].

3.5.2. **Nigerian English**

Kirkpatrick (2007) presents some of Todd and Hancock's (1986) phonological features of Nigerian English in World Englishes (p.104). Some of these features are:

- o /r/ - Nigerian English is non-rhotic.
- o FACE and GOAT- FACE and GOAT - The lexical sets FACE and GOAT are realized as the monophthongs /e:/ and /o:/. Example, *place* [ple:s], *stone* [sto:n].
- o Consonant clusters are not pronounced and either one consonant is dropped, or an epenthetic vowel is inserted between the consonants of the cluster to give ´lis´for ´list´and arrang-i.ment´for 'arrangement´respectively (Todd and Hancock, 1986 in Andy Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 104).

3.5.3. **English with a foreign accent**

Speakers whose native language is not English, as described by Marie Buvarp, can sometimes use phonetic features of their native language when speaking English (Buvarp, 2022, p. 34). Based on the context and intonation, one of the texts is read with an Eastern European accent. Some of the features where:

- /l/- Usually a dark l.
- /r/- The accent is rhotic. It is firmly rhotic and is usually realised as a tap or trill. This feature is typically used in Eastern European intonation.
- The fortis plosives /p, t, k/ are often unaspirated in "the beginning of a stressed syllable".
- Full vowel, instead of schwa in unstressed syllables- sometimes

- Th-stopping- This accent does not have the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/, but rather pronounces the spelling <th> as dental plosives, [t̪] and [d̪]. For example, *think* [t̪ɪŋk] and *this* [d̪ɪs].

- FACE and GOAT- FACE and GOAT - The lexical sets FACE and GOAT are realized as the monophthongs /e:/ and /o:/. Example, *place* [ple:s], *stone* [sto:n].

3.6 Limitations

One of the limitations for this study might be the choice of collecting method for the audio-material for the analysis. This study only deals with accents through audio and not so much in connection with the assignment text or other content in the books. Some of the books' content can be directly linked to accent and pronunciation. This content could have been included as an independent variable, but because of the scope and resources available for this master´s thesis, that was not an option. Other possible limitations concern the selection of books. Because of the scope and timeframe, I decided to use only four books from two different publishers. I consider both publishers to be well-known, and based on my own experience, the books are all used a lot in secondary schools in Norway. Both publishers have been creating textbooks for decades and are well established in their fields. I decided not to include the 9th grade book, which might potentially be a gap. This gap might contain other English varieties than the ones represented in the other books, together with other geographical context, and gender variation.

3.7 Reliability and validity

One of the first challenges in relation to reliability is the voice actors. It can be challenging to distinguish the exact place they are from through only listening to short audio-texts.
In order to better understand the selection of varieties and voice actors, I decided to send an e-mail to each of the publishers, where I specifically asked about the origin of the voice actors. My question was whether the voice actors originally had the respective accents as their native accent or if they were reading the text with a different variety than their own. An example of this is when someone originally speaks with a RP accent but reads a text with an Australian accent. Gyldendal replied that they use several voices which were recorded both in Oslo and London and that the voice actors were native speakers of various variants of English. As an exception of this, some of the younger children who spoke English at home, might have an audible Norwegian accent (Gyldendal, personal communication, March 2023). Aschehoug replied that the unibooks well created, with various voice actors for various stories. All of the voice actors have good English accents, where some of them had hints of other accents, and others with more British and American pronunciation (Aschhoug, personal communication, March 2023). It was however unsure whether the actors were native or not,

but they added that the language consists of an acceptable English accent. In many ways, this strengthens the challenge of knowing where the accents are really from and if the accents are "accurate".

This brings me to the second challenge in relation to reliability. Because of the scope of the study, I did not have the time to dive deep into the pronunciation and linguistics for every English variety. It would take much time and resources to be able to learn all the varieties well enough in order to categorise them in more detail. For some accents, the intonation is very strong or exaggerated, which sometimes makes it more challenging to distinguish accents from dialects. Some accents have markers from various accents and dialects, which makes it more challenging. Regarding this, I used some phonological characteristics which are the most well-known and distinctive for each accent to try and categorise the accents. Therefore, some accents are categorised as undecided. They are used in the same category as other English/non-standard varieties, which may influence the results of the analysis.

The third challenge in relation to this study, is that only one person has listened to the audio-material; this creates possible room for mistakes. However, my supervisor has listened to parts of the material, particularly the parts connected to most uncertainty, so she has made some inputs to strengthen the reliability of the analysis. Another challenge regarding reliability is the potential researcher bias. I am the only person studying the results, which means that it is my personal interpretation of the material. I acknowledge that other readers might understand my findings differences. Lastly, the size of my samples might be a potential weakness. I have decided to analyse four different textbooks, which gives me a rather small data sample which only reveals a portion of what Norwegian English textbooks reveals. However, I consider my sample to be sufficient.

4.0 Results

This chapter presents findings from the analysis which is conducted on the basis of four textbooks. The main focus is to investigate the representation of English varieties related to context like genre, gender, and geographical markers. To provide a systematic overview, I categorise the findings by books and publishers, starting with *Enter 8(2020), Stages 8* (2020), *Enter 10* (2021) and *Stages 10* (2021) the analysis. I use other independent variables in the investigation, as previously mentioned, to see if there is any correlation between the chosen English varieties and the independent variables. Initially, I present the findings before moving on to the discussion.
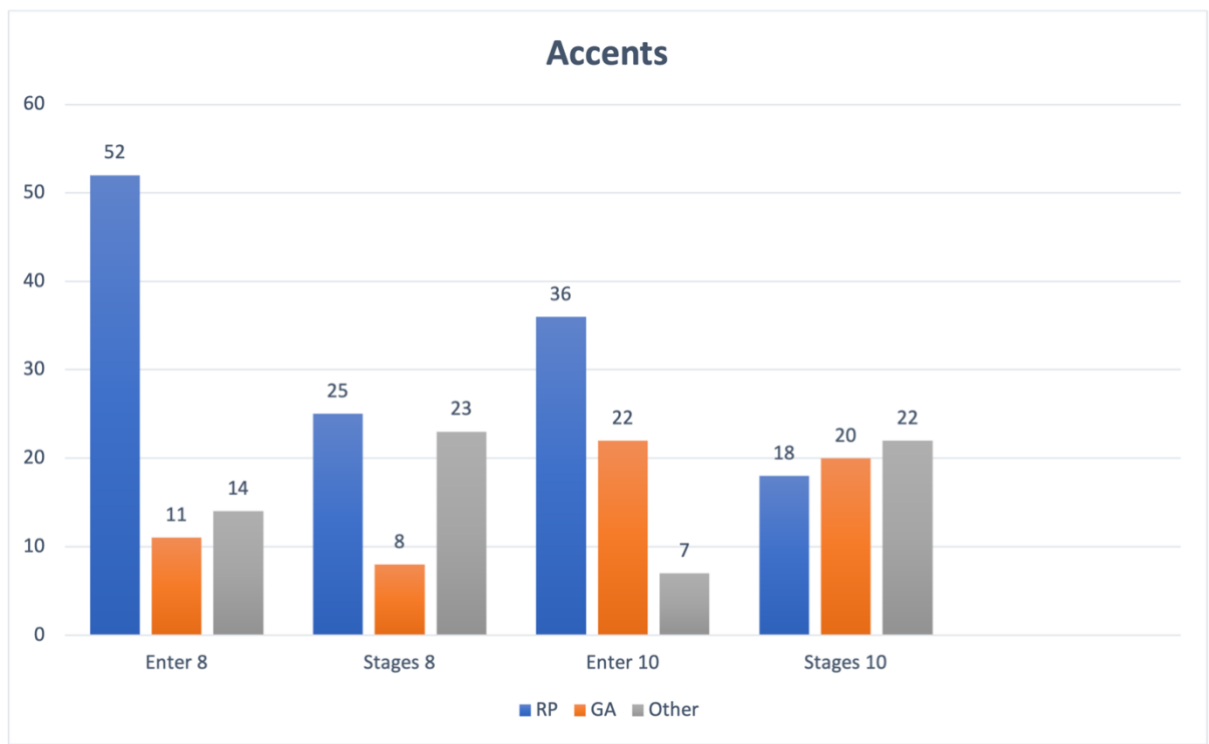
4.1 Overview

This section presents the overall findings regarding which English varieties are included, as well as the correlation between the usage of standard and non-standard varieties.
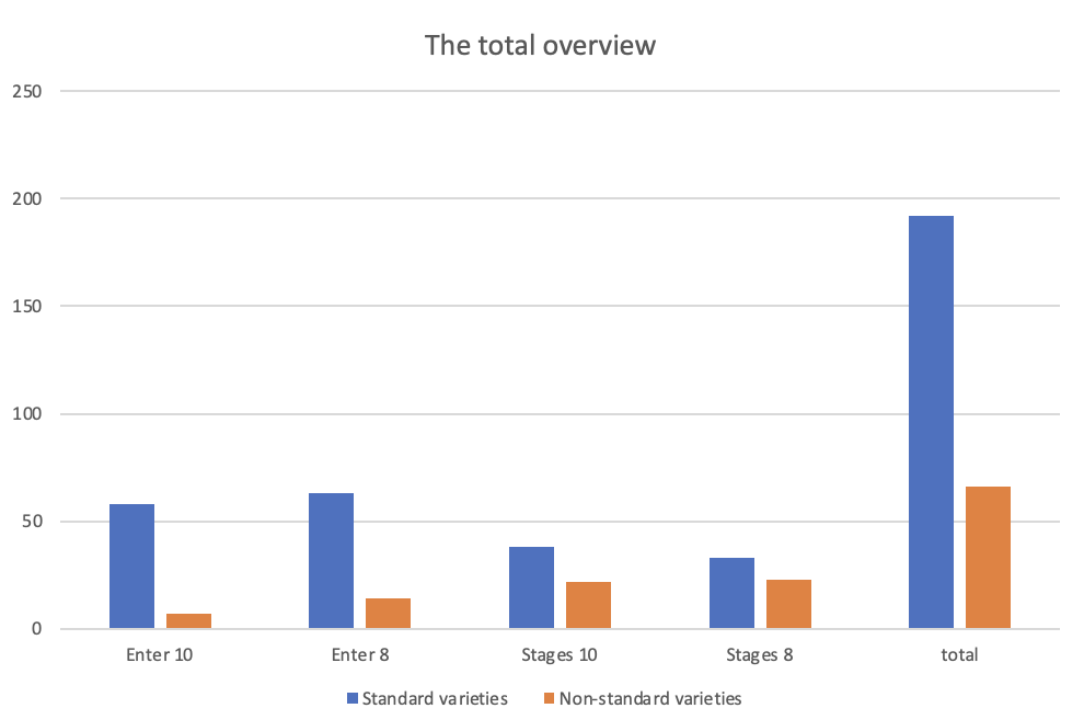
Figure 1: Representation of standard and non-standard varieties

Books	Standard varieties	%	Non-standard varieties		Total
Enter 8	63	81,82 %	14	18,18%	77
Stages 8	33	58,93 %	23	41,07	56
Enter 10	58	89,23 %	7	10,77 %	65
Stages 10	38	63, 33%	22	36,67 %	60
Total	192		66		
%	**74,42%**		**25,58%**		

Table 4: Overview of standard and non-standard varieties in *Enter* and *Stages*

Figure 2: Total overview of accent representation

Figure 4 shows the total results indicate that more standard varieties than non-standard varieties are used. Additionally, the findings show that the standard varieties dominate in all four of the textbooks. Furthermore, in table 4, the details for all four books are presented, sorted from 8 to 10th grade. The results show a total differentiation, where 74,42% of all accents are standard varieties and 25,58 % are non-standard varieties.

Firstly, *Enter 8 (*2020) for 8th grade includes in total of 77 cases of both standard and non-standard varieties. Additionally, this is the textbook which includes the most accents out of all the four respective textbooks. In the matter of standard varieties, *Enter 8* (2020) includes 63 instances and 14 instances of non-standard varieties. This gives a difference of 81,82 % standard varieties compared to 18,18 % non-standard varieties. *Stages 8 (*2020), on the other hand, includes 33 instances of standard varieties and 23 non-standard varieties, resulting in the total of 56 representations. An interesting discovery when comparing these two textbooks, is that these two textbooks are the books with both the most cases of accents, and with the least accents. *Enter 8 (*2020) is the textbooks with the most accents, in total 77 instances, while *Stages 8 (*2020) has the least accents, whereas 56 instances. However, looking beyond the number of accents in total, *Stages* includes almost the double number of non-standard varieties than *Enter* does. *Enter 8* (2020) includes 14 non-standard varieties compared to *Stages*, which includes 23 instances of non-standard varieties. The summery is therefore that *Enter* includes more instances of accents in total, although, 81,82 % are standard varieties and the remaining amount are non-standard. Conversely, *Stages 8* (2020) includes in total fewer accents, where 58,93 % of the total are standard varieties and 41,07 % are non-standard. However, *Stages* 8 (2020) includes more non-standard than what *Enter 8 (*2020) does.

Enter 10 (2021), which is written for 10th grade, includes 65 instances of accents in total. In regards of standard varieties, *Enter 10* (2021) includes 58 representations of standard varieties and 7 non-standard varieties. In percentage, the results reveal that standard varieties are 89,23 % of the total and non-standard are 10,77 %. On the other hand, *Stages 10 (*2021) includes a total of 60 instances of accents throughout the book. Regarding standard varieties, *Stages 10* (2021) includes 38 instances, whereas for non-standard varieties, 22 instances. This gives a difference of 63,33 % and 36,67%. When comparing these textbooks reveals a difference for both standard and non-standard varieties. As presented above, *Enter 10* (2021) has in total of 58 instances while *Stages* has 38. This gives a difference of 20 representations.

Moreover, for non-standard varieties, *Enter 10* (2021) includes 7 and *Stages 10 (2021)*, 22 instances.

In regard to publishers, *Enter 8* (2020*)* and *Enter 10* (2021) has more similar results when it comes to English varieties. Both books included more standard varieties whit a percentage of 81,82 % and 89,23 %. Yet Enter 8 (2020) included more non-standard varieties than Enter 10 (2021). *Stages* 8 (2020) and 10 had, as well had similar results, where the percentage for the use of standard varieties are 58,93 % and 63, 33%.

4.1.1 Gender

This section presents the results of how gender is used in the four different English textbooks. To be able to present the findings, the categories are sorted into the same categories as the findings for English varieties. The categories og English variations are RP, GA, and other English varieties.

Accents	Male	%	Female	%
RP	89	55,63	71	44,38
GA	35	48,61	37	51,38
Other	35	47,3	39	52,70
Total	159		147	
Total %	51,96		48,04	

Table 5:Total gender representation in all four textbooks.

	Enter 8		Stages 8		Stages 10		Enter 10	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
RP	43	24	17	14	14	5	15	26
GA	1	9	6	3	12	12	16	13
Other	5	11	13	11	13	12	4	5
Total	52,69 %	47,31 %	56,25 %	43,75 %	57,36%	42,64%	44,30%	55,70%

Table 6: Gender representation for each textbook

Regarding gender, the total overview reveals that there is more male representation, compared to the female representation. Nevertheless, there is not a very significant difference between the gender use for all books, where the male representation is 51,96 % of the total amount and the female representation are 48,04 %.

Looking at figure 5, the accent that is most used in total are RP, that is for both men and women. The male representation, in accordance with RP, is 89 whereas for females, the total is 71. The results, therefore, show a total of 55,63 % for males and 44,38 % for females. General American, on the contrary, has more female representation than male, with a total of 37 instances. Males using a GA accent are used in total of 35 times. This gives a percentage on 48,61 % for males and 51,38 for females. For the last category, other accents, the difference between male and female are close to the same result as the GA. The male representation is, for this category 35 and for females 39. This gives a percentage of 47,3 % for males and 52% for females. With all the total results presented, one can see that there are not major differences, however there are more male representation for RP and more female representation for GA and other English accent.

In table 6, the result for each separate book is presented, where male and female, as well as the three accents as still set as the categories. *Enter* 8 (2020) includes generally more male representation than female, with 52,69 % over 47,31 %. However, more women are reading with a GA accent and other accents than RP, a variety mostly read by men. In comparison, *Stages* 8 (2020) uses more men for all their accents than women, where the difference is 56,25 and 43,75 %.

Enter 10 (2021) is, as mentioned, the only textbook who has more female representation than male in total. The total percentage is 44,30% men and 55,70% women. Although, both RP and other accents have more women reading, but more men are used for the GA accents. Similar to *Enter* 8 (2020) and *Stages* 8 (2020), *Stages* 10 (2021) has a majority of men reading, 57,36% men and 42,64% women. For the three categories, RP and other English accents have more male representation, although, the GA includes equally instances for men and women.

4.1.2. Geographical context

This section includes the results for the correlation between the English varieties and geographical context. From this point on, geographical context will be referred to as GC. To begin with, the result for non-standard varieties will be presented, before moving further to the findings for all the English varieties included.

Textbooks	Geographical context	No geographical context
Enter 8	5	9
Stages 8	19	2
Enter 10	6	1
Stages 10	14	1
Total	44 out of 58	14 out of 58
%	75,86%	24,14%

Table 7:Geographical context regarding non-standard varieties.

Varieties	Enter 8	Stages 8	Enter 10	Stages 10
RP	- The US - UK - Hogwarts - Norway - Alabama - Canada - Australia - Nottingham - South pole - England - Wales - Scotland - Northern Ireland - London - China - Iran - Germany - Indonesia - Titanic - Paris	- Britain - Norway - Kenya - Asia - Africa - Russia - US - London - Mentioning many different countries and places all over the world - Scotland, - Northern Ireland - England - Titanic - UK - Denmark	- Athens - Braunau (Austria) - US - Space - The earth - Fantasy world - India - Australia - Pakistan - South Africa	- UK - Pakistan - Australia - On a boat to Australia - Nigeria - Svalbard - Kent - Chad - Australia - North Carolina
GA	- New Orleans - UK	- Portland - Canada - Florida - Hawaii	- US (Multiple states) - North America - Alabama - Denver - Oregon - Selma (US) - Texas - Cincinnati - Canada - Standing Rock - New York	- US - Space - Alaska - Hollywood - Native American reservation - Spokane - Honduras - Norway
Popular London English	- UK	- South of London	0	0

Northern English	0	- Manchester - Leeds	0	
Scottish English	0	- Scotland - Glasgow	0	0
Irish English	0	- Northern Ireland - Belfast	0	0
Australian English	0	- Victoria	- Sydney - Coburg	- Australia
New Zealand English	0	0	0	- New Zealand
South American English	0	0	- Alabama	- US
Welsh English	0	- Wales - Cardiff	0	0
Jamaican	0	- Kingston	- Kingston	- UK
South African	0	0	- South Africa	- South Africa - Cape Town - Robben Island - Soweto (Johannesburg)
Indian English	- India	- India	0	0
Nigerian English	0	0	0	- Nigeria
Eastern European English	0	0	0	- Ukraine - Germany - Poland - Belgium

Undecided	- Canada	0	0	- Africa - On a boat to Australia

Table 8: All accents in regard to geographical context

Table 7 reveals that the majority of the accents categorized as other English varieties are used in a specific GC. In other words, most of the accents are used in connection to their countries of origin, such as Indian English used where the story has markers tying it to India or for example Irish English and Ireland. Regarding the non-standard varieties, *Enter* 8 (2020) includes in total five instances where non-standard accents are used in correlation to specific geographical contexts, while 9 instances lack clear markers binding them to specific GC. *Stages* 8 (2020), in contrast, includes eleven additional instances where non-standard accents are tied to a GC than *Enter*, giving a total of 19 instances. According to no GC, *Stages* only has 2 accents where there are no indications on where the story is placed. Based on these results, the difference between *Enter* 8 (2020) and *Stages* 8 (2020) are rather considerable. 14 instances are the total difference between the two books, regarding non-standard accents used in GC.

For the textbooks written for 10th grade, the results are more or less similar to the findings for the 8th grade books. *Enter 10* (2021) contains in total of six instances where the non-standard accents are used in a GC, whereas one instance are not directly linked. In comparison to *Enter* 10 (2021), *Stages* 10 (2021) has in total 14 instances where a non-standard accent is used in a GC while only one are not connected to a GC. To summaries the findings for non-standard accents, the overall result shows that the *Stages* series has visibly more cases of non-standard accents that are used in a GC compared to the *Enter* series. The difference between the usage of GC and no geographical context are in percentage 75,86% CG vs. 24,14% no CG.

To get a better overview of the relations between geographical context and the English accents, the findings are presented in table 8. The first two accents presented in table 8 are RP and GA, which again are the accents considered to be standard. The findings reveal that RP is generally more used than any of the other accents included in the textbooks. Received Pronunciation is in a larger degree used in several geographical settings, and not merely used

in contexts regarding the UK or related geographical contexts. RP is not considered to be a regional accent, yet it is seen as a British accent, traditionally associated with London. Looking at the results in table 8, RP is often used both in a British context, but also in multiple geographical contexts. The results for *Enter* 8 (2020), show that RP is used in total of 20 different GC. However, the GC in which RP are used is not always merely actual locations, such as Hogwarts, for example. Even though Hogwarts is a fantasy world in *Harry Potter*, the plot is nevertheless set in the UK. Therefore, Hogwarts is considered a geographical marker in this thesis.

Furthermore, the findings also reveal that textbooks written for 8th grade, *Enter* 8 (2020) and Stages 8 use RP in context outside of the UK. In total, *Enter* 8 (2020) includes 20 different locations and *Stages* 8 (2020) has 16 different locations. For the textbooks for 10th grade, the amount has decreased, with a total of 10 for both books.

Another interesting finding is that RP is used in stories that include geographical markers indicating the story to be in or about the US. This is a repetitive occasion and is seen in all four books. This is also a finding found regarding GA as well, however, GA is less used in settings regarding the UK, than RP for the US. In fact, GA is only used in stories regarding the UK in *Enter 8* (2020).

In regard of the GA accents, GA is mostly found in text including geographical markers directing the location being in the US or is close related to the US or Canada. 20 out of 24 locations are found, where GA is located in or around the US. Additionally, there are some cases where GA is used in other geographical settings, however that is just a few instances. For example, in *Stages* 10 (2021), GA is used where the text is placed or related to both Norway and Honduras. Nonetheless, GA is mostly used where the text has geographical markers set to the US or in some cases.

Apropos non-standard varieties, the findings are similar for all accents. For the majority of non-standard accents, the English varieties and the geographical context is correlating. Looking at table 8, the results show that 29 out of 32 locations are related to the respective accents. For example, Northern English is used where the geographical context is set to Manchester and Leeds. Amongst the non-standard varieties, there are 2 instances where there is not a specific correlation between the accent and GC. They are found in reference to Jamaican English and Eastern European English. The undecided accents are not considered

part of the counting since it is difficult to state if there is a connection between the place and location, since the accent is not distinct. In relation to, Jamaican English, in *Stages* 10 (2021), the accent is used to read a text where the geographical markers indicates that the setting in regarding the UK, and for the Eastern European accent, the story starts in the Ukraine, but a further into the story, the protagonist are traveling through many different countries. Yet, the Eastern European accent is not changing, since it is the same person speaking.

4.1.3 Other findings

When analyzing the audio material as well as the content, I discovered some other elements I find worth mentioning. These are, in some regard, related to the primary analysis of English varieties, yet they are part of the overall picture of the books.

Firstly, one of the features I noticed was the lack of references to audio material and voice actors. For the actual written text, there is a section with author biographies. However, the voice actors, nor an overview of the accents used in the audio material, is implemented in either of the books. Excluding this information can make it more challenging for both the teacher and students to figure out which accents are used for each text. For some accents, it is easier to distinguish the accent, however, it cannot be expected that students would know exactly what accent is used. They might be able to base the features in the light of geographical markers and context, yet some places this can be viewed as challenging.

Secondly, some of the accents in both *Stages* and *Enter* were more challenging to categorize than others. For some of the accents it is challenging to distinguish the accent, because it consists of diverse features from multiple English accents. For example, it can be where it sounds like an RP speaker trying to imitate a Southern American accent. This might not be the case and one cannot state it for sure, however, it is something I noticed while listening to the accents.

Thirdly, in some of the books, additional information regarding the accent is incorporated. For example, on page 192 in *Stages* 10 (2021), the texts contain information about the importance of learning English varieties. The text is called *Exploring the English-speaking World,* where the authors write about parts of the history of the English language, where they amongst other writes about English as a lingua franca.

For example, in *Enter* 10 (2021), p. 210, extra information about Jamaican English is given in a green text box at the end of the page and end of the story. The story is having geographical markers which directly states that it is in Kingston Jamaica. The box is named *Did you know?*

What I found interesting is that the text is presenting and stating that the textbox delivers the standard English version of this paragraph. It is additionally read with an RP accent. Another finding in regard to additional information, the majority of the tasks that are read up by a voice actor is a standard variety.

Fourthly, another finding is that RP, and on some occasions, GA are used to read the introduction of various types of texts, even though the main text is read with a non-standard accent. For example, a text where the story is placed in the Australia and the main text is read with an Australian accent, yet the introduction to the story is read with an RP accent. RP is also often used when reading glossaries, tasks and in generally extra information given for the story.

5.0 Discussion

5.1 English varieties

In the previous chapter, the results from all the four textbooks were presented. In this chapter, the results and findings will be discussed in light of the theory presented in chapter 2.

5.1.2 Standard language ideology

The total result from the analysis regarding English varieties shows that there is a larger quantity of standard-varieties in the audio material, than there are non-standard. For all four textbooks, the percentage is showing a difference of 74,42 % standard varieties and 25,58% non-standard varieties. In addition, there are more standard varieties in the books written for 10th grade, than there are in the 8th grade textbooks.

In light of the results above, the textbooks show that they to some degree build up underneath what is considered a Standard Language Ideology. As explained in section 2.4.2, a Standard Language Ideology is based on ideas and beliefs that glorifies and portrays one language or language variety as being more correct than others: "The myth of standard language persists because it is carefully tended and propagated, with huge, almost universal success, so that language, the most fundamental of human socialization tools, becomes a commodity" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 61). The standard language ideology shows a wrong picture of how the world really is. As opposed to this, the idea of English as a Lingua Franca, promotes diversity by seeing past this narrow understanding of language. English as a Lingua franca thus promotes the ability to communicate rather than categorize some accents as "standard" or as more correct. Standard accents are more established because they are regularly used in all forms of dictionaries and other materials. In the Norwegian context, the standard varieties have been the most focused on, and are therefore perhaps seen as safe to use, by both teachers and students. Because some accents are seen as standard and correct, the remaining accents are automatically seen as improper, and therefore incorrect. Because of that it can be challenging to include them in English learning and teaching. Non-standard varieties have gained more focus, but as seen in the analysis, they are still outnumbered. This can affect the students' perspective of others.

In addition, Standard language is a term that can be interpreted as a charged term. When something is being viewed as standard, it indicates that everything that is not standard is viewed as odd and incorrect. Standard accents are therefore associated with varieties that should be portrayed as the guide for correct use. Native speakers are as discussed in section 2.2.3, as well as English speakers who has English as their mother language. In regard to language learning, a common belief in the standard language ideology, is that standard language and native speakers are necessary for teaching and learning correct and good English. Native speakers will therefore function as models and the norm for how it *should* be spoken. That there are some accents considered more correct than others can be challenging in several ways. Native speakers being highly validated and referred to as the "owners" of English, can be challenging in several ways. This can indicate that other speakers do not feel ownership to the English language, which can create uncertainty because the Native accents have more value.

5.1.3 Curriculums and textbooks chapter

As discussed above, Standard Language Ideology, is the idea of some accents being more correct than others. This idea is not new and has been present for years and is a result of the increased influence from specially some countries, like the UK and the US. In Norway, the standard language ideology has been given the opportunity to root through national curriculums and textbooks. M87 is an example, who directly stated that the aim for pronunciation was a normalized British or American accent. However, they also suggested that English varieties should be given space. As the definition above shows, standard language is accepted amongst educated speakers. M87 stated that students should learn a neutralized British or American accent, amongst them RP and GA. The use of the word "neutralized" however, indicates that any variety could be preferred for use in classrooms. In addition, Standard language can be interpreted as a loaded term because it is often associated with a particular group of people, educated speakers that have been portrayed as having relatively high status in society. In regard to M87 and standard accents, teachers and students that grew up and learned that these accents were the targeted accent, have got it imprinted from a young age which type of English is preferred and correct. This will then potentially

have a ripple effect, where the teachers teach their students what they have the impression of as being correct.

M87 was however the functioning curriculum 30 years ago. In 2020, the new curriculum LK20 was implemented and was designed to give more freedom to the teachers. Additionally, LK20 gives the teachers the ability to use more of their autonomy to choose content and methods for their students. In comparison to earlier curriculums, LK20 included fewer specific aims and rather directed the focus to broader topics such as inclusion, diversity, and identity. In regard to English varieties, LK20 includes a specific competence aim targeting the ability to "listen to and understand words and expressions in variants of English". This aim directly states than children shall know of and understand other English varieties, and not merely the accents considered standard. There is no place in the new curriculum that states that the primary accents for English learning should be RP or GA, but rather uses the terms English varieties. Looking back at the results from the analysis, the results clearly show that the accents that are used the most in all the four textbooks are in fact standard varieties, and that non-standard are included in a much-decreased number. By the curriculum being so vague, one cannot state that including more standard varieties is wrong since the children are supposed to learn expressions from *English varieties*. However, since the majority of accents used in textbooks are standard, it does not leave much room for the understanding and knowledge of the non-standard accents that children are supposed to be exposed to. By including more standard accents, the children will in a much smaller degree, develop knowledge of the diversity that exists in the world, as well in their local areas. In addition, the curriculum aim above is also tied to the ability to understand other people from different backgrounds. This is where the intercultural competence is essential. Intercultural competence focuses on the capability of understanding and tolerate people that are different from oneself. The ability to understand and communicate with others, is closely linked to other competence aims that do not directly mention English varieties but includes aims that are closely tied to the exposure of English varieties. Another competence aim says that students shall "explore and describe ways of living, ways of thinking, communication patterns and diversity in the English-speaking world" (Ministry of Education and Research., 2019). This competence aim describes that the students shall be able to understand and communicate with other people that do not have the same first language as them. Intercultural competence and the awareness of diversity is also relevant here. Through learning and being

exposed to other English varieties has many benefits for the development students gain of how the world actually is.

Nevertheless, it does not matter that the curriculum states the importance of diversity and increased exposure of English varieties if they are not exposed to it. Textbooks are, as mentioned in section 3.2.3, still the teaching material that is used in Norwegian classrooms and are for many teachers a content guide. The results from the analysis show that there is a skewed balance in the use of standard accents and non-standard, which indicates that the textbook authors believe that standard accents are more proper for language learning than non-standard accents. However, by including some non-standard accents they are targeting the aims stated by the curriculum, although to a quite small degree.

5.1.4 Gender

The results presented in table 5 and 6 shows that there are similar findings considering gender representation for all four textbooks. As presented in table 5, the total result show that there are in fact more instances of male voice actors than female voice actors. The total percentage shows a difference of 51.96 % men and 48,04% women. Although, looking at the total percentage, there is no major difference between the representation of men and women. This can be a possible result of trying to include the same amount of both genders.

Furthermore, the results reveal that there are more instances of male voice actors than female voice actors reading with an RP accent. Then again, more women are using a GA accent and other English Accents. The fact that there are more men using the RP accent is interesting based on findings from earlier observations. As mentioned in section 2.4.3, Edward (2012) presents a common observation of women using more standard varieties than non-standard varieties, compared to men (p. 134). The findings in my study show that there are more men using an RP accent compared to women and that women uses a GA accent and non-standard English varieties. To some degree, these results can be related to the common observation since women are using a GA, considering GA being a standard accent. The only exception is *Enter 10* (2021) which includes more women with an RP accent compared to men using RP. However, in *Enter* 10 (2021), there are more men using a GA and non-standard accent. This can be both a coincidental and a non-coincidental choice. That women are used to read more

non-standard accents can be a conscious choice, on the background on the common observation of women using a more standard accent. This can possibly mean that the authors are working against stereotypes. It can, on the other hand, also be an unconscious choice. The reason behind this can also just be that more female voice actors were available.

5.1.5 Geographical context

Other findings from the analysis are in relation to the connection between geographical context and the English varieties. The overall results show that most of the non-standard accents used in the audio material are used in correlation to specific geographical places. For example, in *Enter 10* (2021) there is a story about Nelson Mandela, earlier president of South Africa, where the setting is placed to when he served time in prison. For this story, the accent used is a South African accent. The fact that the publishers correlate accent with geographical markers is not necessarily wrong or unfitting. However, there are some aspects to language that teachers and learners, and people in general, should be aware of. These are related to stereotypes, attitudes, and beliefs in regard to non-standard varieties.

As mentioned above, the standard language ideology views non-standard varieties as less correct. Non-standard varieties have therefore been viewed more negatively and being undesirable. The findings show that 78, 86 % of the texts read with a non-standard accent are related to a geographical place. The fact that authors use non-standard varieties in geographical context is not necessarily negative. It can be helpful for students to learn how people from specific areas speak. However, it is unfortunate if textbook authors inclusion of varieties solely happens in relation to geographical contexts. This can show students that these varieties only belong to those specific locations. It is insightful for students to see that these varieties can be used in other contexts, such as in the classroom and society. A challenge here is that those varieties that often experience stereotypical views, will still be stereotyped. On many occasions, non-standard accents have been used for humorous purposes, creating an illusion that is not correct. Portraying and creating associations based on a "humorous" use of accents is allowing the continuance of these stereotypical perspectives. By allowing that to continue and not breaking these associations, the people being exposed to them will still be mispresented by others, which can lead to the idea of a hierarchy. The Indian accent, for example, is often used in humorous contexts. An example of

this is the character Raj in The Big Bang Theory. In the show, he is portrayed as socially awkward, quiet and has weird interests, in addition to having an overly articulated Indian English. This is a tv-show, yet it can be linked to instances where textbooks use Indian accents only in a geographical context, for example. This can build up underneath stereotypical perspectives and attitudes. Stereotypes and attitudes are factors that must be carefully considered in relation to teaching and learning non-standard varieties. It is important to specify that textbooks most likely do not have intentions of stereotyping, however it is still essential to be aware of the possibilities that they might create or not challenging them. When non-standard varieties are viewed as improper, they can also be less portrayed in schools and teaching materials.

The findings from this study show that The Standard Language Ideology seems to be functioning as a common thread through all the results. In relation to the standard language ideology, a specific finding in regard to standard accents is that RP is considerably more used than GA. The results in figure 5 show that three out of four textbooks use RP the most, in various contexts. The exception is, however, *Stages 10* (2021) where there is actually more representation of GA and Other English accents. One interpretation is therefore that RP seems to be considered as the primary standard variety, while GA is considered a secondary standard variety. The reason that RP is considered the primary standard variety, is that it is used in several geographical contexts, also outside of the UK. Because of this, it seems to be considered a more neutral variety. It can also indicate that RP, in the Norwegian setting, is evaluated as more suitable for education than GA, even though RP is spoken by approximately 3-5 % of the population (Milroy and Milroy, 2012, p. 151). It is thus viewed as standard, which can be interpreted as a "loaded term" since Standard is associated with one particular group: educated speakers. Being neutral implies that it is not just used in specific geographical contexts, but rather in several contexts. GA, which is also considered a standard variety is merely used in contexts related to the US. As Luley states about Lippi-Green's study on Disney movies: "characters with more positive actions and motivations are usually speakers of socially mainstream varieties of English. Instead, the characters with strongly negative motivation and action were more linked to geographical regions and marginalized social groups" (Luley, 2014, p. 548). Her findings can in some degree be tied to the findings regarding standard and non-standard in this study. If non-standard varieties are always used in geographical context, that is what the children will build associations towards. Whether the

associations are good or bad, association and attitudes will be created. If RP is used in all types of settings, it might give the impression that it is used everywhere and that it is more commonly used compared to other accents. The same for GA. If GA is only used about the US, connotations towards those areas will be made.

6.0 Conclusion

This chapter presents a brief summary of the study and tries to summarize the main results from the analysis. In addition to summarizing the main findings, a section in regards of future research is also included as well as implication for teaching.

6.1. Summary and findings

This study has aimed to investigate and compare four English textbooks, specifically textbooks for 8th and 10th grade from two different publishers, Gyldendal and Aschehoug. The analysis is conducted by listening to the audio material for all four books, where the purpose is to explore what English varieties are included. Additionally, the investigation also seeks to discover the relation between the use of standard varieties compared to non-standard varieties, gender representation, and accents in regard of geographical context.

6.1.2. English varieties

Research question one and two explores which English varieties are include in Norwegian EFL textbooks, as well as the differentiation in use of standard and non-standard varieties. The results show that the textbooks include more standard varieties than non-standard varieties. It is in total 16 different accents that are used for the audio material. The standard accents included are RP and GA, which has the most instances throughout all of the four textbooks. Furthermore, the non-standard accents that are used are popular London English, Northern English, Scottish English, Irish English, Australian English, New Zealand English, South American English, Welsh English, Jamaican English, South African English, Indian English, Nigerian English, Eastern European English and one accent that is categorised as undecided. To better get an overview of the use of standard and non-standard accents, all accents were categorized within three categories, RP, GA and Other English varieties. The total results show a difference of 74,42% standard varieties and 25,58 % non-standard varieties. So, there are in fact a distinct difference in the use of standard and non-standard. Regarding the comparison of the four books, the *Enter* series are the books that includes the most standard varieties, whereas *Stages* are the books including the most non-standard varieties. This can be challenging since students are exposed to English varieties in a various degree. In addition, the books for 10th grade are the two books with the most usage of standard varieties, compared to the books written for 8th grade.

Students using the *Enter* series are therefore more exposed to standard varieties compare to students using *Stages*. However, it is indeed positive that both publishers include non-standard varieties and that students are exposed to some diversity at school.

The hypothesis regarding standard varieties where that the textbooks used more standard varieties than non-standard. In the light of the findings from the analysis, the results back up underneath this hypothesis and that it is used more standard varieties compared to non-standard.

6.1.3 Gender

Regarding the third research question which explores the the distribution of standard and non-standard varieties and whether they follow a gender-based pattern. The total results show that there is more male representation than there is female representation. The difference is 51,96 % for the male representation and 48, 48,04 % for the female representation. In relation to the three categories, RP, GA and Other English varieties, there are more men speaking RP than there are women, besides *Enter* 10 (2021) where there are more women speaking RP. In regard to, GA and Other English varieties, there are more female representation than male, similarly here, *Enter* 10 (2021) is the exception, where there are more men using GA and other English varieties. That women are using more non-standard English varieties are quite interesting since the common observation amongst the use of language in regard to women, is that they tend to use a more standard varieties than men do. This result, however, can be regarded as split since the result show that men are using more RP and that women are using GA, where both are considered standard. Yet, there are more women using non-standards accent, which again go against the common observation.

The hypothesis concerning if women speak more standard varieties can slightly be backed up by the results, since for all four of the textbooks, women are using an GA or RP accent, which are the accents viewed as standard. Yet, women are also in large degree using non-standard accents, so that the hypothesis can be considered both correct and incorrect.

6.1.4 Geographical context

For the fourth research question which explores what geographical contexts non-standard varieties are used in, are the results revealing that non-standard accents are in a considerable degree used in correlation with geographical context. The results show a total of 75,86 % used in geographical context. In addition to focusing on at the use of non-standard varieties, I wanted to investigate if there was any correlation between standard accents and geographical context as well. The findings shows that GA, similar to, non-standard accents, was foremostly used in correlation with the US. Although, in some instances, GA was used where geographical markers indicated that the story was placed in Norway, UK and Honduras. This was just in a few cases. In spite of this, for most of the instances, GA was used where the location was set in the US. RP, on the other hand, was used in multiple settings and locations, and not used for texts located in the UK. This can be indicating that RP is portrayed as more neutral than GA.

The hypothesis regarding that non-standard accents more used in geographical context can in the light of the findings be stated as correct. Through the analysis, the results revealed that for the majority of the textbooks, most of the textbooks used non-standard accents in correlation with geographical context.

6.2 Pedagogical implications

There can be several possible implications for both teachers and students when textbooks include more standard varieties than non-standard varieties. A possible implication can be that the lack of representation shows the students that some varieties are more "correct" to use than others. Therefore, by including less non-standard varieties at school, can potentially take away the ability for students to gain knowledge and tolerance for the diversity of English varieties that exists within the local and global society. To portray some English varieties as more correct than others could give students an incorrect perspective on how the reality is. The globalized world is built up by a diversity of languages and language varieties that are tied to various cultures and identities. The lack of exposure of English varieties will leave the students with a narrow perspective on English accent, which can build on negative attitudes

and stereotypes. It is important to be aware of the fact that attitudes and stereotypes are learned and socially constructed.

Textbooks is frequently used amongst teachers and are for some teachers, functioning as guide for what is considered essential for students to learn and be exposed to. It is therefore important for teachers to be aware of the content the textbook contains. If textbooks, in addition to, includes less diversity concerning English varieties, teachers would then have to find additional teaching material and sources that increased the exposure of varieties, so that negative attitudes and stereotypical perspectives are worked against. This is time consuming, and teachers would have to be critical towards the additional content.

Students are, increasingly more exposed to the world through the media and are on a daily basis affected by media input. This can be input of various stereotypical portrays of people and cultures, or languages. If the school includes few English varieties and the media shows a narrow perspective, children can be affected and develop negative and stigmatized attitudes.

By viewing some accents as more correct than others, could affect the Norwegian learners by creating unreachable goals in regard of pronunciation. RP and GA are considered standards in the Norwegian setting and has additionally been portrayed as correct. With using more standard varieties in textbooks and in the classroom in general, it might create a picture of how English should be and that everyone should sound like that. That those particular accents are the normality. This can affect not just the pronunciation itself, but also each individual's sense of accomplishment, if they feel like they cannot reach the "expectations" of correct English .

6.3 Future research

Since there are little research on what is included in the audio material for Norwegian English textbooks, it would be interesting, as further research to investigate other English textbooks, written by other publishing houses and authors to see what they include of English varieties. In addition, compare them to the result from *Enter* and *Stages* to see if there are major differences. To be able to compare the textbooks, it can give us an indication on what several publishers and authors see as important for what Norwegian students should be exposed to in

regard of diversity of English accents. It would also be interesting to see if the additional textbooks include more standard or non-standard varieties, linked to the possible indicator of a standard language ideology.

It would also be interesting to look at the books written for 9th grade, by both *Stages* and *Enter*, since they were not selected for this analysis. By investigating the 9th grade books, it would be interesting to see if they include other non-standard varieties than *Stages* and *Enter* had or if they include much of the same accents. Together with looking at the interplay between standard and non-standard, geographical context and gender patterns.

Furthermore, besides investigating the audio material for English textbooks, I believe it would be interesting to interview teachers about their perspectives the use and inclusion of English varieties in the classroom. Specifically, I think it would be interesting to ask teachers about their attitudes and thoughts on the use of standard accents and non-standard accents in relation to language learning and what they preferer using in their classroom.

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