



Faculty of Education and Natural Sciences

Magnus Børresen

Master's thesis

Educational reform: Is LK20 a crossroads for English language teaching in Norway?

Lektorutdanning i språkfag: Engelsk og samfunnsfag

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Sammendrag

Temaet for denne masteroppgaven er læreres meninger om LK20. Den reviderte læreplanen for engelsk i den norske videregående skole og dens implikasjoner for engelsklærere, slik de ser det, er fokuset.

Sett i en kontekst av den globale utviklingen av engelsk, argumenterer jeg for at læreplanens form og innhold er et resultat av en økende innflytelse fra forskningsfeltet som omhandler global engelsk. LK20 markerer til dels et paradigmeskifte bort fra en historisk angloamerikansk dominans i engelskundervisningen i norsk skole. Dette paradigmeskiftet redegjøres for ved å sammenligne LK20 med tidligere oppdateringer av kunnskapsløftet.

Tre lærere i VGS, samtlige med over 10 års undervisningserfaring i engelskfaget, ble intervjuet individuelt. Intervjuene bestod av spørsmål om lærernes erfaring i yrket, deres syn på den utgående og oppdaterte læreplanen og hvordan lærerne trodde endringene kom til å påvirke undervisningen deres. Rollen til angloamerikanske variasjoner av engelsk i engelskundervisning i Norge, og hvordan denne rollen potensielt endres av en styrking av globale variasjoner av engelsk ble også diskutert.

Lærerne var samstemte om at et svekket angloamerikansk fokus var en positiv utvikling. De delte også observasjonen at LK20 ville føre til mer fokus på de faglige temaene i engelskundervisningen deres, og et svakere fokus på eksplisitt språklæring. Det vil derfor bli mindre glosepugging eller grammatikkoppgaver ifølge lærerne. Denne endringen var nødvendig da de anslo at i praksis er engelsk andrespråket til norske videregående elever. Lærerne svarte entydig at amerikansk engelsk er den dominerende varianten av engelsk blant lærere og elever.

Lærerne var sterkt kritiske til det nye eksamensoppsettet. Dette oppsettet kombinert med for vage kompetansemål gjorde lærerne bekymret på vegne av elevene sine. Når kompetansemål blir for åpne for tolkning kommer lærere i Norge til å fokusere på forskjellige faglige temaer mente lærerne. Eksamen er sentralt gitt og vil dermed være identisk for alle elever, og dermed skape urettferdige og uforutsigbare eksamener for elever som har fått forskjellig undervisning.

Abstract

The topic of this master's thesis is teachers' perspectives and perceptions of LK20. The updated English subject curriculum in Norwegian upper-secondary school, and its implications for English teachers, as they see it, is the focus.

Seen in the context of a global development of English, I argue that the structure and content of LK20 is a result of the increasing influence of the WEs research-field. LK20 signifies a shift in paradigm away from Anglo-American dominance in Norwegian ELT. This shift in paradigm is explored by comparing LK20 with previous updates of the *Knowledge Promotion*.

Three upper-secondary teachers, all of whom have more than 10 years of teaching experience in English, were interviewed individually. The interviews consisted of questions about the experiences of the teachers, their views on the previous and updated curriculum, and how the teachers thought the changes would affect their teaching. The position of Anglo-American varieties of English in Norwegian ELT, and how this position could potentially change by a strengthened emphasis on WEs, was also discussed.

The teachers agreed that a weakened Anglo-American emphasis was a positive development. They made a similar observation regarding LK20, stating that it would lead to more focus on topics in ELT, and a reduced focus on explicit language teaching. Consequently, there will be less glossary practice and grammar tasks, according to the teachers. A necessary change, according to the teachers, as they estimated English to practically be an L2 for most Norwegian upper-secondary students. The teachers answered unambiguously that American English was the dominant variety of English among teachers and students.

Strong criticisms of the new exam format were also raised by the teachers. The new format combined with competence aims that are too vague made the teachers worried on their students' behalf. When competence aims are too open to interpretation, teachers in Norway will focus on different topics. The teachers explained that exams will be identical for all students, but how and what students have been taught will not necessarily be identical throughout the country.

Centrally given exams are therefore unfair and unpredictable for students that have been taught differently, according to the teachers.

List and definitions of abbreviations and terminology

ELT – English language teaching

EFL – English as a foreign language

ENL – English as a native language

ESL – English as a second language

NNVE – non-native varieties of English

L1 – First language

A mother tongue.

L2 – Second language

A language learned in addition to the first language. According to (Liu, 2015) English has for instance taken on institutional functions in several countries due to British colonial history (p. 84). English is however not as dominant in these countries as it is in for instance the US or other countries where English is the main language (Liu, 2015, p. 84).

FL – Foreign language

A language is considered foreign to a speaker when it is not commonly spoken in his or her country for intranational communication. English has traditionally been considered a foreign language in Norway but is currently discussed as sliding towards L2 status, in part due to globalization and English having a “somewhat undefined status in Norwegian education” (Johannessen, 2018, p. 19).

ELF- English as a lingua franca

ELF is a term describing the concept of English as an international language, “used among people who do not share a first language” (Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey, 2011, p. 281). A Norwegian speaking English while traveling abroad as a tourist is an example of ELF in practice.

WEs – World ‘Englishes’

Bolton (2006) explains how the term WEs has a range of meanings, but “in the first sense, perhaps, the term functions as an umbrella label referring to a wide range of differing approaches to description and analysis of English(es) worldwide” (p. 240). In the present study, the terms global English and non-native varieties of English is used frequently.

1. Introduction

The topic of this master's thesis is the revised upper-secondary English subject curriculum in Norway and its implications for English teachers (this revision is for the most part addressed as LK20 hereafter). As I show in this thesis, Norwegian educational policy is changing. I explore teachers' perspectives and perceptions about LK20, the latest update to the *Knowledge Promotion*. This is an update I argue is shaped by the global development of English because the Anglo-American dominance is weakened, while the emphasis on global English communication is similarly strengthened.

I put changes made in LK20 in the following context: Anglo-American dominance has not only shaped educational policy, but also teaching practices on the individual level, as the favoring of Anglo-American varieties in ELT persists despite the growing influence of WEs (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 305). English language teaching is a field historically and contemporarily dominated by Anglo-American varieties of English (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 305). I therefore explore how teachers view the updated curriculum in a context where Anglo-American dominance has been, and variably still is the case. This dominance appears to be changing, at least on an educational policy level. How are the teachers responding to the increasing influence of global English? It is essential to study the teachers' views because they are the ones responsible for implementing these changes at a classroom level.

1.1 Thesis aim and research questions.

The main research question for the present study is: *How do upper-secondary teachers in Norway view teaching English with a stronger emphasis on World Englishes than previously?* Data for this main research question was collected in semi-structured qualitative interviews. Three English teachers at upper secondary were individually interviewed. Their perspectives and perceptions about changes made in LK20 and the implications they saw for their teaching practices are elaborated on and discussed in chapters 5 and 6.

Findings collected in this process were of an individual nature and needed to be contextualized by discussing the perspectives of the interviewees in combination with analysis of findings from the WEs- and pedagogical research fields. Providing context on Norwegian ELT before presenting findings from the interviews is key, as I want readers to better understand the social and professional world that the interviewees are part of. To provide context, I give a brief overview of the history of the *Knowledge Promotion*. After this, research, analysis, and discussions on the previous Anglo-American dominance and how it has informed teaching practices in the past and present are discussed. I elaborate on research in the growing field of World Englishes, and how it influenced LK20. These overviews and discussions provide a theoretical framework and context, allowing me to address, analyze and contextualize the findings from the interviews.

1.2 Background

American and British English have been favored and generally considered “prestige models” in ELT (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 305). This is also the case in Norway, as I show in this thesis. However, there appears to be a transition way from the traditional Anglo-American focus as the English subject curriculum in Norway has been subject to reform (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). Unlike the previous English curriculum the UK and the US are not explicitly mentioned in any competence aims in the updated version.

The basis for this master’s thesis is that an Anglo-American dominance has informed Norwegian ELT practices in the past and present, and that the revised English subject curriculum reads as a response to the development of English globally. There now exists a diverse variety of ‘Englishes’ used by non-native speakers of English, outnumbering native speakers of English (Jenkins, 2006, pp. 158-159). This creates a situation where English gradually becomes more defined by its non-native speakers than native speakers (Kirkpatrick, 2010, as cited in Rindal & Piercy, 2013, p. 211). In addition to the issue of Anglo-American emphasis, the way we discuss and define English as a world language or lingua franca has changed.

1.2.1 The global spread of English – monomodel or polymodel in ELT?

There are different models of ELT. LK20 appears to take this into consideration by asking of students to be able to describe the global emergence of English. Take for instance the following competence aim from LK20: “describe key features of the emergence of English as a world language” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). A similar competence aim was also in the outdated curriculum, as elaborated on in chapter 3. “English as a world language” now encompasses all use of English throughout the world, where several varieties of WEs exist, evolve, and are shaped by non-native speakers. As Rindal and Piercy cite Kirkpatrick on (2010, as cited in 2013, p. 211): In a world where there are more non-native speakers of English than native ones, English is gradually becoming more defined by its non-native speakers than native speakers. This is reflected in the LK20, where a shift from ENL-oriented ELT to a stronger emphasis on the English-speaking world is taking place. In terms of content and topics, teachers are free to not focus on the UK or the US anymore (see chapter 3 for elaboration). Moreover, as I argue in this thesis, the changing way society views “world language” influences what context teachers interpret curricula in, hence why “World Englishes” will be a central term in this thesis.

Braj Kachru was concerned about the development of ELF. His perspective of concern was due to the fact that ELF has, in the past, been an attempt to make native varieties of English the norm for non-native speakers to emulate. Supporters of this past practice disagree with Kachru, and favor “the spread of English to mean the spread of native English” (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 308). These supporters of a native speaker norm also consider ELF to contain mistakes in cases where it differs from ENL (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 308). Terms appropriate to describe this divide between researchers like Kachru and his dissidents are polymodel and monomodel. A native speaker norm in ELT falls under the term monomodel (one model). As Rindal and Piercy explained by citing Kirkpatrick (2010, as cited in 2013, p. 211), we live in a world where non-native speakers of English in the expanding circle are the largest group of English speakers. LK20 appears to be taking this into account, and I argue in this thesis that LK20 moves Norwegian ELT in a direction of having a polymodel.

Using a polymodel to analyze the development of English, in the framework of the three concentric circles of English (see section 4.1), where inner, outer, and expanding circle speakers of English represent different varieties of English, global English is not a monolithic singular entity. With this paradigm, “world language” means something different than in a paradigm where ELF is non-native speakers using native varieties of English.

How these changes interact with the way teachers view varieties of English is researched to a certain extent. Research conducted by Jenkins suggested that the average EFL teacher is Anglo-American oriented in the sense of considering Anglo-American varieties of English prestigious (2011, p. 305). These varieties of English have been favored and generally considered “prestige models” (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 305). What are the teachers’ thoughts on the tendency for these varieties to dominate ELT in Norway? Do they perceive a historical and/or current favoring of Anglo-American varieties in Norwegian ELT? How do they view the curriculum update? To put their answers from the interviews in context, one needs to look at the history of the *Knowledge Promotion* first.

2. Method

I have decided to research how Norwegian teachers at upper secondary view LK20. Flick (2017, p. 7) describes the function of qualitative research to not only finding a phenomenon of interest, but to turn said phenomena into something that can be researched. This phenomenon can for example be “a problem or process that is not adequately understood yet and is worth being analyzed, described, compared, or explained” (Flick, 2017, p. 7). I deem the opinions of teachers on LK20 a phenomenon worth exploring. Additionally, I find it crucial to research the historical and contemporary influence of English globally and its potential impact on ELT. In my estimation, this research is crucial to understand the context in which teacher perspectives and educational policy evolve. Research, analysis, and discussions on the previous Anglo-American dominance, and how it has informed teaching practices in the past is a historical aspect of Norwegian ELT I deem important to understand to contextualize the answers given by interviewees.

As mentioned in the introduction, and also covered in depth in the theory chapter (see section 4.3), Anglo-American varieties have been favored and generally considered “prestige models” in English language teaching (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 305). Additionally, this favoring has persisted despite the conception and growth of an ELF-research field (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 305). Understanding this development can be done by providing a contemporary historical overview of the evolution of the *Knowledge Promotion*. This can be described sort of as research of contemporary Norwegian educational history. Historical research is suitable if the aim is to “find out what happened in the past” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p. 174).

“The planning of research depends on the kind(s) of questions being asked or investigated” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 174). The kinds of questions asked in this study regard teacher perspectives and views. More specifically, how do “upper-secondary teachers in Norway view teaching English” under LK20? The present study explores how the interviewees view the updated curriculum, and why they view it that way. Their perspectives, and how they view their

role in implementing educational reform into practice at a classroom level is a research topic suited for a qualitative approach. Cohen et al. describe “interpretive/qualitative approaches” as suitable if the researcher wants “to understand a situation” (2018, p. 174). Through this research, I want to understand teacher perspectives, hence why I use a qualitative method, more specifically semi-structured interviews. One of the common features of qualitative research is analysis of the experiences of individuals or groups. Experiences related to personal experiences or for instance professional practices (Flick, 2017, p. 5).

Exploring how the interviewees make meaning of and take decisions under an updated curriculum necessitates room for an individual format. As Flick (2017, p. 547) writes: “A qualitative approach to research inquiry in general aims to privilege the exploration and understanding of how individuals make meaning within their social world”. To contextualize and understand their social world, I use a mixed method approach (MMR). In this paper, I provide a literature review of the WEs and ELF research field and a contemporary historical overview of the development of ELT in Norway. This combination of methods enables the reader to better understand the social world of teachers. The methods complement each other to provide a more complete picture of Norwegian ELT in the past and present.

2.1 Mixed method research - MMR

Exploring teacher perspectives regarding the curriculum changes within an “Anglo-American versus WEs-paradigm” necessitates a customized research framework. “Mixed methods projects seek to tackle complex research questions that do not easily fit into a prior design template, which is especially the case with qualitative approaches to mixed methods inquiry” (Flick, 2017, p. 547). I combine qualitative interviews, research analysis and historical analysis to explore teacher perspectives on a curriculum revision still not fully implemented. There were no prior design templates for research I could find for the kind of research questions I wanted to ask. Hence why I use a multi-faceted approach in an attempt to get a decent understanding of the

complete picture, or as Cohen et al. describes as an advantage of using MMR, getting a more complete understanding of both the “whole and its constituent parts” (Cohen et al, p. 33, 2018).

How ELT in Norway and Norwegian educational policy has evolved is suitable to analyze by using the method of historical analysis. Historical analysis in this context means analyzing and discussing the standing of Anglo-American varieties of English in Norwegian ELT, and how this standing has changed, or not changed, over the years. Drawing parallels from research from other EFL-countries could also prove useful, as it appears common sense for Danish or Swedish English teachers to have at least some similar experiences and observations as their Norwegian colleagues. Pedagogical implications of research falling under the WEs-paradigm, and how researchers have changed these implications as the role of English in the world has evolved is also a part of this historical analysis.

If I were to utilize a mono-method, and strictly cover this historical development through asking the interviewees about it, it could be a limitation of this research: “It is claimed that MMR enables a more comprehensive and complete understanding of phenomena to be obtained than single methods approaches and answers complex research questions more meaningfully” (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 33). One interviewee may have had an Australian teacher in English in elementary school, and a teacher with an international variety of English in upper-secondary school. “Anglo-American dominance” in Norwegian ELT would be an unfamiliar experience for this interviewee. In the grand scheme of things, this teacher would be a statistical outlier, as the favoring of Anglo-American varieties in EFL classrooms has persisted despite globalization (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 305).

Having an interviewee with an uncommon experience, such as an having Australian teaching in English is not a problem in and of itself. But when I utilize qualitative interviews to explore teacher perspectives, the statistical basis is weakened. It might skew my research if half of my interviewees say they have not experienced an Anglo-American dominance throughout their education. The statistical reality in Norway might differ. Their perspective on the updated

curriculum is as valid as any Norwegian teacher, but their experiences in Norwegian ELT may not be statistically representative. That is why MMR is useful, to give a “more complete understanding of phenomena” (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 33). The lived experience of any interviewee is valid and important but being able to nuance and explain how statistically significant said experiences are, strengthens the research. Hence why I analyze and discuss findings in WEs-research and pedagogical research to strengthen assertions made in the research.

The research field of WEs will be covered in the present thesis by providing a literature review of the WEs and ELF-research field. The link between methodologies and research design is crucial to demonstrate. “Central to the development of mixed methods research inquiry is the need for mixed methods researchers to demonstrate the link between their methodologies (theoretical perspectives) and research design (data collection, analytical, and interpretive methods/ techniques)” (Flick, 2017, p. 546). The purpose of MMR is to give a broader understanding “of a phenomenon than a single approach would yield” (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 4, as cited in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 32). It therefore consists of different aspects of both quantitative and qualitative approaches concerning “perspectives, data collection and data analysis” (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 4, as cited in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 32). As previously mentioned, this means using qualitative interviews to understand how the teachers “make meaning within their social world” (Flick, 2017, p. 547). As mentioned in section 1.1, findings collected in this process are of an individual nature and needs to be contextualized. That is achieved by discussing the perspectives of the interviewees in combination with analysis of findings from the WEs- and pedagogical research fields. MMR gives a more complete understanding of a phenomenon by “focusing on the whole *and* its constituent parts” (Cohen et al, p. 33, 2018). The English teachers is one constituent part. Research covering historical and contemporary trends regarding WEs, pedagogy and educational reform is the ‘whole’ in the present study, when combined with the views and perspectives of teachers.

2.1.1 MMR – Safeguard against confirmation bias?

MMR does not only strengthen the research in the form of versatility by offering different data gathering methods on the same phenomenon, but it also increases the opportunity to make unexpected discoveries. Research bias is reduced by MMR because the use of several methods increases opportunities to find unexpected results (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 32). There are other mechanisms to avoid confirmation bias. Rigorous quality control within each method of data-gathering is also crucial. For instance:

“The qualitative interviewer is not a passive recipient of information but needs to be active in checking what the interviewee is saying, watching for inconsistencies, encouraging fuller detail where a story is incomplete and generally keeping the research aims in mind throughout the process”. (Coolican, 2014, p. 177)

In the context of interviews from this research that could mean asking for elaboration when uncertainty arises regarding what the interviewee is trying to communicate, despite one’s own certainty of having the correct interpretation. King, Horrocks & Brooks write about another aspect of qualitative interviewing relevant in this context:

“In qualitative studies it is not uncommon for the researcher to feel that the research question is shifting as the study progresses [...] Qualitative research always has (to some degree) an exploratory character, and as such it is inevitable that sometimes a project will move in directions that are of relevance to the research topic but outside of the scope of the original research questions”. (2019, p. 55)

The aims going into the interviews might be different from the aims after. Interviewees might raise other issues related to the initial research questions. Being fixated on the initial research question(s) may therefore be a hindrance to utilizing data gathered in qualitative interviews to the fullest. The interviewees could challenge the premise of the present study in such a way that the research aim changes. Enabling this opportunity to exist is key.

Central to the premise of my research questions is that the curriculum has changed in a more global direction, and that it used to be more Anglo-American oriented. The historical research and analysis of previous research inform that view. The interviewees however offer an opportunity to test said premise. They can agree, disagree, and give nuance to the premise.

2.2 Qualitative interviews

What kinds of questions to ask and how to phrase them?

The design of an interview guide and decisions made throughout the process can be consequential for the end product (King et al., 2019, p. 70). Important to keep in mind when designing qualitative research is awareness of one's position in the social world that is being researched (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 302).

“Reflexivity suggests that researchers should consciously and deliberately acknowledge, interrogate and disclose their own selves in the research, seeking to understand their part in, and influence on, the research. Rather than trying to eliminate researcher effects (which is impossible, as researchers are part of the world that they are investigating)”. (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 303).

My current occupation (substitute teaching) is one of close proximity to my interviewees. Researcher bias is normal as qualitative and quantitative research are not neutral activities (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 302). I interpret LK20 as a change in a more globally oriented direction. I disclose this interpretation in the introduction chapter. Furthermore, I argue why I believe that to be the case by referencing former versions of the curriculum compared to the updated one in the third chapter. As a fifth-year teacher-student, soon to become a formally qualified teacher, it is difficult to fully compartmentalize the different roles I have: “Researchers may so closely identify with their participants that they do not maintain a professional distance but instead report and interpret everything from their participants' perspectives” (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015, p. 97). This quotation is from a context in which the tension between professional distance and personal friendships between researcher and participants are problematized.

It would be disingenuous for me to pretend that I have not anecdotally experienced a certain sense of common ground and collegial solidarity through shared experiences between teachers. Not to say that the profession only attracts similar personality types where everyone are close personal friends. Maintaining a healthy level of awareness concerning the possibility of a nationwide collegial bond of solidarity between educators is an ethical consideration to keep in mind.

To counteract my perspective putting too much of a stamp on the research, I strive to design non-leading interview questions. These sorts of questions are a result of wording that suggests to the interviewees what the appropriate or anticipated response is (King et al., 2019, p. 81).

Furthermore, I need to make sure that I gather and analyze the data as a researcher, not a teacher. A good way to enable this is to remove all uncertainties during the interviews. Thus, minimizing the risk of having to interpret answers that are more unclear than they need to be, potentially altering the data with my interpretation. It would for instance potentially jeopardize the validity and ethics of the research if I found an answer ambiguous and unconsciously interpreted it as something I deemed more flattering for the participants out of collegial sympathy. It is a researcher's job to constantly look for inconsistencies and incomplete answers during qualitative interviews (Coolican, 2014, p. 177). It is therefore not enough to merely design good questions, you need to enable the participants to give clear and straightforward answers "while keeping the research aims in mind throughout the process" (Coolican, 2014, p. 177).

Here are two questions illustrating how different questions can yield different results:

More neutral:

1. What is your opinion on the updated English curriculum?

More biased:

1. Do you agree that the updated English curriculum has changed in a more global direction? How so?

How to phrase questions to remove perceived bias among participants brings us the matter of ethical considerations: The questions themselves is not the only thing to consider. The question of how much of the research aims you should disclose to the participants before the interviews, and how you as a researcher present yourself matters, as is discussed in the next section.

2.2.1 Ethical considerations:

I am interested in researching “how teachers view teaching English under a curriculum with a stronger emphasis on World Englishes than previously”? The interviewees may not agree with that premise. One wants the participants to give sincere answers. Disclosing to the participants my interpretation of how the curriculum has changed is admitting bias. Do I conceal this view until after the interviews are conducted in order to get authentic answers? These approaches are at odds with each other. This consideration is an ethical one.

“How does one present oneself in the field?” (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 305). What is the correct balance between deception and honesty in research? Proponents of concealing one’s views argue that it “is the only way to discover something of real importance, the truth so discovered is worth the lies told in the process so long as no harm comes to the participants” (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 132). If I disclose the premise of the main research question at the end of the interview, not before, and explain to the interviewee that I did not disclose this initially to get truthful answers, that might increase the acceptance for said approach. Strengthening the research by enabling participants to critique it freely is important. Is it better to allow the teachers to agree or disagree with the premise of the research question in a setting where they do not feel compelled to give certain answers, answers they suspect the researcher wants? Avoiding social desirability bias is important as you risk the respondents telling “you about the attitudes they think they ought to have, rather than the ones they actually do have “ (Garrett, 2010, p. 44).

Enabling participants to speak freely increases the likelihood of making unexpected discoveries (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 32). Opinion questions are one way to achieve this. The difference between asking for the interviewees' opinion instead of asking them whether or not they agree with my opinion is an important difference. Reflexivity is a strategy of acknowledging one's role in the research and bring validity to the research by examining and disclosing the researchers influence on the research (Cohen et al, 2018, p. 302). Researchers recognizing biases and attempting to neutralize them by awareness is crucial, and in this particular case it is done by avoiding leading interview questions. "Monitoring self-perceptions and values" is one of several aspects needed to accurately represent data (Flick, 2017, p. 40). Other aspects mentioned relevant to this research are "having sustained involvement in the community" [...] and "using multiple data sources" (Flick, 2017, p. 40). These elements are mentioned in the context of what characterizes ethical research, specifically how data is gathered in an ethically sound manner.

"No amount of post-experimental gentleness is as effective in relieving a subject's discomfort as an honest accounting of the experimenter's own discomfort in the situation" (Aronson and Carlsmith, 1969, pp. 31-32, as cited in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 133). In the context of this research that can mean the following: Disclosing to the participant that their views on LK20 do not align with mine, at the end of the interview, is also uncomfortable for the researcher. The interviewee can potentially feel ambushed and wonder why this was not disclosed. I can then argue that I wanted to circumvent any potential conflict-shyness in the form of participants not wanting to contradict the researcher face to face, avoiding social desirability bias. As mentioned, it is not comfortable for me either to have my premise contradicted but I still take steps to facilitate it seeing how it strengthens my research and potentially takes my research in another direction by weakening the initial thesis. If the interviewees do not agree that the curriculum has been taken in a more global direction, the research question might end up being: "Educational reform: How do upper-secondary teachers in Norway view teaching English under the updated English subject curriculum?"

Flick (2017, p. 45) describes how the researcher revealing hers or his role as that, a researcher, can change willingness to participate or change the results of interviews with said participants. If

I, as the researcher, reveal up front that I view LK20 as a move in a more global direction, and additionally frame it as something positive or negative, potential participants can view me as a researcher engaging in confirmation bias. If they perceive there to be an Overton window in the discourse of educational policy, ergo an ‘acceptable’ range of answers, answers conforming to the perspective of the researcher (me), it invalidates the findings. Once again, as Cohen et al. debates: “How does one present oneself in the field?” Asks Cohen et al. (2018, p. 305).

As discussed previously in this chapter, my role is one of close proximity to the interviewees, which can lead to bias. There are however advantages to being a teacher-student with substitute-teaching experience doing teacher research. Teachers have extensive and close contact with the classroom, and thus have more data available from authentic classroom situations than any outside researcher (Borg & Sanchez, 2015, p. 5). Reflexivity in this context does not exclusively mean watching out for and minimizing biases but utilizing the proximity I have to the participants to my advantage. For instance, teaching 15 hours a week will hopefully enable me to easily recognize classroom phenomena and tendencies the participants describe, that may not resonate with an outside researcher that would have to spend more time asking follow-up questions during the interviews.

One common criticism of teacher research is that it is often conducted by “teachers working in universities rather than in schools” (Borg & Sanchez, 2015, p. 8). That is not the case in the present study. This could also make it more difficult for me to distance myself from my experiences to examine the answers participants give critically. If their answers resonate with my lived experience, I may not be as critical and explorative as I need to be in the interviews. This is also a challenge for the interviewees themselves. “It can be difficult for teachers to achieve the distance from their experience that is required to examine it critically” (Borg & Sanchez, 2015, p. 5). I am not observing the teachers teach. I am interviewing them, where they tell me how they teach. There is a possibility of a disconnect between how the interviewees and their students experience the same lessons. Another risk is interviewees modifying their answers because of social desirability bias.

2.2.2 Interview guide:

Questions regarding background/demographics, feelings, knowledge, opinions, experience are other examples often used in qualitative research depending on what the research aim is (King et al., p. 65, 2019). The questions are categorically organized. There is overlap and interconnection between the categories and questions as some answers show. All follow-up questions were contingent on the type of answers the interviewees gave. If the interviewees elaborated on their own initiative most of the follow ups became redundant. For instance, one of the teachers, T2, was asked an unscripted question regarding the three concentric circles model (see section 6.2).

I made the decision to conduct the interviews in English. The interviewees were made aware of this before booking the interviews. My reasoning for insisting on the interviews being conducted in English was due to the nature of my questions. As the interview guide shows, several of the questions ask about the English-speaking preferences of teachers and students. If neither the teacher nor the students speak English in their everyday teaching, those questions become moot. One of the questions in the interview is about how the teacher thinks his/her variety of English influences how students speak English. If there were no oral English communication in the classroom of the interviewees that question would have remained unanswered. I reckoned that teachers that felt comfortable speaking English with me were more likely to feel comfortable speaking English in class with their students. Those teachers could answer all the questions I had set out to collect data on. I would have offered the option of conducting the interviews in Norwegian if I was to interview students.

2.2.3 Data collection

The interviews were conducted in person and recorded using the *Dictaphone* android app. The Norwegian name for the app is “Nettskjema-Diktafon”. UiO (The University of Oslo) is the developer of the app. The app had a time-limit for how long the recordings could be. This caused some issues, as elaborated on in the “Limitations” section: 6.1.3. All three interviews were

conducted in English and transcribed secretary style. Approval from NSD, the consent and informational form sent out to the teachers, the interview guide, and an excerpt from transcription of the first interview can be found in appendices.

Citations by the teachers are clearly marked with T1, T2, or T3 throughout the text. Their genders are not specified for the purpose of protecting their anonymity. They are cited over 400 times, hence why simple parentheses such as (T1) is used to specify which teacher is cited. Including page number and year would have made the text cluttered, and there is not room to include all three transcriptions, each consisting north of 20 pages, in the 80-100 page total guideline, hence why using footnotes to reference page numbers does not make sense either.

2.3 Limitations

Outlined here are the main limitation of the present study. There are likely to be other less significant limitations than the one outlined here, but these are the most important ones as I see them.

2.3.1 Qualitative interviews.

The strength of the data collection method in the present study does not come in form of hundreds of participants. It comes from the interviewees having a forum to elaborate on why they view LK20 and WEs the way they do. The lack of numbers is a source of limitation in this context. It is possible that if I were to interview ten teachers instead of three, that I would get different results. The additional seven could have disagreed with the other three in several interview sections, changing the findings of this research. Those seven could have been fierce advocates for a native speaker norm in Norwegian ELT. The findings among the original three would still remain valid. Their experience and views are valid as upper-secondary teachers in English, which is the group whose views this master's thesis explore. In a scenario with ten

interviewees the views of the initial three interviewees would however be a minority view. This is a weakness of MMR too, as my utilization of said method gave me less time to conduct more interviews. It took two months to get three participants after numerous rejections by teachers swamped by digital homeschooling due to the pandemic. Getting to conduct 10 interviews were not feasible despite it being an interesting alternative.

Different and contrasting views on LK20 could have been revealed by having more interviewees. The three teachers did, however echo several of the same sentiments, almost identical in wording, so there is also a case to be made that adding more interviewees would have produced similar results.

2.3.2 American born interviewees

The interview guide contained the following question in the personal preferences and experience section: “What varieties of English do you recall your English teachers speaking?”. Two of the teachers were born in the USA. This made the following question redundant. However, they had valuable observations on their Norwegian peers that were closer to the retirement-age than themselves. The question was there by design to get qualitative data on a historical British English dominance among teachers in Norwegian ELT, either proving or disproving said dominance. How teachers who themselves were students in Norway during this era think British English shaped them as speakers was something I wanted to explore. Unfortunately, I did not get to do that.

Two of the interviewees being American born did not only cause a limitation, but it also gave the present study a refreshing perspective. As shown in chapter 6.4.1, the two teachers that brought up the importance of keeping languages separate was the American born ones. Saving the Norwegian language from English can sound like a thing only Norwegians would worry about. But it was the Americans that worried most about the trend of English influencing on the

Norwegian language. This illustrates that it is possible to enjoy one's native language being a lingua franca without wanting it to infiltrate and replace other languages.

2.3.3 Time constrained interviews

As the second interview was conducted, I, as a researcher kept in mind that a co-student had lost his/her entire interview recording using the same app as I was using. As the second interview progressed, I realized that there was a time limit for how long a recording could be in the Dictaphone app. This led to me not asking as many improvised follow-up questions as I would have wanted, because I did not exactly know what would happen once the time limit was hit. T2 brought up issues that I had not considered directly, and they would have been valuable to explore further in the same recording. Some of those issues are explored briefly in suggestions for future research. The interview with T1 had progressed according to plan, so the time-limit was not an issue I had to consider during the first interview. Hence why I was ambushed by the problem when it arose during the second interview. T2 brought up more related issues on his/her own. One example of this is T2 suggesting that the countries belonging to the three concentric circles of English could in fact belong to the same circle, one big circle of English speakers.

I should have kept a level head and realized that I simply could have stopped the recording and started a new one, dividing the second interview into two recordings. I did not know the app well enough to consider this option. In the moment, I reckoned that I risked continuing paying attention to teacher 2 without noticing that the time limit was hit. This would have led to several minutes of the interview going unrecorded. Looking at the screen to make sure time did not run out would steal attention in my estimation, which I deemed undesirable.

3. The English subject curriculum

In this chapter, the main focus is how LK20 differs from previous versions of the *Knowledge Promotion* in the wording of competence aims. “The English-speaking world” reoccurs in several competence aims, and the UK and the US are not explicitly mentioned anymore, as they were in the previous versions of the *Knowledge Promotion*. This change is elaborated on in section 3.2.1.

In the present study, I discuss and compare the English subject curricula for all three upper-secondary years (this includes the compulsory English subject for VG1, but also the selective programmes English 1 and English 2. This includes English subjects in upper-secondary schools essentially both pre and post LK20. As I argue, the overall composition LK20 is a weakening of the Anglo-American focus in favor of a broader more global focus. I have data on English teachers in VG1, VG2 and VG3 (Year one, year two and year three of upper secondary education in Norway). I have therefore decided to cover the overall content of the previous subject curricula and did so with the interviewees too (Instead of narrowing it down to one single subject or age group).

The curriculum informs what teachers have to cover throughout the school year. The English subject curriculum, both in its current and previous forms is referenced frequently in the interviews. To fully understand what the interviewees talked about concerning for instance materials, activities, or assessment, information about both the old and the new versions of the *Knowledge Promotion* is needed to make their answers understandable.

3.1 Curriculum reform: The evolution of the *Knowledge Promotion*

LK20 is the third revision of the *Knowledge Promotion*. It was first “published in 2006 and revised in 2010 and 2013” (Fenner, 2018, p. 34). In 2006, at its publishing, the most significant change the *Knowledge Promotion* marked, was that learning aims had “been replaced by wide

competence aims” (Fenner, 2018, p. 34). This gave teachers the freedom to choose materials and methods in their English teaching. Take the core curriculum, VG1 curriculum for English in the LK13 version, for instance. This version contained several “wide competence aims”. Here are four examples, one from each main subject area of competence aims:

- Language learning: “evaluate and use different situations, working methods and learning strategies to further develop one’s English-language skills” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).
- Oral communication “evaluate and use suitable listening and speaking strategies adapted for the purpose and the situation” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).
- Written communication: “understand the main content and details in texts of varying length about different topics” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).
- Culture, society and literature: “discuss and elaborate on different types of English language literary texts from different parts of the world” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).

These four competence aims are similar in the sense that they emphasize ‘bildung’ (danning in Norwegian). The competence aims illustrate the ambition of the Directorate for Education and Training to shape citizens to learn how to acquire and develop knowledge, understanding and skills on their own. In LK20, the emphasis on bildung is maintained, but it is called “all-round education” in the translated version of LK20 (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). Equipping students to acquire and develop competence on their own is done through facilitating deep learning in education (NOU 2015: 8, p. 10).

“A government-initiated committee, the Ludvigsen committee [...] was to respond to what kind of competences students will need to have 20 to 30 years ahead in time” (Burner, 2020, p. 53). The committee made several recommendations that influenced LK20, some of which included narrowing down the number of competence aims, more focus on deep learning and cross-

curricular topics and teaching (Burner, 2020, p. 53). The committee wrote in “The School of the Future”:

“The most important point of a competence is its application, in other words, the capacity to use and apply knowledge and skills to master challenges and solve problems. The knowledge and understanding pupils have of what they have learnt, how they can use what they have learnt and when to use it, play an important part in acquiring competence. Thus the development of competence and in-depth learning are closely linked, the acquisition of competence requires in-depth learning”. (NOU 2015: 8, p. 10)

Aiming for deep learning signifies an ambition of for instance creating productive and reflected participants in Norwegian democracy and society. This is exemplified with the following citation: “Language and cultural competence promote the general education perspective and strengthen democratic involvement and co-citizenship” (Fenner, 2020. p. 34).

Equipping students to learn, reflect and think critically on their own are part of what ‘bildung’, or all-round education entails. How one goes about doing this is up to the teachers, as “no specific ways of teaching are stated in the curriculum” (Fenner, 2020, p. 37). A certain level of freedom by “wide competence aims” and emphasis on ‘bildung’ remains similar throughout the three updates to the *Knowledge Promotion*. Certain values in the *Knowledge promotion* remain throughout different revisions. There are however notable changes made throughout the revisions too.

Firstly, the updates to the *Knowledge Promotion* can be argued to be responses to accelerating global societal changes. The influence and spread of the internet began accelerating during the 2000s. Digital skills became a basic skill in Norwegian schools after 2006 (Fenner, 2020, p. 34). “Most students are now equipped with personal computers and laptops from the time they start school at the age of six [...] Digitization has thus changed the English subject in a number of ways” (Fenner, 2020, p. 35).

Another fairly recent development from a historical perspective is English becoming a lingua franca. “Because of this function as a transnational lingua franca, the status of English in the world is increasingly characterized by those who use it as a second or later language, rather than by its native speakers” (Kirkpatrick, 2010, as cited in Rindal & Piercy, 2013, p. 211). The global development of English, the content of LK20 and the timing of its implementation makes it possible to draw a parallel to for instance digitalization of society and how it changed ELT in Norway. The parallel is that societal changes shape educational reform, both in the form of digitization and linguistic globalization.

3.2 The revised Curriculum – LK20

The recent update to the English subject curriculum is a revision of the *Knowledge Promotion*, also called LK06. The English Subject is considered one of the core subjects along with Norwegian and Mathematics (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). The *Knowledge Promotion* forms the basis for what teachers must base their teaching practices on (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). As of this moment, the updates are being gradually implemented. The recent revision applies to first year upper-secondary students in the fall of 2020. These very same learners will be the first to be taught the second-year curriculum next fall, in 2021, and the third year-curriculum in the fall of 2022 (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020).

One change that is particularly relevant for this thesis, is the change of summative assessment. Summative assessment practices in the English subject have been changed in upper-secondary school, and instead of having oral and written grades separated, these two have been merged to one. “This means that oral and written communication are to count equally (Burner, 2020, p. 55). As elaborated on in the findings section 5.2 , two of the teachers noted that several students were more proficient in oral communication in English than in written communication.

3.2.1 A weakened emphasis on the United Kingdom and the United States of America

LK20 consists of new competence aims which I argue place more emphasis on ELF while diminishing the Anglo-American dominance. The Anglo-American dominance is not only linguistic, but it takes form in what sort of topics the curriculum emphasizes. By topics, I mean the social studies aspect of the English subjects. There is a difference between teaching grammar and discussing political systems in countries while communicating in English with students. These topics have in the past been for instance specific countries or regions, and their political systems and historical development. The *Knowledge Promotion* in its previous versions was more specific in mentioning countries or regions for teachers to focus on in their teaching.

Here are two examples of competence aims illustrating said Anglo-American dominance from the outdated curriculum from two programme subjects in the Education Programme for Specialization in General Studies:

Social studies in English:

“elaborate on and discuss political issues and systems in the English-speaking world, with a special focus on Great Britain and the United States” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).

English literature and culture:

“elaborate on and discuss the cultural position of the United States and Great Britain in the world today, and the background for the same” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).

These competence aims illustrate the fact that ENL-speaking countries, or inner circle countries were the main focus of the previous versions of the *Knowledge Promotion* when it came to not only linguistic emphasis, but also topics.

English 2, one of the new programme subjects consists of two similar competence aims. The Anglo-American emphasis, however, is gone:

- “Explore and discuss some English-speaking countries’ linguistic, cultural and political influence globally” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020).
- “Compare and convey societal and political conditions in two English speaking countries in a historical context” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020).

Teachers can continue teaching students about the UK and the US as previously without being accused of ignoring LK20: The difference is that they are no longer obligated to focus on said countries. They get more freedom to choose. This change is also true for English as a common core subject for first graders in general studies and second grade vocational students. These changes will affect all students because English is a compulsory subject for upper-secondary students in Norway.

There are also a slight rewording of related competence aims, broadening the focus. For instance, the previous curriculum stated: “Discuss cultural and societal conditions in several English-speaking countries” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). The closest equivalent in the updated curriculum says: “Explore and reflect on diversity and societal conditions in the English-speaking world” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). As with the programme subjects, the wording of competence aims draw focus to the English-speaking world, not English-speaking countries, as it used to do before.

It needs to be said however that previous versions of the *Knowledge Promotions* for upper secondary schools were not strictly Anglo-American-oriented seeing how these versions also consisted of competence aims broadening the scope beyond the Anglo-American focus. The following competence aim for instance drew secondary focus to outer circle countries: “give examples of other varieties of English than those that are used in the Anglo-American core area,

and reflect on their distinctive character” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013). This competence aim was from the programme subject *International English*.

In LK20, the scope is broadened beyond the outer circle, including the expanding circle from Kachru’s model (see section 4.1). No specific countries are mentioned in LK20, and as mentioned previously, the phrasing “the English-speaking world” is prevalent (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020).

3.2.2 Implications and challenges for teachers

“In an increasingly globalised world, English has become the foremost global language of communication [...] Because of this function as a transnational lingua franca, the status of English in the world is increasingly characterized by those who use it as a second or later language, rather than by its native speakers”. (Kirkpatrick, 2010, as cited in Rindal & Piercy, 2013, p. 211)

English speakers in the expanding circle are increasingly shaping the English language. Not only are ELF and WEs speakers shaping the English language, but they are also outnumbering ENL speakers (Jenkins, 2006, pp. 158-159). Consequently, definitions and terminology describing the use of English in different contexts become less accurate.

For instance, as discussed in section 3.2.1, difficulties in defining and categorizing different groups of English speakers arise. “Problems of definition are becoming acute” (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). They are becoming acute in part because of how we traditionally define an L2 appears to be changing. English is discussed as sliding towards L2 status in Norwegian education (Johannessen, 2018, p. 19). The function of English in Norway differs from the function English serves in former British Colonies. In these countries, English is used for intranational communication, or the countries have their own “institutionalised variety of English” that is norm-creating (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). The biggest group of English speakers, non-native

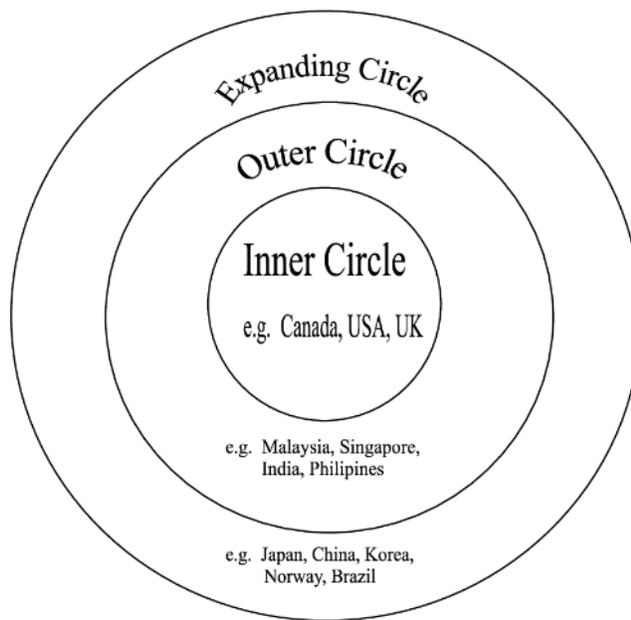
speakers of English, the group Norwegians belong to, is increasingly difficult to define and describe accurately using established terminology. Johannesen captured this difficulty in definition when explaining that English is emphasized as being an essential school subject in Norway. English is one of the core subjects despite the English language having no official or institutional status in Norway. Consequently, English has a “somewhat undefined status in Norwegian education” (Johannesen, 2018, p. 19).

The increasing fluidity of how we define and view what an L2 is, is something brought up by the teachers in the interviews (see section 5.1.1). The teachers said that English is an L2 in Norway in practice, and they interpreted LK20 to acknowledge this. A teachers’ ability to interpret LK20 is crucial according to Burner. He writes: “First of all, even more so than earlier, there will be a demand for competent English teachers when it comes to realizing the intentions of the curriculum” (Burner, 2020, p. 57). Burner elaborated by saying that this did not mean a longer formal education. ‘Competent’ meant teachers being skilled interpreters and implementers of the curriculum reform at a classroom level. Doing this right means correctly interpreting the competence aims to ask for deep learning and cross-curricular teaching of topics, but also teaching more “topic related” in the subject of English, “with the other subject teachers” (Burner, 2020, p. 57). This reads as a move towards less focus on explicit ELT, to more focus on teaching topics in English.

4. Theoretical framework

The Three Circle Model of World Englishes by Braj Kachru will be used as a framework to analyze LK20. “The Handbook of World Englishes” is a collection of articles written by different specialists in the linguistic field covering the WEs research field. Three of these chapters are cited in the present study. To contextualize the place of ELF in the WE-paradigm, and its effect on educational reform, delving into ELF-research will be necessary. Research by Jennifer Jenkins, and research co-authored by Jenkins together with Alessia Cogo & Martin Dewey are sources I cite frequently. This research covers the pedagogical implications of ELF explicitly.

4.1 Kachru - The Three Concentric Circles Model



(Caine, 2008, p. 3).

The Three Concentric Circles Model was introduced by linguist and author Braj Kachru in 1985, and consists of the inner, outer, and expanding circles (Liu, 2015, p. 84). Kachru defined the inner circle as countries considered traditional bases of English, “dominated by the mother-tongue varieties” (Liu, 2015, p. 84).). These countries are Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK, and the US. The outer circle consists of countries where English has typically taken on institutional functions due to colonial history but do not have the same dominant position as that of the US or the UK (Liu, 2015, p. 84). In these former British colonies, English is often either used for intranational communication, or the use of English within them are norm-creating and institutionalized (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). The expanding circle is the rest of the world, where English is a foreign language (Liu, 2015, p. 84).

WEs-scholars such as Kachru offer a perspective where concern is expressed for ELF being an attempt to impose monolithic English on non-native speakers of English. Kachru’s school of thought aligns with points made by researchers such as Jenkins, et al.(2011, pp. 283-284). They describe key features of modern ELF as: “belonging to the WEs paradigm and seeing differences between native and non-native Englishes not as deficiencies of the former”, but something to be “explored as emerging or potential features of ELF”. In this school of thought, non-native speakers of English “are no longer ‘failed native speakers’, but – more often – highly skilled communicators who make use of their multilingual resources in ways not available to monolingual native speakers of English” (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 284). On the opposing side of this divide are those who favor “the spread of English to mean the spread of native English”, and also consider ELF to contain mistakes when it diverges from ENL (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 308). In 1992, Kachru recognized “the legitimacy of modern English varieties” in an international community of English speakers (Rindal & Piercy, 2013, p. 211). The author of the model, Kachru recognized in 1992 that the relevance of the model was changing. I have decided to use it as a historical framework as there was a time when the model was not outdated. Issues with contemporary use of the model is elaborated on in section 4.1.1.

World Englishes is a linguistic paradigm and field of study into different varieties of English across the globe, where the main focus is on the largest group of speakers, non-native speakers of

English (Jenkins et al., 2011, pp. 283-284). Both concepts are central to studies into the function and form of English globally and appear in some form in most research in the linguistic field of global English. Using the framework of Kachru, and thus embracing his WEs paradigm requires research where both native and non-native varieties of English are studied, using a polymodel, a central characteristic of “Kachruvian” philosophy (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 661). As noted in the background 1.2, the premise for this thesis is to explore how teachers view LK20, a revision I argue places stronger emphasis on WEs and have therefore moved in a more ‘Kachruvian’ direction.

WEs is a term for all different varieties of English, whereas ELF is a term describing the concept of English as an international language, “especially used among people who do not share a first language” (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 281). The wide umbrella of schools of thought and different views in the ELF-field necessitates a more thorough breakdown and analysis of these different views to provide nuance to the ELF-debate and my decision to use Kachru’s model. The use of the model in this thesis is nuanced by shedding light on the for instance increasingly acute difficulty of definition between different groups of English speakers (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). Data collected in the present study allows for a discussion on the changing applicability of the model.

4.1.1 Criticisms of the three concentric circles of English model

Graddol explained how it is difficult to define and count the number of native English speakers in for instance the inner circle countries: “Even in those countries such as Britain and the US where the linguistic culture is often described as monolingual, it is clear that a significant proportion of the population speak languages other than English as their first language” (2019, p. 155). He problematizes the very concept of a native speaker. These difficulties of defining arise in the inner circle countries, the ones where English clearly has the most dominant position. One can then ask how difficult it is to define speakers in outer and expanding circle countries where there are even more languages spoken to blur the lines. Graddol elaborates on the difficulty of definition in outer and expanding circle countries later in the same article.

How we traditionally define what an L2 means does not cover how English is used in many contexts. The two definitions Graddol (2019) mentions are: Firstly; English being officially recognized in a country and being used for intranational communication (p. 165). Secondly, L2 speech can be defined “as one which is ‘norm creating’ – that is, developing its own institutionalised variety of English” (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). The second example is typically the case for former British Colonies according to Graddol (2019, p. 165). This is an apt description of outer circle countries in Kachru’s model.

Those two examples do not cover the situation in Norway. The improving English proficiency in Norway makes it harder to differentiate between outer and expanding circle countries. “Problems of definition are becoming acute, as English takes on a role as a global lingua franca” (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). Attempting to define the role and use of English at a national and international level create difficulties. The lines are blurred. English is discussed in Norway as sliding towards a second language status and has a “somewhat undefined status in Norwegian education” (Johannessen, 2018, p. 19). Blurred lines and the undefined status of languages creates difficulties in using terminology accurately. An example of this is the issue of norm-setting within the framework of the three concentric circles of English model.

Former British colonies where English is the dominant language are inner circle countries in Kachru’s model. These countries are Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand (and the former colonizer herself, the UK). These former colonies are *norm-providing*. These are not the former British colonies Graddol was talking about in the context of the traditional definition of ESL. English is an L1 in these countries. Former colonies like for instance Nigeria, India, or South Africa are considered outer circle countries in the three concentric circles model. In these countries, English serves one or both of the traditional functions that define ESL according to Graddol: English being used for intranational communication or developing its own official variety that is norm creating (2019, p. 165). In the three concentric circles of English paradigm, outer circle countries like these are *norm providing*, as are inner circle countries (Kachru, 1996).

The outer circle consisting of countries like for instance Norway, China, and France, is the circle where countries are norm dependent (Kachru, 1996). The question is: are they norm dependent anymore?

As mentioned, the lines between the three circles are becoming more blurred. The lines are also becoming blurred within inner circle countries too (Graddol, 2019, p. 155). Not only are the lines blurred, but there is a question of what sort of ELT strategy countries ought to select. Graddol raises this issue. How does one equip students to become proficient speakers of English in an English-speaking world? Is it by having a native speaker norm in ELT? Or is a “WEs norm” the way to go? As non-native speakers of English are to be taught English, they will “need teachers, dictionaries and grammar books. But will they continue to look towards the native speaker for authoritative norms of usage?” (Graddol, 2019, p. 166).

4.2 – World Englishes – Research

Common use of the term WEs is a recent phenomenon and global use of English outside of the British Commonwealth did not start to truly accelerate until post World War 2 (Melchers & Shaw, 2003, as cited in McArthur, 2012, p. 446). Pre-WW2, in the early 1900s, “for most people, English was simply *English* or, more fully, either the English language or *the English tongue*, much as it had been for centuries” (McArthur, 2012, p. 446). Now, English is the most widely spread and spoken language throughout history (Crystal, 2003, as cited in McArthur, 2012, p. 446). This unprecedented global dominance has brought several labels into use, such as WEs. This term was rarely used until the 1980s, hence why the term in a historical perspective is a recent phenomenon. “The earliest citation for which in the Oxford English dictionary dates from 1888” (McArthur, 2012, p. 447). The context for this citation was a writer in a journal named *Science* suggesting in 1888 a committee to be formed to “create ‘a new and simple tongue in the form of what may be called “world English” (McArthur, 2012, p. 447).

The growing use of WEs in the late 1900s, and the introduction of a division between native-English and non-native English by the terms “The Englishes and World Englishes”, marked a period of rapid change in the linguistics field according to McArthur (2012, p. 447). The closing years of the 20th century is described by McArthur as a time of “radical terminological innovation” (2012, p. 447). To understand why this is described as radical terminological innovation one must keep the rapidity of the change in mind. English escalated into the most widely spread language of all time, for the most part during half a century (Melchers & Shaw, 2003, as cited in McArthur, 2012, p. 446). The rapid development of English globally and the terminology surrounding it has implications for Norwegian upper-secondary ELT. I argue throughout this thesis that educational reform is a product of societal development. This is a point made by others: “Regulations for education and educational reforms, including curricula reforms, are to a large degree signs of changes in the world that surrounds us” (Bøhn, Dypedahl, & Myklevold, 2018, p. 40). Hence why WEs is used a historical and contemporary framework.

4.2.1 Teaching World Englishes – Robert J. Baumgardner

Baumgardner (2006) surveys the influence and impact of globalism on English. A ‘Kachruvian’ philosophy of language is discussed, where English belongs to all speakers, ergo not exclusively native speakers. Said philosophy “espouses a polymodel versus a monomodel in the classroom, and recognizes that local contexts shape linguistic evolution” (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 661). A monomodel is applicable to a situation where a teacher chooses one variety of English as a model and sticks with it, versus a teacher varying the varieties of English students are exposed to (polymodel). Devotion to studying both non-native and native varieties of English in a wide range of cultural contexts is central to the Kachruvian philosophy, that “espouses a polymodel” (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 661).

Baumgardner briefly delves into what he describes as the fallacy of native speakers being considered the best teachers of English, a monolingual- or native speaker fallacy. “If native-speaker English is not the goal in the majority of English language learning contexts throughout the world, it is time to re-define the concept of the native speaker” (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 670).

In a world where a vast variety of Englishes exist and they often take form of location-specific varieties, native speakers of English may not be the best EFL teachers. In the EFL classroom, teachers that are proficient in both source and target language could have an advantage. Not only do they know how to explain things to confused students in the native language, but they also have the experience of learning the target language themselves as EFL students. This gives non-native speaking English teachers an advantage, as they “must have a knowledge of both source and target languages” (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 670).

“As Richard-Amato (...) writes: “Because of their experience learning another language, they are generally more aware of helpful strategies, pitfalls to avoid, language learning difficulties, and the personal and social needs for their students.” In short, they are more effective teachers to the largest group of English language learners in the world – those in the Outer and Expanding circles”. (Richard-Amato, 2003, p. 9, as cited in Baumgardner, 2006, p. 670).

This can relate to one of the new competence aims in the compulsory English subject, stating that the learner should be able to “utilize knowledge of connections between English and other languages the student is familiar with in his/her own language teaching” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). To promote this development as a teacher, proficiency in both languages is a requirement. What constitutes “the best English teacher” is therefore contextual, as Baumgardner argues. He quotes Matsuda:

“By bringing awareness to the different varieties of English that the students will encounter and by teaching them to view these varieties as legitimate expressions of a language in constant change and spread, a world Englishes approach can greatly facilitate learning”. (Matsuda, 2002, p. 438, as cited in Baumgardner, 2006, p. 668)

Another point mentioned by Baumgardner (2006) in the chapter that applies here, is the fact that Americans are widely documented as negative, or intolerant to non-native accents (p. 667). This could be a hindrance to effective teaching, not only due to condescension or bias, but also to simple lack of knowledge and familiarity with specific vocabularies and pronunciations of different Englishes. Do Norwegians condescend on non-native accents of English too? Do

English teachers with a “Norwenglish” accent enjoy the same respect among students as teachers with for instance an American English accent?

How the interviewees reflect on this topic could have been interesting to explore seeing how Anglo-American varieties of English have been considered “prestige models” in ELT (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 305). How tolerant are Norwegian teachers to non-native English accents, and how tolerant do they perceive their students to be? What constitutes “the best English teacher” is a broader theme that is suitable to discuss with all interviewees. Not only is it suitable, but it is also crucial seeing how utilizing all the linguistic competence of students to advance English learning is a competence aim in the updated curricula (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020).

4.2.2 Models, Methods, and Curriculum for ELT Preparation – Kimberley Brown

In this section, I explore the historical development of ELT because I view it as important to understand the situation in Norwegian ELT today. Brown mentions initially how the term ‘model’ is commonly used when discussing ELT. Traditionally, ELT practices have revolved around native speakers being “the ideal speaker-hearer” (2006, p. 681). This approach arises from a mindset that “there must be a universally agreed-upon definition of the best way to teach”, a mindset with roots from the positivist tradition (Brown, 2006, p. 681). Context is not considered with this approach. As will be elaborated on later, linguistic context matters when considering LK20.

‘Context’ can be said to be acknowledged as important in LK20. An example is this competence aim: “Express herself/himself nuanced and accurately with fluency and coherence, idiomatic expressions and varied sentence structures adapted to purpose, recipient, and situation” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). In a world where English is more often defined by non-native speakers using it as a means of communication on the global stage

(Kirkpatrick 2010, as cited in Rindal & Piercy, 2013, p. 11), context matters. Adapting your language to “purpose, recipient and situation”, something the LK20 calls for, is taking context into account.

Brown covers teaching methods, or models throughout the chapter. Some of these methods are: “The Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method” and Audiolingualism (Brown, 2006, 682). These models origin from either “northern” or “developed” countries according to Brown (2006, p. 682). These terms are relevant when discussing the evolution of English as a global language and ELT. The following methods are all methods I can recall being exposed to as a student, even though some of them are described as being dominant up until 70 years ago.

Up until the late 1900s, Grammar-Translation was the most important teaching method in Norway (Fenner, 2020, p. 24). Grammar-Translation is an approach where the written language dominates. The essence of this approach is to translate sentences and phrases from the source language to the target language while taking grammatical differences into account, and it was the teachers who “provided the correct answers (Fenner, 2020, p. 25). Being able to contrast and familiarize oneself with the different set of grammatical structures of the two languages is a key feature to the Grammar-Translation Method, as “grammar and grammar rules were the main emphasis of the teaching in addition to memorizing vocabulary” (Fenner, 2020, p. 25). It was believed that the more difficult the text, the harder the students had to work to understand it, providing an “educational and disciplinary effect [...] they were meant to develop systematic and logical thinking through hard work” (Fenner, 2020, p. 24).

In the late 1900s, The Direct Method became increasingly important in Norway, as “education changed radically [...] as a result of the so-called Reform Movement. [...] John Dewey’s theories [...] influenced education in both the USA and Europe” (Fenner, 2020, p. 25). The Direct Method is language teaching where the L1 of the learners is not used at all (Brown, 2006, p. 682). Emphasis on spoken language was key, as an “important aim was being able to use the language for communication” (Fenner, 2020, p. 26). This emphasis was apparent in Norwegian

education in the curriculum of 1939 (Fenner, 2020, p. 26). Audiolingualism gained traction in American education after World War 2, as Americans had seen the need for “good foreign-language speakers” during this conflict (Fenner, 2020, p. 27).

This method was a response to the two previously mentioned methods and originated from firmly “behaviorist psychological perspectives on language” (Brown, 2006, p. 682). In the pedagogical field, a behaviorist approach dictates that knowledge is something the teachers possess, and said knowledge is conveyed to students who in turn repeat and internalize said knowledge (Lillejord, Manger & Nordahl, 2013, p. 251). Within subjects of language teaching this could look like repetition “of models, often in language laboratories” (Brown, 2006, p. 682). The influence of the audiolingual method became apparent in Norwegian education in 1970, as terms as “linguistic patterns and structures” made their way into “the preliminary curriculum for primary and lower secondary education” (Fenner, 2020, p. 27). The main focus of the audiolingual method “was on learning linguistic structures”, this meant attaining four skills in “the following hierarchical order: listening, speaking, reading and writing” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, as cited in Fenner, 2020, p. 27).

Brown writes in the chapter that there is a flaw present in all 11 approaches to teaching mentioned previously in the chapter. Some of these 11 approaches are: “The grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, Audiolingualism” (Brown, 2006, p. 682). The flaw present in these methods is a lack of focus on the cultures learners belong to. It is argued “this failure persists because the underlying philosophy of teaching has remained unchanged from the time of Audiolingualism” (Berns, 1990, as cited in Brown, 2006, p. 687). This blind spot is an inherent characteristic to all approaches because the foundational philosophy they are built on stems from an idea that there exists one correct way to teach (Berns, 1990, as cited in Brown, 2006, p. 687)

The premise of the present study is that this has changed with the new curriculum. The chapter authored by Brown is from 2006, and this limits its validity in some ways. The continued

development of ELT in the gap from 2006 till 2020 is elaborated on using different research. The strength of Browns' chapter however, is its validity as a contemporary historical source to view the development of ELT. It is a weakness that a source is 14 years old, but it gives an overview of the development of research until 2006, the same year as LK06, or the *Knowledge Promotion* was introduced. What "research and curriculum-era" teachers started out in, and have taught in, and how this affects their views is of interest. This source could prove useful when exploring differences in perspectives and practices among the interviewees of different ages.

4.3 ELF Research

4.3.1 Jennifer Jenkins - Current perspectives on teaching world Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca

Written in 2006, this article provides contemporary historical context of the development of English and the scientific discourse surrounding in that particular time. In the section covering implications for teaching, a particularly relevant point is the debate surrounding Anglo-American varieties of English being defined as the norm for learners. Jenkins points out that this attitude "persists among both native and nonnative speakers – teachers, teacher educators and linguists alike, although it is often expressed with more subtlety than it was in the past" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 171). Jenkins quotes sociolinguist Trudgill: "even if native speakers do not 'own' English, there is an important sense in which it stems from them, especially historically, and *resides in them*" (2008, as cited in Jenkins, 2006, p. 171).

Jenkins also elaborates on several critiques of Kachru's model. The ELF research field have by no means been monolithic. Jenkins notes that even though the impression she gives may be pessimistic (the level of disagreement in the ELF-field), she did however describe consensus that is recognizable in the *Knowledge Promotion*. A consensus on the importance of language awareness among teachers. "Teachers and their learners, it is widely agreed, need to learn not (a variety of) English, but about Englishes, their similarities and differences, issues involved in intelligibility, the strong link between language and identity, and so on" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 173).

This also provides historical context to LK06, which consisted of competence aims drawing focus to English-speaking regions in the Caribbean, Africa, and Asia (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2013).

4.3.2 Jenkins, Cogo & Dewey: Review of developments in research into English as a lingua franca

This article covers what they describe as “the recent phenomenon of English as a Lingua Franca” (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 281). According to the authors, ELF is both a globalized and globalizing phenomenon (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 303). This means that ELF is a result of globalization, but that ELF also contributes in increasing globalization. Furthermore, the fluidity of ELT makes it difficult to place ELF in a traditional linguistic context where a language is “relatively fixed so that its ‘fixedness’ can be codified in dictionaries and grammars” (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 297).

They argue that the fluidity and variability of ELF represents a challenge for researchers and educators alike. “The challenge for ELF researchers and, even more, for English teaching professionals, then, is to find ways of dealing with this variability so that it can be incorporated into teaching in ways that are digestible for learners” (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 297). The key areas of pedagogy they identify as ELF having implications for are syllabus, materials, approaches, methods, language assessment and the “knowledge base of language teachers” (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 305).

One key implication is recognition of the variability and fluidity of all languages, and also English in particular. Jenkins et al. reference previous findings by Jenkins from 2006, where the persistent favoring of Anglo-American varieties in ELT continues despite a growing ELF-field (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 305). They argue that ELF-research is not for “determining what should or should not be taught in the language classroom” (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 306). A need ELF-research illuminates, however, is “for learners and teachers to be exposed to a range of

Englishes, but also the need to focus less on language norms and more on the communicative practices and strategies of effective speakers” (Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 306). This does not mean, for instance, teachers changing their ENL-like accents or vocabularies, but it does require teachers to take a step back and recognize research findings in the ELF-field and its implications on their teaching. This could mean teachers reconsidering their beliefs or practices, such as making a conscious effort to vary what varieties of English the learners are exposed to in for instance materials. In other words, it is possible to speak with an American English accent and simultaneously draw focus to ELF. Less focus on language norms and “prestige-models”, and more focus on communicative practices and strategies in an expanding global context.

5. Findings:

In this chapter, the findings from the qualitative interviews are presented. The interviewees will be referred to as teacher 1, teacher 2 and teacher 3 (henceforth T1, T2 and T3). The teachers were interviewed individually. Findings are presented chronologically sorted by these topics: *Interviewee demographics and work experience, The curriculum update in the upper-secondary English subjects, Global English, Omission of explicit mention of the UK or the US, and Personal preferences and experience.*

The qualitative interviews were conducted within a framework provided by an interview guide (see appendix 3). The three teachers answered the prepared questions and follow up questions. They also brought up related issues they were not explicitly asked about. These were issues they deemed important and relevant. An example of this that all three mentioned unprompted, was the implementation of new exams, which they all had strong objections to. Their objections to the updated exam is not directly related to the main topic but was seen as partially a consequence of the weakened Anglo-American emphasis in the updated curriculum. Which is why it will be elaborated on in the *findings* and *discussion* chapters.

5.1 Interviewee demographics and work experience

T1 is 55 years old and has worked as a teacher for 14 years. 21 years total when counting T1's teaching as an untrained teacher while simultaneously going through teacher's education. T1 is also a social studies teacher. T1 taught at an elementary level pre-2006. At the moment, T1 is teaching English in first- and second-year vocational classes, and also the selective subjects International English and Social Studies in English.

T2 is 42 years old and has worked as a teacher for 16 years. T2 is also a teacher in French. T2 is teaching the selective subject Social studies in English. T2 started teaching in Norway 2006, the same year as "Kunnskapsløftet 2006", or LK06, was implemented.

T3 is 41 years old and has worked as a teacher for 14 years. T3 is also a teacher in Norwegian. T3 is currently teaching English in a second-year vocational class. T3 has also previously taught the subject International English. T3 started teaching in Norway 2006, the same year as “Kunnskapsløftet 2006”, or LK06, was implemented.

5.1.1 The curriculum update in the upper-secondary English subjects

The title of this section was the topic of the first main section of the interview. This section of the interview was initiated after the teachers had answered some questions regarding demographics and background. The teachers were asked how they generally viewed the curriculum update and how they thought it would affect their choices of teaching methods and materials. The teachers were asked “what is your opinion on the updated English curriculum?”. One of the follow-up questions was: “Are there any specific competence aims in the updated version you view as significant?”

Emphasis was put on different aspects of the update by the interviewees. Between them, they pointed out different changes they viewed positively. T1 and T3 did however align in their view of an overall increased vagueness in LK20. One key change they viewed negatively, that they all agreed on was the updated exam. All of them elaborated on their objections to the exam extensively.

An example of the new exam set up can be found on the Norwegian directorate of Education and Trainings’ website. The mock exam is divided into four parts: Listening and reading skills, reiteration of content, interaction, and a writing task (Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training, 2020). The first part is multiple choice based. This part consists of 24 tasks. These tasks are either soundbites or short texts. Here the student is supposed to choose the alternative that describes the content of the soundbite or text most accurately (there are four alternatives). In the second part, the mock exam instructs the student to read a conversation, and then explain the

essence of the interaction to the teacher responsible for grading the exam. The third part, the student is exposed to short soundbites or texts. Then the student is to elaborate on the opinions and perspectives he/she heard, and then discuss them by expressing his/her own views too. Providing one's own opinions and being able to understand the opinions of others in a nuanced manner is the purpose of this part (Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training, 2020). The fourth part of the mock exam is text writing. Here the students get to choose from three different tasks before they write a long form text.

T1 pointed out that certain competence aims were more tailored to vocational studies than before, which T1 considered a positive change:

“So they've worded it differently, uhm, and have a couple more goals that have to do with their vocation. Making it relevant to their vocation [...] Which is different than the past, which is a good thing. Ehm, but, if we just move ahead to the exam, it's a nightmare and they haven't done anything to make that, ehm, it doesn't match”. (T1)

A lack of coherence between learning goals and the centrally given exam was problematic according to T1. T1 elaborated further as to why s/he had such strong objections: “The exam has nothing to do with in depth teaching. It's just completely opposite so, I'm very confused what they're thinking” (T1).

Regarding the new subject, “English 1”, T1 thought this was a repackaging of the previous selective English subject. T1 did however find it positive that they had taken out some things s/he deemed irrelevant. English 2 in its current form watered down the literature part in T1's opinion. Competence aims being more open for interpretation than before could cause problems according to T1. Talking about competence aims, T1 said “Now there's less with lot more words. [...] I'm just so worried for the students that are going to get a centrally written exam because there is no, uhm, there is no way that if you and I were going to look at those competence aims, and we were going to teach from them, that we would be alike” (T1).

T2 was generally happy with the updated English curriculum. Mainly because the update took into account the improvements in English proficiency in Norway, to the point where it is a second language according to T2. The update marked a change where English teachers in upper secondary schools will do less explicit language teaching, such as conjugating verbs. They will instead teach topics in English with the main focus on the topics.

“Most English students, it’s their second language. They speak English fluently uh, so we needed a curriculum that took that into account. Made it more like the Norwegian curriculum where you are not conjugating verbs necessarily. Of course that’s part of it, but that you’re analyzing and reflecting around language at a higher level”. (T2)

T2 illustrated the change of emphasis by contrasting the English curriculum with the French curriculum. In French, the need for explicit language teaching was reflected in the curriculum. T2 could definitely see differences between the curricula. Grammar, syntax, and vocabulary is something the students teach in elementary school in English, and for the most part something all students know when they arrive at upper secondary T2 said. French was another story. Here T2 had to work with grammar, syntax, and vocabulary. This illustrated the difference between the second language role of English in Norway and how for instance French is a foreign language. And T2 was happy that the curriculum acknowledged the changing role and function of English in Norway.

Like T1, T2 also noted that there were vocational-specific competence aims in the updated curriculum. T2 mentioned that s/he had objections to the updated exam, as it was not tailored enough to for instance vocational students. T2 told me that vocational students and college preparatory students should have different exams because they are going to use English differently after they graduate.

“They need English in a different way, they need to communicate in the workplace in a less academic way and we want the studieforbredende [...] students to be able to write research papers using in-text citations and doing reliable research and interpreting those sources and analyzing literature”. (T2)

Moreover, T2 worried that a one-size-fits-all approach to exams could cause more vocational students to “fall through the system” (meaning dropping out of upper-secondary or failing the English subject).

T2 found it favorable that words like reflect, analyze, and interpret was included in the curricula for all three grades. T2 viewed this change positively. But this improvement alone was not enough. “The exam does not match the curriculum at all. And we’re extremely worried about it” (T2). Digitization of the exams, in the form of a multiple-choice format was unwise in T2’s opinion. T2 suspected that this change was implemented to save money, “cause then the computer can correct most of it” (T2). This format reminded T2 of national tests, which s/he noted that Norwegian students have in the fifth grade.

T3 expressed concerns for the most part. T3 used the word ‘vague’ multiple times to describe his/her opinion of the curriculum update. When mentioning a competence aim, T3 mentioned how massive it was in scope: “one of these says, just that you need to know about society and culture [...] in the English-speaking world in historical context. [...] And that could be everything” (T3). T3 would have liked for more of the goals to be concrete. T3 used the new subject English 2 as an example where this was done right. “Politics, society, English-speaking world and so on” was easier to interpret in her opinion, whereas English 1 was too vague. “There’s no concrete goal at all. “It’s just, it seems like we’re going to focus on writing, writing skills and oral skills and there’s no topics at all” (T3). International English, a subject T3 had previously taught did this better in T3’s opinion.

T3 also described a difficult situation for the teachers at his/her school. The English teachers at T3’s school found it challenging to present English 1 to year 11 students. T3 said it was hard trying to explain to the students what the subject would look like with inadequate information. They did however try to turn this uncertainty into something positive by telling the students that “they could actually eh, participate in finding the content, that we would do several different things” (T3). With an optimistic spirit T3 said that the entire process would be easier once they

had taught few years under the updated curriculum and spoke positively of the freedom the curriculum gave teachers to choose teaching materials.

5.1.2 Choice of teaching materials or methods

Two of the teachers answered that the update would influence their choice of teaching materials or methods, T1 and T3. On the other hand, T2 said that the changes made in the curriculum update harmonized with changes in T2's teaching s/he had already made over the years.

T1 talked about using games in vocational classes. T1 was not particularly fond of games because they make T1 car sick and dizzy. Minecraft especially was not a good fit for T1. "I get car sick from that and I'm the one in control and going so, so it's a challenge for me but. But, so, I think I've learned to cope with that in a way and still try to use it because I have to" (T1). Car simulator, another game mentioned by T1 was popular among T1's students. The students had to diagnose what the problem was with the car; argue why they believed their diagnosis was correct and make a budget of the repair. T1 made the students record their screen and voice to explain and argue their choices to him/her. According to T1, the students responded positively to this. "They're totally: "wuhuu great" cause they get to play a game".

Some of the changes in the three teachers' choices of methods had been evolving as a result of other factors than curriculum updates. T2 explained how he/she had been adjusting his/her English teaching gradually over the last 15 years. T2 said that year by year, students starting at upper secondary school become more proficient in English. T2 had already started gradually teaching English more as a second language on his/her own initiative because of the improving English proficiency among Norwegian youth. English being T2's mother tongue is also something T2 acknowledged as a possible explanation to this adjustment: "I've been adjusting my teaching or perhaps I've always been that way cause English is my mother tongue" (T2). T2 mentioned the curriculum of the IB-line(International Baccalaureate) at his/her school as an

inspiration to teach in an interdisciplinary manner before the term was explicitly mentioned in the curriculum.

T3 anticipated a change in his/her choice of materials and methods, but s/he was not sure what that might look like. The updated exams would influence T3's choice. T3 explained that his/her teaching materials would depend on what kind of textbooks the school ended up buying, and the choice of textbooks depended on the updated exams.

“We haven't actually chosen new textbooks for the first graders [...] because we wanted to see what's coming before we chose, we wanted to sort of go for one year and see the exam and see the proficiency goals and see how it's in practice before we choose a new book”. (T3)

T3's choice of materials is usually grounded in the textbooks, hence why T3 could not foresee how his/her choices of materials would change specifically.

5.2 Global English

In this section of the interview, the teachers got the following statement and question read out to them: “There are more non-native speakers of English than native speakers. English is also being discussed as sliding towards a second language status in Norway.

1. What are your thoughts on the implications of this for English teaching in Norway?”. All three teachers alluded to the collective influence of social media, gaming, and websites such as YouTube as an important driving force for the development of English as a second language in Norway. Explicit English language teaching would be more of a rarity as the focus would shift to teaching *in* English, rather than teaching English.

T1 noted that there still are and still will be students that struggle and need explicit language teaching in the form of for instance explicit grammar instructions. In T1's view, that is not the case for the majority of students. In their case “we're honing skills”, developing the students as

readers and writers. T1 added that teaching history or social studies in English was the result of the development of English as a second language in Norway and the updated curriculum:

“If you look at the curriculum there’s so much more than just reading and writing. They have history in it, they have politics in it. [...] The implication I think will be more that we’re teaching other subjects in English, basically”. (T1)

T2 had already covered the issue on his/her own initiative in the previous section. In T2’s opinion, the development of English as a second language in Norway meant more room for interdisciplinary focus. T2 echoed the same sentiments as T1: Upper-secondary teachers will move from teaching English to teaching *in* English. With a stronger emphasis on the topics. This was something T2 had been doing for years as a response to the increasing proficiency of what T2 called the “Youtube-generation” (T2).

T2 was instead asked how s/he thought his/her Norwegian born colleagues would respond to the development. It depended on demographics in T2’s opinion. “The younger teachers, they have grown up with the generation that has had English as second language (T2). Older teachers would in T2’s opinion probably find it more shocking going from teaching grammar, verbs, and language to analyzing, reflecting, and discussing at a different level.

T3 agreed with the other teachers that YouTube, gaming, and social media play an important role in improving English proficiency in Norway. “They at least speak English better [...] boys as well because they talk to people online when they game” (T3). Additionally, T3 noted that girls probably were more often consumers of English through social media, and that the boys spoke more English when they played games. This was a trend T3 had noticed among students. The latter gave more of “The two-way communication aspect perhaps” (T3). Anecdotally, T3’s children, a boy and a girl illustrated this difference in T3’s opinion, where male students get more practice in speaking English because of gaming. On a related note, T2 mentioned that “their [...] oral English is excellent, it’s their written English that needs work” when s/he

credited gaming, YouTube, and social media as driving forces for the development of English proficiency among students. This difference in written and oral proficiency will not be visible on students upper-secondary diploma as these competences will be combined into one grade and count equally because of LK20 (Burner, 2020, p. 55).

5.3 Omission of explicit mention of the UK or the US.

The teachers were also asked the following question in this section: “Great Britain and The United States of America are no longer explicitly mentioned in any competence aims. How do you interpret this change?”

T1 expressed favorable views on this change of emphasis. “I think it’s very positive. [...] We’re going away from that somebody knows best” (T1). T1 hoped this change in emphasis would change mindsets among teachers. T1 wanted less focus on stylistic coherence. “There’s a lot of people who think that [...] They have to decide if they’re going to write color with O U or O. [...] And what has that got to do with anything?” (T1). T1 explained that even though Norwegians tend to speak English with a Norwegian accent, they still make themselves understood. The same principle should be applied to vocabulary according to T1. It does not matter if a student combines UK or US-specific words in their speech, or if they spell color with “O U or O” (T1). How well you communicate should be the main focus. Which is why T1 was pleased with the change. This exchange can be found in appendix 4.

T2 had already discussed this change earlier in the interview. When doing so T2 echoed the sentiments of T1. T2 interpreted the change as a way to “limit the focus on just those two countries” (T2). English as a lingua franca is the most used “communication language so it’s to interpret it that all of those are okay as long as you communicate” (T2). On a related note, T2 mentioned that in the elementary school his/her kids attend, some of the English teachers correct T2’s children when they spell words in American-English. Which T2 found counter-productive and unnecessary.

For the most part, T3 emphasized other implications of the change. One potential consequence T3 mentioned was a lack of coherence between the three grades. If different teachers prioritize differently or similarly, teachers in the second grade or third year risk not knowing what the students have been through or not. With the previous version that was not the case. “You miss out on something, I think. So that’s a good thing about having more concrete goals” (T3). When the competence aims were more specific, it was easier to compartmentalize the topics by first, second, and third year. Hence more predictable for the teachers: “this year they have been through US and UK. Now we can focus on English as a world language, as they did in International English” (T3). Albeit pessimistic about said aspect, T3 noted previously in another section that more freedom is a positive thing too. But for the most part, T3’s emphasis was on the risk that the students “learn a lot about the same issues. And nothing about some important issues” (T3).

5.4 Personal preferences and experience.

The teachers were initially asked: “Which variety of English do you consider yourself to align closest with as a speaker of English?” and “What varieties of English do you recall your English teachers speaking?”. These two questions became partially redundant because two of the teachers are American immigrants. They were nevertheless asked the questions. The questions were modified to encourage them to reflect on their Norwegian-born colleagues instead.

Studying or spending time abroad had probably influenced T1’s colleagues.

“If I listen to my colleagues, one thing that might affect them is [...] if they studied. Many of them worked as an au pair for one year. In the US or England for a year, and that’s definitely affected their accents”. (T1)

Furthermore, after being asked if his/her English had changed over time, T1 answered that his/her English has evolved over time, or devolved. “English is just poorer, cause, because I speak so much Norwegian and that I make mistakes” (T1). T1 said that you go:

“into your little toolbox full of words and you choose the one that fits better in that situation [...] So I’ll be talking and say we’re going to have that ‘fagdag’ next week. [...] so I just say the word cause everyone around me understands”. (T1)

This answer opened up a conversation about the hybridity of languages. T1 mentioned that s/he would occasionally show students newspapers so they could “see what English is doing to their Norwegian” (T1). T1 found this trend alarming and emphasized that “we need to bring it to their attention, that Norwegian, the language can be in danger from English. And I think it’s our responsibility as teachers to make them aware of that” (T1). I asked T1 if something akin to an Icelandic approach, where loanwords get an Icelandic translation quickly could be a solution. “It’s too late” was T1’s very concise answer. Dubbing shows and movies such as Germany do was quote “terrible” followed by laughter on T1’s part. T1 answered concisely and unambiguously that most of the students align with American English as speakers “because of the music and TV. [...] I hardly ever hear a child speaking British English anymore. Every now and then but not frequently” (T1).

T2, also an American immigrant, turned the redundant questions into relevant ones. The variety of English T2 aligned closest with was American. T2 did however note that his/her English had suffered due to reading a lot in different languages. “I read a lot in English and French and Norwegian [...] once speaking English there are some words in every language where I’m lacking or forgotten that vocabulary and I’m inserting a Norwegian word” (T2). T2 said earlier in the interview that this tendency of hybridity between languages was problematic. “You can hear students all the time combining languages. I do it myself because I use three languages every day [...] I think it’s important to attempt to keep the languages separate.

Regarding T2’s students, T2 said that s/he strives to expose his/her students to a wide range of varieties of English and give them a choice of how they want to develop as English speakers.

“I still attempt all the time to give my students an experience with all different accents, dialects, through literature, through texts, through all aspects so. And I tell them that at the beginning as well: I speak this way, but you can choose any that you like, and we’ll meet lots of different accents or dialects or variants of English”. (T2)

T2 answered that most of the students aligns closest with American English as speakers. “it’s always ninety percent American” (T2). In the case of British English, it was mostly because of a connection, as for instance living abroad or family, “otherwise it’s all American and that’s because of they’re the YouTube generation and the gaming” (T2).

T3, a Norwegian-born teacher replied that s/he had a mix of both British and American English when asked about his/her variety of English.

“That’s a difficult question because I lived in Britain for one year. And I do prefer British, but I see that it’s much easier to be influenced by American English, cause that’s what you meet, when it comes to the media [...] So, I have a mix I think”. (T3)

T3 colleagues spoke mostly American English and most students also seemed to prefer American English. T3 reckoned that the combination of all those factors also influenced her/him in a more American direction. As a result, T3 described his/her accent as mostly American, but with certain exceptions. T3 would for instance not pronounce the R’s in “car” or “person” (non-rhotic r). Which was probably not a good thing as an English teacher in T3’s opinion, to have a mix of different accents (T3).

T3 recalled most of his/her English teachers growing up as speakers of “Oxford English” (T3). “I think British was more commonly used in teaching before” T3 said, before adding that they (teachers over 60 years old) probably saw a lot of BBC documentaries in the pre-internet era. When asked what variety of English the students aligned closest with, T3 replied concisely “American. Yeah. [...] Media. The internet” (T3). I followed up by asking if T3 considered speaking American as a conscious decision on the students’ part, seeing how they are exposed to

British cultural products too”. T3 replied that “I think they’re exposed a lot more to American. But still, I think it’s a, it has a higher status amongst youth than British” (T3).

6. Discussion

The aim of this master's thesis is to explore the views and perspectives of upper-secondary teachers in English regarding LK20. All three interviews were conducted in English. The interview guide can be found in appendix 3.

In order to contextualize findings from the interviews, discussing LK20 in light of the historical and contemporary role of English in Norwegian ELT is necessary. This historical and contemporary role was elaborated on in the chapters 1, 3 and 4. Citations on the role and development of English in Norwegian ELT are brought up again to contextualize and discuss the answers from the interviewees. The broad umbrella-term that is the WEs-paradigm, and researchers 'belonging' to it is used as a theoretical framework to discuss the teachers' answers in relation to the different roles and developments of English globally and regionally.

The teachers had a range of opinions and views on the curriculum update. They were asked about their views on the omission of the UK or the US (section 5.3). They were also asked about what varieties of English they considered their colleagues and students to prefer, see "~~Anglo-~~ American dominance?" (section 6.1.1). British English dominating Norwegian ELT was also elaborated on by one of the interviewees, found in: "Historical British-English dominance in Norwegian ELT" (section 6.1.2). One of the teachers raised an issue with the three concentric circles of English model, found in: "Criticisms of the three concentric circles of English. One big circle?" (section 6.2). The three teachers had concerns regarding new competence aims they perceived to be too vague. They were worried about how this vagueness would affect student exams. These concerns are elaborated on in: "Vague competence aims – Topic confusion and exam objections" (section 6.3).

Two of the teachers also worried about the infiltration and influence of English on the Norwegian language in the form of loanwords and grammatical changes. A discussion of their views can be found in “suggestions for future research” (section 6.4).

6.1 The weakened emphasis on the US/UK.

The teachers interpreted the omission of any explicit mention of the UK and the US in competence aims as a move towards valuing communicative function over stylistic coherence. The discussion on what English ought to sound like both regionally and globally has been ongoing for decades. As discussed in section 2.2.1, there are researchers within the WEs-field espousing a polymodel. Advocating for a polymodel in the classroom means acknowledging that English belongs to all speakers of English. Implementing this model, among other things, calls for non-native varieties of English and their development to not be considered inferior to the native ones. They ought to be acknowledged as legitimate varieties of English (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 661). An argument for this approach is that native-speaker proficiency is not the most important thing anymore: “the overall purpose in international communication is to be able to “negotiate meaning” with other people, not to come across as native speakers [...] one may say that native speaker-proficiency is the wrong kind of competence” (Seidlhofer, 2011, as cited in Bøhn et al., 2018, pp. 290-291).

T1 spoke positively about the change of emphasis in the curriculum, echoing the sentiments of researchers advocating for a polymodel:

“I think it’s very positive. [...] We’re going away from that somebody knows best” [...] “There’s a lot of people who think that [...] “They have to decide if they’re going to write color with O U or O” [...] “And what has that got to do with anything?”. (T1)

This statement of T1 aligns with one of the three most important objections against the native speaker norm in language teaching: “English does not “belong” to native speakers; foreign language learners have the right to use English in their own way” (Bøhn et al., 2018, p. 290). The updated curricula rejected the mindset of someone knowing best according to T1, which was considered a good thing. Terminology-wise, the curricula update with the UK/US-omission can

be said to be shifting Norwegian ELT closer a polymodel where communicative ability comes first. Another one of the three main objections to the native speaker norm is the conviction that “one may say that native speaker-proficiency is the wrong kind of competence, since the overall purpose in international communication is to be able to “negotiate meaning” with other people” (Seidlhofer, 2011, as cited in Bøhn et al., 2018, pp. 290-291).

The native speaker norm can be argued to mean what T1 was alluding to, namely that “someone knows best”, in the sense of having a monomodel-approach to language teaching by sticking to one variety of English. In this case a native speaking variety of English can be American English. As mentioned in section 4.1 Kachru – “The Three concentric Circles Model”, proponents of a monomodel have historically supported “the spread of English to mean the spread of native English” (Jenkins et al., 2011, p. 308). This change of emphasis can be seen as a response to the development of non-native speakers of English outnumbering native speakers of English. “The decline of the native speaker in numerical terms is likely to be associated with changing ideas about the centrality of the native speaker to norms of usage” (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). “The centrality of the native speaker” as Graddol mentions, and the discourse surrounding it was about the very thing T1 alluded to, that someone “knows best”. “The special status accorded to native speakers is long standing” (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). This special status is a result of “the ‘cult’ of native speakers” according to Graddol (2019, p. 165). The cult of native speakers of English has been lively discussed as perhaps not having any special insights or better qualifications to be norm setters than non-native speakers. “If native-speaker English is not the goal in the majority of English language learning contexts throughout the world, it is time to re-define the concept of the native speaker” (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 670). The authors of the LK20 seem to agree. So did T1.

T2 offered an interpretation of the change without stating any negative or positive feelings about it when asked the “UK/US-question”. ELF is the most used “communication language so it’s to interpret it that all of those are okay as long as you communicate” (T2). It is safe to interpret that T2 also believes that the UK/US-omission moves Norwegian ELT closer to a polymodel where communicative ability comes first. In this context, T2 referred to different varieties of English

when saying “it’s to interpret it that *all of those* are okay”. T2 stated at another section in the interview that it was counter-productive of the elementary school-teachers of T2’s children to correct them for speaking and writing in American-English, which echoed the sentiments of T1. It was, however, not mentioned in the same section and applied to elementary school students.

These statements may be interpreted as the teachers’ acceptance and acknowledgements of a polymodel in Norwegian ELT (T1 and T2). T1 and T2 interpreted the omission of the UK and the US as a way to lessen the focus on those two countries. As a result, the student’s ability to communicate would be the new benchmark. What ‘communicative ability’ constitutes will be an eye of the beholder-situation, but it appears clear that strictly sticking to one native speaker variety of English as ‘the correct one’ is a thing of the past, according to T1 and T2. Norway is an expanding circle country where English has an undefined role as a second language. Upper-secondary students in Norway have evolved as English speakers in an era of globalization and the birth of social media. What constitutes “good English” for these students differs from that of for instance American high school students.

Norwegian students, in contrast to Americans, use English mostly in ELF-contexts, and not for intranational communication such as Americans do every day. What constitutes communicative ability is contextual. “Each language is suited to its community of speakers; each language changes in pace as that community and the demands of the speakers evolve” (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 9). English is used differently in inner circle than in expanding circle countries. Everyday use of language in Norway is different, and how English evolves will be different in Norway and the US. A past tendency of a native-speaker norm in Norwegian ELT was something T1 and T2 agreed on as being unnecessary both explicitly and implicitly (explicitly by T1, and implicitly by T2 when using the example of his/her children).

The curricula update moves Norwegian ELT in a direction of valuing communicative abilities over a native speaker norm. This sort of change is one advocated 15 years ago by a researcher in the WEs-field, Baumgardner wrote: “If native-speaker English is not the goal in the majority of

English language learning contexts throughout the world, it is time to re-define the concept of the native speaker” (Baumgardner, 2006, p. 670). Did the Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training read Baumgardner’s plea and act accordingly? Maybe. It does however show how “Regulations for education and educational reforms, including curricula reforms, are to a large degree signs of changes in the world that surrounds us” (Bøhn et al., 2018, p. 40). The WEs research field exists because of changes in the world (English and how it is used, is changing globally). Educational policy is shaped by published research, as argued in this master’s thesis. Consequently, research in the WEs field influences the English subject curricula.

The necessity to change practices in ELT because of the development of ELF is also brought up by other researchers in the WEs field. Jenkins et al. noted that there was a “need for learners and teachers to be exposed to a range of Englishes, but also the need to focus less on language norms and more on the communicative practices and strategies of effective speakers” (2011, p. 306). Graddol, another researcher in the WEs field, elaborated on the global development of English: “At one time, the most important question regarding global English seemed to be ‘will US English or British English provide the world model?’ Already that question is looking dated, with the emergence of ‘New Englishes’” (2019, p. 166). Despite being quite clear on the fact that American English and British English as world models are looking dated, Graddol does not have any clear predictions on the path forward. But he has a question: An important question going forward is what kind of models the vast number of English learners globally will be exposed to: “they will need teachers, dictionaries and grammar books. But will they continue to look towards the native speaker for authoritative norms of usage?” (Graddol, 2019, p. 166).

The Anglo-American emphasis is weakened in LK20. Taking the points made by for instance Graddol, Jenkins et al. and Baumgardner into account, and the statement of Bøhn et al. (2018, p. 40), that the world around us shape curricula reform, one could argue that the transition away from the native speaker norm in LK20 is in fact influenced by researchers advocating for a polymodel in ELT.

The interviewees described in detail how they viewed the update and how they planned to adapt their teaching methods and choice of materials. The fact that English is sliding towards an L2 status in Norway was particularly relevant. ESL in Norway was something all teachers had observations about. As discussed, T1 and T2 expressed views that may be interpreted to align with the statements of Baumgardner and Jenkins et al. Their views are also fair to describe as a “no” to the question raised by Graddol: “will they continue to look towards the native speaker for authoritative norms of usage?” (2019, p. 166).

6.1.1 Anglo-American dominance?

T1 and T2 both interpreted LK20 moving Norwegian ELT away from a native speaker norm, or at least weakening the Anglo-American emphasis. In section 4.3.1, I wrote about an attitude of Anglo-American being considered the norm in ELT despite increased WEs influence. This attitude of Anglo-American prestige and norm “persists among both native and nonnative speakers – teachers, teacher educators and linguists alike, although it is often expressed with more subtlety than it was in the past” (Jenkins, 2006, p. 171). This citation align with answers from the interviewees. Virtually all students and teachers spoke and wrote in Anglo-American varieties of English according to the teachers. These answers from the teachers align with statements from researchers that Anglo-American varieties of English have been considered prestige models in ELT settings in expanding circle countries (Kachru & Smith, 2008, p. 179; Jenkins, et al., 2011, p. 305).

It became clear during the interviews that all three teachers viewed the British influence on accent and vocabulary as a thing of the past in Norwegian upper-secondary classrooms. American English dominated the classroom both among teachers and students, as shown in the findings chapter. The teachers did not know many students that spoke British English. Their students predominantly preferred American English. T2 said “it’s always ninety percent American”. The exceptions were usually those with family connections or someone who had studied abroad according to T2. T1 echoed the same trend when asked the same question about student preferences:

“Most of them align with American English. [...] I hardly ever hear a child speaking British English anymore. [...] I won’t even have one a year anymore compared to when I first started, so there’s a big difference in the last seven years”. (T1)

T3 answered similarly but even more concisely by answering: “American, yeah” (T3).

T1 and T2 expressed that they did not consider their students’ tendency to emulate American English as a conscious decision. It was due to exposure. T3 echoed the same sentiment but also added that s/he felt that American English also had a higher status among youth. Taking the answers from all three teacher into account, calling the dominance in Norwegian ELT “Anglo-American” does not make sense anymore. American English dominance is probably more accurate in today’s climate, as the interviewees saw it.

The interviewees described a dominance of American English in their schools across the board. There were some older teachers preferring British English according to the teachers, but they assessed that the majority of their colleagues preferred American English too, though not as dominant as among students. If one looks at the post WW2-era as a whole, “Anglo-American dominance” in ELT is a safe statement according to the research. But American English appears to have disentangled itself from British English in an accelerating pace after the new millennium to become the dominant force in Norwegian ELT. T3 had a theory as to why this change took place.

6.1.2 Historical British-English dominance in Norwegian ELT.

In the context of previous British English dominance in ELT, T3 had some observations (as mentioned in findings): “I think British was more commonly used in teaching before” T3 said before adding that they (teachers over 60 years old) probably saw a lot of BBC documentaries in the pre-internet era. Innovations in technology such as the telegraph, film, radio, television, and telephone made the spread of English possible without territorial expansion by colonialism. “The technology facilitating these developments originated largely in the English-speaking world”

(Romaine, 2006, p. 591). T3 mentioned the BBC as an influence for Norwegian teachers over 60 years old. BBC became the first radio broadcasting service in 1922 and provided for instance coverage to 187 countries in 1997 (Romaine, 2006, p. 591). It is impossible to measure how much of an influence BBC had on Norwegians, but radio broadcasts and TV shows they made were at least available in some form in Norway. Romaine writes: “Their saturation of the market has increased global reliance on English-Language news and ensured the flow of English around the world” (2006, p. 591). Romaine was referring to BBC and CNN. CNN was not founded until 1980 (Erickson, 1998). BBC started regular TV broadcasting in 1936, the “concept of public service broadcasting prevailed in Great Britain and influenced broadcasting in many other countries” (Britannica, 1998). This is an anecdotal example, and one cannot make conclusive comparisons in who had the most influence first. However, taking the forementioned research (Romaine 2006; Erickson, 1998) into account, one could argue that BBC had an early impact on Norwegian ELT.

There is an argument to be made that each generation emulate the most dominant variety of English either on their own accord or due to external influence or both. How, why, and when this influence occurred in the past and present is outside the scope of the present study. It remains to be seen if American English will remain the dominant and preferred alternative among Norwegian upper-secondary students and teachers, and how LK20 or societal trends could change this preference over time.

6.2 Criticisms of the three concentric circles of English. One big circle?

Norwegian students start learning English at six or seven years old, up until upper-secondary. All the teachers stated that they interpreted the curricula update to move Norwegian upper-secondary ELT in an L2-direction where they will be teaching topics *in English*, rather than doing explicit English language teaching. Taking these responses into account, English more or less functions as an L2 in Norwegian public education despite not being recognized as one. Some students being proficient enough to for instance being taught civics/social studies in English testifies to a strong level of proficiency.

T2 kept a strong emphasis on ESL in Norway throughout the interview. This led to an unscripted question. In relation to English becoming a second language in Norway, T2 was asked about the three concentric circles of English. I mentioned that Norway has historically been considered a part of the expanding circle. T2 was asked whether s/he believed that this unofficial second language status of English in Norway blurred the lines between the three circles. T2 suggested that “the whole thing is one”. One circle, ‘speakers of English’, a circle where one does not differentiate between English used in non-native contexts, second language contexts or native speaker contexts is an intriguing idea. This idea is also a criticism of the three concentric circles model. Even if there are three circles differing in obvious ways, the lines are undoubtedly blurred. The lines might have been less blurred earlier. But as discussed extensively in the present study, the use and development of English globally is unprecedented. As mentioned in section 4.1.1, making a clear-cut division between different kinds of English-speaking populations is difficult. Such criticisms have been raised by researchers in the WEs-field. Graddol explained how it is difficult to define and count the number of native English speakers in the inner circle countries:

“What counts as a native speaker? [...] Even in those countries such as Britain and the US where the linguistic culture is often described as monolingual, it is clear that a significant proportion of the population speak languages other than English as their first language”. (Graddol, 2019, p. 155)

Also discussed in 4.1.1, is the point made by Graddol that terminology used to describe the development of English as second languages does not cover the particular circumstances of the development of English as an L2 in Norway: “problems of definition are becoming acute, as English takes on a role as a global lingua franca” (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). Attempting to define the role and use of English at a national and international level create a set of difficulties. Does one need to invent new terminology to describe the situation in Norway where English is sliding towards second language status while having a “somewhat undefined status in Norwegian education” (Johannessen, 2018, p. 19). The lines are blurred, and one can argue as T2 did, that the “whole thing is one”. The notion that there is only one circle, ‘speakers of English’, is one that does not differentiate between English used in non-native contexts, second language

contexts or native speaker contexts. As mentioned in section 2.3.3, the dictaphone app used in the present study had a time limit, which made me maintain a certain progress during the interview to get through all sections. This led to me not getting the time to properly explore this topic. Unfortunately, I did not ask a follow up on this unscripted question.

If one subscribes to the polymodel of English teaching, where English does not belong to native speakers, does it make sense to have a model where the inner circle is the one of native speakers? It seems like having the native varieties of English in the inner circle, creates a rank of importance, or prestige. Or as Graddol described it, the “‘cult’ of the native speaker” (Graddol, 2019, p. 165). The term ‘inner circle’ itself has connotations of being a part of a closed off and influential group. Anecdotally speaking, that term is often used to describe for instance a state leader’s most trusted political allies. “Inner circle” has a ring to it that could in fact bolster the prestige of native speaking varieties of English. Whether one agrees with this or not, Anglo-American varieties have for a long time been considered prestige models in ELT (Kachru & Smith, 2008, p. 179).

6.3 Vague competence aims – Topic confusion and exam objections.

How Norwegian teachers view a weakened emphasis on Anglo-American varieties of English in LK20 is the main focus in the present study. This weakened emphasis would lead to a stronger focus on communicative abilities according to the teachers. Gone are the days of correcting students for mixing for instance American and British vocabulary when writing in English, or at least they should be, T1 argued. s/he conveyed this point by asking rhetorically what that sort of nitpicking had “to do with anything”?

Another consequence of the weakened Anglo-American emphasis, evident by the lack of explicit mention of any countries or regions, is that there can arise a situation where teachers across the country focus on different countries and topics. Take the following competence aim as an example: “Compare and convey societal and political conditions in two English speaking

countries in a historical context” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020). A similar competence aim existed in the previous curriculum version, but in LK13 those two countries were specified as the UK and the US.

In T3’s opinion, an implication of the omission of any explicit mention of US/UK is that students risk learning “a lot about the same issues. And nothing about some important issues”. T3 expressed concern for a general vagueness in the curriculum. If students changed schools during upper-secondary, or if teachers at different years at the same school prioritized the same topics or geographical regions to focus on in different subjects, students might end up with knowledge gaps. The previous version of the English curricula was more concrete in his/her opinion. International English for instance specified which countries and regions to focus on, making it easier for first-year English teachers or those teaching Social Studies in English to fill in the gaps accordingly (T3).

This concern about vagueness was also expressed by T1. T1 worried that the new curriculum was not concrete enough, and that students would get very different experiences in the same subject. T1 said:

“I’m just so worried for the students that are going to get a centrally written exam because [...] there is no way that if you and I were going to look at those competence aims, and we were going to teach from them, that we would be alike”. (T1)

The centralization of the curriculum update is also pointed out by others. Fenner writes the following about LK20: The “tendency towards centralization can clearly be seen in relation to the introduction of the new curriculum” (2020, p. 36). T1’s answer implies an issue with a centrally given exam, but mostly because s/he viewed the competence aims as too vague. As mentioned in section 5.1.1, T3 found it hard trying to explain to first year students how the English subjects would look like, because of this vagueness. Simultaneously, T3 reckoned that after a few years teaching under LK20, it would be easier. Not only would it be easier, but the freedom said ‘vagueness’ offered, was an upside (T3).

T3 mentioned at another point in the interview that it was nice to have freedom (T3). The key to successfully explain to students how the subjects look like was to get few years of experience under the updated curriculum first. Fenner also wrote about the benefits of freedom during LK06/13 in *Teaching English in the 21st century*. The point made was that freedom was beneficial for experienced teachers, but for less experienced teachers too much freedom could perhaps be “more difficult to manage and lead them to become more dependent on textbooks” (2020, p. 34). In the specific scenario described by all three teachers, they had zero experience with the updated curriculum. A follow up of this research could be to interview the same teachers again in three years and see whether experience under LK20 would change their outlook.

T1 and T3 nevertheless wanted more concrete competence aims, and they were worried about how this vagueness would play out during an exam situation. The exam will be centrally given, but the implementation and interpretation of the curriculum at a classroom level will not, hence they were worried about the exam on their students’ behalf. T2 disliked the multiple choice format in the new exam format.

As mentioned by T3, vagueness of competence aims regarding topics was not an issue in International English or Social Studies in English. In these subjects, the teachers had clear instructions on which countries and regions to focus on (T3). This meant a stronger emphasis on the UK and the US in many instances which ensured that students across the country had fairer preparations for the exams (T3). Although the teachers liked the weakening of Anglo-American linguistic emphasis, they wanted the competence aims to ensure that students across the country worked on the same topics. Having more concrete competence aims would ensure more fair exams in their opinion (T1; T3). That is not the case in LK20, and they had strong objections to this vagueness, and they were worried for their students. T2 was also worried about the exams but emphasized differently. The multiple-choice format that would be a part of the exam was probably to save money according to T2. This format also failed to capture the abilities and progress of students.

6.4 Suggestions for future research

The teachers raised some issues regarding ELT that they cared about. Primarily how the increased use and proficiency of English in Norway altered the way we use the Norwegian language. T1 and T2 especially worried about this. Determining whether the changing use of Norwegian occurs, and whether it is problematic or not, and how it can be facilitated or stopped are all potential topics for future research.

6.4.1 Increased influence of English and its infiltration of Norwegian.

Another implication of a stronger focus on WEs brought up by the teachers was the of hybridity of languages. TV, movies, games, YouTube, and social media contributed to the increasing replacement of Norwegian words. As mentioned in the findings chapter, T1 would occasionally show students newspapers so they could “see what English is doing to their Norwegian” (T1). T1 found this this trend alarming and emphasized that “we need to bring it to their attention, that Norwegian, the language can be in danger from English. And I think it’s our responsibility as teachers to make them aware of that”. T1 did not however endorse an Icelandic approach where loanwords get an Icelandic translation quickly could be a solution. “It’s too late” was T1’s very concise answer. Dubbing shows and movies such as Germans do was “terrible” (T1).

T2 acknowledged in the interview that this tendency of hybridity between languages was problematic. “You can hear students all the time combining languages. I do it myself because I use three languages every day [...] “I think it’s important to attempt to keep the languages separate”. Both T1 and T2 declared that they were guilty in doing the same thing as their students. Upper-secondary students themselves could also be asked in exams to reflect on and discuss the influence of English on the Norwegian language. The mock exam for 2021 for general studies students contained a long form task asking the student to:

“Describe at least two areas of everyday life where you have experienced the influence of English on other languages, for example, on the language(s) you use most often when

you communicate with other people. Then discuss positive and negative aspects of this influence”. (Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training, 2020)

Anecdotally speaking, as a substitute teacher in a lower-secondary school, words like “funny, shit, online, gaming, binge, yes, hooke, protein-shake, nice, creepy, stalker” are frequently used by Norwegian youth. Not only by youth, but the Norwegian population as a whole in my experience. English is not only influencing Norwegian vocabulary by loanwords. English is also influencing Norwegian in a less visible manner. According to Sunde, a doctorate in linguistics, “hidden English influence of Norwegian will be more visible in the future” [...] “The English vocabulary of Norwegian speakers are developing in size and complexity” (Sunde, 2019, p. 90). It is expected that these developments in English proficiency will directly and indirectly influence Norwegian at an individual and societal level (Sunde, 2019, p. 90).

Forskning.no has an article by Meland (2019) on the topic of English infiltrating Norwegian grammar where forementioned doctorate Sunde is interviewed. The author of the article, Meland, quotes the Norwegian prime minister Erna Solberg: “Regjeringen har møtt med de andre partiene” directly translating into “The government has met with the other parties” (2019). Without any English influence, the Norwegian sentence would be “regjeringen har møtt de andre partiene”. The use of “Møtt med” or “met with” is due to English influence according to Meland (2019). In the article, Meland interviews Sunde who elaborates in the interview on several examples of English infiltrating not only Norwegian vocabulary, but also its grammar. A few of the examples are:

“I min mening” – In my opinion.

“Ringe inn syk” – Call in sick.

“Jeg vil bli en lærer” – I want to be a teacher

(Meland, 2019).

These are instances of hidden English influence on Norwegian. “The most visible part of the hidden influence is the direct lexical loans” (Sunde, 2019, p. 90). In these three examples, there are no loanwords. In these sentences the hidden influence is a grammatical one, which is harder to detect. To what degree one notices such influence, and accepts it depends on demographics according to Sunde. In her doctorate, Sunde ran an acceptability study. Different age groups read a Norwegian text with several translated loanwords from English, and sentences with varying structure and word choices influenced by English. The upper-secondary students that participated in the study showed considerably higher acceptance rates for the copied words and structures than the control groups. The reason for this according to the authors was mainly because the students were taught and exposed to English in both formal and informal contexts earlier than the control groups (Sunde, 2019, p. 77).

The control groups consisted of groups of different ages. The first control group, mostly Norwegian retirees, “the senior group”, consisted of “relatively monolingual adults” with an average age of 74.8, \pm 5.8 years (Sunde, 2019, p. 65). The second control group, the “adult group” consisted of 10 adults assumed to be proficient in English who used English regularly either professionally or privately (Sunde, 2019, p. 77).

These findings support the overall trend described by the three teachers in the interviews. The trend of gaming, social media, TV, movies, and YouTube influencing the English proficiency of Norwegian youth. This increased proficiency appears to have consequences. Two of the teachers were happy that the curricula update took this trend of increased proficiency to the point of English being a second language into account. They were similarly unhappy with the consequence of English influencing Norwegian. Sunde mentioned a very positive effect of English infiltrating Norwegian: Norwegians become better English speakers (Meland, 2019).

This increased proficiency in turn leads to English infiltration and influence of Norwegian individually and at a societal level, as argued by Sunde (2019, p. 90). T1 and T2 found this trend alarming, despite being guilty of it themselves. The fact that T1 and T2 were guilty of said

tendency, and the fact that the prime minister of Norway herself is guilty of it proves that it is not exclusively something the younger generation does. It is however more prevalent among youth, or at least more accepted (Sunde, 2019, p. 77). Is it possible for English to have the dominant and unprecedented positional globally as it has now, without infiltrating and influencing the native languages of countries where English is sliding towards a second language status? Possible or not, T1 and T2 deemed it important to at least try to keep the languages as separate and intact as possible. T1 emphasized to students that the Norwegian language could be in danger if English infiltration of the Norwegian language went unchecked. T1 illustrated this to students by showing them the language used in Norwegian newspapers (see section 5.4).

In a sense, the preferences of T1 and T2 had a certain level of internal conflict. They liked that the curricula moved in a WEs-direction, where the focus is on communicative abilities over a native speaker norm. But as laid out by Sunde, as these communicative abilities in English improve, they are bound to influence the Norwegian language in both hidden and visible ways (2019, p. 90). Which T1 and T2 viewed as an unfavorable development. Would the languages be better kept separate by a native speaker norm in ELT?

Intuitively speaking, it seems easier to compartmentalize languages if hybridity, loanwords, and stylistic incoherence is frowned upon. Demanding that students stick to for instance a British English vocabulary and accent may be counterproductive when it comes to preparing students to a vast set of English-speaking contexts globally. The upside of this approach however could in fact be that the English influence on Norwegian might weaken. If this dichotomy is indeed correct, educational policymakers in Norway face the choice between embracing English as a second language and consequently ‘allowing’ it to influence Norwegian. Or they could do a 180 degree turn and emphasize strongly that a native speaker norm in ELT is desirable. That latter scenario is unlikely in my estimation, as LK20 still is not fully implemented, and the revisions in the *Knowledge Promotion* has been some years apart.

Languages have always evolved by external and internal influence. Loanwords have always been common, before the internet, TV, or radio. Taking this into consideration, the ‘alarmist’ view of current English influence could seem unwarranted. There is an argument to be made that the evolution of languages before this era was far more incremental. If one subscribes to the premise that the post-World War 2 acceleration of English influence and infiltration of other languages is historically unprecedented, one could argue that it poses more of a threat than any previous incremental influence between languages made over numerous centuries. In the interview, Sunde describes an advantage to the influence of English in for instance Norway. Norwegians as a result become much better speakers of English (Meland, 2019). Which is perhaps the most important goal for English teachers. Perhaps it is the Norwegian teacher’s job to maintain Norwegian? Or is it an interdisciplinary issue requiring interdisciplinary solutions?

What is most important? Developing English as a lingua franca or protecting languages with long standing history and traditions? Are the two mutually exclusive? If so, are there steps that can be taken to change it? Increased proficiency in English throughout the world is self-evidently convenient in a vast set of contexts (tourism, trade, construction, and education). Especially in a globalized information era. “English is used [...] by people from Asia to interact with those from Europe, and people from South America to interact with people from Africa (Kachru & Smith, 2008, p. 1). The language of commerce and tourism is English (Kachru & Smith, 2008, p. 1). This is objectively convenient. Is this increased convenience bound to be at the expense of other languages? If one takes this assumption to the furthest extreme and assumes that for instance Norwegian as a language will die, or, at the very least, become something akin to a creole or pidgin language. The question then becomes: is the convenience worth it?

That is a question for another study. It does however seem clear that the global development of English shapes educational policy in Norway. Norwegian teachers have mixed views about said educational policy. They also have mixed views on the global trends that shaped said educational policy and the consequences of said global trends.

6.4.2 Can a native speaker norm in ELT preserve native languages better?

As mentioned in in chapter 5.4, T1 and T2 found the influence of English on the Norwegian language alarming. This was relevant to this research in the sense that said influence improves English proficiency among Norwegian youth (Meland, 2019). This improvement in turn consolidates English as the unofficial second language in Norway. Preserving the Norwegian language is an interesting area of future research. Sunde has already written articles and a doctorate on the topic. These covered “the how”, describing in detail how the influence manifests itself across different demographics and societally. The acceptability study showed that there is a difference in tolerance to English-Norwegian sentences among different age groups in Norway (Sunde, 2019, p. 77).

The trend is identified. How to counteract said trend, or whether the trend should be counteracted at all is something that could be researched further. Said trend makes Norwegians better speakers of English (Sunde, 2019, as cited in Meland, 2019). And it also appears to be changing Norwegian vocabulary and grammar in varying ways (Sunde, 2019, as cited in Meland, 2019). Which may or may not have implications for teachers.

7. Concluding remarks

In this thesis I set out to explore and discuss how Norwegian English teachers view LK20. The aspect of LK20 they were asked to discuss was the strengthened global emphasis and correspondingly weakened Anglo-American emphasis. Understanding how the teachers viewed the implications of this change of emphasis was the main aim in this thesis.

This change of emphasis was discussed in the introduction by comparing the updated competence aims with their predecessors. Why LK20 has a stronger global emphasis than previously is discussed throughout the entirety of the thesis. It can be summarized with the following citation: “Regulations for education and educational reforms, including curricula reforms, are to a large degree signs of changes in the world that surrounds us” (Bøhn, et al., 2018, p. 40). The world changes, and curricula do too. There are examples of this being the case in the past, such as rapid digitization for instance resulting in the introduction of digital skills as a basic skill in Norwegian education during the 2000s, changing the English subject (Fenner, 2020, p. 35). Introducing digital skills is an example of the Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training taking modern developments into account by reforming educational policy. The same has happened in LK20 regarding the global development of English.

I have discussed the global development of English. In these discussions, I have argued that the global development of English has influenced Norwegian educational policy makers similarly as the rapid digitization influenced them in the 2000s. In the case of global English, the changed competence aims prepare students for belonging to a more globalized English-speaking community than what was previously the case for Norwegian English learners.

In three separate qualitative interviews, the perspectives, and perceptions of three upper-secondary English teachers regarding LK20 was extensively discussed. All three teachers on English being a second language for most students, despite English having no official status as

such in Norway. The teachers viewed it as a good thing that LK20 seemed to take this into account, as communicative ability was the most important thing in the opinion of T1 and T2. Stylistic nitpicking by having a native speaker norm in Norwegian ELT was undesirable according to T1.

The teachers also spoke about an American English dominance among students and teachers in preferred variety of English. They pointed to exposure to English through gaming, TV, music, movies, YouTube, and social media platforms as a driving force for both improving English proficiency and solidifying American English as the dominant variety. T3 thought that the teachers, few as they might be, preferring British English probably did so due to mainly being exposed to that variety of English through radio and TV in their youth. Hence a generational gap between older and younger English teachers in Norway. The views of the three teachers aligned closely with each other in describing these trends. They also agreed on some undesirable consequences of LK20, consequences I had not anticipated the teachers to emphasize as strongly as they did in the interviews. These consequences were not directly linked to what I set out to research initially. But all teacher perspectives are valid as relevant findings when related to the research question, albeit partially relevant.

One of these consequences they anticipated, would manifest itself because of there being no explicit mention of the UK or the US in LK20. Too broad and vague competence aims would lead to difficulties. The teachers said that this would lead to problems in exam situations. The exam itself was also extensively elaborated on by the teachers. They objected strongly to the exam set-up. They were confused, frustrated, and worried on behalf of their students.

Two of the teachers, T1 and T2 also raised another issue: the ever-increasing influence of English in Norway, as the English language infiltrates Norwegian vocabulary and grammar. They viewed it as problematic. This phenomenon says something about English as a global language and the influence of World Englishes and English' status in Norway. Their concern for this is also relevant as part of this master's thesis because T1 and T2 emphasized this to students

in their day-to-day teaching to try to counteract the trend of English infiltration of the Norwegian language. It is also a potential topic for future research as discussed in section 6.4.

Issues raised by the teachers resulted in wider discussions on the profession of teaching. These are discussions that other studies can address. The teachers also offered clarity on a number of topics. They made it clear what they thought the Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training had done well in LK20 and were similarly candid in offering constructive criticism. It remains to see how LK20 will impact Norwegian ELT and what kind of educational outcomes the new exam format will produce.

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Appendices

Appendix I – Approval from NSD

4/25/2021

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger



NSD sin vurdering

Prosjekttittel

Utdanningsreform: Hvordan ser norske videregående-lærere på å undervise i engelsk med et sterkere fokus på global engelsk?

Referansenummer

164169

Registrert

04.01.2021 av Magnus Joakim Myrvang Børresen - 205755@stud.inn.no

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

Høgskolen i Innlandet / Fakultet for lærerutdanning og pedagogikk / Institutt for pedagogikk og samfunnsfag - Hamar

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)

Torunn Synnøve Skjærstad, Torunn.skjarstad@inn.no>, tlf: 62517248

Type prosjekt

Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

Kontaktinformasjon, student

Magnus Børresen, mjmb.sk@gmail.com, tlf: 45495142

Prosjektperiode

04.01.2021 - 30.04.2021

Status

06.01.2021 - Vurdert

Vurdering (1)

06.01.2021 - Vurdert

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet med vedlegg den 06.01.2020, samt i meldingsdialogen mellom innmelder og NSD. Behandlingen kan starte.

DEL PROSJEKTET MED PROSJEKTANSVARLIG

<https://meldeskjema.nsd.no/vurdering/5ff2fb4a-44cf-4594-8079-19c909183ce1>

1/3

Det er obligatorisk for studenter å dele meldeskjemaet med prosjektansvarlig (veileder). Det gjøres ved å trykke på "Del prosjekt" i meldeskjemaet.

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER

Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:

<https://www.nsd.no/personverntjenester/fylle-ut-meldeskjema-for-personopplysninger/melde-endringer-i-meldeskjema>

Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET

Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 30.04.2021.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG

Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake. Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

TAUSHETSPLIKT

Informantene i prosjektet har taushetsplikt. Det er viktig at intervjuene gjennomføres slik at det ikke samles inn opplysninger som kan identifisere enkeltpersoner eller avsløre annen taushetsbelagt informasjon.

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER

NSD vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:

lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke behandles til nye, uforenlige formål
dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER

Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19), dataportabilitet (art. 20).

NSD vurderer at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER

NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1 f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og/eller rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET

NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

Appendix II – Consent form

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet

Utdanningsreform: Hvordan ser norske videregående-lærere på å undervise i engelsk med et sterkere fokus på global engelsk?

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å: *utforske lærere i den videregående skolens syn på den nye læreplanen i Engelsk*. I dette skrevet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål

Utdanningsreform: Hvordan ser norske videregående-lærere på å undervise i engelsk med et sterkere fokus på global engelsk?

Temaet for denne masteroppgaven er den oppdaterte videregående læreplanen for engelsk og dens implikasjoner for engelsklærere. Jeg utforsker læreres perspektiver og valg angående undervisningsmetoder i en sammenheng der den oppdaterte læreplanen er et resultat av en økende innflytelse fra «Verdens-Engelsker-paradigmet» i fremmedspråklig engelskundervisning. Et paradigmeskifte bort fra en historisk Anglo-Amerikansk dominanse i norsk Engelskundervisning.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Høgskolen i innlandet er ansvarlig for prosjektet.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?

Lærere i VGS med undervisningskompetanse og erfaring i engelskfaget er kontaktet. Kriteriene er 2 års engelskundervisning under den utgående læreplanen, samt et pågående og kommende undervisningsansvar i engelskfaget under den oppdaterte lærerplanen. Dette er så intervjuobjektene har et sammenligningsgrunnlag når den oppdaterte lærerplanen fases inn.

Kontaktinformasjonen din er hentet fra avdelingsleder.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

Hvis du velger å delta i prosjektet, innebærer det at du deltar på et personlig intervju. Det vil ta cirka 60 minutter. Intervjuet består av spørsmål om din erfaring i yrket, ditt syn på den utgående og oppdaterte læreplanen og hvordan de påvirker valg du tar i undervisningshverdagen. Anglo-Amerikanske variasjoner av engelsk sin posisjon i norsk engelskundervisning, og hvordan denne posisjonen potensielt endres av en styrking av globale variasjoner av engelsk vil også spurt om.

Det er frivillig å delta

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykket tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle dine personopplysninger vil da bli slettet. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger

Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Hvem vil ha tilgang:

- Magnus Børresen – Student – Høgskolen i Innlandet
- Torunn Synnøve Skjærstad – Stipendiat – Høgskolen i Innlandet
- Gjertrud Flermoen Stenbrenden – Professor – Høgskolen i Innlandet

Datamaterialet (lydfilen) vil lagres på forskningsserveren til NSD (Norsk senter for forskningsdata). Intervjuobjekter oppgir alder, omtrentlig hvor lenge man har jobbet som lærer, og når man tok lærerutdannelsen sin. Hvilke engelskfag, årstrinn og linjer man underviser på vil også bli spurt om. Utover dette vil verken fylke, region eller kommune nevnes.

Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Opplysningene anonymiseres når prosjektet avsluttes/oppgaven er godkjent, noe som etter planen er april 2021.

Dine rettigheter

Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:

- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg, og å få utlevert en kopi av opplysningene,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,
- å få slettet personopplysninger om deg, og
- å sende klage til Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?

Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

På oppdrag fra *Høgskolen i Innlandet* har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Hvor kan jeg finne ut mer?

Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

Torunn Synnøve Skjærstad – Stipendiat – Høgskolen i Innlandet.

E-post: torunn.skjarstad@inn.no

Telefon: 62517248

Magnus Børresen – Student – Høgskolen i Innlandet.

E-post: mjmb.sk@gmail.com

Telefon: 45495142

Vårt personvernombud:

Hans Nyberg

E-post: hans.nyberg@inn.no

Tlf.: 62 43 00 23

Hvis du har spørsmål knyttet til NSD sin vurdering av prosjektet, kan du ta kontakt med:

- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller på telefon: 55 58 21 17.

Med vennlig hilsen

Torunn Synnøve Skjærstad
(Forsker/veileder)

Magnus Børresen

Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet «*Utdanningsreform: Hvordan ser norske videregående-lærere på å undervise i engelsk med et sterkere fokus på global engelsk?*» og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

- å delta i intervju
- at Magnus Børresen kan gi opplysninger om meg til prosjektet
- at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

Valg lærere tar i undervisningssettingen, sett i kontekst av hvilken læreplan som er gjeldende er det som skal undersøkes. Ergo vil alder, antall år erfaring og når de tok lærerutdanningen være det eneste som samles inn av personopplysninger. Kjønn, region, fylke eller kommune vil ikke samles inn for anonymitets skyld. Behovet for å vite alder og antall år erfaring er for å få et bilde av hvor mange forskjellige læreplaner lærerne har undervist under.

Appendix III – Interview guide

Introductory questions:

- 1. What is your age?**
- 2. How long have you worked as a teacher?**
- 3. Do you teach any other subjects?**
- 4. When did you study to become a teacher?**
- 5. Were you teaching during any previous curriculum updates?**

The updated curriculum:

- 1. What is your opinion on the updated English curriculum?**

Follow ups:

- Do you view the change positively/neutrally/negatively?
- Can you elaborate on why you view the change the way you do?
- Are there any specific competence aims in the updated version you view as significant?

- 2. Do you see the updated curriculum affecting your choice of educational methods and materials?**

Follow ups:

- How do you see your choices changing?

Or:

- Why not?

Global English:

Read this part out loud for the interviewees:

“There are more non-native speakers of English than native speakers. English is also being discussed as sliding towards second language status in Norway”.

1. What are your thoughts on the implications of this for English teaching in Norway?

Follow up:

- How do you view the prospect of ‘Norwegian-English’ being an officially recognized local variety of English?

2. Great Britain and The United States of America are no longer explicitly mentioned in any competence aims. How do you interpret this change?

Personal preferences and experience

1. Which variety of English do you consider yourself to align closest with as a speaker of English?

Follow ups:

- Why do you think that is the case?
- Has your English changed over time? If so, how?

2. What varieties of English do you recall your English teachers speaking?

Follow up:

- How do you think said exposure affected your evolution as an English speaker?

3. In your opinion, what varieties of English does your students align closest with as speakers of English?

Follow ups:

- Why do you think your students emulate said varieties of English?
- Do you think it is a conscious decision?
- Do you think your variety of English influences your students? If so, how/why?

Appendix IV – Interview 1 – Excerpt from transcript

Me – All right. Next segment. There are more non-native speakers of English than native speakers. English is also being discussed as sliding towards a second-language status in Norway. What are your thoughts on the implications of this for English teaching in Norway?

T1 – Well, uh, if we look at the high school level. We have to look at the fact that we might not just, we might not be, be teaching English, right? We're, we're honing skills.

Me – So it's more like Norwegian where they uh, they develop as writers?

T1 – Yeah. As writers, as readers, uh because, if you look at the curriculum there's so much more than just reading and writing. They have history in it, they have politics in it.

Me – Social studies.

T1 – Social studies exactly so, we are going into many other fields besides just English and we do have to touch upon the grammar and you know we still have a lot of students who really struggle, but, the majority does not, you know? So uhm, so the implication I think will be more that we're teaching other subjects in English, basically.

Me – Okay. Yeah uh, that's that segment. And then there's a follow up. Uh, Great Britain and The United States are no longer explicitly mentioned in any competence aims. How do you interpret this change?

T1 – I think it's very positive.

Me – Why?

T1 – We're going away from that somebody knows best.

Me – Yeah. The sense that somebody is the owner of English and that non-native speakers have emulate.

T1 – Right, and I think that, what I'm hoping is that we'll have teachers who'll be coming out of college who, who look at English as language not like, I didn't know that I spoke American until I moved to Norway.

Me – Hehe

T1 – I speak English, right? So I didn't know that, that people made a distinction between the two, so, uhm if we don't have this distinction of ownership, then that means that hopefully our kids can fail a little bit more, that it's okay if they speak Norwegian accent English. That that's okay, cause it is okay. There are no Norwegians that I know that you can't understand what they say, even if they have a Norwegian accent so, I am hoping that it will be positive for students. It's going to be a while until we have, it it'll be a change cause there's a lot of people who think that you know, they have to decide like, decide what? They have to decide if they're going to write color with O U or O.

Me – Yeah, yeah, yeah.

T1 – And what has that got to do with anything?

Me – Yeah. And I also recall during my education that I was knocked down one grade cause of stylistic inconsistency. So I don't recall the specifics but, in some cases I was for instance saying gasoline, whereas I said lorry, so I didn't say truck, so I should have either or.

T1 – Been one or the other.

Me – Yeah.

T1 – And that is so non-important and destructive for students too.

Me – Yeah.

T1 – It's destructive for their learning cause it's nitpicking and it is not important.

Me – So the, so the move away from Anglo-American emphasis is a positive thing?

T1 – I feel it is yeah.