

**Inland Norway
University of
Applied Sciences**

LUP – Faculty for Education

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Master's thesis

**“Dude, I’ve got to get more money”:
Teachers’ approaches to politeness in the
Norwegian upper secondary EFL classroom.**

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2LUOPP3

2023

Acknowledgements

I cannot start the chapter of acknowledgements any other way than thanking my supervisors, Siri Frst Skogmo and Hege Larsson Aas. They have been there through thick and thin, ever since deciding the topic for it. They have provided me with valuable feedback and resources, always been available for help, and made the writing process fun.

Next, want to thank my “co-workers” in the various student organisations at the University, for keeping me busy and relaxed alongside writing my thesis, and my classmates for being just as stressed as me, making me somewhat less stressed. I also want to thank everyone who has asked me in the last year how my writing is coming along, for giving me tiny panic attacks each time. This mostly includes my parents, but also previous teachers and lecturers, friends, fiends and lovers.

Further, I want to thank my Vindenes-gang: Anders and Jonathan, who have stood by me through thick and thin, and whom I can always rely on; and Anne and Sebastian, who are great at making me both laugh and cry. Finally, I wish to thank my father for encouraging me throughout the writing process and supporting me in all the ways a student teacher can be supported.

Abstract

The aim of this master's thesis has been to gain insight into Norwegian EFL teachers' approaches to politeness in their classrooms. Most studies on politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom take on the perspective of the pupils, rather than the teachers. I wanted to contribute with a different perspective on this topic, which is why I chose to research this. In order to investigate this topic, the teacher's attitudes to teaching politeness, the resources available, and reasons they should teach it in their classrooms, this thesis implemented several quantitative methods: a survey of teachers, document analysis of the Norwegian curricula, and textbook analysis of textbooks used in the Norwegian upper secondary EFL classroom. In the survey, even though there was somewhat agreement that politeness is important to teach in lower and upper secondary schools, some teachers seemed to have misconceptions about what politeness actually entailed, and also some teachers, even though they stated that politeness was important to teach, they argued that the pupils would not be interested in learning it. This indicates that there may be a need for change in teachers' attitudes towards teaching politeness, as their attitudes will influence their teachings. The textbooks function as valuable tools for teaching politeness. However, the topics' placements in books are often unfortunate, as there are rarely integrated into other topics, and thus are prone to be left out of the lessons. There is also a divide in how the textbooks explain each politeness topic, or how many practice tasks there are for each course, with some of the books having little or no tasks on some topics. I conclude that EFL teachers in Norway deem politeness to be an important topic to teach to pupils in upper secondary. However, the practice of doing so does not correlate with this attitude, and the inadequacy of politeness courses and tasks in textbooks, and even the vagueness of it in the curricula, exhibit the difficulty of actually teaching topics related to politeness in Norway.

Sammendrag

Målet med denne masteroppgaven har vært å få innsikt i norske engelsklæreres tilnærminger til høflighetsteorien (politeness theory) i klasserommene. De fleste studier om høflighet i det norske engelsk-klasserommet er forsket på gjennom perspektivet til elevene, i stedet for lærernes perspektiver. For å undersøke dette temaet om lærerens holdninger til å undervise høflighet, tilgjengelige ressurser og grunner til at de bør undervise i det i klasserommet, gjennomførte denne oppgaven flere kvantitative metoder: en spørreundersøkelse blant lærere, dokumentanalyse av norske læreplaner og analyse av lærebøker brukt i det videregående engelsk-klasserommet. Selv om det i undersøkelsen var noe enighet om at høflighet er viktig å lære bort i ungdomsskolen og videregående, hadde noen lærere misoppfatninger om hva høflighet egentlig innebærer, og også noen lærere, selv om de mente at høflighet var viktig å lære bort, argumenterte de for at elevene ikke ville være interessert i å lære det. Dette indikerer at det kan være behov for endring i lærernes holdninger til å undervise høflighet, da deres holdninger vil påvirke undervisningen. Lærebøkene fungerer som verdifulle verktøy for å undervise i høflighet. Imidlertid er emnenes plasseringer i bøker ofte uheldige, da de sjeldent er integrert i andre temaer, og derfor er utsatt for å bli utelatt fra undervisningstimene. Det er også et skille i hvordan lærebøkene forklarer hvert høflighetstema, eller hvor mange øvingsoppgaver det er for hvert kurs, der noen av bøkene har lite eller ingen oppgaver. Jeg konkluderer med at engelsklærere i Norge anser høflighet som et viktig tema å lære bort til elever på videregående. Denne holdningen korrelerer imidlertid ikke med praksis, og utilstrekkeligheten av høflighet i lærebøker, og vagheten i læreplanen viser at det er vanskelighet for å faktisk undervise temaer tilknyttet høflighet i Norge.

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1. Introduction

The focus of this thesis is politeness theory in the classroom, and my research question is **“How do teachers approach the concept of politeness in the Norwegian upper secondary EFL classroom?”** The thesis will explore this by investigating how eleven teachers in Norway perceive pragmatics and the necessity for teaching it in their classroom, investigating textbooks used in upper secondary general and vocational studies EFL classrooms, and by investigating how the Norwegian curriculum emphasises the learning of politeness in the core curriculum and English subject curriculum. The research was conducted using mostly qualitative methods, supported by theory and previous research on the topic.

Globalisation is turning English into a second language for most young people in Norway. However, the level of proficiency might not follow the same increase as language use does. Language, including the English language, is constantly changing, and with the Internet being used in most parts of the world, this change is now happening quicker than it has ever before. This could indicate a need for change in how teachers in Norway teach English, and what they should teach as well. What these changes should be is most likely something every teacher in Norway has considered, even if their opinion is that nothing should be changed.

Pragmatics is, in short, the study of how context contributes to meaning, and politeness theory, a theoretical aspect of pragmatics, centres on the notion of politeness, construed as efforts to preserve a person's self-esteem, or effectively claiming positive social values in social interactions. This topic is quite specific within the English subject, and can be seen as very theoretical, but it is used every day, in every interaction. There is some research on English proficiency and pragmatics in younger learners (elementary school) (e.g. Savic et al., 2021; Myrset, 2021; Myrset 2022) and in workers with higher education (Hellekjær & Fairway, 2015), and there has also been researchers of the English language in Norway who claim that proficiency levels are too low among Norwegian pupils (Utdanningsnytt, 2018). Still, studies like this are scantily studied in the Norwegian EFL context, and in addition, most studies I was able to find were focused on how the Norwegian pupils are able to learn these topics. Without saying there is enough research on this topic with a focus on the pupils and

their perspectives, there is much to be researched here, with a focus on the teachers' perspectives. Teachers should have enough information and knowledge about the subject they are teaching, and I believe their attitudes towards topics within the subject have an impact as to how, or how much they choose to incorporate them into their teachings. Politeness is a topic I believe receives too little attention in the Norwegian EFL classroom, and sometimes gets confused with “being polite” or using polite language, and there needs to be more investigations into how teachers teach politeness in the classrooms.

1.1. The English subject in the Norwegian upper secondary school context

To understand the context of this thesis, I will present some contributing factors for how teachers in Norway teach, such as the national curriculum, and how the upper secondary programmes are divided in Norway, and the status of English in Norway today.

This thesis explores teaching politeness in upper secondary EFL classrooms in Norway. However, in Norway, upper secondary is separated into two main studies: general studies and vocational studies. Even though I did not separate them in my research question, I do mention both, and somewhat separate them, in my analysis, due to my three different methods, which all divide them. General studies are translated to “preparing for further studies” or higher education in Norwegian. This field of upper secondary studies contain five sub-fields, or programmes, which are *sports, arts, design and architecture, media and communication, music, dance, and drama*, and *specialising for further studies*. When a pupil has passed any of these five programmes, they receive general academic competence, which is the professional basis for them to apply for higher education. Vocational studies, or work-related studies, consists of ten programmes, such as *Technological and industrial production, Healthcare, child and youth development*, and *Sales, service, and tourism*. These programmes give the pupils professional training in different occupations, and when passed, the pupils have the professional competency to apply for apprenticeship with a company. There have long been myths regarding pupils in vocational studies' attitudes towards school, but Lisbeth Brevik (2016) has through her own and other's research debunked some of those myths. These myths include “pupils in vocational studies are weaker readers than pupils in general studies”,

“Pupils in vocational studies are “theory weak” (not motivated to read theoretical texts)”, and “Pupils’ use of English in their spare time is not relevant for school” (Brevik, 2016).

The Ministry of Education and Research is responsible for primary and secondary education in Norway, and every few years they update the curriculum and its content. In 2017 the ministry, with help from teachers, pedagogues, and relevant professionals, developed new most recent curriculum, called the LK20-reform. This new reform substituted the old LK06-reform, with some old and some new material. The core curriculum was not a part of the LK06, however, the education’s value base was transferred from LK06 to LK20 (Jensen, 2020, p. 71; Sundby & Karseth, 2021, p. 3), and the new LK20-reform has been referred to as an adjustment of the previous reform in 2006 (Sundby & Karseth, 2021, p. 2). These curricula, the core curriculum, and subject curricula, are all regulated by law to be followed and used by teachers (Norwegian Education Act, 1998, §3-4). The subject curricula describe the competence that is expected for a pupil to achieve in the specific subjects, at specific years of their education. The new subject curricula consist of introduction to the subject, describing the subject’s relevance and values, core elements, interdisciplinary topics and basic skills. The subject curricula contain competence aims for different grade levels, texts regarding assessment (Ministry of Education and Research, 2022).

Sundby & Karseth have conducted research on the new LK20-reform, regarding knowledge in school subjects and how knowledge in the subject curricula is framed, positioned and formulated, and how the subject curricula can be a working tool for teachers (Sundby & Karseth, 2021). Their researched that the new subject curricula might be too vague and too limited regarding what essential subject knowledge to select, teachers might seek content description elsewhere and outside the subject curriculum (2021, p. 12). They refer to a previous study which found that lack of content prescriptions in the subject curriculum gave publishing companies greater power to decide content in a subject (Engelsen, 2008; cited in Sundby & Karseth, 2021, p. 12). They also mention a study by Rødnes and deLange (2012) which found that teachers only used the subject curricula to a small extent in planning their lessons, relying instead mainly on textbooks and teacher guidelines (Sundby & Karseth, 2021, p. 12). This suggests that teachers might not be trained enough on how to analyse and use the

subject curricula, and specific topics such as politeness might be overlooked when planning a semester.

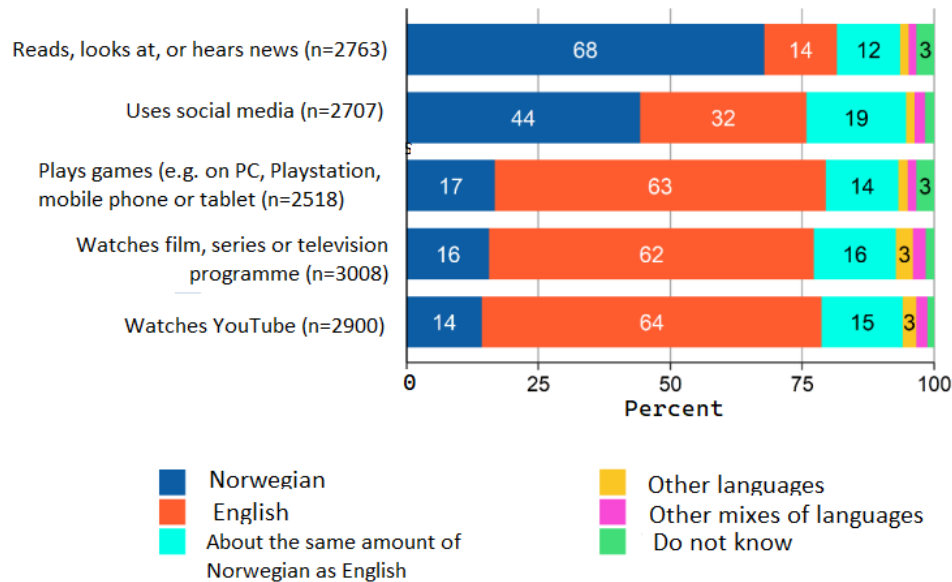
English is a Lingua Franca in many parts of the world, meaning the language is used when people who do not have the same main language want to communicate with each other. The reason for English being a lingua franca is most likely due to Great Britain colonising so many parts of the world throughout history, and imposing their language on the natives, making English a native language in 19 countries (University of Sheffield, n.d.; University of Arkansas, n.d.), and many other territories.

The status of English, especially in teaching and language learning setting, is often presented using Braj Kachru's "Three Circles of English" (1985), however, it has been debated whether this model is still relevant, or if it is outdated. The model itself presents English in three concentric circles, where countries with English as a native language is placed in the inner circle, countries where English is a second language is in the outer circle, and countries where English is a foreign language is in the expanding circle. Norway is placed in the expanding circle, as English is seen as a foreign language. Still, the way some language researchers explain foreign languages and second languages, one could argue that English is a second language in Norway. Bente Svendsen explains that foreign languages are taught mainly in the classroom through formal teaching, while learning a second language is seen in several different contexts (2021, p. 94). She goes on to say that people learning a second language often has to do so because different communication situations demand it. Learning a second language is therefore to a greater extent a social and interactional process than learning a foreign language is (Svendsen, 2021, p. 94). Mæhlum states that it is important to emphasise that the distinction between the outer and the expanding circle first of all has historical and political relevance, however it has minimal importance for the actual sociolinguistic situation (Mæhlum, 2020, p. 162). Mæhlum argues that in many of the countries that belong in the expanding circle, such as the Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands, there is a much more comprehensive use of English than what we find in several of the outer circle-countries. The English First English Proficiency Index (EF EPI) attempts to rank countries by their English proficiency skills, but their ranking is dependent on citizens in each country participating. All test takers were self-selected, and in order to be included, a country was required to have at least four hundred test takers. In their latest edition, which was published

in November 2022, Norway was ranked fourth out of 111 countries and territories. This includes countries in every circle, including the inner circle, such as South Africa, which was ranked 12th (EF EPI, 2022).

In her master's thesis, Hedda Jerpåsen states that children in Norway today are introduced to English already before school age through for example games and tv, and they learn the language intuitively through these activities (Jerpåsen, 2022, p. 2). She also points out that the curriculum for English is separate from that of "foreign languages", such as French, Spanish, Japanese, etc. Jerpåsen continues to say that a source for English in Norway is Anglo-American pop culture, where we ingest English through music, films, tv and social media (Jerpåsen, 2022, p. 2). According to a mapping conducted by the Norwegian Media Authority in 2020, 90 percent of 9–18-year-olds use at least one social media, where the most popular are Snapchat (80%), Tiktok and Instagram (65%) and Facebook (51%). Snapchat is mainly a communicative platform, meaning they communicate with each other in their preferred language, but Tiktok and Instagram are more international and open, and are likely big sources of English for most users. In addition, around 86% of children in the same age group play computer games, and there is a general consensus in this age group that gaming makes them more proficient in English (Medietilsynet, 2020a, pp. 5-6). Another mapping by the Norwegian Media Authority, which focused on language and media habits, looked at which languages were used most often in different medias among 9-18 year olds, and found that they used Norwegian for the most part (68%) when they read, looked at, or heard news, in contrast to watching YouTube, where Norwegian was used by only 14%, while English was most used with 64%. The figure below is retrieved (and translated) from this report.

Figure 1 "Which language do you use the most when you...?"



From *Barn og Medier 2020: En kartlegging av 9-18-åringers digitale medievaner* by Medietilsynet, 2020, p. 86

Jerpåsen conducted her own research regarding the use of English in Norwegian colloquial speech. She used both a survey and interactive conversational data, and her survey received 978 responses. Two questions she asked that are worth mentioning are “*To what extent is English reported to be used in Norwegian by different population groups, broken down by age, gender and whether you have grown up speaking languages other than Norwegian?*” and “*What reasons are given for using English in Norwegian?*”. For the first question, she states that English is used by almost every respondent in both the survey and the interactive conversational data (Jerpåsen, 2022, p. 42). She continues to say that English is generally used often among all respondents, but especially for those under 35 years old, and also those who have had a multilingual upbringing, or use multiple languages with the people closest to them (Jerpåsen, 2020, pp. 42-43). Jerpåsen also says that in addition to the youngest using English most often, they also use more English, in bigger chunks, within their communications, than the older respondents do. However, relatively few respondents all over state they use English in longer parts of a conversation or throughout an entire conversation (Jerpåsen, 2022, p. 43). In the next question for her research, “*What reasons are given for using English in Norwegian?*”, Jerpåsen found that the respondents experience a need for

English because of lexical gaps in the Norwegian language, or due to a lack of “good” Norwegian translation (2022, p. 53). Further, Jerpåsen found that almost three quarters of the respondents experienced forgetting Norwegian words and remembering the English equivalent instead, sometimes or often (2022, p. 53). Overall, she found through her research that single words in English are generally often used, and that younger people use English more often and in longer chunks of sentences compared to older people. She also found that older people do not adapt the English they use to the Norwegian language to the same extent that the younger people did, and that the older people keep Norwegian and English more separate (Jerpåsen, 2022, p. 96).

We have seen an increase in the use of English in several aspects on life in Norway. Examples of this are in business and higher education. English has become somewhat of a working language in Norwegian companies, and not only to communicate with non-Norwegian customers and clients (Hellekjær, 2012; cited in Rindal, 2020, p. 28). In higher education, a lot of written material and lectures are given in English, and even though there are governmental regulations to ensure the precedence and status of the Norwegian language in higher education, the use of English in higher education is steadily increasing. This might lead to English being attributed status as a more “appropriate” language than Norwegian for the academic domain (Linn, 2016; Røyneland et al., 2018; cited in Rindal, 2020, p. 29). Rindal explains that most Norwegians, especially children at the age of secondary school pupils, are exposed to a considerable amount of English in their daily life. We watch films that are subtitled, instead of dubbed, we use English as a lingua franca when traveling abroad, and most adolescents are confident users of modern technologies and international media sources (Rindal, 2020, pp. 29-30). Graddol (1997) argued that the main distinction between a proficient foreign-language user of English and a second-language user relates to the amount of English used within the speaker’s community, and therefore forms a part of the speaker’s identity repertoire (p. 11). A speaker’s community can refer to a country, hometown, one’s family, but it can also refer to an online community, as modern technologies have created platforms for communities to take form, in a way we have not seen before (Stuart, 2013; Douma, 2007). Children and teens use increasingly more English outside of school, especially on the internet, and it has been researched that children who game develop a better English vocabulary than non-gamers (Svensen, 2014).

1.2. Thesis structure

This master thesis is structured through six main chapters. The first chapter consists of the background for why this topic deserves investigating, including the research question and the thesis structure. The second chapter contains theory and previous research. As this thesis focuses on a specific linguistic theory, it is important to explain the theory itself and other related topics. In addition, an examination of what has already been researched on the topic is included in this chapter, both from a theoretical and a didactical standpoint. The third chapter is methodology, which contains an explanation on the three methods that were used in researching the topic of this thesis, and how they were used for this thesis in particular. To investigate how teachers approach the concept of politeness in the classroom, three methods were utilized. This chapter presents them, and also presents some ethical considerations for all of them. Chapter four presents collected data and results from each method, and analyses them individually, in relation to the theory and previous research from chapter 2. Following the analysis is the chapter of discussion, where some concluding remarks are made, in addition to some limitations and further research. There are three appendices attached as well, that contain the questions from the questionnaire, an overview of the textbooks used, and additional comments from the questionnaire.

2. Theory and previous research

This chapter will present the concept of pragmatics, in particular Brown & Levinson's (1987) Politeness theory, which is the main linguistic theory that my thesis is built upon (section 2.1), and an introduction to politeness strategies. This chapter will also present previous research (section 2.2) on different topics related to politeness and pragmatics, young learners, the status of English in Norway, and textbooks (chapters 2.2.1-2.2.5).

2.1. Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a relatively young sub-field of linguistics, however, the lineage of pragmatic thought within linguistics and philosophy is much older. Different definitions of pragmatics have emerged over the years, from different linguists and researchers, but looking at the process of arriving at an understanding of this definitional divergence is important in itself

(O’Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 1). Pragmatics evolved out of a desire to better understand how we make meaning when we use language, and early foundational work came from philosophers of language, rather than from linguists. Linguist George Yule defines pragmatics through four statements: Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning, pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning, pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said, and pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance (Yule, 1996, p. 3). Yule calls this the four areas that pragmatics is concerned with. Yule goes on to discuss how pragmatics contrasts with syntax and semantics. Syntax is the study of the relationship between linguistic forms, how they are arranged in sequence, and which sequences are well-formed. Semantics is the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and entities in the world, how words connect to things (Yule, 1996, p. 4). In contrast to these two distinctions, pragmatics allows humans into the analysis, one can include people’s intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes and goals, and the actions they are performing while speaking (Yule, 1996, p. 4). Another linguist who has researched this area is Geoffrey Leech, who compares semantics and pragmatics, and explains the difference between the two as the former deal with meaning as a dyadic relation [1], while the latter deals with meaning as a triadic relation [2] (Leech, 1983, p. 6). A dyadic relation refers to a social group composed by two members, while a triadic relation refers to a social group composed by three. He uses the examples:

[1] What does X mean?

[2] What did you mean by X?

In other words, meaning in semantics is defined purely as a property of expressions in a given language, whereas the meaning in pragmatics is defined relative to a speaker or user of the language (Leech, 1983, p. 6). Leech also divides general pragmatics into two branches: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Sociopragmatics is the sociological interface of pragmatics, focusing on specific local conditions on language use, while pragmalinguistics is where we consider the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions (Leech, 1983, pp. 10-11). An illocution, or illocutionary act, can be defined as an act of speaking or writing which in itself effects or constitutes the intended action, compared to locutionary act, which is the literal sentence. Example of these two could be “Is there any salt at this table?”. The locutionary act is asking about the presence of salt at the table, but the illocutionary act is asking for someone to pass you the salt. Leech also explains Grice’s Cooperative Principle (CP) (1975) and says his argument would be in favour of the study of pragmatics by means of conversational principles, such as the CP (Leech, 1983, p. 7). Grice’s Cooperative principle distinguishes four categories of maxims. A maxim

in itself is a moral rule or principle, and when one intentionally disobeys a maxim, it is called flouting. The cooperative principle, through these four maxims, describes how people achieve effective conversational communication in common social situations. Grice's four maxims are quantity, quality, relation, and manner (1975), and Leech summarises them as such:

- **Quantity:** Give the right amount of information, make your contribution as informative as required.
- **Quality:** Try to make your contribution one that is true, do not say what you believe to be false.
- **Relation:** Be relevant.
- **Manner:** Be perspicuous, avoid obscurity of expression, be brief, be orderly.

(Adapted from Grice, 1975, in Leech, 1983, p. 8)

We see that there are many ways of defining pragmatics, and many ways of studying it as well. The differing schools of thought and resultant perspectives, approaches and methods within pragmatics are not problematic. O'Keeffe argues that the vibrant scholarship from both micro- and macro-perspective on the nature, conditions and variables of language use add to the breadth and depth of the field as a whole (O'Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 2).

2.1.1. Politeness theory

The theory of politeness, first proposed by Penelope Brown and Stephen C. Levinson (1987), describes the standard rules in social interactions in different languages and cultures, or in other terms, it refers to socially correct or appropriate speech and behaviour (Brown, 2017, p. 383). George Yule argues that it is possible to treat politeness as a fixed concept, as in the idea of "polite social behaviour", or etiquette, within a culture (Yule, 1996, p. 60). Politeness is used to prevent offence by pre-emptively anticipating the possibilities of offence and offsetting them (Brown, 2017, p. 383), and within a particular culture, it is possible to specify a number of different general principles for being polite in social interaction (Yule, 1996, p. 60). Examples of this might include being tactful, generous, modest, and sympathetic towards others (Yule, 1996, p. 60). Another way of explaining politeness, is that polite and impolite beliefs are respectively beliefs which are favourable and unfavourable to the hearer or to a

third party, where 'favourable' and 'unfavourable' are measured on some relevant scale of values (Leech, 1983, p. 81).

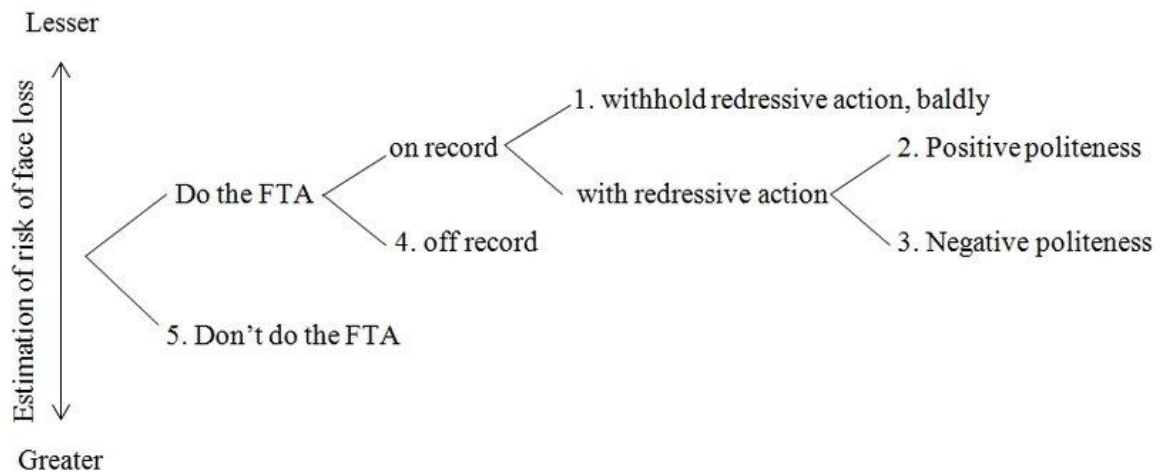
Politeness has been around for a long time, with prescriptive etiquette books dating back to ancient Egypt, and extending up into modern times, with Henri Bergson's philosophical discourse on three senses of politeness (Brown, 2017, p. 383). Those three senses, along with many other theories and literature on the subject, cover much ground, from etiquette to morality, but the one thing they have in common is that generally, such attention to interactional expectations and feelings require work, and the production of some form of evidence that one is attending to the interlocutors' concerns (Brown, 2017, p. 384).

When talking about linguistic politeness, we often look at three sub-topics: Positive politeness, negative politeness, and face-threatening acts (FTAs). FTAs are communicative acts performed by the speaker that do not respect the hearer's need for space (negative face) or their desire for their self-image to be upheld (positive face), or both (O'Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 103). Maybe the most famous and most remarked-upon study on politeness theory is Brown & Levinson's study, where they base the study of politeness around the concept of face-saving (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown & Levinson define politeness as the softening of face-threatening behaviour, but the concept of face is regarded to be the work of Goffman (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 68). They state that in the context of the mutual vulnerability of face, any rational agent (speaker) will seek to avoid face threatening acts or will employ certain strategies to minimize the threat (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 68). Drawing upon the work of Durkheim, Goffman developed a concept of face completely bound to English idiomatic expressions such as "to lose face" (to be humiliated or embarrassed) or "to save face" (prevent damage to one's reputation) (O'Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 103). Requests is often mentioned when talking about face threatening acts, as choosing to refuse or not refuse a request can threaten the requester's positive and negative face in different ways. When an interlocutor refuses to comply with a request from someone they know well, an "intimate", they are violating rational expectations and increasing threat to their positive face (Johnson, et al., 2009, p. 229). However, focusing attention away from the requester can decrease threat to the requester's positive face, even if they are unwilling to help (Johnson, et al., 2009, p. 229).

Accepting a request is the least threatening act. In the figure below, we see a visualisation of possible strategies for doing FTAs:

Figure 2 Possible strategies for doing FTAs.

Circumstances determining choice of strategy :



From *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage* [p. 69] by Brown & Levinson, 1987. Cambridge University Press

In this figure, we see some expressions that need an explanation. The first choice for the speaker is to either do the FTA or not do the FTA. If the speaker does the FTA, the speaker then goes on record when they make it clear to the hearers what communicative intention led the speaker to say so. An example of this could be to say, “I promise to come tomorrow”. If the hearers would concur that, in saying that the speaker unambiguously express the intention of committing themselves to that future act, then they went ‘on record’ as promising to do so (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 68-69). They explain, that in contrast, if a speaker goes off record in doing the face threatening act, there is more than one unambiguous attributable intention so that the speaker cannot be held to have committed themselves to one particular intent. An example of this could be the speaker saying, “Oh no, I am out of cash, I forgot to go to the bank today”. The intention may be for the hearer to lend the speaker some cash, but the hearer cannot be held to have committed themselves to that intent (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). Some linguistic realisations of off-record strategies include metaphors, irony, rhetorical questions, or understatement. In other words, any kinds of hints as to what a

speaker wants or means to communicate, without doing it directly, so that the meaning of the utterance is somewhat negotiable (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69).

The next strategies after 'on record' are without redressive action (baldly) or with redressive action. Doing an act baldly, without redress, involves being as direct, clear unambiguous and concise as possible, for example just saying, "Do x!". Normally, an FTA will only be done in this way if the speaker does not fear retribution, for example a request which is in the hearer's best interest ("come in", "do sit down") (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.69). By redressive action, Brown and Levinson mean action that "gives face" to the addressee. This means that the action attempts to counteract the potential face damage of the FTA by doing it in such a way that indicate clearly that no such face threat is intended or desired. Such redressive action take on two forms, depending on which aspect of face (positive or negative) is being stressed (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 69-70).

Positive politeness, or positive face, requires that the individual's positive self-image be respected in everyday interaction with others. Or in other words, it is the need to be accepted, even liked, by others, to be treated as a member of the same group, and to know that their wants are shared by others (Yule, 1996, p. 62). According to Brown & Levinson, in order to achieve this, conversational participants often work to minimise the social distance between them (1987, pp. 101-1), and the FTA can be minimized by the assurance that in general the speaker wants the hearer's wants. For example, that the speaker considers the hearer to be in important respects "the same" as them, with in-group rights and duties and expectations of reciprocity, or by the implication that the speaker likes the hearer so that the FTA does not mean a negative evaluation in general of the hearer's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 70). Some strategies that are commonly used to preserve one's positive face are finding common ground, using jokes, nicknames, in-group slang or discourse markers (such as "please").

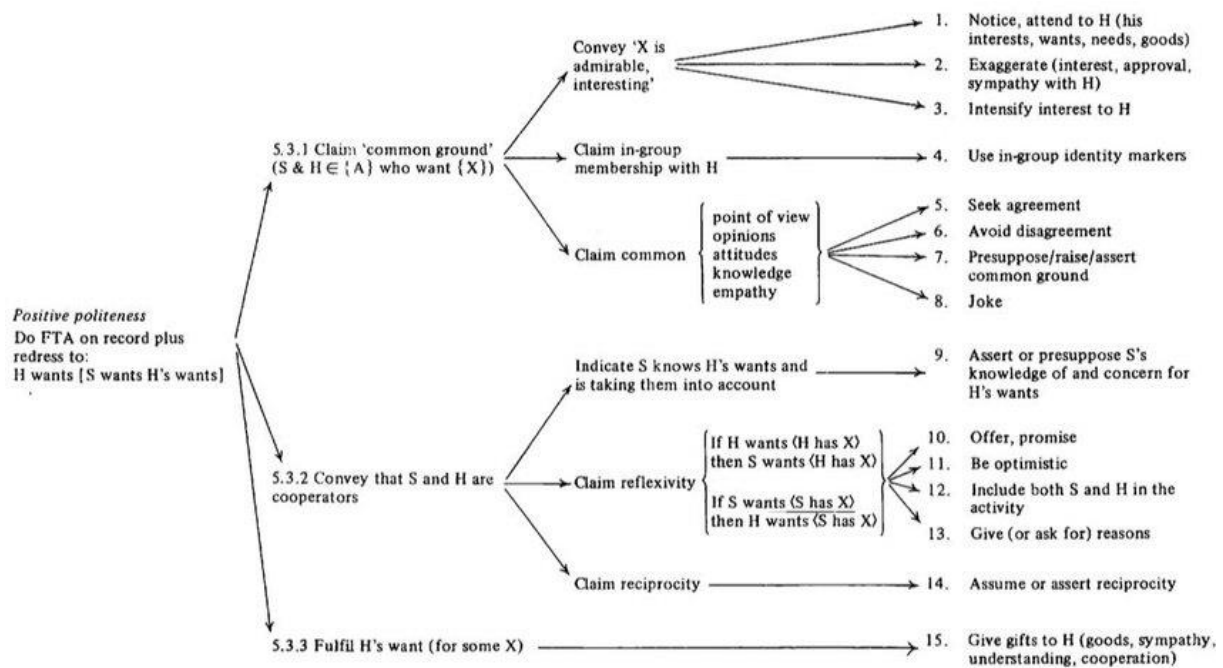
A person's negative face is the need to be independent, to have freedom of action, and not to be imposed on by others, and negative politeness, thus, is avoidance-based (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.70). The word "negative" here does not mean "bad", it is simply the opposite pole from 'positive' (Yule, 1996, pp. 61-62). In simpler terms, negative face is the

need to be independent, and positive face is the need to be connected (Yule, 1996, p. 62). Some negative politeness strategies could be questioning, hedging, and presenting disagreements as opinions, and an example could be “Well, I mean, I have, you know, never actually really liked her as a teacher”, instead of “I never liked her as a teacher”. The former utterance is hedged in order to avoid being blunt, while the latter is unhedged. Brown and Levinson state that there is a natural tension in negative politeness, between the desire to go on record as a prerequisite to being seen to pay face, and the desire to go off record to avoid imposing (1987, p. 70). They continue to say that "a compromise is reached in conventional indirectness, for whatever the indirect mechanism used to do a FTA, once fully conventionalised as a way of doing that FTA it is no longer off record (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.70).

2.1.1.1. Politeness strategies

Interlocutors normally work together in order to maintain and show respect for each other. If an interlocutor has chosen to perform an FTA, they can use a variety of strategies in order to minimize the potential threat of the act (Brubæk, 2013, p. 11). Brown and Levinson list a sizeable number of strategies for positive and negative politeness in the book *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* (1987) and include off record strategies as well. They divide the strategies into some groups, such as positive politeness strategies are used to “claim common ground”, “convey that the speaker and the hearer are co-operators”, and “fulfil the hearer’s want”. There are eight total positive politeness strategies mentioned within claiming common ground, six in the one for conveying that the speaker and the hearer are co-operators, and lastly, fulfil the hearer’s wants only includes one strategy. They are illustrated as such:

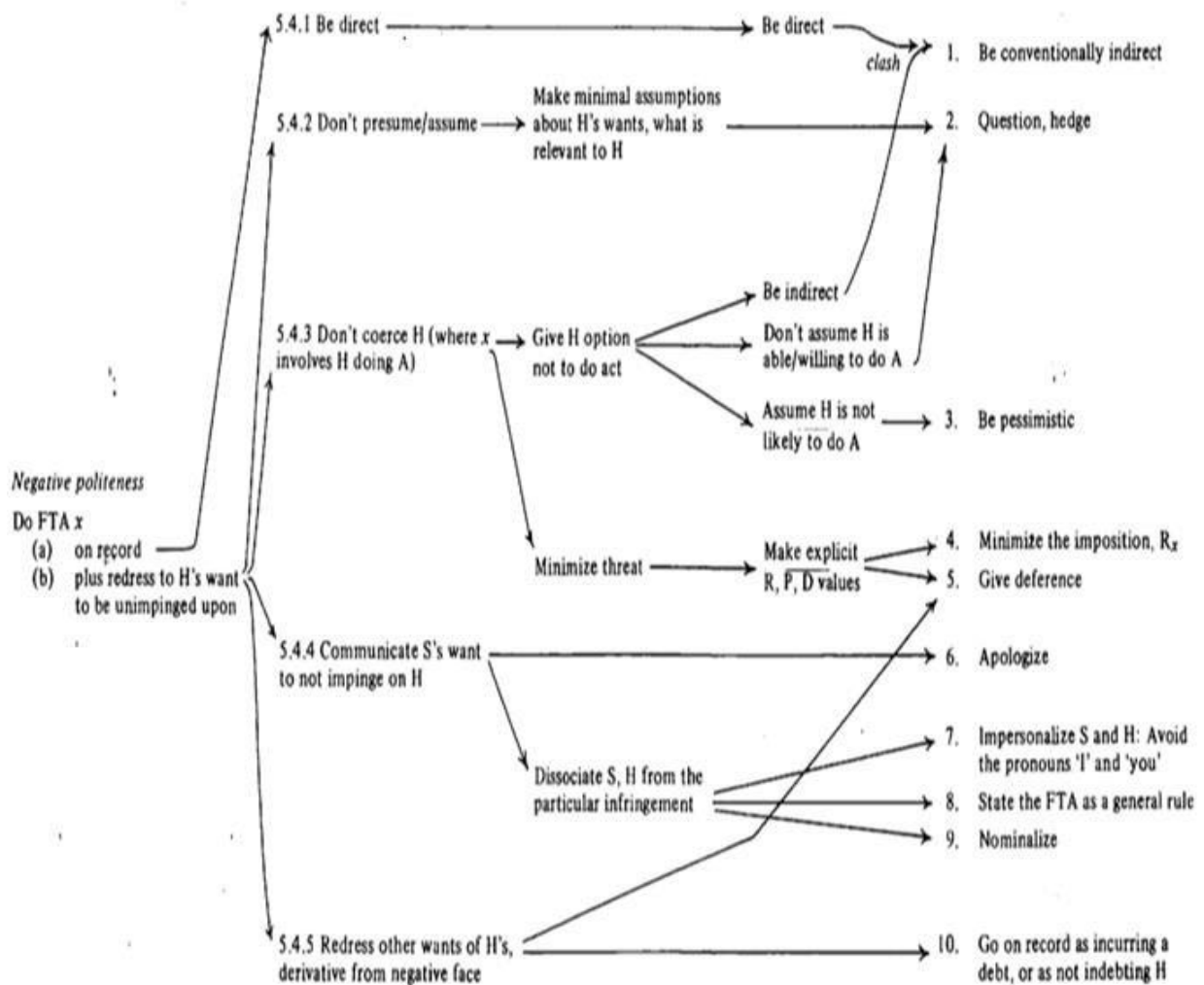
Figure 3 Positive politeness strategies



From *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* [p. 102] in Brown & Levinson, 1987. Cambridge University Press

Negative politeness strategies are also divided into similar groups, depending on if the speaker does the FTS on record, or off record with redress to the hearer's want to not be impinged upon. The latter group contains the most strategies, as the first in that group is also shared with the only strategy in "on record", which is to be conventionally indirect.

Figure 4 Negative politeness strategies



From *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage* [p. 131] in Brown & Levinson, 1987. Cambridge University Press

When choosing the most appropriate strategy, Brown & Levinson argue that we have to consider the relationship between three independent variables: the relative power (P) of speaker (S) and hearer (H), the social distance (D) of S and H, and the absolute ranking (R) of impositions in the particular culture. We can use these variables to calculate the *weightiness*, or seriousness, of an FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 76). None of these variables refer to actual distance or power, set by sociologists, but refer to the interlocutor's assumptions of these variables (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 75-76).

Brown and Levinson presented the Politeness theory as strategies that are universal. However, there are a number of researchers, such as Matsumoto (1988) and Gu (1990) who strongly

disagree with this, and claim that Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is formulated based in Western culture (Matsumoto, 1988; Gu, 1990; cited in Kawai, 2013, p. 3) Kawai does not elaborate much on what they mean by personhood in Western culture, but they do state that because of the previous statement, the division of face is not applicable in Japanese and Chinese cultures (2013, pp. 3-4). This would also apply to other parts of the world that is not deemed as "the Western world". The Western World generally includes most of Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand.

2.1.2. Pragmatics and language teaching

O'Keeffe et al. (2020) state that there has been an awareness of the importance of pragmatics in the context of language curricula for more than three decades (p. 196). "To know a language is to know when to use it and with whom across different social contexts. This means that competence in a language also entails a discourse, pragmatic and social dimension" (O'Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 196). Further on in the chapter, they discuss whether pragmatics should be *taught* (explicitly) or if it is something that learners have to *intuit* from their interactions and experiences with language, both in the classroom and beyond (implicitly) (O'Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 197). There have been many debates about fostering implicit and explicit language learning. In an example scenario, a language student has learnt a sociopragmatic norm *consciously* in their target language. What some argue is that because it was consciously learnt, this knowledge will remain as conscious knowledge at best, and never become automatised. However, others argue the opposite, that, in theory, forms of overt teaching can lead to learning whereby this knowledge can become a part of the learner's subconscious store that can be drawn upon automatically when required by the learner (O'Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 198).

When teaching pragmatic aspects, such as politeness, in the classroom, using activities such as roleplays and simulations, as well as structured and semi-structures dialogues, listening activities and task-based work can assist in learners both noticing and making salient these formulaic language forms (O'Keeffe et al., 2020, p. 210). Most teachers and textbooks would, to some degree, address the fact that positive politeness is about showing people that we respect and value them. We can introduce pupils to typical formulaic language at different stages and through different types of material, and maybe the most usual topic to use when

introducing pupils to positive politeness is that of addressing someone, with regards to their relationship with them, if it is in a spoken or written context, and so on (O’Keeffe et al., 2020, pp. 210-212). Another aspect to politeness which can be addressed consistently by EFL teachers is that of directness, or indirectness. O’Keeffe et al. have broken down the notion of negative politeness into teachable areas and provided some examples of classroom activities, and suggest that vague language and approximation, hedging, and discourse markers are all topics one could teach in the classroom (O’Keeffe et al., 2020, pp. 213- 225). O’Keeffe concludes their chapter by stating that in reality, pragmatic competence is not seen as core to communicative competence when it comes to actual classroom practice, and that there is a need for more studies that explore more variables across ‘contexts of learning’ (O’Keeffe et al., 2020, pp. 225-226).

2.2. Previous research

In this chapter I will present previous studies that are thematically relevant for this thesis and provide insight into findings which are comparable or contrastable to my own findings.

Previous studies that are included here deal with linguistics (2.2.1, 2.2.3), communicative competence (2.2.3, 2.2.4), pragmatics (2.2.1, 2.2.4), textbooks (2.2.5), EFL classrooms (2.2.1, 2.2.4), young language learners (2.2.1) and English in the Norwegian classroom (2.2.1, 2.2.4).

2.2.1. Pragmatics and young language learners

There have been some studies conducted in this field of topic, both in a Norwegian context and international, and in various age groups. Maybe most prominent in Norway is Myrset, with his several studies on pragmatics and young learners, mainly in the age group 9-13 years old, and often focuses on the pragmatic strategy of requests. In two separate research papers he investigated how young EFL learners learned pragmatic strategies through the method of instruction, with a total of four hours in both studies. To collect data, Myrset used interview for the first study (2021), and video-prompted oral discourse completion test (VODCT) for the second study (2022). In the 2022 study, Myrset experienced that after the instruction period, there was an increased variation and use of “modal verbs and supportive moves” among the participants, and he adds that the distribution varied depending on the interlocutor’s age and familiarity (2022, p. 56). Myrset explains supportive moves as

something that modifies the request externally, they precede or follow the head act and include preparators, grounders, sweeteners and promise of reward. Respectively, Myrset explain these supportive moves as “asking about the potential availability of the hearer”, “providing reasons, explanations, or justifications for his or her request”, “appreciation of the hearers ability” and “announcing a reward due on fulfilment of the request” (Myrset, 2022, p. 58). However, because of the results in his 2021 study, Myrset explains that these concepts should be worked with over time, in line with Vygotsky’s statement that “the path from the first encounter with a new concept to the point where concept and the corresponding word are fully appropriated by the child is long and complex” (2012/1934; in Myrset, 2021, p. 207), before they become internalised resources for reflection and action (Myrset, 2021, p. 207). Myrset does point out the limitation of relatively few participants in his 2021 study but does explain that it is still representative for the Norwegian classroom and context, and also explains in his 2022 study that Norwegian learners are a previously uncharted group, and that the study provides empirical evidence. These studies also provide evidence about the affordances of concept-based approaches, which means introducing pupils to concepts and conceptual understandings as they engage in knowledge and skill learning (Myrset, 2022, p. 73).

Another researcher on this topic is Cynthia Lee. Lee conducted a study on the interlanguage pragmatic comprehension of young learners of English, with Cantonese learners of English, aged seven to twelve, as the study’s participants. The participants in the study were learning English as a subject in school and had been learning the language since they started their formal education at around three years old. At this age, they learn the English alphabet, words and phonics under formal instruction. After the initial two to three years of nursery and kindergarten classes, they move on to primary education and secondary education. These children are free to study one of four main types of school which are government, government subsidised, government direct subsidises and private schools. All these school types follow and offer the same curriculum prepared by the Curriculum Development Council, but differ in the way the school is funded, pedagogic path, and medium of instruction (Lee, 2010, pp. 346-347). The method Lee used for her study was a multiple-choice comprehension exercise consisting of five direct and indirect speech acts that have been well-researched in cross-cultural pragmatics (apology, requesting, refusal, complaint, and compliment) in “contextualised dialogues, supplemented with information on their processing strategies as elicited from their verbal protocols” (Lee, 2010, pp. 343-349). The comprehension exercises

were formatted as multiple choice due to the age of the participants and the amount of time allowed by the participating schools for the study. Lee divided the findings into four preliminary statements (Lee, 2010, p. 364):

1. Pragmatic comprehension ability develops in a linear fashion with age.
2. Direct speech acts are more easily comprehended by young learners in this age range.
3. Indirect speech acts, in particular refusals, complaints and compliments, were relatively more challenging for the youngest learners (7-year-olds) compared to the other age groups (9 and 12).
4. The youngest learners seemed to rely more on literal meaning or formulaic expressions than the other two groups.

Lee argues quite similarly to Myrset, that this study alone does not provide a complete picture, but that it fills the research gap in the literature on the interlanguage pragmatic development of young L2 learners (Lee, 2010, p. 364).

Another study worth mentioning is one by Savić, Economidou-Kogetsidis & Myrset (2021), which included eighty-eight young Greek Cypriot EFL learners and 79 Norwegian EFL learners (aged 9-13). The study examined pragmalinguistic development in the request production in these two groups, through VODCT (video-prompted oral discourse completion test) as their data collection technique. Requests is an important part of politeness theory, as explained in chapter 2.1.1, which is the reason so many decide to focus on this sub-topic explicitly when researching pragmatics and politeness. A reason for this might be that it is one of the more used aspects to politeness in everyday life. The results of the study suggested there were diverse underlying influences on request development. This was due to the revelation of the areas of convergence and divergence with increasing age and proficiency, as well as areas that remained similar throughout (Savić, Economidou-Kogetsidis & Myrset, 2021, p. 32). **Convergence** in this setting consists of **head act** strategies and **modal verbs**. In the sentence “*Danny, can you remind me later to bring the book for you on Monday? Otherwise it may slip out of my mind*” the **head act**, or the core of the request sentence, is “*can you remind me later to bring the book for you on Monday?*”, and “*Otherwise it may slip out of my mind*” is the **supportive move**, which falls under divergence, alongside lexical downgraders. Downgraders, either lexical or phrasal softens internally the force of the request, and supportive moves are request modifications, which occurs either before or after

the head act, and some examples are preparators (“I would like to ask you something”), precommitment (“Could you do me a favour?”) and disarmers (“I know I am new to this job, but could I have a few days off work?”) (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989, cited in Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2009, p. 82).

The researchers point out that even though there are limitations to the study, such as the fundamental levels of proficiency within the homogenous groups, the different types of education institutions (private versus state school), and so on, the results still indicate the aspects of the learners’ pragmatic development that may be attributed to their diverse L1 backgrounds and those that appear to be primarily motivated by common L2 developmental trajectories (Savić, Economidou-Kogetsidis & Myrset, 2021, pp. 31-32).

2.2.2. Cross-cultural pragmatics

Pragmatics and politeness are not rules of communication, they are more like norms in languages and cultures. I presented some studies regarding this in chapter 2.1.1, from Kawai, who researched how Japanese students learned pragmatics in the English language. Blum-Kulka et al. have published a book called *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*, where they present several topics within this, including “Politeness in English and German” (House, 1989), “Problems in the comparison of speech acts across cultures” (Wolfson et al., 1989) and their own introduction to the book: “Investigating cross-cultural pragmatics: an introductory overview” (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). According to Blum-Kulka et al., work conducted in the area of roles of speech in the creation and affirmation of cultural identity has been based on assumptions that speech communities share detectable patterns of speech (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 5). A previous study by Wolfson (1981) regarding American compliments, demonstrates that Americans pay compliments in situations where complimenting would be inappropriate in another culture (cited in Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 5). This study is complimented by another study, where the researcher Basso (1979) demonstrated how such American compliments become the object of ridicule to Athabaskan Indians, who are embarrassed by what seems to them excessive expression of approval (cited in Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 5). Directness and indirectness have been shown to operate differently in different cultures, and an example that is presented is a study on Greek-Americans, where the people who no longer spoke Greek still retained Greek cultural norms

for indirectness and risked being misunderstood by the more direct Americans (Tannen, 1981; cited in Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 5). Several studies have been conducted within contrastive pragmatics across cultures, and reveal culture-specific features of discourse, and can therefore be construed as further evidence for the claim that speech communities tend to develop culturally distinct interactional styles (Kasper & House, 1981; Hill et al., 1986; Blum-Kulka, 1987; House, 1986; cited in Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 7). Juliane House conducted a study on the use of the marker *please* and its German equivalent *bitte*, meaning she was dealing with the question how one society operates rhetorical principles and Maxims differently from another society (House, 1989, p. 96). Earlier research on the same topic found that in everyday request situations enacted by German and English native speaker pairs, the German marker *bitte* was used more frequently and differently than the equivalent English marker *please* (House & Kasper, 1981; cited in House, 1989). For the later study, House wanted to find out how German learners of English would use the marker *please* in their request behaviour. Even though this specific study lies a bit outside of the topic of my thesis, it shows how cross-cultural pragmatics has been studied over the years, and how the results can affect how learners of English on for example an international level, or European level, or even Germanic language level, use pragmatic markers in their own language versus English, and how it translates. Blum-Kulka et al. introduced a project set up to investigate cross-cultural and intralingual variation in two speech acts: request and apologies. This project is called “The cross-cultural speech act realization project”, shortened to CCSARP. They state that previous research in interlanguage pragmatics has demonstrated that even fairly advanced language learners’ communicative acts regularly contain pragmatic errors, in the way they fail to convey or comprehend the intended illocutionary point or politeness value (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 26). The CCSARP design compares the speech act realisations of learners with different native language backgrounds using different target languages, and using an analytical framework which allows for focusing on particular aspects of pragmatic performance (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 26). They argue that practical applications of the work of the CCSARP project for applied linguists, textbook writers, course designers, foreign and second language, and mother-tongue language teachers and learners can include facilitation for the writing or more accurately target culture-oriented materials by classroom teachers and material designers (1989, p. 27). They also mention that CCSARP results may give substance to the desideratum that cross-cultural pragmatic analysis can and should be a part of the content of foreign or second language courses from the very beginning, but especially at more advanced levels of instruction (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 27).

Even though politeness theory originates in the linguistic world, one can also apply the theory and the strategies within it to everyday life. Studies have shown the use for politeness theory within the business world, for training of employees (Dunn, 2011), and through humour, how jokes can be seen as a positive politeness strategy, by giving people a sense of belonging, or it can be categorised as a negative politeness strategy, dependent on the hearer's ability to understand the joke, or see the joke as aggressive (Dyner, 2015). Politeness strategies can also be helpful in situation where you must deliver sad news, as there is a lot to consider regarding one's own face, and the hearer's face. Miroslav Sirota and Marie Juanchich (2015) conducted a study on politeness, specifically politeness theory applied to uncertain communication. They state that previous research has assumed the two core postulates they base their work on, (1) speakers may intend not only to inform, but also to manage (e.g., save) the hearers' or speakers' own faces (i.e., face-managing intentions), and (2) speakers may perform face-managing intentions by altering the explicitly communicated probability, when explaining various reasoning and judgment phenomena in hearers, but has failed to test them empirically in a comprehensive and direct way: jointly in relation to speakers. To provide this critical evidence, they asked their subjects to communicate a predefined numerical probability of two negative outcomes, using a verbal probability scale, and they reported their communication intentions afterwards. Their findings corroborate politeness theory, strengthen the conclusions of prior studies utilizing these postulates, and pinpoint the potential gap between speakers' communication intentions and hearers' interpretations of their intentions (Sirota & Juanchich, 2015, p. 239). A statement from this article worth mentioning is "using uncertainty quantifiers to pursue informative intentions and also to sugar-coat threatening news helps to manage the speaker's or the hearer's face". The example used in the article is that "a physician could qualify the likelihood of cancer developing in a patient as "likely", in order to informatively communicate her opinion about the probability" (Sirota & Juanchich, 2015, p. 232). One last everyday aspect to look at is intercultural communication. There is no doubt that ways of communication, apart from the language itself, vary from culture to culture, and thus the choice of politeness strategies will also vary. Language researcher Maho Kawai found that there is a lack of cultural learning in Japan's English education, making the students' ability to use politeness strategies in English unsteady (Kawai, 2013, pp. 19-20). Kawai analysed English textbooks used in Japan and conducted interviews to observe the application of politeness theory in English learning in Japan and concludes that the low English proficiency

of the Japanese has arisen from the lack of a politeness theory perspective. Kawai continues to say that the results from the textbook analysis and the interview answers, however, gave a glimpse of a correlation between lack of a politeness theory and hesitation in having cross-cultural communication (Kawai, 2013, p. 19).

2.2.3. Communicative and pragmatic competence

Communicative competence was coined by Dell Hymes in 1972, who stated that communicative competence involves the ability to know “when to speak, when not, [...] what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner”. He goes on to say that this competence is integral with attitudes, values and motivations concerning language, its features and uses (Hymes, 1972, p. 60). Brubæk argues in her master’s thesis that it would be impossible for a language user to be proficient in this competence without some basic knowledge of, and skills in the use of pragmatic conventions in the L2 (Brubæk, 2013, p. 46)

The Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR) explains how pragmatic competence is concerned with actual language use in the (co-) construction of text. This competence is primarily concerned with the learner’s knowledge of the principles of language use according to which messages are:

- Organised, structured, and arranged (discourse competence)
- Used to perform communicative functions (functional competence)
- Sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata (design competence)

(Council of Europe, 2001, p. 137)

Pragmatic competence entails knowing how to connect utterances to locally situated circumstances and is therefore an integration of both linguistic and cultural knowledge (Davies, 1989; cited in Kim & Hall, 2002, p. 332). Kim & Hall explain that in interaction with experienced communicators, children are provided a substantial amount of input in which the more important cues are made more notable to them. In addition, they receive verbal instructions that direct them to perceive these cues and make connections between the cues and their contexts (2002, p. 332). They go on to say that over time, and with the help of the

experienced communicators, the children learn to recognise the communicative activity that is happening along with the relevant linguistic cues and their meaning. The children then, as they take on more responsibility for the realisation of an activity, build up habits of language use and expectations about the pragmatic values of the different uses of language. This knowledge is eventually internalised by the children, thereby forming their pragmatic competence (Kim & Hall, 2002, pp. 332-333).

2.2.4. Proficiency and pragmatic competence in upper secondary

Norwegian language researcher Glenn Ole Hellekjær pointed out the low level of English proficiency amongst Norwegian youth in school in the mid-2010s (Utdanningsnytt, 2018). An English teacher at Drammen vgs. (Upper secondary level) asked his pupils why most of them did not choose to continue studying English after the obligatory course in VG1. The pupils responded that they believed they had a *high enough* level of proficiency, which the teacher found to be strange, as he said that a high proficiency in English is so crucial in today's society, and in our future society (Utdanningsnytt, 2018). This indicated that pupils are expected to be quite proficient in English by the time they have finished the VG1 course. Still, according to the EF English Proficiency Index, Norway has fallen from the very top of the list in just a few years. In 2011, when the first annual index was published, Norway was in first place, but fell to fifth place the next year, and has mostly stayed at 4th or 5th place the last few years (EF EPI, 2011-2022). Even though this drop is not that drastic, it can indicate that Hellekjær was correct when he said that media influence has made the pupils more proficient than earlier in "TV English" (Utdanningsnytt, 2018), and that pupils in Norway are not learning to adjust their language according to various contexts and conversational partners.

In her study on EFL learners in a Norwegian VG1 classroom, Brubæk researched whether these pupils would be familiar with and show awareness of English politeness norms and pragmatic conventions when communicating in English (2012, p. 1). Brubæk used discourse completion task (DCT) as her method of collecting data, and the participants of the study were forty VG1 students, only a few weeks into their first year in upper secondary. Even though the sample is on the smaller side, the students came from several different lower secondary schools, thus their level of competence would still mostly be a result of what they had acquired there (Brubæk, 2012, p. 7). The DCT questionnaire consisted of four different

situations, though she only presents number 3 and 4, which are “Borrowing money from a friend” and “Asking for a pay raise” (Brubæk, 2012, pp. 9-12). Through the results of the study, together with some discussion, Brubæk concludes that students do seem to possess adequate knowledge of how to interact and produce speech acts in informal situation. She says that in formal situation, however, the students fall short and are unable to produce speech acts according to L2 rules and conventions (Brubæk, 2012, p. 17). Brubæk goes on to say that most students appear to be insecure and choose to rely on their knowledge of informal interaction, even though this is hardly appropriate in more formally demanding situations (2012, p. 17). She states that these results might indicate the lack of attention in Norwegian schools developing EFL students’ pragmatic competence in English (Brubæk, 2012, p. 17).

Other studies on pragmatic competence at VG1 level in Norway are scarce, but there have been a few other master theses that are worth mentioning, one focusing on teacher attitudes on the development of pupils’ pragmatic competence (Olsen, 2018) and one focusing on classroom breaches of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence (Johansen, 2017). Olsen’s study consisted of 10 EFL teachers and 166 pupils as participants, from five different upper secondary schools in Rogaland, Norway, and were chosen based on availability (Olsen, 2018, p. 26). Olsen’s methods were interview with the ten teachers, which included six questions, and DCT with the 166 pupils, which included six scenarios. The questions used for the interview with the teachers are relatively similar to the ones used in the survey for this thesis, such as “relevance for Norwegian pupils” and “what do you think of the current focus on teaching...”, however, these questions have pragmatic competence as its focus, as opposed to the survey for this thesis, which has politeness as its focus. Olsen says that based on the interview data, pragmatic competence receives little to no explicit attention in Norwegian EFL classrooms, and that its development occurs instead indirectly and implicitly, mainly through instruction on differences in formal and informal written and oral language. Olsen even mentions that the teachers could not give exact definitions of pragmatic competence, though they did show some understanding (Olsen, 2018, p. 63). In the DCT research results, Olsen experienced that the pupil’s pragmatic performance was in line with prior research, where L1 strategies were transferred to L2, and while their requests were polite, their modifications differed from native speakers’ modifications (Olsen, 2018, p. 63). Olsen found the consensus to be that there is a need for more focus on pragmatics competence’s explicit implementation (2018, p. 63).

Johansen's research in her master thesis was conducted in order to map out the most common breaches of pragmatic/sociolinguistic competence made by L2 learners, and she also discussed possible contributing factors for the inappropriate utterances (Johansen, 2017, p. 1). There were thirty-five pupils, from three separate groups, all in a vocational upper secondary school in this study, and all pupils were aware of them being observed for and had consented orally to this. However, the participants were not told the specific topic or details of the study, in order to increase the chances of revealing representative, truthful output from the informants. Johansen did not specify her reason for using a vocational studies class instead of a general studies one, other than it being a convenience sample, due to her working at their school (2017, p. 16). Johansen found there were frequent occurrences of language breaches among upper secondary EFL learners, represented as basic swearing, sexual innuendo, insults and parody from pop culture (2017, p. 44). She states that the data also pointed towards limited teacher correction of the problematic output, and in addition a notable uncertainty as to how to let inappropriate language affect formal assessment (Johansen, 2017, pp. 44-45). Johansen does mention that the size of the group used for this study prevents generalization but might indicate similar tendencies in upper secondary schools in Norway (Johansen, 2017, p. 17).

2.2.5. Textbooks

Professors of Norwegian didactics, English didactics and social science didactics, Bakken, Brevik and Aashamar, researched in 2020 the use of textbooks in their subjects. They observed 9th and 10th graders in connection to the research project Linking Instruction and Student Experiences (LISE) by watching 135 video recorded lessons in Norwegian, English and social sciences. They found that for English specifically, the textbooks were only used in 19% of teaching (Bakken, et al., 2020). Even though this is not a lot in the bigger picture, it still means that the textbook is used semi-regularly. The researchers also point out that most of the teachers from this study combine using textbooks with other resources, both digital and print, and that if the teachers believe the textbook to be lacking or outdated, then they will supplement with other resources (Bakken, et al., 2020). Other, older, studies say that the textbook's role in the Norwegian classroom is, and has been, stable for a long time (Blikstad-Balas, 2014, pp. 328-329).

The traditional authority of textbooks does have its challenges. Rasmussen & Hagen found that pupils rarely, if ever, question the content of textbooks, as the book is supposed to represent which knowledge is important in school (2013, in Blikstad-Balas, 2014, p. 332). Blikstad-Balas mentions two studies by Tsai (1999) and Tan (2008), where Tsai found that the eighth graders in the study trusted the content in their textbook more than they trusted their own experiences they had with experiments in natural sciences, and Tan found in their study that if there were discrepancies between the pupils' own science experiments and the textbook's representations, then both the teacher and the pupils would trust the textbook's authority rather than their own observations (in Blikstad-Balas, 2014, p. 332). The same goes for the textbook's digital website, as pupils believe that the most reliable digital sources are those websites, or other websites created by the large textbook publishers (Monitor, 2011, in Blikstad-Balas, 2014, p. 332). Because of this "tradition" that all the information in these textbooks is supposedly "the truth", it minimizes the pupils' ability to be critical of sources, especially if they happen to have teachers who only use textbooks as their main source of information and their main resource in the classroom. There are different opinions and observations on the use of textbooks in Norwegian schools, and most people would agree that this varies based on the school, the subject, and the teacher, which is why one should take this with a grain of salt, and why this is something I researched for my thesis, with textbook analysis and in the survey.

3. Method

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the methodological approaches and my choices for data collection. In my thesis, I use a variety of methods, namely an online survey, textbook analysis, and document analysis. I use these three different methods to get a better understanding of how teachers understand and approach the concept of politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom, but also to analyse the documents and tools available for teachers to rely on. The survey is used to get a better understanding of a few EFL teachers in Norway's knowledge and use of politeness in their classrooms, and how much they use their textbooks in teaching politeness. The textbook analysis is used to investigate if there are any courses or tasks in five English textbooks in lower and upper secondary, both general and vocational studies on politeness, and if so, how these are presented. Lastly, I use document analysis to

analyse the relevant pieces of the curricula for this thesis, which I have concluded are the competence aims in the English subject curriculum for upper secondary general and vocational studies, and also parts of the core curriculum. Using several methods like this is called methodological triangulation, which involves the use of multiple methods and data sources to investigate the same programme or policy (Hartas, 2010a, p. 278). Another way of explaining triangulation could be that it means that researchers take on different perspectives on an issue under study or – more generally speaking – in answering research questions (Flick, 2014, p. 183).

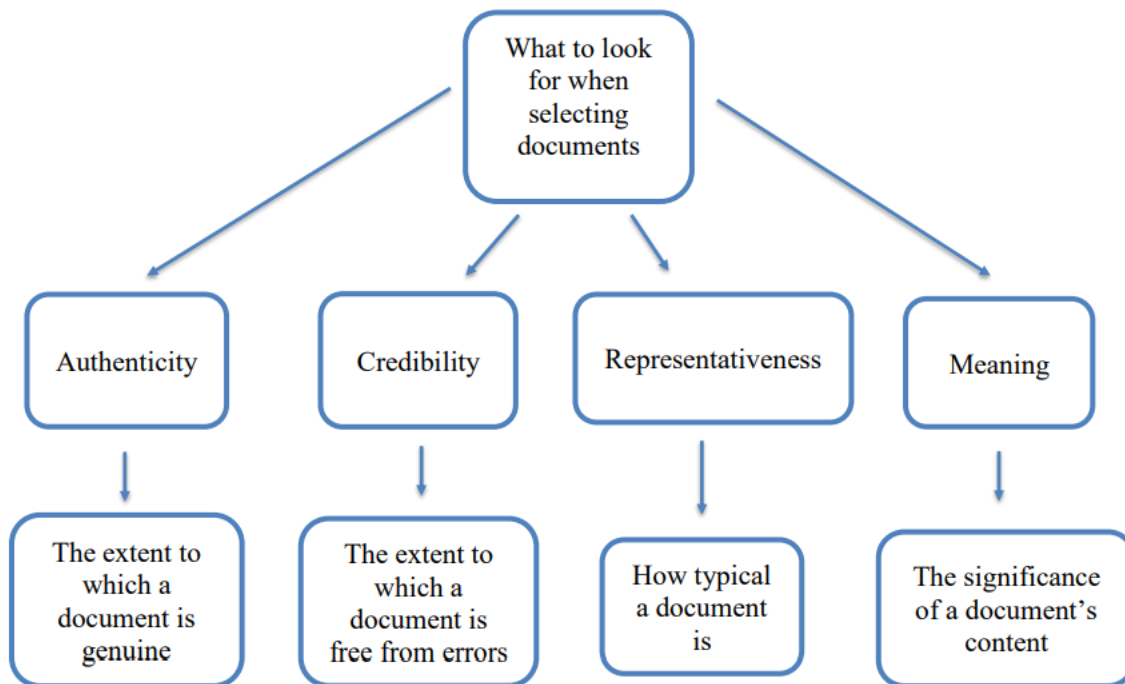
3.1. Document analysis

I will be analysing the Norwegian curricula, using curriculum analysis, which is a type of document analysis. Document analysis has not always been clearly defined, and it can be challenging to decide whether to use it. Author and historian Poul Duedahl and sociologist Michael Hviid Jacobsen have tried to define it, and even though they themselves say that there is no clear definition, they do give us a clear indication as to what it can entail. In their book *Introduktion til dokumentanalyse*, they present a table of types of documents (Jupp, 1996; Finnegan, 1996; Pitt, 1972; Plummer, 1983; cited in Duedahl & Jacobsen, 2010, p. 40). In this table we find text types such as diaries, newspapers, films, graffiti, official documents, statistics, archives, and many more. The curriculum would belong to the category of official documents. In the Norwegian Education Act (1998) §3-4 second paragraph, it says that “teaching staff must organize and carry out the training in accordance with the curricula provided in accordance with this law”. In other words, teachers are legally required to follow the curricula. Thus, the curricula in Norway are seen as legal texts or statutes, which Duedahl and Jacobsen mention are types of documents that sociologists sometimes supplement their own data with (2010, p. 41). Another researcher who has presented document analysis is Hani Morgan, from the University of Southern Mississippi. Morgan introduces his research paper by saying that “literature on document analysis is scant, and that document analysis has been an underused approach to qualitative research” (Morgan, 2022, p. 64). Stephan Wolff defined a document as such: “Documents are *standardized artifacts*, in so far as they typically occur in particular formats: as notes, case reports, contracts, drafts, death certificates, remarks, diaries, statistics, annual reports, certificates, judgements, letters or expert opinions.” (Wolff, 2004, p. 284). Looking at all these definitions, we see that generally most things, written or not, can be documents.

The documents I analysed for this thesis are not necessarily single documents, as they are retrieved from the internet. One feature that characterises web pages is the intertextuality of documents on the web, organised and symbolised by electronic links from one text/page to another (Flick, 2014, p. 360). The documents, or pages, related to the curriculum are all connected through these links, and one can easily move from one text to another. Because of this, it can be difficult to analyse internet documents. The researcher needs to decide what to analyse: the home page, an isolated web page, or the totality of a page with its links to other related pages? (Flick, 2014, p. 361). Using the actual web page of the curriculum, or The Directory of Education and Training, means these are concerns one has to take into account when analysing the contents. However, on these different pages, such as the specific page for the competence aims for the English subject curriculum for upper secondary general studies, one can download the content as a PDF, which limits, and sometimes even eliminates, the possibility to jump between pages through links. The content of the page is identical, but you do not need to discuss the other links on the pages in your analysis, which is how I analysed these documents.

Many researchers on this topic have agreed to four factors, or four criteria, to use when deciding which document to use in one's analysis. Morgan (2022) presents an illustration of these criteria based on Kridel (2015) and Flick (2014):

Figure 5 Four criteria of document analysis



From *Conducting a Qualitative Document Analysis* [p. 71] in Morgan, 2022. *The Qualitative Report*, 27(1)

However, even though these are agreed upon on general document analysis, they are not as relevant for curriculum analysis. This is because of the status of curricula, at least in Norway, where they are legal documents. This, in practice, discards the necessity for analysing whether the document is genuine, or free from errors, its credibility and its content. One can question the curricula and its content, but teachers still have to follow and use them.

Starting the process of analysing documents, one has to select documents to sample. The number of samples will depend on the research questions and other aspects of the research process. This was applicable to this thesis, and the analysis of the curricula was built over time. There are three identified schools of conducting a thematic analysis (Braun et al., 2019; cited in Morgan, 2022, p. 73): *reflexive approach*, *coding reliability approach*, and the *codebook approach*. The reflexive approach is the only one that is completely quantitative and is the one I will use. This approach is based on a qualitative paradigm, partly because it emphasises that the researcher's subjectivity is not just valid, but is also a resource (Braun et al., 2019, p. 848; Morgan, 2022, p. 73). All research within a qualitative model of research is viewed as influenced, therefore research bias is not regarded as a concern, and one of the ways to use research subjectivity as a tool is by being reflexive (Morgan, 2022, p. 73).

Researchers can be reflexive by considering how their views and feelings have influenced their findings, and reflexivity relates to how the researcher's values, history, characteristics and the decisions made during the research affects the results (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Bailey, 2018; cited in Morgan, 2022, p. 73). As said earlier, teachers and teaching staff are required by law to follow and use the Norwegian curricula, however, at the same time, it is open for interpretation. Following it to the letter does not necessarily make sense, it is a document that is meant to be translated and adapted, as long as the main goals and aims are still there. This also applies to me as a researcher, analysing these documents, using my own subjectiveness.

Following these steps, the document analysis for this thesis will look like this: The first step was to find previous research on the topic of my study, which I presented in chapter 2.2. This previous research was found through the databases at my university. However, something I noticed was that most of the previous research that was relevant for me, was older than 2020, and therefor analysed the LK06, and not the LK20, which I used. Still, after finding some papers who discuss the core curriculum and/or the English subject curriculum, I decided that I had sufficient knowledge and information about this topic to start the investigation. Next, I collected a sample of section of curricula I wished to investigate more. I read the core curriculum to understand what would be relevant for my topic and did the same with the English subject curriculum's competence aims.

3.2. Textbook analysis

As mentioned in chapter 2.2.5, Bakken et al. found that that the teachers in their study do not use textbooks explicitly in their teaching, but that they often combine them with other resources, both print and digital (Bakken, et al., 2020). However, textbooks reflect the curriculum as interpreted by what we would consider "experts", and in my survey I found that around half of teachers in lower and upper secondary school rely somewhat or heavily (who answered 3 or above out of 5) on textbooks in their teaching. This is the reason I choose to do a textbook analysis to complement the survey. Exploring tasks related to politeness in textbooks is therefore something I deem to be relevant for my investigation of the teaching of politeness in Norwegian EFL classrooms.

Studies on textbook analysis are often drawn on interdisciplinary theories, and two major theoretical influences are critical curriculum theory and critical discourse theory. Critical curriculum theory has provided a broad frame to conceptualise the role of textbooks within education, and critical discourse studies has offered researchers a theory and methodology of analysing text, language and meaning that is compatible with that framing (Weninger, 2018). One critical curriculum theorist, Michael Apple, has argued that societies' dominant elites select the meanings and practices that textbooks represent as legitimate and truthful. This process of selection is guided by social, economic and political interest of dominant groups, and typically excludes the knowledge and culture of marginalised social groups (1979; cited in Weninger, 2018). Curriculum materials are therefore a mechanism of social control, albeit one that can be contested within the cultural politics of education (Weninger, 2018). Critical discourse studies theorise text and meaning. Discourse scholars conceptualise language as a form of social practice, meaning it is a social and socially conditioned process (Fairclough, 2001; cited in Weninger, 2018). Weninger continues to state that texts are seen as elements of social practices, therefore, textual analysis entails uncovering processes of social and ideological conditioning that have shaped the production and interpretation/reception of texts (Weninger, 2018). In addition to these cross-disciplinary influences, many researchers of language textbooks situate their analyses of textbooks within applied linguistic scholarship on the role of culture in language teaching (Weninger, 2018). Textbook studies often use these frameworks to analyse textbooks' representation of culture and meaning, and "textbook analysis research has also drawn on broad, interdisciplinary theoretical approaches to examining the contemporary social order, including feminism and critical perspectives on neoliberalism, capitalism and globalisation" (Weninger, 2018).

Textbook analysis is a broad field that builds on multiple theories, but I have chosen to use Weninger & Kiss (2015) as my starting point. They have produced three frameworks: content analysis, critical discourse analysis and multimodal analysis (2015; cited in Weninger, 2018). As a research technique, content analysis typically involves identifying units for analysis in a well-defined textual sample, coding those units based on a priori criteria established by the researcher, then reducing the data by quantifying the results and finally making inferences about the significance of the results (Krippendorff, 2013, in Weninger, 2018, p. 5). A priori criteria could be, for instance, when examining the portrayal of gender roles in the textual and visual content of textbook, when the researcher begin the analysis by coding all instances

where male or female characters or people are mentioned or depicted (Weninger, 2018). For this thesis, as the researcher, I started the analysis by investigating anything related to formality in language, meaning and purpose with texts, and making arguments and holding discussions (read more on this in chapter 3.2.1). As a second step, I divided these findings into courses and tasks, and continued my analysis.

By using this method, I will be examining textbooks used in upper secondary school, both general and vocational studies. Each chapter of the books is investigated, and anything related to politeness identified, either tasks or courses/information on topics within politeness. Moving forward, in my analysis, I will refer to any content in the textbooks that explain or give information on the topic as “courses”, and content that consists of tasks as “tasks”. I will divide the findings into general studies textbooks versus vocational studies textbooks and examine how much content there is regarding the topic in each programme textbook.

3.2.1. Textbook criteria

As I mentioned in the previous chapter, I wish to establish some priori criteria before analysing each textbook. Finding and deciding which topic in a textbook is related to politeness is difficult, and there is not necessarily one specific answer to this. I did not have any specific topics in mind before researching each book, but it was more a list that grew when actually looking at the books. After already researching a couple of textbooks, I found my criteria for examining topics, courses and tasks related to politeness. The textbooks had to have at least one of these:

- Courses or tasks related to formal and informal language.
- Courses or tasks related to meaning and purpose when writing a text.
- Courses or tasks related to making informed and reasonable argument, holding discussions, listening to others' point of view.

The reason these were my criteria were because these are topics that are important in everyday use of politeness theory and pragmatics and are aspects that pupils will most likely meet in the future, either in higher education or working life (Leech, 1983; O’Keeffe et al., 2020; Yule, 1996; Brown & Levinson, 1987; see chapters 2.1 & 2.1.1). These criteria were also related to the three competence aims I established were most relevant in regard to

politeness theory, and to research on pragmatics and young language learners, such as O’Keeffe stating: “To know a language is to know when to use it and with whom across different social contexts”, and also mentions pragmatics as a part of language competence (O’Keeffe, 2020; see chapter 2.2.1).

Even though I had these three criteria, I was open to exploring other topics related to politeness in the textbooks, and there were other topics I found, which I will be presenting in the following chapters.


3.3. Survey

The survey used for this research is made through Nettskjema, a survey-creating webpage created by the University of Oslo. The questionnaire was open to submissions from 08.02.2023 to 15.03.2023, and eleven teachers participated. The questionnaire was posted to online teacher groups, as well as sent on email to some schools. It included “yes or no” questions, “to what extent” questions and multiple-choice questions, to investigate how politeness is taught by individual teachers in both lower and upper secondary in Norway. The informants also answered a couple of questions regarding the number of course credits they have in English, and when they finished their education, relative to the implementation of LK06 and LK20. This is important because the curriculum is the framework that controls how teachers teach in Norway, as explained in chapter 1.1, and to some extent decides how student teachers are trained in higher education. This means that whether the participants finished their education before or after these major changes in the curriculum could affect how they themselves teach the subject.

The survey I created had eighteen questions, but the participants would not necessarily answer that many, as around a third of the questions showed up based on the answer to the previous question. For example, in question 9, which asked which textbooks the participants used (see appendix 1), if they answered that they did not use textbooks, question 10 would not appear, as it is a follow-up question related to using textbooks (see figure 9 below).

Figure 6 Question 10 of the survey

If you chose 'other' in the last question, please let us know which book(s) you use *

 This element is only shown when the option "Other" is selected in the question "Which textbook do you use?"



When deciding how to phrase the questions, I determined that most of the questions should be fairly easy to answer, with few response options. Most of the questions have 3-4 response options, and only the last two questions in the survey have textbox answers. This was done purposely in hopes that participants would not dismiss the survey, or not answer with the full truth (to get through it quickly).

As some of my questions were divided into where the teachers teach English, at which level (lower or upper secondary, etc.), I have used these at the main categories for analysing the data. This means I will look at 4 categories: the teachers who teach English in lower secondary, the ones who teach in upper secondary general studies; the ones who teach in upper secondary vocational studies; and those who teach elsewhere. The reason for this is because my preliminary thought was that this would be where we could see the clearest differences, or where it would be most interesting to compare the other results, such as differences between lower and upper secondary, and differences or similarities between general studies and vocational studies.

Surveys are a widely used data collection instrument and are good for collecting specific information about large numbers of people. They are good for collecting biographical information, which in this case includes the length of time they have been teachers and the length of their education, and topics related to a person's opinions or habits (Buckingham, 2016, pp. 57-58). As I mentioned above, a feature for questionnaires is that participants can become more open and truthful when answering, due to anonymity. Still, one should be

careful as to how much biographical information one collects, as having a mixture of age, location and gender could result in identification, which can compromise the questionnaire. Therefore, I have reduced these types of questions to only their education.

Within surveys, Hartas (2010b) identifies four types of questions: knowledge, attitudes, behaviour, and attributes. Knowledge questions refer to what people know, their awareness about an issue (“Are you aware of politeness/pragmatics?”). Attitude questions refer to people’s opinions, beliefs, and ideals about the topic (“What are your views on teaching pragmatics in school?”). Behaviour questions address what people actually do, their observable actions (“Do you teach politeness in your classroom?”). And lastly, attributes questions refer to what people are and what they have in terms of characteristics (demographic information, gender, age, etc.) (Hartas, 2010b, pp. 261-262). In my survey, as I touched on above, there are a few attributes questions, but none that reveal the participant’s identity, such as “How many course credits in English do you have?”. Most of the questions are either attitude or behaviour questions, relating to how and how much they teach politeness in their classroom, such as “Do you believe there are any challenges or difficulties teaching politeness to upper secondary general studies?” (attitude) or “Do you ever use other books/textbooks/other resources to teach politeness?” (behaviour) (See appendix 1).

The primary reason for choosing the survey method for investigating teachers’ perspectives on teaching politeness is that it is time efficient, at least compared to many other investigative methods. Another reason is that teachers are often more willing to set aside 5 minutes of their day to answer this short survey, than setting aside a couple of hours to be interviewed or handing over their class for an extended period of time, and I wanted to infringe as little as possible on the participant’s time. Another aspect to questionnaires which make them useful for this kind of thesis, is that it is unlikely that you will need to identify each participant, which may even make the participants more open and truthful when answering (Buckingham, 2016, p. 58).

3.4. Ethical considerations and limitations

In any form of method and data collection, there are ethical considerations to be made and limits to be discussed. Limitations that I found when conducting the documents analysis were translation from Norwegian to English. The web page for the Norwegian curricula is written in Norwegian. All documents were created in Norwegian but have later on been translated to English. In the few documents I analysed, I noticed that the translation from Norwegian to English was somewhat ambiguous. This means that the meaning in the principles and aims was not always identical in the Norwegian and English versions. However, the differences I noted in the documents used for this thesis are minor, and I have therefor disregarded them as considerable issues.

There are few limitations to textbook analysis, but limited or bias representation found in textbooks can be one. Globally, the English language has a long history with colonisation, and EFL textbooks could be expected to incorporate culture into their materials beyond knowledge of British or American customs as part of language learning. However, studies have found that EFL textbooks tend to overemphasize “inner circle” countries (UK, USA; Australia) and treat culture as a set of limited topics around food, festivals, or the personal sphere (Yuen, 2011; cited in Weninger, 2018). These limitations are, however, not too considerable for this thesis in particular, as its focus is on Norwegian EFL teachers teaching pragmatics, rather than focusing on cultures specifically.

Some researchers have attempted to identify some universal principles for ethical guidance, and Geoff Lindsay has identified five principles, which are mostly used in the field of psychology, but some are also relevant for educational research (Lindsay, 2010, p. 113). One of them is fidelity, which stresses the need for accuracy, and this is important in any form of research. For educational research, the principle of beneficence is often a challenge. Many studies are investigative, illuminative and/or exploratory, and there may be no clear benefit to participants (Lindsay, 2010, p. 114). However, even though there is no direct benefit to my participants, my conscientious treatment of the data they provide may benefit the profession, and therefor indirectly them as well. I will also post my results in the Facebooks groups I searched for participants in, in order for the participants to be able to find them.

Online surveys are increasingly gaining ground in the educational research community and is a great tool for when you need to internationalize research findings (Hartas, 2010b, p. 260). Online surveys have the potential to reach a large number of respondents from different countries, or different part of a country, or explicit groups (Hartas, 2010b, p. 260). There are some concerns with using online surveys, such as issues with sampling, identity of respondents, relevance of items and response bias (Hartas, 2010b, p. 260).

Regarding recruitment of sampling, the issue with online survey is that it uses non-probabilistic samples, such as convenience samples. Using non-probabilistic samples does not mean that the respondents do not represent the population, they might, or they might not, but we have no way of knowing (Hartas, 2010, p. 260). With regard to the issues of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality are critical issues, and in Norway there is an institution for research data, called NSD (Norsk senter for forskningsdata), that one has to submit a request to if one is to collect personally identifiable data. I chose to make my survey as anonymous as possible, not collecting any data that would expose information regarding the participants' identity, such as name, age, place of residence or work, and so on. This meant I would not have to submit a request to NSD to conduct my research. Regarding informed consent, the first thing that appears in my questionnaire is information that the answers will be a part of my master's thesis, and the first question they must answer is "By answering "yes" to this, you agree to participate in this questionnaire, and for your response to be used in a master's thesis". If the participants choose to answer "no", none of the other questions will appear, and their response will not be used in any way. Lastly, data storage is important, which is why I have used Nettskjema, as it needs Feide login to access the results, which only my supervisors and I have access to. Nettskjema also have their own tools for securing the data, and storing it, such as automatic closing and removal of collected personal data when the survey has not received anything in 12 months (Nettskjema, 2022). Regarding some of these concerns, I did contemplate using Feide-login to submit an answer, in order to make sure it would be actual teachers answering the questionnaire. However, I concluded that an extra step (login) could deter some teachers from answering.

4. Findings and discussion

In this chapter, I will present data and analysis for each method used for this thesis, which are the curriculum, both the core curriculum and English subject curriculum, English textbooks used in Norway, and lastly, I present and analyse data from my questionnaire. I chose to present the results in this order because of the nature of each topic, starting with the main framework, continuing with a much-used tool, and finishing with actual teacher experiences and attitudes.

4.1. The curricula

This chapter will present data and analysis for the curricula related to the thesis' research question, which are the core curriculum and the English subject curriculum. In chapter 1.1, I introduced why Norway has the core curriculum and English subject curriculum and how they are used, and in this chapter, I will explain further which sections of these curricula are related to politeness theory. I will also discuss some differences between the competence aims for general studies and vocational studies. As mentioned in chapter 3.1, I read the core curriculum and the English subject curricula to find anything relevant for this thesis. Here, I identified two principles for learning and all-round development, *the basic skills* and *learning to learn*, in the core curriculum (see chapter 4.1.1), and three competence aims in the English subject curriculum (see chapter 4.1.2).

4.1.1 The core curriculum

The core curriculum is a document that contains values and principles for primary and secondary education and training. In other words, it explains the purpose of education in Norway. This includes for example a foundation for the collaboration between home and school, and it clarifies the responsibility of the school and training establishments when it comes to education and all-round development, which we often call *Bildung* (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, p. 3). The core curriculum is divided into three sections:

1. Core values of the education and training,
2. Principles for education and all-round development, and
3. Principles for the school's practice.

Within section 2 there are five principles, and the two most relevant for my research question are 2.3 *The basic skills*, and 2.4 *Learning to Learn*. In the core curriculum, the basic skills are reading, writing, numeracy, oral skills, and digital skills. They are important for developing the identity and social relations of each pupil, and for the ability to participate in education, work and societal life. In the Learning to Learn-section, we are told that by reflecting on learning, both their own and others', the pupils can gradually develop an awareness of their own learning processes. It also states that deeper insight is developed when the pupils understand relationships between fields of knowledge and when they master a variety of strategies to acquire, share and use knowledge critically (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, pp. 13-14).

All competencies that are expected of a Norwegian EFL pupil at first year upper secondary level to have developed, can in some way be linked to one or more of these four basic skills. This includes pragmatic competence, which can be integrated into several of these skills, but perhaps most prominently in the skills that focus on the pupil's ability to express themselves orally and in writing, as we see in the basic skills for the English subject curricula as well (see chapter 4.1.2). However, one could argue that politeness is one step further than these basic skills, and the basic skills might focus more on actually using the language, rather than how you use the language. Still, I believe that the "ability to participate in education, work and societal life" is closely related to politeness theory, because politeness theory is used every day, in all communication, if you are aware of it or not.

4.1.2. The English subject curriculum

Both pragmatic and sociolinguistic competencies are mentioned in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, or the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), and as this is the main framework for language learning in all of Europe, the English subject curriculum in Norway has a clear association with it. In the curriculum, specifically within the core elements of the English subject, it is clearly stated that using strategies is essential in all communication. It goes on to say that communication strategies may include adapting one's language in various contexts, both written and orally (Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). One can see that communicative competence is an important notion within the curriculum. Looking back at what was presented in chapter 2.2.3 of this thesis, one can see

that pragmatic competence involves knowledge of what is culturally acceptable and thus correlates with central aspects of Hymes's definition of communicative competence.

Within the section for basic skills within the English subject curriculum specifically, there are sub-sections for oral skills and written skills, which respectively state that "oral skills in English refers to creating meaning through listening, talking and engaging in conversation. This means "presenting information, adapting the language to the purpose, the receiver and the situation and choosing suitable strategies". It continues with "Developing oral skills in English means using the spoken language more accurately... in order to communicate on different topics in formal and informal situations with a variety of receivers...". The paragraph for writing expresses much of the same, but also says that "writing in English means being able to express ideas and opinions in an understandable and appropriate manner" (The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020).

In my investigation of the curriculum, I found three competence aims within the English subject curriculum for upper secondary studies that can be connected to pragmatics and politeness:

- use appropriate strategies for language learning, text creation and communication.
- express himself or herself in a nuanced and precise manner with fluency and coherence, using idiomatic expressions and varied sentence structures adapted to the purpose, receiver and situation.
- discuss and reflect on form, content and language features and literary devices in different cultural forms of expression from different media in the English-language world, including music, film and gaming.

(The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2020)

These three aims are almost exactly alike for general studies and vocational studies, though there is one slight difference between them in the English version. In the third aim on the list above, in the one for general studies, they specify that the pupil should be able to discuss and reflect on form, content and language features and literary devices in different cultural forms of expression..., whilst the one for vocational studies does not mention different cultural

forms of expression, only ‘cultural forms’ by itself, but it specifies that the pupil should be able to discuss and reflect these things in English. This is such a small difference that it does not really change the meaning of it, and it is safe to say that regarding pragmatics or politeness, there is no indication in the English subject curriculum that teaching pragmatics or politeness has a more significant role in either study programme.

The first competence aim described above connects to politeness by stating that the pupils should use appropriate strategies for communication. According to politeness theory, the interlocutors use particular strategies in order to achieve successful communication, hence the connection to that specific competence aim (see chapter 2.1.1). The second competence on my list specifies “expressing oneself in a nuanced and precise manner [...] adapted to the purpose, receiver, and situation”. This we can connect to Kawai’s study regarding different communication strategies and politeness strategies used in different cultures, as negative and positive face is used differently in different cultures and situations (see chapter 2.1.1). The last competence aim mentioned above also connects to this and can include how we communicate differently in Norwegian versus English, or how people from different English-speaking countries might communicate differently, and how their language features differ.

4.2. Textbooks

I investigated five textbooks, both for general studies and vocational studies, and searched for politeness-related tasks and courses in these books. With the term “courses”, I am referring to pages or sections in the books where there is specific information on the topic, such as explanations or examples, even though each textbook might not refer to them as “courses”. Some textbook publishers have published several textbooks with similar content, only customized for the different vocational studies. *Skills* (2020), for example, is a vocational studies textbook with several different versions, related to the programmes in vocational studies, such as technological and industrial production, healthcare, child and youth development, electrical engineering and computer technology, and more. I investigated those three, however, I will only use one of these as an example, the one for technological and industrial production. The reason for this is that all these *Skills*-books are identical in regard to courses and tasks. The only real difference is that they might be catered to the specific professions, regarding background information and situations and such. In Appendix 2 there

is a table of the different textbooks I investigated, what topics of politeness they include, and how many pages touch on the topic in total.

In these next chapters, I will present courses and tasks which relate to politeness in vocational and general studies textbooks. In order to make this presentation as neat as possible, I present each book in the same order in both the “courses” and “tasks” chapters, and I start each section for a new book with its name. In vocational studies, I present *Citizens YF* (2020) first, followed by *Skills* (2020). In general studies, I first present *Citizens SF* (2020), followed by *E1* (2020), and lastly, *Targets* (2020).

4.2.1. Courses in vocational studies textbooks

Citizens YF (2020) introduce several different courses at the very end of the book, including Writing with purpose, Writing for work, and Informal and formal language. The first two are sub-chapters within Course 2, but Informal and formal language had the entirety of Course 3 dedicated to the topic. In both sub-chapters in Course 2, there are two full pages of information on these writing strategies (figures 7 & 8), first a small introduction, then, step-by-step, points to make the pupil understand the strategies, such as the purpose of writing a text, followed by who you are writing for (target audience), and lastly, before any tasks, there is a small, highlighted box with “quick tips” (figure 8). The sentences are short and to the point. Many of the bullet points start with specific keywords, so the pupil can easily find the one they are working with, and the course includes photos, which researchers say are effective in fostering impressions on children and students (Kasmaienezhadfar, et al., 2015, p. 91).

Figure 7 Course 2.1 Writing with purpose

Purpose: Why are you writing the text?
 Before deciding what kind of text you are going to write, you must consider the *purpose* of the text. Is it to persuade, i.e. to make someone do something or believe something? Or is your purpose to inform, or perhaps to entertain your reader?

a) Texts typically written to persuade an audience:

- Advertisement: aims to persuade readers to buy products or support ideas or causes, often through a combination of language and visual images
- Opinion piece: tries to argue a case and convince or persuade readers about a topic, often in a personal and subjective style
- Blog/vlog post: often wants to persuade readers/viewers to buy a product or change their mind about a topic, using personal and subjective language and visual images
- Argumentative five-paragraph essay (see p. 271)

b) Texts typically written to inform or enlighten an audience:

- News article: informs the audience about a current topic or story by reporting facts using objective language
- Instruction manual: explains how to do something or how to use a product
- Report: describes or explains something we have seen or done (see p. 266)
- Expository five-paragraph essay (see p. 271)

c) Texts typically written to entertain an audience:

- Short story/novel/film: aims to deepen the audience's understanding of other people's existence and of the world, and to engage their emotions
- Comic book: sets out to entertain and engage the reader by telling stories with a combination of cartoons and words



The cigarette that's blended better

How does this advertisement try to persuade its audience?

The same text type, for instance a blog post or a magazine article, can serve several purposes. This means that a particular text can entertain, inform and persuade at the same time. Examples of this are "Fake News: Don't Be Fooled!" (p. 40) and "The Work You Do, the Person You Are" (p. 68). However, in many cases it is possible to identify the main purpose of the text in question.

From *Citizens YF* (p. 254) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 8 Quick tips

Target audience: Who are you writing for?
A target audience is the person or group of people that a text is intended for. In the text message below, the purpose is similar to the text message on page 253, but the target audience is different. The target audience is now a teacher, and you can see that the language, tone and style are quite different.

Good morning. I'm terribly sorry, but I missed the bus and will be about 30 min late for class – Michelle

When you write at school, your target audience will often be your teacher. This means that you must adapt your language to what your teacher expects from you, for example that you use a more formal style in your text (see p. 280). However, sometimes you will be asked to write a text for a specific target audience, such as in this task description: "Write a personal letter to a pupil in year eight and tell him or her to pay attention in English class to prepare for upper secondary school." In this case, your target audience is younger than you are, and you are told to write a personal text, so the language, tone and style can be more personal and informal.

In addition, when writing for work, for instance an instruction (p. 263) or a report (p. 266), you would use language associated with your profession. For example, if a carpenter were to write an instruction for installing window trim, he or she would most likely not write "First of all, you will need the tools for the job: a thingamajig, a dohickey, a whaddayacallit and a sharp pencil." The carpenter would use the actual names of the tools "First of all, you will need the tools for the job: a mitre saw, a brad nail gun, yellow wood glue and a sharp pencil." A *mitre saw* might sound as made-up as the words above to a person not familiar with carpentry. However, to professionals it will make perfect sense. Since the target audience for instructions or reports in the workplace is professionals, it is expected that you use technical terms and concepts.

Quick tips

Before you begin writing your text

- 1 *Find the purpose of the text:* Is it to persuade, to inform or to entertain, or is it a combination of different purposes?
- 2 *Find the target audience:* Who are you writing for? How should this affect the language, tone, style and content of your text?
- 3 *Decide which text type you should write:* What kind of text suits the purpose and target audience of your text?

From *Citizens YF* (p. 255) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

The sub-chapter on writing for work is quite similar to the previous one, with clear step-by-step directions on how to write instructions, also using imagery to help the pupils visualise and to give examples of how instructions can be given through illustrations. The course on informal and formal language, however, is structured slightly differently. As the previous course was focusing on writing strategies, it was natural that a step-by-step presentation was used. This course starts off with an introduction to where informal language is used. It mentions that there is a difference between written and spoken language and that there are degrees to formality. The course then goes on to give examples, comparing formal and informal language, spoken and written language, and so on. Next, it takes the pupil through a table with some language features such as "passive/active", "slang" and "filler words". The pupil can then look down the informal or formal columns to see where different words and

sentences are placed (see figure 8). On the next three pages there is a mix of information and tasks, making it so that when the pupils are doing the tasks, they have the information on that specific topic fresh in their memory (see figure 9). Lastly, the course chapter ends with a highlighted box with “quick tips”, a few tasks, and suggestions as to where the pupils could continue to explore this topic.

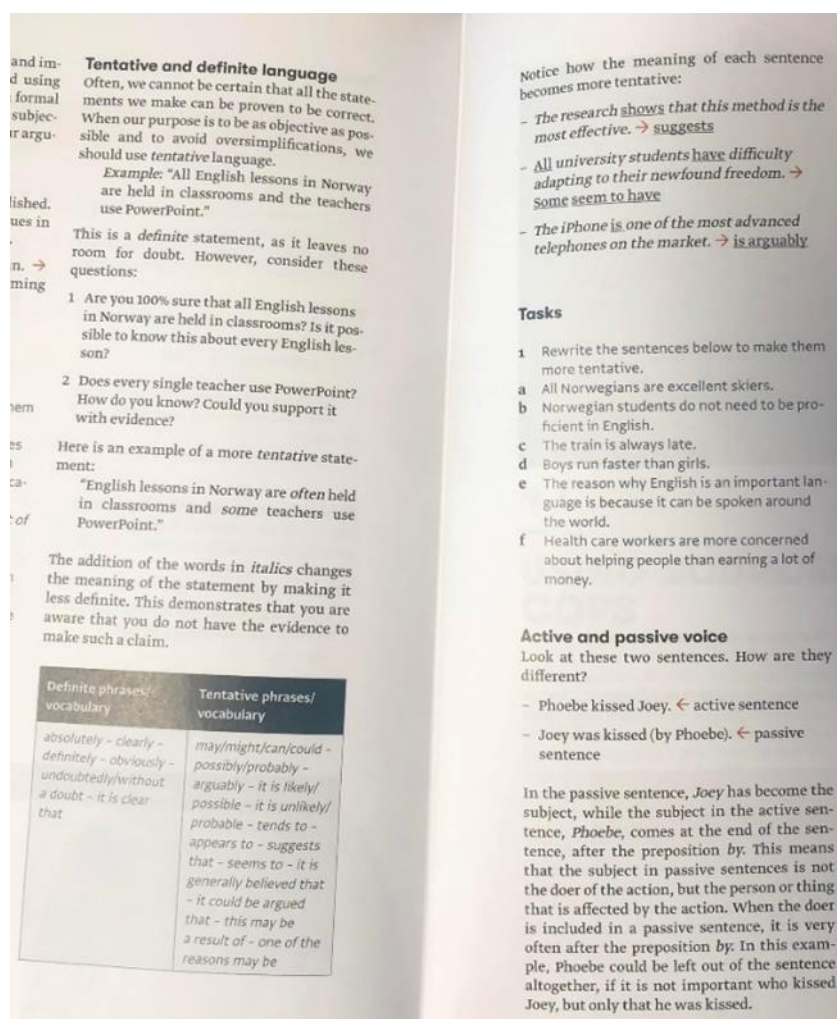
Figure 9 Table of formal versus informal language

What makes a text informal or formal?
Look for the language features in this table:

Language features to look for	Informal	Formal
Choice of words (see list of examples on p. 281)	<i>get, enough</i>	<i>receive, sufficient</i>
Slang	<i>gonna, coulda, woulda, shoulda, ain't</i>	No slang: <i>going to, could have, would have, should have, are not</i>
Sentences	- incomplete sentences - exclamation marks and emojis <i>Be there in five! :)</i> <i>We don't think it's a good idea to do anything right now.</i>	- complete sentences - standard punctuation (no exclamation marks, no emojis) <i>I will be there in five minutes.</i> <i>It is suggested that no action should be taken at this point in time.</i>
Abbreviations	<i>Btw, b/c, w/</i>	No abbreviations: <i>by the way, because, with</i>
Contractions	<i>it's, they're, won't</i>	<i>it is, they are, will not</i>
Filler words (words that do not add any meaning to the sentence)	More use of filler words: <i>um, uh, er, like, right, you know, well, just, only, really, that</i>	No or minimal use of filler words
Objective/subjective (see p. 283)	Subjective, opinions: <i>Edinburgh is the most beautiful city in the UK.</i>	Objective, facts: <i>Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland.</i>
Definite/tentative (see p. 284):	More use of definite statements: <i>Kids today don't watch television with their parents.</i>	More use of tentative statements: <i>Arguably, kids today spend less time watching television with their parents.</i>
Passive/active (see p. 285)	Usually active: <i>Peter stole the bike.</i>	Frequently passive: <i>The bike was stolen (by Peter).</i>

From Citizens YF (p. 282) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 10 Tentative and definite language



From *Citizens YF* (pp. 284-285) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

Skills (2020) integrate their courses related to politeness more into each chapter. These courses are a part of a recurring, two-page text type in each chapter called "improve your skills", and includes courses in giving instructions, using formal and informal language, giving a presentation and arguing a case. The course information on giving instructions is more compromised compared to the equivalent in *Citizens YF*. It consists of one single page, introducing five steps to giving instruction, with specific examples of how these steps look in practice. The course on giving a presentation is relatively similar, with the course information taking up the first page, but this time also some on the second page, and a few tasks following. The last one I want to mention is arguing a case, as there were no similar courses in the *Citizens*-book. Again, this is structured very similarly to the previously mentioned courses in this book (see figure 12). An advantage with the *Skills*-book compared to the

Citizens-book is that these courses are integrated into each chapter. This makes it easier for the teacher to remember to actually use this in their classroom, and also makes it easier for the pupils to be aware of these courses, through using reading strategies such as BISON¹. This strategy encourages the pupils to get an overview of the chapter before diving into it properly, and they will then see that these politeness courses are an integral part of their learning. A disadvantage with these courses is that there are few to no pictures. As I mentioned above, pictures help foster impressions among children and youths, and by not including them in these courses, that might already seem a bit ‘dry’ for this age group, it can make it more difficult to attract attention to them.

Figure 11 Arguing a case.

IMPROVE YOUR SKILLS

ARGUING A CASE
Whether you are preparing for an oral presentation, planning a debate or writing a text, the steps below will be useful if you want to argue a case, discuss a topic and convince your audience.

1 Make a claim Start with a statement that can be argued and proven by evidence. Make sure your opinion is valid.	One of the biggest environmental challenges today is ocean pollution.
2 Be logical, clear and simple Present evidence, facts and logic to support your arguments. This is called <i>logos</i> .	It is estimated that 8 million tons of plastic are washed into the ocean every year, worldwide. Furthermore, according to recent research, one hundred thousand marine animals are killed by this yearly.
3 Be trustworthy Show that you can be trusted by sharing knowledge and personal experience and by referring to credible sources. This is called <i>ethos</i> .	I have read several reports thoroughly and discovered that most of this waste is single-use plastic. This means that we recycle next to nothing, even though I know from experience that recycling is really easy.
4 Win your audience Make your audience or readers identify with your arguments and become interested by appealing to emotions and creating a sense of unity. This is called <i>pathos</i> .	It is horrible to see the beautiful creatures in our oceans suffer and die because of the harmful waste we force upon these defenceless animals. We must join forces to solve this terrible situation.
5 Respect alternative views Listen to other opinions and respond to your opponent's point of view in a polite way, but also point out their weaknesses or illogical reasoning.	Some claim that removing plastic from the ocean is pointless if we do not stop the constant flow of new waste. I respect this point of view, but I am convinced that we need to do both to solve this problem.
6 Sum up Repeat your main points.	Therefore, I am certain that we need to collect waste in the ocean and recycle it, and we can all contribute!

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From *Skills* (p. 358) in Lokøy, et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

¹ BISON = Bilde, Introduksjon, sammendrag, overskrifter og NB-ord. In English, this translates to Pictures, Introduction, Summary, Headlines, and Highlighted words.

4.2.2. Courses in general studies textbooks

Citizens SF (2020) structures the book identically to *Citizens YF*. The courses and tasks I found related to politeness are situated in the same spot and contain almost identical information. Looking at Course 2.1 Writing with purpose, we see that much of the same information is identical, though in section a) we see that the authors have added a type of text that are typically written to persuade an audience: persuasive speech. It specifies that it is often used by means of rhetorical appeal forms and devices, political jargon or humour. This type of text might be more relevant for pupils studying general studies, as they often go on to academics later, compared to vocational studies, who often do not. This section also refers to course 3.2 Rhetoric, which is another topic related to politeness theory, but that is only included in the textbook for general studies. This course is quite extensive, it explains *ethos*, *pathos* and *logos* individually, with examples from dialogue and what effect the speaker is trying to get across, and examples from public speeches and the effect the speaker is trying to get across (Andersen et al., 2020b, pp. 310-312). After these introductions, there is a table of rhetorical devices, why the devices are used, and examples (See figures 13 & 14).

Figure 12 Course on rhetoric


3.2 — RHETORIC

"Rhetoric is the art of ruling the minds of men."
PLATO, GREEK PHILOSOPHER

Rhetoric, also known as the art of persuasion, is a set of communication skills used when the purpose of a text is to impress and persuade the audience. Rhetoric is an important aspect of political speeches and of advertising. However, rhetoric can be used in any text, written or spoken, where the intention is to persuade or convince.

A successful speaker or writer knows how to combine the three persuasive appeal forms *logos*, *pathos* and *ethos*.

- *Logos* uses logic and facts as tools to persuade the audience.
- *Pathos* appeals to the audience's emotions and sympathies.
- *Ethos* is a form of argument that relies on whether we trust someone or have confidence in his or her expertise, experience and abilities. The idea is that if we respect certain people, we also trust what they are saying.



President John F. Kennedy delivers his famous "We choose to go to the Moon" speech in Texas, 1962. His purpose was to convince the American people to support the Apollo program. On 20 July 1969, the program succeeded when Neil Armstrong became the first person to walk on the moon.

1. rhetorical appeal form: Logos

Examples from dialogue or discussion	Effect the speaker is after	Examples from public speeches	Effect the speaker is after
1) "According to recent studies, people with pets are healthier and happier than others."	These speakers try to reason with their audience by providing facts and appealing to their sense of logic. Note that logos can make use of both actual facts and apparent facts.	"If the President wants to come up to me and tell me to my face that it was a terrible tragedy, I'm going to happily ask him how much money he received from the National Rifle Association."	The speaker is trying to sway the audience by providing exact numbers of how much money the president receives from the NRA. By comparing this number with human loss, she is implying that money is more important to the president than human lives.
2) "The law is clear on this matter. Reading paragraph 3.1, there can be no doubt that this is illegal."	In the first example, a person is making a claim supported by a reference to "recent studies". Although the exact source is not revealed, the claim seems strong when the speaker refers to science. In the second example, most likely coming from a lawyer, the speaker refers to an exact source, which strengthens the argument.	"You want to know something? It doesn't matter, because I already know. Thirty million dollars. And divided by the number of gunshot victims in the United States in the one and one-half months in 2018 alone, that comes out to being \$5,800. Is that how much these people are worth [...]?" <small>(High school student Emma Gonzalez in a speech after a school shooting at her school in Florida.)</small>	

2. Rhetorical appeal form: Pathos

Examples from dialogue or discussion	Effect the speaker is after	Examples from public speeches	Effect the speaker is after
1) "If you don't come along for Grandma's birthday, it will break her heart."	These speakers want to appeal to the feelings of their audience. For instance, in the first example, the speaker is playing on guilt, trying to make the other person feel bad about not going to Grandma's birthday.	"At this very moment, as we sit here, women around the world are giving birth, raising children, cooking meals, washing clothes, cleaning houses, planting crops, working on assembly lines, running companies, and running countries. Women are also dying from diseases that watching their children succumb to malnutrition caused by poverty and economic deprivation. They're being denied the right to go to school by their own fathers and brothers. They're being forced into prostitution. And they are being barred from bank lending offices and banned from the ballot box."	By listing some of the challenges women are facing around the world, the speaker is trying to get the audience to relate emotionally to the struggles of women and to sympathize with the cause of furthering women's rights.
2) "Smoking harms both you and the ones you love. Quitting smoking will benefit you and help you protect the people in your life. Quitting will make the people you care about happier and healthier."	The speaker in the second example tries to make smokers feel bad, as their habit is hurting people they care about. The solution is to quit smoking.	<small>(Hillary Clinton in a speech at the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women)</small>	

In *Citizens SF* (pp. 310-311) in Andersen et al., 2020b. Reproduced with permission.

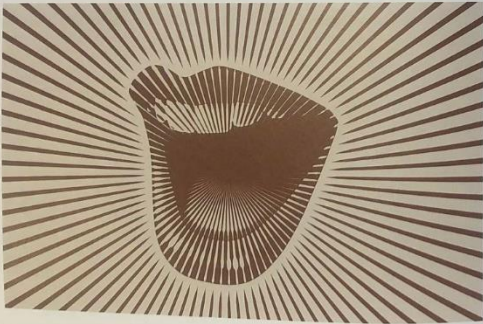
Figure 13 Course on Rhetoric cont.

3. Rhetorical appeal form: Ethos

Examples from dialogue or discussion	Effect the speaker is after	Examples from public speeches	Effect the speaker is after
1) "As a doctor, I have experienced that this treatment has the best results."	In the first example, the speaker uses his/her status as a doctor to convince the audience.	"I stand before you today to announce my candidacy for President of the United States of America. [...]"	The speaker uses his experiences (mixed with humility) to convince the audience that he is a candidate for "change".
2) "Four out of five dentists recommend this sugar-free gum!"	In the second example, a product is advertised as recommended by a majority of professionals within the product field.	Look, I - I recognize that there is a certain presumptuousness in this, a certain audacity, to this announcement. I know that I haven't spent a lot of time learning the ways of Washington. But I've been there long enough to know that the ways of Washington must change."	
3) "I have worked at Murwillumbah Vet Clinic for over 25 years and I have seen a lot of changes."	The woman speaking in the third example has had long experience within her field of work and uses this to convince the audience that she can be trusted.	(From Barack Obama's official announcement of candidacy for US President)	

Logos, pathos and ethos appeal to people in different ways, yet they depend on each other to be convincing. For example, it is easier to get an audience to connect emotionally (pathos) to a message if the speaker or writer is someone who is considered credible (ethos).

Similarly, if a text uses statistics and facts (logos) from a credible source (ethos), it is more trustworthy. A successful speech or text, including those in the table above, all include a combination of logos, ethos and pathos.



rhetorical devices

Here are some language techniques that speakers and writers use in combination with the appeal forms on the previous pages when they want to convince or persuade an audience:

Rhetorical device	Examples	Reasons why the device is used
Rhetorical question: The speaker/author asks a question, but does not expect an answer, or gives the answer in the next sentence.	"Would you like to be healthier and live longer?" "So, what do Chicanos, Hispanics or Latinos prefer to call themselves? In fact, studies show that..." (p. 175) "Yeah, but are the British coming back? I don't think so!" (p. 244)	Makes the audience think about an answer, which makes them pay attention to what the speaker says next.
Repetition: Important words, phrases, expressions or even sentences are repeated.	"I believe in this country. I believe in the American people. I believe that people are more good than bad." (Barack Obama, the 44th president of the USA)	Used to create emphasis and to make sure that the readers remember the key points of the text.
Hyperbole: An exaggeration to prove a point.	"Can technology really be the answer? My toaster has never once worked properly in four years. I follow the instructions and push two slices of bread down in the slots, and seconds later they rattle upwards. Once they broke the nose of a woman I loved dearly." (Woody Allen, "My Speech to the Graduates") "We walked and walked, and after what felt like an eternity, a car drove up and stopped." (p. 232)	Often used to paint a picture of a situation for the reader, to make the message stand out clearly, sometimes for humorous effect.
Contrast: Used to emphasise the difference between two things.	"Our personalities were so different; we were like night and day." "If men don't have to control, women won't have to be controlled." (p. 13) "It's not a screen, it's a gateway to wherever your heart desires." (p. 33)	Used to show the reader the difference in ideas, things or people, to emphasise that there is an opposition between them.
Juxtaposition: Placing two or more opposites next to each other for contrasting effect.	"It is demanding to keep a clear head in a complicated world." (p. 47) "An open door - or a fortress?" (p. 96)	Creates clear and often striking contrasting images. The comparison adds vividness to the narrative and can be used to surprise the reader.
Varied sentence length: Longer sentences slow down the reading or speaking pace, while shorter sentences tend to speed it up.	"We need to act quickly. Right now! It is imperative that we, as a group, respond in a swift and decisive manner in this matter to avoid any allegations of wasting time and resources. Our fellow citizens depend on us."	By varying the lengths of sentences, a speaker or writer can increase or decrease the intensity of a text.

In *Citizens SF* (pp. 312-313) in Andersen et al., 2020b. Reproduced with permission.

The last course from *Citizens SF* that I wish to mention is Course 3.1. This course deals with formal and informal language, in the same way that the *Citizens YF* book does. However, towards the end of the course, a section is added, that is not included in the *YF* book, namely academic language. This is a one page-course, with encouragement at the end to keep exploring the topic, through practice reading, listening and working with academic language, and using academic language in one's own texts (see figure 15).

Figure 14 Academic language

Academic language
 Academic texts come in many forms, and some examples are research papers and publications in academic journals. Although academic texts have their own standards depending on their field and subject, they do have some features in common:

Objectivity	Academic texts aim to be as objective and neutral as possible (see p.305).
High lexical density	Words can be categorised according to whether they are <i>lexical words</i> or <i>grammatical words</i> . Lexical words are words that have a meaning referring to the world and to our actions. Lexical words can be verbs (<i>drive, sleep</i>), nouns (<i>bike, dog</i>), adjectives and adverbs (<i>beautiful, red, badly</i>). <i>Grammatical words</i> have a more grammatical function in the sentence, and little or no meaning in themselves. Examples are articles (<i>a, the</i>), conjunctions (<i>and, but</i>) and prepositions (<i>at, on</i>). Academic texts often contain many lexical words that give a lot of information in few sentences. In this example, the lexical words are marked, whereas the unmarked words are grammatical words. <i>Black carbon, also known as soot, emitted from combustion of fuels and biomass burning, absorbs solar radiation in the atmosphere and is one of the major causes of global warming, after carbon dioxide emissions.</i> <small>(https://www.english-corpora.org/cocaf/)</small> adjectives, nouns, verbs
Specific terminology	Academic texts make use of terms and words specific to a subject; the vocabulary people within a field of academia, for instance medicine or law, use to communicate with each other. For example, in a medical journal you would encounter terminology such as <i>myocardial infarction</i> , which commonly would be referred to as a <i>heart attack</i> . This type of terminology is sometimes called <i>academic jargon</i> .
Tentativeness	To avoid subjectivity, academic texts are often tentative in style (see p.306).
Substantiation	Statements and reasoning must be based on evidence. For instance, it is not sufficient to say, "Barack Obama is the best president the USA has ever had" and leave it at that. You must substantiate your claim with facts and/or examples.
Citing sources	All sources must be cited within the text and in a list of references (see p.320).

EXPLORE

Academic language
 Go to citizens.edu.no to practise reading and understanding academic texts, to listen to and work with academic language, and to practise using academic language in your own texts.

Chapter 5: Courses | 309

In *Citizens SF* (p. 309) in Andersen et al., 2020b. Reproduced with permission.

EI (2020) is another textbook for general studies. On the very first page of the book, there is an overview of different courses, and on the next page, we get an explanation of these courses, how they focus on English language skills, and how they are meant to improve the pupils' communication skills (Figure 16 & 17).

Figure 15 Course index

COURSE	TITLE	PAGE
1	Reading strategies	264
2	Expanding your vocabulary	268
3	Improving your listening skills	272
4	Being polite	274
5	Recognising formality	276
6	Structuring a sentence	280
7	Structuring a paragraph	284
8	Structuring a text	288
9	Planning your text	292
10	Choosing sources	294
11	Referring to sources	296
12	Revising your text	298
13	Improving your pronunciation	302
14	Giving presentations	306
15	Holding discussions	308
16	Analysing poems and songs	312
17	Approaching literature and films	316

From E1 (p. 1) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 16 Information on courses

5 Courses
The 17 courses that together make up Chapter 5 focus on essential English language skills. By studying them closely you will improve your ability to communicate in English. The courses will serve you well in everyday life, on the exam, in further studies and in working life. Each course consists of concrete step-by-step instructions, model answers and practice tasks. We suggest you use them actively as references when working with Over-to-You tasks, writing essays or giving oral presentations.

From E1 (p. 2) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

Course 4 is called Being polite, and it says that the course is supposed to help the pupil to make a good impression in six steps. Each step contains a phrase, a description or explanation on how you use it, and lastly gives two examples on how to use said phrases (Figure 18 & 19). These steps are very concrete, but do not encompass proper explanations as to why we use these phrases in the English language, some of them have the feeling of “say this because that is what we say”. There is definitely room for more in-depth learning of these phrases.

Figure 17 Being polite.

4 Being polite

This course helps you to make a good impression in six easy steps.

Step 1 **Say please and thank you.** It can sound very blunt to English speakers when you leave out *please* and *thank you*.

EXAMPLE
Can I borrow your book, please?
More polite than: *Can I borrow your book?*
(Did you get my message?) Yes, I did, thank you.
More polite than: *Yes, I did.*

Step 2 **Use *mind* and *be able* and *be willing*.** The above words, along with "Would you", make a sentence more polite because they acknowledge the other person's position. It is similar to using *Har du mulighet ...?* in Norwegian.

EXAMPLE
Would you mind giving me a hand with this?
More polite than: *Could you give me a hand with this?*
Would you be able to work next Tuesday?
More polite than: *Could you work next Tuesday?*

Step 3 **Use qualifiers.** You can use so-called qualifiers like *just*, *slightly* or a *little* to make what you are asking for appear less demanding.

EXAMPLE
Could you give me just a few minutes of your time?
More polite than: *Could you give me some of your time?*
Could we meet slightly earlier next time?
More polite than: *Could we meet earlier next time?*

Step 4 **Use *may* in questions.** The word *may* is used to ask for permission.

TAKE NOTE!
To use *may* in a question is to ask to be allowed to do something yourself, so you cannot say *May I have some help?* or *May you open the door for me?*

EXAMPLE
May I borrow your book?
More polite than: *Can/Could I borrow your book?*
May we come in?
More polite than: *Can we come in?*

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From E1 (p. 274) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 18 Being polite cont.

Step 5 **Use the past continuous tense.** The past continuous is another way of being less direct. This is formed with *was* or *were* and the *-ing* form of a verb.

EXAMPLE
I was wondering whether you could do me a favour.
More polite than: *I wonder whether you could do me a favour.*
I was hoping that we could meet today.
More polite than: *I hope that we can meet today.*

Step 6 **Form negative questions.** A statement or positive question can be turned into a more polite negative question.

EXAMPLE
Couldn't we try the other restaurant this time?
More polite than: *Could we try the other restaurant this time?*
Wouldn't it be better to go through the town?
More polite than: *It would be better to go through the town.*

TAKE NOTE!
You do not want to sound overly polite. A little politeness goes a long way.

From E1 (p. 275) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

Other courses in the *EI* book that can be related to politeness are Course 5 Recognising formality and 15 Holding discussions. Formality is a topic that most textbooks seem to have, and this book explains it quite similarly to other books in both general studies and vocational studies. It shows a formality scale with three different examples, compares a formal and an informal text, and it explains what to avoid when being assessed. Still, there is only so much that the course can include, and I believe giving the pupils information on where one could explore this further, or where the pupils can look up a formal version of a word, would be just as helpful as this course alone. Course 15, as I said, is about holding discussions. When holding discussions, it is important to be aware of positive and negative politeness strategies, as using these might help you convey your point of view, and might help the hearer understand your opinions, especially negative politeness strategies (See chapter 2.1.1). This course takes the reader through three steps: the first is making sure you know what you are talking about, reading up on the topic to make informed arguments. The next step is expressing yourself clearly by using precise terminology linked to the topic. The third and last step to listen and respond to other's point of view, by being respectful and curious (Figures 20 & 21).

Figure 19 Holding discussions.

15 Holding discussions

Being able to voice your opinion is a necessity. Our democracy depends upon it and most of us do it daily. In a school or study context, partaking in discussions requires theoretical knowledge, specific terminology, and both analytical and interpretative skills. Whether you are in a casual discussion about football, or in a formal assessment, the following three steps will make sure you are well prepared.

Step 1 **Make sure you are in the know.** To be part of a discussion, you need in-depth knowledge of the topic at hand. Consequently, we advise that you:

- Read up, so that you can retell arguments
- Identify core issues or the main conflict
- Find examples to illustrate your points
- Discuss, interpret, and evaluate the arguments in relation to the main conflict

Claim:
EXAMPLE
The situation for African Americans in the USA changed during the civil rights movement of the 1950s and 60s.

Explain and exemplify:
EXAMPLE
For instance, Martin Luther King Jr., Rosa Parks, and Senator John Lewis conducted peaceful demonstrations like the one in Selma, in 1965, which was violently stopped by the local authorities.

Discuss:
EXAMPLE
One could argue that the fight did not end in the 1960s. Colin Kaepernick exercised the same nonviolent protest as King advocated when he knelt during the national anthem in 2016. The aftermath also illustrated ...

Step 2 **Express yourself clearly.** Precise terminology is necessary to express yourself clearly and be an active participant in the conversation.

- Learn specific words and terms linked to your topic.
- Practise using phrases for presenting your view.

EXAMPLE

Introducing topics
Firstly, ...
Furthermore, ...
Data from Pew Research Center show ...
On the one hand, ... On the other hand, ...
Critics have argued that ...

From E1 (p. 308) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 20 Holding discussions cont.

Step 3 **Listen and respond to other's viewpoints.** Sharing thoughts and arguments from several sources will contribute to a better understanding for all. It will give you new perspectives or even provide new solutions.

- Make sure you meet opposing arguments with respect and curiosity. Demonstrating this skill means being aware of your body language, not only your words.
- Practise using phrases to demonstrate listening and responding.

EXAMPLE

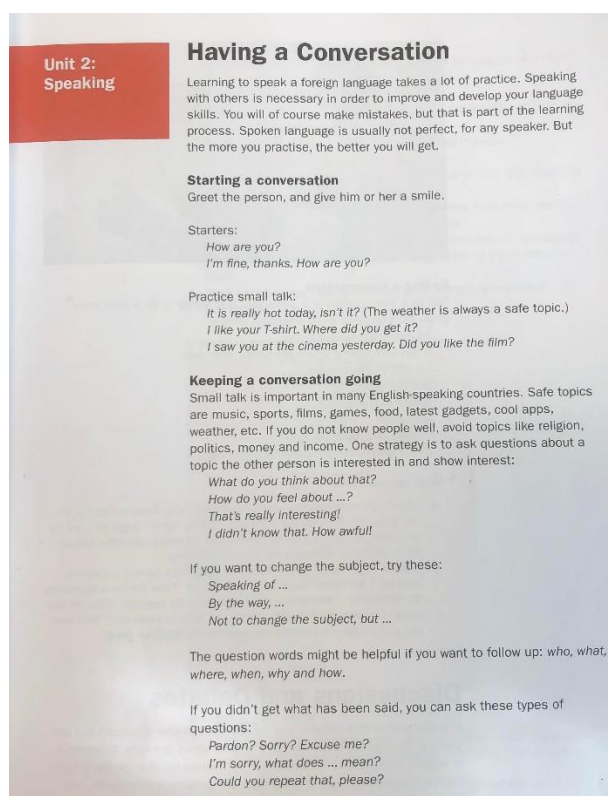
Agreeing and adding
I agree with Paul ..., and I would add what another expert says ...
In addition, ...

Disagreeing and arguing
I disagree with Paul, because ...
At the same time, one could argue ...
Others see this differently, because ...
On the contrary, I believe ...
There is considerable disagreement between experts ...

From E1 (p. 309) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

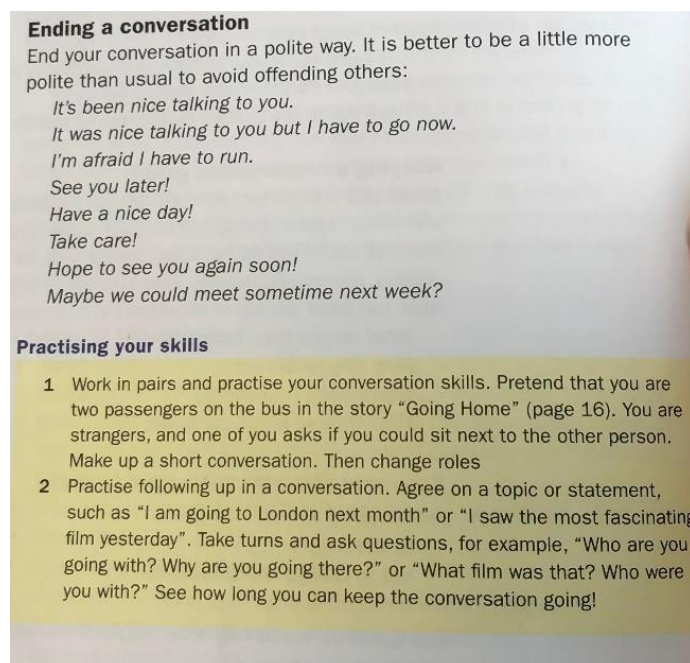
Targets (2020) does not specify whether it is made specifically for general studies, however, as long as there are no chapters, sub-chapters or courses related to vocational studies, I consider this as made for general studies. I found several courses that match with my priori criteria, such as Discussing and Debates, Audience, Purpose, and Text Type, and Formal and Informal Style. These are all courses in Chapter 2 Target Your Skills, but there were other topics that fall outside of my criteria, which I also believe are related to politeness. Having a Conversation (figure 22) is one of those and contains a brief course in having a conversation in a foreign language, going through the process of starting the conversation, keeping the conversation going, and ending the conversation (figure 22 & 23). Even though politeness theory is not just “being polite”, it does fall under the topic, and this course does specify that being too polite is better than not being polite enough. This is something that can be connected to politeness strategies, and positive and negative politeness, though it does not mention that in this course.

Figure 21 Having a conversation.



From *Targets* (p. 57) in Balsvik et al., 2020. Aschehoug. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 22 Having a conversation.



Ending a conversation
End your conversation in a polite way. It is better to be a little more polite than usual to avoid offending others:

- It's been nice talking to you.*
- It was nice talking to you but I have to go now.*
- I'm afraid I have to run.*
- See you later!*
- Have a nice day!*
- Take care!*
- Hope to see you again soon!*
- Maybe we could meet sometime next week?*

Practising your skills

- 1 Work in pairs and practise your conversation skills. Pretend that you are two passengers on the bus in the story "Going Home" (page 16). You are strangers, and one of you asks if you could sit next to the other person. Make up a short conversation. Then change roles
- 2 Practise following up in a conversation. Agree on a topic or statement, such as "I am going to London next month" or "I saw the most fascinating film yesterday". Take turns and ask questions, for example, "Who are you going with? Why are you going there?" or "What film was that? Who were you with?" See how long you can keep the conversation going!

From *Targets* (p. 58) in Balsvik et al., 2020. Aschehoug. Reproduced with permission.

4.2.3. Courses: Similarities and differences between vocational and general studies

Some differences I noticed when comparing the courses in vocational studies textbooks and general studies textbooks were for example how the two books for vocational studies both had courses on writing for work, such as writing reports and giving instructions, which none of the textbooks for general studies had. The textbooks for general studies, however, had more oral courses, such as having a conversation, giving presentations, and rhetoric. As general studies are meant to prepare the students for academics, arguing one's case is an important thing to learn, as much academic writing and study revolves around making sensible arguments and presenting information to back up one's statements, in anything from law to literature. Vocational studies, even though these are skills that may benefit these pupils, focus more on trade skills, systematic approaches, and being direct and understood, in order to achieve success in their occupation. This shows that vocational studies and general studies textbooks teach politeness in different ways, based on how the pupils will use it in their future.

The main similarity I noticed was how every single book, both for vocational and general studies, had courses which focus explicitly on formal and informal language. Formality changes through many situations, and work life versus personal life might be the most normal situations most people can detect this difference in. If you are studying to become a teacher, a nurse, a mechanic, or a hair dresser, it is important to understand in which situations you would use formal language, such as when writing a job application or helping a customer, and in which situations it is appropriate to use informal language, such as when talking to friends and family. This can also be applied to courses on writing or talking with purpose, which are found in both vocational studies and general studies textbooks.

4.2.4. Tasks in vocational studies textbooks

In figures 24-26, you see the tasks that follow the course on informal and formal language in *Citizens YF*. The tasks start out with the most basic, having the pupils identify on a “formality scale” where three differently constructed sentences belong. Right after, we see a discussion task, which could either be done written or in pair/groups. The last task in figure 24 makes the pupils identify some informal features in a sentence. In figure 25, we move on to more challenging tasks. Here, the pupils have to use what they have learnt to create their own sentences and texts. The same can be said about the tasks in figure 26, only the tasks are related to a different topic within formal and informal language.

Figure 23 Tasks on formal and informal language

Tasks

1 Read the three sentences below, and then answer the questions.

- I don't have any time for that.
- I ain't got no time for that.
- Unfortunately, that will not fit into my schedule at this time.

a Organise the sentences in order from the most informal to the most formal.

b Why have you chosen this order? Comment on the language features in each sentence.

2a What do you think about the language style used in the two conversations below? Does the degree of formality fit each situation? Give reasons for your answer.

A husband and a wife early in the morning:
 Wife: "Good morning, Paul. How are you today?"

Husband: "I'm fine, thank you, and you? I have prepared your breakfast. Would you like to eat it outside on the patio?"
 Wife: "That would be fine. Thank you."

An employee asking her employer for a wage increase:
 Employee: "Dude, I've got to get more money. I ain't got money for rent."
 Employer: "Yeah, right!"

b Rewrite one of the conversations in a language style you find more appropriate to the situation.

3 The sentence below includes at least four informal features. Point them out, and then rewrite the sentence using more formal language.
 "Btw, won't B able to come over?"

Subjective and objective language

You should use subjective language when the purpose is to state your opinion or belief, for example in a discussion, an opinion piece or a blog post. Examples of subjective statements:

- *I think it's obvious that 16-year-olds are more than smart enough to vote in elections.*
- *The University of Brighton is a wonderful university located on the south coast of England.*

You should use objective language when the purpose of your spoken or written text is to provide factual information:

- *Current research indicates that a majority of 16-year-olds have the necessary knowledge and mental capabilities to make informed choices in political elections.*
- *The University of Brighton is a university located on the south coast of England.*

Features of subjective language	Features of objective language
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - coloured by personal feelings - based on personal opinion and judgements - often non-factual and non-verifiable (not possible to prove or disprove) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - not coloured by personal feelings - based on observations and measurements - factual and verifiable (possible to prove or disprove) - more use of tentative statements (page 284)

From *Citizens YF* (p. 283) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 24 Tasks on formal and informal language cont.

Formal language aims to be objective and impersonal. Therefore, you should avoid using personal pronouns, especially "I", in a formal text, since these make texts appear subjective and personal. Instead, back up your argumentation with facts.

Examples:
 I believe that homework should be abolished.
 → Research carried out in the USA argues in favour of the abolishment of homework.
 I think everyone should become vegan. → There are many arguments for becoming vegan.

Tasks

- Rewrite the sentences below to make them more objective and impersonal.
 - This essay is going to be about similarities and differences that I could find between Norwegian and American vocational education.
 - I have read the book *The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time*. I have also watched the movie *Extremely Loud & Incredibly Close*. That is why I have chosen to compare these two texts. I want to find out if they are similar, or if they are just the opposite, very different. So, I am going to write a text where I compare the plots and the characters in the movie and the book.
- Make this text more objective and formal:
The social media platform Instagram is one of the most popular in the world. Sadly, I think it's full of cyber-bullying and "trolls". I believe this has to change to create a platform where everyone can enjoy themselves without the imminent fear of being bullied. That's why I think establishing cyber-police would be a wise choice.

Tentative and definite language
 Often, we cannot be certain that all the statements we make can be proven to be correct. When our purpose is to be as objective as possible and to avoid oversimplifications, we should use *tentative* language.
Example: "All English lessons in Norway are held in classrooms and the teachers use PowerPoint."
 This is a **definite** statement, as it leaves no room for doubt. However, consider these questions:

- Are you 100% sure that all English lessons in Norway are held in classrooms? Is it possible to know this about every English lesson?
- Does every single teacher use PowerPoint? How do you know? Could you support it with evidence?

Here is an example of a more *tentative* statement:
 "English lessons in Norway are *often* held in classrooms and *some* teachers use PowerPoint."

The addition of the words in *italics* changes the meaning of the statement by making it less definite. This demonstrates that you are aware that you do not have the evidence to make such a claim.

Definite phrases/vocabulary	Tentative phrases/vocabulary
absolutely - clearly - definitely - obviously - undoubtedly/without a doubt - it is clear that	may/might/can/could - possibly/probably - arguably - it is likely/possible - it is unlikely/probable - tends to - appears to - suggests that - seems to - it is generally believed that - it could be argued that - this may be a result of - one of the reasons may be

From *Citizens YF* (p. 284) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 25 Tasks on formal and informal language cont.

Notice how the meaning of each sentence becomes more tentative:

- The research **shows** that this method is the most effective. → *suggests*
- All university students **have** difficulty adapting to their newfound freedom. → *Some seem to have*
- The iPhone **is one of the most advanced** telephones on the market. → *is arguably*

Tasks

- Rewrite the sentences below to make them more tentative.
 - All Norwegians are excellent skiers.
 - Norwegian students do not need to be proficient in English.
 - The train is always late.
 - Boys run faster than girls.
 - The reason why English is an important language is because it can be spoken around the world.
 - Health care workers are more concerned about helping people than earning a lot of money.

Active and passive voice
 Look at these two sentences. How are they different?


- Phoebe kissed Joey. ← active sentence
- Joey was kissed (by Phoebe). ← passive sentence

In the passive sentence, *Joey* has become the subject, while the subject in the active sentence, *Phoebe*, comes at the end of the sentence, after the preposition *by*. This means that the subject in passive sentences is not the doer of the action, but the person or thing that is affected by the action. When the doer is included in a passive sentence, it is very often after the preposition *by*. In this example, Phoebe could be left out of the sentence altogether, if it is not important who kissed Joey, but only that he was kissed.

In situations where you want to focus on the object rather than the subject, use the passive voice. Since this is often the case in formal situations and text types, the passive voice is more frequent here. The active voice is less wordy and often easier to understand, and is therefore more suitable for everyday language.

Use the passive voice if the subject is:

- unknown: *My phone has been stolen.* (I don't know who the thief is)
- not important: *The windows are cleaned every Friday.* (by the window cleaners)
- obvious: *In yesterday's match our team was beaten.* (everybody knows by which team)
- better off not revealed: *Smoking is prohibited.* (rather than "The management prohibits smoking") / *The police department has been informed about the illegal import of pandas.* (they do not want to reveal their source)



From *Citizens YF* (p. 285) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 26 Texts for tasks on writing with purpose

TEXT 2
Complaint concerning order
 no. BF 23948-2948
 Dear Sir or Madam,


This morning Boyles & Son Real Estate received a package of office supplies from your company. The order was placed on 22 May 2020. The invoice claims that the order is complete. However, 10 packages of Post-it notepads are lacking from the order. In addition, we have been charged for the missing notepads. We use these notepads a lot, so we hope you can solve this problem as quickly as possible. We will await your reply before paying the invoice. If you are unable to send the missing notepads, please forward a new invoice in which we are not charged for these items. Attached you will find a photo of the contents of the package, our original order and your invoice.

Yours sincerely,
 Sarah Burton,
 apprentice office worker,
 Boyles & Son Real Estate
 (phone: 0044-943-342-23)

TEXT 3
 29 January 10:57
 We're gutted that our gig in Dublin tonight has had to be called off. Everyone has been trying everything possible in the last 24 hours to get the tour buses over to Ireland, but the bad weather means all ferries are cancelled and our gear won't make it in time. Huge apologies to everyone with tickets and anyone who's travelled.
 Will, Woody, Kyle & Dan x

TEXT 4
How to assist a patient during meals
 To assist a patient during meals at a nursing home is a very hectic job. Every patient has their own specific requirements for assistance, and in order to do a good job, you need to know how to assist them. The following is a step-by-step procedure.
 First of all, wash your hands using antibacterial soap in order to prevent contamination of the food.

Then greet your patient and inform him or her that you are going to assist them in feeding. Help them reach the dining hall from their room and make sure they wash their hands and sit comfortably.
 Thirdly, make sure you check that the food items match the patient's diet order. Some people may have allergies or restrictions on certain foods. It could be fatal if the wrong tray is given to a patient.
 In order to avoid spills and stains, apply a bib or any other appropriate cover to protect the patient's clothing.
 Always pay close attention to the patient when they chew and swallow the food, in case they encounter any difficulties with the food's texture or size. In addition, ensure that the food is not too hot, as this might lead to mouth burns. In fact, it is often a good idea to interact with the patient. You can remove the patient's feeling of discomfort, and chatting may also reduce your own feeling of stress.
 Moreover, show patience when feeding the patient - do not rush. Let them finish the bite they are eating, and then serve the next one.
 Finally, when the meal is over, make sure to wash your hands again. Assist in cleaning the patient's hands and mouth once he or she has completed the meal. Remove the tray and clean the eating area, so it is ready for a new patient.



From *Citizens YF* (p. 257) in Andersen et al., 2020a. Cappelen Damm. Reproduced with permission.

Skills (2020) have several different tasks related to formal and informal language, as seen in the figure below (figure 28). This includes tasks one could do alone or in pairs or groups, tasks you could do in writing or orally, and with different levels of difficulty, for example some are at the level of multiple choice (task 3.59), and in some the pupil has to come up with their own original answers (task 3.60). These tasks illustrate the need for knowledge about politeness and formal versus informal language in everyday life, such as at school, at a job interview, or even at a party. Even though there is no explicit mentioning of the subject this textbook is related to, technological and industrial production, it would still be relevant or the pupils taking this subject, as current pupils, and future workers.

Figure 27 Tasks on formal and informal language

Practise

3.56 Look at this dialogue. Is this style of language right for a job interview, for example? Why or why not?

"How do you do, Mr Moore?"
 "Not bad. You OK, dude?"
 "Thank you, I am quite well. Please, have a seat."
 "Aw, thanks, man."
 "So, why have you applied for the job?"
 "Well, it looks like a really cool company, kinda."

3.57 Explain the difference between these two short texts. Comment on the choice of words, spelling, sentence structure, punctuation, contractions and abbreviations.

Example 1
 You know that test we were cramming for last week? Guess what – I flunked! Now I'm gonna have to work my butt off if I wanna pass this subject.

Example 2
 This is to inform you that your test results are not up to the required standard, and you will therefore not receive a passing grade. If you wish to achieve a passing grade in this subject, I would suggest that you consider preparing more thoroughly for your next test.

3.58 What style of language do you expect to find in the following types of text?

- an instruction manual
- a blog
- a job advertisement
- a letter of complaint
- a party invitation to a friend's birthday
- an accident report
- an entry in a comment section on social media

3.59 Match the formal and the informal expressions. Practise using the expressions with a partner.

A to request	1 to help
B to contact	2 to put off
C to assist	3 to ask for
D to verify	4 to get in touch with
E to postpone	5 to say
F to express	6 to check

3.60 The passive voice is used when the focus is on the action and not who or what is behind it. The passive voice is often used in academic writing, science, politics or other formal settings. Compare: *Mistakes were made. Mike and Ella made several mistakes.* Rewrite the sentences using the passive voice.

- The doctor told Shane to stop eating artificial sugar.
- The principal accused one of the students of cyberbullying.
- Someone handed in a written complaint.
- The new boss introduced a number of new regulations.

From *Skills* (p. 123) in Lokøy, et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

4.2.5. Tasks in general studies textbooks

The tasks related to course 2.1 in *Citizens SF* (figures 29 & 30) are a mix of writing and discussion tasks, where the pupils are supposed to work alone on the first task, and in pairs on the second and third. This gives the pupils a variety in their working method and might help them get a better understanding of how to recognize purpose in texts. The third task also

refers back to previous texts, where the pupils can choose from five different ones, and reflect on the purpose of the texts, the target audience, and whether the text type suits the purpose.

Figure 28 Tasks on writing with purpose

Tasks

1 You woke up sick this morning. Write short texts to the following target audiences:

- your best friend, complaining about being sick
- your teacher (it is the day of an important test)
- your employer at your part-time job
- your followers on social media

Reflect on the differences between these texts. Which one was the easiest to write? Which one was the hardest?

2 In pairs, look at texts 1-3 and answer the questions. Point to examples from the texts in your answers.

- a What is the purpose of the text?
- b Who is the target audience of the text?
- c Do the language, tone and style suit the purpose and the target audience?

TEXT 1
In a large pot, fry your onion, basil, garlic and aubergine in a little olive oil on high heat. After about 6 minutes, add your chopped courgettes and continue to fry for another 5 minutes, then add tomatoes and peppers.

In *Citizens SF* (p. 284) in Andersen et al., 2020b. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 29 Tasks on writing with purpose cont.

TEXT 2

Sandra Jones,
23 Cherry Hill Lane
London, LW4 5UP
Cambridge 12.03.2021

Dear Sandra,

Congratulations and welcome to King's College, Cambridge!
I am delighted to inform you that you have been admitted as a full time student in our English Literature Programme.

We ask that you complete the enclosed enrolment response card and return it to us no later than by the postmark deadline of 14 May 2021.

While we have every reason to believe that you will complete this school year successfully, remember that your admission is contingent upon your continued strong academic performance in the programme you presented to us in your application.

Once again, I extend my congratulations on your admission to Cambridge and welcome you to the King's College family.

Yours sincerely
Maya Wogan,
Director of Admissions

TEXT 3
29 January 10:57
We're gutted that our gig in Dublin tonight has had to be called off. Everyone has been trying everything possible in the last 24 hours to get the tour buses over to Ireland, but the bad weather means all ferries are cancelled and our gear won't make it in time. Huge apologies to everyone with tickets and anyone who's travelled.
Will, Woody, Kyle & Dan x

3 In pairs, look at two of the following texts and answer the questions below. Be sure to point to examples to justify your answers.
"Unprotected" (p. 82), "Home" (p. 98), "Gender Equality Is Your Issue Too" (p. 129), "We've Got the Whole World in Our Hands" (p. 119), "Vote for Our Lives!" (p. 243)

- a What is the main purpose of the text?
- b Who is the text's target audience?
- c Does the text type suit the purpose?




In *Citizens SF* (p. 285) in Andersen et al., 2020b. Reproduced with permission.

Despite the course on rhetoric in *Citizens SF* being quite large, compared to other courses in the book, the section for tasks is relatively small. It consists of four tasks. The first relates to their general understanding of ethos, pathos, and logos, compared to everyday symbols (a heart, a brain, and a graph) (see figure 31). Task 3 and 4 both relate to more everyday life, one uses the situation of not doing the assigned homework, and having to make up excuses to your teacher using rhetoric, and the other a celebrity (Oprah Winfrey) to make it more exciting and interesting, but also to show how rhetoric is used in speeches.

Figure 30 Tasks on rhetoric

Tasks

- 1 Which of the illustrations would you use to illustrate the rhetorical appeals *logos*, *pathos* and *ethos*? Explain your choices.





- 2 In pairs, discuss why you think a combination of *logos*, *pathos* and *ethos* is often successful.
- 3 You haven't done your homework today. Make three excuses for your teacher, one using *logos*, one using *pathos* and one using *ethos*. Or maybe you could try to combine all three.
- 4 Below is an excerpt from a speech the American TV personality Oprah Winfrey held at Colorado College in May 2019.
 - a Which rhetorical appeal forms and rhetorical devices can you find in her speech? Point to examples.
 - b Winfrey's audience was a group of college graduates. How do you think they reacted to her words? Do you think she managed to get her message across?

I'm here to tell you that your life isn't some big break, like everybody tells you that is. It's about taking one big life transforming step at a time.

You can pick a problem, any problem – the list is long. There's gun violence, and inequality, and media bias ... and the Dreamers need protection ... the prison system

needs to be reformed, misogyny needs to stop. But the truth is you cannot fix everything. What you can do here and now is make a decision, because life is about decisions—and the decision that you can make is to use your life in service. You will be in service to life, and you will speak up, you will show up, you will stand up, you will volunteer, you will shout out, you will radically transform whatever moment you're in, which will lead to bigger moments. [...]

So that is what I'm wishing for you today: Your own path made clear. I know there's a lot of anxiety about what the future holds and how much money you're gonna make, but your anxiety does not contribute one iota to your progress, I gotta tell you. Look at how many times you were worried and upset – and now you're here today. You made it. You're going to be okay.



Oprah Winfrey celebrates with a Colorado College graduate.

EXPLORE

Rhetoric in advertising
 Rhetoric is an essential part of advertising.
 Visit citizens.cdu.no to learn how to analyse advertisements.

In *Citizens SF* (p. 315) in Andersen et al., 2020b. Reproduced with permission.

Citizens SF also has tasks related to course 3.1 informal and formal language and are practically identical to the same course in the *Citizens YF* book. Because of this I chose to not repeat it in this sub-chapter.

In *E1* (2020), on the same pages as the course on being polite, towards the end, there are three tasks, which are not referred to as “tasks”, but called “practice”. The practice tasks in course 4 Being polite are all tasks that the pupils could complete alone, but it does not specify, in case the pupils are more comfortable working in pairs. All three tasks relate to making expressions polite or identifying polite parts in sentences, and the last task adds formality, tying the two topics together (figure 32).

Figure 31 Practice being polite.

PRACTICE

1 Make these expressions more polite by using the strategies above.

- *Can I borrow your pen?*
- *Yes, I received the package.*
- *Would you do something for me?*
- *Let's go to the cinema instead.*
- *We should find something else to do.*
- *I thought you could do that for me.*
- *What is for dinner?*
- *Can I have an appointment next week?*

2 Identify the polite part or parts in each of the following expressions and state which of the six steps they belong to.

- *There's just a teeny little favour I need to ask of you.*
- *Would you be able to tell me where the station is?*

- *No, thanks – I've already got a drink.*
- *Would it not be a good idea to seek legal advice?*
- *I was just thinking that we could eat a little later.*
- *May I leave the table, please?*
- *Would you mind topping me up? (=refilling my drink)*
- *Doesn't it need another coat of paint?*

3 Which of the expressions in the previous exercise are:

- a** polite and *formal*
- b** polite and *informal*

See course 8: *Recognising formality.*

From *E1* (p. 275) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

Even though the last task refers to the course which follows (though they did refer to the wrong course number) for further practice on a similar topic, 2-3 practice tasks are not many in learning politeness, especially in another language than one's first language, and the authors could have referred to other source materials, like they do in practice task 2 for course 15 Holding discussions (figure 33).

Figure 32 Practice holding discussions.

PRACTICE

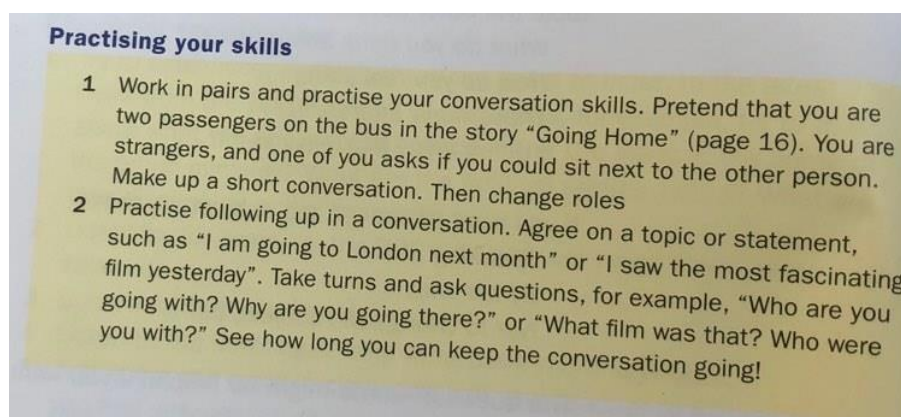
- 1 Choose a topic for discussion and form groups of four.
 - a First, individually, draw a table with three columns and name them “retell”, “examples”, and “discussion”. Gather information and place it in the table.
 - b Identify useful terminology for the topic and add it to your notes.
 - c Create a quiz based on the words, for example a Kahoot, Quizlet, or similar, and use it with a classmate or all together in class.
 - d Practise expressing yourself, listening, and responding. Make use of the phrases mentioned in steps 2 and 3 and Rapaport’s Rules as presented below.
- 2 Go to Skolestudio and find
 - a discussion between students
 - the assessment criteria for discussions
 - an interview with a teacher about assessing your discussion skillsReflect on what you, personally, should aim to improve next time you discuss.

From E1 (p. 310) in Bakke et al., 2020. Gyldendal. Reproduced with permission.

In the practice tasks for Holding discussions (figure 33), they refer to “Skolestudio” (“School studio”), which is the publishing house Gyldendal’s own online learning environment.

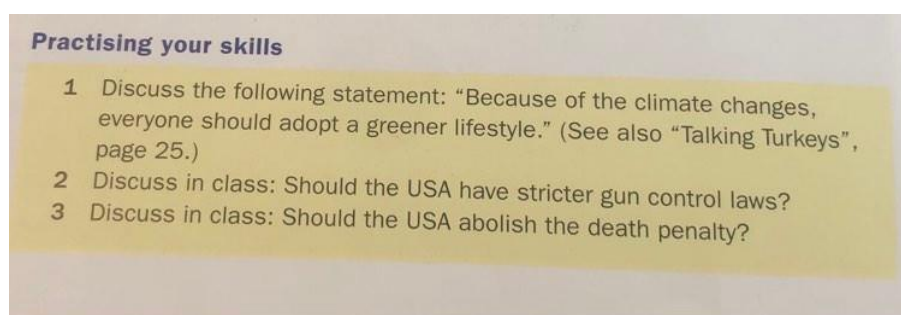
Targets (2020) have some tasks related to politeness, however, not all courses mentioned in 4.2.2 regarding this specific textbook have tasks to follow. The tasks that do follow are called “Practicing your skills”, and the tasks, for the most part consist only of practising what the pupils have learned (see figure 34 & 35), as opposed to analysing and identifying. There are generally fewer tasks in *Targets* compared to the other textbooks I investigated, and the course on formal and informal language, which seem to be the most reoccurring politeness topic in these books, does not have any practice tasks. The following figures (figures 34 & 35) are the practice tasks for “Holding a Conversation” and “Discussions and Debates”, which encourage the pupils to practice what they have just learned.

Figure 33 Practicing conversations.



From *Targets* (p. 58) in Balsvik et al., 2020. Aschehoug. Reproduced with permission.

Figure 34 Practice discussions



From *Targets* (p. 59) in Balsvik et al., 2020. Aschehoug. Reproduced with permission.

4.2.6. Tasks: Similarities and differences between vocational and general studies

Looking at differences in tasks between vocational studies textbooks and general studies textbooks, there are not that many significant differences. In the tasks for formal and informal language, most textbooks have a varied selection of situations, such as writing to your teacher, writing to your boss, writing to your friends, etc. One task in *Citizens YF* mention vocational studies, mentioning similarities and differences between vocational studies in Norway and in the United States (see figure 23). However, the task itself wants the pupils to rewrite the sentence to make it objective and impersonal, which is not explicit for vocational studies. One difference I did detect was in *Citizens SF*, in a task related to writing with purpose (figure 29), where they present a text that is an admissions letter for higher education. The equivalent task for *Citizens YF* uses a text about an order on office supplies (figure 27), so these tasks in the two textbooks are adapted to the study programme.

Regarding the number of pages for tasks per course, there is little difference between the vocational studies textbooks and general studies textbooks, most of them have around one page of tasks per course, some a bit more, some a bit less, but no significant difference (see appendix 2). Perhaps the most significant difference regarding this is between *Citizens YF* and *Citizens SF*, where *YF* has a total of seven pages of tasks over three courses, and *SF* has five pages of tasks over three courses. Given that these books are very similar, the fact that they included two extra pages over these courses might indicate that the authors believe that vocational studies need more tasks than general studies.

4.2.7. Textbook courses and tasks: Analysis

In this section of my analysis, I will focus on three main things: What types of politeness courses and tasks were presents in these different books, how much content was there on each topic, and where were these tasks placed in the books. As I used the criteria from chapter 3.2.1 to identify politeness topics in upper secondary textbooks, I will discuss whether I found these criteria in the textbooks I investigated, but also present other possible topics I found that are related. How much content there was for each topic is interesting to investigate, since this can vary a lot from book to book, or even topic to topic within one particular book, and generally speaking, the more information there is, or the more practice tasks there are, on a topic, the more there is to learn, and help pupils understand. I also think that the placement of the courses and tasks in the book itself, or even just compared to each other, is interesting to look at and analyse, as this can also impact the pupils' intake of information, or how the teachers choose to implement it into their teaching.

Types of politeness courses

Citizens YF offers courses on Writing for purpose and Informal and formal language, and also offers a course on Writing for work. This means this textbook checks off only two of three criteria, but, as I stated in 4.2.1, the textbooks only needed one of them in order to be investigated. The course 'Writing for work' teaches the pupils in vocational studies about writing instructions and writing reports, and how to make them clear, descriptive, relevant,

focused, thorough, and so on. In the course Writing for work, where there were two main sections, the tasks related to each sub-topic followed the course content before introducing the next topic. This is valuable for teachers, but especially valuable for pupils in vocational studies. A common myth in Norway is that pupils in vocational studies often are not as motivated to study English as for example pupils in general studies but has been somewhat discredited (Brevik, 2016, in chapter 1.1). However, when pupils learn topics like these (writing instructions and reports), they are shown that learning concise language in these situations is important. In addition, when you teach the pupils what status English has in Norway (Jerpåsen, 2022; Rindal, 2020; see chapter 1.1), in both working life and elsewhere, they might get a better understanding why these courses are valuable. I stated in 4.2.4 that the tasks in *Citizens YF* regarding formal and informal language start off with “the most basic”. By this, I mean relatively easy tasks, where the pupils identify something that is already there. In this case, they want the pupils to identify four informal features in a smaller text, meaning the pupils could in theory get it right by guessing, giving the pupils a sense of accomplishment.

Citizens SF is almost identical to *YF* but does not include a course on writing for work. All three textbook criteria were met, as I found courses and tasks related to informal and formal language (course 3.1), meaning and purpose when writing a text (course 2.1), and holding discussions, making reasonable arguments, etc. (course 3.2). Even though this topic refers to an online website where the pupils could explore this topic further, the textbook itself might still have enough power in the Norwegian classroom (Blikstad-Balas, 2014; see chapter 2.2.5) for the teacher or pupils to prioritise using the book rather than other resources, and that the content of this web page would be much less explored than if it was printed in the book. Nine out of eleven participants in my survey answered blank or “no” when asked if they ever used other books, textbooks, or other resources to teach politeness, which I believe supports my thoughts on this. As mentioned in chapter 4.2.5, some of the courses have tasks that use different methods, and in some of the tasks, where the task refers back to other texts throughout the book, and the pupil may choose the text they themselves found most interesting, or want to look at again, they might become more motivated to do the task. This shows how one should look for purpose in any text, not just ones made for a specific task, hence making it more practical.

Some of the topics in *Skills* were quite similar to each other, such as “Using formal and informal language” and “Writing a formal text”, where one could argue that the latter is a continuation of the former, but more specific to written formality. The courses in *Skills* are shorter than in *Citizens*, which I discuss more below, however, I do not necessarily think this means there is not enough information on politeness. The topics they present are more concrete, or explicit, than the courses in for example *Citizens YF*. They are also very specific for the particular profession the textbook is directed at, and the tasks are much more practical than those in typical general studies textbooks.

E1 contained four courses related to politeness, which included a course on formal and informal language, but also a separate course on “being polite”, which are quite similar topics. The two other courses, I believe, are also quite similar to each other. One is called “giving presentations” and the other is called “holding discussions”. They do teach different aspects; however, one could argue that both relate to oral communication skills, and both teach the pupils how to effectively present your opinions and statements. Had there been more courses on topics within politeness, I probably would not have noticed this, however, since there are so few, and half of the topics are similar to the other half, I say there is room for other courses as well, and that these existing courses could be compromised into one. The tasks in *E1*, as I mentioned in 4.2.5, are all called “practice”, rather than “tasks”, which could motivate the pupils to do them, if they are seen as something that will improve their skills, rather than being seen as something “they have to do”. Most of them are very concrete, and the first tasks are generally tasks of identification, becoming familiar with identifying different levels of formality or politeness (not theory) in different texts, and become more challenging by combining “being polite” and “formality”. This can give the pupils a sense of understanding as to how these topics are all connected, how they are all a part of a bigger communicative picture, and therefore might get a better understanding of the topics in general. In chapter 4.2.5 I also mention how the second task in the course Holding discussions refers to the textbook’s web page, *Skolestudio*, where the task is to find discussions between student, assessment criteria for discussions, and an interview with a teacher about assessing discussion skills, and then the pupil must reflect on what they should aim to improve next time they discuss. The reason for using this learning tool for practice on the topic is not mentioned, but it does seem to give the pupils more texts to look at regarding discussions, ultimately giving them more experience in recognizing good (or bad) discussions. As long as the pupils have

their own computers, there should not be an issue using this web page, however, most teachers know that a lot of the time, there is at least one pupil who does not have their computer available. Considering how few tasks there are in the book itself, this is a course that the pupils could get through without even realizing what they have done, especially without any repetition, which the courses do not facilitate.

As I mentioned in 4.2.2, I found courses in *Targets* that matched my criteria, in addition to some other courses as well. The course outside of my criteria was “Having a conversation”, and I believe it belongs to the topic of politeness theory, as it introduces the pupils to conversations, an important aspect to communication, and how to have a successful conversation, hence successful communication, which is at the core of politeness theory (see chapter 2.1.1). Most of the courses in this textbook had at least three times as much course information than tasks. In addition, the few tasks that were present were somewhat one-dimensional, at least compared to tasks in other textbooks. There are few tasks of for example identification, where the pupils could become more familiar with the topic and become more comfortable with it, before actually discussing it, and neither ‘Giving a presentation’ and ‘formal and informal language’ had any tasks in their courses.

O’Keeffe (2020) argued that, when teaching pragmatic aspects, such as polyenes, in the classroom, using activities such as roleplays and simulations, structured and semi-structured dialogues, listening activities and task-based work can assist in learners noticing and making salient these formulaic language forms (see chapter 2.2.1). Most of the activities found in the topics related to politeness in these five textbooks are task-based. This indicates a potential for more varied activities in textbooks.

Even though there are a considerable number of courses (and tasks) related to politeness in these five books, I found none that tied the topic together with cross-cultural pragmatics. Most of the context used as examples in these courses, as to why one communicates differently in different situations, were mostly based on situations in Norway, and mostly on academic or vocational situations, such as work and school, talking to your classmates versus your boss or principal. There were none that informed on different communication and language norms in

different countries (and other related cultures). As mentioned in chapter 2.2.2, politeness and pragmatics are not rules of communication, but norms in languages and cultures, and Kawai (2013), Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) and House (1989) have all researched differences in language norms in different countries and cultures in regard to politeness and teaching politeness, and it is an aspect that should have more room in Norwegian EFL textbooks. This is also backed by answers from my survey (e.g., comment A2 in chapter 4.3.3).

Amount of content on each topic

Both *Citizens YF* and *Citizens SF* had a high average for the number of pages per topic. There was a total of twenty-one pages in *YF*, with an average of seven pages on each topic, and *SF* had eighteen pages in total, with an average of six pages per topic. However, even though *SF* had a decent number of pages on each topic, I did notice a skewed distribution of courses versus tasks on a couple of these, especially for the rhetoric chapter. There were considerably more courses on politeness topics in *Skills* compared to *Citizens YF* and *SF*, with twice as many separate courses. However, the average number of pages per topic is also considerably lower, with only two pages, including both the course and tasks, per topic.

EI had a total of eleven and a half pages of topics related to politeness, with an average of almost three pages per course, including both courses and tasks. Regarding the distribution of information and tasks on each course, I would say it is a bit unbalanced. Only one course had equal number of pages on the course itself and tasks following, and the others had at least three times as many pages on course (information) than tasks, similar to the concern I had with the rhetoric-chapter of *Citizens SF* (see above). However, tasks are often more compromised and direct than courses, as new information needs definitions and such, and often extensive explanations as well, which might explain this distribution.

Lastly, even though there are five different courses related to politeness in *Targets*, I would argue that these courses are lacking. The average number of pages for each course, including both course information and tasks, was at 1.5 pages. This is the lowest of all the textbooks I investigated (see appendix 3). As mentioned in chapter 2.2.1, Myrset argued that pragmatic

and politeness concepts should be worked on over time, in line with Vygotsky's ideology (Myrseth, 2021, p. 207).

Placement and structure of courses

Another thing I wanted to look at was where the content was placed in the book. The courses in *Citizens YF* and *SF* are placed at the very end of the book. I believe that when courses like these are placed towards the very end of the book, they are often overlooked. There is a possibility that teachers choose to use the textbook chapter by chapter as if it is a semester plan. This means that when courses like this are placed at the very end of the book, they might be used only "if there is time" at the end of the school year, or vaguely suggested by a teacher to the pupils who struggle with one of the specific topics within these courses, for the pupil to look over when working on other topics. This, however, will likely seldom be the case for politeness topics, but rather only be the case for grammar or sentence structuring. Both *YF* and *SF* present some course content, followed by tasks relating to each section of the course. This might motivate the pupils, especially pupils in vocational studies, as they might prefer more practical work rather than theoretical work.

In chapter 4.2.1 I argued that one advantage to the *Skills*-book, in comparison to *Citizens YF*, was the placement of the courses. The courses are scattered within different chapters in the textbook, such as 'Writing a report' and 'Giving instructions' are both in the chapter 2 Safe and Sound, which focuses on safety in work life, or 'Using formal and informal language' in chapter 3, which focuses life skills. Where these courses are placed are not coincidental, the authors have tried to integrate them into the topics of the chapters as much as possible, and this makes learning topics such as politeness more interesting and helps to make sense as to why the pupils should learn this. I also believe it is easier for the teachers to remember to teach about such topics, because, as I said in the paragraph above, if the teachers follow the textbook as a semester plan, they are more likely to actually include and teach these courses when they are scattered throughout the book, as opposed to being placed at the end of the book.

The courses in *E1*, similar to the *Citizens* books, are all at the end of the book, instead of integrated into other chapters in the book. As I have said with the *Citizens* books, this is something I believe is a disadvantage, as they might become overlooked or forgotten. However, *E1* had a table of content on the very first page of the book, with a list of different courses. A list like this, as the very first thing you see, can help both teachers and student become aware that these are courses this book offers, even if it is at the very end of the book.

Lastly, to comment on the placement of these courses in *Targets*, I do believe they have an advantageous placement in the book. They are all situated in chapter 2 of the book, after a chapter on communication, with a lot of short stories, poems, and texts in general. I believe that the placement of this chapter with courses can encourage the pupils to not see these as courses, as something separate from all the other contents of the textbook, but as something valuable that is important for them to learn equally to texts, culture, etc.

4.3. Survey

As I mentioned in my methods chapter (chapter 3.3), my survey “categorised” participants according to where they teach: in lower secondary, upper secondary general or vocational studies, and elsewhere. The first data I wanted to analyse was the more quantitative data, which I could visualise with graphs. I had two rather similar questions:

- How important do you consider teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom to reach the competence aims in the English subject curricula?
- How important do you believe it is to teach politeness to your pupils?

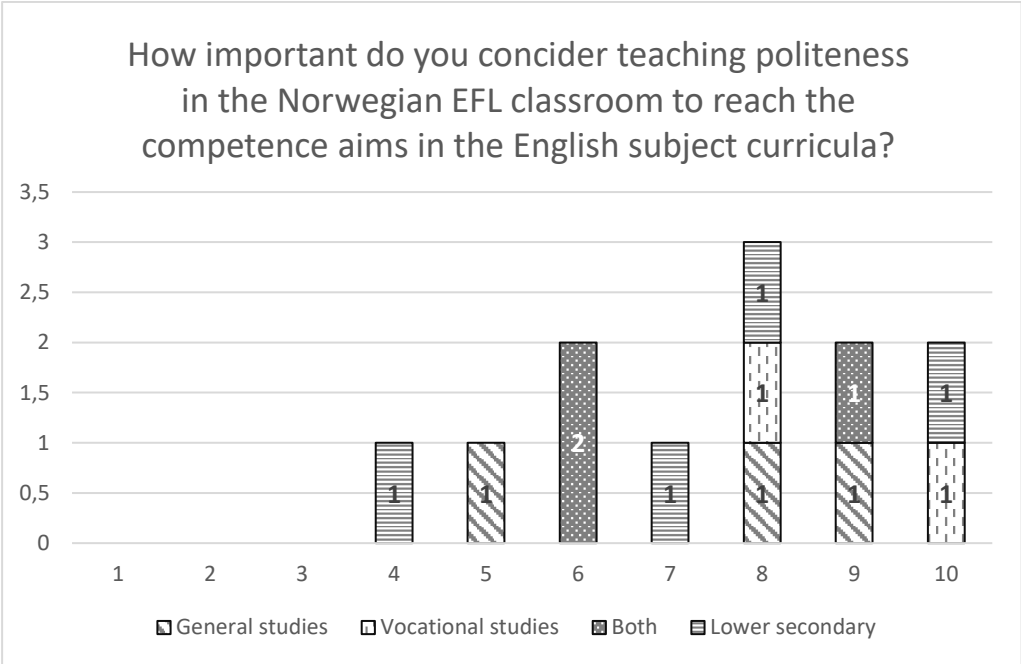
The reason for including both these questions is that I wanted to separate the teachers personal view on teaching politeness in their respective English course level, and also generally in regard to the English subject curriculum.

4.3.1. Importance of teaching politeness in graphs

For the first and more general question, the participants answered on a scale from 1 to 10 (where 1 is least important and 10 is most important), and I looked at correlation between their answer and the programme they teach at. I placed the value of the initial scale on the X

axis, and the number of participants who selected the different values is visualised in the patterned boxes, stacked on top of one another if teachers from two or more different school levels selected the same value. I also inserted an example of a relevant competence aim in the English subject curriculum for VG1 general studies (“express himself or herself in a nuanced and precise manner with fluency and coherence, using idiomatic expressions and varied sentence structures adapted to the purpose, receiver and situation”), for the participants to get a better understanding of this specific question.

Table 1 Importance of teaching politeness in stacked graph



From this, we see that there is a general consensus that in order to reach the competence aims in the English subject curriculum, politeness’s importance is above the selectable values’ median. The average was 7.36. For the second question, I visualised the data through two different graphs: a stacked vertical bar graph (same as in the previous question) and a line chart (figures 34 & 35). The bar chart is better at visualising all the relevant data, and the line chart is better at separating the two data points (general and vocational studies).

Table 2 Importance of teaching politeness in stacked vertical bar graph.

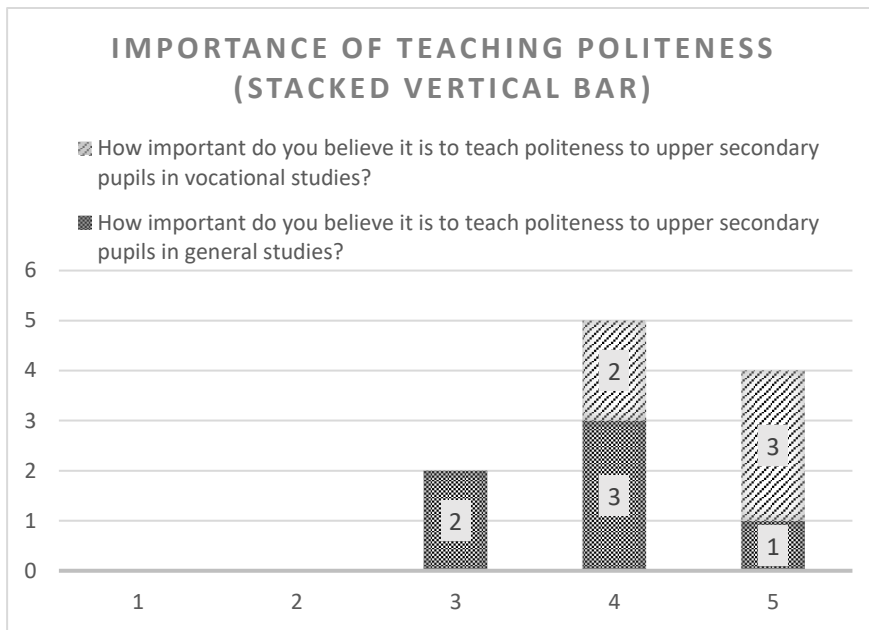
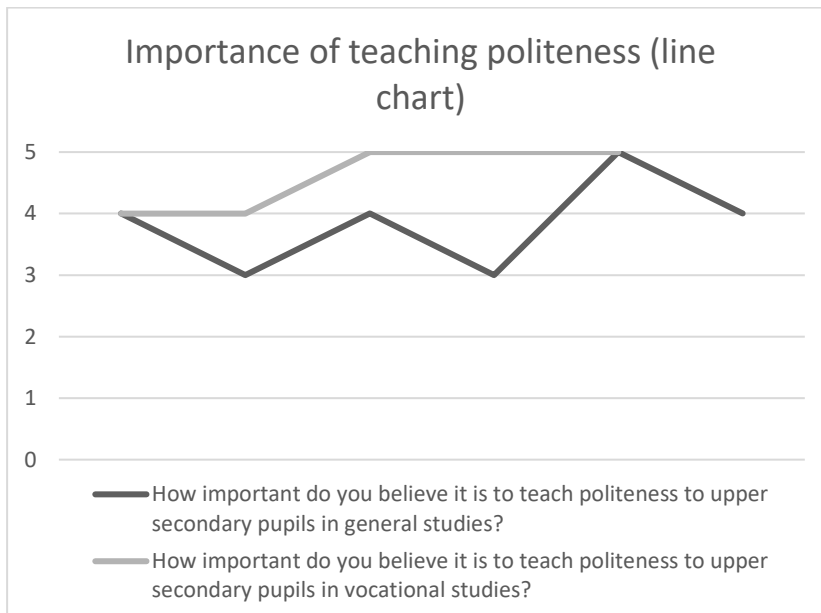


Table 3 Importance of teaching politeness line chart



These two charts (tables 2 & 3) show that the general opinion amongst the teachers in upper secondary is that teaching politeness to their students specifically is rather important, with an average of 4.2. We also see that the teachers in vocational studies believed it to be more important than the teachers in general studies did (light grey versus dark grey in the line

chart). The X-axis in the line chart does not represent any value, only each individual answer, and the Y-axis represents the values from the 1 to 5 scale from the questionnaire.

Another statistic I wish to mention is the data for the use of textbooks. The question I asked was “How heavily do you rely on the textbook your school uses?” (Question 8 in appendix 1), and the average score for this was 2.8, which is just above the 2.5 median.

4.3.2. Four participants’ views on the importance of teaching politeness

Other data I wanted to look at was the differences between those participants who answered highest and those who answered lowest on question 5: *How important do you consider teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom to reach the competence aims in the English subject curriculum?* (See appendix 1). I chose to take a close look at the two highest and two lowest scores from this question, and the analysis is quite interesting. My main focus for comparison here was how much they rely on textbooks in their teaching, and if they believed there to be any challenges or difficulties in teaching politeness to their pupils. All participants in my survey have submitted anonymously, so for clarity I have given these four participants some names: Alys, Bethan, Ceri, and Dafydd. The genders of these names are not representative of the genders of the participants, but I will refer to them by he/him or she/her pronouns.

Alys teaches English in lower secondary school and gave 10 as her answer to how important politeness is in regard to the curriculum (question 5 in appendix 1). On a scale from 1 to 5, regarding how much she relies on textbooks, she answered one, but she does mention that she has used The British Council to teach politeness.

Bethan also answered ten for question 5 (appendix 1), however she teaches English in upper secondary vocational studies. An interesting aspect to her submission is that she was the only participant throughout the entire survey who said that she teaches politeness exclusively, as opposed to integrating it into other topics. Another interesting answer to her submission is in the section about textbooks. She answered that she uses textbooks sometimes (3 out of 5 on the scale), and listed Skills as the textbook that she/her school uses. However, she said that

there were neither courses nor tasks related to politeness in said textbook. Lastly, she comments on how she believes that politeness is important to teach the pupils in vocational studies, as “it is an integral part of their future occupation”.

Ceri teaches lower secondary and believes that teaching politeness is less important, as she gave a 4 out of 10 for question 5. However, she did answer 3 out of 5 on question 12, which is above the initial value median, meaning she might have seen more potential in teaching lower secondary pupils politeness than in upper secondary, but she has not specified this. Ceri did comment on challenges/difficulties in teaching politeness to lower secondary pupils, stating that “They find it [awkward] and set up, but [can] find cultural differences interesting”. By this, I believe, she meant that teaching politeness, maybe especially explicitly, can be a bit stiff, and that it is a difficult and large topic. She does, however, emphasise that the pupils can find cultural differences interesting, which correlates with her answer that when she teaches politeness, she integrates it into other topics, possibly into more cultural aspects of the world.

Dafydd teaches upper secondary general studies and gave a 5 out of 10 for question 5, regarding the importance of teaching politeness to reach the national competence aims in the English subject curriculum. Dafydd relies somewhat on textbooks (3 out of 5), and also answers that the textbook he and/or his school uses, E1, only has tasks related to politeness, not any information or an introduction to the topic. I did change the ‘terminology’ when discussing course versus information versus tasks after I had published the questionnaire, and to the question “Does your textbook include an introduction to/information on and courses/tasks in politeness?” Dafydd did answer the alternative “only courses/tasks”. This means the question and alternatives could have been a bit confusing and vague, and that he is saying that there is both information and tasks on politeness in the book. However, since the alternatives were “only courses/tasks”, “only introduction/information”, “yes, both”, and “no, neither”, the question and alternatives are clear enough to understand, and Dafydd might not be familiar with the introduction and information to politeness that I have shown that the textbook E1 contains. This relates back to what was mentioned in chapter 3.4, how using surveys has its limitations. In the question I asked about challenges or difficulties in teaching politeness in upper secondary general studies, Dafydd answered this: “Norwegian students do not know that they appear rude by directly translating Norwegian language to English.”. This

answer has been a bit difficult itself to analyse, especially since Dafydd did not believe teaching politeness was particularly important in his answer to question 13. What he says here regarding difficulties tells me that it is important to teach politeness to Norwegian students, if he believes they appear rude when translating from Norwegian to English. I do understand his point, how directly translating can cause the meaning of the sentence to change, and how in another language and/or another culture this can be perceived as rude. However, one could argue that this contradicts his stance on the importance of teaching politeness, which I think this could be because of a lack of awareness in politeness among English teachers in Norway.

4.3.3. Participants' comments on challenges in teaching politeness

In this section I will analyse the comments made in question 13 and 14, where the participants were asked if they saw any challenges or difficulties teaching politeness to their respective pupils, and if they had any other comments regarding teaching politeness in the EFL classroom (Appendix 1). All data from these two questions are sorted by course level in Appendix 3 and analysed in the same order. In order to keep track of the comments I am discussing, I have, in both the appendix and this section, divided them into A (lower secondary), B (upper secondary general studies), C (upper secondary vocational studies) and D (other comments), and each question within these categories are numerated. For example, the first and second response in the first category would be A1 and A2, respectively. These comments are quoted directly in the appendix, but I have corrected a few spelling mistakes and punctuations in favour of readability in this analysis.

In A1, the participant states that they know their pupils use informal language when communicating and will find it difficult to not use it. This is most likely a concern that many teachers in Norway have, as English is becoming a bigger part of everyday life, especially for young people, using it to communicate online, and therefore use “online English” (see chapter 1.1). In these cases, you need to find motivation for the students to use academic or formal language, or you have to adapt to the pupils using informal language. This is a much-discussed topic among teachers in Norway, whether to allow the pupils to write in the English they themselves want to, either formal or informal, or other Englishes than the standard British English or American English (Utdanningsnytt, 2018; see chapter 2.2.4).

The next comment, A2, mentions how pupils can find cultural differences interesting, however, they can find the teaching of politeness “awkward” and “set up”. Teaching this through the “cultural differences” aspect could motivate the pupils and help them see how politeness is related to everyday language. However, the statement that teaching the pupils about politeness or politeness theory can be uninteresting and even difficult for this age group also makes a valid point, and without any context it could be seen as unnecessary. This is an indication that EFL teachers in Norway should have training and learning tools to help them teach about this topic, rather than just learning about the theory itself when you are a student in university, without any idea how or why to teach it to pupils. This is something that could, and should, be researched further.

B1 is quite similar to A1 (two paragraphs above), and supports the statement that teachers need to find more motivating ways of teaching politeness and show how and why it is a part of everyday communication. B2, however, had some more specific and individual thoughts on this. This participant gave a specific concern about how Norwegian pupils are perceived when translating from Norwegian to English. This is a valid point, as there are cultural differences in these two languages, and when translating, when you are not aware of these differences, or you are not confident in translating and changing the structure of a sentence to fit with the language in question, it can be perceived in many ways, for example rude, lazy, dumb, and so on. This shows that linguistics and pragmatics is important part of learning a new language, and we need to find ways to make it interesting for pupils who are not necessarily interested in this branch of English.

In comment B3, the participant makes a remark on how teenagers use more informal language in school generally, in their own language. By this, I think they mean that the pupils do not use politeness theory in everyday communication, but it does also seem like this participant is not too familiar with what politeness theory entails, that it is more than just formal and informal language. As was mentioned in chapter 3.4, a weakness to questionnaires in general is that the interviewer is not able to explain the topics any further or answer any questions the participants may have regarding the questions, and this might be a prime example of this. The participant in B3 does also state that they believe the pupils do not understand what is meant by politeness, and “therefore doubt that they see the value of learning polite language or that

they will actually use it in the future”. Finding ways to teach pupils intricate topics such as politeness can be challenging, as pupils can get unmotivated if they struggle with a specific topic. However, English teachers know how important politeness is in everyday life, and even though this topic might seem superfluous to the pupils, teachers are trained to have a better understanding of what is necessary to know, and should therefore continue to teach politeness, regardless of the pupils’ motivation.

One comment in particular, comment B4, provided some really interesting points, and it seems to be a topic that this participant has had some time to reflect on themselves. They state that the classroom is an artificial setting, and that the pupils are only exposed to other pupils trying to learn the exact same thing. I think this is a very valuable point. Many topics in EFL learning can be researched with the use of textbooks, and still hold up in an international setting, but language and pragmatics is a bit more complex than that, due to cultural differences in meaning (see chapters 2.1, 2.1.1 & 2.2.4). We often discuss authentic texts in the English subject, but often this is in relation to authentic stories in a more cultural sense, and maybe not as often in a linguistic sense. I think that researching further how one can use other settings than the classroom to teach pragmatics or politeness would be valuable to teachers, and also the pupils. This participant also gives me as the author of the survey a remark, in the form of a question, asking which standard of English I am referring to. This relates back to what I said above on weaknesses in my questionnaire, and how I could have been more specific and explanatory. They pointed out how politeness differs between English speaking countries. See section 2.1.1 about how politeness differs between different cultures, especially non-Western cultures, in general, with English and Japanese as examples (Kawai, 2013, pp. 3-4), but this would apply to most cultures, especially when English-speaking countries are spread so far apart.

C1 disagrees with some of the previous comments made. They state that the lack of cultural awareness makes it difficult or challenging to teach politeness. It is not directly contradicting to anything already said, but where this participant sees something challenging, others (A2) see this as something pupils often find interesting and believes it can be a tool to motivate pupils to learn politeness. C2 believes that the challenges or difficulties in teaching politeness to upper secondary vocational pupils is that “many students have very poor language skills”.

This might just be their own perception of their own pupils, but generally, vocational studies pupils have a lower interest in the English subject and might be why the participants states this. Additionally, politeness theory is complex, and one can argue that it is a step further than basic language learning, which might be why the participant in C2 states that this is the main challenge for teaching politeness.

The comment from C3 came from the same participant as B3, they teach in both general and vocational studies. This participant refers to B3 and says, “Same as the previous answer”, but elaborates for vocational studies that learning politeness could be even more relevant here than in general studies, because of the language they will be using in their line of work. They do not elaborate more than “speak politely to colleagues or customers”, and even though it is easy to associate vocational studies with more rugged lines of work, maybe mechanics, construction and industrial subjects, where they do not interact as much with customers, vocational studies also include healthcare, child and youth development, restaurant and food professions, and sales, service and tourism, to name a few. This means this statement is truly relevant, and learning how to express what you need to, and communicate successfully with customers, colleagues, or maybe even patients, is essential, and it is therefore important to teach politeness to pupils in vocational studies. The participant does argue that even though the pupils will use politeness in their line of work, that “they will not understand the use of polite language in the same way as say a British teenage might”. This is also probably correct. As I said above, it is difficult to teach authentic language to pupils when only staying inside the classroom and maybe only using books written by Norwegians (even though the content is correct). The best way to learn any language is to immerse oneself into that language, and preferably only communicate in that language, meaning British pupils will have a better understanding of politeness in the English language. However, British pupils will also struggle more with politeness in the Norwegian language, so this goes both ways.

Lastly, comment C4 says the participant does not believe there are any challenges or difficulties teaching politeness in vocational studies and believes it to be an integral part of their future occupation. I would have preferred this participant to go into more detail on this, so yet again we see this type of weakness to the study: not being able to ask for elaboration on certain things. Still, this refers back to what I said regarding vocational studies in the

paragraph above, how workers in vocational professions often communicate with colleagues, customers and patients, and how successful communication, with help from politeness, is essential.

In the final question of the questionnaire, the participants could write anything that they would like to add, regarding teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom, anything they thought about but could not communicate through any of the previous questions. There was only one participant who chose to write anything here, the same participant who wrote comment B3 referred to above. Their comment here focuses on the language amongst young people and mentions swearing quite a lot. I feel like this participant has used this comment section to rant about young people, but they do have one valid point. They believe that young Norwegians are much more informal with their language, than young Brits. I do not know if this in itself is correct or not, but I think their perception that there is a cultural difference in the Norwegian language and the English language, and these languages have their own norms and traditions. Maybe the Norwegian language has evolved into being more informal more rapidly, because of the influence of the English language, or maybe it has always been more informal than the English language? It is hard to say and is definitely something that could be researched more over time.

5. Discussion and conclusion

There have been few studies in Norway in the field of pragmatics in the Norwegian EFL classroom, and even fewer focusing on politeness in particular. In addition, most studies I found within this research field were conducted with a focus on how pupils absorbed the content, as opposed to how teachers teach the subject. Previous studies have only touched on one method for collecting data. However, I believe teachers' attitudes, the use and content of textbooks used in school, and how one could interpret the national curricula are all intertwined, and to get a sense of the bigger picture in EFL learning in Norway, one should be mindful of this.

The main purpose of this thesis was to investigate how teachers teach politeness in Norwegian upper secondary EFL classrooms, and even though the data and analysis might not have

provided a definitive answer, it did seem to indicate a few things, which I will discuss in this chapter.

5.1. Politeness, textbooks, and the curriculum

The content of the English subject curricula states that the development of the pupils' pragmatic competence is an important aspect in English teaching in Norway. In addition, all textbooks I investigated were published in 2020, after the new curriculum took effect, and are all supposedly written to facilitate it. The textbooks used in the English subject are supposed to be a guide for teachers to understand and use the content of the curriculum, and many teachers will use them as a semester plan and might even refuse to teach outside of them. However, my findings indicate that there are gaps in the courses within the different textbooks, which can be worrying considering the statistics of how much textbooks are used in classrooms in Norway, and the status and power they have. Given that the section for oral and written skills in the English subject curriculum mentions presenting information, adapting language to purpose, receiver, and situation, and communicate in formal and informal situations, one would expect these different textbooks to all include these topics. My investigation and analysis of these textbooks show that some of them do not include all these skills, or they do not include enough information or practice tasks on one or several of the courses. This includes *Citizens YF*, which does not have course on presenting information orally, only written, or *Targets*, which only set aside one page for learning formality, without any tasks to follow, and only half a page in total for Audience, purpose, and text type.

The lack of courses on politeness topics may indicate a shift in the power of the textbook and might even be a conscious decision from the authors, in order to encourage teacher to avoid leaning too much on the textbook, and mainly use it as a guide. This is only a hypothesis, which would be interesting to research further (see chapter 5.3). There might also be a shift in the attitude towards proficiency in the English subject. The more the English language becomes a global language, and more people learn English at different levels, there might become a general, international agreement on how “making oneself understood” is the most important. Whether or not this means that the focus will shift to or away from pragmatics is difficult to say, some could argue that pragmatics is very much concerned with “making oneself understood”, but it is a topic that can be difficult to pinpoint exactly.

In chapter 2.2.2 I presented some practical applications of the work of the CCSARP (the cross-cultural speech act realization project) (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 27), which argued that the project could facilitate the writing of more accurate materials by teachers and material designers. Textbooks are made to be used by pupils, and rarely, if ever, explain the methods the authors used to produce material in the book itself. Exploring textbooks further, one could investigate the production of different textbooks to find out which methods they used, if they used projects such as CCSARP in order to accurately target the relevant material, or if they use other projects, or none.

5.2. Teachers and politeness

Gathering teachers' attitudes and teaching habits was not an easy task, and especially on a topic that can be seen as very theoretical. The analysis of the online survey indicated that some of the teachers were not particularly familiar with politeness theory, and the text box answers at the end of the survey (see appendix 3 & chapter 4.3.3) indicated the teachers' attitudes towards politeness. What was interesting to look at was comment B3 and B4, what those comments contained, but also investigating when those particular participants were finished with their education. The participant who wrote comments B3, stating that pupils do not use politeness theory in everyday communication, and that they would not see the value of learning it, finished their education before 2006, and the participant who wrote B4, who stated that the Norwegian EFL classroom is an artificial setting for learning language and pragmatics, and made remarks on how different Englishes has different standards for politeness, finished their education after 2020. The latter participant seemed to have a better understanding of what politeness was in general, and how the "rules" of politeness are different in different languages, countries and cultures, however, the former participant seemed to believe that politeness only entailed formality, and commented on teenagers' language use, in particular the use of coarse language. This can indicate a shift in the higher education for teachers, or English majors. The study plans for English student teachers is somewhat built on what they are meant to teach in the future, and these two comments might indicate that politeness was not on the curriculum for student teacher before 2006, but that it is something that is taught in higher education English classes now (after 2020).

Still, my research indicated that most teachers believed that teaching politeness to upper secondary pupils in the EFL classroom is generally important (see table 1 in chapter 4.3.1). We did also see that teachers in vocational studies believed it to be more important than the teachers in general studies. In regard to this, I think it is interesting to look at the textbooks again, for each group of studies. As I mentioned in 5.1, the only book I could argue did not include all skills under oral or written skills in the English subject curriculum was Citizens YF, a book made for vocational studies. It did not include “presenting information”, at least not orally, but it did include courses on writing for work. Still, this textbook had the highest average of pages per course, which might tell us that this book goes more in-depth on these topics, which could help pupils retain the information better. The other vocational studies textbook I investigated, Skills, had a larger number of individual courses, though they were all considerably shorter than those in Citizens YF. This does not necessarily mean that the courses are poorer than those in Citizens YF and could even be more helpful in teaching the pupils politeness, by having the information more spread out throughout the textbook. There is not one single answer here, and I believe researching these two books further on how pupils absorb the information from the courses in each textbook would be quite interesting.

Looking back at my main research question, how do teachers teach politeness in upper secondary Norwegian EFL classrooms, there are no straight forward answers. Teachers in upper secondary EFL classrooms say that teaching politeness is somewhat important, which can indicate the amount they teach the topic to their pupils. Most of the participants in my questionnaire also stated that they only integrate politeness topics into other topics, which can suggest that the topics become overlooked and undermined in the classroom, and that there could be inadequate teaching of politeness. There are some textbooks, designed for the new curriculum from 2020, which include topics and courses related to politeness that teachers could use. However, when asked on a scale from 1-5 how heavily they rely on the textbook their school uses, six out of eleven participants answered 3, two participants answered 2, one participant answered 1 and one answered 4. This question was directed at the English subject in general and does not necessarily represent the usage of textbooks for politeness in particular. Still, if we use these statistics for politeness specifically, in addition to the number of pages in each book for each topic of politeness, this leaves us with little teaching of politeness, unless the teachers use other resources for these topics. This is something I would find interesting to continue researching in the future.

Lastly, I wish to mention what was presented in 2.3.2, regarding the CCSARP project, which presented results that may give substance to the purpose that cross-cultural pragmatic analysis can and should be included in for example EFL courses from the very beginning. I believe this is a useful resource for English teachers in Norway to at least be aware of when creating course material for their pupils, when teaching pragmatics.

5.3. Limitations of the study and ideas for further research

Throughout this thesis I have mentioned a few times aspects within this topic that I believe deserve further research. In this chapter I will present some aspects that one could research further, and I also use this chapter to explain what I would have done differently in this thesis if I had the opportunity.

Theoretical topics within the English subjects are often taught individually, and theoretically. Depending on what type of teacher you want to become (elementary school, lower or upper secondary), and depending on where you study, you might experience learning a subject separately from the didactics or pedagogy related to that subject. The didactic courses are also often more compromised, so the courses might not have space to learn every theory you learn in the subjects. I think this would be interesting to research further, how student teachers are actually taught to teach theoretical topics, and how confident each student feels in teaching such topics, after they complete their education.

Another thing I would be interested in researching further would be the setting in which pragmatics or politeness is taught. These topics themselves can seem quite theoretical, but they are a part of everyday speech, and learning authentic language inside the classroom is difficult.

I also think there should be conducted more research on how, or how much, teachers use or rely on textbooks in their teachings. Even though textbooks are designed to comply with the curricula, they are still written by individual writers, who, to some extent, may include as much or as little on each topic as they wish. In addition, as I mentioned in chapter 5.2, I think it would be interesting to investigate teachers and/or pupils using specific textbooks and

comparing the different groups of users of particular textbooks. As I mentioned in 5.2, I would like to study the users of Citizens YF and the users of Skills, as both textbooks were published in 2020, but one has more courses. However, said courses are shorter, and they are completely different from each other in regard to the placement of these courses.

When writing this thesis, I had to be selective about the number of methods I used, but also how much data to include within each method. Because I chose three different methods, I did not want to cover too much data. For the curricula, I chose those sections that were relevant. For the survey, I intentionally kept it relatively short, so the participants would complete it, but when analysing the data from the survey, I chose to only analyse some of it, the parts that provided most information for my thesis. For the textbooks, even though there are many more to use in the Norwegian upper secondary EFL classroom, I chose to include only five, the ones most mentioned in the survey, and that were available for me. In the future, one could continue researching this topic by investigating more textbooks. One could also try to find more participants to complete the survey, in order to analyse the data quantitatively. I also think that conducting a survey like this, but in addition conduct a handful of interviews with teachers, could be worthwhile. It would be interesting to see if the questions asked in the survey and in the interviews are understood differently, if the teachers are more willing to give fuller answers when done in-person, and if the data retrieved from participants in the interviews differ from the general consensus in the survey. As politeness is a very specific topic, it could be interesting to interview a handful of teachers who believe it is important to teach politeness, to hear how they implement it into their teaching. Following that, one could interview a handful of pupils in each teachers' classes, to get an understanding of their point of view on their teacher's teachings. This could be investigated in regard to any topic, with a study focusing on how teachers teach, and the impact that has on their pupils' education.

5.4. Concluding remarks

In my thesis I set out to answer the questions “*How do EFL teachers approach the concept of politeness in the Norwegian upper secondary classrooms?*”. Politeness can be a complex concept, and for pupils to get a proper understanding of what it entails, teachers have to be able to explain it, and give examples of how we use it in different situations in everyday life. The data from my survey indicated that the teachers who finished their education after 2020 might have a better understanding of politeness theory and this might indicate that the

teachers who finished their education before this might not have had training in this and confuse it with being polite. This can lead to teachers being weary of approaching politeness in their classrooms and rely too much on textbooks that may or may not have sufficient information on the topic. My research shows that the courses on topics related to politeness are rarely integrated into other topics, which can indicate to the teachers or pupils that the topics are not as important as the “main content” or can conceal the use of politeness in everyday life. This topic should be researched further, to better understand how teachers approach politeness, and how the Norwegian educational system can improve on the lack of it.

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Appendix 1

Questions in my survey

1. By answering “yes” to this, you agree to participate in this questionnaire, and for your response to be used in a master’s thesis. (Yes/No) (If they answer “no”, no other questions will appear)
2. How many course credits in English do you have? (4 different options)
3. When did you finish your education? (3 different options)
4. Where do you teach English? (4 different options)

If they chose “other”, they are asked to specify where they teach English.

5. How important do you consider teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom to reach the competence aims in the English subject curriculum? (On a scale from 1 to 10)
6. Do you ever teach politeness in your classroom? (Yes/no)
7. Do you teach politeness exclusively, or within another topic? (I teach politeness exclusively/I integrate it in other topics/I do both)
8. How heavily do you rely on the textbook your school uses? (Scale from 1 to 5)
9. Which textbook do you use? (multiple-choice, with eight alternatives)

If you chose "other" in the last question, please let us know which book(s) you use (Text box)

10. Does your textbook include an introduction to/information on and courses/tasks in politeness? (Yes, both/No, neither Only introduction/information/Only courses/tasks)
11. Do you ever use other books/textbooks/other resources to teach politeness?

12. How important do you believe it is to teach politeness to upper secondary pupils in general studies/vocational studies/lower secondary/pupils in your school? (Scale from 1 to 5)
13. Do you believe there are any challenges or difficulties teaching politeness to upper secondary general studies/vocational studies/lower secondary? (Text box)
14. Is there anything you would like to add regarding teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom? (Text box)

Appendix 2

Textbooks

Course programme	Name of book	Number of topics	Total pages + average pages per topic
Vocational	Citizens YF		21 - 7
Vocational	Skills		12 - 2
General	Citizens SF		18 - 6
General	E1		11.5 - 2.875
General	Targets		7.5 - 1.5

Citizens YF	Topics related to politeness	Pages course + tasks
	Writing with a purpose	3 + 2
	Writing for work	6 + 2
	Informal and formal language	5 + 3
Skills		
	Writing a report	1+1
	Giving instructions	1+1
	Using formal and informal language	1+1
	Giving a presentation	1.5+0.5
	Writing a formal text	1+1
	Arguing a case	1+1
Citizens SF		
	Writing with a purpose	3 + 2
	Informal and formal language	5 + 2
	Rhetoric	5 + 1
E1		
	Being polite	1.5 + 0.5
	Recognising formality	2 + 2
	Giving presentations	1.5 + 0.5
	Holding discussions	3 + 0.5
Targets		
	Having a conversation	1.5 + 0.5
	Discussion and debates	1.5 + 0.5
	Giving a presentation	2 + 0
	Audience, purpose and text type	0.4 + 0.1
	Formal and informal style	1 + 0

Appendix 3

Answers to questions 13 and 14 (textbox answers)

Comments from lower secondary:

A1: Knowing my pupils very well means they find it more difficult to not use their normal informal ways of communication

A2: They find it awkward and set up, but can find cultural differences interesting.

Comments from upper secondary general studies:

B1: Students in general do not find this topic very important

B2: Norwegian students do not know that they appear rude by directly translating Norwegian language to English.

B3: Norwegian teenagers have very few manners today and use quite direct, coarse language when speaking to others in their own language, even in the classroom. I don't think many understand what is meant by politeness and therefore doubt that they see the value of learning polite language or that they will actually use it in the future. They may be forced to write formally at university, but this is not the same as polite language.

B4: The challenge can be that the classroom is an artificial setting and only exposes students to others trying to learn the politeness standards of others. This can affect their understanding of the importance of this genre of intercultural competence. Also, which standard of politeness are you referring to? British? Formal/informal language is fairly uniform, but politeness obviously differs between English speaking countries. Also, if we teach British politeness, do we imply that this is the standard?

Comments from upper secondary vocational studies:

C1: Lack of cultural awareness makes it difficult/challenging to teach politeness

C2: Many students have very poor language skills

C3: Same as for previous answer (B3). They may need to speak politely to colleagues or customers, but I don't think they understand the use of polite language in the same way as say a British teenager might.

C4: No. It is an integral part of their future occupations.

Other comments:

D1: Teenagers need to learn politeness at home and in the Norwegian classroom before they can start to apply it in their language learning. When it has become so acceptable in Norwegian culture to hear swearing within the family, on the radio and on supposed 'family-friendly' TV shows, there is little hope for young people to understand what is meant by polite language. In the UK there is still a watershed and swearing in music is banned on daytime radio and TV. I think society has to set a standard and not allow young people to believe that coarse language is an acceptable part of everyday conversation. I know that languages are always changing and evolving, but Norway has become too slack in its attitude to politeness. This makes teaching about these differences very difficult, because the very concept of different levels of politeness is being eroded.

Appendix 4

See all answers from the survey down below.

Teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom

Oppdatert: 10. mai 2023 kl. 19:18

This questionnaire is part of a master thesis, researching how teachers teach politeness in Norwegian EFL classrooms.

The questionnaire will consist of yes/no-questions, "to what extent"-questions, and open-answer questions about the topic, and will take approximately 3-5 minutes

You can choose to answer in either Norwegian or English, we appreciate all submissions

By answering "yes" to this, you agree to participate in this questionnaire, and for your response to be used

Antall svar: 11

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
No	0	0%	0%
Yes	11	100%	100%

This questionnaire looks at the teaching of politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom. By teaching politeness I mean strategies that are used for successful communication, or how to use language strategies to avoid conflict. Examples of topics within politeness are insults, requests and positive or negative politeness.

How many course credits in English do you have?

Antall svar: 11

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
Other	0	0%	0%
No higher education	0	0%	0%
60-179 credits	6	54.5%	54.5%
180-299 credits	2	18.2%	18.2%
300+ credits	3	27.3%	27.3%

If you chose "other", please specify





When did you finish your education?

Antall svar: 11

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
2020 or after	3	27.3%	27.3%
Between 2006 and 2020	3	27.3%	27.3%
Before 2006	5	45.5%	45.5%

Where do you teach English?

Antall svar: 11

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
Other (please specify)	1	9.1%	 9.1%
Upper secondary vocational studies	5	45.5%	 45.5%
Upper secondary general studies	5	45.5%	 45.5%
Lower secondary	4	36.4%	 36.4%

Please specify where you teach English











- IB

How important do you consider teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom to reach the competence aims in the English subject curricula?

Antall svar: 11

Snitt: 7.36

Median: 6

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
10	2	18.2%	 18.2%
9	1	9.1%	 9.1%
8	3	27.3%	 27.3%
7	1	9.1%	 9.1%
6	2	18.2%	 18.2%
5	1	9.1%	 9.1%
4	1	9.1%	 9.1%
3	0	0%	 0%
2	0	0%	 0%
1	0	0%	 0%

An example of a type of task within politeness could be formal vs informal language, where the pupil is asked to decide whether a text is written with formal or informal language, or what style of language they expect certain types of texts would be (blogs, birthday cards, incident reports, etc.)

Do you ever teach politeness in you classroom?

Antall svar: 11

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
No	0	0%	0%
Yes	11	100%	100%

Do you teach politeness exclusively, or within another topic?

Antall svar: 11

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
I do both	0	0%	0%
I integrate it in other topics	10	90.9%	90.9%
I teach politeness exclusively	1	9.1%	9.1%

How heavily do you rely on the textbook your school uses?

Antall svar: 11









Snitt: 2.82

Median: 3

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
5	0	0%	0%
4	2	18.2%	18.2%
3	6	54.5%	54.5%
2	2	18.2%	18.2%
1	1	9.1%	9.1%

Which textbook do you use?

Antall svar: 11





Svar	Antall	% av svar	
Other	5	45.5%	 45.5%
Tracks YF	1	9.1%	 9.1%
Tracks SF	1	9.1%	 9.1%
E1	3	27.3%	 27.3%
Skills	4	36.4%	 36.4%
Targets	2	18.2%	 18.2%
Citizens YF	2	18.2%	 18.2%
Citizens SF	2	18.2%	 18.2%

If you chose 'other' in the last question, please let us know which book(s) you use

- Scope (programfag)
- Enter Stairs
- Enter
- Skolestudio
- No books only web based resources.

Does your textbook include an introduction to/information on and courses/tasks in politeness?

Antall svar: 11




Svar	Antall	% av svar	
Only courses /tasks	3	27.3%	 27.3%
Only introduction /information	2	18.2%	 18.2%
No, neither	2	18.2%	 18.2%
Yes, both	4	36.4%	 36.4%

Do you ever use other books/textbooks/other resources to teach politeness?

- No
- Videos online
- No
- No
- F
- None
- No
- No.
- British council
- No
- ..



How important do you believe it is to teach politeness to upper secondary pupils in general studies?

Antall svar: **5** Snitt: **4.00** Median: **4**

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
5	2	40%	 40%
4	1	20%	 20%
3	2	40%	 40%
2	0	0%	0%
1	0	0%	0%

How important do you believe it is to teach politeness to upper secondary pupils in vocational studies?

Antall svar: **5** Snitt: **4.60** Median: **5**




Svar	Antall	% av svar	
5	3	60%	 60%
4	2	40%	 40%
3	0	0%	0%
2	0	0%	0%
1	0	0%	0%

How important do you believe it is to teach politeness to lower secondary pupils?

Antall svar: 4

Snitt: 4.00

Median: 4


Svar	Antall	% av svar	
5	1	25%	 25%
4	2	50%	 50%
3	1	25%	 25%
2	0	0%	0%
1	0	0%	0%

How important is it to teach politeness to the pupils in your school?

Antall svar: 1

Snitt: 4.00

Median: 4

Svar	Antall	% av svar	
5	0	0%	0%
4	1	100%	 100%
3	0	0%	0%
2	0	0%	0%
1	0	0%	0%

Do you believe there are any challenges or difficulties teaching politeness to upper secondary general studies?

- The challenge can be that the classroom is an artificial setting and only exposes students to others trying to learn the politeness standards of others. This can affect their understanding of the importance of this genre of intercultural competence. Also, which standard of politeness are you referring to? British? Formal/informal language is fairly uniform, but politeness obviously differs between English speaking countries. Also, if we teach British politeness, do we imply that this is the standard?
- Norwegian teenagers have very few manners today and use quite direct, coarse language when speaking to others in their own language, even in the classroom. I don't think many understand what is meant by politeness and therefore doubt that they see the value of learning polite language or that they will actually use it in the future. They may be forced to write formally at university, but this is not the same as polite language.
- G
- Norwegian students do not know that they appear rude by directly translating Norwegian language to English.
- Students in general do not find this topic very important

Do you believe there are any challenges or difficulties teaching politeness to upper secondary vocational studies?

- No. It is an integral part of their future occupations.
- Same as for previous answer. They may need to speak politely to colleagues or customers, but I don't think they understand the use of polite language in the same way as say a British teenager might.
- H
- Many students have very poor language skills
- Lack of cultural awareness makes it difficult/challenging to teach politeness

Do you believe there are any challenges or difficulties teaching politeness to lower secondary pupils?

- They find it awkward and set up, but can find cultural differences interesting.
- Knowing my pupils very well means they find it more difficult to not use their normal informal ways of communication
- No.
- You have to simplify

Is there anything you would like to add regarding teaching politeness in the Norwegian EFL classroom?

- Teenagers need to learn politeness at home and in the Norwegian classroom before they can start to apply it in their language learning. When it has become so acceptable in Norwegian culture to hear swearing within the family, on the radio and on supposed 'family-friendly' TV shows, there is little hope for young people to understand what is meant by polite language. In the UK there is still a watershed and swearing in music is banned on daytime radio and TV. I think society has to set a standard and not allow young people to believe that coarse language is an acceptable part of everyday conversation. I know that languages are always changing and evolving, but Norway has become too slack in its attitude to politeness. This makes teaching about these differences very difficult, because the very concept of different levels of politeness is being eroded.
- G
- No