

# What to do with pronunciation?

## *Teachers' approaches to English pronunciation in lower secondary school*

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Mastergradsavhandling i engelsk fagdidaktikk ved institutt for  
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# Abstract

This MA study presents a descriptive analysis of video-taped English lessons taught by six teachers in six classrooms at different lower secondary schools (9<sup>th</sup> grade). The data were analysed to identify oral instruction of English pronunciation and the teacher's correction of students' mispronunciations. Studying naturalistic instruction (i.e., not interventions) in English classrooms is valuable for identifying the quality of instructional practices and students' oral English proficiency, and we have little research on this topic with observation in the English classroom. Observing and analysing 26 hours of English lessons, in six different classrooms, in two counties in Norway, has proved to be challenging, yet I regard it as very important, as I was able to contribute with something new to this field.

The most interesting finding in this MA study, was that through a detailed analysis of the total 26 hours, the observed students' non-standard English pronunciation only constituted about 4% of their total number of words, meaning that their English pronunciation is highly intelligible. The students' non-standard pronunciation belonged mostly to one specific deviation type, with the remaining mispronunciations being various types, and the English teacher's corrections of these were rare. Furthermore, the majority of these feedbacks were linked to specific teaching situations, with the rest seeming sporadic and unplanned. Interestingly, however, the study found one case of planned instruction of pronunciation, which stresses the fact that teachers are left with intuition and experience, in addition to textbook policies, syllabus and assessments, when teaching pronunciation in the English classroom.

Based on this, I argue that due to Norwegian students' high proficiency in English, pronunciation can often be given less attention in the teaching of English, and that the ambiguity of the English subject curriculum can further contribute to various teaching practices. Furthermore, I discuss how the subject curriculum should reconsider how oral proficiency and pronunciation skills can be a part of the English classroom in Norway, by integrating the purpose of the subject, which is communication, with guidelines provided by research valuing intelligibility and English as a global and international language.



# Sammendrag

Denne studien presenterer en deskriptiv analyse av videoinnspilte undervisningstimer i engelsk, med fokus på seks lærere i seks ulike klasserom (9. klasse). Analysen av datamaterialet hadde som mål å identifisere muntlig undervisning av engelskuttale, i tillegg til lærernes korrigeringer av elevenes uttalefeil. Studier av ordinær undervisning utført i engelskundervisning er verdifulle for å identifisere undervisningskvalitet og for å kunne få innsikt i elevers muntlige engelskferdigheter, og vi har få studier om dette temaet med videoobservasjon av engelskundervisning. Observasjon og analyse av 26 undervisningstimer, i engelsk i seks ulike klasserom, i to fylker i Norge har vært utfordrende, men noe jeg anser som viktig, da jeg hadde mulighet til å bidra med noe nytt innenfor forskningsfeltet.

Masterstudiens mest interessante funn var at gjennom en detaljert analyse av totalt 26 antall timer, utgjorde de observerte elevenes uttalefeil kun rundt 4 % av totalt antall ytringer. Dette betyr at deres engelskuttale er meget forståelig. Elevenes uttalefeil bestod for det meste av én type feil, mens de resterende ble identifisert som flere ulike typer, og engelsklærerne korrigerer sjeldent disse. Videre viste det seg at flesteparten av korrigeringene kunne knyttes til spesifikke undervisningssituasjoner, mens de resterende virket sporadiske og uforberedte. Studien viste imidlertid et tilfelle av uttaleundervisning, noe som understreker at intuisjon og erfaring, i tillegg til retningslinjer i lærebøker, pensum og vurderingssituasjoner, ofte påvirker hvordan lærere underviser uttale i engelsktimen.

Det er dette som gir grunnlag til min argumentasjon om at norske elevers engelskferdigheter fører til at uttale blir nedprioritert fra engelskundervisningen. Dessuten vil varierende undervisningspraksiser kunne være en konsekvens av tvetydigheten som farger læreplanen i engelsk. Studien diskuterer også hvordan læreplanen burde revurdere hvordan muntlige ferdigheter og uttaleferdigheter kan bli en del av engelskundervisningen i Norge, ved å integrere formålet med faget, nemlig kommunikasjon, med retningslinjer gitt av forskning med fokus på forståelse, og på engelsk om et globalt og internasjonalt språk.



# Preface

I have always found it very complicated to describe my years as a student at the University of Oslo. We never quite seemed to fit well together, mainly because I did not know which roads to follow and what choices to make. However, one thing was always certain; I wanted to be a teacher. It has been eight years since I was an aspiring student. It has been tough. It has been challenging. The bad days outnumbered the good days. It was not until I decided to change my specialisation to English, that I really figured it out. That is why an MA thesis in English didactics was the perfect choice for me. However, I could never have been able to write my thesis and finally finish my education without the help of my two supervisors; Lisbeth Brevik and Ulrikke Rindal. I want to thank you for all the help and advice you have given me, and for always telling me that this was something that I could do.

Finally, I am certain that I could never have been able to do this if it were not for the fact that I have inherited my mother's work ethic. The only reason for me being able to combine a full-time job with full-time studies is because I have seen your ability to be efficient and in control. Thank you for always supporting me and my crazy ideas. That is the only reason for why I have been able to accomplish so many things in my life.

Oslo, 2017

Manuela Erenstsen Iannuzzi



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# 1 Introduction

After working as a teacher in Norway for over three years, and embarking on this MA study of the English classroom, I started to reflect upon different aspects of my own English teaching in the lower secondary classroom. When looking back on everything I had taught my students up until the point of examination, I realised that I had failed to teach them something fundamental. We had encountered it several times in class, but I had never planned it as a part of my English lesson – I had never instructed it, nor thought of how I approached it with my students. To top it all, I remembered that I had on many occasions assessed my students on this topic. Pronunciation. At this point, it dawned on me that I had deprived my students of something which is stated in the English subject curriculum, and is even explicitly mentioned in a competence aim. As their English teacher, I had to “enable pupils to use the central patterns for pronunciation”, as stated by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (UDIR, 2006, 2013). But had we not focused on oral skills? Yes. So why had a whole competence aim managed to go under my radar? After talking to my colleagues, it became more evident that I was not the only one.

Pronunciation is seen as essential for successful communication, and a key element of oral skills in a second language (Afshari & Ketabi, 2017). The question is whether pronunciation is considered a fundamental part of English instruction in Norway. Since oral skills is one of five basic skills that should be included in all subjects (UDIR, 2012), it might be suggested that it involves pronunciation. Yet, the English subject curriculum is not easy to interpret; the competence aim that involves pronunciation is vague, and it is not clear about what the status of English is (e.g., Rindal & Piercy, 2014; Simensen, 2014).

The ambiguity of the English subject curriculum reflects the two contrasting language learning paradigms that researchers of English language teaching have been drawn between. Within one paradigm, English is viewed as a foreign language (EFL), where the teacher’s aim is for the students to become like native-speakers of English. In contrast, the paradigm English as a lingua franca (ELF) views English on an international arena, describing it as a global language, used by and among non-native speakers. These language learning paradigms also have various views on what English pronunciation should be, consequently leaving teachers with two different alternatives; should pronunciation aim at native-speaker norms, or communication and intelligibility?

This study is an investigation of how teachers approach pronunciation in lower secondary school in Norway (9th grade), and of the general level of pronunciation proficiency among Norwegian students.

## 1.1 English in the world and in Norway

Ever since the early 17<sup>th</sup> century, English has spread from the British Isles and taken different forms in different parts of the world. Today, English is not primarily a native language, spoken by native speakers, but a global language of communication. The spread of English through business, media, tourism and so forth, has made it into a *lingua franca*, appropriated by speakers in different communities throughout the world, across nationalities. For a long time, there has been more non-native speakers of English, than native speakers (Crystal, 2003).

Norway is no exception, and through the exposure to English every day, either when working, studying, through the media, or travelling, it is not surprising that Norwegians are among the most proficient non-native speakers of English (Education First, 2011; Rindal, 2014). English does not have official status as a *second* language in Norway, and has traditionally been regarded as a *foreign* language in the Norwegian schools. Yet, researchers (e.g. Rindal & Piercy, 2013; Simensen, 2014) argue that since English is no longer just related to education and being a school subject, thus not foreign to Norwegians, it is shifting towards being a second language. Unfortunately, it is not as easy as it seems; Norwegians do not qualify as speakers of English as a second language, English is not an official language, Norway is not a postcolonial country to a native-English-speaking country, and the teaching of English does not follow ELF standards (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). This might suggest that perhaps English in Norway can neither be considered as a foreign or a second language, but something in-between. In this study, I discuss this intermediate status of English in Norway, though for practical reasons “L2” is used as a term when referring to English as a second or later language in contexts where the status of English is not a topic.

English is an important subject in the Norwegian school system. Students learn English at an early stage, and as we arrive at lower secondary school at the age of 13, it could be considered as one of the three most important subjects next to Norwegian and Mathematics, with two assessments set each semester; an oral grade and a written grade (KD, 2006, 2013).



Oral communication skills are equally valued as the written ones, and according to the English subject curriculum (KD, 2006, 2013) it involves “clear intonation and pronunciation”. A competence aim states that the students should be able to use ‘central patterns for pronunciation’, and the English teachers should, therefore, include this in their lessons. Researchers (Rindal & Piercy, 2013; Simensen 2014) have debated what the criteria for central pronunciation patterns are, without finding answers in the English subject curriculum, resulting in various teaching practices.

## **1.2 Teaching pronunciation**

Although pronunciation is seen as essential for successful communication (Fraser, 2000), the lack of research on pronunciation as a topic to be taught in the English classroom has long been discussed among scholars (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Derwing & Munro, 2005). This has resulted in different teaching practices of pronunciation, and there is an agreement that other skills in English have been favoured. The lack of research and common guidelines about teaching pronunciation has resulted in intuition and experience having created the foundation for the teachers’ practice (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Derwing & Munro, 2005).

Traditionally, the teaching of pronunciation has involved specific linguistic competences on a segmental level, meaning specific linguistic competencies. However today, some have favoured the suprasegmental level, involving intonation, stress, and articulation. This suggests that instead of only working with segments such as specific phonemes, it is important to also know proper intonation, stress and articulation (Afshari & Ketabi, 2017; Hardison, 2010). Researchers have emphasised that suprasegmental errors affect intelligibility to a higher extent than the segmentals, yet teachers who prefer a native-like pronunciation might focus on specific phonemes using high-status pronunciation accents like Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA). It might be said that the teaching of pronunciation is heavily influenced by the ongoing debate about English language teaching; if English is seen as a foreign language, then teachers should focus on nativeness (Jenkins, 2006; Levis, 2005). However, if English is considered to be a lingua franca, teachers should accordingly promote intelligibility (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011). This MA study explores how the debate about pronunciation has affected Norwegian teachers of English. It presents how different teachers approach pronunciation in various ways in their

classrooms. The specific objectives and research question is presented in the following section.

### **1.3 Objectives and research question**

Considering that the English subject curriculum in Norway (KD, 2006, 2013) is not clear about which central patterns of pronunciation the teachers should teach their students, the objective of my MA study is to explore the teaching of English in lower secondary school, and how teachers approach English pronunciation. The focus is on if and how the teachers instruct pronunciation, to what extent they correct mispronunciations, and if so, which method they use.

The study has used video recordings from the Linking Instruction and Student Experiences (LISE) project at the University of Oslo (see Hjeltnes, Brevik & Klette, 2017). LISE was initiated in 2015, with Professor Kirsti Klette as project leader, and Associate professor Lisbeth M. Brevik as project coordinator. LISE links video observations from classrooms with data from student surveys, and national test data. The LISE study has gathered data in seven classrooms in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade during the school years 2015-16 and 2016-17.

In my MA project, I have used the video recordings of English lessons in six of the LISE classrooms in 9<sup>th</sup> grade to investigate the main research question of this MA study:

*How do teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary school?*

In order to properly investigate the main research question, it was necessary to look at how teachers instructed pronunciation, and how they approached it in communication with their students. Consequently, the students' English pronunciation was also examined, and especially cases of non-standard pronunciation which might lead to a teacher reaction, providing information about their general proficiency in pronunciation. Four sub-questions were developed:

- 1) To what extent and how do the English teachers in the sampled 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms provide instruction of pronunciation?
- 2) To what extent and how do the students in these classrooms make mispronunciations?

- 3) To what extent and how do the teachers in these classrooms correct the students' mispronunciations, and which feedback methods do they use?
- 4) In which situations do these mispronunciations and feedback occur?

The first sub-question involves identifying how the teacher implements pronunciation as a planned topic in the English lessons. The purpose is to identify to what extent the teachers teach pronunciation, and if so, which methods are used in the instruction of English pronunciation, as well as how the teacher interacts with the students in such situations.

Whereas the first sub-question is teacher-based, the second sub-question is student-oriented and aims at presenting the observed students' oral skills by looking at their proficiency in using English pronunciation, as well as their mispronunciations. The purpose is to gain a general impression of their proficiency in English pronunciation.

The third sub-question considers the interaction between the student and the teacher. Seeing as an approach to pronunciation can take place in communication with the students, as well as being a planned instruction, this sub-question aims at presenting the different events where the teacher approaches the students' pronunciation and mispronunciation as they occur during the English lessons. The purpose is to analyse how the teacher does this, in terms of which methods the teachers use when approaching pronunciation in communication with the students, and the different classroom situations when this takes place. The findings from the video observation of these four sub-questions are intended to complement each other, and together answer the overall research question: *How do teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary school?*

## **1.4 Structure of MA thesis**

This MA thesis comprises six chapters, with general background, including research question, being presented in Chapter 1. In Chapter 2, the theoretical framing of my thesis including prior research is provided, outlining the status of English in the world and in Norway, and the debate between the two language learning paradigms EFL and ELF, in addition to theories on teaching English pronunciation. Furthermore, the English subject curriculum in Norway is discussed, with a focus on the purpose of the subject, and how it integrates pronunciation as a competence aim. Chapter 3 presents the methodology used in

the study, which is video observation of English classrooms. This chapter also provides the analytical codes and categories where some are based on prior theories and research, and others developed for the purpose of this MA study. In Chapter 4, the findings from the video observation are presented, and in Chapter 5, these are discussed in light of prior research and the theoretical framing. Finally, Chapter 6 provides concluding remarks and implications of my findings for the English subject curriculum and the teaching of English pronunciation in Norway.

## 2 Theoretical framework

This chapter will provide an overview of the theoretical framework for the present study, and is divided into four main parts; 1) English in the world, 2) pronunciation, 3) feedback methods, and 4) English pronunciation in Norway. In the first part, the role of English in the world will be outlined, with a focus on its users. This is followed by a presentation of two language learning paradigms in English language teaching; English as a foreign language (ELF) and English as a lingua franca (ELF). The first part concludes with a discussion on what the status of English is in Norway. In the second part, English pronunciation is presented through two high-status pronunciation models, in addition to the nativeness and intelligibility principles. This is further linked to research on teaching pronunciation in the ELT classroom. The third part focuses on what, how and when teachers should approach it, and finally, English pronunciation in Norway is presented in the fourth section.

### 2.1 English in the world

English as a language does no longer only belong to traditional English-speaking countries such as USA or Britain. Its status in the world has changed and it is now considered as a global and international language, used every day, for several purposes. Different varieties<sup>1</sup> of English have developed, and the speakers of English are now spread all over the world. As this study examines Norwegian students' pronunciation of English, focusing on how teachers approach this topic in the English language teaching classroom, it is relevant to examine how researchers have described and categorised the users of English.

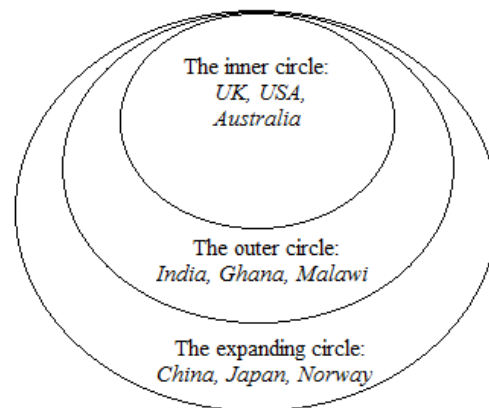
#### 2.1.1 The users of English

English has grown to become a language used in a globalised world as a tool for international communication. Tourism, business, education, media and popular culture are just some of the domains where it is used (Rindal & Piercy, 2013; Simensen, 2014). English does no longer only belong to those who use it as a first or a second language, but also to a third and a rapidly growing group of people: those who use English as a foreign language. In the 1980s, Braj B. Kachru put this in another way when establishing the *Concentric Circles of English*, which illustrated the status of the English language in the world (Kachru, 1985); the *inner*

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<sup>1</sup> Based on linguistic terms, “variety” refers to different forms of language, including languages, dialects, sociolects and styles. The term “variant” will be used to describe different pronunciations of a variable.

circle represents countries with speakers of English as a first language, the *outer* circle contains speakers of English as a second language, while people using it as a foreign language belongs to the *expanding* circle (Figure 2A). In this representation of users of English, Scandinavia traditionally belongs to the expanding circle.



**Figure 2A.** The Concentric Circles of English from the 1980s (based on Kachru, 1985)

Simensen (2014) argues that at the time Kachru’s model was first introduced, the speakers belonging to the inner circle considered those who “owned” the English language. These countries were regarded as *norm-providing*, meaning that their English variant was the standard or norm for how English should be spoken. At this point, Kachru described the outer circle as *norm-developing*, as they were developing their own variants of English. As for the expanding circle, he considered them to be *norm-dependent* (Kachru, 1985; Simensen, 2014).

Kachru’s model has been criticised by many scholars, including himself, for various reasons, as for instance failing to show the importance of English in the expanding circle. This group of speakers is growing rapidly and is outnumbering the other users. According to Jenkins (2006), the expanding circle does not only consist of people using English as a foreign language, but is extended to non-native speakers using it among themselves as a global and universal language, making it an English as a *lingua franca*. Rindal (2014) discusses what she calls the “fuzzy edges” of Kachru’s model by addressing the fact that “many foreign-language users know more about the language and use it better and more appropriately than both the native and the second-language users” (pp. 7-8). She further concludes that since the circles or categories in Kachru’s model are based on geographical borders, it illustrates a *nation view* of language, where speakers in certain countries are more valid users of English than others, which does not suffice as a description of English in the world today (Rindal,

2014). In conclusion, the speakers of English cannot be easily categorised into groups or circles, as English is now used by various people, for different purposes. This has impacted perspectives on language learning.

### **2.1.2 Language learning paradigms**

Research on second language acquisition (SLA) is increasingly accepting the Englishes in the outer circle, alongside the critique of Kachru's concentric circles, although only some of the Englishes in the outer circle are being acknowledged as varieties of English (Jenkins, 2006). The majority of SLA scholars have yet to accept the expanding circle's English as varieties (Jenkins, 2006), and regards these as *interlanguages*; language produced in the process of learning a target language (Ellis, 1997), in this case a step toward native-speaker English. The methods of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) have traditionally been developed alongside SLA research. The opposite view of English is the notion of it being a *lingua franca* (ELF); a contact language used among people who do not share a first language (Jenkins et al., 2011)- It acknowledges their English as varieties or at least as legitimate use of English, and not norm-dependent (cf. Kachru, 1985).

As Kachru's concentric circles are being challenged, scholars are drawn between two paradigms; should English language teaching focus on EFL or ELF? This question becomes particularly important when discussed in light of pronunciation, as it determines whether learners of English should strive to achieve native speaker pronunciation, or an English pronunciation which is necessary for ELF communication.

The aim to have near-native competence, and for the learner to be able to communicate effectively with native speakers is a key element in EFL. It is seen as dependent on native-speaker norms by the majority of researchers and teachers, meaning that differences between non-native speakers and native speakers are seen as errors and incomplete second language acquisition (Jenkins, 2006).

ELF, on the other hand, is a perspective on English as a world language, and is "any use of English among speakers of different first languages, for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 7). What EFL calls "errors" are seen as "variants" in ELF, because these are forms that occur systematically and

frequently, without causing communication problems among non-native speakers, much like the use of different variants among native speakers of English.

According to Jenkins (2006), SLA does not take into account that the speakers in the outer circle and the expanding circle are outnumbering the native speakers. Thus, it is more likely to use English when encountering non-native speakers, than with native speakers, which is a central argument in ELF. The interaction of English in the classroom is in fact also mostly among non-native speakers (Jenkins, 2006).

### **2.1.3 The status of English in Norway**

As previously mentioned, Scandinavia, thus also Norway, has traditionally been considered an expanding-circle country (Kachru, 1985), where English has a foreign-language status; it is a school subject, and not an official second language (Rindal, 2014). However, seeing as it is a mandatory school subject for 11 years, in addition to the high use of English in everyday life, whether in business, education, the media or pop culture, researchers have argued that the English language has made a shift from being a foreign language to being a second language (L2) in Norway (Rindal, 2014; Simensen, 2014). These views reflect how the global changes in the use of English have affected its status in Norway. Nevertheless, since English officially is a language taught in schools, it is essential to see how the debate between the two paradigms, EFL and ELF, has influenced the English subject in Norway.

The subject of English in Norway has traditionally been associated with native-speaker English, with the content being based on the inner circle, making this a standard for English language teaching. However, in accordance with the development of English as a global language, the English subject has also started to move away from these views. Today, the English subject is a separate curriculum from other foreign languages such as Spanish, French and German. Additionally, the English subject curriculum states in its first sentence that English is a universal language (KD, 2006, 2013). Furthermore, it says that;

To succeed in a world where English is used for international communication, it is necessary to be able to use the English language and to have knowledge of how it is used in different contexts (KD, 2006, 2013).



This suggests that the subject is not specifically a foreign language, and the ELF paradigm is clearly visible. Moreover, it states that the subject of English should “contribute to providing insight into the way people live in different cultures where English is the primary or the official language” (KD, 2006, 2013), which is an indirect reference to Kachru’s inner and outer circles (Kachru, 1985). The English subject curriculum thus includes perspectives from both EFL and ELF (Simensen, 2014).

## **2.2 Pronunciation**

The above discussion indicates that English as a language is a debatable topic, especially when discussing who the users of English are, and how it is be used by different speakers. The present MA study aims at showing how English is taught in Norwegian classrooms, looking at one aspect of it; pronunciation.

The importance of pronunciation in successful communication has been emphasised by many researchers (Afshari & Ketabi, 2017). Some argue that it can influence the desire to use the language, as poor pronunciation becomes a barrier to the learners’ success in the target language, maybe resulting in decreasing social status. Others stress that it is a key element of oral skills in an L2. Most language teaching experts consider intelligible pronunciation as an absolute necessity (Afshari & Ketabi, 2017). Fraser (2000) sums these views up by arguing that:

Being able to speak English of course includes a number of sub-skills, involving vocabulary, grammar, pragmatics, etc. However, by far, the most important of these skills is pronunciation; with good pronunciation, a speaker is intelligible despite other errors; with poor pronunciation, a speaker can be very difficult to understand despite accuracy in other areas. Pronunciation is the aspect that most affects how the speaker is judged by others, and how they are formally assessed in other skills (p. 7).

Taking this perspective into consideration, the teaching of pronunciation is important in the English language teaching classroom, thus requesting the need for research on how to do this successfully. Hardison (2010) argues that development and success in L2 pronunciation can be achieved through three factors: (1) learners’ L2 fluency and the amount of contact they have with L2 speakers, (2) the fluency of their L2 speech and their L2 writing activities

outside the classroom, and (3) the degree of accentedness and the amount of L2 use. Out of these three factors, the third involving accentedness is interesting, as it might suggest an EFL view. An accent has to do with the way in which people for example in a particular area or country pronounce words (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2015), meaning that the degree of accentedness pointed out by Hardison (2010) involves the presence of L1 accent in English. This suggests that successful L2 English equals a native-like accent, making it necessary to look at what is considered to be such a favourable pronunciation.

### **2.2.1 Standard English, RP and GA**

As shown, researchers belonging to the EFL paradigm consider near-native-speaker competence as desirable and preferable when it comes to learning English. This also includes pronunciation, and accents such as Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) have been seen as preferable varieties of English with high status (Jenkins, 2009). Some might also regard *Standard English* as a variety to strive for, as it is; 1) being normally used in writing and printing, 2) associated with the education system in all the English-speaking countries of the world, thus being used by 'educated people', and 3) often taught to non-native learners (Trudgill, 2001).

However, Standard English has nothing to do with pronunciation. Being one English variety among many, Trudgill (2001) explains that Standard English is a sub-variety of English, hence a dialect. Although it has its origins from the southeast of England, it is no longer a geographical dialect, but purely a social dialect which is distinguished from other dialects of the language by its grammatical forms. As it is favoured in many written and certain formal contexts, it may be advantageous to teach Standard English grammar and vocabulary to L2 speakers (Jenkins, 2000).

Although Standard English is not a pronunciation variety, and cannot be compared or considered as an equivalent to RP and GA, it is necessary to talk about Standard English as another term. For the purposes of this study, *Standard English pronunciation* is considered to be an umbrella term that involves two varieties that are by some people considered to have high social prestige. Based on this, all student pronunciation that deviates from RP and GA English is referred to as mispronunciation, non-standard pronunciation, or deviation from Standard English pronunciation (SEp), and these three terms will be used interchangeably.

### **2.2.2 Nativeness and intelligibility**

According to Levis (2005), pronunciation research and pedagogy have traditionally been influenced by two contradictory principles; the *nativeness principle* and the *intelligibility principle*. The nativeness principle involves a desire to achieve native-like pronunciation in a foreign language; while the intelligibility principle holds that language learners simply need to make themselves understood.

The nativeness principle may be associated with the native-speaker norm and has traditionally been regarded as the norm for language production and assessment, thereby holding a strong position in language teaching (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017). However, it has been frequently criticised by pronunciation experts and applied linguists for many reasons, including that attainment of a native speaker accent is not achievable for most learners, in addition to disagreement in who the “native speaker” accounts for (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Levis, 2005). As previously mentioned, English is frequently being used among non-native speakers, making the native-speaker norm an inappropriate target, since these speakers do not need to conform to native speakers (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017).

As Levis (2005) explains, the intelligibility principle recognises that communication can be remarkably successful when foreign accents are present, yet, there is no correlation between accent and understanding. In fact, research has shown that a strong foreign accent does not necessarily disrupt intelligibility (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017).

### **2.2.3 Teaching pronunciation in the English classroom**

As previously discussed, pronunciation is considered to be an essential part of successful communication, and as argued above, communication is also the key element in the English subject curriculum in Norway. Thus, it becomes crucial to explore how pronunciation is and can be approached in the classroom. Until recently, evidence has shown that pronunciation has been neglected in L2 language instruction, as well as research and assessment, something that might be explained by its marginalised status in communicative language teaching (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017);

The lack of attention to pronunciation teaching in otherwise authoritative texts has resulted in limited knowledge about how to integrate appropriate pronunciation instruction into second language classrooms (Derwing & Munro, 2005, p. 383).

Skills such as grammar and vocabulary have been given much more attention, forcing pronunciation pedagogy to be guided by intuitive thinking (Derwing & Munro, 2005). Levis (2005) argues that “teachers have intuitively decided which features have the greatest effect on clarity and which are learnable in a classroom setting” (p. 369). As Derwing and Munro (2005) points out; relying on intuition and experience can have positive outcomes, especially for teachers with experience in phonetics, yet it does not seem fair, nor realistic, to expect teachers to solely rely on their intuition. This results in an unbalanced classroom situation; some integrate pronunciation in their lessons, while others might rarely plan it as a part of the English lesson and only address it when there is spare-time or if the topic presents itself.

According to Afshari and Ketabi (2017), the teaching of pronunciation which has found its way into the classroom has traditionally been focused on specific linguistic competencies, emphasised on segmental level (e.g. phonemes). Today, some researchers argue that broader communicative competencies are valued at a suprasegmental level, meaning that teaching should focus on intonation and stress, and how speech is produced by working with clear articulation (Hardison, 2010). However, Jenkins (2000) discusses the importance of establishing a degree of suprasegmental – segmental balance appropriate to English as an international language, also stressing that many suprasegmental features can only be acquired over time, outside the classroom. Moreover, a study has shown that influence of Norwegian intonation does not disrupt intelligibility among listeners from other countries (Haukland, 2016).

Even if teachers have an idea of which pronunciation features that should be taught, there is limited time in the classroom. Teaching priorities are often determined by the relative salience of pronunciation errors, and Scheuer (2015) outlined three parts of the English sound system that are important to work with in the L2 classroom: 1) foreign accent criterion, 2) intelligibility criterion, and 3) aesthetic/attitudinal considerations. As outlined earlier, the importance of nativeness or the foreign accent criterion has been discussed by many researchers (e.g. Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Hardison, 2010), something Scheuer (2015) also

takes into consideration, thereby challenging the importance of the criterion. This is not the case of intelligibility:

The primary function of language is communication [...]. Therefore, if pronunciation instruction had to be limited to a bare minimum, intelligibility seems to be a reasonable [...] bottom-line criterion to adopt when selecting the phonetic features to be taught (Scheuer, 2015, p. 144).

The aesthetic and attitudinal criterion concerns the subjective reaction of the listeners. There are errors that some listeners find irritating to hear, and the criterion argues that L2 speakers rarely want to be considered as annoying when they speak (Scheuer, 2015). However, if English is used between non-native speakers, this criterion might not be as relevant as if one of the speakers were a native speaker. Scheuer (2015) concludes by stressing the fact that teachers make their choices in the classroom based on the factors outlined above, but also their personal convictions and preferences, the textbook policy, the syllabus and the assessments along the way.

Equipping teachers with methods for teaching pronunciation, elements to focus on, and factors to be considered, is only a solution to one part of the problem; the main dilemma still is whether or not the students will learn English as a foreign language with a native-like pronunciation, or as a second language focused on intelligibility. Researchers such as Scheuer (2015) want the teaching of pronunciation to focus on errors that lead to potential lexical confusion, rather than non-native production of sounds. This means teaching phonemic contrasts and minimal pairs, corresponding to the needs of the learners. Scheuer (2015) refers to the Lingua Franca Core model as a helpful device for teachers. This model was made by Jennifer Jenkins, a strong advocate of teaching English as an ELF, focusing on certain phonological aspects in the English language that should be overcome when the purpose is to use English as an international language.

### 2.2.4 The Lingua Franca Core

As a response to the special status RP and GA have commanded around the English-speaking world, Jenkins (2000) carried out an empirical research project that aimed at identifying which features of RP and GA were necessary for intelligibility in ELF communication, and which were deemed unnecessary (Jenkins, 2009). After looking at pronunciation-based intelligibility problems and the use of phonological accommodation, she argued that “core” features were likely to enhance mutual intelligibility, and that English users should focus on them when learning English pronunciation (Jenkins, 2000). Moreover, non-native speakers of English should have accommodation skills in their repertoire, meaning features that speakers adjust in their pronunciation, and how they do this in order to sound more intelligible to other non-native speakers of English (Jenkins et al., 2011). The result was the Lingua Franca Core as a proposal to a new pronunciation syllabus. This approach to English pronunciation teaching emphasises mutual intelligibility among non-native speakers of English.

Jenkins (2000, 2009) explains that there are three main categories in the Lingua Franca Core which are crucial if pronunciation is to be intelligible; sounds, nuclear stress, and articulatory setting. According to her, the teaching of pronunciation in classrooms where the purpose is to use English as an international language should focus on the following aspects in order to maintain intelligibility:

1. Consonant sounds, except /θ/, /ð/, and dark /l/
2. Vowel length contrasts
3. Restrictions on consonant deletion (in particular, not omitting sounds in the beginning and in the middle of words)
4. Nuclear (or tonic) stress production/placement
5. The vowel /ɜ:/

In addition to establishing core features of ELF, Jenkins (2009) also lists the typical features of native-speaker English pronunciation that are unnecessary for pronunciation intelligibility in ELF communication, thus called non-core features:

- 1) Vowel quality except for the vowel sound in RP “fur”
- 2) Consonants in (native-speaker English) clusters separated by the addition of vowels, as well as vowels added to consonants at the ends of words
- 3) Features of connected speech such as elision, assimilation, weak forms
- 4) Consonant sounds /θ/ and /ð/, and dark l
- 5) Word stress placement
- 6) Pitch direction

When speaking English and using these non-core features in ELF communication, speakers should be free to use their own accent influenced by their first language without being corrected for “errors” (Jenkins, 2009).

According to Jenkins herself, the Lingua Franca Core is not a pronunciation model, but more a suggestion to guidelines that would be important for intelligibility. This would, furthermore, depend on the context, the speakers, and the degree of accommodation required. Due to little attention to pronunciation among linguists and English language teaching professionals, Jenkins points out that the Lingua Franca Core is not definitive, though in need of replicating. Supporters of Jenkins and the Lingua Franca Core have identified some areas that need adjustment, thus contributing to her work with pronunciation in ELF (Jenkins et al., 2011). There are, however, criticism towards both ELF and the Lingua Franca Core, such as ELF being an unstable language variety (Mollin, 2006), or the Lingua Franca Core’s focus on communication and not nativeness: “listeners, both native and non-native, evaluate the speaker on the basis of his pronunciation” (Sobkowiak, 2005). Sobkowiak (2005) also points out that students and teachers should be able to set themselves high goals in learning English, without being demotivated by arguments of unteachable items of pronunciation. But, as Kirkpatrick (2007) puts it; “All varieties of English are notorious for being difficult to pronounce”, and for most learners native-speaking pronunciation is not achievable, thus, as Jenkins et al. (2011) argues, teachers should aim at teaching accommodation skills rather than pronunciation features so that students are motivated.

### **2.2.5 Implementing ELF in pronunciation teaching**

Although researchers have presented ELF as a more suitable teaching paradigm in countries where English is primarily used in communication among non-native speakers, a clear shift to ELF is not easy in general. For this to succeed, there is a need for a reliable language. Researchers, such as Timmis (2012), question this; “what ELF research has to offer is not self-evident. Can it provide alternative norms, or an alternative core of norms, to which learners might orient?” (p. 517). He further questions if ELF can give accuracy to the teaching, a fundamental concept of the subject (Timmis, 2012). In light of this, it is necessary to point out that ELF scholars want ELF varieties to be accepted, not present one variety as a target model. Jenkins (2000) offers a solution to these worries, by arguing that English pronunciation teaching should educate teachers and provide them with facts that will “enable them to make informed decisions in their selection of pronunciation models” (p. 199). Furthermore, she believes that it is possible to also train teachers phonologically (Jenkins, 2000).

In Switzerland, Dürmüller (2008) outlined how these changes have affected a new study plan for English. Here, both the students aiming for a native pronunciation and those who do not are gathered under one curriculum: “the choice of standard for pronunciation ... is discussed in further detail, as is the inevitability and acceptability of interlanguage forms. Communication among non-native speakers is contrasted to communication among native speakers” (Dürmüller, 2008).

## **2.3 Feedback methods**

When looking at how teachers approach pronunciation in the English classroom in Norway, an important part of this is how they give feedback on students’ pronunciation. Feedback is seen as contributing to language learning; encouraging learner motivation as well as ensuring linguistic accuracy, and can be either negative or positive (Ellis, 2009b). The latter indicates an affirmation of a correct learner response to an activity, something that is important as it provides affective support to the learner. It is this kind of feedback that encourages motivation to continue learning. According to SLA research, positive feedback from teachers is often ambiguous, with short comments such as “Good” or “Yes”, thus not specifying what was seen as good (Ellis, 2009b). For the feedback to greatly motivate the students, it should be elaborated and specified so that the student knows what he or she is doing correctly.



Negative feedback, on the other hand, signals that “the learner’s utterance lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant. In other words, it is corrective in intent” (Ellis, 2009b, p. 3), making it *corrective feedback* (CF). According to Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001), corrective feedback can be either 1) an indication that an error has been committed, 2) provision of the correct answer, or 3) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, including any combination of these. Furthermore, it can be a simple comment or complex, and also further triggering moves (Ellis, 2009b).

### 2.3.1 CF strategies

Ellis (2009b) explains how oral corrective feedback strategies distinguish between being explicit and implicit, and being input-providing and output-prompting. The different CF strategies are; recast, repetition, clarification request, explicit correction, elicitation, paralinguistic signal and metalinguistic explanation. The latter strategy is labelled as a written CF, while the rest are oral CF strategies (Ellis, 2009a, 2009b) (Table 2A).

**Table 2A.** A taxonomy of CF strategies (Ellis, 2009b)

	<i>Implicit</i>	<i>Explicit</i>
Input-providing	Recast	Explicit correction
Output-prompting	Repetition Clarification request	Metalinguistic explanation Elicitation Paralinguistic signal

As shown in Table 2B, the teachers are given a variety of methods to choose from when they are to give feedback. Some involves giving the correct answer immediately, while others require the learners to find the error on their own.

**Table 2B.** Corrective feedback strategies (Ellis, 2009b)

<i>Corrective feedback strategy</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Example</i>
1. Recast	The corrector incorporates the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way (e.g., phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical).	L: I went there two times. T: You’ve been. You’ve been there twice as a group?
2. Repetition	The corrector repeats the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress.	L: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you. L: I’ll show you.
3. Clarification request	The corrector indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said.	L: What do you spend with your wife?

		T: What?
4. Explicit correction	The corrector indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error and provides the correction.	L: On May. T: Not on May. In May. We say, "It will start in May."
5. Elicitation	The corrector repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal the learner should complete it.	L: I'll come if it will not rain. T: I'll come if it .....?
6. Paralinguistic signal	The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error.	L: Yesterday I go cinema. T: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past)

Ellis (2009b) stresses that a range of feedback methods to choose from does not mean that it is easy to plan what to do; "The teacher has to select both the particular strategy to use in response to a learner error and the specific linguistic devices for realizing that strategy" (p. 9). Some scholars have argued that teaching practices of CF are imprecise considering that they mostly use a particular CF strategy, or are inconsistent when approaching a specific error made by different students. The lack of a "plan" when giving feedback may be a result of the uncertainty of which strategies is to be considered more effective, or the fact that correcting errors is a complex process which is difficult to plan (Ellis, 2009b).

Ellis (2009b) furthermore presents the different views on which CF strategies that are seen as most effective. For instance, recast has been favoured because it is non-intrusive, and keeps the flow of communication, yet it has been opposed by those claiming that it is ambiguous in the sense that learners cannot determine when they are corrective and when they are not. Additionally, studies show that explicit CF is generally more effective than implicit, while others argue that output-prompting strategies are preferable rather than recast and other input-prompting strategies. These different views merely enhance the fact that some CF strategies can be effective in some situations, though there is no evidence that there is one strategy that is suitable for all learners in all contexts (Ellis, 2009b).

### 2.3.2 Choice of errors to correct

When it comes to which errors the teacher should correct, it is necessary to first address the term "error". According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), an *error* is a lack of competence, and should be distinguished from what is considered to be a *mistake*. When a student makes a mistake, it is due to failure in bringing

his or her competence properly into action. While errors are a product of a learner's developing interlanguage, mistakes are inevitable in all language use, and can be made by both L2 learners and native speakers (Council of Europe, 2001). Although the CEFR points out that considerations must be made when addressing different kinds of errors and mistakes according to what the teacher is approaching, it also states that "errors should be corrected only when they interfere with communication" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 155).

Ellis (2009b) states that CF should be directed at "features that learners have shown they have problems with" (p. 6), giving the teacher room for choices according to the context. He further stresses the difficulty in evaluating the students' errors and mistakes in a classroom context, especially when it comes to oral correction;

Hard-pressed teachers often do not have the time to ascertain which features are problematic. Even if the careful selection of errors to target were possible in written correction, it would be well-nigh impossible in on-line oral correction (Ellis, 2009b, p. 6).

Teachers are faced with making the choice of how much to correct as well as what to correct. There is a common belief among methodologists and SLA researchers that teachers should use "focused" oral CF instead of "unfocused" oral CF; this involves addressing only a few error types, and not all the errors which are made by the learners (Ellis, 2009b).

The choice of what to correct when it comes to students' English pronunciation, may be influenced by Jenkins' research (2000) on ELF pronunciation and the establishment of the Lingua Franca Core. This works as a guidebook for teachers who wish to teach English as a lingua franca, and, as previously outlined, lists specific features of the Lingua Franca Core which non-native speakers should focus on in order to maintain intelligibility. Accordingly, the Lingua Franca Core provides teachers with features that should be corrected in the classroom.

Looking back at Standard English pronunciation (see Section 2.2.1), this study does not distinguish between errors and mistakes, but focuses on which pronunciations that are deviations from Standard English pronunciation (SEp). This will, therefore, include both potential errors and mistakes, as the main aim is to present all mispronunciations throughout.

It is important to stress that the deviations included here could potentially be seen as errors and mistakes by teachers, yet this study does not classify these as errors or mistakes, but as deviations from Standard English pronunciation. As this classification is in conflict with the theoretical framework on giving feedback on pronunciation, the term “error” is only used in relation to other research (e.g. Council of Europe, 2001; Ellis, 2009b). This conflict between the theories of researchers and the study’s interpretation of student pronunciation reflects the conflict that English as a language and as a school subject is facing in Norway (See Section 2.4).

### **2.3.3 Timing of oral CF**

Doughty (1999) argues that the timing of oral corrective feedback should be directed simultaneously at form, meaning, and function, provided they occur within an appropriate cognitive window. In the present study pronunciation is about form, as it only investigates segmentals and word stress.

The teacher can focus on form in two ways; preemptive or reactive. The preemptive focus involves explicit attention to a linguistic problematic point at a particular moment in the discourse, other than a learner error. In order to stay within the cognitive window, Doughty (1999) argues that preemptive focus can only occur shortly in advance of the learner need. This means that the teacher has a planned instruction of pronunciation, where learner deviations have been mapped beforehand.

Reactive focus, on the other hand, is when the teacher or a learner responds to an erroneous utterance by using one of the CF strategies (Ellis et al., 2001), as when pronunciation becomes a topic in class based on students’ mispronunciations. The teacher thus approaches these deviations in communication with the students. To stay within the appropriate cognitive window would entail a brief shift from meaning and function to form when the learner need arises (Doughty, 1999). Reactive focus thus means that the teacher briefly gives attention to pronunciation (form) when the student has a mispronunciation, and then continues with the topic in focus for the lesson.

Ellis et al. (2001) have examined how CF can focus on form in the language classroom, and an assumption made is that teachers and learners primarily focus on using language communicatively rather than the elements of the linguistic code, but that there are situations when they choose to or need to also focus on form, making this an incidental situation. This view coincides with Long's (2001) explanation where focus on form is something that "overtly draws student's attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (pp. 4-5). These incidental situations might create difficult situations for the teachers, as they have to choose between correcting the students immediately after an error has been committed, or wait until later. The choice should be made within seconds, forcing the teacher to evaluate the pervasiveness of the error and assess whether it is remediable. However, the cognitive window limits their choice, as it favours CF with focus on form to be given with proximity to the learner need (Doughty, 1999).

A contradictory view is made in a study of teacher guides accompanying course books, which showed that teachers were instructed to delay correction until the end of fluency activities (Hedge, 2000). However, in the case of accuracy-oriented activities, teachers should correct immediately, and not delay until afterwards (Ellis, 2009b). Ellis et al. (2001) also argues that immediate CF does not disrupt fluency activities or the communicative flow of the lessons. This coincides with the CEFR which states that all errors and mistakes should be corrected immediately by the teacher, but there is room for adjustment according to the topic (See Section 2.3.2, Council of Europe, 2001).

## **2.4 English pronunciation in Norway**

Looking back at the English subject in Norway, we see that the purpose of the subject reflects current trends in English language teaching research; the objective is to use English in international communication, as a global language, with native *and* non-native speakers around the world. Although the purpose of the subject seems clear, the aim of English pronunciation is not evident. When it comes to pronunciation at lower secondary school, the English subject curriculum has one competence aim after Year 10 under "oral communication", stating that pupils should "use the central patterns for pronunciation, intonation, word inflection and different types of sentences in communication" (KD, 2006, 2013). Under the curriculum's "Main subject areas" there is an explanation of what oral

communication involves, but pronunciation is never mentioned (KD, 2006, 2013). Thus, teachers are left with little guidance when teaching pronunciation, and one might ask what “using central patterns” entails. This leaves room for individual interpretation when teachers are to operationalize the construct, resulting in different teaching practises (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Rindal & Piercy, 2013).

Looking at the situation in Norway, Simensen (2014) made an attempt to see if it possible to apply the values of ELF to the English classroom. She argued that this would call for updated research on the area to all teachers, in line with what has been argued by Jenkins (2000). Additionally, common guidelines and criteria for pronunciation should be established so that students are taught and assessed accordingly (Simensen, 2014).

Although the English subject curriculum provides a guide for the content of the English education, the fact that it lacks specific guidelines as to what pronunciation entails leaves room for subjective teaching methods and focus. Something that might be influential and impact what teachers decide to do in the classroom, might be their teaching education. For example, the teacher education programme at the University of Oslo includes one mandatory phonetic class, providing two alternative phonetic accents: RP and GA (University of Oslo, 2016). Teacher students need to know the differences between them, but specialise themselves in one of the varieties. RP and GA pronunciation are also models mentioned in various textbook used in educating teachers of English (e.g., Bergsland, 2015; Flognfeldt & Lund, 2016). Textbooks often mention the position English has in the Norwegian society, stressing that pronunciation is given little attention in the classroom. Since they discuss the English subject curriculum and its lack of explanations and guidelines of pronunciation, it is difficult to not also present RP and GA as two models for teacher students (Bergsland, 2015; Flognfeldt & Lund, 2016).

Based on this, teachers are “trained” in knowing two different pronunciation varieties, and choose one specialisation. The English language is taught in schools, and those who develop an interest for it learns more in colleges and at universities. What these institutions teach will be regarded as “correct” for learners of English as an L2, and concluding from the examples above, it seems as if English pronunciation can be considered a lingua franca in secondary school, and a foreign language in higher education. Since a teacher student is trained in a

single variety in higher education, it suggests that this future teacher may use this as a reference when teaching pronunciation, if not given other guidelines in secondary school.

## **2.5 Chapter summary**

In this chapter, I have argued that the English language is mostly used among non-native speakers in an international context, thereby using it as lingua franca. Although linguists are drawn between the two paradigms EFL and ELF, the latter has gained a strong foothold. This is also the case in Norway even though the English subject has not yet made a clear shift towards ELF. In addition, I have shown that although pronunciation is a vital part of communication, there are some standard forms that still hold sway over teachers, also impacting how they approach pronunciation in the classroom. The chapter has further presented how researchers have tried to set guidelines for how L2 speakers can approach English for these purposes, as, for example, focusing on a Lingua Franca Core. Although different feedback methods have been outlined, with suggestions on how to approach students' pronunciation in the English classroom, the chapter has shown that teachers are left with making their own decisions on how to implement pronunciation in the classroom. This is also the case in the Norwegian classrooms, due to the subject curriculum's lack of guidelines on pronunciation.

## 3 Methodology

In this chapter, I show which methods I have used to examine the overall research aim; *How do teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary school?* First, I address the link between my MA project and the LISE video study (3.1) and my research design (3.2), in which I explain how the design was chosen to address the research aim. Next, I describe and discuss the sample (3.3), the data material (3.4), and my data analysis (3.5). Finally, I discuss the research credibility of my MA project, including ethical aspects of the research process (3.6).

### 3.1 The LISE video study

I was fortunate enough to be invited to participate in a research project at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research, University of Oslo, called *Linking Instruction and Student Experiences* (LISE). The video study LISE analyses the quality of instruction in lower secondary school, in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade in the school subjects English, Norwegian, mathematics, French, science, and social studies. This study offers knowledge about classroom instruction that we have known little about up until now.

LISE was initiated in 2015, and is led by Professor Kirsti Klette and Associate Professor Lisbeth M. Brevik. The aim of LISE is to follow up the instructions in 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> grade in selected classrooms, including English, French, science and social studies, in addition to Norwegian and mathematics (Hjeltnes et al., 2017). LISE links video observations from classroom instruction with student questionnaires. In English, Norwegian, and mathematics, these data are also linked with student achievement data. LISE has collected these data in seven classrooms at seven different schools, throughout 2015-16 and 2016-17, filming four to five consecutive lessons in each subject in each classroom, giving a total amount of 300 filmed lessons (Hjeltnes et al., 2017).

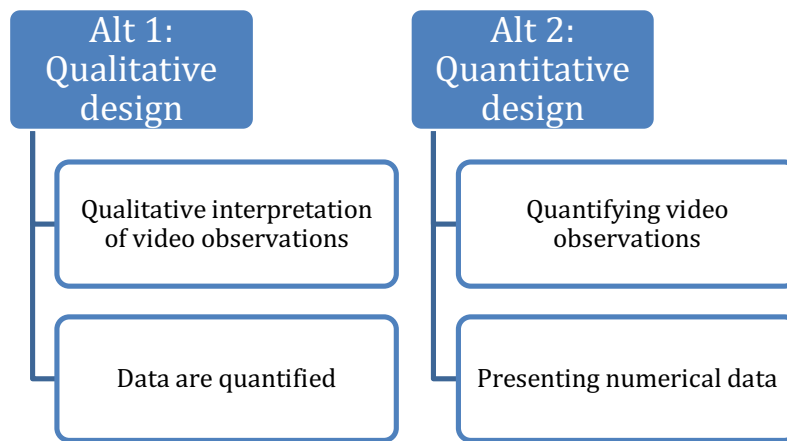
To address my research aim, I used observation data from English classrooms collected by the LISE research team. Since the student achievement data concerned the students' results on the national reading test, they were not relevant for my MA study. Similarly, although the student survey concerned their English instruction, there were no questions about pronunciation, which also made the questionnaires unsuitable data sourced for my project. In



the following, I elaborate on how the choice of vide observations influenced my research design.

### 3.2 Research design

This study has a research design that can be considered in-between the two main research paradigms; the qualitative and quantitative methodology (Creswell, 2014). These alternative designs are illustrated in Figure 3A



**Figure 3A.** Two alternative research designs for this MA study

First, since it is based solely on video observation as data material, this study uses qualitative methods by examining teachers' instruction in English classrooms for a limited period of time (Creswell, 2014). Moreover, I quantified the observed instructions including presentation of numerical data, which represents a quantitative approach (Creswell, 2014). Since different sources of methodology literature offer alternative interpretations of such a research design, I have discussed my design with my supervisors and other LISE participants. Based on these discussions, I chose to describe it as a qualitative design, since it relies on qualitative data, in line with Creswell (2014). Although my quantification indicates a quantitative design, the qualitative aspects of the design are considered dominant. Accordingly, although the study includes quantitative analysis, I consider my MA study to be a qualitative video observation study.

The purpose of my study is to identify how teachers approach English pronunciation in their classrooms, and a qualitative design seems appropriate since I aim at gaining insight into different pronunciation approaches during the observed English lessons. Table 3A provides an overview of my research design, including design and method, research aim, sample, data material, data analysis, and analytical concepts.

**Table 3A.** Overview of my research design

Design and method	Research aim	Sample	Data material	Data analysis	Analytical concepts
Qualitative video observation	How do teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary classrooms?	Six English classrooms at six different schools in 9 <sup>th</sup> grade	Video recordings from the LISE study	Qualitative and quantitative analysis of videos and transcriptions	(i) Pronunciation instruction (ii) Mispronunciations (iii) Pronunciation correction (iii) Classroom situation

Table 3A shows that the video observations were used to identify how the teachers approached pronunciation in their English classrooms, with the specific aim to analyse the following research questions (RQs):

- RQ1: To what extent and how do the English teachers in the sampled 9<sup>th</sup> grade classrooms provide instruction of pronunciation?
- RQ2: To what extent and how do the students in these classrooms make mispronunciations?
- RQ3: To what extent and how do the teachers in these classrooms correct the students' mispronunciations, and which feedback methods do they use?
- RQ4: In which situations do these mispronunciations and feedback occur?

I have aimed to capture the qualitative aspects by using “how”, and the quantification of the occurrences by using “to what extent” and “which” (Creswell, 2014). The teachers' approaches to pronunciation and mispronunciations in the classrooms is a social process, which cannot be analysed in any other situation than by classroom observation. I will now present the sample in more detail.

### 3.3 Sample

The LISE study has been to seven schools and filmed four to five consecutive English lessons in 9<sup>th</sup> grade at each school. Since no one had identified aspects of pronunciation in these classrooms before, I was interested in analysing video data from as many of the schools as possible, to answer my research questions. I was able to analyse six of the seven schools only, due to technical difficulties the 9<sup>th</sup> grade videos from one of the schools at the time of my sampling. Table 3B gives an overview of the sampled schools, with background information about the teachers and their students. Since two of my RQs focus on what the teachers in the sampled classrooms do, I find it relevant to provide background information. This information is collected from the LISE study's logs, collected at each school in connection with the video recordings. The information is logged by the teachers themselves.

**Table 3B.** Background information of the English teachers at the sampled schools

School	Teacher	Age	Education in English	Teaching experience
S02	Female	40-49 years	Master	14 years
S07	Male	20-29 years	61-90 stp	6 years
S13	Female	20-29 years	31-60 stp	3,5 years
S17	Male	20-29 years	100 stp	1,5 years
S50	Male	40-49 years	31-60 stp	18 years
S51	Male	20-29 years	Master	3 years

*Note.* stp = study points.

The sample represents both male and females, covering two age groups, with different teaching experiences. Since I included almost every school that was selected by the LISE study, the sampling was already done for me. After conferring with my supervisor, I decided that it would be fruitful to have as many schools as possible in my study, in order to embrace different teachers and classroom situations and methods. In this way, it might be looked as a purposeful selection (Maxwell, 2013; Vedeler, 2000), since one criteria was that the students talked in English. Vedeler (2000) further argues that the sampling strategy should suit the aim of the study and available resources. In this case, representativeness was essential for the aim of the study, and the collected material from the LISE study proved to give me more than enough available resources. Finally, this is a single-stage sampling design, in which the researcher had access to the individuals and could access them directly (Creswell, 2014).

I will now present the data material, using video observation as a method, and discuss its strengths and weaknesses.

### 3.4 Data collection

Data collection refers to the methods used to assemble data for the study and explains why the methods were chosen (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorenson, 2006). In order to look at how the teachers approached pronunciation in their classrooms, there was a need to look at several teachers, giving a broad view of teaching in different kinds of schools, and to look at several lessons in each school, to get a deeper knowledge and understanding of each teacher's methods. Since qualitative research aims to analyse unique phenomena, persons, or groups, without the intention of generalising, purposeful sampling is relevant (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Maxwell, 2013). The LISE study had already gathered enough data for me to use, and proved to be time-saving for me as a researcher. The total number of video-recorded lessons in LISE comprises 300 lessons, 60 of these in English, with 26 available lessons in 9<sup>th</sup> grade (see Table 3C).

**Table 3C.** Overview of the data material (9<sup>th</sup> grade)

School	S02	S07	S13	S17	S50	S51	Total
<b>Video recorded lessons available for analysis</b>	5 lessons	4 lessons	4 lessons	4 lessons	5 lessons	4 lessons	26 English lessons at six schools

This kind of data material is relevant for my research questions, since I aim at looking at how the teachers approach a topic, and observing recordings of an authentic classroom situation gives the researcher more accurate data, than for example solely using field notes (Blikstad-Balas, 2016). While observation *in situ* in the classroom would seem as a sufficient method, my research questions needed detailed data, making video recordings a preferable method (Blikstad-Balas, 2016). In this way, I was able to look at a situation several times; magnifying instances related to pronunciation while at the same time capturing the context, and listening to the teachers' and students' talk.

### 3.4.1 Video observation

To observe something is to systematically look for or observe people, events, behaviours and settings (Blikstad-Balas, 2016). A situation like this offers the researcher to collect “live” data from natural occurring social situations, and look at what is actually taking place *in situ* or as video-recorded situations (Blikstad-Balas, 2016). Through the video recordings from the LISE study, I was able observe the interaction between the teachers and the students in the classrooms. Another strength of using video-observation methods is that I can observe what the teachers and students do in the classrooms, rather than what they say they do, uncovering the reality (Cohen et al., 2011). In many cases, observation has the advantage of being unobtrusive for the participants, but this depends on the researcher’s role. The researcher may observe a situation in an unstructured or semi-structured way, and also engage in roles, and this may be disruptive for the participants and affect responses (Creswell, 2014). As for this study, the observer from the LISE team was not participating in the observed situations, and the result thus became recordings of classroom situations with “live” interaction between the teachers and the students, and as close to a “natural” behaviour as possible.

Video observations or video recordings give even more advantages than *in situ* observation. Instead of solely relying on field notes, researchers can systematically look for patterns by watching a video recording. The researcher is given the opportunity to review the same recordings several times, opening up for different interpretations of the same material as well, strengthening the validity and credibility of a study. Two cameras ensured that every activity in the classroom is taped, giving us the possibility to view several activities at the same time, from different perspectives (Blikstad-Balas, 2016). In my case, I had the advantage of magnification (Blikstad-Balas, 2016); being able to stop the video recordings when something interesting occurred, looking at one event with pronunciation content several times, thus being able to transcribe mispronunciations properly, and describe both the teachers’ feedback methods and detailed pronunciation instruction. The two cameras attached in the classroom, gave me the complete context of the situations observed, as I was able to look at the classroom as a whole, not just from one perspective only (Blikstad-Balas, 2016). I could look at the teacher standing in front of the class, as well as the students in the classroom at the same moment. If the teacher were to walk around in the room, the two cameras would catch that as well.

In the video observation from the LISE project there were two fixed cameras used in the classroom, making it possible to observe the teacher and the students. The camera focusing on the teacher, was placed in the back of the classroom, while the other one pointed at the students, was set up in the front of the room, giving us the angle from the teacher's point of view. Unlike handheld cameras, we are able to avoid participation disturbances from the researcher by using fixed cameras (Heath, Hindmarsh & Luff, 2010). The sound was recorded by two microphones; one attached to the teacher so that his or her voice could be heard at all times, the other placed in the roof in the middle of the classroom, recording sound from the students. This kept focus on the teacher, but also made it possible to hear the students talk during a classroom conversation for instance. When students were talking with each other, the microphone hanging from the roof would not always get clear voices, but if the teacher walked nearby them, the sound would be better.

Although it would seem like video recordings only gives us advantages, there are several weaknesses that needs to be discussed beforehand. Haw and Hadfield (2011) state that a common criticism of video data is that although it only contains data about "visible" behaviours, many use video data to make assertions about participants' intentions and perspectives. Another question to be raised is whether that these visible behaviours are not "normal", suggesting the challenge of reactivity, or camera effect:

We want to study naturally occurring situations as if everything were completely normal in a given setting, but by placing our cameras and obtaining consent from participants, we might change – some would say destroy – the "naturalness" of the occurring situation (Blikstad-Balas, 2016, p. 3).

However, as Blikstad-Balas (2016) also discusses, the difficulty of reactivity will be present in any research situation. The participants will always be aware of the fact that they are subjects of analysis, and might therefore always act in a way that could be unnaturally. However, participants often forget that they are being filmed after a period of time, also decreasing the camera effect (Blikstad-Balas, 2016).

### **3.4.2 Use of secondary data**

Since I was fortunate enough to use already gathered video recordings from the LISE study, my data material is secondary data, as I did not participate in the data collection (Dalland, 2011). This kind of data collection raises the question about re-use of video recordings. Although it has been argued that there are challenges concerning ethical and epistemological issues when using archived qualitative data (Andersson & Sørvik, 2013), Dalland (2011) further argues that it is possible to re-analyse qualitative datasets. One of the ethical guidelines that needs to be followed when re-using the data is, for example, consent from participants stating that they are aware that the material will be re-used later by other researchers. This has been included in the consent forms to the participants in the LISE study.

The role of the researcher is essential when using qualitative data such as video observation. As I was detached from the observational setting, and only had access to the recordings afterwards, I became a complete covert observer (Cohen et al., 2011). Vedeler (2000) uses the name “completely independent observer”, comparing it with being a fly on the wall. The close relationship that occurs between the researcher and the participants during the observation has always been valued as an advantage with qualitative data methods (Kleven, 2014). When using these archived data, we lose this relation and first-hand knowledge of the context or the atmosphere. However, it is not about reconstructing the original situation, but to construct data by using what has already been collected (Dalland, 2011).

The use of secondary data deprived me of the possibility to participate in the planning and organisation of the data collection process, and, moreover, the opportunity to decide the focus point of the study (Dalland, 2011). I became dependent on having sufficient information in order to use the material as if I were there myself. Nevertheless, the video recordings from the LISE study saved me of doing the groundwork, thus being time-saving for me as a researcher. The amount of data material collected offered me relevant material to study English pronunciation in 9th grade classroom situations.

## 3.5 Data analysis

My video analysis was structured (Cohen et al., 2011), as I decided on the categories beforehand. This means that in my analysis, I was able to exclude everything that did not relate to English pronunciation in the classrooms.

### 3.5.1 Procedure

I analysed the video recordings from each school separately, analysing the recorded observations from beginning to end, in order to get the continuance in the lessons in each classroom. I conducted the following procedural steps:

*Step 1:* Analytical concepts and categories were created in order to analyse the research questions; pronunciation instruction, mispronunciations, pronunciation correction, feedback method and classroom situation.

*Step 2:* The data program *InterAct* was used in order to code the data material, so that I could easily mark relevant observations and code them. There were two aspects I first aimed to identify when analysing the material qualitatively; 1) teacher instruction of pronunciation, and 2) students' mispronunciations. In the cases of teacher instruction, I made detailed notes and transcribed the content of the instruction. Then, each time I identified a mispronunciation (see Section 3.5.3), I categorised the event according to a) the kind of mispronunciation, b) whether or not the teacher corrected the mispronunciation, and if so; description of the feedback method used, and c) description of the classroom situation in which the mispronunciation occurred.

*Step 3:* By marking each event on the *InterAct* program, the data could then be easily statistically analysed quantitatively by summarising all the occurrences in each category in order to identify patterns within and across the six schools. The most frequent mispronunciations were categorised in more detail (see Table 3E), as well as the mispronunciations that were corrected. Throughout my video analysis, I transcribed all mispronunciations.



### 3.5.2 Step 1: Analytical concepts and categories

The analytical concepts were based on the four research questions, as well as relevant prior studies and literature in Chapter 2. Five analytical concepts emerged; 1) pronunciation instruction, 2) mispronunciations, 3) pronunciation correction, 4) feedback methods, and 5) classroom situations. The concepts are described in Table 3D.

**Table 3D.** Analytical concepts (A-E)

<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>E</b>
<b>Pronunciation instruction</b>	<b>Mispronunciations</b>	<b>Pronunciation correction</b>	<b>Feedback methods</b>	<b>Classroom situation</b>
One sub-category; 1. Pronunciation instruction	Two sub-categories: 1. Phonological segments 2. Stress placement	Two sub-categories: 1. Correction 2. No correction	Nine sub-categories: 1. Recast 2. Explicit correction 3. Repetition 4. Clarification request 5. Elicitation, 6. Paralinguistic signal 7. Metalinguistic explanation 8. Positive feedback 9. Follow-up	Five sub-categories: 1. Classroom conversation 2. Teacher talking to individual student(s) 3. Students working together 4. Students reading aloud 5. Student presentations

### 3.5.3 Step 2: Qualitative analysis

#### **A. Pronunciation instruction**

Pronunciation is, in this category, brought up as a topic by the teacher, and there is an instruction of pronunciation for the students. The instruction involves the teacher instructing the class by explaining rules and modelling pronunciation of words. Instead of using sub-categories, I have transcribed and taken notes of these situations, in order to get an overview of the methods the teacher uses during the instruction, and the pronunciation topic that is being instructed.

#### **B. Mispronunciations**

Before delving into the categorisations of students' mispronunciations, a count of the total number of words from the students was required, in order to give a general impression of the level of English pronunciation among the Norwegian students. Due to poor sound quality,

there are instances where it is not possible to describe the mispronunciations, giving a margin of error at each school (see also Section 3.5.5). However, the specific number of mispronunciations is not important to the present study, as the aim is to describe pronunciation in the classroom, focusing on how teachers approach this. The numbers are merely included in order to give a general impression of how many mispronunciations the students have, compared to how much they speak English in the classroom (See Chapter 4, Table 4B).

In order to point out students' mispronunciations, a model has to be followed. Although the theoretical chapter argues that Standard English has nothing to do with pronunciation (Trudgill, 2001), I follow somewhat the same lines of methodology as Jenkins (2000) did in order to establish the Lingua Franca Core. In order to identify how Norwegian speakers pronounce English, I look at student pronunciation according to RP and GA accents, labelling this as Standard English pronunciation (SEp).

Based on this, the categories for mispronunciation are deviations from RP and GA pronunciation. Pronunciations of words that can be considered unclear or hesitations are not included categories, although *hesitation* will be discussed as a separate case in the results.

The first set of codes in the analysis have been organised according to what was needed after looking at the data material. The mispronunciations were many, and there was a need to divide them into more general groups. In the analysis, they are, therefore, categorised twice. First, they are divided into two main categories; *stress placement* and *phonological segments*. This categorisation is based on the linguistic classification of *suprasegmentals* and *segmentals*. Stress placement, or lexical stress, belongs to the suprasegmentals, while phonemes and weak and strong forms related to phonological context belong to the segmentals (Bird, 2005). The first category is the wrong placement of stress in a word; for example the word *content*. This can have two different stress patterns; /kən'tent/ and /'ka:n.tent/, and in this example the word also changes its lexical meaning from being an adjective to a noun (Bird, 2005). The second category, phonological segment, has mispronunciations with a change of one or several phonological segments in a word without changing the meaning of the word, for example *heavy* /hevi/ pronounced as /hi:vi/, where the change of one phonological segment results in a word without lexical meaning. This also goes for omitting or adding phonological segments to a word, for example *scarcely* /skersli/

pronounced as /ska:rlɪ/. An example where a phonological segment is omitted is *sank* /sæŋk/ pronounced as /sæŋ/. Finally, this category includes weak and strong forms of the function word *the*, though only the non-standard pronunciation of the strong form, as in “/ði:/ table”.

The mispronunciations categorised as phonological segments can also be grouped into deviations that shows lack of *minimal pair* distinction. Minimal pairs are pairs of words that differ in only one phonological element (Bird, 2005), giving the words different lexical meanings, for example /pɪn/ and /bɪn/ (*pin-bin*), where the change of the initial consonant sound changes the meaning.

**Table 3E.** Overview of main categorisation of mispronunciations, including minimal pairs

Mispronunciation type	Stress placement	Phonological segment	Minimal pairs
<b>Description</b>	Pairs of words that differ in stress placement	Words with change, addition or omission of one or several sound elements, and use of weak and strong form of <i>the</i>	Pairs of words that differ in only one phonological element
<b>Example</b>	/kən'tent and /'kɑ:n.tent/ ( <i>content</i> : adjective-noun)	/hevi/ as /hi:vɪ/ ( <i>heavy</i> ) /skersli/ as /ska:rlɪ/ ( <i>scarcely</i> ) /sæŋk/ as /sæŋ/ ( <i>sank</i> ) “/ði:/ table” as “/ðə/ table” ( <i>the</i> )	/pɪn/ and /bɪn/ ( <i>pin-bin</i> )

After being divided into the two main categories, the mispronunciations are further categorised into specific groups of mispronunciations. Categories 1-8 are divided according to which target sound the students aimed at. These codes are made for this study, but the descriptions and distinctions are taken from Bird (2005). Categories 1-5 are named specifically after target sound, while 6-8 have more general names; *diphthongs*, *short monophthongs* and *long monophthongs*. These names are results from being large categories that contains up to eight phonemes, and the categories' names are results of pragmatism. Categories 9-11 involve what type of mistake that is made, and they are made specifically for this study.

### 1. /ð/ and /θ/

These two consonants are dental fricatives. Mispronunciations in this category are often the pronunciation of the slit-fricative obstruents as plosive obstruents, /t/ or /d/, with an alveolar articulation. For example, *they* /ðei/ is pronounced as /dei/ or /teɪ/.

## 2. /t/

Mispronunciations that fall into this category are the replacement of the plosive obstruent /t/ with any of the dental fricatives /ð/ or /θ/. Mostly, this occurs when words are written with *th* as in *weight* or *Thomas*. These are pronounced as /weɪθ/ instead of /weɪt/, and /θɑ:məs/ instead of /tɑ:məs/. Furthermore, a mispronunciation is also the usage of /ð/ as for example *brutal* /bru:təl/ being pronounced as /bru:ðəl/.

## 3. /w/ and /v/

In this group, the voiced labio-dental fricative /v/, and the labio-velar approximant /w/ are replaced by the Norwegian open approximant /ʋ/. Words like *village* is pronounced as /vɪlɪdʒ/ and *when* is pronounced as / ven/.

## 4. /tʃ/, /ʃ/ and /dʒ/

This category is formed according to place of articulation. The consonant sounds with post-alveolar articulation, /tʃ/, /ʃ/ and /dʒ/, are pronounced with alveolar articulation; The affricate obstruents /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ becomes plosive obstruents /t/ and /d/, as in *soldiers* /soʊldʒɜ:rs/ pronounced as /sɔldɜ:rs/, *Christian* /krɪstʃən/ becoming /krɪstən/. Furthermore, the post-alveolar fricative /ʃ/ can, for example, turn into the velar plosive obstruent /k/; *suspicious* /səsɪʃəs/ is pronounced as /səsɪkəs/.

## 5. -ed suffix

In this group, words with *-ed* as suffix are pronounced with /ed/ instead of /d/. For example, *closed* /kloʊzd/ is pronounced /kloʊzed/.

## 6. Diphthongs

Words with diphthongs are pronounced with either the wrong diphthongs, as for example *allow* /ə'laʊ/ being pronounced as /ə'lou/. Additionally, diphthongs are replaced with a short monophthong: *bathe* /beɪð/ is pronounced /bæθ/. In other cases, a long monophthong is used: *tiny* /taɪnɪ/ is pronounced /ti:nɪ/.

## 7. Long monophthongs

Words containing long monophthongs are pronounced with diphthongs or short monophthongs instead. For example: *police* /pə'li:s/ as /pə'lis/, or *author* /ɔ:θər/ pronounced as /aʊθər/.

### 8. Short monophthongs

Mispronunciations in this category are words with short monophthong pronounced with wrong short monophthong, for example *her* /hər/ pronounced as /her/, long monophthong, *heavy* /hevi/ as /hi:vi/, or diphthong, *bewilderment* /bɪwɪldərmənt/ pronounced as /bɪwɪldmənt/.

### 9. Weak and strong form of “the”

In this category, we find the pronunciation of *the* which can have the strong or the weak form /ði:/ or /ðə/, depending if the word following starts with a vowel or a consonant sound. A mispronunciation here, is using the strong form /ði:/ instead of the weak form /ðə/ before a consonant sound.

### 10. Omission and addition

In this category, the students omit or add one or several sounds to a word, such as *enquiry* pronounced as /ɪnkwaɪər/ instead of /ɪnkwaɪəri/, where a sound has been added at the end, or they replace one sound with others; *perilous* pronounced as /pɛrɪləs/ instead of /pɛrələs/. Here, a sound has been omitted /ə/ and two other sounds have been added /ɪ/.

### 11. Stress placement

The wrong placement of stress occurs in words like /rɪ'kɔ:rd/ instead of /'rekərd/ (*record*) and /kɔ:'raɪdɔ:r/ instead of /'kɔ:raɪdɔ:r/ (*corridor*).

These 11 categories form the two main categories of mispronunciation types as presented in Table 3F. As mentioned previously, some of the specific mispronunciation types concerning phonological segments can be further categorised into minimal pairs. This includes /ð/ and /θ/, /t/ and /w/, /v/, /tʃ/, /f/ and /dʒ/, diphthongs, long monophthongs, and short monophthongs.

**Table 3F.** Overview of the two main categories of mispronunciations and the specific mispronunciation types

Mispronunciation type	Specific mispronunciation type
Phonological segments	/ð/ and /θ/ /t/ /w/ and /v/ /tʃ/, /f/ and /dʒ/ Diphthongs Long monophthongs Short monophthongs -ed suffix Weak and strong form of <i>the</i> Omission and addition
Stress placement	Stress placement

### C. Pronunciation correction

Every event containing a mispronunciation is divided into *correction* and *no correction*, depending on whether or not the teacher corrected the mispronunciation. The correction category involves that the teacher attending to a student’s mispronunciation, while the no correction category means that the teacher did not give attention to a mispronunciation.

### D. Feedback methods

When a teacher approached pronunciation, different feedback methods could be used (Ellis, 2009a, 2009b). Feedback is, in this case, about how the teacher comments on the students’ pronunciation, not necessarily correcting the mispronunciations, although Ellis (2009b) labelled these *oral corrective feedback (CF) strategies*. His CF strategies are 1) recast, 2) explicit correction, 3) repetition, 4) clarification request, 5) elicitation, and 6) paralinguistic signal. Additionally, the written CF strategy 7) metalinguistic explanation is included (Ellis, 2009a), since it can be used when giving feedback on pronunciation (Table 3E). Although, Ellis’ oral CF strategies are not necessarily intended to involve pronunciation, they are used in this way since all seven of them fit well with giving feedback on pronunciation, as shown in Table 3E.

Based on the seven strategies from Ellis (2009a, 2009b) and the fact that positive feedback is not implemented here, I have added two strategies to cover more methods; 8) positive feedback, and 9) follow-up (see Table 3E). Through *positive feedback* the teacher affirms that a student’s pronunciation is correct (Ellis, 2009b). Even though this is not a method of

correction, it is a method of approaching pronunciation, and is, therefore, added as a category. Finally, there is the method of *following up* on a mispronunciation made earlier. The mispronunciation in question remains the same, but the teacher may add another method than earlier, if the student still is not sure about the correct pronunciation. The follow-up may also be more thorough than before, like writing the phonetic transcription to the student, or adding other words with similar pronunciation as examples.

**Table 3E.** Feedback method for approaching pronunciation

Feedback method	Definition	Example
1. Recast	The teacher incorporates the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way (e.g., phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical).	S: It would be quite a job to buy an egg every day out of her /ti:ni/ pension. T: /taini/.
2. Repetition	The teacher repeats the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress.	S: I will /tʃoo/you. T: I will /tʃoo/ you. S: I'll /ʃoo/you.
3. Clarification request	The teacher indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said.	S: I will /tʃoo/you. T: What?
4. Explicit correction	The teacher indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error and provides the correction.	S: Er det bin? Liksom bin... T: Nei, den i-en der er lang. S: Been? T: Whose hair has been, ja.
5. Elicitation	The teacher repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal the learner should complete it.	S: It would be quite a job to buy an egg every day out of her /ti:ni/ pension. T: It would be quite a job to buy an egg every day out of her .....?
6. Paralinguistic signal	The teacher uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error.	S: It would be quite a job to buy an egg every day out of her /ti:ni/ pension. T: (moves the mouth to indicate the pronunciation of /ai/)
7. Metalinguistic explanation	The teacher provides an explicit comment about the nature of the error.	S: Ja, det er /ði:/. T: Ja, det er /ðə/. Det er en /ðə/. Og du sa nå /ði:/, og det hadde vært riktig, hadde det ikke vært for den der (the teacher points at a sentence on the whiteboard). Og hvorfor, hva er den? Hvilken lyd er det som kommer etterpå? Er det en konsonantlyd eller en vokallyd? S: Konsonant. T: Det er en konsonant, det er

		helt rigtig, og da blir det /ðə/. Hadde det vært en a eller en vokallyd, så kunne vi sagt /ði:/.
8. Positive feedback	The teacher gives an affirmation on a correct answer	S: Ehm, how tiresome? T: Yes.
9. Follow-up	The teacher follows up on feedback made earlier. The follow-up strategy includes all strategies listed above.	T: And the last one? And we talked about the pronunciation of this word. It's... How do you say it? S: A way of doing something. T: A way of doing something? How do you say the word? S: Jeg tok /'resəpi/, jeg.

### E. Classroom situation

The classroom situations where there is pronunciation content, meaning that a student has a mispronunciation that is either corrected or not corrected, are categorised in five groups, giving us codes created for this study: 1) classroom conversation, 2) teacher talking to individual student(s), 3) students working together, 4) students reading aloud, and 5) student presentations. *Classroom conversation* indicate that the teacher is talking to the students about a topic, there is an on-going dialogue between the two parties. The situation labelled *teacher talking to individual student(s)* involves the teacher walking around the classroom and talking to single students, or a group of students sitting together. In this situation, the teacher is not talking to the class as a whole. *Students working together* signify that the teacher is not involved in the situation, but can be present in the conversation with a passive role. When a *student is reading aloud* it can be either in front of the rest of the class, or in pairs or groups. The final category, *student presentation*, is when one or several students are presenting something for the class.

### 3.5.4 Step 3: Quantitative analysis

#### Interpretation of video recordings

*InterAct* was used in the interpretation of the video recordings, a data program used by the LISE project and their researchers. The video recordings of each school were added in the program where it was possible to code the data in different ways; the researcher could mark a duration of an event, or mark a single event and use specific codes in order to describe them. As duration was not necessary in order to analyse my research questions, I coded each event separately with analytical codes created beforehand in *InterAct*. When marking an event, I



chose the codes that were describing the event in a chain; the situation was the overarching code, then correction or no correction. In the events of correction, I coded the type of feedback method used. At the end of the chain, a comment could be inserted where I transcribed and took notes of the specific mispronunciation made and how the teacher gave feedback on this. In the cases of no correction, I only transcribed the mispronunciation. The comment section gave me the possibility to transcribe the mispronunciations using phonetic symbols.

*InterAct* gave me the possibility to code several elements simultaneously, something that was necessary in order to answer my research questions. Seeing as pronunciation was in focus, it was important to be able to write phonetic symbols when describing the students' mispronunciations, and the comment section provided me with a place to write phonetic transcriptions to each code chain. Another advantage with *InterAct* was that it offered me different kinds of analyses after the coding, showing several aspects of the coding. Finally, since all the schools observed were added to *InterAct*, I could compare the schools through statistics.

### **3.5.5 Limitations**

There were some elements in the video recordings that proved to be challenging for my data collection, concerning each school. First, the boards were too far away from the cameras, so that it was not possible to get a detailed view of it, even though field workers from the LISE project sometimes took pictures of the board. This did not give me guaranteed information about what was written at all times. A second challenge was the microphones' placement in some situations. As pronunciation was the focus of my observation, clear sound was imperative and it became difficult to have this when, for instance, the students were engaging in conversations amongst themselves, or during student presentations when the teacher was sitting in the back of the classroom.

**Table 3F.** Overview of instrumental challenges across schools

School	Challenge	Explanation
S02	Sound Camera angle	- Group and pair work makes it difficult to hear what the students say. Although there were few students in the room, the classroom lay-out (shaped like a T) made it difficult to hear and see which student was speaking.
S07	Sound	- The sound in the classroom had poor quality, making it difficult to hear when students were talking during a classroom conversation. - Group and pair work makes it difficult to hear the pronunciation of each student.
S13	Sound Camera angle	- Group work makes it difficult to hear the pronunciation of each student. - Student presentations without microphone on them. - Tapping noises on the window due to rain outside. - Red students <sup>2</sup> in the classroom that the camera did not show. It was not possible to know who was talking.
S50	Sound	- Low volume on the microphone, making it difficult to hear
S51	Sound	- Group work makes it difficult to hear at all - 20 minutes of bad sound due to a technical issue with the teacher's microphone.
S17	Sound	- Group work makes it difficult to hear the pronunciation of each student.

Taking the challenges into consideration, all data results are results of my own interpretation of the pronunciation. There are situations in each classroom where it was not possible to get a clear distinction between sound elements, giving a margin of error in all cases.

Due to these limitations, the total word count mentioned previously is not 100% accurate (see Section 3.5.3). However, the method of research is not made for the purpose of determining this, but to look more closely at the teachers' approaches. The number of total words is added merely to show the relationship between this and the students' deviations from SEp.

## 3.6 Research credibility

This section discusses the credibility of this study by looking at research validity and reliability.

### 3.6.1 Validity

Validity in quantitative research refers to “whether one can draw meaningful and useful inferences from scores on particular instruments” (Creswell, 2014, p. 250). In quantitative research, it involves the procedures used in demonstrating the accuracy of findings (Creswell, 2014). In the present study, I have chosen to address validity questions through multiple

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<sup>2</sup> These are students that have not agreed to be a part of the LISE study, thus not filmed by the researcher.

validities (Johnson & Christensen, 2012), thereby presenting all the validity threats related to the qualitative and quantitative approach, covering the combination of video observation, sample size and statistical analyses.

### **Qualitative research validity**

The use of video observation for this study gives the need for discussing validity in respect to qualitative methods. According to Maxwell (2013), there are two threats to validity in the use of qualitative methods; *researcher bias* and *reactivity*.

*Researcher bias* includes two validity threats involving the selection of data; first, validity can be compromised through the researcher's existing theory, goals or preconceptions, and secondly, the researcher's selection of data that "stand out" (Maxwell, 2013). Moreover, it is impossible to remove these threats by eliminating the researcher's subjectivity. Nevertheless, by explaining possible biases and how they are dealt with, we get an understanding of how values and expectations may have influenced the conduct and conclusions of the study and we can avoid negative consequences of these (Maxwell, 2013). Due to my own experience as a teacher of English, I came into this study with some notions about the situation of pronunciation in the classroom. Though, considering that the study is based on an area that I find difficult to approach, I entered this study without preconceptions, but with an open mind aimed at finding various results. By using a quantitative statistical analysis of the data material, the study does not dig deeper into data that stand out, but merely presents the statistics. Only when there were notable differences in the statistics, did I dig a little bit deeper in order to try to discover possible reasons behind it. A benefit from using video data was the opportunity to review and discuss uncertainties with other researchers and my supervisors, before moving forward in the research (Blikstad-Balas & Sørvik, 2014; Heath et al., 2010).

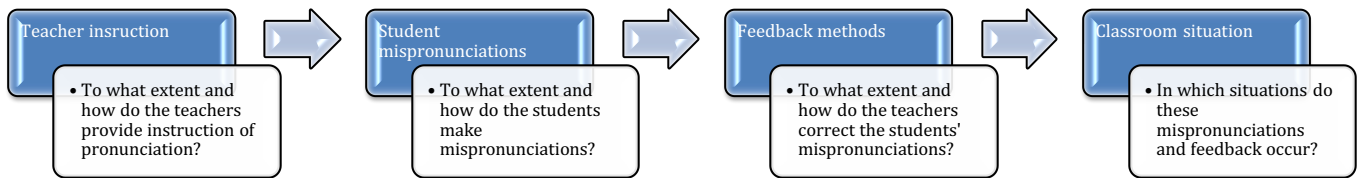
*Reactivity* concerns the influence a researcher has on the setting or individuals studied (Maxwell, 2013). As I was not a part of the data collection with the LISE project, my role as a researcher would not affect the setting or the individuals. However, the use of cameras could impose on the teacher and students (see Section 3.4.1). They may behave differently knowing that they were being observed (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2012), and in an attempt to reduce reactivity, all the observed participants were familiarised with the cameras at the beginning of the first lesson. The responsible researcher from the LISE project

gave them information about who LISE was, where the cameras and microphones were placed, and what the intention of the recording was. The teachers and students were all encouraged to behave as usual, and as discussed in Section 3.4.1, they would in many cases forget the special situation after a period of time. Since there were four or five consecutive lessons observed, it is likely that the participants felt comfortable and behaved close to naturally at a certain point during the filming.

### **Quantitative research validity**

#### *Conceptual validity/content validity*

In a quantitative study, conceptual validity refers to the degree of agreement between a theoretical concept, and how the concept is measured in the research (Kleven, 2014). This is what Creswell (2014) describes as content validity; if the items measure the content they were intended to measure. Based on this, it is necessary to see if the variables used in the present study measures its research question; *How do teachers approach English pronunciation?* The most explicit way to approach pronunciation is by implementing the topic as a planned part of the lesson; *To what extent and how do the teachers provide instruction of pronunciation?* In addition to instructing it, the teacher may approach it in communication with the students. In order to see how they approach pronunciation reactively, we first need to define what pronunciation is in the classroom. This concept is ensured by looking at the students' non-standard pronunciation with the specified question in mind; *To what extent and how do the students make mispronunciations?* In what way the teachers approach pronunciation is discovered through two elements; *how* and *when*. How they approach it is determined through the question; *To what extent and how does the teacher approach the students' mispronunciations?* Finally, when it is approached is measured through the question related to classroom situation; *In which situations do these mispronunciations and feedback occur?* I have identified this quantitatively by counting the events of the analytical concepts and categories connected to each variable.



**Figure 3B.** Overview of variables

### *Internal validity*

Internal validity concerns the relationship between variables, specifically their causal relation (Kleven, 2014). Some of the variables outlined above are dependent on each other, and through the analyses, conclusions are drawn based on these relations. However, this study makes certain reservations in doing so; since the observations only contains some hours in the classroom, it is not possible to conclude that one variable is causing or related to another one.

### *External validity*

When it comes to external validity, we must look at applicability; who the results are valid for and in which situations they are valid (Kleven, 2014). This is mainly connected to the question of generalisability which is presented in Section 1.6.4. In order to see who the results can be valid for, it is necessary to establish if the sampling could represent others as well. The context of the study determines which situations the results are valid for. This study has treated the Norwegian classroom with English instruction and the results cannot be transferred to other contexts, such as French instruction. However, as it explores six different classrooms, we are able to study the results across six different contexts. If the results were similar in the classrooms, we would be able to assert that the results could be valid for other contexts similar to the ones studied.

## **3.6.2 Reliability**

Reliability concerns another researcher's ability of producing the same result again (Kleven, 2014). This should not be dependent on circumstances such as timing, or choice of instruments, yet results from studies involving people can never fully be replicates, as the classroom atmosphere and utterances cannot be recreated (Brevik, 2015).

### *Internal reliability*

Internal reliability is established through the checking of codes used in the interpretation of the video recordings. Two or more researchers should be able to make the same observations and code what they see in the same way. To ensure reliability, the researchers should write down detailed code definitions and make sure that they are stable during the interpretation process, as is done in the present study.

### **3.6.3 Ethical considerations**

All research must follow principles for research ethics, and seeing as this is a pedagogical study, it falls under the guidelines of the Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee's department for Social Sciences, Humanities, Law and Theology (NESH) (Kleven, 2014). Drawing on Diener and Crandall (1978), Bryman (2012) lists four main ethical issues which need to be considered in social science research. These relate to:

- 1) Whether there is harm to participants
- 2) Whether there is lack of informed consent
- 3) Whether there is an invasion of privacy
- 4) Whether deception is concerned

The first point is directly addressed by the NESH; "Researchers are responsible for ensuring that participants are not exposed to serious physical harm or other severe or unreasonable strain as result of the research" (The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee, 2006). Bryman (2012) argues that harm can be related to the confidentiality of records. This is relevant in this study in relation to the video recordings of the teachers and students. According to the NESH (2006), records must be protected whenever participants can be directly or indirectly identified through, for example, the combined variables of place of work, age, gender and so forth. All the data material for this study is based on video observations of teachers and classrooms, and these participants were identifiable in such way. However, the LISE video study had made the variables *name* and *workplace* unidentifiable for everyone participating in the project, and I was only given *age*, *gender* (also recognisable from the recordings), and the teachers' *education*. The video clips were stored on special computers placed in a video lab run by the project, only accessible through a username and a

password. All videos were represented by a code in the recordings, and personal details were kept separately. In cases where identifiable information appeared in the recordings, I only used the codes for each school as a reference. Before becoming a participant of the LISE project and gaining access to their data material, I signed a consent form agreeing not to share confidentiality records.

The second principle Bryman lists concerns the lack of informed consent. This point was ensured by the LISE project by the fact that the students participating were at the age between 14 and 15, and consent from students and parents was needed (cf. Kleven, 2014). If there were students that did not want to participate in the project, LISE made sure that they were kept out of the camera angle during the video observations.

The third principle, invasion of privacy, can also be linked to the issues of anonymity and confidentiality, though being directly tied to the role of the researcher. As stated by NESH, the researcher should “clearly distinguish between professional comments made in his or her capacity as an expert on the one hand and statements of personal opinion on the other, and refrains from abusing his or her authority” (Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee, 2006). As a researcher, I made sure that whenever I discussed the video recordings, I did so in a professional matter, always keeping the topic in focus. Additionally, I only discussed my thoughts, ideas and findings with other LISE researchers and supervisors, always in meetings or at the video lab.

Finally, the principle related to deception is about the trustworthiness of the present study. This was ensured through information given from LISE to the participants about the purpose of the LISE video study, and what the material would be used for. As I am using the material from LISE under supervision, I am following the study’s principles and guidelines for usage of its material.

### **3.7 Chapter summary**

In this chapter I have shown how the qualitative and the quantitative aspects of my research design fit the nature of my study. Both the qualitative interpretation of video recordings of six classrooms, and the quantitative presentation of these data have been outlined, as well as critically evaluated.

## 4 Results

As stated in Chapter 1, the main aim of this MA study is to identify how teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary school. The purpose is to provide empirical evidence of whether the English teachers teach pronunciation during the observed lessons, which student mispronunciations they approach in the classroom, as well as how and in which situations they do so. In this chapter, I present the main findings in this study in light of the purpose and the research focus.

This section is divided into three parts; I start by presenting how teachers instruct pronunciation (4.1), then, the teachers' approach to pronunciation through communication with the students, which includes a categorisation of students' deviations from Standard English, as well as how and when teachers corrects these (4.2), and, finally, I delve further into three cases that proved interesting in light of my research questions (4.3).

### 4.1 Instructing pronunciation in the classroom

The main way of approaching pronunciation during the English lesson would have been to instruct the topic in the classroom. When observing the six classrooms, I found only one case of pronunciation instruction at S17, where the teacher taught phonetics in class during two of the observed lessons. First, during a 45-minute lesson, eight different topics were covered; the difference between GA and RP pronunciation, the diphthongs, the schwa, linking-r, the difference between /v/ and /w/, velar nasal /ŋ/, the long monophthongs /ɜ:/ and /ɔ:/, and the differences between /d/, /t/, /θ/ and /ð/.

The teacher at S17 had planned this lesson where he provided the students with rules and examples of these eight phonetic elements. This lesson involved seven separate occurrences of teacher instruction of the phonetic elements listed above, in which he also gave the students phonetic transcriptions, in addition to working individually with tasks based on textbook assignments. During the instructional segments, the teacher talked in English, although switching to Norwegian when talking to the students during the individual tasks. The students also talked in Norwegian, focusing on English only when pronouncing the different phonetic elements. Interestingly, however, the teacher did not specifically address



his students' other mispronunciations during his instruction, but stuck to the deviations that were relevant for the different topics planned for the lesson.

In the following lesson, the teacher reminded the students about what they had done in the preceding lesson:

Sist torsdag dere, så jobba vi med at vi lagde oppgaven, som dere har jobba med på mandag. Vi jobba også med en diftong. Husker dere hvilken diftong det var? Var det en sånn typisk britisk en? Som slutta på den derre slappe lyden som vi bruker fordi dem ikke har r. Husker dere den nå? Demrer littegrann? Ja. Antakeligvis så begynner det å jobbe litt nå. Det var den /ə/. Husker dere den nå da? M-m. Bra.

(Appendix 1, E1)

The instruction of pronunciation at S17 also had an effect on how the teacher approached the students' deviations from Standard English during this lesson, something that will be duly discussed in Section 4.3. Although instruction of pronunciation only occurred at one school, the teachers in all six classrooms approached pronunciation in another manner; in communication with the students.

## **4.2 Teachers' approaches to English pronunciation in communication with the students**

In addition to planning a lesson which is focused on pronunciation and phonetics, a teacher can approach the topic during an English lesson, even if the lesson is focusing on a topic other than pronunciation itself. As showed in the theoretical framework, the teaching of pronunciation often happens sporadically in the English classroom, giving the teacher the possibility to address it in several ways. This kind of approach often happens when it is the students who bring the topic into focus when talking English. If the teacher thinks that a student's pronunciation deviates from Standard English, he or she can approach this mispronunciation directly in the classroom. In order to see how the teachers in the six classrooms did this, I found it necessary to take a closer look at two things; 1) the students' deviations from Standard English pronunciation (section 4.2.1 – 4.2.4), and 2) what, how and when the teacher approached these deviations (section 4.2.5. – 4.2.9).

## 4.2.1 Categorisation of students' deviations from Standard English pronunciation

By analysing the video observations of the English lessons in the six classrooms at the six different schools, I have been able to identify the total number of mispronunciations in terms of cases where students' pronunciation deviates from Standard English.

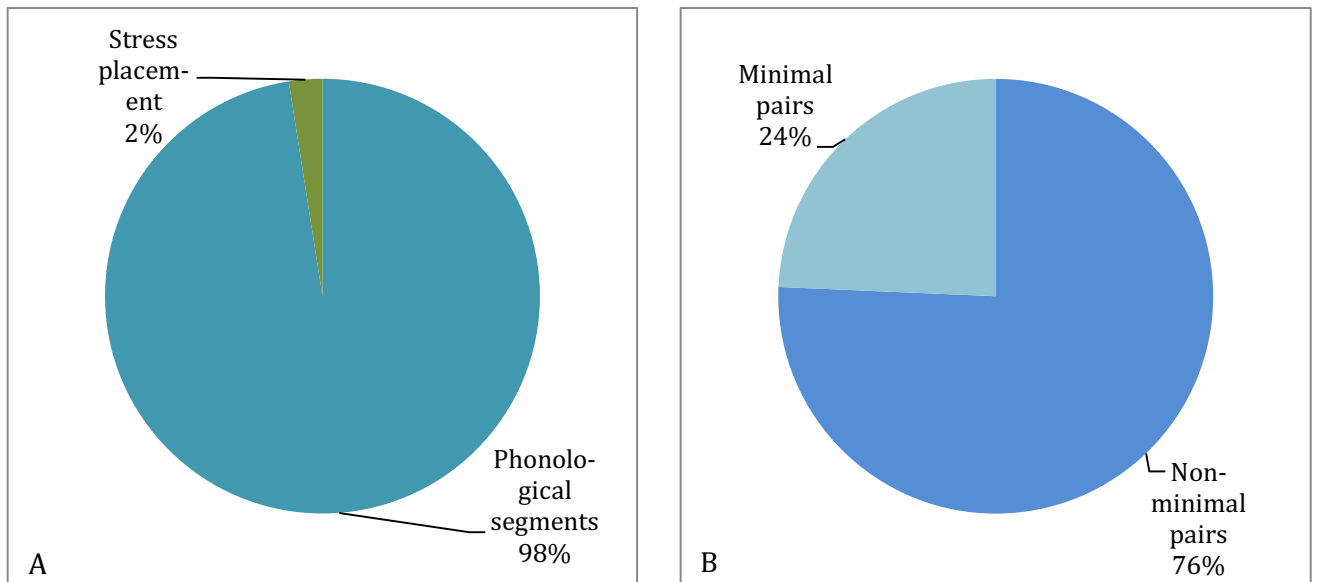
The first pattern I identified was the low number of students' mispronunciations. Table 4A shows the total number of words that the observed students utter at each school, compared to what can be categorised as their non-standard pronunciation. By looking at the general level of their pronunciation proficiency, it is evident that the number of student mispronunciations constitutes a small part, with only 4% of the total number of words. This is also the case within each school, where the number of mispronunciations ranges between 5-2%.

**Table 4A.** Amount of student mispronunciations of the total number of words

School	S13	S02	S07	S51	S50	S17	Total
<b>Total number of words</b>	3,471	4,009*	4,131	807	1,127	357*	<b>13,902 (100%)</b>
<b>Total number of mispronunciations</b>	187 (5%)	158 (4%)	158 (4%)	25 (3%)	23 (2%)	14 (4%)	<b>565 (4%)</b>

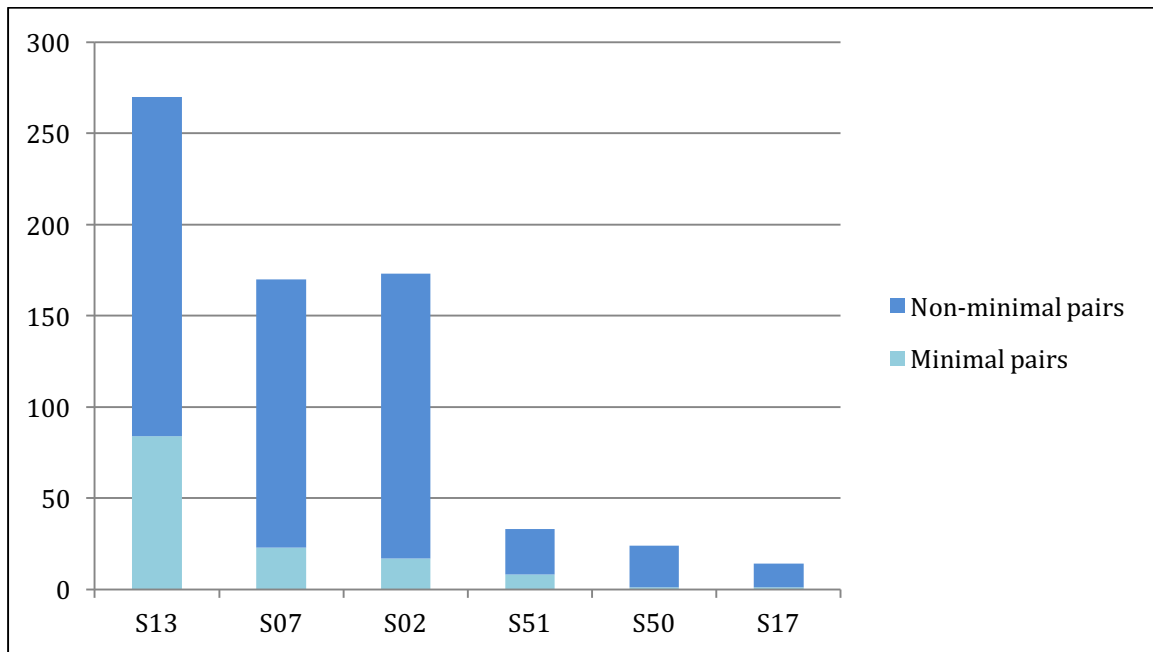
*Note.* \* = numbers that contain a margin of error due to a high degree of poor sound quality.

The identified deviations from Standard English pronunciation (SEp) can be categorised into two main categories; (1) wrong stress placement, as in /kɔ:'rɪdɔ:r/ instead of /'kɔ:rɪdɔ:r/ (*corridor*), and (2) mispronunciation of phonological segments, as for example, /eɪfənt/ instead of /emfənt/ (*ancient*). In addition, the category of phonological segments can be further grouped into deviations that involve lack of minimal pair distinction, such as /her/ instead of /hər/ (*hair-her*). Figure 4A shows the main categories of deviations; mispronunciation of phonological segments make up a large majority of the students' deviations from SEp; of 565 mispronunciations, 551 are phonological segments (98%), while only 14 concern wrong stress placement (2%). Additionally, Figure 4A shows that of the 551 phonological segments, 134 of them are considered lack of minimal pair distinction (24%).



**Figure 4A.** Mispronunciations: Pie chart A shows the two main categories of wrong stress placement (2%) and phonological segments (98%). Pie chart B shows the latter category divided into minimal pairs (24%) and non-minimal pairs (76%).

When looking at the phonological segment group (n=551) and the number of minimal pairs (n=134) this consist of, Figure 4B shows the distribution across all the schools.



**Figure 4B.** Number of phonological segments that constitutes minimal pairs and non-minimal pairs across the schools

As shown, these deviations from SEp occur most frequently at S13, where the 84 mispronunciations are minimal pairs out of 186 phonological segments. At S07, S02 and S51, they constitute between 23 and eight of the phonological segments, while at S50 and S17, they only involve one wrong minimal pair at each school.

Table 4B shows the distribution of the total number of students' mispronunciations detail for each school, which reveals that the first three schools, S13 (187 occurrences), S02 (158 occurrences), and S07 (158 occurrences), have a significantly higher number of mispronunciations than S51 (25 occurrences), S50 (23 occurrences), and S17 (14 occurrences).

**Table 4B.** Mispronunciations: The two main categories of students' main deviations from Standard English across the schools

School	S13	S02	S07	S51	S50	S17	Total
Phonological segments	186 (99%)	156 (99%)	147 (93%)	25 (100%)	23 (100%)	14 (100%)	<b>551</b> <b>(98%)</b>
Stress placement	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	11 (7%)	-	-	-	<b>14</b> <b>(2%)</b>
<b>Total number of mispronunciations</b>	<b>187</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>565</b>

Table 4B also shows the two main categories of the deviations, and mispronunciation of phonological segments is the most frequent deviation from SEp at each school, constituting 98% of the total deviations. Wrong stress placement makes up for 2% of the total number of mispronunciations, which is not present at all at three of the schools; S51, S50 and S17.

#### 4.2.2 Specific mispronunciation types

Table 4C gives an overview of all the mispronunciations from each school in the same detail. The mispronunciations are categorised either by standard pronunciation (such as /t/), phonemic category (such as *short monophthongs*), or type of mispronunciation (such as *omission or addition*), showing the deviation from SEp in the students' pronunciation.

**Table 4C. Mispronunciations: Students’ specific deviation types across the schools**

Specific deviation type	S13	S02	S07	S51	S50	S17	Total
1. /ð/ or /θ/	169	66	86	22	14	7	<b>364</b>
2. Omission or addition	4	12	42	-	1	-	<b>59</b>
3. Short monophthongs	3	18	3	-	2	-	<b>26</b>
4. /w/ or /v/	3	17	4	-	-	-	<b>24</b>
5. /t/	-	18	-	-	1	-	<b>19</b>
6. Diphthongs	1	9	3	-	1	-	<b>14</b>
7. Long monophthongs	3	2	2	3	1	2	<b>13</b>
8. /tʃ/, /f/ or /dʒ/	-	-	5	-	3	3	<b>12</b>
9. Weak and strong form of <i>the</i>	3	5	2	-	-	1	<b>11</b>
10. Suffix –ed	-	9	-	-	-	-	<b>9</b>
11. /z/	-	-	-	-	-	1	<b>1</b>
12. Stress placement	1	2	11	-	-	-	<b>14</b>
<b>Total number of mispronunciations</b>	<b>187</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>565</b>

Table 4C shows that words with the dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/ as standard pronunciation are the most common deviations from SEp with the highest frequency in each school. The dental fricatives form a clear majority of all the deviations, with 364 occurrences (64% of all mispronunciations). This is also one of two categories where each school is represented (the other being long monophthongs). S17 has mispronunciations distributed more evenly across the categories than the other schools, and although the dental fricatives form a majority at S17 as well, the mispronunciations are not as frequent as in the other schools.

The second largest group of deviations from SEp are omission or addition of phonological segments, with 59 occurrences (10% of all mispronunciations), which is mostly represented at S07. The remaining categories follow closely, with 1-26 occurrences (up to 5% each). Apart from the long monophthongs, these mispronunciations are not represented at each school.

Examples of the specific deviation types are given below.

1. /ð/ or /θ/:

Phonological segment: He shot, example, two guys before his brother, and /wɪtəʊt/ missing (S51).

Minimal pairs: I’m going to have a presentation about the American Dream. Since it’s a very large /ti:m/, I cut it up in five pieces (S13).

2. *Omission or addition:*

Phonological segment: They didn't have /kloʊz/ or food (S13)

3. *Short monophthong:*

Phonological segment: Today I'm going to talk about Ku Klux /klem/ (S13).

Minimal pairs: They had the pants who /wer/ like, going out on the... (S50).

4. /w/ or /v/:

Phonological segment: The /wɪʒn/ of sunlight (S02).

Minimal pairs: But now, the people of the south moved /vest/ (S13).

5. /t/:

Phonological segment: I don't think it will be drama, because you said there was nothing /bru:θl/ (S02).

6. *Diphthong:*

Phonological segment: And any minute now it will reach her lovely face, /bæθ/ her in lovely, lovely heat (S02).

7. *Long monophthong:*

Phonological segment: If they are /pə'lis ɑ:ʃɪsərs/ or in the, or judges (S13).

Minimal pairs: /wɔ: r/ they wife and /wɔ: r/ they... (S51).

8. /tʃ/, /ʃ/ or /dʒ/:

Phonological segment: Which part is /krɪstən/ and Catholic? (S07).

9. *Weak and strong form of "the":*

Phonological segment: Only of /ði:/ backbreaking weight (S02)

10. *Suffix -ed:*

Phonological segment: Strange how the sun /si:med/ to shine every morning (S02).

11. /z/:

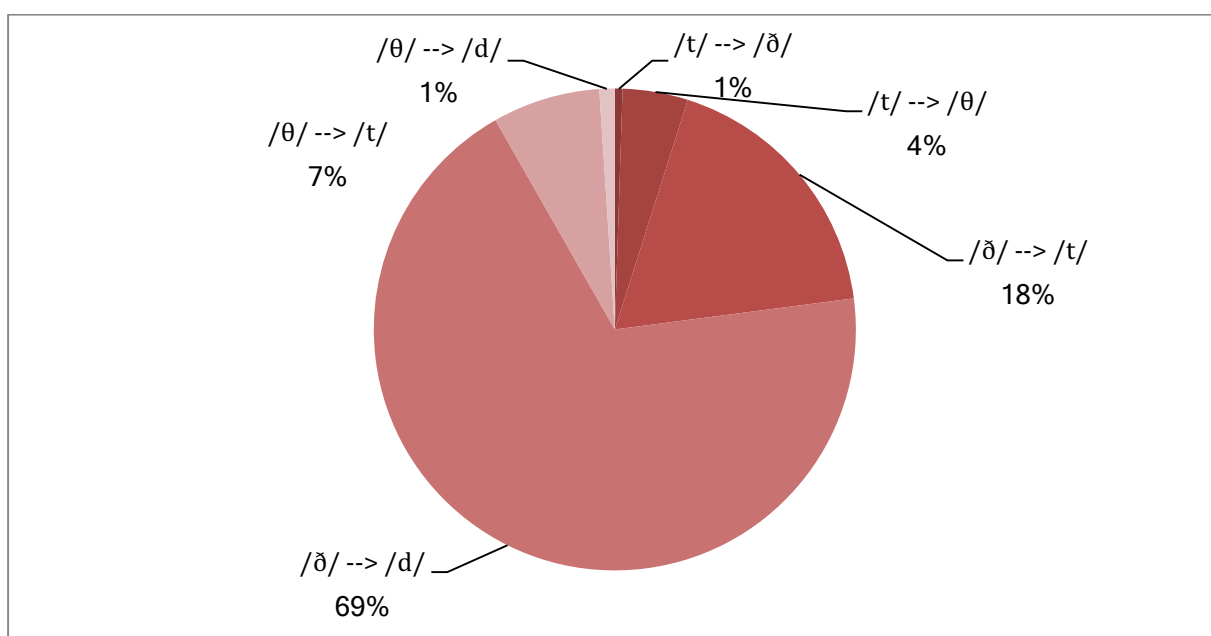
Minimal pairs: London /su:/ (S17).

## 12. Stress placement:

As a /'rezʌlt/ of this (*unclear*) work, slavery became forbidden (S07).

### 4.2.3 Detailed view of /ð/ or /θ/ and /t/

Seeing as the category /ð/ or /θ/ make up the most common mispronunciation, I found it important to go further into detail to identify which deviations the students made.



**Figure 4C.** Detailed view of /ð/, /θ/ and /t/ mispronunciations (in percentages)

Figure 4C shows that the dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/ are often used interchangeably with the plosive obstruents /t/ and /d/, and the two largest categories of deviations is the replacement of /ð/. In addition, a number of deviations considering the mixing between /θ/ and /t/ are found, followed by a small amount of pronouncing /θ/ as /d/ and /t/ as /ð/.

The numbers from each school in Table 4D, which indicates that replacing /ð/ with /d/ gives a clear majority (264 mispronunciations), with the replacing of /ð/ with /t/ second (71 mispronunciations). S13 is clearly standing out in this category with 143 mispronunciations, and S07 also has the high number of 69 mispronunciations here. The mixing between /t/ and /θ/ are also common cases; the students pronounce /θ/ as /t/ 28 times, and /t/ as /θ/ 17 times. Finally, I observed the mixing between /θ/ and /d/ only four times, and the mixing between /t/ and /ð/ only twice.

The schools can be divided into two groups concerning these mispronunciations. While students at S02, S07, and S13 make the majority of these mispronunciations, the students at S50, S51, and S17 have markedly fewer wrong uses of the dental fricatives.

**Table 4D.** Detailed view of /ð/, /θ/ and /t/ mispronunciations across the schools

School	S13	S02	S07	S50	S51	S17	Total
/ð/ → /d/	143	24	69	9	14	5	<b>264</b>
/ð/ → /t/	21	29	8	3	5	2	<b>71</b>
/θ/ → /t/	5	13	6	2	2	-	<b>28</b>
/t/ → /θ/	-	16	-	1	-	-	<b>17</b>
/θ/ → /d/	-	-	3	-	1	-	<b>4</b>
/t/ → /ð/	-	2	-	-	-	-	<b>2</b>
<b>Total</b>	169	84	86	15	22	7	<b>383</b>

In this section, I have provided an overview of the students’ deviations from SEp, showing that non-standard pronunciation of phonological segments constitute the majority of mispronunciations (Figure 4A). Looking at the specific mispronunciations, the observed students seem to have more deviations from SEp when pronouncing words with the dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/ (Table 4C), although there is a division between the schools concerning frequency, with many occurrences observed at three schools, and markedly fewer at the three remaining schools (Table 4C). However, identifying and categorising the cases where students’ pronunciation deviates from Standard English provides one perspective on the mispronunciations only; another equally important perspective – if not more important – is the teachers’ approaches to such mispronunciations in the English classroom. Thus, in the following section, I outline how the teachers approached deviations from Standard English pronunciation in the six observed classrooms.

#### **4.2.4 Teacher corrections of students’ deviations from Standard English pronunciation**

When facing a student’s mispronunciation, the teacher can choose to either correct it or not, and across the six schools, I found a clear pattern concerning the teachers’ lack of pronunciation corrections. As illustrated in Table 4E, the majority of the students’ deviations were not approached by the teachers (97%), while only 3% were corrected by the teacher.



**Table 4E.** Correction versus non-correction of mispronunciation across the schools

School	S13	S02	S07	S51	S50	S17	Total
No correction	187	148	156	25	23	12	<b>551 (97%)</b>
Correction	-	10	3	-	-	2	<b>15 (3%)</b>
<b>Total</b>	187	158	159	25	23	14	<b>566</b>

*Note.* The total number of 566 concerns one mispronunciation that was corrected twice.

When looking only at how much the teacher corrects, we see that there are three schools where the teachers approach their students' deviations from SEp in the classroom; S02, S07 and S17. In addition, at S07 there is a mispronunciation that is approached twice by the teacher, giving the school the total amount of 159 events, and 566 events in total when looking at all the schools together. Although the teachers at S13, S51 and S50 did not correct mispronunciations, the total number of correction is low at each school.

#### 4.2.5 Types of deviations corrected

While identifying which mispronunciations the teacher corrected, I found that nearly all of the corrected deviations belonged to phonological segments, and one involved stress placement. Since phonological segments also constituted the largest part of all the students' deviations from SEp, this might be expected. Of the 14 phonological segments corrected, none of the deviations included lack of minimal pair distinction, thus only involving mispronunciations of phonological segments which were non-minimal pair (see Table 4F).

**Table 4F.** Types of deviations corrected across the schools

School	S02	S07	S17	S13	S50	S51	Total
Phonological segments	9	3	2	-	-	-	<b>14</b>
Stress placement	1	-	-	-	-	-	<b>1</b>
<b>Total</b>	10	3	2	-	-	-	<b>15</b>

Table 4F shows that at S02, the teacher corrected 10 mispronunciations; one concerning wrong stress placement and nine concerning mispronunciation of phonological segments. The correction of wrong stress placement concerned *corridor*, pronounced as /kɔ:'raɪdɔ:r / instead of /'kɔ:raɪdɔ: r/. We find three corrections of mispronunciations at S07, and two at S17, all involving non-standard pronunciation of phonological segments.

#### 4.2.6 Detailed categorisation of deviations corrected

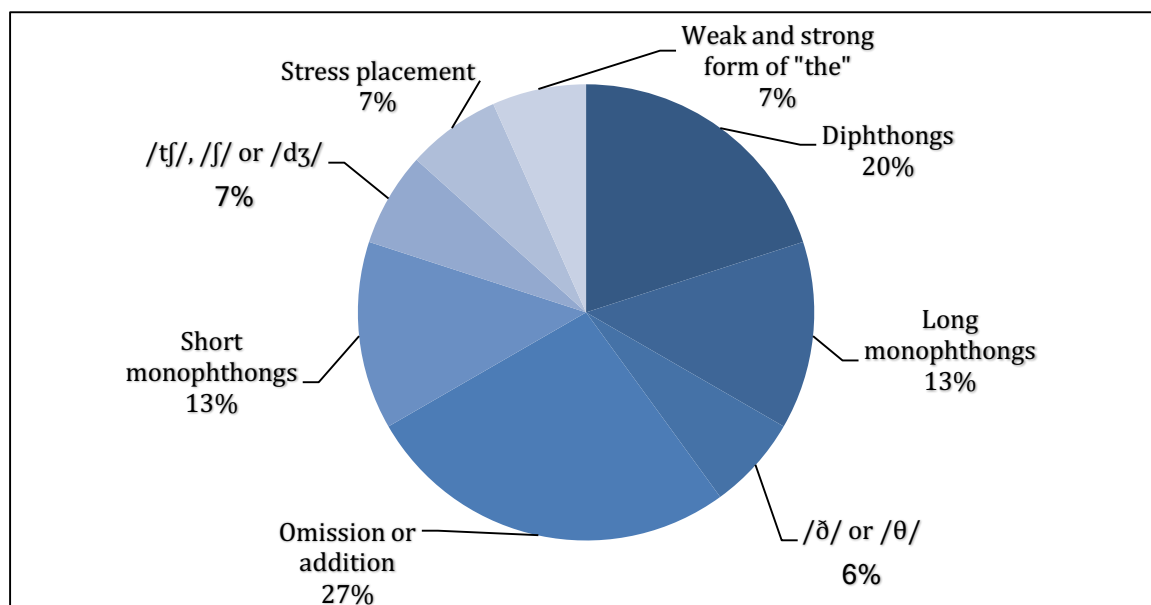
In addition to identifying the types of deviations corrected, I have also done a more detailed categorisation of these corrections. Specifically, the mispronunciation of phonological segments that were corrected concerned a variety of categories; diphthongs, long monophthongs, the dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/, omission or addition of phonemes, short monophthongs, weak and strong form of *the*, and the post-alveolar articulated phonemes /tʃ/, /ʃ/ and /dʒ/. In addition, one instance of wrong stress placement was corrected, leaving only four categories from being corrected. Figure 4E shows that the largest category of corrections concerned omission or addition of phonemes (27%), as in this example:

*Correction of a student's mispronunciation (omission or addition of phonemes, S02):*

Student: She almost smiled at the /əbsɜ:rdərtɪ/?

Teacher: /əbsɜ: rdətɪ/.

Student: /əbsɜ:rdətɪ/ of it all.



**Figure 4D.** Detailed categorisation of mispronunciations of phonological segment and wrong stress placement corrected (in percentages)

The second largest category of corrections concerned mispronunciation of diphthongs (20%), however, as the overview of these corrections shows in Table 4G, the deviations from SEp that were corrected are quite unevenly distributed among the schools; only at three of the schools did the teacher correct the students' deviations.

**Table 4G.** Teacher correction: Detailed categorisation of mispronunciations of phonological segments and wrong stress placement corrected across the schools

Deviation type	Specific deviation type	S02	S07	S17	S50	S13	S51	Total
Phonological segments	Omission or addition	2	2	-	-	-	-	4
	Diphthongs	3	-	-	-	-	-	3
	Long monophthongs	1	-	1	-	-	-	2
	Short monophthongs	2	-	-	-	-	-	2
	/ð/ or /θ/	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
	/tʃ/, /ʃ/ or /dʒ/	-	1	-	-	-	-	1
	Weak and strong form of <i>the</i>	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Stress placement	Stress placement	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
	<b>Total number of mispronunciations corrected</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>15</b>
	<b>Total number of mispronunciations</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>187</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>565</b>

Although the majority of mispronunciations were not corrected, some were corrected in three of the classrooms; S02, S17 and S07. Next, I present an analysis of how the teacher approached these corrections, in other words which feedback methods they used.

#### 4.2.7 Feedback methods

Based on the theoretical framing presented in Chapter 2, there are at least nine different feedback methods that the teacher can use. The preferred method of feedback in the observed classrooms, was the use of *recast* (see Table 4H). This means that the teacher repeats the word which is mispronounced, with the right pronunciation, as shown below:

*Recast as feedback method (S02):*

Student: She looked more carefully and a dull /bɪwaɪldəmənt/.

Teacher: /bɪwɪldəmənt/.

Student: /bɪwɪldəmənt/ gripped her.

Additionally, there were situations where the teacher gave the student *positive feedback*, indicating that the pronunciation is good or correct, and where the *teacher followed up* on an earlier correction, as a reminder for the student. Here are some examples:

*Positive feedback (S02):*

*The student is reading aloud from a short story, and shows hesitation of a pronunciation by adding “how” before the word in question, and adding a rising intonation so that the teacher becomes aware of the hesitation. After an approving “yes” from the teacher, the student continues reading:*

Student: Ehm, how tiresome?

Teacher: Yes.

Student: Things were.

*Feedback where the teacher follows up on an earlier correction (S07):*

*The teacher silently writes the phonetic transcription for discussed and disgust on the whiteboard for a student that had a question about this pronunciation earlier.*

**Table 4H.** Feedback methods used across the schools

Feedback method	S02	S07	S17	S13	S50	S51	Total
Recast	9	2	-	-	-	-	11
Explicit correction	-	-	2	-	-	-	2
Positive feedback	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Follow-up	-	1 <i>(Metalinguistic explanation)</i>	-	-	-	-	1
<b>Total number of events</b>	10	3	2	-	-	-	<b>15</b>

According to Table 4H, the teachers use recast, explicit correction, positive feedback, and follow-up as methods when approaching the students’ mispronunciations. Looking at the feedback methods across each school, it is apparent that giving feedback happens more often at S02, and we see that the teacher at this school mostly uses recast. The teacher at S17 is the only one who uses explicit correction as a feedback method, something which will be focused on in section 4.3.3. In S07 I found two events where the teacher gives feedback to the students through recast, but there is also a follow-up on a mispronunciation and feedback made earlier, where the teacher writes the phonetic transcription on the whiteboard, which is a metalinguistic explanation.

### *Metalinguistic explanation*

One feedback method which does not appear in the statistics since it did not relate to any student's mispronunciation is using metalinguistic explanation as a way to approach pronunciation together with other feedback methods. Nevertheless, this method is used at two schools; S07 and S17. In both cases, the teachers give feedback by writing the phonetic transcriptions of words and phonemes for the students. As previously mentioned, at S07, the teacher had a follow-up on an earlier mispronunciation, where the student was asking about the difference between the pronunciations of *disgust* and *discussed*. In addition to giving feedback to the student in the first situation, the teacher also followed up later by writing phonetics on the whiteboard for the student. At S17, the teacher gave the phonetic transcription of phonemes during a 45-minute phonetics instruction, which is not part of the statistics (this is further looked upon in section 4.3.3). During this instruction, the teacher consistently wrote the phonetic transcription each time a pronunciation topic was introduced. Since these feedbacks are not linked to mispronunciations from students, they are presented separately from the rest of the events.

#### *Example of metalinguistic explanation (S17):*

Student: Ja, det er /ði:/.

Teacher: Ja, det er /ðə/. Det er en /ðə/. Og du sa nå /ði:/, og det hadde vært riktig, hadde det ikke vært for den der (*the teacher points at a sentence on the whiteboard*). Og hvorfor, hva er den? Hvilken lyd er det som kommer etterpå? Er det en konsonantlyd eller en vokallyd?

Student: Konsonant.

Teacher: Det er en konsonant, det er helt riktig, og da blir det /ðə/. Hadde det vært en a eller en vokallyd, så kunne vi sagt /ði:/.

(Appendix 1, E2)

In sum, although teachers have at least nine alternative feedback methods to choose from when approaching students' pronunciation in the classroom, teachers use recast as a method more often than the others.

### 4.2.8 Situations with corrections of mispronunciations

After looking at *how* the teacher approaches students' deviations from SEp in communication with the students, this section presents *when* it happens in the classroom. The different situations where the teacher corrects the students' mispronunciations is shown in Table 4I, and it also reveals the different situations where student deviation occurs, but not corrected.

**Table 4I.** Type of classroom situation with feedback when mispronunciation occurs

Classroom situation	S02	S17	S07	S13	S50	S51	Total
Classroom conversation	1/59	2/14	2/156	0/31	0/22	0/11	<b>5/293</b>
Student presentation	-	-	-	0/139	-	-	<b>0/139</b>
Student reading aloud	9/82	-	-	-	-	-	<b>9/82</b>
Teacher talking to individual student(s)	0/15	-	1/3	0/16	-	0/10	<b>1/44</b>
Students working together	0/2	-	-	0/2	0/1	0/4	<b>0/9</b>
<b>Total number</b>	<b>10/158</b>	<b>2/14</b>	<b>3/158</b>	<b>0/188</b>	<b>0/23</b>	<b>0/25</b>	<b>15/565</b>

*Note.* The numbers show classroom situations with feedback given compared with the situations when student deviations occur.

Table 4I shows that at each school, mispronunciations occurred during the classroom conversations (293 events). Two other situations have strikingly higher occurrences of mispronunciation events as well; student presentations and student reading aloud.

Interestingly, these are specific situations for two of the schools; S02 is the only school with pronunciation content during reading aloud situations (82 events), and S13 during student presentations (139 events). Classroom situations where the teacher talked individually to one or more students (44 events) occurred at four of the schools; S02, S07, S13 and S51. In addition, the students made a few mispronunciations while working together (9 events) at four of the schools (S02, S13, S50, S51). Although the highest amount of teacher correction occurred during the reading aloud situation, this situation only occurred at S02.

In addition to the different types of situations with student mispronunciations, Table 4I also shows the various situations where the teacher gave feedback on those deviations. These corrections occurred most often while the students at S02 read aloud (53%), during individual conversations between the teachers and one or more students in all the schools (26%), and finally, during classroom conversation in all the schools (21%). There are two situations that stand out; student presentations and students working together.

While there were no corrections of mispronunciation when the students worked together at any of the schools, there is one incident of positive feedback given at S13 during a student presentation. This comment is not in the statistics, as it was not linked to a student's mispronunciation, but a general comment after a student's presentation: "You had a good pronunciation".

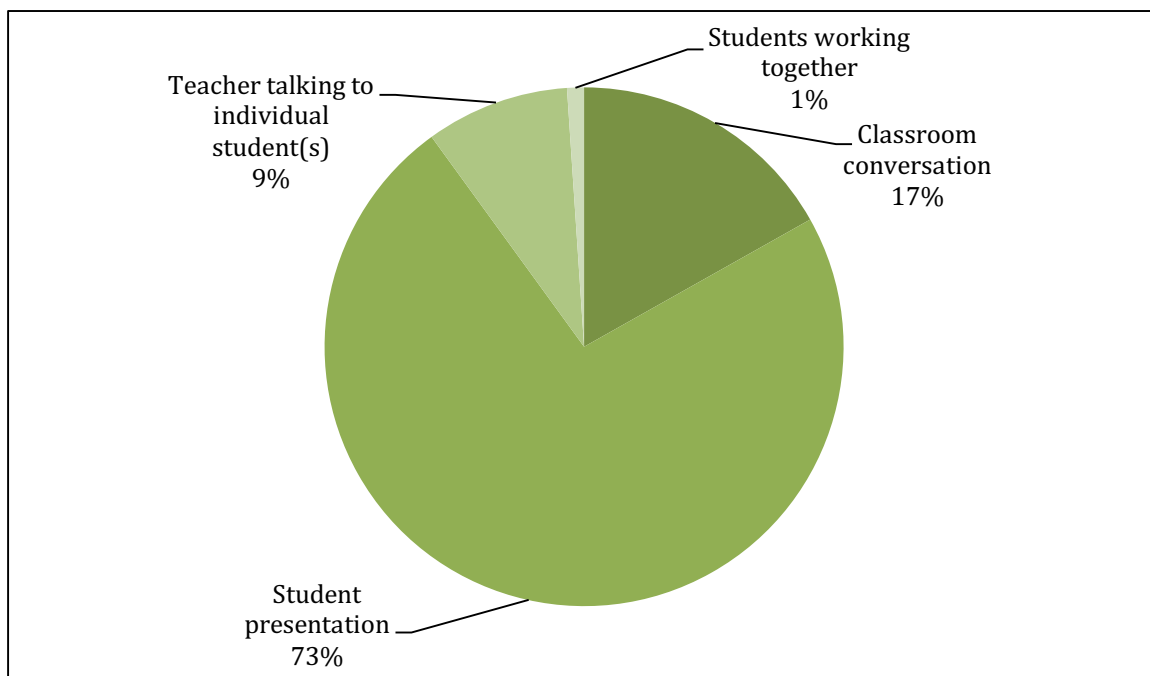
Based on the number of mispronunciations, the correction of some of these, and the different classroom situations involved, three cases seemed worth examining in more depth; student presentations (S13), reading aloud (S02), and teacher instruction (S17).

### **4.3 Three interesting cases**

Looking at the findings presented above, we find three schools that clearly stand out independently; S13, S02 and S17. S13 had the highest number of student mispronunciations but has one of the lowest frequencies of teacher corrections. S02 had the second highest number of mispronunciations and the highest number of corrections, while S17 had one of the lowest number of mispronunciations but the second highest number of corrections. At S02 this was linked to the classroom situation, while at S17 the teacher provided instruction of phonetics. Since mispronunciations was given notably more focus at these two schools, while there was almost no focus on mispronunciations at S13, this section will take a closer look at these three cases.

#### **4.3.1 Student presentations (S13)**

With 187 events of mispronunciations, S13 had the highest number of student mispronunciations among all six schools. As Figure 4F shows, the majority of the deviations from SEp occurred during student presentations (73%), but none of these 139 mispronunciations were corrected (see Table 4I above). This implies that the teacher did not interfere when the students gave oral presentations in front of the class.



**Figure 4E.** Classroom situations with mispronunciations at S13 (in percentages)

Although the teacher at S13 did not approach the students' deviations from SEP, she did approach two situations where two students hesitated when pronouncing a word, one during a classroom conversation, and the other while the teacher talked individually to a student:

*Classroom conversation:*

Teacher: Do you know in which state?

Student 1: Massachu...

Teacher: Massachusetts. Do you see it on the map?

*Individual teacher-student talk:*

Student 2: Argu...

Teacher: Arguing?

Student 2: Yes.

Teacher: Arguing.

As mentioned earlier, in addition to these two corrections, one positive comment was given after a student's presentation. After a student finished his presentation, the class were given the opportunity to give comments and they were encouraged to give positive feedback. One student remarked the good pronunciation of the student presenting, and the teacher agreed



with this feedback. The positive comment was not linked to a mispronunciation, but addressed as positive feedback: “You had a good pronunciation”. As this was a comment to a student’s general pronunciation, it does not show in the statistics above.

### 4.3.2 Reading aloud (S02)

S02 stands out from the rest of the results due to its higher degree of pronunciation corrections, compared to the other five schools. Of the total number of 19 corrections across the six schools, 10 of them occurred at this school (53% of the total amount). Nine of these corrections happened while the students read aloud, a situation that only occurred at this school. Table 4J indicates that when looking at the kinds of mispronunciations that are being corrected, they are fairly equally divided between five categories; omission or addition of phonemes, diphthongs, short monophthongs, long monophthongs, and stress placement.

**Table 4J.** Type of mispronunciation corrected during the reading aloud situation at S02

Deviation type	Correction frequency
Omission or addition	2
Diphthongs	3
Short monophthongs	2
Long monophthongs	1
Stress placement	1
<b>Total number of events</b>	<b>9</b>

The reading aloud situation also has an influence on how much the teacher approaches pronunciation, which does not appear in the statistics; namely the use of recast when a student hesitates when pronouncing a word. Hesitation is not a mispronunciation, and does, therefore, not appear in the statistics presented. Nevertheless, it is linked to how much the teacher approaches pronunciation; hesitation happened twelve times at S02, all of them when students were reading aloud. Eleven of these were approached by the teacher through recast.

As seen in the preceding section, the feedback method used at S02 was recast, meaning that the teacher repeated the word which was mispronounced, using the correct pronunciation. In some cases, the student repeated the correct pronunciation, while in other cases, the student continued reading the text aloud. All nine recasts occurred in the reading aloud situation.

### 4.3.3 Teacher instruction (S17)

S17 is particularly interesting due to the fact that this was the only school that offered instruction related to pronunciation during the observed lessons. One out of four English lessons, consisting of 45 minutes each, were dedicated to a phonetics lecture. S17 was one out of three schools where the teacher corrected students' pronunciation deviations, with two occurrences out of a total 15. These two mispronunciations occurred in the same situation; classroom conversation. If we consider the observed feedback methods, the results show that both feedbacks given were the use of explicit correction, and both occurred during the 45-minute phonetics lecture.

Although the statistics has only shown two instances of teacher feedback at S17, this only shows the number of student deviations from SEp that was approached by the teacher. At S17, the teacher also approached questions and hesitations from the students concerning pronunciation, seeing as this was the topic of the 45-minute phonetics lesson. During this lecture, the students worked with tasks in their textbooks, and the teacher provided help and assistance while they worked individually or in pairs and groups. Of a total 10 questions and hesitations, the teacher approached eight of these, all during individual conversations between the teacher and one or several students. When giving feedback, the teacher used recast five times and explicit correction three times. Here are two examples:

*Feedback as explicit correction:*

Student: Er det bin? Liksom bin...

Teacher: Nei, den i-en der er lang.

Student: Been?

Teacher: Who's hair's been, ja.

Student: Who's hair's been. Ja, been.

(Appendix 1, E3)

*Feedback as recast:*

Student: Hvordan man uttalte den derre eee, eea.

Teacher: Mhm? Diftongen? /eə/, /eə/.

(Appendix 1, E4)

The two examples show two different ways of giving feedback, and explicit correction requires more time from the teacher than recast when engaging with the student. All of the explicit corrections at S17 occurred during the phonetics lecture. During the other lessons where pronunciation was not a topic, the teacher used recast to correct two mispronunciations out of 16 events, including students' deviations and hesitations.

## **4.4 Chapter summary**

In this chapter I have presented the results of my MA study through three parts; teacher instruction of pronunciation (4.1), the teachers' approaches to pronunciation in communication with the students (4.2), and in-depth presentation of three interesting cases (4.3). I have used figures to give an overview of general results, while the detailed presentations of the findings at each school have been presented in tables. In the following chapter, I will discuss the implications of these results.

## 5 Discussion

Initially, this study presented the following research question; *How do teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary school?* The results from the six observed classrooms have shown two interesting points that will be discussed in light of the theoretical framework for the thesis; 1) teachers approach pronunciation in many different ways in the English classroom, and 2) these various teaching practices might be affected by the ambiguity in the English subject curriculum.

### 5.1 Giving feedback on pronunciation

#### 5.1.1 What to correct and if to correct

Researchers disagree on which features of pronunciation that should be given focus in English language teaching. While Afshari and Ketabi (2017) argue that suprasegmentals are to be considered as most important, Jenkins (2000) wants a balance between the suprasegmentals and the segmentals in the Lingua Franca Core. The results from the observed teachers show that they in general approach few mispronunciations. However, the corrections that are made in three of the classrooms suggest a main focus on the segmentals; of 15 corrections, only one involves a suprasegmental feature when it comes to word stress; a correction of *corridor*, pronounced as /kɔ:'raɪdɔ:r /.

Of the segmentals, the Lingua Franca Core presents *core-features* that pronunciation teaching should focus on, as they often cause unintelligibility (Section 2.2.4). Yet the teachers' corrections were not in line with these; of the consonants /w/ and /v/, /t/, /tʃ/, /ʃ/ and /dʒ/, and /z/, only one is corrected, namely /ʃ/. In addition, four monophthongs (both long and short) are corrected out of 39 monophthong mispronunciations in total. Finally, the second largest category of mispronunciation, omission and addition of phonemes, includes four corrections of a total 59 mispronunciations.

The Lingua Franca Core also presents *non-core features* which do not disturb intelligibility, thus making it unnecessary to use too much energy on teaching them. The results of the corrections the observed teachers make coincide with this; of 364 deviations of the dental fricatives /ð/ or /θ/, only one is approached. The students have 14 occurrences of wrong

placement of stress, with one being corrected. Of nine deviations in suffix –ed, none are corrected.

Although it is doubtful that all the observed teachers are completely updated with the Lingua Franca Core, these results indicate that the teachers have a strong notion of what intelligible pronunciation is. However, even of the core-features presented, a majority of the mispronunciations are not approached by the teacher. When comparing how many deviations from SEp the students have with the total number of words, the results show that the deviations make up for roughly 4%. This could suggest that the Norwegian students' pronunciation is, in fact, very intelligible, something that will be discussed in Section 5.2.1.

### **5.1.2 How to correct**

According to Ellis (2009a, 2009b), there are seven different “corrective strategies” a teacher may use, and with the two added methods for this study (positive feedback and follow-up), there are nine feedback methods in total. When looking at the different methods of feedback used to approach the students' mispronunciation, there are three methods used by the observed teachers; recast with 11 events, explicit correction with two events, and one instance of both positive feedback and follow-up on an earlier correction. By adding the hesitations and questions presented at two of the schools (S02 and S17), the number of recast and explicit correction increases.

The results show that compared to what researchers have argued to be optimal and effective feedback methods (cf. Ellis, 2009a, 2009b), only S17 uses one of these; metalinguistic explanation. When instructing pronunciation, the teacher is given a planned amount of time to approach different aspects of the topic, and thereby is able to use output-prompting explicit methods (Ellis, 2009b). At S17, there is a case of instruction of phonetics, and the teacher uses some different methods; in addition to recast and explicit correction, he always uses metalinguistic explanation by writing phonetic transcriptions on the whiteboard, in addition to explaining the nature of different phonetic elements. In sum, as pronunciation is in focus during this lecture, the teacher has time to address each student, and can provide them with different types of feedback.

When giving feedback on pronunciation in communication with the students, there is a focus on a topic, leaving the teacher with a shorter time frame than if pronunciation were a planned part of the lesson. The output-prompting explicit methods might be too time consuming for this context, leaving recast as a more appropriate method. Recast as a corrective strategy has been said to be difficult to understand for students, however, Ellis (2009b) argues that recast is a favoured method of feedback, because it is non-intrusive, keeping the flow of the communication. The results show that recast is the most used method, particularly at S02 during the reading aloud situation where the teacher uses recast 21 times. As the intention of the reading aloud at S02 is the content of long stretches of speech, one can argue that this type of situation requires a certain flow of communication, in line with what Ellis (2009b) argues.

Recast is also given by two other teachers at S17 and S07 in communication with the students. These approaches seem sporadic and rare, as they only occur 2-3 times, reflecting what is previously discussed about the teaching of pronunciation (Section 2.2.3). However, one can argue that when pronunciation is not a topic, it is difficult and maybe unnecessary to address mispronunciation by using other methods of feedback. Recast is the type of method where the teacher uses a minimal amount of time, as he or she gives input by providing the correct answer immediately after a student's deviation. If the teacher were to interrupt an ongoing topic by using any of the explicit output-prompting methods, this could in fact disturb the flow of the lesson, and confuse the students in other ways. This leads us to the topic of when the teachers should approach the students' deviations.

### **5.1.3 When to correct**

In order to discuss the timing of feedback on mispronunciations, it is important to first stipulate the objective of the feedback; is it focused on meaning, function, or form? In this study, teacher feedback is only focused on segmentals and word stress, meaning that pronunciation here is about form. According to Ellis et al. (2001) oral corrective feedback can focus on form in two ways; preemptive or reactive. Only one school has a preemptive focus on form during the observed lessons; at S17 when there is explicit attention to pronunciation regardless of student deviations. As the lesson has a planned instruction of different topics of pronunciation, feedback is given both before and during a student deviation, as the teacher could foresee the situation and plan accordingly. However, the

lesson only focuses on specific phonetic elements that were a planned part of the lesson, and not other student deviations of SEp. This might reflect the cognitive window (cf. Doughty, 1999); to not move the students' attention away from the main topics of pronunciation, other mispronunciations are not approached, as that might confuse the students even more.

At three of the schools, reactive focus on form is used. S02, S17 and S07 approach pronunciation in communication with the students; the teachers respond to mispronunciations occurring when pronunciation is not a topic in class. The teachers at these schools give feedback immediately after a mispronunciation, and never delays until a later point, in line with the appropriate cognitive window (Doughty, 1999). As insinuated in Section 5.1.2, feedback should avoid interrupting the flow of a lesson, and at the same time oral feedback should not be delayed, but given immediately after a mispronunciation (Doughty, 1999). This leaves teachers with two factors to take into consideration; there is a cognitive window that is open for focus on form, however the topic of the lesson is also important for the students to learn. This might suggest that recast as a feedback method is the most suitable way to keep the feedback within the cognitive window as well as keeping the focus on the ongoing topic.

At S02, where reading aloud constitutes a large amount of one observed lesson, the teacher uses recast only, and always immediately after a mispronunciation. In this activity, fluency is valued, as the main aim is not to learn pronunciation, but to understand the content of a text. Although a study showed that this method of feedback is disrupting fluency (Hedge, 2000), S02 is in line with others who argue that immediate CF does not disrupt fluency or the communicative flow of the lessons (Ellis et al., 2001).

In one case, a teacher uses a follow-up on a mispronunciation made earlier by a student. The teacher at S07 uses metalinguistic explanation as a feedback method, by writing the phonetic transcription of a word on the whiteboard. As teachers often do not have the time to attend mispronunciations by using explicit output-prompting methods while focusing on another topic, it might be necessary to follow them up later, to ensure that the pronunciation is given proper attention. However, seeing as this feedback falls outside the cognitive window, it might not be fruitful to give a follow-up to the student (Doughty, 1999).

At S13, the results from the observed lessons show a high number of student deviations, with no teacher feedback. This can partly be explained by the fact that S13 has student presentations during each lesson, increasing the number of student talk, thus affecting the number of mispronunciations. During the presentations, it might be assumed that the teacher is assessing the student, thereby avoiding giving immediate feedback and interrupting the presentation. In one case, the teacher gives delayed oral feedback on a student's pronunciation, by giving a positive comment on the general pronunciation; "You had a good pronunciation". As Ellis (2009b) argues, positive comments are often ambiguous, without specification of what is seen as good, thus being less motivating. In the case of S13, it might not be evident for the student what "good pronunciation" entails, thereby not being able to use this feedback properly at a later point. By looking at Ellis' (2009b) views, a solution might be to specify what is "good" about the student's pronunciation.

As discussed, the observed teachers' feedback varies according to what, how and when to approach their students' non-standard pronunciation, and research does not always give a right answer on how to do this. The implications of this will be presented in the concluding chapter (Chapter 6).

## **5.2 English as a lingua franca and pronunciation for communication purposes**

### **5.2.1 Student deviations from Standard English pronunciation compared to the Lingua Franca Core**

When looking at the students' deviations from SEp, the results show that about 4% of the students' total number of words can be categorised as mispronunciations. Of these, the dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/ form a clear majority (64%). According to Jenkins (2000) and the Lingua Franca Core, these phonemes are non-core features, and do not cause unintelligibility when they are replaced by /t/ and /d/, coinciding with what many Norwegian speakers do. In addition, she argues that word stress placement is a non-core feature, a mispronunciation that constitutes 2% of students' deviations. Furthermore, the results show that students' non-standard pronunciation of the weak form *the* make up 2 % of the mispronunciations, another non-core feature according to the Lingua Franca Core. Finally, it regards the adding of



vowels to consonants at the end of words as a non-core feature, thus including non-standard pronunciation of the suffix *-ed*. The observed students' mispronunciation of the suffix makes up 2% of the total mispronunciations. In sum, roughly 70% of the 4% that is regarded as deviations from SEp are in fact features of native-speaker English pronunciation that are unnecessary in ELF communication. Within the EFL paradigm these would be regarded as "errors", but within an ELF paradigm they would not (Jenkins, 2009).

Of the deviations that occurred among the Norwegian students, some are included as core features in the Lingua Franca Core, and should thus be taught in a context where English is viewed as an international language and where the aim is to develop communication skills for this purpose. These involve consonant sounds (excluding the dental fricatives), which in the results constitute four of the deviation types; /w/ and /v/, /t/, /tʃ/, /ʃ/ and /dʒ/, and /z/.

Together, these mispronunciations make up 10% of the total number of student deviations. In addition, the teaching of pronunciation should focus on vowel length contrasts (Jenkins, 2009), and the results show non-standard pronunciation of short and long monophthongs, in many cases replacing these with each other (about 8% of all mispronunciations). Finally, the Lingua Franca Core regards the omission of sounds in words as a core-feature, thus including the category *omission and addition*. This involves 10% of the students' deviations from SEp, and is the second largest category after the dental fricatives. The only category left from the results is *diphthongs*, which constitute 2% of the total mispronunciations. This category is not listed as a particular core or non-core feature. Jenkins (2000), however, argues that diphthong substitutions rarely cause a problem for intelligibility, thus placing the category near the non-core features.

Based on these results, it is evident that the students' deviations do not form a large amount out of the total mispronunciations, in fact, it is the opposite, 70% of the students' deviations from SEp can be categorised as non-core features in the Lingua Franca Core, and would probably not cause disruptions in communication. The clearly largest group of student deviations, the dental fricatives, is not even regarded as a feature that disturbs intelligibility. The student deviations from SEp that are core features of the LFC constitute about 30% of the students' deviations. These are features that could disturb intelligibility and should be taught in the classroom. Looking at the total amount of words spoken, this constitutes 1.22%. As this study has only looked at segmentals and word stress, it does not give a full picture of the students' pronunciation proficiency, however, a recent study (Haukland, 2016) has shown

that Norwegian intonation does not have a negative effect on intelligibility, suggesting that Norwegian students' English pronunciation is quite intelligible.

### **5.2.2 Individual teaching practices: intuition and experiences**

The results of the video observations show that the six observed teachers approach pronunciation in different ways; one teacher instructs the topic for 45 minutes, teaching rules of several phonetic elements, focusing on RP and GA pronunciation, and using textbook-based tasks. Three teachers approach pronunciation in a different way; in communication with the students. This means that although pronunciation is not a planned part of the lesson, some of the students' deviations from SEp are addressed continuously. The three remaining teachers do not address any of the deviations, yet it is important to stress that excluding S17 which has a phonetics lesson, the teachers rarely approach pronunciation. These results coincide with what researchers have claimed (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Drewing & Monru, 2005; Levis, 2005); the teaching of pronunciation is based on the teacher's experience and intuition. Although researchers have presented crucial elements to work with in the classroom, such as intelligibility or foreign accent, teachers have personal preferences that affect their decisions in the classroom (Scheuer, 2015). However, as the results from the present study are outcomes of only observing teaching practices for a limited period of time, it cannot be certain that the observed teachers were not also influenced by textbook policies, the syllabus or assessments (Scheuer, 2015). This might be the case at S17, where the teacher uses a textbook in the planned phonetics instruction. Additionally, teachers may have different teaching practices in lessons which have not been observed.

Of the observed lessons, S17 is the only school with a planned instruction of phonetics, and the teacher refers to Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) as pronunciation models. Based on textbooks and courses in the teacher education in Norway (e.g., Bergsland, 2015; Flognfeldt & Lund, 2016; University of Oslo, 2016), it is evident that RP and GA pronunciation are models which are presented for the students, thus becoming natural references and a part of their "experience". These might constitute guidelines if the student and future teacher is not given an alternative later on. This might be the reason for why S17 has pronunciation as a topic, though only looking at RP and GA pronunciation. Favouring these is not uncommon, and as Jenkins (2009) stresses; they are often seen as preferable varieties of English with high status.

In addition to favouring two pronunciation models, the phonetics lesson at S17 involves the use of both English and Norwegian during the instruction, and when the students work with tasks. Moreover, the students only use English when pronouncing specific phonetic elements that are in focus. This suggests that the lesson focuses on the nativeness principle and not intelligibility (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Levis, 2005). Furthermore, the teacher continuously urges the students to work on phonetic elements that Norwegians struggle with, such as /w/ and /v/, and the dental fricatives, suggesting that accentedness and aesthetics is central (e.g. Hardison, 2010; Scheuer, 2015). Although researchers like Scheuer (2015) argues that foreign accent is important to work with in the L2 classroom, intelligibility is given a higher value. Additionally, research has proved that intelligibility is not disrupted by a strong foreign accent (Bøhn & Hansen, 2017; Haukland, 2016). The fact that the students use Norwegian might not lead to improved pronunciation, as it lowers the amount of L2 use (Hardison, 2010). This also describes how English is being used; since the students are not encouraged to use English among each other, it is not a communicative language anymore, thus contradicting the purpose of the English subject where international communication is the main aim, in addition to using English in different contexts, involving native speakers and non-native speakers (KD, 2006, 2013). This teaching practice suggests that the teacher at S17 views English as being a foreign language.

The results have shown that the observed teachers have different ways of approaching pronunciation, as they might be influenced by its marginalised status in research, contradicting views on what good English pronunciation is, and their own experience through their teacher education, in addition to their subjective views and intuition. A final factor that contributes to the various teaching practices is the English subject curriculum (KD, 2006, 2013), which purpose is to provide development of English competence.

### **5.2.3 The English subject**

The English subject curriculum does not favour any specific teaching practices of pronunciation, and it can be interpreted in many ways (KD, 2006, 2013), something which the results from the observed schools suggest. Although the purpose of the subject seems to point towards English as a lingua franca, it is not self-evident. Since “central patterns of pronunciation” is mentioned in one competence aim after Year 10, it might often be understood as central patterns among *native* speakers, thus teaching English as a foreign

language. As RP and GA are common references, teachers might naturally regard these as providing “central patterns”, which might be the case at S17. However, as the English subject curriculum does not offer teachers a “correct” pronunciation variety, it is not in line with EFL, which would use native-speaker accents as target models (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). This leaves English teachers with a subject curriculum that can neither be interpreted as favouring ELF nor EFL.

Although researches have argued that English in Norway can be considered a second language, notwithstanding its lack of official second language status (Rindal & Piercy, 2013; Simensen, 2014); “The status of English in Norway is no longer that of EFL, but not quite ESL or ELF either, and seems thus to be caught between English language paradigms” (Rindal & Piercy, 2013). This reflects the results of the present study; teachers have to choose which part of the subject curriculum their teaching is in line with, resulting in different teaching practices which coincide with different language learning paradigms. The problem with the various ways to teach pronunciation is the impact it has on how students are later assessed in exams (Simensen, 2014). Oral examination in English at a lower secondary school level involves an external examiner without any knowledge of how the students have been trained in pronunciation (KD, 2006, 2013). The examiner might thus apply his or her own subjective view on pronunciation, and assesses accordingly, meaning that the examination system can be unfair for the students. This might implicate how teachers approach pronunciation in class, since they know that some examiners value nativeness over intelligibility, meaning that it might be “safer” to teach the students a native accent, as this will not be viewed as negative in an oral examination.

### **5.3 Chapter summary**

This chapter has discussed the main results of the present study in relation to the theoretical framing as well as previous research. It has argued that although the observed teachers approach a small number of their students’ non-standard pronunciation, it seems as if they have a strong sense of what intelligible pronunciation is, which also suggest that their Norwegian students have a high proficiency in English pronunciation. The teachers use different methods when approaching pronunciation, and based on research, the majority of these methods are in line with what can be considered appropriate feedback when it comes to pronunciation. Yet, there are instances where the teachers’ choices seem sporadic and

unplanned, which this chapter has argued to be a possible result of a marginalisation of pronunciation compared to other skills in English, contradicting views on what can be considered as good English pronunciation, the standards set by the teacher education, and finally, the ambiguous guidelines of the English subject curriculum. Based on this, it might not be surprising that the observed teachers have different ways of approaching pronunciation, and that many of them do not address it at all.

## 6 Conclusion

In this study, six teachers in six different English classrooms at lower secondary school have been investigated and analysed, with the purpose to identify how the teachers approach English pronunciation in their English lessons. Teaching methods can be investigated through classroom observation, which has been the methodology for the present study. The use of video recordings, made it possible for the study to analyse the teaching practices in the different classrooms thoroughly. As I was fortunate to use data collected by the LISE study, the schools were already chosen, and the recordings ready to be analysed. Analytical concepts and categories were created beforehand in order to analyse the data from the video recordings. Some of these were created for the purpose of the study, while others were based on prior research. The concepts involved pronunciation instruction, student mispronunciations, pronunciation correction, feedback methods, and classroom situations. The data program *InterAct* made it possible to easily mark interesting observations and code them, and to statistically analyse the data quantitatively by summarising all the occurrences in each category in order to identify patterns within and across the observed schools. The results of the video observation of the six different English classrooms were to answer the main research question of this study:

*How do teachers approach English pronunciation in lower secondary school?*

The main results of the study have provided three answers to the research question:

- 1) Teachers approach pronunciation in two different ways; through instruction of pronunciation, or in communication with their students.
- 2) Apart from one case of pronunciation instruction, teachers rarely approach students' non-standard pronunciation.
- 3) Teachers' choices and methods when approaching mispronunciation are closely linked to the teaching situation and the topic in focus, resulting in the use of feedback methods that do not require much time and energy.

These answers are linked to a fourth finding, though not a direct answer to the research question, it highly impacts the previous answers:

- 4) Norwegian students' English pronunciation is highly intelligible, and compared to what has been labelled *Standard English pronunciation*, their mispronunciations constitute a very small number.

The results show that one of the observed teachers instructed pronunciation in one lesson, while three teachers approached some pronunciation in communication with the students. The remaining teachers did not approach their students' non-standard pronunciation. The analysis shows that the observed students English pronunciation proficiency is very good, with only 4% of their total amount of words being non-standard pronunciation. These few mispronunciations can be categorised into two types; phonological segments and word stress. This means that pronunciation as *form* is the focus of the study. Of these deviations, 70% are not considered as errors according to the Lingua Franca Core, but as variants and intelligible pronunciation. Furthermore, the analysis shows that the teachers approached few of these deviations, and did so using the quick feedback method recast in order to keep focus on the topic of the lesson. This reflects the challenges teachers face when the lesson has a topic in focus and at the same time students have mispronunciations that attract teacher attention.

The results of the study have been discussed related to the status of English in the world and in Norway. Since the spread of English has involved a change in its status, it does not only belong to native speakers, but to the whole world. It is a global language, and it is an international language. When English is a lingua franca the majority of interactions in English involves non-native speakers, rather than native-speakers. With the non-native speakers outgrowing the native ones, English is now being used for different purposes than before, making native-speaker norms seem less relevant to follow. The spread of English in the world is also reflected in Norway; due to increased use and exposure to English in everyday life English is increasingly recognised as a de facto second language in Norway (Rindal & Piercy, 2013).

Investigating teaching practices of English pronunciation involves looking at the proficiency of English pronunciation among the students in 9<sup>th</sup> grade. The study has compared their English pronunciation to what has, for the purpose of the study, been categorised as *Standard English pronunciation*. This variety is comprised of Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA), two accents which are considered to reflect high status and a sense of formality. Using a Standard English pronunciation can be compared to using a native-like pronunciation. Both RP and GA are common reference models in education, and this is also evident in Norway. Courses and textbooks present these for teacher students, making them natural focus points when teaching pronunciation. However, in a field where nativeness is not the main goal, but intelligibility is highly valued, ELF scholars argue that the purpose of English in many contexts is not to communicate with native speakers. This means that new guidelines have to be given, giving room for the Lingua Franca Core. The errors of EFL are variants in ELF, and learners should focus on elements that increase intelligibility when English is used for international communication. The most interesting finding in the study was that of all the words uttered by the students, only 4% were non-standard pronunciation according to SEp, meaning that the Norwegian students' pronunciation proficiency is at a high level. The students should, therefore, not focus on aiming at a native-like pronunciation, but work with the 4% that would disrupt intelligibility according to ELF.

The study has outlined how the teachers' approaches are related to relevant theories on pronunciation as a skill and as a topic to teach in the English classroom. Despite the importance pronunciation has on successful communication, research shows that instruction and assessment of pronunciation is lacking in English language teaching. Because of its marginalised status, teachers must trust their intuition and experience when approaching it in the classroom. As this study also shows, this results in various approaches, many being sporadic and unplanned. While some instruct pronunciation in the classroom, others might not approach it all, meaning that it only surfaces when the students' pronunciation attracts the teacher's attention. Feedback is then given in various ways, as the teacher is faced with the dilemma of either focusing on an ongoing topic, or to concentrate on a student's pronunciation. With the teacher education favouring RP and GA as pronunciation models, these naturally become point of reference for teachers, thus creating room for teaching English as a foreign language. Although teaching practices are guided by the English subject curriculum, this has failed to give proper guidelines on what the teaching of pronunciation should entail. With the purpose of the subject focusing on communication and using English



in different contexts, but a competence aim explicitly referring to “central patterns for pronunciation”, the subject curriculum has fallen between two stools; ELF and EFL.

## 6.1 Implications for teaching

The results of this study suggest two things about the English subject curriculum; 1) it is vague about what central patterns of pronunciation entails, and 2) it seems to be constructed between two language learning paradigms. Given that Norwegians are highly exposed to English, and already proficient speakers when arriving at lower secondary school, is it then necessary to explicitly focus on pronunciation patterns? If the main aim is communication for international purposes, should the curriculum then stress that pronunciation should follow the ELF paradigm? The first question may already be answered by the results of the present study; teachers do not approach pronunciation often in the classroom since the students’ pronunciation can be considered highly intelligible. As shown by the results of the students’ deviations from SEP compared to the guidelines from the Lingua Franca Core, the majority of the deviations are non-core features. However, it might seem easier to just rule out pronunciation and think that Norwegian students are not in need of it, yet pronunciation is seen as a key element in oral skills in a second language (Afshari & Ketabi, 2017), and oral skills are one of five basic skills that are to be included in all subjects in Norwegian school. Based on this, pronunciation should be included in the subject curriculum.

The focus on communication is an important point for the intelligibility principle, thus bringing us to the second point; how to include ELF perspectives in pronunciation. Intelligibility is the main point of ELF research, and the Lingua Franca Core provides guidelines for how to implement this in the English classroom. However, as Simensen (2014) argues, for this to succeed, it needs to be fully integrated at all levels, so that teachers are in unison on how to teach pronunciation, and, more importantly, how to assess it. It may be that the English subject curriculum in itself is in between EFL and ELF, yet pronunciation can make a clear shift towards ELF without interfering with other areas of the subject. To avoid various teaching practices and to make sure that every student is taught and assessed on the same basis related to pronunciation, it is necessary that every English teacher has the same notion of what pronunciation should be, and the English subject curriculum could provide the guidelines. Teachers should focus on teaching English as a medium for international communication, as is the purpose of the English subject in Norway.

## 6.2 Suggestions for further research

This has been a video study investigating teachers' approaches to English pronunciation in lower secondary school. The aim has been to study various teaching practices in the classroom, as well as to present Norwegian students' proficiency in English pronunciation. As the study has only investigated six classrooms, further research might be needed to expand knowledge on teaching practices. Additionally, one might not get a full description of how a teacher approaches pronunciation by only looking at 4-5 English lessons, and there is a need for research that can study classrooms for a longer period of time. Finally, as it has examined English lessons in lower secondary school, it suggests that further research be conducted at upper secondary level as well, in order to gain insight into how pronunciation is approached throughout secondary school. It would be fruitful to compare teaching practices at lower and upper secondary level, as the students are older and further into their English education. Do teachers at upper secondary school approach English pronunciation or view the purpose of English differently than in lower secondary school?

To gain proper insight of how teachers approach pronunciation and how students experience this, it might be valuable to also investigate what they think about it themselves. Observing classroom situations merely provides us with one view from the outside, and I believe that getting the teachers' and the students' subjective point of views on the teaching of pronunciation results in a deeper knowledge of the topic. In this way, we would also be able to gain insight in the teachers' aim of different approaches and the students' experiences of these, not only based on a few hours of observation. Furthermore, this type of investigation will reveal their thoughts and interpretations of the English subject curriculum and their views on English pronunciation.

Seeing as this MA study has proved that Norwegian students' English pronunciation is at a high level, as only 4% of their total number of words have been categorised as non-standard pronunciation according to SEp. An investigation involving descriptive analyses of the students' pronunciation, focusing on their intelligible pronunciation, and not deviations, would contribute to the mapping of their English pronunciation. It would be interesting to view the Norwegian students' pronunciation according to the status of non-native pronunciations as varieties within the ELF paradigm.

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# Appendix 1 – English translation of examples

E1)

Last Thursday, we worked on making the assignment, which you worked with on Monday. We also worked with a diphthong. Do you remember which diphthong it was? Was it a typical British one? One that ended with the lax sound that we use because they don't have "r". Do you remember it now? Is it dawning on you now? Yes. Probably you are remembering it now. It was the /ə/. Remember it now? M-m. Good.

E2)

Student: Yes, it is /ði:/.

Teacher: Yes, it is /ðə/. It is a /ðə/. And you now said /ði:/, and that would have been right, if it were not for the fact that this (*the teacher points at a sentence on the whiteboard*). And why, what is this? What sound is following? Is it a consonant sound or a vowel sound?

Student: Consonant.

Teacher: It is a consonant, correct, and then it is /ðə/. If it were an 'a' or a vowel sound, then we could have said /ði:/.

E3)

Student: Is it bin? Like bin...

Teacher: No, that 'i' is long.

Student: Been?

Teacher: Who's hair's been, yes.

Student: Who's hair's been. Yes, been.

E4)

Student: How did you pronounce the eeee, eea?

Teacher: Mhm? The diphthong? /eə/, /eə/.

# Appendix 2 – Consent form

UiO : Det utdanningsvitenskapelige fakultet  
Institutt for lærerutdanning og skoleforskning

Institutt for lærerutdanning og  
skoleutvikling  
Postboks 1099 Blindern  
0317 Oslo

Telefon: 22 85 50 70 / 41 51  
Telefaks: 22 85 44 09  
Vev-adr.: <http://www.ils.uio.no/>

Dato: 01.12.2015

## Erklæring ved tilgang til LISA (Linking Instruction and Student Achievement) sine forskningsdata

Forskningsprosjektet LISA (Linking Instruction & student achievement) har forpliktet seg til å følge personopplysningslovens retningslinjer ved all registrering, lagring og bruk av det innsamlede datamaterialet. Ved tilgang til dette materialet er du forpliktet til å gjøre deg kjent med og følge disse retningslinjene (se: <http://www.lovdata.no/all/nl-20000414-031.html>). Datamaterialet skal ikke under noen omstendighet deles med tredjepart eller fremvises til andre

Jeg bekrefter herved at jeg har gjort meg kjent med personopplysningslovens retningslinjer, og lover å følge disse i mitt arbeid med datamaterialet tilhørende forskningsprosjektet LISA.

Undertegnede plikter også å referere eksplisitt til LISA prosjektet (ved prosjektleder og dataeier Professor Kirsti Klette) ved all bruk av data/ design, kodeskjema og tekniske løsninger som bygger på dette prosjektet, jf. Forskningsetiske komiteers krav til God Forskningspraksis/ Henvisningsskikk (<http://www.etikkom.no/Forskningsetikk/God-forskningspraksis>). Enhver situasjon der datamateriale som tilhører LISA benyttes i analyser i publikasjoner skal være kjent for prosjektleder og dataeier Professor Kirsti Klette før publisering.

Sted	Dato	Underskrift
OSLO	17/08/16	Manuela E. Jannuzzi

For LISA		
oslo	17/8-2016	Bjørn S. Gallocher



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