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ENGLISH

The Americanised British English Classroom:

A case study on the linguistic nature of the input in Swedish
EFL teaching

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Title: The Americanised British English Classroom

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Abstract: Input is everything a learner is exposed to within the target subject, yet it is a relatively scarcely researched area within EFL and SLA - especially the *linguistic nature* of the input that Swedish EFL learners have access to. This case study has therefore been aimed at investigating the input used by 18 English teachers in the greater Gothenburg area. Through an online questionnaire, the informants have provided data on the Englishes used in their respective classrooms, with a primary focus on American and British English. The results have been cross analysed with special focus on the relations between age groups, to test a hypothesis claiming that British English is more common with older teachers whilst American English is more common with younger teachers and even more so amongst students. Partially contrary to these hypotheses, British English appears to be presented even less than expected to the students of the informants, even though relations alter between different sources of input. Some variation can be found between informants of different ages. The linguistic nature of the input available to the students in this study is consequently primarily American, whereas a wider range of variety would have been more resourceful for them.

Keywords: Input, EFL, Englishes, Linguistic nature, American vs British, Americanisation

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1. Introduction

In a language classroom, as most teachers would agree, the main purpose of all ongoing activity is for the students to learn the language being taught. Discussions of different methods and materials are common on all administrative levels, as well as the various political ones. However, it seems that one seemingly small, but nevertheless crucial, detail is all too often left out: the linguistic nature of the input. Input in the language classroom can be literature, film, music or any other kind of material based on the target language, but it is also the language use of the teacher. In the case of EFL (English as a Foreign Language), the English used actively by the teacher is inevitably one that the students grow accustomed to, including its grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary and idiomatic expressions. As is oftentimes the case, much focus of EFL and SLA (Second Language Acquisition) research is on that which is new and/or different, the margins. Most recently, the attention has been focused on interculturality and English in a global perspective, as well as extramural English. However, the teachers' usage of English is one of the students' primary sources for input and ought to be given increasing attention within EFL and SLA research – one must not forget the core.

For many years it was the common notion within EFL in Sweden that British is the one true English, the one to teach and the one to learn. Not until the introduction of the 1994 syllabi of English was the possibility of variety introduced in the classrooms, with special attention to the equal status of British and American English (Skolverket, 1994, åk 9 & 1v B). Therefore, the two Englishes that establish the foundation of EFL teaching in Sweden today are British English and American English, which constitutes the reason why primary research ought to have these two as its primary focus. It must not be forgotten, however, that the world is populated by many more Englishes, both standard and standardising – not to mention the multitude of non-standard Englishes which enrich the world, and future research on the linguistic nature of the input to Swedish EFL learners might need to include these. As matters are at present, however, it is primarily the usage of British and American English, as well as the relationship between the two, which constitute the main interest for research in the field. Naturally, it can be argued that the importance of the input presented lies in the facts and the knowledge conveyed through it, claiming a specific focus on its linguistic origin to be a loss of time and effort; two assets of high value to the average teacher. The research conducted, however, has as its principle that neither one nor the other is lost by mere awareness and attention.

2. Hypotheses & Aims

The overarching aim of the research conducted has been based on the following three hypotheses and, subsequently, has had as its aims to establish to what extent which English is present in the input available to the students of the informants and to investigate whether there are any differences in the availability of these in relation to a) the age of the teacher and b) the source of the input. The tendency to consider British English as the one true English appears to have lessened considerably since the 1994 change, but nevertheless the main hypothesis underlying the study here presented, is that British is still the most commonly used English in Sweden. It was therefore expected that the informants would use more British than American materials, as well as strive to produce as British an English as they could themselves; the possibility of the teachers using *another* language altogether was purposely disregarded as it constitutes the foundation of a differently focused research.

Furthermore, there are two secondary hypotheses at the foundation of the conducted survey. As the preference of British English in relation to other Englishes has been put in increasing discussion over the past decades, one might expect to find there to be a certain extent of differentiation between different age groups. Especially American English has been given cumulative importance for Swedish EFL, as the United States have become the main source for popular culture in Sweden. These expected differences between age groups concern two types of relations: *older teachers – younger teachers* and *teachers – students*. The primary hypothesis, that British English holds a higher symbolic capital than American English for the teachers, and the two secondary hypotheses, that American English holds a higher symbolic capital than British English for young teachers and students, have therefore been phrased accordingly:

- “It is expected that the learners of the 18 informants are exposed to primarily *British* English input.”
- “It is expected that the usage of *American* English increases at the same rate that the age of the informants decreases.”
- “It is expected that the learners of the 18 informants will use primarily *American* English.”

3. Method & Materials

3.1 Preparation of questionnaire and potential impediments

In order to establish which English is most common in EFL classrooms in the greater Gothenburg area today, at least according to the teachers themselves, a questionnaire (1. appendix) was constructed for the purpose of collecting such data. The questions which constitute the questionnaire are based on four categories:

- Presentation of the informant (including preliminaries)
- Modified materials (eg. text- and workbooks)
- Unmodified materials (eg. literature, music and movies)
- Student output

The survey was both empirical and quantitative. The informants themselves were the ones who would have to reflect on their own usages of English, thus the results will not represent objective truths but the informants personal perception of their EFL teaching. As will be explained below, the results are, however, still presented in a quantitative manner.

The underlying aim for the construction of the questionnaire, including choice of subjects and formulation of questions, was to present a general image of the linguistic nature of the input from all the main sources available in the EFL classroom, ergo the teachers' output, teaching materials and popular culture used for teaching purposes. The main focus of the survey is the mutual relation between American and British English, and therefore these are the two suggested alternatives for all the questions. At all stages, however, the informants had the possibility to answer with any other English, acknowledging that fact that these are but two in a myriad of world Englishes. Furthermore, the questionnaire was constructed so as to be applicable to English teachers at elementary, secondary and upper secondary level. Before its distribution, the questionnaire was tested on three test informants, who are or have been English teachers active at at least one of the three levels. The approximate time needed for filling out the questionnaire was found to be less than 15 minutes.

Potential impediments envisioned prior the conduction of the survey included, at a first stage, vague formulations of the questions, encumbering the informants understanding of what data they were expected to provide. Furthermore, the subject per se could be one of difficulty for the teachers to grasp – seeing as it is one often neglected due to its status as “evident” or “irrelevant” and consequently still fairly rare within EFL discourse - and

therefore something with which teachers may be unfamiliar. Lastly, the risk of insufficient responses is ever-present in studies such as this one; however, it is not the case here.

In accordance with the principles of ethics, there are no questions in the questionnaire on personal, sexual, racial or any other possibly offensive matters in the questionnaire. The questions that constitute the questionnaire have been formulated in such a way as to offend neither the informants nor the informants' students. Furthermore, there are no bias questions and no responses could possibly be considered as better or of higher value than another. Lastly, the informants have been promised strict anonymity.

3.2 Conduction of survey

The previously mentioned questionnaire was distributed using the website "Survey Monkey" (Survey Monkey [online]), an online platform for the construction and distribution of questionnaires. Providing the user with certain tools for both layout and construction, Survey Monkey creates a webpage of its own for the questionnaire, which can then be shared with others through a link. The link, by which the questionnaire of this survey was attained, was distributed to teachers and teacher trainees connected to the university of origin of the research, the University of Gothenburg; the primary recipients of the link are either educated at the university, or work as so called "mentors" for present or recent students at the university. The recipients were asked to forward the link to other EFL teachers; the teacher trainees were encouraged to solely forward the link and not participate in the survey themselves. The criteria in the selection of informants were:

- That they be English teachers
- That they be active in the teaching profession
- That they be teachers at Elementary, Secondary or Upper Secondary level

By this method, it can be ascertained that no informants have been hand-picked and that no selection has been made by the researcher to influence the outcome of the survey. Anyone who fulfils these three criteria was encouraged to partake in the survey, resulting in 18 informants from the greater Gothenburg area¹. The link to the questionnaire was left open for five weeks from its official opening during the spring of 2013, not including the time of the pilot survey. For the purpose of this one survey, and considering its extent, 18 is an adequate number of informants. When, however, conducting similar research on a larger scale, a wider range of informants is necessary.

1. The greater Gothenburg area here encompasses the city itself and its suburbs, as well as some neighbouring cities such as Varberg, Lerum and Uddevalla.

3.3 Presentation of informants

The survey (1. appendix), whose results are to be presented in chapter five, was conducted on 18 English teachers in the greater Gothenburg area. The informants are primarily young (2:nd appendix, figure 4) and have recently graduated (2:nd appendix, figure 5), but the data collected has representations of all age groups – divided into 20-30 years old, 31-40 years old, 41-50 years old and 51-65 years old - and levels of experience. There is a slight majority of female informants (2:nd appendix, figure 6) and a vast majority of Upper Secondary teachers (2:nd appendix, figure 7). Half of the informants of the here presented survey have Swedish as their second subject (2:nd appendix, table 1) and other subjects include another foreign language, Mathematics, Music and Social Sciences. Furthermore, more than a third (2:nd appendix, table 2) of them work at schools situated in the city centre of Gothenburg, but there is also a fair representation of neighbouring cities such as Lerum and Uddevalla.

3.4 Process and presentation of analyses

The data collected from the 18 informants has been analysed from a wide array of angles, whereby it has been tested both according to the hypotheses (see chapter 2) and other possible variables. Having been constructed on the foundation of the three previously presented hypotheses, the questionnaire naturally provided data best suited to test these; consequently these specific variables form the main focus of the result analysis in chapter five and the discussion in chapter 6. The responses to each question have been thoroughly analysed within each of the four age groups. However, the results presented are valid for this specific study *only*, which is why it is a *case study* – there is no intention of proving any tendencies outside the frame constructed by the 18 informants and no aim at generalisation. Therefore, the fact that different groups (eg. age or educational level) have different degrees of representation in the study does not diminish the validity of the results. This is a strict case study and does not claim to prove a general truth. Instead, it is merely a commencement to what ought to be a series of in-depth surveys, of different natures and scale, using different angles, methods and materials, and focusing on a wider variety of variables, to better form what might be a general possibility of the truth.

Furthermore, the survey is not meant to be used deductively. The hypotheses were used merely as guidelines for what to conduct research on and the data provided has not had as a sole purpose to reinforce or contradict these. The research has been of a strictly inductive nature. Nevertheless, the data was found to be primarily analysable according to these

postulates. All data provided in the “Results”-section has also been examined in the light of the Swedish syllabi for English at the relevant levels. Furthermore, the previous research found to be relevant to the cause of the survey, even though primarily presented in a section of its own, is meant as an aid in understanding the outcome of the data analysis.

4. Previous research

The following two sections present a general over-view of current trends within both linguistic (4.1) and didactic (4.2) research. The reason for this division is primarily the lack of previous research conducted in the specific area and with the specifically focused attention. This only further enhances the importance of continuing and expanding the field. As mentioned previously, much research has been presented on what can be considered “new perspectives” of Swedish EFL teaching – such as for instance *interculturality*, *global English* or *extramural English* – but little, if any, on the *linguistic nature* of the input presented by the teachers themselves. Therefore, this chapter presents the general features of current research on both the *linguistic nature* of English and the nature and importance of *input*. The facts presented in this chapter are the ones considered necessary background information for the reader when partaking in the results – some specific categories of the results are presented with more specified research.

4.1 Understanding Englishes – a linguistic perspective

In today’s society, English has come to take the throne amongst the world’s languages, seating itself as the primary ‘lingua franca’ of contemporary society. Being such a widespread language, it is only natural that there should be many varieties, all of which have the right to be considered correct within certain domains; that is to say that they are not actual *varieties* of one correct usage but rather different types of correct usages. A common way to categorise these usages is according to ‘Kachru’s circles’, which consist of an inner, an outer and an expanding circle. In her students’ handbook, Jenkins (2003) describes these as explaining the expansion of English as a world language. Having started in Britain, the language primarily expanded to those countries in which English today is the first language. Those are the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand and Kachru therefore called these the “traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English” (Jenkins, 2003, p. 14). These ENL (English as a National Language) countries form the *inner circle* and are considered *norm-providing*, meaning that standards of English are provided by these five countries. The *outer circle* consists of the ESL (English as a Second Language) countries and is considered *norm-developing*. The ESL countries are those where English is not the first language, but nevertheless has been institutionalised and is used primarily as an administrative language; as this is the case they are now considered as developing their own

standards of English rather free from the influence of the inner circle. The third and last of Kachru's circles, the *expanding circle*, encompasses those countries where English is today taught as a foreign language and are the most recent additions to the English speaking world. Therefore, these EFL (English as a Foreign Language) countries, to which category Sweden belongs, are still considered as *norm-dependent*. This means that the English varieties taught and spoken in these countries are still considered exactly as such: performance varieties which have no official status of their own and are therefore dependent on the ENL standards (Jenkins, 2003, pp. 14-16).

There are, however, other models which have been created to present the expansion and different representations of English and the concept of 'Englishes' is getting ever more established within the different fields of linguistic research on English. The term 'Englishes' is used when discussing ENL and ESL, rather than the word 'varieties', to establish equality amongst the different types of English which form a standard or a standardisation; EFL therefore is still considered as a group of varieties. In her presentation of *world Englishes*², Jenkins (2003) uses the terms *new Englishes* and *New Englishes*, with the distinction being made by the capitalised 'N'. All Englishes, except British English, belong to either one, where *new Englishes* are the same as Kachru's *inner circle*, with the addition of South African English, and *New Englishes* are the ones that form Kachru's *outer circle*. The development of *new Englishes* is considered as independent of and different from, yet similar to, the linguistic developments which have taken place in the language's country of birth, England. Nevertheless, it was not until comparatively recently that these Englishes (with the exception of American English) began being considered as standards rather than varieties. Furthermore, *New Englishes*, according to Jenkins, are still compared to English standards rather than being considered as standards in their own right, which she considers unjust (Jenkins, 2003, p. 22).

A third model presented by Jenkins (2003) is 'Stevenson's world map of English', which considers all Englishes as originating from either British or American English, ergo it portrays the expansion of the language *after* the separation of these two (Jenkins, 2003, pp.18-19). This perspective on hierarchy of the English language, with British and American English as equal crown bearers, is a fairly common one, especially in EFL countries. As Siemund, Davydova and Maier (2012) put it: "The varieties of British English and American English are important as they typically perform the function of target varieties for non-native speakers learning English in a classroom setting." (Siemund et al., 2012, p. 91). This is also the case in present-day Sweden, which constitutes the reason for the author to choose to primarily focus on these in her survey. The before mentioned authors (2012) explain that these two Englishes

2. For further reading on the concept of "World Englishes", see Jenkins (2003) and Siemund, Davydova & Maier (2012)

differ in terms of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary (Siemund et al., 2012, p. 94) and Jenkins (2003) states that Englishes primarily differ in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, idioms and discourse style (Jenkins, 2003, p. 23).

On the other hand, an increasing interest has been given the notion of *Euro-English*. In accordance with Jenkins (2003), Siemund, Davydova and Maier (2012) contemplate that British English may one day be considered as one European variety of English amongst plenty, where the others are ‘nativised varieties’, meaning that Swedish English would be a form of English in its own right. They do, however, admit that “The position of English (or **Euro-English** as it is increasingly being labelled) as Europe’s primary *lingua franca* is so recent that it is too soon to be able to say with any certainty whether it will remain so” (Siemund et al., 2012, pp. 23-24). If continental English is in the process of merging into one common European variety, this renders the need to root Swedish English education in either British or American English non-existent. In their article, Van den Doel and Quené (2013) claim that it has been reported that continental accents of English are growing closer together, as the result of convergence between non-native Englishes. They continue to explain that this means that Euro-English is considered as increasingly independent of any native-speaker varieties and that Europe now witnesses the emergence of an ‘endonormative model of *lingua franca* English’, ergo that according to some, Europeans are establishing their own standard English (Van den Doel & Quené, 2013, pp. 77-78).

In an attempt to research the probability of Euro-English, the above mentioned authors (2013) conducted an Internet survey where three target groups were asked to assess the pronunciation of different European non-native speakers (Eu-NNS). The three groups were the Eu-NNS themselves, NS (Native Speakers) from the *inner circle* and NEu-NNS (Non-European Non-Native Speakers). The full-length article can be found in *Englishes World Wide*, no 34:1, but the results did *not* support the claim of a developing standardised European variety. On the contrary, the authors conclude that

“The overall pattern that emerges from our analysis is that, by and large, Eu-NNS did not evaluate the European accents included in the survey consistently or strikingly differently either from the NS or NEu-NNS. This may be taken as evidence that respondents were not demonstrably influenced by any emerging endonormative standards for the pronunciation of European English” (Van den Doel & Quené, 2013, p. 91).

This could be considered as support for the claim that, for the time being, British and American English still constitute the two most important influences for the English being taught in Sweden.

4.2 Understanding Input – a pedagogical perspective

In today's society, English has come to take the throne amongst the world's languages, seating itself as the primary 'lingua franca'. Being such a widespread language, it is only natural that it should present itself in many various forms within the Swedish classroom, at the elementary (ages 7-12), secondary (ages 13-15) and upper secondary (ages 16-18) level alike. The overall term for this presentation of the language to the students is *input*. The most common way to define *input* is as everything a learner is exposed to within the target language. Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2013) phrase it as: "Input refers to the linguistic forms learners are exposed to, both oral and written, and [...] can be of different types." (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 214). Indeed, they continue by explaining that language acquisition is impossible without input, as the linguistic information, or 'Primary Linguistic Data', needed for L2A (Language 2 Acquisition, also referred to as SLA) to occur (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 627). Input, however, is not to be confused with *intake*, which is the input that becomes available to the learner (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 215) or, in other words, the knowledge acquired by the learner through the input.

The *processing of input*, that is the adaption of *input* to *intake*, is a challenging aspect of SLA for learners (see Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009, chapter 2) and is often divided into *incidental* and *intentional* learning; there are numerous ways of defining the two in both psychological and L2 literature, and the following definitions are very simplified. Generally speaking, the latter is the traditional view of language learning through focused attention on specific aspects, whereas the former is an unconscious acquisition through exercises with a different focus than what is being acquired (Doughty & Long, 2003, pp. 349-350). The processed input, the *intake*, can further be divided into *explicit* and *implicit* knowledge. As with *incidental* and *intentional* learning, the concept of *explicit* and *implicit* knowledge are much more complex than the definitions here presented. At large, the former is what the learners are aware of knowing and consequently can explain in either linguistic or everyday terms, whereas the latter is that which the learner is unaware of knowing (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 321). Many evident impediments arise and DeKeyser (2003) compares the complications of researching *implicit* knowledge to those that accompany intelligence research (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 313): testing is predisposed to being predictable and therefore the results have low validity.

What is to be considered 'good' input is submitted to constant discussion. Hedge (2000) uses the concept *comprehensible input*, an idea proposed by Krashen in his 'input hypothesis'

in 1985. The foundation of the hypothesis is that learners acquire a language when they receive input in the form of ‘messages’ containing language at a level slightly more advanced than the one they are currently on. The idea is that from these ‘messages’, the learner can infer meaning, thereby reaching a higher level of proficiency. Hedge (2000) further distinguishes between this *acquired* language and *active* or conscious language study (Hedge, 2000, p. 10). The main principle of *comprehensible input* is that it, through its authentic nature becomes interesting and realistic, therefore meaningful, motivating the learners to be engaged in their learning and aiding them to achieve a slightly higher level of proficiency (Hedge, 2000, pp. 11-12). Herschensohn and Young-Scholten convey that Krashen indeed claimed that *comprehensible input* is both necessary and sufficient for SLA (Second Language Acquisition). They explain that, according to Krashen, *intake* occurs through access to comprehensible input (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 629).

Another important aspect in SLA research today is that of modification. Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2013) distinguish between *authentic* and *modified* input, the latter being input that has been altered in a way so as to better respond to the learner’s needs. The two authors propose that both oral and written material can be simplified, either by the shortening of sentences or the adaption of lexical items within the range of what the learner requires (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 214). One type of modification the authors call ‘interactional’ or ‘interactionally modified’ input. This type is indeed considered more effective than other types of modification, as the essence of the concept is the permission for the learner to participate in interaction, either with one another or the teacher (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 215). According to the authors, the main focus for ‘interactionists’ is to establish the role of the received input for the learner and to what extent modification aids in the learning process (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 67). They further state that interaction allows learners to *negotiate meaning*, which renders the input more comprehensible (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 629). Hedge (2000) explains the concept ‘negotiation of meaning’ as to be an important learning possibility for EFL students. She claims that the asking of questions by the learner, leading to further explanation by the teacher or a peer, leads to an active process in which the learner strives to comprehend that which was previously incomprehensible. For this to be possible, however, according to Hedge, a so called *information* or *opinion gap* is needed, meaning that the learner must not know beforehand what is to be said (Hedge, 2000, p. 57).

Unmodified input, on the other hand, is, as the term suggests, input that has not been altered or simplified but preserves its original form (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten,

2013, p. 633). This type of input is also referred to as *authentic*. Hedge (2000) explains that *authentic materials* are such that have not been altered or simplified for the purpose of learning. The main argument for using such *unmodified input* is to better prepare the learners for communication with NS and “the authentic language of the real world” (Hedge, 2000, p. 67). The concept of *meaningful input* is closely related to that of *authentic materials* and also widely recognised within EFL and SLA research. Many researchers use the two concepts interchangeably, considering *authenticity* to be essential for input to be *meaningful*, but others, such as Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2013), do not draw a distinct line between the two. They (2013) use more general terms, claiming input as a whole as referring to “meaningful samples of a target language to which a learner is exposed in a meaningful context” (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 627). Hedge (2000) claims that modern SLA research further suggests that language presented to the learner at a time of need, that is when the learner is unable to express, for instance, an opinion by the tools already learnt, is easily acquired (Hedge, 2000, p. 53).

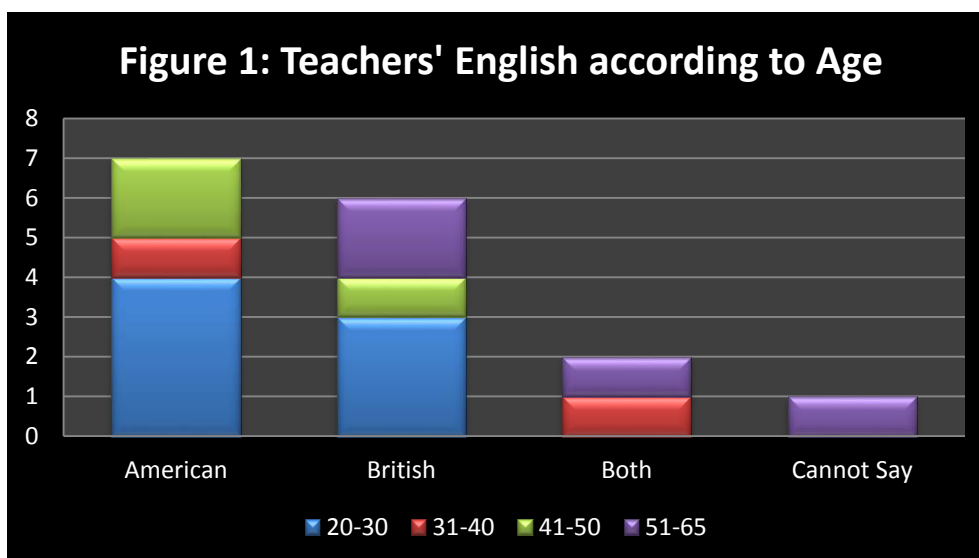
The idea that EFL education should be conducted entirely in English, leaving no room for the learners’ L1 (first language) in the classroom, has become increasingly important within SLA research. As Herschensohn and Young-Scholten claim, learning an L2 (second language) is much like learning an L1. They claim that “As with children who learn their L1s while being exposed to input in their L1 only, any L2 can be taught entirely in the target language from the very first day (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, p. 633). Much SLA research in general supports this idea of a monolingual classroom and it is also the basis of the present Swedish syllabi for English, which are based on CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) and the communicative approach. The *importance* of input, consequently, is well known. However, there has been very little, if any, research conducted on the *linguistic nature* of the input provided by English teachers in Sweden today.

5. Results

This chapter forms the presentation of the data provided by the survey. The results have been divided into four subchapters, following the structure of the questionnaire. These are “The input produced by the teacher” (5.1), which examines the linguistic nature of the teachers’ output; “Modified teaching materials” (5.2), which examines the linguistic origin of textbooks; “Unmodified teaching materials” (5.3), which examines the linguistic nature of other materials used, such as literature, music and movies; and finally “Students’ input and output” (5.4), where a brief summary of the input available to the students is given in contrast to the output produced by the students. The results are analysed in reference to previous research and some complimentary theoretical background is given where it was considered more profitable to present it within a context rather than as a general over-view. Complimentary figures and tables are found in the 2:nd appendix.

5.1 The input produced by the teacher

When asked which English the informants use, according to their own evaluations (figure 1, below), most answer either American (43,8 %) or British (37,5 %), but two consider themselves to speak both Englishes, explaining: “Both British and American by choice, although predominantly British” and “A mix of American pronunciation but British words only. I try to sound as British as I can.”. These statements could be considered as an indication of what has for a long time been a common notion within EFL education in Sweden, namely that British English is the one to aspire to, the most prestigious English. This is, however, a notion which over the past decades has been submitted to increasing confrontation and therefore has lost much of its former ground. The fairly even division of Englishes amongst the 18 informants, with a slight majority for American English, could be representative of this shift. This shift over the past decades would therefore be represented by the informants, as the percentage of British versus American speakers changes according to the above presented possibility:



This shows that British is more commonly spoken amongst the older of the informants and none of the 18 teachers state another standard, standardised or non-standardised English as their predominant one, whereas one informant is unable to decide at all.

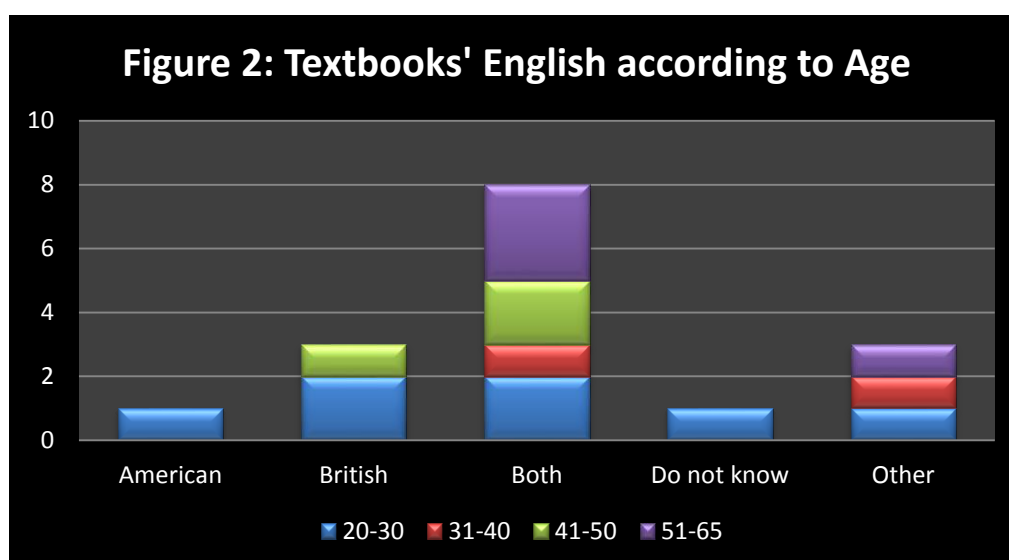
Lastly, most of the informants indicate having acquired their respective English/es through higher education (2:nd appendix, figure 8), whereas some acquired it through studies or work abroad and a few through both. Amongst the 18 teachers there is also one NS. Furthermore, there are two informants who indicate having acquired their Englishes through other means, such as popular culture and socialising with NS. In the oldest group, where no one indicates American as their main English, all informants except one indicate having acquired their respective English through higher education. This, one might consider as explaining why British English is predominant amongst these informants, as the English taught in higher education, at the time when these were educated, was indeed British English. The one exception within the group instead names the Beatles as his source, which is in accordance with the notion that British popular culture at the time had a greater influence on Swedes than it does today, where American popular culture has come to take the throne. Within the younger groups there is a higher frequency of variation as to the means by which one English or the other was acquired, rendering the monopoly of the institutes of higher education, and thereby British English, less powerful and allowing for a higher possibility of acquiring an Americanised English.

The input produced by the teacher, when, for instance, giving instructions or presenting new topics, is but one type amongst many. Nevertheless it is of the utmost importance. Even though this aspect of input has been fairly neglected within EFL and SLA research, both Hedge (2000) and Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2013) state that it makes for a crucial input resource for EFL learners. Both *interactionally modified input* (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, pp. 67 & 214-215) and *negotiation of meaning* (Hedge, 2000, p. 57) are highly important aspects of SLA which require the oral performance of the teacher, thereby rendering the English used by the teacher an essential source for EFL input. Gass (2003) as well, in her introduction to the *Input and Interaction approach*, uplifts the importance of communication for a learner's acquisition of a new language (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 224). She continues by listing the three forms of *evidence* available to learners, with a special attention to two of the three: *positive* and *negative evidence*. We will come back to positive evidence in the following section, but negative evidence is something that is only accessible in communication, as it is the direct correction of something being said. Gass (2003) mentions two possible means of communicating incorrectness to learners: either through *implicit* or *explicit information*, that is to say by directly casting light on the error and providing the learner with the correct phrasing, or by inferring the incorrectness of the utterance in more subtle way (Doughty & Long, 2003, pp. 225-226).

Furthermore, *spoken language* is an important part of the Swedish syllabi at all levels, often in combination with the addition of: "also with different social and dialect features" (Skolverket, 2011, lvs. 5-7). The syllabus for school years seven to nine indeed states oral instructions as a major source for aural reception (Skolverket, 2011, åk. 7-9). The presentation of the 18 English teachers, active in the greater Gothenburg area, who constitute the informants of the survey conducted, declares that the aural input that the students of the above mentioned receive is primarily American, but that there is a fair equality between American and British English. However, one must not forget the challenges that the processing of such input, as any input, presents to the learners. Vanpatten (2009) points to the two process which must take place simultaneously within the learner in the confrontation with input of this kind: first the meaning needs to be understood, then the structures by which the message was communicated (Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009, p. 48).

5.2 Modified teaching materials

The set of textbooks used most frequently by the informants (2:nd appendix, table 3) is “*Short Cuts*”, a set consisting of a work- and textbook, teaching materials and an audio aid. The series, which is especially designed for the upper secondary level, presents the students with both American and British English in spelling, grammar and pronunciation alike. Other series used by the informants are “*Blueprint*”, “*Solid Ground*”, “*Wings*”, “*Good Stuff*”, “*HAPPY*”, “*Streams in Literature*” and “*Master Plan*”. Most informants in all age groups consider the set/s they use to present both American and British English, thereby providing their students with input from both Englishes (figure 2, below). Amongst the remaining informants, most indicate their teaching materials as representations of solely British English, which was the second most common answer in all age categories as well.



These results indicate what could be considered as a counterbalance to the one presented in the previous section, with most learners receiving primarily British English input, either in combination with American English or not, through their textbooks, whereas their aural input is primarily American English. Whether the textbooks used by the participating teachers indeed do present the English listed by the informants, however, cannot be certified as not one of these series, with the exception of “*Short Cuts*”, actually indicates which English is used as their foundation on their respective websites. This could be considered as a lack of consciousness amongst the publishers of the before mentioned textbook series so as to what English is being used, further urging the need for explicit research being made on the subject at hand.

There are, however, teachers that prefer to be independent of textbook-sets, despite the advantages, such as methodological support for the teacher and clarity for the learner (McGrath,

2013, pp. 5-6) these are generally considered to present. Amongst the informants of the survey, three are representative of this group. They have actively chosen not to use conventional textbooks and rather create their own materials, often *unmodified*. They are, consequently, the only informants who consider their materials as representing a wider range of Englishes from both the *inner* and *outer circle*, including South African English, Indian English and Australian English and their students, therefore, receive a more various input. The percentage of teachers not using a textbook, however, was relatively small and the importance of the input the learners have access to through explicit teaching materials remains high.

Teaching materials, according to McGrath (2013), can be divided into three main categories, where *textbooks* constitute one of them. The term includes the textbooks per se, but these are often accompanied by workbooks, teacher's notes, technological aids et cetera, all of which are materials especially designed for teaching (McGrath, 2013, pp. 2-3). According to Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2013), the term *modified* is therefore applicable. Gass (2003) in her presentation of two of the three types of *evidence* explains that *positive evidence* "refers to the input and basically comprises the set of well-formed sentences to which learners are exposed." (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 225), which means that it encompasses both spoken and written language. She further divides positive evidence into *authentic* or *modified*, thereafter categorising modified positive evidence as either simplified or elaborated (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 226). The importance of textbooks as a source for input is widely recognised and therefore merits a survey of its own³ equivalent to the one here presented, but with modified teaching materials as its sole target. Nevertheless, one cannot conduct a survey on the general input for a certain group of EFL learners without including textbooks as a source, notwithstanding the fact that there are teachers that do not use textbooks at all.

5.3 Unmodified teaching materials

Only six of the 18 informants have used *specific* titles of fictional literature with their students over the past year, whereas the others have let their students choose all fictional literature for themselves. Amongst the participating teachers, primarily the older, more experienced teachers rely on their students' own choices, with the exception of two American works. However, the youngest informants all let their students choose entirely for themselves what fictional literature to read, therefore one cannot conclude any distinct differences according to

3. For further reading on the importance of textbooks, see McGrath (2013)

age in the preferences of teachers' versus students' choice. Rather, the two age groups in the middle are the ones to rely most on their own choices of literature in the EFL classroom, both of American and British origin, which could be considered an indication that preferences whether to decide what literature students ought to read or not is a form of trend, where popularity shifts back and forth. The list (2:nd appendix 1.2, table 4) of literature that has been used as obligatory reading in the past for the students by the six teachers who have answered the here analysed question in the affirmative, consists of an nearly equal number of American and British literature, but also two Canadian works. This means that the literary input received by the students through these obligatory works is equally British and American, but the representation of other Englishes has been rather limited.

Amongst the works suggested by the students (2:nd appendix, table 5) of the informants there was a lot less variety. The majority of the participating English teachers gave either the “*Twilight*” series or the “*Hunger Games*” series, or both, as examples of popular titles. In other words, the distinctively most popular works of literature amongst the students are in American English. The “*Harry Potter*” series was the only British one given as example by an informant, rendering it equally represented as the American series “*Gossip Girl*”. A few classical works, both American and British, were also presented by one sole informant. Given the data provided, it can be considered a valid conclusion that American literature is vastly more popular than British literature amongst the students of the 18 English teachers who have participated in the survey.

Whereas not many informants have used obligatory literature with their students over the past year, there is a higher tendency amongst the same to use movies chosen by the teachers themselves. Amongst the titles listed (2:nd appendix, table 6) by the informants, the majority are in American English and only half as many in British English. A full quarter of the movies listed, however, are representative of another *inner* or *outer circle* English, such as Indian English, South African English or Maori American English. Contrary to the matter of literature, there have indeed been very few suggestions by the teachers' students of movies (2:nd appendix, table 7) to watch in the EFL classroom, but those that have been presented are representative of either American or Australian English, ergo no suggestions have been made for British films by the students. The second source of aural input the informants were questioned on is music. This, however, would appear to be a less used source for presentation of an English or Englishes. Only 50 % of the informants have listened to music with their students in the past year, even though music, or “songs” are clearly stated as obligatory sources for aural input in the EFL classroom of Sweden, at both the secondary level,

(Skolverket, 2011, åk. 7-9) and at stage six of the upper secondary level (Skolverket, 2011, lv 6). Most commonly listened to are the “Beatles”, a British band, and “Eminem”, an American rapper. Other music listed (2:nd appendix, table 8) as examples by the informants is primarily American and no music representing another English than American or British has been heard in the EFL classrooms of the participating teachers. Furthermore, only two informants indicate having been given suggestions by their students for music to listen to in class, unfortunately without giving examples of such proposed music.

Unmodified, or *authentic*, materials are those that have not been altered for the purpose of learning and both Hedge (2000) and Herschensohn and Young-Scholten (2013) argue for the importance of such input for the EFL learner (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013, pp. 214 & 633; Hedge, 2000, p. 67). These authentic materials constitute a great opportunity for learners to engage in *implicit* language acquisition, that is to say learning for instance grammar even though grammar acquisition is not the primary objective of the exercise.

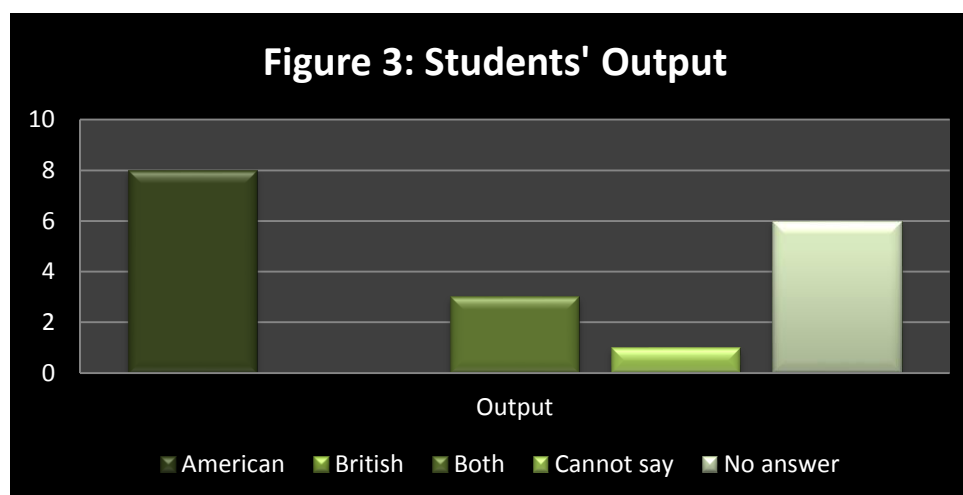
DeKeyser (2003) upholds that it has indeed been argued that “implicit learning is particularly advantageous for complex structures.” (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 331). *Incidental* learning, as well, is favoured by reading – as well as listening – activities. There are similarities between the concepts of *implicit* and *incidental* learning, but they are not synonyms. Incidental learning is the rather unconscious acquisition and development of vocabulary and grammar, for instance, whilst engaged in activities focused on the interpretation of meaning not the analysis of form and structure (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 349). In the survey, therefore, the informants were also asked to answer a few questions on fictional literature, movies and music, ergo both aural and visual reception. Fictional literature is an obligatory resource for EFL in Sweden at all the levels here presented (Skolverket, 2011, åk. 7-9 & lvs 5-7), as are cinematic productions at the Secondary Level (Skolverket, 2011, åk. 7-9). Dramatic productions, however, constitute a primary source for aural input at nearly all of these levels (Skolverket, 2011, åk. 7-9 & lvs 6-7), as does music to a certain extent. These various types of media, therefore, ought to be given a prominent role within the EFL classroom of Sweden today.

5.4 Students’ input and output

In summary, it can be concluded that the students of the 18 English teachers who chose to participate in the survey are primarily exposed to American input, even though this appears to be to some extent dependant on the teacher’s age. The older informants are the only ones to

consider their respective English as primarily British and there is a slightly higher frequency of British materials used within this group, with the exception of literary works. The youngest informants are the ones who show the highest level of variation within the group, nevertheless with a constant inclination toward American English. This is also the group mostly represented in the survey, as 50 % of the informants belong to this youngest group, which is likely to have affected the result.

In the final section of the questionnaire the informants analysed the *output* of, or the language produced by, the students. The English most commonly (figure 3, below) used by the students, according to the teachers, is American English. A few informants, however, indicate a tendency amongst their students to use both Englishes, without preference to one or the other. However, not one informant considers their students to use primarily British English, which could be considered a confirmation of the general notion that students today show a greater preference or capability of American English.



The vast majority of the informants recognise their students' English primarily (2:nd appendix, figure 9) through pronunciation, but many also distinguish certain currents in vocabulary, spelling and idiomatic expressions.

Output is a widely recognised aspect of SLA, known as a “component that has been argued to be required for successful second language learning” (Doughty & Long, 2003, p. 227). Gass (2003) claims that it is but in the production of output that a learner moves from a semantic to a syntactic use of the target language (Doughty & Long, 2003, p.227). In terms of evaluation, a thorough analysis of the learners' output is needed. As learners are most likely to possess of both *explicit* and *implicit* language knowledge, that is to say linguistic features of which they are both aware and unaware (Doughty & Long, 2003, IIII), it can be very challenging for a teacher, as well as the learners themselves, to grasp the full extent of the

students' acquired knowledge. De Jong (2009) explains that "implicit knowledge is difficult to assess for the very reason that the learners are not aware of their knowledge." (Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009, p. 96). Furthermore, a research conducted by de Jong shows that *production* can indeed be considered necessary, or at least beneficial, to the development of accuracy for language learners (Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009, pp. 111-114).

6. Summary & Conclusions

This final chapter of the essay will provide a short summary of the general implications of the preliminaries (6.1) and then present the conclusions that can be drawn in regards to the primary hypothesis, “it is expected that the learners of the 18 informants are exposed to primarily *British* English input”, (6.2) and the two secondary hypotheses, “it is expected that the usage of *American* English increases at the same rate that the age of the informants decreases” and “it is expected that the learners of the 18 informants will use primarily *American* English”, (6.3) to fulfil the aims of the survey conducted: “to establish to what extent which English is present in the input available to the students of the informants and to investigate whether there are any differences in the availability of these in relation to a) the age of the teacher and b) the source of the input“. One needs to keep in mind in reading the following chapter that the conclusions drawn are not to be considered a *closure* to the research, but an *overture* to the multitude of possibilities the field is enriched by.

6.1 Summary and implications of preliminaries

The informants of the survey were primarily young, recently educated upper secondary teachers, specialised in languages. This combination is most likely to have affected the results in multiple ways. Young teachers, and teachers who have not yet had a long experience within their profession, are likely to be either very energetic to try rather unconventional methods or scared to fly on their own, meaning that chances were high of results being extreme. Furthermore, one might expect more awareness of the multitude of Englishes that this world has to offer from the younger generations, but an unawareness, or insecurity, of their own usage of the English language. Most importantly, however, the high representation of young teachers automatically rendered the hypothesis and one of the secondary hypotheses mutually exclusive: if the young informants do indeed tend to have an Americanised accent, then one would expect the overall result to be that more American than British English input is given in the EFL classrooms of the participating teachers, thereby refuting the primary hypothesis that British English would be the most frequently used. This predicament casts an even more interesting light on the survey and its results, opening one’s eyes to the multitude of possibilities of the field – much extensive and thorough research is needed to gain insight on and perceive an image of what is the very core of Swedish EFL teaching: *what* English the students learn.

6.2 Summary and conclusions of primary hypothesis

When analysing the Englishes used by the teachers themselves, a rich and layered imagery presented itself. According to the predicament of the previous paragraph, one would expect either the primary hypothesis or the first secondary hypothesis to be proven valid, not both. The primary one was indeed refuted directly in regards the input produced by the teachers themselves, as there was a slightly higher percentage of American than British English being used by the informants. Nevertheless, the quotations by those that considered themselves to speak both Englishes hinted at there being an underlying sense of British prestige within EFL. This would then reinforce the notion of there having been a British supremacy in Swedish EFL classrooms, but that this supremacy is slowly losing its foothold.

The teaching materials, however, appear to present the students of the informants with a slightly higher frequency of British English than American English. This was a general trend within all age categories. Even though the question remains whether the teachers own interpretations of the English/es used in the textbooks are indeed correct, the tendency amongst all age groups to respond primarily by saying their respective books present *both* Englishes, is rather surprising. One wonders whether this is actually the case, or whether this is what the informants expect from their teaching materials. The general picture shows that American is the preferred *accent* for most informants, whereas textbooks use primarily British English. An extensive survey on the matter would be of the utmost importance to the research community, so as to establish teachers' own opinions on teaching materials and themselves. Is American the more modern English to speak, a reason for them to consider themselves to do so in comparison to the perhaps stiff textbooks? Is the distinction between their own usage and that of the published materials a disidentification of the EFL norm? Lastly, one also needs to take into account the fact that as most informants are professionally active at the upper secondary level, most textbooks used by them have been designed for that same level. One must therefore ask oneself to what extent this has influenced the result. Is one English or the other more common on different educational levels? Again, this is something which ought to be thoroughly researched for the benefit of Swedish EFL.

In general, therefore, the students of the informants tend to get more aural American English input, more textual British English input from their textbooks and equally British and American English input from literature. This, however, is only applicable to those students

whose teachers choose literature for them to read, that is to say primarily those informants who are 31-50 years old and speak nearly exclusively American English. Therefore, one might argue that these students do get a healthy variation of Englishes, including many other variations through their fictional literature, even though one is aural and the other visual. The oldest and youngest informants, with the exception of one, on the other hand, let their students choose fictional literature for themselves. Consequently, the literature these students read is nearly exclusively American and there is less of a balance in their input. To what extent can this be seen as positive or negative for these students? And what influence does this slightly higher representation of American English have on their own output? Questions arise on to what extent it is preferable to give students their autonomy or to ensure variation of the linguistic nature of their input. Should teachers counterbalance the preferences of their students? Or should they adapt and conform to their partialities? Does it really matter what English they read, so long as they read?

The very same questions can be asked in relation to music and film. Here, however, the representation of British English was even less, but there was a higher frequency of other Englishes. Is this better or ought one preserve primarily the British influence? Evidently, Hollywood is of utmost importance in this analysis. The U.S. has a much higher frequency of movie production than Britain, which is why it is only natural that it should be more popular and accessible. Nevertheless, the question remains as to whether teachers ought to heed their students' preferences or counterbalance them. The obvious answer would appear to be "a little bit of both". A teacher needs to take the students' wishes into account so as not to lose their interest, but they have a certain level of professionalism to rely on when making decisions on what would be most advantageous for their EFL evolution. Furthermore, it could be of great pleasure to both students and teachers alike to use more music as well. As always within teaching, variation is key.

In conclusion, the primary hypothesis of the study was *refuted*, as *American* and not British English is a more common source of input in the EFL classrooms of the informants, but there does appear to be variation to a certain extent. Both American and British English are presented, even though there are some differences so as to when and with whom one or the other is more frequent.

6.3 Summary and conclusions of secondary hypotheses

British English is indeed, in accordance to the first secondary hypothesis, most commonly used by the oldest informants. However, the group with the second highest representation of British English was the youngest one, thereby refuting the secondary hypothesis as well as the primary one in regards to the first result category: input produced by the informants. In the two middle groups, British English is hardly spoken at all by the teachers. This may be due to a multitude of factors, but the most obvious one in this study is that none of the informants from the age groups in the middle indicated having acquired their English through higher education, thereby rendering the monopoly of the English used at universities in Sweden, which has traditionally been British English, futile. The oldest informants, however, did not have the same access to American English as did their younger colleagues, as even popular culture in their youth was more influenced by Britain than it is today. In addition to the monotony of higher EFL education at the time, the predominance of British within the group is rather unsurprising; the true variety is within the youngest group. Granted, it was by far the most represented group and therefore a higher variation is to be expected. Furthermore, their sources of acquisition were diverse and a general sense of personal preferences, rather than monopoly, is presented by these informants. Consequently, one cannot help but notice that there are indications of a shift taking place. British English is more common with older rather than younger teachers and in textbooks rather than fictional literature, rendering the first secondary hypothesis proven *partially true*, but most importantly American is by far the most popular English to the *students*, which means that the second secondary hypothesis was *confirmed* – and decisively so.

These final results of the students' output could possibly be analysed in two ways. The first possible conclusion considers the students' output as a preferable guidance for the teachers. As the students, according to their teachers, have shown a preference for American, rather than British, English, it could be argued that the teachers should acquiesce to the apparent desire of their students and use primarily American English input. This would then be a possible explanation for the overall compatible preferences of the students and their teachers. According to this potential analysis, the teachers conform to the general tendencies of their students. The second conceivable conclusion of the relationship between student output and the input they receive is one where the teachers' apparent preferences of American English, both for themselves and the materials used, influences the students to produce a higher frequency of American English. It would, should this be the case, only be natural that the slightly increased rate of occurrence of American English input, in comparison to British

English input, should influence the EFL learners to produce a more American, or Americanised, English. Therefore, as a conclusion, one cannot help but ask oneself: what is the relation between American dominance with the students and a noticeable Americanisation with the teachers? Do the latter adapt to the preferences of the former? Or is the increasing frequency of American input, in addition to the rapid increase of American popular culture in today's society, the reason why the students have been Americanised? Either way, according to the results of this case study, the Swedish EFL classrooms, once dominated by a British monopoly, is getting more and more Americanised.

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1. Appendix

The questionnaire

The questionnaire, which was available to the informants via *Survey Monkey*, was constituted of the following questions. Introduction and final thanks also included.

Introduction:

Dear English teachers,

I am a teacher trainee at the University of Gothenburg, specialising in English and French.

The following survey focuses on the usage of American and/or British English in the classroom and is therefore directed at English teachers only. Your answers will be used completely anonymously as data in my bachelor's degree essay project (a so-called 'C-essay'). In this survey, I use the term dialect in the sense of a language variant associated with the speech of one of the major geographical areas of the English-speaking world, i.e.

American or British. This sense of dialect includes all aspects of language such as accent, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, etc.

The questions marked by an asterisk are the ones that demand an answer.

Thank you for your time!

1. Gender:

Female / Male

2. Age:

20-30 / 31-40 / 41-50 / 51-65

3. Active years in teaching profession:

>1 / 1-3 / 3-5 / 5-10 / 10-20 / 20<

4. Level(s) taught in the past year (multiple answers possible):

Elementary / Secondary / Upper Secondary / Other (please specify)

5. Subject(s) taught, apart from English (multiple answers possible):

Swedish / German / French / Spanish / Mathematics / Sciences / Social Sciences / Music / Arts / Physical Education / Other (please specify)

6. Geographical area of workplace (eg. "Askim, Göteborg" or "Majorna, Göteborg")

7. What dialect of English do you consider yourself to have?

British / American / Cannot say / Other (please specify)

8. Where did you acquire this dialect?

Native speaker / Higher education / Studies abroad / Work abroad / Other (please specify)

9. What set of text- and workbooks have you primarily used in the past year (multiple answers possible)?:

Solid Ground / Wings / Piece of Cake / What's Up? / Good Stuff / Just Stuff / Right On! / Short Cuts / Blueprint / Other (please specify)

10. Which dialect(s) are these based on / supposed to reflect?

British English / American English / Both / Do not know / Other (*please specify*)

11. What fictional literature have you used with your students in the past year? If none, please write "none".

12. In the past year, what fictional literature has been popular amongst your students when they choose for themselves? Please give examples.

13. What movies have you watched with your students in the past year? If none, please write "none".

14. In the past year, what have been popular suggestions for movies by your students? Please give examples.

15. What music have you listened to with your students in the past year? If none, please write "none".

16. In the past year, what have been popular suggestions for music by your students? Please give examples.

17. Which dialect would you say that your students are most likely to use?

British English / American English / Both / Cannot say / Other (*please specify*)

18. How are tendencies towards a specific dialect most commonly shown with your students (*multiple answers possible*)?

Vocabulary / Pronunciation / Spelling / Idiomatic expressions / Cannot say / Other (*please specify*)

Final thanks:

Thank you so very much for your time! Your participation here will be of great help to me in the writing of my degree essay project and I assure you once again that all your answers will be 100% anonymous.

Have a pleasant day!

Sincerely,

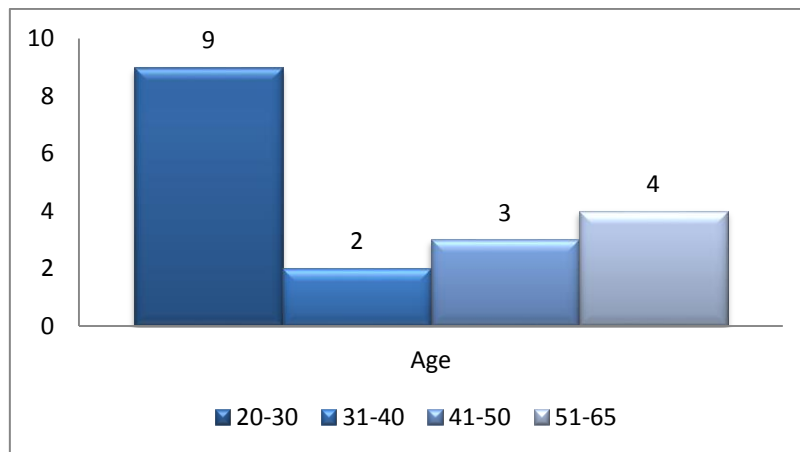
/Anna :)

2. Appendix

Figures and tables

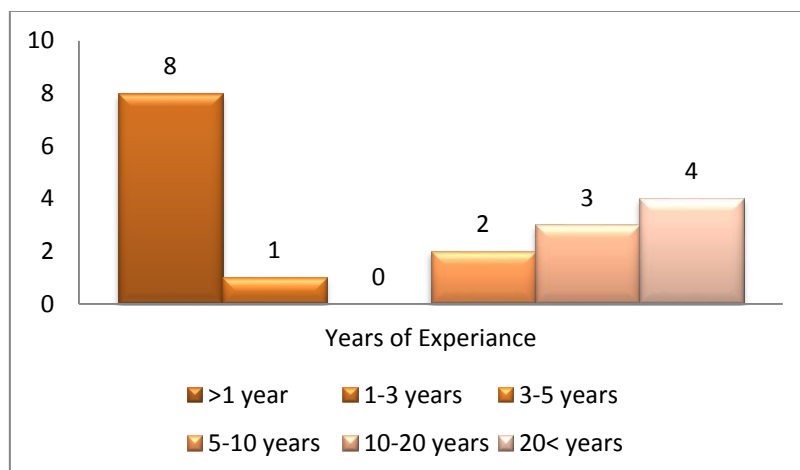
These figures and tables are complementary to those presented in the result chapter (chapter 5) and were found supportive, but not essential, to the understanding of the analyses presented.

Figure 4: Ages of the informants



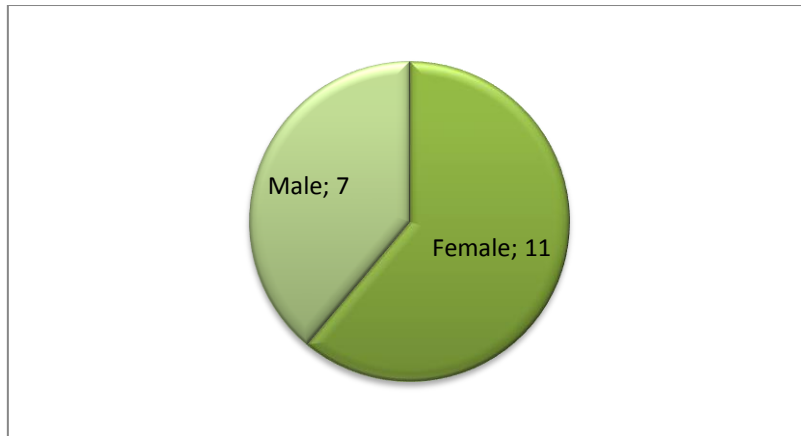
This chart shows how many of the 18 informants are representative of each age group. The numbers shown are the number of informants within each group.

Figure 5: Years of experience



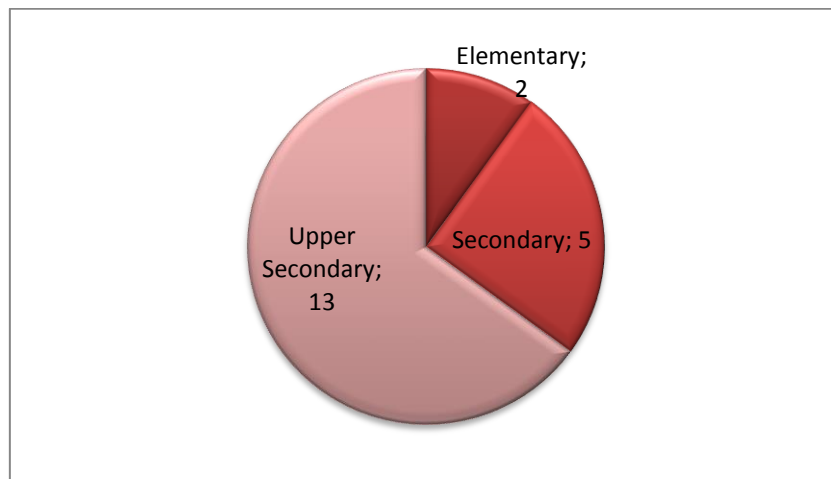
This chart shows how many years the informants have been active within the teaching profession. The numbers shown are the number of informants within each group.

Figure 6: Gender representation



This chart shows to what extent the informants are male or female teachers. The numbers shown are the number of informants within each group.

Figure 7: Educational level of informants' learners



This chart shows to what extent the informants are currently working at the respective educational levels. The numbers shown are the number of informants within each group.

Table 1: Informants' second subjects

Subject	Number of informants
Swedish	8
No answer	3
Social Sciences	2
French	1
German	1
Mathematics	1
Music	1
Religious Studies	1
Spanish	1

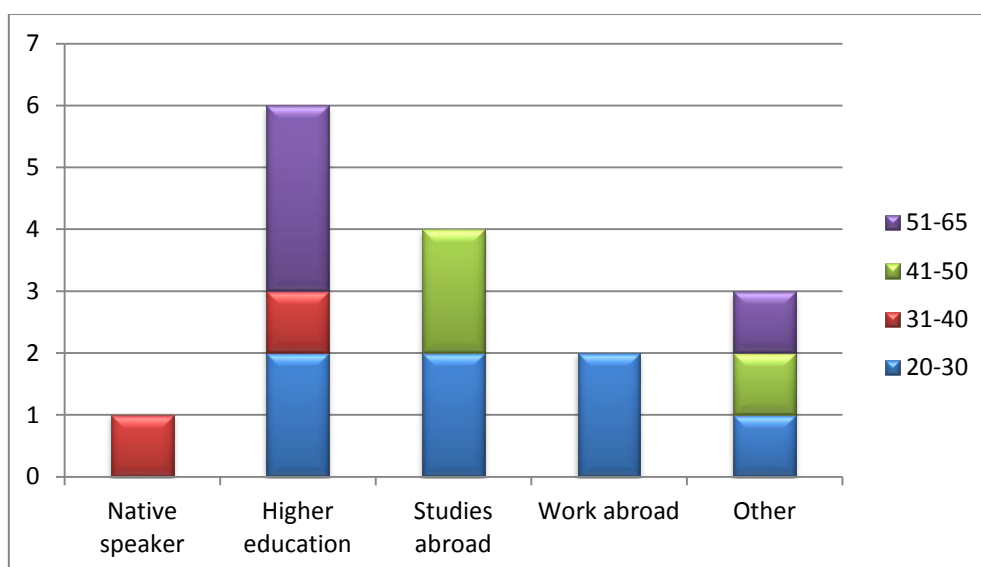
This table shows what the informants' second subjects are. The numbers to the right are the number of informants within each group. The answers have been sorted primarily according to frequency and secondarily in alphabetical order.

Table 2: Geographical areas of the informants' workplaces

Area	Number of informants
City Centre, Göteborg	7
No answer	4
Angered, Göteborg	2
Floda, Lerum	2
Kungälv	1
Uddevalla	1
Varberg	1

This table shows where the schools constituting the informants' workplaces are situated. The numbers to the right represent to what extent each area is represented by the informants. The answers have been sorted primarily according to frequency and secondarily in alphabetical order.

Figure 8: Means of acquisition according to age



This chart shows what the informants' find to be their respective means of acquisition of a certain English. The age groups are represented by different colours so as to show to what extent the representatives of the various groups answered the question (number 8) with each respective alternative.

Table 3: Textbooks used

Textbook	Number of informants
<i>Short Cuts</i>	7
<i>Blueprint</i>	4
No textbook	3
<i>Good Stuff</i>	2
No answer	2
<i>Solid Ground</i>	2
<i>Wings</i>	2
<i>HAPPY</i>	1
<i>Master Plan</i>	1
<i>Streams in Literature</i>	1

This table shows what sets of modified teaching materials the informants use. The numbers to the right are the number of informants that use each respective set. The answers have been sorted primarily according to frequency and secondarily in alphabetical order.

Table 4: Fictional literature used by teachers

American English	British English	Canadian English
<i>The Call of the Wild</i>	<i>About a Boy</i>	<i>A Handmaid's Tale</i>
<i>Hanging on to Max</i>	<i>Animal Farm</i>	<i>Life of Pi</i>
<i>Jonathan Livingston Seagull</i>	<i>Before I Die</i>	
<i>The Things They Carried</i>	<i>Bridget Jones' Diary</i>	
<i>What's Eating Gilbert Grape?</i>	<i>Haroun and the Sea of Stories</i>	
<i>When She Woke</i>	<i>Pride and Prejudice</i>	

This table lists the fictional literary works the informants have used with their students in the past year. The titles are sorted according to English and within each category in alphabetical order.

Table 5: Literature suggested by students

Title	English	Number of times suggested
<i>Hunger Games series</i>	American	6
<i>Twilight series</i>	American	6
<i>1984</i>	British	1
<i>Animal Farm</i>	British	1
<i>The Client</i>	American	1
<i>The Firm</i>	American	1
<i>Gladiator</i>	American	1
<i>The Godfather</i>	American	1
<i>Gossip Girl series</i>	American	1
<i>The Great Gatsby</i>	American	1
<i>Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows</i>	British	1
<i>Of Mice and Men</i>	American	1
<i>The Old Man and the Sea</i>	American	1

This table lists the titles that have been popular amongst the informants' students in the past year. In the middle column one can see what English each title represents and the numbers to the right are the number of times each title was given as example by the informants. The titles are sorted primarily by frequency and secondarily in alphabetical order.

Table 6: Movies used by teachers

Title	English
<i>About a Boy</i>	British
<i>Alice in Wonderland</i>	American
<i>Australia</i>	Australian
<i>Beowulf</i>	British
<i>The Boondock Saints</i>	American
<i>Bowling for Columbine</i>	American
<i>The Dead Zone</i>	American
<i>Equilibrium</i>	American
<i>Head Over Heels</i>	American
<i>King Arthur</i>	British
<i>Life of Pi</i>	Indian
<i>The Man Who Planted Trees</i>	Canadian
<i>Moll Flanders</i>	American
<i>Monsoon Wedding</i>	Indian
<i>Oliver Twist</i>	British
<i>One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest</i>	American
<i>Platoon</i>	American
<i>Romeo & Juliet</i>	British
<i>Searching for Sugar Man</i>	South African
<i>Slumdog Millionaire</i>	Indian
<i>Surviving Christmas</i>	American
<i>This Is England</i>	British
<i>Trust</i>	American
<i>Whale Rider</i>	Maori
<i>What's Eating Gilbert Grape</i>	American
<i>Whisky Galore!</i>	Scottish

This table lists the movies the informants have used with their students in the past year. To the right one can see what English is mainly being spoken in each film. The titles are presented alphabetically.

Table 7: Movies suggested by students

Title	English
<i>Australia</i>	Australian
<i>Lord of the Rings</i>	American
<i>Moll Flanders</i>	American
<i>Ned Kelly</i>	Australian
<i>One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest</i>	American
<i>Pass it Forward</i>	American

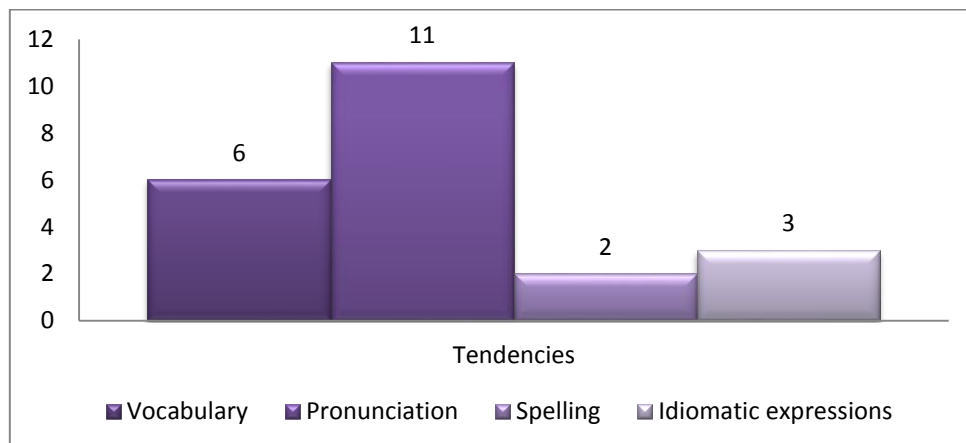
This table lists the movies that have been suggested by the informants' students in the past year. To the right one can see what English is primarily being spoken in each film. The titles are presented alphabetically.

Table 8: Music used by the teachers

Artist/Title	English
Beatles	British
Bill Withers	American
Eminem	American
"Ghost Busters"	American
Rachmaninov	<i>Instrumental</i>
Sting	American
U2	British

This table lists the music that the informants gave as examples on question 15. The name is either that of an artist or that of a specific song (titles given within quotation marks), depending on what the informant wrote on the questionnaire. To the right one can see which English is represented by each respective artist or title. The answers are presented alphabetically.

Figure 9: Tendencies in students' output



This chart shows how the informants consider the tendencies towards one or the other English to be discernible with their students. The numbers are the number of times each alternative was given as answer in the survey.