Teen Language: ‘Ikke si “joine” det er cringe’

A Sociolinguistic Study of Norwegian Teenagers’ Use of English in Written Computer-Mediated Communication

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Abstract in Norwegian

I denne masteroppgaven har det blitt forsket på norske tenåringers bruk av engelsk i skriftlig, datamediert kommunikasjon. Det er en sosiolingvistisk studie som sentrerer seg rundt innflytelsen det engelske språket har på ungdommers skriftlige kommunikasjon i en ellers norsk kontekst, og den tar for seg hvordan engelske ord og fraser brukes og behandles av norske tenåringer. Oppgaven omhandler altså både hyppigheten i bruk av engelsk samt en mer dyptgående leksikalsk og morfologisk analyse av tenåringenes bruk av engelske ord og uttrykk. Resultatene ses i lys av de sosiale variablene kjønn og alder, og analyserer om det er forskjeller i bruken av engelsk basert på variablene *gutter* og *jenter* samt *yngre* (12-13 år) og *eldre* tenåringer (18-19 år).

For å finne ut hvor mye engelsk og hvilke engelske ord og fraser som blir brukt av norske tenåringer, har jeg samlet inn data ved hjelp av spørreskjema og fiktive meldinger. Spørreskjemaet omhandler tenåringenes kommunikasjonsvaner og generelle bruk av engelsk i skriftlig kommunikasjon via mobiltelefon og/eller datamaskin, mens de fiktive meldingene består av 11 ulike meldinger skrevet av undertegnede som deltakerne ble spurt om å svare på. Det var opprinnelig planlagt at deltakerne skulle sende inn egne, private meldinger, men grunnet ulike utfordringer ble analysen basert på deltakernes svar på spørreskjemaet og de fiktive meldingene.

Funnene fra oppgaven viste at tenåringenes bruk av engelsk var på langt nær så omfattende og hyppig som opprinnelig antatt. Videre viste resultatene at det var små men merkverdige forskjeller mellom kjønnene, hvor tenåringsguttene produserte en liten prosentandel mer engelsk enn jentene. Dette var også tilfellet for de to aldersgruppene, hvor de eldre deltakerne brukte noe mer engelsk enn de yngre deltakerne. Deltakernes bruk av engelsk deles i oppgaven inn i enkeltord og fraser, og resultatene viste at produksjonen av engelske enkeltord var høyere enn produksjonen av fraser. Videre viste funnene at de engelske enkeltordene, til sammenligning med fraser, ble betraktelig hyppigere utsatt for ulike morfologiske orddanningsprosesser og norsk bøying, samt hyppigere tilegnet karakteristiske former funnet i datamediert kommunikasjon. Ordgruppen med høyest frekvens i oppgaven var engelske forkortelser og akronymer.

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Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

1. Introduction

1.1. Aim and scope

The era of new technology and the advancements of computer-mediated communication has undoubtedly revolutionized the way people communicate with each other in the 21st century. With increased use of technology in areas of spoken and written communication, various communicational platforms have been embraced by smartphone and computer users rather eagerly. As a consequence of this, a great deal of human interaction is now done via cellphones and computers, and especially so amongst the younger generations. Computer-mediated communication was originally thought of as 'communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers' (Herring 1996:1), but the term has been broadened with the expansion of new and innovative technology. This has given rise to new definitions of computer-mediated communication, such as it being a 'text-based human-human interaction mediated by networked computers or mobile telephony' (Herring 2007:1) or 'the kind of language used when people talk to each other using electronic means' (Crystal 2008:178).

What started with the development of the short-message service (SMS), where people were able to send messages that could contain up to 140 characters, has developed into various applications that let their users send instant messages with optional length to their chosen recipients. Thus, apart from the original text message option, younger generations now communicate through a great variety of applications on their smartphones, such as Snapchat, Facebook Messenger, Instagram and WhatsApp – just to mention a few. The majority of Norwegian teenagers are, not unlike teenagers in many other countries, great supporters of these applications. According to a survey conducted by Norwegian Media Authority, where Norwegian children and teenager's media habits and experiences were investigated, the majority of Norwegian children and teenagers between the ages of nine and 18 have access to a cellphone, and 95% of them own a smartphone (2018:2). Additionally, a total of 89% of the participants in the survey in the age groups nine to 18 claimed to use one or more social media, and as many as 81% of them stated that they use Snapchat on a regular basis, followed by

Instagram and Facebook (Norwegian Media Authority 2018:52–53). Hence, social media has become a large part of teenagers' daily lives, and electronic communication has become a common area of interaction.

Language has simultaneously been affected by the rise of new technology, and these new areas of communication have given teenagers opportunities to play with, create and recreate language that contains slang and internal forms of interaction (Ling 2010:278). Hence, teenagers and young adults have been and continue to be important contributors to the development of a language best suited for electronic communication, and this has provided teenagers with a new way of exploring language and playing with words and expressions in their written communication. Consequently, a creative use of text-based communication that in many cases falls outside of standard spelling and grammar has been created.

Furthermore, English is viewed as an important language in global computer-mediated communication, both with native speakers of English and in countries where English is not an official language. Thus, English has enjoyed and continues to enjoy a privileged position within computer-mediated communication (Squires 2016a:3). Likewise, English is regarded as an important language in Norwegian academia and business, and Norwegians start learning English early on in primary school. In addition to this, English words and expressions have been imported into the Norwegian language for decades, and it has commonly been reported that Norwegians, and especially Norwegian teenagers, make use of an extensive amount of English in their spoken and written communication. As a result, concerns have been spreading that the import of English words are a threat to the Norwegian language (Hasund 2006:10).

The present study is concerned with Norwegian teenagers' use of English in written computer-mediated communication. Although there are modes of computer-mediated communication that are not text-based, such as video and voice communication, this thesis will adhere to text-based computer-mediated communication only. The study will analyze teenagers' use of English both in relation to calculations of frequencies and the content they produce, and the findings will be examined with respect to the social variables *gender* and *age*. Additionally, contexts where English is used and why Norwegian teenagers themselves choose to use it in their written computer-mediated communication will be discussed.

The topic was chosen on the basis of personal interests, timeliness, and relevance for my future profession. As a teacher in training, I find it important to acquire a greater understanding of teen language, i.e. how teenagers communicate and interact with each other, and what words and expressions they use. Additionally, as a language student, I find it interesting to examine how languages influence each other and thus transform over time. Furthermore, the topic of the present thesis will provide me with an overview of the communication platforms preferred by teenagers as well as their awareness of language development and their motivations behind language production. Being able to speak their language will better enable me to understand and connect with my future pupils. Moreover, although it is a highly relevant topic in modern, technological days, the focus on language in electronic communication and the import of English words into Norwegian teenagers' computer-mediated communication is in many cases based on hearsay and speculations. While research exists within this field, the majority is either based on the teenagers' own assumptions (Forskningskampanjen 2014), or with a focus on how this relates exclusively to theories on code-switching (Grøvli 2013).[1] Thus, there is a need for more research on Norwegian teenagers' use of English with a main focus on electronic and written communication.

1.2 Thesis structure

This thesis is divided into five chapters, in addition to a reference list and appendices. Chapter two provides the reader with relevant and theoretical background information related to the current study, in addition to presenting the hypotheses. Furthermore, Chapter three takes on the methodological aspects of the thesis, presenting and discussing the choices that were made to gather sufficient data material for the study. Then results are presented, analyzed, and discussed in Chapter four, which includes both intriguing and relevant findings from the data, in addition to statistical testing of the hypotheses that are introduced in Chapter two. Lastly, Chapter five concludes the thesis by summing up the findings, as well as providing concluding remarks and ideas for further research.

[1] A further elaboration on these research studies will be presented in Section 2.5.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 Sociolinguistics and language change

Sociolinguistics is concerned with language as a social and cultural phenomenon (Trudgill 2000:21), and it is centered around the social uses of language (Chambers 2002:2). This means that language is seen through the lens of both social and cultural factors affecting language and language change. Language variation and change and its social significance has been a common research area since the 1970s, and it includes some of the most piercing discoveries of the structures and functions of human language (Chambers 2002:1). Likewise, the interest in teen language as a research field has been growing since the 1970s (Hasund 2006:12), and it continues to be a hot topic in various research studies today.

Language change is inevitable, and this has been a continual discussion for a long time. As German philosopher-linguist Wilhelm von Humboldt noted in 1836: 'There can never be a moment of true standstill in language, just as little as the ceaseless flaming thought of men. By nature it is a continuous process of development' (cited in Aitchison 2001:3). Languages, then, gradually change over time. Although this is unavoidable, many people still condemn and resent language change, stating that alterations in a language are due to negligence, ignorance, or sloppiness (Aitchison 2001:4). This is also evident in Norway, where English is regarded as an important language in academia and business. English words and expressions frequently find their way into the Norwegian language, and a typical perception of this is that they are a threat to the Norwegian language (Hasund 2006:10).

Chambers (2002:7) highlights that age and gender are two major social factors that influence our behavior and the way we speak. Teenagers tend to be more positive to changes and alterations than the older generations, and they are often regarded as being creative and innovative in their use of language – picking up and spreading words and expressions faster than any other group in society (Hasund 2006:24). Furthermore, societies are changing. The focus on youth is growing with extensive geographic, social, and occupational mobility, and in addition to the new types of communication that have emerged and continue to emerge, the types of contact young people have on a daily basis are continually changing (Tagliamonte 2016:2). These sociocultural changes

might have added to the impact of teenagers as the leaders of language change, and Tagliamonte (2016:2–3) highlights the fact that children and adolescents are the centerpieces of linguistic innovation and therefore key figures to analyze when it comes to examining what is changing in language and where language is headed. Moreover, there is agreement among linguists that gender may affect linguistic productions (Baron 2004:401). The research has mainly been done within the field of spoken communication, and Holmes (1995:2) states that '[women] use language to establish, nurture and develop personal relationships' while men '[…] tend to see language more as a tool for obtaining and conveying information'. She furthermore claims that women, as opposed to men, focus more on how what they say affects the feelings of others (Holmes 1995:2). Baron (2004:405) also highlights that various research done on female language in written contexts show that the female language is more socially involved than the male language.

2.2 Computer-mediated communication

A place where language, and thereby language change, amongst younger generations can be observed and analyzed, is within the area of computer-mediated communication (CMC). As mentioned in the introduction of this thesis, the definitions of CMC have changed over the past decade. New and innovative technology has transformed communication and given rise to new definitions of CMC, moving it from communication that occurs through computers (Herring 1996:1) to communication mediated by networked computers or mobile telephony (Herring 2007:1). As stressed by Squires (2016a:2), no matter if communication takes place through a computer, a cellphone, or face-to-face contact: 'where there is human interaction, there is language'. Language gives social media a purpose, and it becomes a vehicle for identity development and social change (Squires 2016a:2). Tagliamonte and Denis' research on language used in Instant Messaging, which they claim is one of the most popular forms of CMC, reveals that the language used in these areas of communication echoes the same type of language variation and linguistic change commonly found in contemporary varieties of English (2008:3). Crystal also refers to the language used in CMC as *Netspeak*, stating that it is '[…] a type of language displaying features that are

unique to the Internet, […] arising out of its character as a medium which is electronic, global, and interactive' (Crystal 2006:20).

Technological advancements have brought forth the term *multimedia CMC*, which describes communication that includes audio and video in addition to written communication (Hård af Segerstad 2002:51). However, Chapter one emphasized that the current thesis will focus on text-based (or written) CMC, a term Herring and Androutsopoulos (2015:127) use to cover email, discussion forums, newsgroups, chat, blogs, microblogs and wikis. Although multimedia CMC is an intriguing area to investigate, it is beyond the scope of this thesis.

2.2.1 English as a global and technological language

English has become a prevalent language used for communicational purposes between speakers of different languages all around the world, and its status as a global language continues to expand and evolve. It has for decades been serving as an important language in business, media, diplomacy and academia (Coats 2016:179). In addition to this, English is now also seen as an important language in global CMC, even in countries where English is not a first or official language. Hence, English has been given and continues to have a privileged position within CMC (Squires 2016a:3).

This privileged position within CMC is attested in a study done by The Gallup Organization (2011), where respondents from various EU countries were asked about their language habits online. The results showed that English was by far the most commonly reported foreign language used by the respondents in addition to their own native language when communicating electronically (The Gallup Organization 2011:15). In total, 56% of the respondents from countries belonging to the EU stated that they use English occasionally when writing on the Internet, and 43% said that they use it frequently or all the time (The Gallup Organization 2011:15). Although Norway is not a part of the EU, the survey revealed that 72% of the Swedish respondents claimed that they use English frequently or all the time when communicating online (The Gallup Organization 2011:15). Norway and Sweden are fairly similar when it comes to politics, levels of education, and welfare. Kristiansen (2005) examined attitudes to today's influence of English in the seven Nordic speech communities Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Iceland, Finland, Finland-Sweden and the Faroe Islands. The results of the

study demonstrated that, although there are some differences in Swedes' and Norwegians' attitudes to the use of English, both Swedish and Norwegian respondents are generally positive to the use of English (Kristiansen 2005:167). Having this in mind when looking back at the results of the study done by The Gallup Organization (2011), it might give an indication that Norwegian participants would have answered somewhere around the same area as the Swedish participants if they had taken part in the study. In rankings on English-positivity, Kristiansen's study showed that Danes are the most positive, followed by Swedes, Finland-Swedes and Norwegians, before Finns, Faroese and Icelanders make up the groups that are least positive to English (Kristiansen 2005:167). Thus, even though Norwegians and Swedes show similar attitudes, there are some differences. All in all, the study shows that Swedes tend to be a bit more positive to English than Norwegians, so going back to The Gallup Organization (2011), this should be kept in mind when comparing the two countries and their use of English in electronic communication. Nevertheless, indications are given that Norwegians would follow somewhere around the same patterns as Swedes, and consequently use English rather frequently in their CMC.

2.3 Anglicisms

Anglicisms, or the process of importing lexical units from English into another language (Androutsopoulos 2012:209), stimulate language change and often make it possible to present nuances within languages that the receiving language is not able to represent to the same extent (Andersen 2006:27). This is why the use of Anglicisms can be regarded as a lexical enrichment, giving rise to new and more specific terms within a language (Andersen 2006:27). In more modern times, the Norwegian language has been influenced by English in categories such as popular culture, sports, fashion and technology. Many English words are used daily by Norwegians, whether or not there is an equivalent in Norwegian, and this is reflected in teenagers' spoken and written language. Whether someone is talking about make-up, using *foundation* or *blush*, fashion and buying a new *blazer*, or technology and getting a hand on the newest *iPhone*, English words are used by Norwegian speakers and writers in everyday life.

When it comes to English words imported into Norwegian, they can either be words that denote things or phenomena that do not exist in Norwegian, such as

smoothie or *podcast*, or words that do in fact have Norwegian alternatives, such as *loser* 'taper' or *boots* 'støvler' (Andersen 2006:27). Some words have a Norwegian equivalent, but the user frequency is low, while other Norwegian words have a relatively high user frequency but the prestige given to the English language in Norwegian society overrules this. Words that do not have an equivalent in Norwegian are often connected to newer innovations, e.g. within culture and technology, where a Norwegian vocabulary has not yet been established (Andersen 2006:27). For words that have Norwegian equivalents, however, various factors can influence the choice of using English over Norwegian. This can be due to prestige, in other words wanting to sound more intelligent, competent, or up-to-date, or it can be related to the intent to use a more innovative and playful language that typically attracts teenagers wanting to show their affiliation with a certain group (Andersen 2006:27). In some cases, it might also be related to the desire to maintain an international focus, since it is easier to reach other countries and a larger field of international research when publishing in English (Andersen 2006:27). Hence, English has impacted and continues to impact the Norwegian language to a rather large extent, and many people make use of words that originally stem from English without much hesitation. Although the Norwegian language has been importing words and phrases from English for a long time, the words that are typically introduced change depending on time and place. As technology advances, more and more communication is done electronically, and it is therefore fair to assume that new words coming into the language will be connected to these areas of communication. Thus, the process of importing English words into the Norwegian language is first and foremost visible within the lexical area, demonstrated through the use of isolated English words and expressions in the Norwegian language (Hasund 2006:53).

With regards to the role of English in teen language in Finland, Leppänen (2007:149) argues that Finnish teenagers' use of English in communication with others is characterized by creativity, originality, and appropriation, serving as a way for teenagers to construct identity and communality. Furthermore, the use of English in many European countries has become a key feature of teen language, and many researchers claim that there is a link between being a part of a youth culture and using English (Leppänen 2007:151). Going back to Kristiansen (2005:167), his results

demonstrate that Norwegians and Finns are relatively close in regard to English-positivity, making it reasonable to think that Norwegian teenagers are somewhere around the same area as Finnish teenagers is their use of English.

2.3.1 Inflectional and derivational morphology

As previously discussed, Anglicisms have found and continue to find their way into the Norwegian language. Consequently, an important question that arises is which lexical and morphological characteristics these words acquire when imported from one language to another. Inflectional morphology is the process of creating new forms of a word to show the role of the word in a sentence (Bauer 2004:55). In other words, inflections do not create new lexemes, but marks relations such as person, number, gender, possession and tense (Janda 2007:1). Andersen (2006:28) highlights that a common characteristic of words imported into Norwegian is that they tend to follow the same grammatical patterns of Norwegian inflectional morphology and use of articles as Norwegian words do. Hence, the root of the noun or verb is taken from another language, often English, while an ending from the Norwegian inflectional system is added. An example can be the noun *date* 'stevnemøte', imported from English to Norwegian, where the noun's inflection follows the Norwegian masculine noun inflection and thus becomes *date – daten* 'the date'– *dater* 'dates' – *datene* 'the dates' in Norwegian (Andersen 2006:28).

Compared to inflectional morphology, derivational morphology creates new lexemes rather than new forms of a single word (Bauer 2004:38). Affixation, which is a morphological process that can either be realized through prefixation, where an affix is added before the base, or through suffixation, which is when an affix is added after its base (Bauer 2004:87), can either be inflectional or derivational. An inflectional affix is an affix that produces a new word-form of a word from a base, whereas a derivational affix produces a new lexeme from a base (Bauer 2003:14). Prefixes are always derivational in English, whereas suffixes can be both (Bauer 2003:14). Graedler (1998:196–197) highlights in her research the Norwegian use of the suffix *–ings*, found in Norwegian words such as *rullings* 'hand-rolled cigarette', which she suggests might have English origins. She bases this on its formal elements, *-ing*, and what may have

originally been a plural *–s* together with the toneme I form[2] and the fact that it seems to have come into regular use in Norwegian after World War II (Graedler 1998:196–197). Furthermore, she stresses that the suffix can be freely combined with words from different word-classes in Norwegian, that the base element is usually Norwegian, and that the *–s*-ending has completely ceased to function as a marker of plurality (Graedler 1998:197). An example of an English word which one might say has been affected by this type of suffixation when imported to Norwegian is the gradable adverb *fuckings* 'fucking', which will be further elaborated on in section 4.2.3.7. Although Graedler's (1998) examples are Norwegian words containing this type of suffix, such as *dritings* 'dead drunk', *mornings* 'good morning', and *skjerpings* 'concentrate, improve oneself', one might think that the users are aware of it and bring it into words such as *fuckings* by analogy.

Another common word-formation process that can influence words imported into Norwegian is compounding, which can be defined as when a lexeme contains two or more bases (Bauer 2004:32). There is a difference between derivatives, which are words where the base is a compound but a derivational affix has been added, e.g. grandfatherly, and compounds which do not contain any derivational affixes, e.g. grandfather (Bauer 2004:32). In these cases, the former is not considered to be a compound, but the latter is (Bauer 2004:32). Anglicisms imported into Norwegian can either be compounded as an English unity, meaning that they consist of several English bases, e.g. *heavyrock*, or parts of the compound can be English and the other Norwegian, such as *babefaktor* (Andersen 2006:30). Compounds can either be endocentric, where the word has an internal semantic 'center' that guides speakers to find out what it means, e.g. *bedroom*, or it can be exocentric, in which no part of the word gives an indication of what it means, such as *honeymoon* (Nelson & Greenbaum 2016:273).

Furthermore, conversion is a word-formation process which can be defined as when a word that normally occurs in one word-class takes on the characteristics of a different word-class without changing its form (Bauer 2004:36). Conversion is normally done from noun to verb, verb to noun, adjective to noun, adjective to verb or verb to

[2] Most words imported from other languages to Norwegian acquire toneme I, i.e. a rising tone in pronunciation (Graedler 2002:67).

adjective (Huddleston & Pullum 2005:284). An example is the noun *game* used as a verb *game* (example taken from my own data, see Section 4.2.3.7).

Additional morphological word-formation processes include clipping, contracting, and the creation of abbreviations and acronyms. Clipping refers to the process of removing a part of a word, usually at the end, and preserving the remaining part, e.g. *celeb* from 'celebrity' (Nelson & Greenbaum 2016:273), while contractions are made by omitting letters from the middle, such as the contraction *txt* for 'text' (Crystal (2008:45). Additionally, abbreviations are seen as extreme ways of economizing language (Harley 2006:96). Nelson and Greenbaum (2016:274) divide abbreviations into the two categories *acronyms* and *abbreviations*, where acronyms are '[…] words formed by combining the initials letters or syllables of existing words to form new words. The combination is then pronounced as a single word'. Abbreviations, on the other side, are '[…] also formed by combining the initial letters of words but, in this case, the word is pronounced by spelling out each letter separately' (Nelson & Greenbaum 2016:274). Examples of the former can be *lol* 'laughing out loud', and an example of the latter is *btw* 'by the way' (examples taken from my own data, see Section 4.2.3.1). Many abbreviations are today regularly used in electronic communication, and they contribute to enhance communication by reducing time spent writing messages and space within the messages (Crystal 2008:65). This is supported by Hasund (2006:66), who claims that a distinctive feature of teenagers' CMC language is the use of abbreviations, popularly used in order to economize language. Thus, they are in many cases inserted by users to boost the communication flow (Harley 2006:97).

Other studies have however shown that written messages in electronic communication contain words of greater length than spoken communication (Tagliamonte 2016). In addition to this, Tagliamonte (2016) argues that the process of using abbreviations in CMC does not occur as frequently as people might think. She states that they tend to be cited as common characteristics of CMC because they are the most striking features found in this type of discourse, but that the user frequency is actually quite low, and much rarer in use than media often lead people to believe (Tagliamonte 2016:219). This is consistent with research done by Tagliamonte and Denis (2008:12), where their analysis of Instant Messages revealed that CMC forms, or 'characteristic IM forms', are rather infrequent and rare in use.

2.3.2 Characteristic word-forms in electronic communication

In addition to inflectional morphology and various word-formation processes affecting words both in their native language and when imported to other languages, language used in electronic communication has been characterized as having its own operations affecting spelling. David Crystal (2008) differentiates between five different features he highlights as commonly found in the electronic discourse of computer-mediated communication. These features are frequently believed to be novel and innovative, but, as will be discussed later on in this subsection, this is often not the case. However, they are striking features that in most cases create a distinction between standard and nonstandard orthography. The five features Crystal (2008) states are commonly found in electronic communication are listed below.

- pictograms and logograms
- nonstandard spellings
- shortenings
- omitted letters
- initialisms

Pictograms and logograms make up the category where single letters, numerals, and typographic symbols are used to represent words or parts of words (Crystal 2008:37). This can be the letter <u> representing the word *you*, or the number *2* representing the word *to* (Crystal 2008:37). Crystal (2008:37) stresses that this category is the most noticeable feature of text orthography. Moreover, he includes the feature *nonstandard spelling*, and states that this can be done both deliberately and unconsciously. However, the nonstandard spellings frequently found in text messages give the impression that many of the spellings are done deliberately, in other words intentionally manipulating the writing system (Crystal 2008:48). Typical examples might be *cos* or *cuz* for the word ‘because’, and *luv* for the word ‘love’. Furthermore, Crystal (2008) mentions the category named *shortenings*. Here words are shortened by omitting one of their meaningful elements, either at the beginning or at the end (Crystal 2008:50). Lastly, Crystal (2008) includes omitted letters and initialisms, where omitted letters can be separated into contractions and clippings, and initialisms often are divided into

abbreviations and acronyms. Since these categories were elaborated on in Section 2.3.1, they will not be further dealt with here.

Various studies have also examined a process called *expressive lengthening*, in other words nonstandard orthography where individual characters in a string of words are repeated several times, such as in *niiice* and *cool*, where the vowels have been extended (Coats 2016:183). Interestingly enough, research has shown that the use of longer vowel duration can make the sender sound more sensitive and emotional towards the recipient (Klatt 1976, cited in Coats 2016:202). Additionally, Lauren Squires (2016b:224) includes contractions, e.g. *wanna*, *gonna*, and *gotta*, and profanities, such as *shit*, *hell*, and *damn* in her research on linguistic forms frequently found in CMC.

Although abbreviations and other features commonly found in CMC are perceived as novel and innovative, Crystal (2008:37) points out that none of them are in fact as novel as many believe them to be. New words are in fact very rarely coined, and are even more rarely at the stage of becoming common usage in speech and writing (Harley 2006:91). Most new words are in fact created by innovative manipulations of already existing words (Harley 2006:91). This is supported by Herring (2004) and Tagliamonte (2016), who argue that abbreviations and nonstandard spellings have been used by teenagers for generations, from sending notes with encrypted messages to online chatting. Hence, as Tagliamonte (2016:207) states: '[…] not only have specific forms common in CMC existed for centuries, [but] the use of acronyms, non-standard spellings, initialisms, and other short forms have long-term precedents as well'. An example of this is the abbreviation *omg*, 'oh my God'. Apparently *omg* was detected in writing all the way back in 1917, in a letter sent from Admiral Lord Fisher to Winston Churchill during World War I (Allen 2012). Thus, despite these forms being prominent in CMC language, it can certainly be discussed whether they truly can be defined as novel and creative CMC forms, or just forms that have been moved from paper to digital areas of communication.

2.3.3 Code-switching

Despite code-switching not being the focal point of the current thesis, this section will elaborate on the process in order to better justify the choices made in relation to the categorization of English words that will be analyzed and discussed in Chapter four.

Code-switching can be defined as 'the process in which people rely simultaneously on two or more languages to communicate with each other' (Crystal 2003:164). Crystal (2003:164) states that code-switching is more likely to appear in settings where contact with other languages is routine or more common practice, and in such a way the process can in turn be an extensive force of influence on languages. Although code-switching is normally thought to occur in spoken conversation, CMC forms such as Instant Messaging or chatting are often argued to be speech-like exhibiting both formal, informal, and highly vernacular forms of communication (Tagliamonte & Denis 2008:3). This is supported by Baron (2004:401), who states that CMC forms are based on both spoken and written premises, having important resemblances to speech.

Myers-Scotton (2002:8–9) argues that what she calls *classic code-switching* entails a Matrix Language, i.e. the structural language frame, which is the language making the larger contribution during interactions, and an Embedded Language, which contributes if certain conditions are met. By this, she stresses that speakers are proficient enough in the Matrix Language to know which slots are open to Embedded Language forms (Myers-Scotton 2002:110). Thus, there is an asymmetrical relationship between the two languages, where the Matrix language is viewed as the main language creating the grammatical frame, while the Embedded Language is the participating language at times producing Embedded Language structures (Myers-Scotton 2002:9). Furthermore, code-switching can be divided into the insertion of single words in the language frame or the production of longer phrases from the Embedded Language. Whether the insertion of single words in a different language than the Matrix Language is code-switching has been greatly debated amongst researchers. While Myers-Scotton (2002:155) argues that single words are examples of code-switching, Poplack and Meechan (1998:179) state that they are borrowings. These two distinctions depend on whether, as in the former, code-switching is seen as one language's grammar clearly predominating or, as in the latter, both languages are assumed to constrain the codeswitching (Poplack & Meechan 1998:127–128).

Poplack and Meechan (1998:129) state on the one hand that code-switching is '*alternation* between two (or more) language systems, [so] (single-word) codeswitches should show little or no integration into another language'. Therefore, lexical borrowings are seen as 'incorporation of a lexical item from one language into another,

with only the recipient system operative' and thus not being examples of code-switching (Poplack & Meechan 1998:129). Myers-Scotton (2002:155), on the other hand, claims that these lexical items are code-switching forms in mixed constituents. Although she does agree with Poplack and Meechan that loans can appear with Matrix Language morphosyntactic integration, she claims that when a mixed constituent is accessed, there is necessary interaction of the two distinct grammars at an abstract level, even though the Matrix Language is more activated than the Embedded Language (Myers-Scotton 2002:155). Thus, while Poplack and Meechan (1998:136) argue that single words overwhelmingly follow the patterns of the language in which they are incorporated, making them borrowings in that language, Myers-Scotton (2002:156) argues that this contact includes convergence that produces interaction between the two grammars – which means that both grammars must be 'on', even though, as in classic codeswitching, one language is the major source of the Matrix Language frame. Thus, these are two distinctive views on code-switching that have dominated the field over the last decades, and the current thesis will follow the definition of Myers-Scotton, seeing both single words and longer phrases as examples of code-switching.

Even though attitudes to code-switching are gradually changing, there is still a lot of skepticism surrounding it (Crystal 2003:165). Some people fear that certain languages will eventually die out, what Aitchison (2001:236) names *extreme borrowing*, where forms and constructions of the new language gradually are imported into the old language, and the socially dominant language continues to influence the old language until it is no longer identifiable as a separate language. A typical perception of English loanwords and expressions entering the Norwegian language is that they are a threat to the mother tongue (Hasund 2006:10). Consequently, the process of importing English words and expressions into Norwegian might scare people into believing that Norwegian will die out – even though English has influenced the Norwegian language for decades.

2.4 Why engage in CMC language?

The previous section has discussed inflectional morphology and various word-formation processes affecting language and words imported into another language, in addition to distinctive forms of language used in CMC areas. As will be discussed in

Section 2.5, Norwegian teenagers choose to make use of English and its distinctive CMC forms in their electronic communication. A common question related to this, then, is why teenagers choose to switch between languages in their electronic communication and likewise make use of these distinctive forms of CMC language.

According to Tagliamonte (2016:225), teenagers choose to take advantage of CMC forms such as abbreviations, nonstandard spellings, and shortenings due to the forms offering them 'a register where they are free to utilize all the forms of expression they are capable of'. In more formal situations, such as school and workplace settings, standard spelling is preferred, and teenagers are not able to use CMC forms to the same extent. In electronic communication, however, anything goes. Here, teenagers are able to choose from all the available variants that their linguistic repertoire has to offer, even switching from one language to another within the same discourse. As a result, teens demonstrate their intelligible linguistic abilities, manifesting their mastery of sociolinguistic and linguistic resources, in addition to their knowledge of grammar (Tagliamonte 2016:225). Although there are differences across registers, teenagers exhibit a fluid command over various styles and practices (Tagliamonte 2016:254). Consequently, using various CMC forms in their electronic communication gives teenagers a way to experiment, be creative, and play with language (Tagliamonte 2016:225).

The same can also be argued for with regards to Norwegian teenagers' choice of using English words and various CMC forms in their daily communication. As a result, their communication becomes a strategic game centering around language and identity, where they confirm their common background and viewpoints (Hasund 2006:52). Bonds are strengthened within the group, and they demonstrate a great understanding of their own language abilities (Hasund 2006:52). As technology develops and becomes more innovative and life-altering, communication will need to adapt to these changes as well. One can argue that teenagers' use of language can be seen as a driving force in the modification of language to fit with the needs and opportunities of communication (Hård af Segerstad 2002:5). In many ways, these changes can seem to be necessary for communication to continue to succeed. In the case of teenage CMC language, then, Leppänen (2007:167) highlights how English is needed in new forms of cultural

expression on the web, and in order to establish an identity and a sense of belonging to a local and global community.

2.4.1 Audience design theory

The language used among teenagers is often colored by the need for autonomy, the wish to connect with peers, and the desire to distance themselves from those whom they do not want to associate their language with (Androutsopoulos & Georgakopoulou 2003:4). In other words, teenagers seek that which will connect them with their equals and distinguish them from others. Typically, this means that teen language is associated with a heavier use of slang and taboo words, discourse markers, and word-formations such as abbreviations and clippings (Androutsopoulos & Georgakopoulou 2003:4). For this reason, teenagers make use of specific language conventions that fit with the community they are a part of or wish to become a part of (Hasund 2006:36).

The tendency to use specific language conventions to fit with the community the teenagers are a part of or wish to be a part of, can be seen in relation to the audience design theory. The theory enhances the notion that speakers construct their own speech to become more similar to the speech of their audience (Bell 1984). Bell (1984:197) argues that '[…] people are responding primarily to other people. Speakers are designing their style for their audience'. Thus, he claims that choosing a specific language style is the speakers' response to their audience, and that speakers target first and foremost to their addressees (Bell 1984:145). Third persons, i.e. overhearers and auditors, influence language style to a lesser degree (Bell 1984:145). This parallel can be drawn to electronic communication, where one could argue that the use of a characteristic CMC language relates to the audience design theory. Childs (2016:262) notes that users of online communication adjust and refine their language to fit with the style and situation of other speakers. By doing this, the speakers connect with the recipients and feel a sense of belonging to a specific group. To most teenagers, the idea of belonging to a specific group and being accepted by peers is crucial. Hasund (2006:66) also emphasizes the important correlation between language and identity, stating that teenagers have, by using abbreviations in their electronic communication, given this economized language an important role in their social lives and thus made it a part of their construction and reconstruction of identity. In the case of Norwegian

teenagers, then, the process of using English and especially English CMC forms gives them a way to use their language to tell others who they are and who they wish to identify themselves with (Drange 2002:11).

2.5 Previous research on use of English in Norway

The theoretical background presented in this chapter shows the diversity of CMC forms and how English has become a global language frequently used within these areas of communication. This section will focus on research done on the use of English in a Norwegian context, and the focal point will be the use of English in electronic communication.

2.5.1 Forskningskampanjen (2014)

Forskningskampanjen (2014) is a research campaign titled *Ta tempen på språket!* 'Take the temperature of language!' conducted by researchers at MultiLing, Center for Multilingualism in Society across the Lifespan, in collaboration with the Research Council of Norway and Norwegian Centre for Science Education at the University of Bergen. In total, 4,509 pupils all the way from 1st grade primary school till 3rd grade upper secondary school across the country participated in the survey, and the main objective was to examine which dialects and languages Norwegian children and adolescents know, and when they choose to use them. Additionally, the pupils were asked to submit popular and frequently used words and expressions.

The results of the survey showed that apart from Norwegian, English was by far the most commonly used language in spoken and written communication (Forskningskampanjen 2014:10).[3] In total, 70% of the participants answered *yes* when being asked *Bruker du engelske ord når du snakker eller skriver?* 'Do you use English words when you talk or write?' In addition to this, 60% of the respondents stated that they use English when writing text-messages, and 67% said that they use English when chatting with others on their cellphones or computers (Forskningskampanjen 2014:16). The only category with a higher percentage was the alternative *Når jeg snakker med*

[3] Statistical overview of the results can be found on https://www.miljolare.no/aktiviteter/ord/resultater/?side=sporreskjema&sd_id=2098 and https://www.miljolare.no/aktiviteter/ord/resultater/?side=sporreskjema&gruppe_sd_id=2094 (Miljølære 2014)

venner 'When I talk to my friends', which 70% of the participants answered to the question presented above. In other words, a great majority of the teenagers claimed that they use English in their daily spoken and written communication. If the results are analyzed by gender, some differences occur in their answers to the use of English in spoken or written communication. When asked if they use English in their spoken or written communication, 73% of the girls and 67% of the boys answered *yes*. This means that the girls had a higher percentage of participants stating that they use English in communication with others. Similarly, discrepancies appear within the pupils' response rates if the results are analyzed by age. When asked if they use English words in spoken or written communication, 77% of the 8th grade lower secondary school pupils said *yes*, and 23% said *no*. Conversely, amongst the 3rd grade upper secondary school pupils, 83% said *yes* and 17% *no*. Furthermore, when asked where they use English words and expressions, 58% of the 8th graders and 76% of the 3rd graders said *text-message*, 38% of the 8th graders and 40% of the 3rd graders said *computer games*, and 65% of the 8th graders and 73% of the 3rd graders said in *chatting*. Hence, in comparison to the 8th graders in the study, a higher number of 3rd grade upper secondary school pupils claimed to use English in their spoken and written communication. As a result, a great majority of the participants in Forskningskampanjen (2014) claimed to be using English in their spoken and written communication, both when seen from a gender and age perspective. It is however noteworthy that a somewhat higher percentage of participants answered that they use English in spoken rather than written communication, although percentages for both categories are high (Forskningskampanjen 2014:16).

The pupils were also asked to submit their favorite words and the English words they know to the study. The results showed that the words most frequently sent in to answer these questions were English abbreviations and acronyms, which was evident when the most frequent answers contained the words *lol* 'laughing out loud', *yolo* 'you only live once', *omg* 'oh my God' and *swag*, which according to Urban Dictionary's top definition is the new generation's word for *cool* (1999). The pupils stated that they use these words in *conversations with friends*, in *chatting* and in their *text-messages* (Forskningskampanjen 2014:14). Additionally, data containing the participants' answers to this question was sent to me from the Centre For Science Education at the University of Bergen, and all other words apart from abbreviations and acronyms were

manually removed and then counted. The data showed that 1,205 of the female participants and 776 of the male informants wrote down either one or several different English abbreviations or acronyms in their answers. Thus, compared to the male participants in the study, a higher percentage of female participants claimed to use English abbreviations and acronyms in their communication.

2.5.2 'Norsk holder "basically" på å dø ut'

The research study *Norsk holder 'basically' på å dø ut* 'Norwegian is "basically" dying out' was conducted by three upper secondary school pupils in 2018 (Haugum, Jensen, & Grønningsæther). Their study won a research competition administered by The Holberg Prize School Project, where the objective is to research something in society that interests the pupils. The main objective of the pupils' study was to examine the relationship between Norwegian teenagers' language abilities and the attitudes they had to the Norwegian written language, in addition to looking at the relationship between the use of English media and the teenagers' English versus Norwegian language abilities (Haugum, Jensen, & Grønningsæther 2018:4).

Related to the current thesis, the results of the research demonstrated that pupils who use streaming services more frequently had better English than Norwegian language abilities, and that pupils with good English language abilities use social media more often (Haugum, Jensen, & Grønningsæther 2018:22). Furthermore, the researchers in the study claimed to be observing that Norwegian teenagers use more and more English in their daily communication, replacing Norwegian with English in both written and spoken interactions (Haugum, Jensen, & Grønningsæther 2018:23). Consequently, they emphasize in their research that if this development continues, the Norwegian language might be replaced with English in the long run (Haugum, Jensen, & Grønningsæther 2018:23), which is the end result of what Aitchison (2001:236) terms *extreme borrowing*.

2.5.3 Grøvli (2013)

Grøvli's (2013) master's thesis *lol wtf? Kodeveksling i norsk internettkommunikasjon* 'lol wtf? Code-switching in Norwegian Internet communication' explored how a group of Norwegians talk to each other on the Internet using Internet Relay Chat (IRC). In

addition to investigating which functions the code-switching follows, she examined which kinds of English single words the informants used, and how these were integrated into a Norwegian language frame (Grøvli 2013:V). For the latter, her results showed that the participants frequently made use of English words and expression even though they were chatting in Norwegian, and English single words were often used in addition to English phrases. She concluded that code-switching can be prominent in interactions where the speakers move away from the majority or main language to a foreign language, and it does not have to be related to specific topics in order to occur (Grøvli 2013: 110–111).

2.5.4 Newspaper publications on English in Norway

In addition to research done on the use of English in Norway, Norwegian newspapers have, over the past decade or so, frequently produced articles on Norwegian teenagers' use of English both in spoken and written communication. To mention a few, both the article *Ungdom lager sitt eget språk i sosiale medier '*Teenagers create their own language in social media' (Skretting 2014) and *'Norsklish' inntar ungdomsspråket* '"Norsklish" is becoming a part of teen language' (Langset 2014) published in the Norwegian newspaper *Aftenposten* focus on Norwegian teenagers' use of language in social media, emphasizing that they use a great deal of English and other forms of slang within these areas of communication. In addition to this, the teenagers interviewed in the article *Forkortelser, engelsk og slang – slik er ungdomsspråket* 'Abbreviations, English and slang – this is teen language' posted in the Norwegian newspaper *iTromsø* argue that they use a lot more English than their adult counterparts, in addition to an extensive use of abbreviations (Ramberg & Aronsen 2015). Hence, articles published in various newspapers in Norway all point to the fact that Norwegian teenagers make use of English to a rather large extent when communicating with others both in spoken and written communication.

2.6 Research gap

Section 2.5 shows that some research has been done on Norwegian teenagers' use of English in spoken and written communication, and they all indicate that the user frequency is rather high. Nevertheless, newer studies such as Forskningskampanjen

(2014) and 'Norsk holder "basically" på å dø ut' (2018) have only included data from questionnaires and not any form of authentic data produced by the participants themselves. Although Grøvli's (2013) master's thesis has taken advantage of actual messages produced by participants in a chat-forum, the sample size is rather small, and the participants were between 25 and 32 years old. The participants' gender is not included in her study. Thus, neither age nor gender were variables used in her research. Consequently, little research has been done on authentic language production by participants themselves, and in the cases where this is done, gender and age are not taken into consideration when analyzing their responses. Hence, to my knowledge, the current thesis will be the first to examine authentic production of data by participants in combination with questionnaire answers to analyze language habits, and the first to include age and gender as variables in this kind of study.

2.7 Research questions and hypotheses

This section will present the research questions and hypotheses that are relevant for the current thesis.

The research questions this thesis sets out to answer are as following:

1. To what extent do Norwegian teenagers insert English words and phrases into their written computer-mediated communication?
2. To what extent does gender play a part in the insertion of English words and phrases in Norwegian teenagers' written computer-mediated communication?
3. To what extent does age play a part in the insertion of English words and phrases into Norwegian teenagers' written computer-mediated communication?
4. Which English single words do Norwegian teenagers produce in their written computer-mediated communication, and which do they most frequently use in their electronic communication?
5. To what degree are English words affected by Norwegian inflectional morphology, and which word-formation processes and characteristic

CMC forms do Norwegian teenagers impose on English words in written CMC?

The hypotheses chosen for the current thesis are presented below.

1. **Frequency in use of English in written computer-mediated communication:** Hypothesis number one will look at Norwegian teenagers' insertion of English in their written computer-mediated communication, based on research done by Forskningskampanjen (2014) and the Gallup Organization (2011). The hypothesis states that Norwegian teenagers insert an extensive amount of English into their written computer-mediated communication.
2. **Gender-based frequency in use of English in written computer-mediated communication:** Hypothesis number two is based on the results of Forskningskampanjen (2014), and it centers around the gender differences found in the study. The hypothesis states that female Norwegian teenagers use more English in their written CMC than male Norwegian teenagers.
3. **Age-based frequency in use of English in written computer-mediated communication:** Hypothesis number three is also based on the outcomes of Forskningskampanjen (2014), but it centers around the age differences found in the results. The hypothesis claims that older Norwegian teenagers, i.e. 18-19-year-olds, use more English in their written CMC compared to younger Norwegian teenagers, i.e. 12-13-year-olds.
4. **English single words most frequently used in written computer-mediated communication:** The results of Forskningskampanjen (2014) showed that the English words most favored by the teenage participants were abbreviations and acronyms, and this was answered by a larger portion of the female participants. Hypothesis number four states that abbreviations and acronyms are the English single words most frequently used in Norwegian teenagers' written CMC, and that they are more commonly used by female than male Norwegian teenagers.

3. Methodology

3.1 Design of the study

The study was initially twofold, and it consisted of pupils completing a survey, which was a three-page questionnaire, and sending in their own private chat-messages. The main objective of the study was to examine the pupils' use of language in electronic communication, and more specifically to get an overview of the extent to which they use English in their written computer-mediated communication. Survey designs are used by many researchers to challenge existing assumptions, inform knowledge, and shape policies (Gideon 2012a:3). Furthermore, survey research provides a quantitative description of attitudes, trends, or opinions on a specific population (Creswell 2014:13). By using survey designs, one can seek to describe trends in a large population of individuals by administering a survey to a small group of people, which is called a *sample* (Creswell 2012:21). Moreover, by gathering private messages from the participants, a layer of authenticity is added to the study, which makes it more reliable and not only based on the participants' own assumptions given in the questionnaire.

3.1.1 Structure of the study

As previously mentioned, the study was originally separated into two parts: a questionnaire and a collection of private chat-messages. However, fictional chat-messages were added after completing the study with the first group of participants, due to challenges arising during the process of gathering private chat-messages. A further elaboration on these challenges will be presented in Section 3.5.1. Nevertheless, the order of the steps was the same for every class, and each step was done in plenary, meaning that we did not move forward until everyone had completed each part of the study. For the time schedule, the idea was to use roughly 30 minutes on each step, but this was adjusted for each class depending on how much time they needed. An exception was the very first group of participants, who had to complete the study before the fictional chat-messages had been included. I therefore had to re-arrange their schedule and come back in January to collect their answers to the fictional chat-messages.

3.2 Sample of informants

The collection of data for the current thesis was done during the fall of 2018 and winter of 2019 with pupils in 8th grade lower secondary school and 3rd grade upper secondary school. The pupils were from four different schools in the two Norwegian counties Hordaland and Rogaland. The participants were chosen for the study on the basis of my acquaintances with teachers in these specific schools. This type of sampling is termed opportunistic sampling, which can be defined as using the researcher's local knowledge of an area or the researcher's past experiences to gain access to participants (Brady 2011:2). The reason behind this type of sampling was to get an easier access to pupils, believing that teachers who were acquainted with me would be more positive to the study and therefore allow me to use some of their time to complete the study with their pupils. This can also be defined as convenience sampling, which is characterized by the researcher selecting participants based on their accessibility and willingness to be studied (Bryman 2012:201; Creswell 2012:145). Creswell (2012:145) points out that the researcher cannot be completely sure that the participants are representative of the population, but they can provide useful information for answering research questions and hypotheses. Bryman (2012:202) also notes that this type of sampling can 'provide a springboard for further research or allow links to be forged with existing findings in an area'.

A total of 74 pupils participated in the study, but it should be noted that one of the pupils had to leave early and was therefore not able to complete the study, while five pupils, for some unknown reason, did not send in their answers to the fictional chat-messages. As a result, all 74 respondents completed the questionnaire, but six of them did not give me any messages to analyze. Moreover, since age and gender are two major social factors that affect the way we communicate (Chambers 2002:7), it was decided that the pupils should be divided into gender and age groups. Thus, the study distinguishes between *girls* and *boys* and *younger* and *older* pupils, where the *younger* pupils are 12-13-year-olds and the *older* pupils are 18-19-year-olds. Table 3.1 presents an overview of the distribution of participants in the present study, and the table divides the pupils into the categories mentioned above.

Table 3.1: *Distribution of participants by age and gender*

	Younger pupils	Older pupils
Girls	17	18
Boys	24	15
Total	41	33

The table shows that out of the 74 respondents taking part in the study, 53% were boys and 47% were girls. With regards to age, the younger pupils consisted of 55% of the total number of participants, whereas the older pupils constituted 45% of the total number of participants.

3.2.1 Potential sampling challenges

By choosing an opportunistic sampling method for the study, probability sampling was not employed. Hence, a representative sample was not generated through random selection, which would have given the sample a greater chance to become generalizable (Creswell 2014:158). In other words, generalizing the findings from the study to the population might be challenging. Nevertheless, the type of sampling method chosen for the current thesis allowed me to get access to a great number of pupils, which is evident when the study had a total of 74 participants from four different schools in two different counties. Even though they were not sampled through random selection, their answers will contribute to the research field and provide indications of patterns amongst Norwegian teenagers.

Moreover, some of the classes had pupils who did not want to participate in the study. This is called non-response (Bryman 2012:188), and these pupils were able to withdraw both before, during, or after the survey. Reasons for not wanting to participate in a survey can be many, and Groves, Presser, and Dipko (2004:25) highlight that the interest in the topic of the survey influences whether informants are willing to participate or not, whereas others might not have an opinion on the topic and are therefore not interested in participating. Those who did not wish to participate were given the opportunity to take part in a normal class instead. This, of course, might have affected the results of the study to some extent. Perhaps some of them would have

answered the questionnaire in a different way and sent in both private and fictional chat-messages that could have stood out from the others' if they had participated, and perhaps some completed the study without any interest in it at all except to avoid attending a normal class. If this was their only motivation for completing the study, they might have given answers that are less elaborative and detailed compared to others.

3.3 Information and written consent

The Belmont Report (1979) emphasizes the importance of giving potential participants adequate information for them to make an informed decision if they wish to participate in a study or not (Oldendick 2012:24). This should include potential risks and anticipated benefits, the research procedures and their purposes, and clear information regarding the participants' choice to ask questions about the study and withdraw at any point during the completion of the study (Oldendick 2012:24). In the case of the present study, the participants were informed in advance through an information sheet written by me in accordance with guidelines from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD), which was given to them by their teachers. The sheet explained the study – the main purpose of it, the topic of examination, the participants' rights – more specifically their ability to ask questions both before and after, and their ability to withdraw from the study at any point in time. The participants' full anonymity was also highlighted in the sheet, and they were told that the only variables registered in the study would be age and gender. The sheet also informed them about the possibility to take part in a normal class with the teacher if they did not wish to participate in the study, and it was emphasized that this choice would in no way impact them negatively. In other words, ethical considerations were greatly valued in the current thesis. The sheet also assured the participants that the study was conducted with approval from the NSD, and it required a signature of written consent. For the younger pupils this meant that one of their parents or legal guardians had to sign the form, whereas the older pupils were all 18 years or older and therefore able to sign for themselves. The sheets were collected upon my arrival, and those who did not have a signed consent sheet were not able to participate in the study.

3.4 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are used in a variety of studies, and for a variety of reasons. By choosing a questionnaire, the researcher can gain access to participants' thoughts, attitudes, beliefs and opinions (Gideon 2012b:92). Questionnaires make it possible to approach a great range of people over a relatively short period of time, meaning that researchers can get access to a rather large amount of data quickly. Hence, it can be both time-saving and easier to access participants through questionnaires in comparison to e.g. interviews. I therefore decided that the first step of the study would be to complete a questionnaire. The goal was to get an overview of the pupils' use of language and their communication habits in electronic communication, as well as their views on *if* and *why* they choose to use English in their written electronic communication. The questionnaire is found in its entirety in Appendix II.

3.4.1 Questionnaire structure

Normally, questionnaires include an introduction that contains a brief explanation of the purpose of the research, in addition to information about the person responsible for conducting the study, time taken to complete the study, promise of anonymity and so forth (Schleef 2013:50). Because the pupils had already received an information sheet with all the details concerning the study in advance of the questionnaire, this was not elaborated on greatly in the current questionnaire. The introduction did however remind the participants that the questions were centered around their language in messages sent via text-messages, Facebook Messenger, Snapchat, Twitter, direct messages on Instagram or other forms of written communication using cellphones and/or computers. Furthermore, the participants were reminded that the questionnaire was completely anonymous, and that only age and gender would be registered.

The questionnaire was three pages long, and it was printed out for the participants to answer by hand. The questions were a mixture of closed and open-ended questions, meaning that the respondents were given set alternatives on some questions and able to answer in their own words on others. This makes it a mixed method design (Creswell 2014:217), which was used to get a greater combination of narrow and more profound answers, in addition to keeping the respondents interested through a difference in structure of the questions during the completion of the questionnaire. Some of the

closed questions gave the participants the opportunity to type in their own answers by choosing *others* if they felt like adding more alternatives to the questions, which Creswell (2012:387) names semi-closed-ended questions. Furthermore, a mixture of closed and open-ended questions in the questionnaire helped provide a better understanding of the research questions and hypotheses. The questions will be further elaborated on in Section 3.4.2.

Lastly, the questionnaire was piloted via a read-through test by fellow master's students before it was completed by the pupils. This meant that several people read through the finished questionnaire without completing it (Schleef 2013:52). They gave me thorough feedback on the structure and logical flow of the questionnaire, in addition to their opinions on question phrasings and possible answers to the questions.

3.4.2 Creating questions for the questionnaire

By using a combination of closed and open-ended question, the researcher is able to access a greater variety of information from the informants. In the current questionnaire, the closed questions were placed at the beginning on page one, before the open-ended questions. This decision was made based upon the idea that open-ended questions can discourage respondents if they are placed first in a questionnaire (Schleef 2013:49), often giving the respondents an impression that the questionnaire is longer and more time consuming than it really is. The first questions were closed, demographic questions mapping the participants' age and gender, before closed questions asking about their language and communication habits were presented. Schleef (2013:50) emphasizes that demographic questions should be put at the end of the questionnaire to avoid the feeling of intrusion, but this was not done in the current questionnaire for two reasons. Firstly, the questions were overall not that intrusive, and secondly, age and gender are important variables in the study and the fear of participants not completing the entire questionnaire and therefore not answering these questions overrode the general idea of question placement. Furthermore, the questions asked the participants about their written communication via cellphone and/or computer, time spent on written communication using cellphone and/or computer, how many of the messages they send every day from their cellphone and/or computer that contain English words and/or phrases, and who they sent most messages containing English words and/or phrases to. Knowing exactly

how much time you spend on your cellphone and/or computer communicating with others and how many messages you send every day that contain English words and/or phrases is clearly hard to say for certain, but the participants were informed that they should answer what felt right to them. There is obviously no right or wrong answer, and the questions were inserted to get an idea of their communication and language habits. The respondents could give multiple answers in some of the questions, and this was specified within the phrasing of these questions.

Gideon (2012b:94) highlights various factors that he believes are important to create valid questions for a questionnaire. One of them is to maintain a logical flow throughout the questionnaire (Gideon 2012b:96). This means that questions that are connected to each other should be placed next to each other, and items on specific subtopics should appear within the same section in order to avoid confusing the respondents. This was taken into consideration when creating the questionnaire for the present study. The first page contained a logical flow from demographic questions to questions centering around the participants' use of language and their behavior in written electronic communication. Furthermore, Gideon (2012b:96) stresses the importance of avoiding double-barreled questions, meaning questions that contain two or more issues within the same questions. This concern can be discussed when taking a look at the closed questions on page one in the current questionnaire, where the questions asked about the pupils' communication habits using both cellphones *and/or* computers within the same question. This decision was however deliberate. The objective of the questions was not to map the differences in use of cellphones and computers, but to examine to what degree they generally use English words and phrases in their written electronic communication. Taking into consideration that both cellphones and computers are included in the term *computer-mediated communication*, I chose to include them both within the same question to avoid creating multiple questions that would have made the survey longer, as well as avoiding long questions with difficult phrasings. This is emphasized by Gideon (2012b:98), who notes the importance of maintaining a simple and direct language in the questions.

Another important aspect when creating questions for a questionnaire is to keep the informants' age in mind, in other words making sure that the questions are understandable and not too difficult to answer. Younger pupils might have less

experience with completing questionnaires, and may therefore struggle if the questions are phrased in a difficult or strange way. This was especially important on the second page of the questionnaire, which contained open-ended questions with longer phrasings. Here, the participants were to state if they use English words and/or phrases in written electronic communication with others using their cellphone and/or computer, and why they believe they do it, if they switch between Norwegian and English in their written communication with others using their cellphone and/or computer, and why they suppose they do it, if they use English in written tasks in other school subjects than the subject of English, and why they do it, and finally if they would have used English abbreviations in their own schoolwork. The reason for choosing open-ended questions on the second page was to let the participants answer in their own words, instead of giving them several specific alternatives on why they choose to use English words and/or phrases in their written CMC. Thus, the pupils were able to give their own personal opinions without being influenced by set alternatives.

The two last questions on page two were inserted on the basis of certain research questions and hypotheses that are no longer relevant for the current thesis. The questions asked for the pupils' thoughts on using English in other school subjects than the subject of English, and if they tended to use English abbreviations in school writing assignments. Initially, the idea was to examine the use of English abbreviations and schoolwork, investigating if there was a link between using English abbreviations and other CMC forms on cellphones and/or computers, and literacy skills. Research has shown that teenagers manage to change their discourse depending on which genre they are writing in (e.g. school assignments versus writing on cellphones) (Crystal 2008:152), and the plan was to analyze if Norwegian teenagers manage to change their discourse or continue to drag CMC forms, such as English abbreviations, into their school work. The idea was however dismissed due to content and time restrictions, and it was decided that the study would focus on Norwegian teenagers' use of English in written CMC. Likewise, the last page of the questionnaire containing a table with 18 different English abbreviations will not be elaborated further on in the current thesis. To begin with, the idea was to include this table in addition to the pupils' private messages to investigate their use and understanding of English abbreviations, but the table was later discarded

both due to time restrictions and due to the decision that the fictional messages supplied enough information on this topic.

3.4.3 Potential challenges related to questions in questionnaire

Although the questionnaire was read through by my peers, there are still issues related to the questions that should be brought up and discussed. Firstly, it is important to keep in mind that the questions asking for the participants' opinion on approximately how much time they spend communicating and how many messages they send that contain English words in written CMC are a matter of choice by the respondents. Few, if any, know the exact answers to questions like these, and they should be handled with great care and not seen as absolute truths. It is a well known case that people in many circumstances have limited knowledge of their own user habits, and it should therefore be addressed that the participants' answers may or may not be contrasting with what they actually do in real life. Likewise, the open-ended questions on page two in the questionnaire asking for the participants' thoughts and opinions on their communication and language habits can be influenced by a variety of causes: perhaps the participants wished to please me as a researcher, or maybe they felt a sense of rivalry amongst themselves to finish first, therefore not completing the questionnaire as thoroughly as I would have wanted them to. Additionally, social desirability bias, in other words answering questions in relation to the perception of the social desirability of those answers (Bryman 2012:228), is always a concern when working with questionnaires. It is therefore crucial that participants' anonymity is repeated and highlighted. Nonetheless, it is important to keep in mind that participants' answers should not be regarded as absolute facts. In the same way, the questionnaire includes a mixture of open-ended and closed questions. Although open-ended questions allow for more flexibility and enable the respondents to think through and give more detailed answers (Gideon 2012b:98), they are more of a cognitive burden. This can be argued for in the case of my questionnaire, especially because it was administered by hand. Since this is something many of the pupils perhaps do not do on a daily basis, one could argue that the open-ended questions might have gotten longer answers if they were completed on a computer. Additionally, if the questionnaire was conducted online, the process of

analyzing their answers and typing in their responses would have been less time-consuming and less vulnerable to human mistakes.

Furthermore, it is important to be careful to avoid misunderstandings in the phrasings of open-ended questions. This was evident during the pupils' completion of the questionnaire in the current study, where it early on was discovered that question number eight should have been phrased in a more understandable way. The question asked: 'Do you switch between Norwegian and English in written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer? If yes, why? If no, why not?'. Some of the pupils read the question as asking if they wrote in Norwegian to some of their friends and in English to others in their written CMC. The point of the question, however, was to investigate if they switch between Norwegian and English within the same conversations. In hindsight, this should definitely have been clarified in the phrasing of the question, where it should have been made clear that the question asked for language use within the same conversations. This was fortunately discovered quickly since several of the pupils in the first group answering the question asked me what the question actually meant, and then taken into consideration and explained more thoroughly during the next groups' completion.

3.4.4 Analyzing the questions

Since the questionnaire had a mixture of closed and open-ended questions, the questions had to be analyzed in different ways. For the former, it was quite straight forward. The closed questions were analyzed quantitatively, meaning that the participants' responses were counted and put into tables. For the open-ended questions, on the other side, Creswell (2012:220) states that researchers have to look for overlapping themes in the open-ended data and then count the number of themes or the number of times participants mention these themes. This was done for both question number seven, which asked if the pupils use English words and phrases in written electronic communication, and why, and question number eight, which asked if switching between Norwegian and English occurs in written communication using cellphones and/or computers. Thus, it is vital that the design of the questions is taken into consideration when questions from questionnaires are analyzed.

3.5 Private chat-messages

To be able to analyze teenagers' use of language in written CMC, it is vital to get hold of actual samples of language in use. The initial strategy was to base this on participants' private chat-messages stored on their cellphones and/or computers. The idea was for pupils to use their cellphones and/or computers, find previously sent messages that they were willing to share with me, remove anything they did not want me to see, before they sent it to me via my university webmail. Ethical considerations restricted me from gaining access to the messages they had received from others, since this meant including messages from people who had not given their consent to participate in the study (Ling 2005:337). Likewise, I would not be able to know the demographics of these senders. This meant that I could only gain access to the messages the participants had written themselves. Furthermore, the pupils were informed that the content of the messages would be of no relevance to me personally, meaning that they could send any messages of any length that they wanted to. Additionally, the pupils were again reminded of their anonymity, and I stressed that I would read through all the messages thoroughly and remove any elements that could in any way be revealing. Moreover, the pupils were not given any leading details during the sampling of messages, meaning that they were never told to send messages with any specific language or word-forms in mind, and they were informed that the only thing I was going to analyze was their language in communication with others through their cellphones and/or computers. Lastly, the pupils were again reminded that participation was completely voluntary.

3.5.1 Potential challenges related to accessing private chat-messages

The process of getting access to pupils' private messages had to be altered due to various challenges. This was first and foremost visible with the first group of younger pupils who completed the study, where it was evident that they seemed skeptical to the process of giving away their own private messages. The teachers informed me that they had recently worked a lot with Internet safety and data protection in light of the EU General Data Protection Regulation, which was set in place on the 25th of May 2018. Data protection is obviously an important topic, and this focus might have affected their willingness to give away personal data, although they were reminded that the messages

would be handled with great care. Another limitation might have been that they did not wish to give me access to their private messages, for various reasons they might have had without uttering them explicitly. This was not specified by the pupils, and since participation was voluntary, they were in no way obliged to give a reason to why they did not wish to participate in this part of the study.

A further challenge was the younger pupils' choice of communication platforms on cellphones and computers. Few of them used the Facebook Messenger application on a regular basis, and the majority of them used Snapchat, and in some cases Instagram, as a way of communicating with friends via their cellphones and computers. The downside of using Snapchat as a way of communicating with others is that the conversations are only stored for 24 hours in the application, unless you choose to actively store them yourself. Hence, many of the pupils lacked larger parts of their conversations, especially those which they had sent themselves. Consequently, those who were open to giving me access to private messages would either have very little content to give away in their stored Snapchat-messages, or they had to send in text-messages from their cellphones. The downside of sending in text-messages is that in many cases the conversations were with parents and grandparents, and in fewer cases with friends. As the results will demonstrate in Chapter four, most of the pupils stated that they use English words and phrases when communicating with friends, and not parents and grandparents. It was also clear that many pupils were unsure of exactly how much they wanted to give away. This resulted in relatively short messages that gave me little data to work with. Thus, after completing the study with the first group of younger pupils in the fall of 2018, the idea of creating fictional chat-messages for the pupils to answer arose. This will be elaborated on further in the following section.

3.6 Fictional chat-messages

Due to the realization that the private chat-messages collected from the first group of younger pupils were sparse and contained few words producing little data to analyze, I chose to create fictional chat-messages as a supplement to the real ones. This was inspired by a study done by Plester, Wood, and Joshi (2009), where the goal was to attain awareness of 10-12-year-old children's knowledge of text-message abbreviations and how it relates to school literacy attainment. In addition to completing vocabulary

tests, the informants were asked to complete a questionnaire and to create their own fictional text-messages based on ten different scenarios (Plester, Wood, and Bell 2009:150). Instead of giving the participants in the present study scenarios to base their messages on, I decided to create fictional messages that the participants were to answer. This decision was mainly based on time constraints, since I believed that it would be less time-consuming if the pupils answered already written messages instead of creating new ones themselves. Thus, the remainder of the groups I tested were asked to both send in private messages and to answer fictional chat-messages. As will be seen in Chapter four, during the process of analyzing the messages the decision was made to only focus on the fictional messages and thus discard the pupils' private messages.

A total of 11 fictional chat-messages were created in advance of the data collection. The messages were designed to look as real as possible, giving strong resemblance to the Facebook Messenger application. Figure 3.1 shows an example of a fictional message given to the groups of younger participants in the study. The grey message is the one created by me, and the pupils had to click in the blue chat-bubble to answer the message.

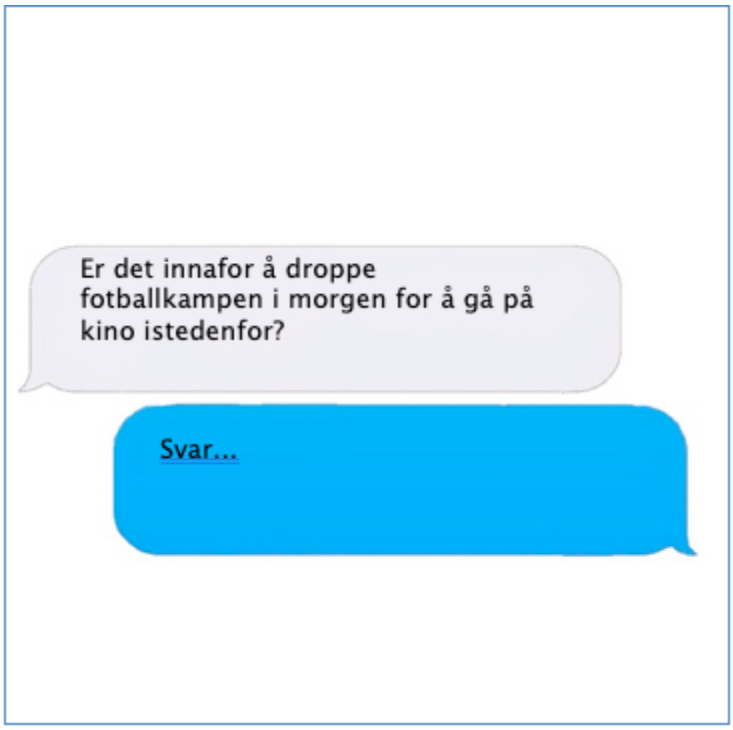

Figure 3.1: *Example of fictional chat-message given to groups of younger pupils*

The fictional messages were separated into two groups based on age. This meant that the groups of younger pupils got one set of messages, and the groups of older pupils got another. The fictional messages were based on themes that were popular on television and in social media at the time, and topics that I believed would be relevant for them in their daily lives. The two sets were created to be as similar as possible, but three out of the 11 messages in each set were a bit contrasting to better suit the age of the participants. There was a desire for the messages to be interpreted as authentically as possible, and some of the topics in the younger groups' messages might have been regarded as childish for the older pupils, while some of the topics in the older groups' messages might have been too grown-up for the younger participants. In both groups four out of 11 messages contained one English word, where three of them were English abbreviations (*omg*, *lol*, and *wtf*), and one was an English verb (*join*). Additionally, the messages contained the names of two popular reality TV-shows in Norway called 'Paradise Hotel' and 'Ex on the Beach', and the name of the cellphone application 'Snapchat'. I did not reflect on the fact that these words and phrases are English during the process of creating the messages. The fictional chat-messages are presented in their entirety in Appendix IV.

Moreover, the pupils were again informed about their anonymity in the study, and they were reminded that participation was voluntary. They were told to answer the messages as they would have answered them in real life, imagining that they came from someone they knew on their favorite communication platform using their cellphones and/or computers (text-message, Snapchat, Instagram, Facebook Messenger or others.). Furthermore, they were informed that content and length were optional, and that they could use whatever language, dialect, and abbreviations they wanted to use.

3.6.1 Potential challenges related to fictional chat-messages

One of the biggest concerns with using fictional chat-messages was that the teenagers would not be able to treat them as authentic or realistic messages. This was especially a concern with older pupils in the study, who might have been more prone to thinking that the messages were uninteresting or irrelevant to them and their lives. However, very few comments were made on the content of the messages during the younger and older pupils' completion, and this observation in addition to their actual responses, which will

be analyzed and discussed in Chapter four, indicate that the participants seemed to be able to view the messages as authentic messages. One older pupil even mentioned out loud that he had received one of the messages with the same wording from a friend a few days prior to the study.

Another challenge related to the fictional chat-messages was the questionnaire they had completed prior to this step. Some of the participants might have been influenced by the questions asking them about language habits and their use of English in electronic communication. Hence, some of them may have used more English due to these questions, and some might have thought that this was the point of the fictional chat-messages, even though none of them were told to use English words or phrases explicitly. None of the participants asked if they should use English in their answers to the messages, but it is not unthinkable that the questions may have affected them in some way.

Since the first group of younger pupils were not originally introduced to the fictional chat messages, I had to go back to collect these messages from them later on in the process. During this step, the group was also reminded of their anonymity and voluntary participation, and they were given the exact same information regarding the messages and how to answer them as the other groups had been given. However, since the step was delayed, it meant that there had been some time since they completed the questionnaire and handed in private messages. Thus, there was a difference between this group and the other groups' completion, which could potentially have created a difference in results.

4. Results and discussions

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the data collected for the current thesis. It will be threefold, firstly introducing the chapter with relevant findings from the questionnaire which are not connected to the hypotheses, secondly presenting and discussing findings from the pupils' answers to the fictional chat-messages, and lastly presenting, testing, and discussing the hypotheses for this thesis with findings from the questionnaire and the pupils' answers to the fictional chat-messages. Since the private chat-messages were sparse and contained little data to analyze, they will be discarded in this chapter and the focus will be solely on the fictional chat-messages. Throughout this chapter, participants will be divided into gender groups, i.e. *girls* and *boys*, and age groups, i.e. *younger pupils* (12-13-year-olds) and *older pupils* (18-19-year-olds).

4.1 Findings from questionnaire

The first part of this chapter will present and discuss relevant and intriguing findings from the questionnaire. These results provide important background information for this chapter.

4.1.1 Survey participation

As mentioned in Chapter three, 74 participants completed the study's questionnaire, while 68 of them also answered the fictional chat-messages. Hence, six of the participants only finished the questionnaire and did not answer the fictional chat-messages. Table 4.1 contains an overview of participants' age and gender. It shows that out of the 74 participants taking part in the survey, 41 of them were younger pupils (12-13-year-olds), and 33 of them were older pupils (18-19-year-olds).

Table 4.1: *Distribution of participants by age and gender*

	Younger pupils	**Older pupils**
Girls	17	18
Boys	24	15
Total	41	33

Furthermore, the study consists of 35 girls and 39 boys. Since there are size differences within these groups, calculations of percentages will be based on the number of participants in the various groups, and not the total number of participants in the study. One of the classes with older pupils was a supplementary class, which means that the pupils go through a one-year supplementary program in upper secondary school to obtain general university and college admissions certification (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training 2013). In this class, four of the boys turned out to be older than 19 years old. Their ages were respectively 20, 20, 22 and 23. The choice was however made to place them in the 18-19-year-olds category, to simplify the analysis with regards to only handling two different age groups.

4.1.2 Preferences in written CMC

In accord with the results of the study done by Norwegian Media Authority (2018)[4], Snapchat was by far the most commonly used communication platform amongst teenagers in the current study. This was demonstrated in the results of question three, which asked the participants how they communicate in writing with others using their cellphones and/or computers. Table 4.2 shows the results of the question, and it includes both gender and age groups within the same table. The pupils could choose as many alternatives as they wanted to, meaning that the combined number of all the alternatives in the table exceeds the total number of participants.

Table 4.2: *Participants' preferred communication platform in written CMC*

	SMS	Facebook Messenger	Instagram	Snapchat	Others
Girls n= 35	31 (89%)	25 (71%)	25 (71%)	35 (100%)	5 (14%)
Boys n= 39	26 (67%)	20 (51%)	20 (51%)	36 (92%)	11 (28%)
Younger n= 41	34 (83%)	13 (32%)	26 (63%)	41 (100%)	6 (15%)
Older n= 33	23 (70%)	32 (97%)	19 (58%)	30 (91%)	10 (30%)
Total n= 74	57 (77%)	45 (61%)	45 (61%)	71 (96%)	16 (22%)

[4] See Section 1.1 for an overview of the results from Norwegian Media Authority (2018).

In total, 96% or 71 out of 74 participants stated that they use Snapchat to communicate in writing with others, while 77% (57/74) said text-messaging. Furthermore, 61% (45/74) of the pupils answered Instagram and Facebook Messenger. Thus, Snapchat was by far the most popular platform to use in written electronic communication, with text-messaging coming in second place. Table 4.2 shows that Facebook Messenger had a high score amongst older teenagers, and a significantly lower score amongst the younger pupils. Hence, the results indicate that there is an increase in the use of Facebook Messenger as a communication platform from younger to older teenagers. This could give rise to the idea that there is a maturity change between the two age groups, where Facebook Messenger as a communication application becomes more popular as the teenagers become older. Snapchat did have a higher response rate amongst the younger pupils, which may indicate that some of the teenagers replace Snapchat with Facebook Messenger as they become older. The reasons for this can be many, but perhaps the older teenagers find the Facebook Messenger application better suited for their communicational needs. Nevertheless, it is hard to draw conclusions without having asked the pupils specifically about these differences in response rates.

Moreover, Instagram had a higher usage score amongst younger than older pupils, and from the results presented in Table 4.2, it seems to be more popular amongst the girls in the study. The difference between age groups was not as large as the difference between genders, where 20% more girls than boys stated that they use Instagram as a communication platform. Thus, the application is evidently more popular amongst the female participants in the study. Nonetheless, the boys had overall lower scores on all the categories presented in Table 4.2 apart from *others*, which indicates that a great number of the boys also prefer to communicate through other applications or modes than those mentioned in the table.

The question originally included the alternative answers *WhatsApp*, *Twitter*, and *other*, where participants could fill in their own alternatives. The scores were however very low on all of them, and the choice was made to categorize them together under *others* for the presentation of results in Table 4.2. For a full overview of answers for every alternative, see Appendix III.

4.1.3 Time spent communicating in written CMC

The pupils were asked to state approximately how much time they believe they spend communicating in writing with others every day using their cellphones and/or computers. They could choose between six alternative answers, which were respectively *0 minutes, 30 minutes, 1 hour, 2 hours, 4 hours* and *5 hours or more*.

Table 4.3 presents the participants' answers to time spent on written CMC based on gender, while Table 4.4 shows their answers based on age. For Table 4.3, the girls have a larger number of participants in the higher alternatives. Whereas 60% (21/35) of the girls answered within the categories *2 hours* or higher, only 46% (18/39) of the boys did the same. Hence, the results presented in Table 4.3 show that there are gender disparities in the pupils' time spent daily communicating in written CMC, where the girls participating in the study stated that they spend more time than the boys within these areas of communication.

Table 4.3: *Distribution of time spent communicating in written CMC based on gender*

	0 min.	30 min.	1 h.	2 h.	4 h.	5 h. or more
Girls n= 35	0	7 (20%)	7 (20%)	8 (23%)	10 (29%)	3 (9%)
Boys n= 39	0	14 (36%)	7 (18%)	7 (18%)	8 (22%)	3 (8%)
Total n= 74	0	21 (28%)	14 (19%)	15 (20%)	18 (24%)	6 (8%)

Table 4.4: *Distribution of time spent communicating in written CMC based on age*

	0 min.	30 min.	1 h.	2 h.	4 h.	5 h. or more
Younger n= 41	0	19 (46%)	7 (17%)	7 (17%)	7 (17%)	1 (2%)
Older n= 33	0	2 (6%)	7 (21%)	8 (24%)	11 (33%)	5 (15%)
Total n= 74	0	21 (28%)	14 (19%)	15 (20%)	18 (24%)	6 (8%)

Moreover, when it comes to age, Table 4.4 reveals that 37% (15/41) of the younger participants stated that they spend *2 hours* or more communicating in written CMC daily, while 73% (24/33) of the older pupils said the same. Thus, a great majority of the older participants answered within the higher time-frame categories, and the results

show that the older pupils claim to spend more time daily on written CMC compared to the younger pupils in the study.

Consequently, more girls than boys and more older than younger participants claimed to spend a higher amount of time communicating in written CMC daily. These results indicate that teenagers' time spent on written CMC increases with age, and in that case maturity seems to play a part. These results therefore indicate that screen-time escalates with age, which is not unthinkable since the participants in the group of older pupils are 18 years or older, and therefore in many cases less controlled by parents. Nevertheless, other factors might have influenced the pupils' answers to this question, and it should be noted that answers based on participants' own assumptions can be unreliable since one seldom knows exactly how much time is being spent on written and spoken communication.

4.1.4 If and why English is used in written CMC

The pupils were asked if they use English in their written CMC and, if so, why they choose to use it. Since this was an open-ended question, their answers had to be categorized in order to create an overview. Hence, their responses were divided into 17 different categories, and since some of the pupils gave longer answers stating various reasons for using English, some answers were placed in several different categories. It is however important to mention that some of the categories had quite low response rates, and I decided to not elaborate on these in this section to be able to create a better overview of their answers. The categories *friends do not speak Norwegian* and *peers* had four respondents each in total, *external factors* had three, *word does not exist in Norwegian, quick,* and *cool* only had two respondents each, and *trend*, *looks better*, *do not know* and *no* only had one respondent each. Unfortunately, the pupil who responded *no* did not elaborate further on his answer. Thus, this section will hereafter only focus on the remaining seven categories with higher response rates than those already mentioned. For a full overview of the alternatives mentioned above, see Appendix III.

Table 4.5 contains the most frequent answers to why the pupils in the current study believed that they use English words in their written CMC based on gender, while Table 4.6 contains the pupils' answers based on age. Percentages are placed beneath the numbers in parentheses. Due to space restrictions in the tables, the category *Cannot*

remember word in Norwegian has in the rightmost column been abbreviated to *Cannot rem.*, while *abbreviate* has been abbreviated to *abbr.* and *expressiveness* to *express*. Examples from the pupils' answers are presented after the following tables, where their original answers are written in italics and their translated counterparts are placed in single quotation marks. Additionally, gender and age are added in parentheses.

Table 4.5: *Most frequent answers to why English is used in written CMC based on gender*

	Habit	**Easy**	**Fun**	**Abb.**	**Express.**	**Sounds better**	**Cannot rem.**
Girls	11	2	3	4	9	10	6
n= 35	(31%)	(6%)	(9%)	(11%)	(26%)	(29%)	(17%)
Boys	10	12	4	9	5	0	2
n= 39	(26%)	(31%)	(10%)	(23%)	(13%)	(0%)	(5%)
Total	21	14	7	13	14	10	8
n= 74	(28%)	(19%)	(9%)	(18%)	(19%)	(14%)	(11%)

Table 4.6: *Most frequent answers to why English is used in written CMC based on age*

	Habit	**Easy**	**Fun**	**Abb.**	**Express.**	**Sounds better**	**Cannot rem.**
Younger	10	10	3	12	1	4	2
n= 41	(24%)	(24%)	(7%)	(29%)	(2%)	(10%)	(5%)
Older	11	4	4	1	13	6	6
n= 33	(33%)	(12%)	(12%)	(3%)	(39%)	(18%)	(18%)
Total	21	14	7	13	14	10	8
n= 74	(28%)	(19%)	(9%)	(18%)	(19%)	(14%)	(11%)

The category with the highest response rate was *habit*, which 28% (21/74) of the pupils claimed was a reason why they use English in their written CMC. The response rates were relatively similar both in relation to age and gender. Common remarks by the pupils for reasons to be using English on the basis of *habit* are given in examples [1–4] below. The examples show that in many of these instances the pupils claim to use English without noticing or actively being aware of it. Their answers suggest that the use of English has become an automated or internalized process when it comes to their language production in electronic communication.

[1] *Noen ganger skriver jeg det uten at jeg merker det* 'Sometimes I write [English] without noticing it' (Girl 12-13).
[2] *Tenker egentlig ikke over* det 'I don't really think about it' (Boy 12-13).
[3] *Det engelske faller meg mer naturlig inn å skrive* 'The English [word] is more natural for me to write' (Girl 18-19).
[4] *Ord på engelsk er lettere å flette inn i en samtale, og jeg har gjort det så lenge at jeg ikke tenker over det lenger* 'Words in English are easier to insert into a conversation, and I've been doing it for so long that I don't think about it anymore' (Boy 18-19).

The categories with the second highest response rates were *easy* and *expressiveness*, both answered by 19% (14/74) of the participants. With the category *easy*, there are some gender and age distinctions present. Firstly, more boys than girls stated this as a reason for choosing to use English in their written CMC. Secondly, more of the younger than older pupils answered this. Consequently, more of the male pupils argued to be using English in electronic communication because it is easier, and more of the younger pupils said the same. Examples [5–7] demonstrate the participants' reasons for choosing English because of its easiness. The examples show that these pupils believed that it is easier to use English words in certain contexts when communicating electronically. Although they did not elaborate greatly on their responses, the examples nonetheless show that the pupils regard some English words or topics as easier to explain or discuss in English.

[5] *Det har bare blitt sånn og det er ofte enklest* 'It has just become that way and it's often the easiest' (Girl 12-13).
[6] *Fordi noen ting er lettere å skrive på engelsk* 'Because some things are easier to write in English' (Boy 12-13).
[7] *[...] det blir lettere å formulere noe med engelsk språk i enkelte sammenhenger* '[…] it becomes easier to phrase some things with the English language in certain contexts' (Boy 18-19).

Furthermore, the same number of pupils – i.e. 19% (14/74), stated that they choose to use English because of its *expressiveness*. It is noticeable that this category has a high

response rate amongst older pupils, which is apparent when 39% (13/33) of the participants in this groups answered *expressiveness* as a reason for using English in their electronic communication. For the group of younger pupils, on the other side, only one said the same. Viewing the results based on gender, 26% (9/35) of the female participants answered within this category, and 13% (5/39) of the males did the same. Thus, more older than younger pupils brought up *expressiveness* as a factor for using English in written CMC, and more girls than boys did the same. Below are examples [8–11], which illustrate some of the pupils' reasons for using English in electronic communication due its *expressiveness*. As is evident from these examples, the pupils allegedly find it easier to express their feelings and emotions more openly by using English in their electronic communication. Additionally, the pupils argue that their point comes better across by using English in their interactions. Thus, these answers indicate that English helps the teenagers open up and express their inner mindsets.

[8] *Det er lettere å beskrive situasjonen eller følelser med et engelsk ord i en setning* 'It's easier to describe the situation or your feelings with English words in a sentence' (Girl 18-19).
[9] *[…] Jeg føler poenget mitt kommer mer fram når det er skrevet på engelsk* '[…] I feel like my point comes better across when it's written in English' (Girl 18-19).
[10] *Lettere å uttrykke seg* 'Easier to express yourself' (Boy 18-19).
[11] *Sette ord på følelser* 'Put words to emotions' (Boy 18-19).

Moreover, Tables 4.5 and 4.6 show that in third place over reasons for using English in written CMC we find *abbreviate*, which was answered by 18% (13/74) of the participants in the study. Age-wise there are clear distinctions within this category. Amongst the younger pupils, 29% (12/41) mentioned this as a reason for using English, while only one older pupil said the same. Viewed on the basis of gender, 11% (4/35) of the girls and 23% (9/39) of the boys claimed to be using English due to its abbreviated forms. Hence, when it comes to the ability to abbreviate words and/or phrases, more younger than older pupils view this as an important reason for using English in electronic communication, and more boys than girls stated the same. The participants' answers are exemplified in [12–15]. The examples show that the pupils prefer to use

English abbreviations because they abbreviate the sentences, which ultimately boosts the communication flow. Furthermore, the participants highlight that the English language has more abbreviations than the Norwegian language, and that they are easier and often better to use in certain contexts.

[12] *Fordi det er kortere ord enn på norsk og fordi det er et bedre ord jeg kunne brukt i den sammenhengen* 'Because there are shorter words than those in Norwegian and because there is a better word I could have used in that context' (Girl 12-13).
[13] *Fordi de fleste forkortelser er på engelsk* 'Because most abbreviations are in English' (Girl 12-13).
[14] *Fordi på engelsk er det mange forkortelser så ofte er det lettere å bruke dem* 'Because in English there are many abbreviations so often it is easier to use them' (Boy 12-13).
[15] *Enklere forkortelser. De samme ordene på norsk er ofte mye lengre og vanskeligere enn de på engelsk* 'Easier abbreviations. The same words in Norwegian are often a lot longer and harder than those in English' (Boy 18-19).

Following the categories mentioned above, the pupils also noted that they choose to use English in their written CMC because they believe some words *sound better* in English (14% or 10/74), because they *cannot remember the word(s) in Norwegian* (11% or 8/74), and because they think it is *fun* (9% or 7/74) to use English in electronic communication. It is worth mentioning that *sounds better* was only answered by female pupils in both age groups, and not stated by any male participants.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, the category *peers* was only stated four times, which was rather surprising considering that the audience design theory highlights how speakers construct their own speech to become more similar to the speech of their audience (Bell 1984:197). Bell (1984:197) notes how speakers choose their own specific language style to fit with the language of their audience, and one would assume that this is a great motivator for the teenagers when they choose to use English in their written CMC. Nevertheless, a great many participants stated that they write English words out of habit, in other words without being actively aware of it, and this might be connected to the audience design theory. It is possible that they are

affected by the language of their audience, and wish to be integrated with their peers by inserting English into their written CMC without being able to recognize the influencer behind this insertion. After all, the participants in the present study are relatively young, and some might not be fully able to reflect on why they make the decisions that they do.

To summarize, a great number of teenagers in the current study stated that they use English in their written CMC without actively being aware of it, because it is easier to use in some contexts, and because it facilitates being able to express feelings and opinions in a better way. In addition to this, many choose to use it because of its vast array of abbreviated forms. Thus, apart from using it without any conscious deliberation, the use of English in written CMC seems to assist the teenagers' communicative needs in electronic communication.

4.1.5 Recipients of messages with English words in written CMC

In addition to being asked *why* they choose to use English in their written CMC, the pupils were also asked *who* they send most messages containing English words and/or phrases to. The question had seven alternatives, which were *none*, *friends in Norway*, *friends abroad, parents*, *siblings*, *grandparents* and *aunts/uncles*, and the participants could choose several alternatives when answering the question. In addition to this, the pupils could fill in their own alternatives under *other*. This means that the numbers presented in Tables 4.7 and 4.8 exceed the total number of participants. However, some of the alternatives had very low scores, which made it preferable to reduce the number of categories presented in these tables. None of the pupils answered *none* or *grandparents*, two said *aunts/uncles*, and four wrote down their own alternatives under *other*. Consequently, very few pupils chose these alternatives when answering the question, and they will therefore not be further discussed in this section. An overview of these alternatives is presented in Appendix III.

Table 4.7 illustrates the pupils' answers to the question based on gender, while Table 4.8 contains the same overview based on age. The result that stands out the most is the alternative *friends in Norway*. As seen in the tables, 90% (67/74) of all the informants claimed to be sending messages with English words and/or phrases to *friends in Norway*. Both girls, boys, younger and older pupils have high response rates on this alternative, which demonstrates that almost all of the teenagers in the current

study claim to send messages with English words to friends living in Norway. This alternative is followed by *friends abroad*, which 38% (28/74) chose as their recipients of messages with English words. The alternative *siblings* comes in third place with a 36% (27/74) response rate, before *parents* in last place chosen by 16% (12/74) of the pupils. Evidently, then, a great majority of participants claim to be sending messages with English words to *friends in Norway*, and fewer claim to be using English with older interlocutors such as *parents*, *grandparents*, and *aunts/uncles*. It is however worth remembering that the pupils could choose as many alternatives as they wanted to when answering the question, and in most cases this is what they did. Out of those who answered *friends in* Norway, 58% (39/67) also said either *friends abroad* or *siblings* in addition to this alternative, showing that a majority of them also use English with other groups in addition to their friends in Norway.

Table 4.7: *Choice of recipients to messages with English words based on gender*

	Friends in Norway	**Friends abroad**	**Parents**	**Siblings**
Girls n= 35	34 (97%)	12 (34%)	6 (17%)	11 (31%)
Boys n= 39	33 (85%)	16 (41%)	6 (15%)	16 (41%)
Total n= 74	67 (90%)	28 (38%)	12 (16%)	27 (36%)

Table 4.8: *Choice of recipients to messages with English words based on age*

	Friends in Norway	**Friends abroad**	**Parents**	**Siblings**
Younger n= 41	37 (90%)	13 (32%)	8 (19%)	14 (34%)
Older n= 33	30 (91%)	15 (45%)	4 (12%)	13 (39%)
Total n= 74	67 (90%)	28 (38%)	12 (16%)	27 (36%)

Moreover, there are some distinctions when it comes to gender. As seen in Table 4.7, the boys stated that they send more messages with English words to *friends abroad* compared to the females, while the females had a higher percentage of messages with English words sent to *friends in Norway*. These results could indicate that boys, compared to girls, communicate more with people abroad in their written CMC. Likewise, although both age groups have high response rates on the alternative *friends in Norway* presented in Table 4.8, the older group has a higher response rate on the

category *friends abroad*. This may again indicate that the older pupils communicate more with friends from other countries in their written CMC compared to their younger counterparts.

In conclusion, a clear majority of teenagers participating in the current study claim that they are sending most of their messages with English words to friends living in Norway, and the percentages are almost equally as high for both genders and age groups. This shows that English is frequently used in conversations even though both the sender and the receiver are living in Norway. Additionally, a moderately high percentage of participants use English with friends abroad, but this category has somewhat higher percentages amongst the male and older informants in the study.

4.2. Findings from fictional chat-messages

The second part of this chapter presents and discusses relevant and compelling findings from the pupils' answers to the fictional chat-messages. The findings will not be linked to any hypotheses in this section, which means that some of the tables presented in this section will be repeated in the third and final part of this chapter. The fictional chat-messages were answered by 68 of the 74 participants who took part in the present study. The pupils replied to 11 different messages each, which means that they responded to 748 messages in total.

4.2.1 Number of English words produced by participants

This section will present the total number of words and the number of English words written by the participants in their answers to the fictional chat-messages, in addition to presenting a division in numbers between English words used in phrases and English words used as single words. A further elaboration on gender and age disparities will be presented and discussed in the third and last part of this chapter, combined with relevant hypotheses and statistical testing on the variables. Hence, the numbers are only shown in this section to create a better picture of the lexical and morphological analysis of the pupils' use of English, which is the focal point of this second part of Chapter four.

Tables 4.9 and 4.10 contain an overview of the pupils' total amount of words produced to answer the fictional chat-messages, in addition to the number of English words inserted and the percentages these English words constitute. Both single words

and words in phrases are included in these tables. The former table presents the numbers based on gender, while the latter is based on age. Decimals will be included in the percentages in these tables to better demonstrate the differences existing across variables.

Table 4.9: *Number of words in messages produced by participants based on gender*

	Total of words	English words	% of English words
Girls	4,301	260	6.1%
Boys	2,525	158	6.3%
Total	6,826	418	6.1%

Table 4.10: *Number of words in messages produced by participants based on age*

	Total of words	English words	% of English words
Younger	3,239	181	5.6%
Older	3,587	237	6.6%
Total	6,826	418	6.1%

The tables show that the pupils produced a total amount of 6,826 words in their answers to the fictional messages, and that 418 of them were in English. Consequently, 6.1% of the words written by the participants were English. Moreover, there are visible distinctions within the two variables gender and age, which will be further dealt with in Section 4.3.

4.2.1.1 English phrases

According to Myers-Scotton (2002), code-switching entails both single words and longer phrases. The present thesis will include both of these categories, but make a clear distinction between the frequencies and lexical and morphological treatment of the two. Traditional grammars define a phrase as containing more than one word (Huddleston & Pullum 2005:13), while English Oxford Living Dictionaries state that a phrase is 'a small group of words that forms a meaningful unit within a clause' (English Oxford Living Dictionaries 2019). Either way, the current thesis will differentiate between *single words* (consisting of only one word) and *phrases* (consisting of more than one

word). Although Tables 4.9 and 4.10 show that 418 (or 6.1%) of the words produced by the pupils were in English, it is important to highlight that some of these words are single words while others are part of a phrase in English. This section will present the numbers for these divisions, while Section 4.2.2 will categorize and analyze these cases to create an improved picture of the pupils' insertion of English in their written CMC.

Table 4.11 presents the number of English phrases written by the pupils in their messages, in addition to the number of words these phrases consist of and the average number of words used in English phrases. The pupils produced 65 phrases in English in their answers to the fictional messages, and the phrases consisted of 171 words. Taking into consideration that the pupils produced 418 English words in their messages, the words that are part of the 65 phrases constitute 41% of all the English words written by the participants. This illustrates that the majority of English words used by the participants are single words and not part of a phrase.

Table 4.11: *Number of English phrases and English words used in phrases based on gender*

	English phrases	**English words in phrases**	**Average number of English words in phrases**
Girls n= 35	49	130	2.6
Boys n= 39	16	41	2.5
Total n= 74	65	171	2.6

The results demonstrate that there are gender disparities present in the pupils' production of English phrases. Table 4.11 shows that the girls produced 49 phrases in English in their messages, while the boys only produced 16. Divided by the number of participants in these groups, the girls wrote 1.4 English phrases per female participant, while the boys only wrote 0.4 per male informant. Furthermore, if the total number of English words used in the messages presented in Table 4.9 is taken into consideration, 50% of the total number of English words written by the girls were part of English phrases, whereas only 26% of the total number of English words written by the boys were found in English phrases. Hence, the girls had a higher number of English words found in phrases compared to the boys.

Moreover, if the number of words in the English phrases are divided by the number of English phrases produced, the girls' phrases had 2.6 words per phrase, and the boys' contained 2.5 words per phrase. Thus, the phrases produced by the two groups were almost the same length. Consequently, the English phrases written by the girls were not particularly much longer than the boys', but they were more frequently used in their answers to the fictional messages. This is also evident in Table 4.11, where it is illustrated that the girls wrote 33 more phrases in English than the boys. Hence, the results show that girls used more English phrases in their written CMC compared to their male counterparts.

4.2.1.2 English single words

If the English words used in phrases are removed from the total number of English words produced, the results show that the pupils produced 247 single words in English. The single words are thus 59% of the totality of English words produced by the pupils, which demonstrates that the pupils' messages had more occurrences of English single words than English phrases. Tables 4.12 and 4.13 presented below give an overview of the number of English single words written by the pupils, including the percentages they constitute in the leftmost column based on the total number of English words produced. The former table is categorized by gender, and the latter by age.

Table 4.12: *Number of words in English produced by pupils based on gender*

	Total of words in English	**Single words in English**	**% of single words in English**
Girls n= 35	260	130	50%
Boys n= 39	158	117	74%
Total n= 74	418	247	59%

Table 4.12 shows that the girls wrote 130 single words in English in their messages, while the boys produced 117. Thus, 50% of all the English words written by the girls were single words, whereas the boys' single words were 74% of all the English words they produced. This demonstrates that there is a discrepancy in the percentages of single words written by the two groups, and it is noticeable by looking at the percentages that

the boys used more English single words in their messages and that the girls leaned more towards English phrases than their counterparts. Consequently, the results indicate that girls made more use of English phrases in their written CMC, compared to the males who had a higher usage of English single words.

Table 4.13: *Number of words in English produced by pupils based on age*

	Total of words in English	Single words in English	% of single words in English
Younger n= 41	181	129	71%
Older n= 33	237	118	50%
Total n= 74	418	247	59%

Likewise, there is also a difference between the two age groups. As illustrated in Table 4.13, the younger pupils had a higher percentage of English single words than the older participants, who had half of their English words as single words and the other half in phrases. Thus, the results show that the younger participants used more English single words than the older pupils, who made more use of English phrases than their younger equivalents.

4.2.2 Use of English phrases

The two following sections will analyze and categorize the English words used by the participants to answer the fictional messages. The current section will focus on English phrases, while the succeeding section will analyze English single words.

Phrases are normally seen as consisting of a head either alone or accompanied by one or more dependents, where the category of the phrase depends on that of the head (Huddleston & Pullum 2005:22). The objective of this section, however, is not to classify every phrase written by the pupils down to their phrasal levels, but to investigate frequency and possible categorizations of occurrences. This section will therefore not go into detail on every instance of phrasal use, but give an indication of frequency and categories accompanied with examples. Where it is possible, they will be categorized into clauses. The examples taken from the pupils' answers to the fictional messages will be placed in italics, accompanied with gender and age in parentheses.

As illustrated in Table 4.11, most of the phrases were short and consisted of a head and two, three, or four dependents. Since one of the fictional messages created by me contained the phrases *Paradise Hotel* and *Ex on the Beach*, which are popular reality TV-shows in Norway, seven of the pupils' messages contained these phrases. Moreover, with the exception of example [16] and [17], both written by girls, the remaining phrases consisted of either two or three words. Most of these phrases can either be analyzed as declarative clauses, as in [18], [19], and [20], or imperative clauses, which are exemplified in [21], [22], and [23].

[16] *abort mission I repeat abort mission* (Girl 18-19).
[17] *like what the fuck* (Girl 18-19).
[18] *U can do this* (Girl 12-13).
[19] *I love it* (Girl 12-13).
[20] *You know me* (Girl 18-19).
[21] *Go for it* (Boy 18-19).
[22] *Do it* (Boy 18-19).
[23] *Fuck dat shit* (Girl 18-19).

Since the girls wrote three times as many English phrases as the boys, it would come as no surprise that the grand majority of phrases exemplified in [16–23] were written by the girls. The only two occurrences of English imperative clauses written by the boys are those presented in [21] and [22]. They did not write any English declarative clauses in their messages.

Apart from declarative and imperative clauses, several of the phrases written by the pupils contained profanities. Thus, these are categorized under *expletives*, and they are exemplified in [24], [25], and [26].

[24] *My fucking god* [sic] (Girl 18-19).
[25] *Fuck yeah* (Girl 18-19).
[26] *Hell no* (Boy 12-13).

Most of the expletives were written by the female participants, and especially so the older girls. The younger girls did not partake in frequent production of profanities, and the boys produced rather few themselves. In addition to *shitty ass*, the boys wrote the expletive exemplified in [26] two times. This was rather unexpected, since various research on sociolinguistics claim that men tend to be more frequent users of profanities in communication with others (Baron 2004:402). However, the current study did not take Norwegian profanities into consideration, and these could possibly have changed the results. Nevertheless, that is beyond the scope of the present thesis. Another possible explanation is the 'Observer's Paradox' (Labov 2006:86), meaning that the participants may have been influenced by my presence or in many cases the presence of their teachers. The presence of authoritative figures might have affected their wish to use profanities, especially because the study was conducted in a school setting where the use of profanities is normally forbidden.

The remainder of English phrases will be categorized under *miscellaneous*, since they do not have a clear category affiliation. Examples [27], [28], and [29] give an indication of what this category comprises, and the examples demonstrate that the phrases in this category were all short phrases, most of them consisting of no more than two elements.

[27] *No thanks* (Girl 18-19).
[28] *Not really* (Boy 18-19).
[29] *For sure* (Boy 12-13).

With the exception of five instances where words were replaced by pictograms and logograms as exemplified in [30] and [31], in addition to three instances of expressive lengthening found in [32] and one word with Norwegian orthography in [33], the remaining 56 phrases written by the pupils had no influence of characteristic CMC forms or word-formation processes, nor Norwegian inflections or orthography. Hence, only 14% or nine out of 65 phrases were affected by any form of morphological operations.

[30] *Me 2* (Boy 12-13).

[31] *U go girl* (Girl 18-19).
[32] *Heeeeell nooooo* (Girl 12-13).
[33] *Fuck dat shit* (Girl 18-19).

In conclusion, the results presented in this section indicate that the pupils produced short phrases in English and imposed very few word-formation processes as well as Norwegian inflections or orthography on the English phrases in their answers to the fictional chat-messages. Additionally, there were only a few instances where English phrases were influenced by word-form characteristics frequently found in CMC language.

4.2.3 Use of English single words

This section will categorize and analyze the English single words used by the pupils in their answers to the fictional messages. Some of the categories classifying them do however intertwine with words used in phrases in Section 4.2.2, so in some cases these will also be included in this section and be given as examples. Hence, the sum of all the categories presented in this section will surpass the total amount of single words presented in Tables 4.12 and 4.13. Examples from the original messages written by the pupils will be placed in italics, and their translated counterparts will be placed in single quotation marks. Gender and age will be placed in parentheses.

4.2.3.1 Abbreviations and acronyms

Of the 247 English single words found in the pupils' answers to the fictional chat-messages, the results showed that 67 of them were abbreviations and acronyms. Thus, 27% of the English words used in these messages were English abbreviations and acronyms. Yet, when taking in the total number of words written in the messages presented in Table 4.10, English abbreviations and acronyms constitute only 1% of all the words written by the pupils. This section will follow Nelsen and Greenbaum's (2016:273) categorization of abbreviations, where acronyms are formed from the initial letters of the words in a phrase and pronounced as a word, and abbreviations are pronounced saying each individual letter. Out of the 67 abbreviations produced by the pupils, 23 were acronyms and 44 were abbreviations. This subsection will however not

go into detail on the differences in usage of English abbreviations and acronyms, and the term *abbreviations* will henceforth refer to both abbreviations and acronyms.

The data shows that the abbreviation most frequently used was *lol* 'laughing out loud', as seen in examples [34] and [35], which was written 14 times. This was followed by *idk* 'I don't know' [36] which was used 11 times, before *rip* 'rest in peace' [37] came in third used eight times and *wtf* 'what the fuck' [35] in fourth place used seven times. However, it is also useful to look at how many informants used the various abbreviations mentioned in examples [34–37]. Even though *lol* was written 14 different times, it was only used by five participants. Furthermore, *idk* was used by nine pupils, while *wtf* was used by seven. Lastly, *rip* was used by six informants. Hence, *idk* and *wtf* were the two abbreviations used by most of the participants in the study.

Examined from an age perspective, the younger participants produced 42 abbreviations, whereas the older pupils only produced 25. Thus, if the total numbers of English single words presented in Table 4.13 are taken into consideration, 33% of the English single words written by the younger participants were abbreviations, while 21% of the older pupils' English single words were abbreviations. In other words, the younger pupils produced 12% more English abbreviations than the older participants. This difference, although a great deal higher, was also found in Table 4.6 (see Section 4.1.4), where 29% of the younger pupils claimed to use English due to its abbreviations. Contrary to this, only 3% of the older pupils answered the same. Gender disparities will be analyzed and discussed more thoroughly in Section 4.3.5.

[34] *Nei* ***lol*** *e du sjuk elle* 'No **lol** are you sick or what' (Boy 18-19).
[35] ***Wtf*** *det er sykt kjedelig* ***lol*** '**Wtf** that is so boring **lol'** (Boy 12-13).
[36] *Jobb med faget,* ***idk*** 'Work with the subject, **idk'** (Girl 18-19).
[37] ***Rip*** *deg* '**Rip** you' (Boy 12-13).

Although *lol* originally stood for 'laughing out loud', multiple sources claim that its semantics have changed and that the abbreviation has turned into more of a marker of irony and/or sarcasm. This is supported in an article from the Norwegian newspaper *iTromsø*, where one of the Norwegian teenagers highlights that they do use *lol* in written and spoken communication, but that it is only used to signal irony (Ramberg

and Aronsen 2015). Additionally, Urban Dictionary's top definition states that 'It's original definition was "Laughing out loud", […] [but now] it is overused to the point where nobody laughs out loud when they say it' (1999, accessed 4th of May 2019). The dictionary furthermore claims that the abbreviation's definition may vary, and in the list of meanings one can amongst others find 'I have nothing worthwhile to contribute to this conversation' (Urban Dictionary 1999, accessed 4th of May 2019). Taking these definitions into consideration, it would be reasonable to say that the intent of the pupils in examples [34] and [35] is to be sarcastic or to imply that they have little to offer the recipient by adding the abbreviation.

Another interesting case is the abbreviation *rip* 'rest in peace'. Half of the times this abbreviation was used in the phrase *rip deg*, literally meaning *rip you* 'rest in peace you'. Not only is this ungrammatical if written word for word, but it seems strange when read in context. Nevertheless, Urban Dictionary's top definition claims that the abbreviation is 'Used to indicate that a plan or idea has fallen through' (1999, accessed 6th of May 2019). Based on this, it would seem as if the sender uses this phrase as a reply to the receiver to indicate that either the sender or the receiver is not able to comply with the plan or idea originally set forth.

By and large, English abbreviations and acronyms were used rather frequently in the pupils' messages, although the former were used twice as often as the latter. This was illustrated in the results, which showed that 27% of the English single words were English abbreviations. Nevertheless, if all the words produced by the pupils are taken into consideration, English abbreviations and acronyms only constitute 1%. In other words, the frequency of English abbreviations and acronyms is not very high in the overall picture. Moreover, the younger informants produced a great deal more English abbreviations and acronyms compared to the older pupils in the study, indicating that the usage is more popular amongst younger teenagers.

4.2.3.2 Negation

Negation can, amongst other things, be expressed by inserting the negative forms *not* and *no* (Payne 2011:373). The analysis of the pupils' messages showed that they used several versions of the adverb *no* to express negation in their answers to the fictional messages. Apart from *no*, the results illustrate the use of *nope*, *nah*, and *neh*. The

answers to the fictional messages written by the pupils contained 26 English markers of negation used as single words. Consequently, 6% of the English single words used by the participants were makers of negation. In addition to this, negation was used in nine of the 65 English phrases. Out of all the single word negations, *nope* [38] was the most frequent in usage, seeing as it was written 16 times by 15 different pupils. This was followed by *no*, which was used nine times by nine different participants. It is noticeable that in all cases except for one, *no* was used in an English phrase, and the most common phrase was *hell no*, which was written four times either standing alone, accompanied with *haha*, or with expressive lengthening [42]. Moreover, variations of *nah* [40] were written five times by five different pupils, before varieties of *neh* [41] came in fourth written four times by three different pupils.

[38] ***Nope**, me kan ha partyar uten alkohol* '**Nope**, we can have parties without alcohol' (Girl 18-19).
[39] *Ehm **nope** følte ikkje med haha* 'Ehm **nope** I wasn't paying attention haha' (Girl 18-19).
[40] ***Naah**, kanskje vent da eg skal sjekke* '**Naah**, maybe wait and I'll check' (Girl 12-13).
[41] ***Nehh** meg og hahaha* '**Nehh** me too hahaha' (Boy 12-13).
[42] *Hell **nooo**!* (Girl 18-19).

The Oxford English Dictionary classifies both *nope* and *nah* as variants of *no* (Oxford English Dictionary 2019), while Urban Dictionary's top definition categorizes *neh* as '[…] a way of saying no with a degree of disgust or negativity' (Urban Dictionary 1999, accessed March 22nd 2019). Examples [38] and [39] give an idea of what Andersen (2006:28) calls showing neutral feelings to a situation. Thus, *nope* may be inserted for the sender to show that he or she is either indifferent to or only slightly interested in the topic of conversation. In many cases *nope* was inserted as the sole reply to a question in the messages, and this exclusion of additional information could attest to the senders' lack of interest in the topic. Example [40] contains the discourse marker *naah*, and the pupils shifted between this spelling and the spellings *nah, nahh,* and *na*. The same goes for example [41], where the pupils shifted between *neh* and *nehh*.

In conclusion, there were several occurrences of English markers of negation inserted into the pupils' messages, and they shifted between various different types of negation. Gender and age differences were relatively small when it comes to negation, and the markers were used almost equally as much across all the variables.

4.2.3.3 Profanities

The results of the present study demonstrate that English profanities were used as single words in 10 different instances in the pupils' answers to the fictional messages, meaning that they constitute 4% of all the English single words used in the participants' messages. This shows that profanities are not a large proportion of the English words used, but there are clear age differences related to the use of English profanities in the results. Out of the 10 English profanities used by the participants, nine were written by the older pupils while only one younger participant used an English profanity in his messages. This shows that the use of English profanities was more popular amongst the older pupils in the study. The only profanity used as a single word in the messages was various forms of *shit* [43–44] which were used by nine different participants. Profanities were also used in phrases, and the most common ones are those exemplified in [45] and [46].

[43] ***Shiit****, så gøy!* '**Shiit**, so much fun!' (Girl 18-19).
[44] *Det suge jo* ***shit*** 'That sucks **shit'** (Boy 18-19).
[45] *Fuck dat* ***shit*** 'Fuck that **shit'** (Girl 18-19).
[46] ***Hell*** *no* (Boy 12-13).

Apart from the normal spelling of *shit*, the participants also used other spelling varieties such as *shii, shiit, shiii, shitt* and *shitty*. Thus, this profanity experienced both vowel and consonant lengthening. The examples presented above demonstrate that the profanity *shit* is used both to emphasize positive as well as negative feelings to an occurrence, the former found in example [43], and the latter in example [44]. As previously mentioned, Baron (2004:405) highlights how research show that males are more likely to make use of profanities when interacting with others. This was not the case with the English single word profanities in the current study, where only three out of ten were written by

male participants. However, Norwegian profanities are not taken into consideration in this thesis, and these could potentially have changed the results. Nevertheless, the inclusion of Norwegian words is beyond the scope of this thesis. As mentioned in Section 4.2.2, the 'Observer's Paradox' (Labov 2006:86) might also have affected their willingness to use profanities in their messages, since the presence of authoritative figures in a school setting may prevent the pupils from feeling comfortable with producing this kind of language.

4.2.3.4 Expressive lengthening

As mentioned in Section 2.3.2, research has shown that the use of longer vowel duration, often found in expressive lengthening, can make the sender sound more sensitive and emotional towards the recipient (Klatt 1976, cited in Coats 2016:202). The results of the current thesis show that 10 pupils used expressive lengthening on 13 single words in English, which means that 5% of the English single words written by the pupils contained instances of expressive lengthening. Various uses of this process on single words are exemplified below in [47–50]. Additionally, expressive lengthening was used in several of the English phrases produced by the pupils. The phrase *hell no* with extended vowels was repeated twice, and only by girls.

[47] *yaaaaaaaaas* (Girl 12-13).
[48] *saaame* (Girl 18-19).
[49] *aiit* (Boy 18-19).
[50] *laaaaaaameeeee* (Girl 18-19).

It is noteworthy that only two of the occurrences with expressive lengthening on single words were produced by boys, while the rest were produced by girls. In other words, 23% (8/35) of the girls and only 5% (2/39) of the boys used this process on single words in their messages. Hence, expressive lengthening was dominated by the female participants in the study, and this may indicate that it is a process generally more used by females. As mentioned in the beginning of this subsection, longer vowel duration can make the sender seem more sensitive and emotional towards the recipient. This could relate to what is typically thought of as characteristics of female interaction,

which Holmes (1995:2) expresses as the desire to '[…] establish, nurture and develop relationships' in addition to focusing on the feelings of their addressee in their interactions. Likewise, Baron (2004:405) stresses that the female language is more socially involved than the male language. These factors might make females more prone to the use of processes such as expressive lengthening.

4.2.3.5 English words with Norwegian inflection or orthography

English verbs with Norwegian inflection. As noted in Chapter two of this thesis, Andersen (2006:28) highlights that a common characteristic of words imported from other languages into Norwegian is that they almost always follow the same grammatical patterns of inflection as Norwegian words tend to do. Hence, the root of the verb or noun is taken from another language, e.g. English, and an ending from the Norwegian inflectional system is added. This process was clearly visible on several of the English verbs and nouns used by the pupils in the present study in their answers to the fictional chat-messages.

Norwegian verbs in the infinitive usually end in *–e*, and Graedler (1998:78) gives several examples in her research where verbs imported from English to Norwegian ending in *–e* are used in the infinitive in writing. Although this was found in the results of the present thesis as well, it is important to emphasize that the informants in the current study were from Hordaland and Rogaland. This means that many of them use dialects or Nynorsk (one of the two standard written languages in Norway) when communicating online. In these instances, the *–e* ending in the infinitive is often replaced with an *–a* ending, which is visible in examples [51], [52], and [53]. Moreover, Norwegian verbs in the present tense usually end in *–er* (Graedler 1998:78), but many dialects (including dialects in Rogaland and Hordaland) skip the last *–r* in spoken and informal written discourse and end their verbs in the present tense with *–e*. Examples [54] and [55] below show the pupils' use of English verbs with the Norwegian present tense inflection ending in *–e*. Eight pupils wrote in total ten English verbs with Norwegian inflections in their messages, which constitute 4% of the English single words produced by the participants.

[51] *Kim ska **joina** og når e og starte an?* 'Who wants to **join** and when is it starting?' (Girl 18-19).
[52] *Eg hadde valgt USA om eg ville **explora** og Thailand om eg ville **chilla*** 'I would have chosen the US if I wanted to **explore** and Thailand if I wanted to **chill**' (Girl 18-19).
[53] *Hvis du like han o så kan du **chatta** me han, hør ka han har å sei, så tar du d der ifra* 'If you like him you can **chat** with him, listen to what he has to say, and take it from there' (Girl 18-19).
[54] *I he allerede sett den, **joine** kanskje hvis me ser en anna film då?* 'I've already seen it, might **join** if we see another movie?' (Girl 12-13).
[55] *Eg **joine** å gå på kino* 'I'll **join** going to the movie theatre' (Girl 18-19).

This category is also dominated by the female participants in the study. Out of the ten English verbs with Norwegian inflections written by the pupils, only one was produced by a boy and it was the same as the one mentioned in [53]. Since this section only presents the English verbs with Norwegian inflections, a comparison on the use of English verbs with and without Norwegian inflections will be presented in Section 4.2.3.8.

English nouns with Norwegian inflection. Norwegian nouns are inflected for number (singular and plural) and definiteness (indefinite and definite) (Graedler 1998:111). Singular definite nouns in the masculine and feminine form usually end in *–en*, neuter nouns end in *–et*, and plural nouns end in *–ene* (Graedler 1998:112). In Norwegian, the noun is written in the definite form if the possessive pronoun is placed behind the noun, which is the case in examples [56], [57], and [59], whereas in example [58] the noun is placed in the definite form with a Norwegian inflectional ending without a possessive pronoun. Counted together, the data consists of 14 instances of English nouns with Norwegian inflections, which constitute 6% of the English single words used by the pupils.

[56] *Har de, men har fjernet de fra **storien** min* 'I have them, but I have removed them from my **story'** (referring to MyStory on Snapchat) (Girl 12-13).

[57] *NEI!!!! de ser jo* ***storyen*** *din* 'NO!!!! They'll see your **story**' (referring to MyStory on Snapchat) (Boy 12-13).
[58] *Er ikke mora di. Står på* ***itsen*** 'I'm not your mom. It's on **It's Learning** (It's Learning = digital learning management system) (Girl 18-19).
[59] *E du crazy elle? Du kan jo bruka* ***shacoinsene*** *dine på noe bedre enn russatio* 'Are you crazy? You can use your **shacoins** on something better than your senior year' (*Shacoins* is a cryptocurrency, in this case used for the noun 'money', while *russetid* is the last part of the pupils' senior year, where they celebrate finishing upper secondary school) (Girl 18-19).

In total, 13 different pupils wrote English nouns with Norwegian inflections, and the male participants wrote one more than the females. Thus, 5% of the English single words produced by the girls were English nouns with Norwegian inflections, while 6% of the English single words produced by the boys were English nouns with Norwegian inflections. In other words, the boys wrote more English nouns with Norwegian inflections than the girls. Additionally, as illustrated in examples [56], [57], and [58], the teenagers relied solely on masculine endings in their English nouns with Norwegian inflections, and the data had no instances of English nouns in the singular definite form with Norwegian neuter inflectional endings. Consequently, the results indicate that nouns imported from other languages, such as English, to Norwegian, most commonly acquire the Norwegian masculine ending in the singular definite form.

English words with Norwegian orthography. Grøvli (2013) mentioned in her master's thesis that she had found several instances of English words with Norwegian orthography in her data. She argued that this is a continuation of the process of integrating English expressions within the Norwegian language frame, where words and expressions are integrated to the extent that they are written as if they *are* Norwegian (Grøvli 2013:91). An example of an English word with a well established Norwegian orthography is *service*, which can be written both as *service* and as *sørvis* in Norwegian (Bokmålsordboka 2016). The results of the study showed that the messages contained four types of English single words with Norwegian orthography that are not seen as well established loanwords in Norwegian today [60–61], and one that was part of a phrase [62]. *Fåkkings* was used two times by one participant. Hence, these words

constitute 2% of the English single words written by the pupils, making them a rather small contribution compared to many of the other categories.

[60] *Gjør dei **fåkkings** leksene då da d e ikkje så vanskelig* 'Do your **fucking** homework it isn't that hard' (Boy 12-13).
[61] *USA, di har **nais** snop du kan kjøpa te meg* 'USA, they have **nice** candy you can buy for me' (Boy 18-19).
[62] *Fuck **dat** shit* 'Fuck **that** shit' (Girl 18-19).

It is worth noting that English single words with Norwegian orthography were only produced by male participants in the study, while the phrase was written by a female participant. Thus, although the process of adding Norwegian orthography to English words was not very frequent in the data collected from the pupils in the present thesis, it was used more by boys than by girls.

4.2.3.6 Pictograms, logograms, omitted letters and nonstandard spelling

David Crystal (2008) differentiates between various features he believes are distinctive in CMC discourse. Apart from abbreviations and acronyms, which are discussed in Section 4.2.3.1, the pupils' response to the fictional messages contained examples of English words realized as pictograms and logograms, English words with omitted letters, and English words influenced by nonstandard spellings.

Pictograms and logograms are the categories where single letters or numerals are used to represent words or parts of words (Crystal 2008:37). They were located in five of the messages written by the pupils, by five different participants. However, they were only used in phrases and never as single words. Example [63] shows how the respondent has used the letter <u> to represent the word *you*, which happened in four of the five instances, while example [64] shows the numeral *2* representing the word *too*.

[63] ***U** can do this* '**You** can do this' (Girl 12-13).
[64] *Me **2*** 'Me **too'** (Boy 12-13).

Four of these occurrences were produced by girls, and only one was produced by a boy. Hence, pictograms and logograms were not very frequently used in the pupils' messages, but they were used more by female than male participants. Nonetheless, seeing as this was a process only affecting phrases, one could think that this process is in need of context in order to be used by the sender and understood by the receiver. In other words, it might be difficult to infer meaning if an English pictogram or logogram is inserted into an otherwise Norwegian context. All in all, pictograms and logograms are distinctive features used in written CMC, but they were not very frequent amongst the teenagers in the present study.

Furthermore, Crystal (2008:45) mentions omitted letters, where words are shortened by omitting letters from the middle, which can be termed contractions, or dropping a letter from the end, which Crystal terms clipping. Nelson and Greenbaum (2016:273), on the other side, define clipping as the process of removing a part of a word, usually at the end, and preserving the remaining part. Although mentioned under omitted letters by Crystal (2008:45), this could also be termed a word-formation process (Nelson & Greenbaum 2016:273). The pupils in the present study made use of both contractions [65–67] and clippings [68] in their messages, and their messages contained 19 instances of clipping and three occurrences of contractions. Combined, the two word-formation processes constitute 9% of all the single words in English written by the participants. In examples [65] and [66] the pupils have removed the vowel <o> from the word *sorry*. On the one hand, one could argue that this might be a spelling error, but on the other hand, it was written two times by two different teenagers. This may indicate that the spelling was done deliberately, but it is hard to say for certain without having asked the participants. In example [67], the word *maybe* lacks two letters and the final letter is changed, making it more possible to assume that the spelling was done deliberately. Example [68] contains the clipped word *snap* from 'Snapchat', and this clipped form was used quite frequently by the pupils. In total, *snap* was used 13 times by 11 different participants, making clipping a rather frequent word-formation process.

[65] *Nai* ***srry*** *kan ikkje ska på fjelle* 'No **sorry** can't I'm going to the mountain' (Boy 12-13).
[66] ***Srry*** *gidd ikkje* '**Sorry** not up for it' (Boy 12-13).

[67] ***Mby*** *det kem e med?* '**Maybe** so who's with?' (Boy 12-13).
[68] *Det er helt greit jeg har mamma på* ***snap*** 'It's fine I have my mom on **Snapchat** (Girl 12-13).

In any case, clippings on English words were considerably more frequent than contractions in the pupils' messages. This frequency is mainly due to the clipping of the word *Snapchat*, which was a recurrent word in the participants' answers. It should be noted that one of the fictional messages created by me contained the word *Snapchat*, which might be the reason why this word was so frequently used in the pupils' answers. Nevertheless, the pupils were in no way persuaded to clip the word based on the input from the fictional messages. Moreover, although clipping was done by both genders, contractions were only produced by male participants.

Lastly, Crystal (2008:45) mentions nonstandard spellings, which he states can be used both deliberately and unconsciously. Examples [69–71] presented below show how the pupils made use of nonstandard spellings in their messages, and in total these occurred nine times written by eight different participants.

[69] ***Bruh****, nei du må øve lmao* '**Brother**, no you must practice lmao' (Boy 12-13).
[70] ***Aiit*** *når går ann?* '**Alright**, when does it start?' (Boy 18-19).
[71] *Hhhhahah* ***pliz*** *gjør d!* 'Hhhahah **please** do it!' (Girl 18-19).

To sum up, a small but noteworthy part of the English words produced by the pupils were affected by nonstandard spellings. Six of the nonstandard spellings were produced by boys, while only three were written by girls. Thus, nonstandard spellings were more popular amongst the male participants in the study. It is hard to say for certain whether the nonstandard spellings in examples [69–71] were constructed deliberately or unconsciously, since the pupils were not asked specifically about this. Nevertheless, Section 4.1.4 showed that many of the participants stated that they use English in their written CMC without any conscious deliberation, and one could argue that this might be the case for the nonstandard spellings as well.

4.2.3.7 English words affected by word-formation processes

Affixation. As highlighted in Chapter two, affixation is the process of expanding a base either through prefixation, where an affix is added before the base, or suffixation, when an affix is attached after its base (Bauer 2004:87). The latter was discovered in the pupils' messages through the addition of the suffix *–ings*. This is not a suffix one would use in English nor in other Norwegian gradable adverbs, and it therefore becomes noteworthy when found in the gradable adverb *fuckings* 'fucking' in the pupils' messages (either written with English or Norwegian orthography). As mentioned in Chapter two, Graedler (1998:196–197) suggests that the suffix stems from English (see Section 2.3.1). Although her examples are Norwegian words containing this type of suffix, one could imagine that the teenagers are aware of the suffix and bring it into words such as *fuckings* by analogy when it is used as a Norwegian adverb. Examples [72–74] demonstrate the pupils' use of *fuckings* in their answers to the fictional messages.

[72] *Viss du **fuckings** melde deg inn på det shitshower der….* 'If you **fucking** sign up for that shitshower' (Girl 18-19).
[73] *Gjør dei **fåkkings** leksene då da d e ikkje så vanskelig* 'Do your **fucking** homework it isn't that hard' (Boy 12-13).
[74] *Nai ka tror du eg e ikkje **fåkkings** hjernehemma* 'No what do you think I'm not **fucking** brain damaged' (Boy 12-13).

The examples presented above are the only instances present in the data, meaning that the word was written three times by two different pupils. Hence, it was not used very frequently in the pupils' messages, but it is nevertheless a noticeable suffix. This type of suffixation is also brought up in Grøvli's thesis, where she notes that her informants used it rather frequently added to the base *fuck* (2013:84). Thus, the suffix *–ings* seems to have become common in use amongst the younger generations in Norway. Since there were no hits on this suffix attached to the base *fuck* when searching English corpora, the idea that Norwegians bring it into words such as *fuckings* by analogy from other Norwegian words is supported.

Conversion. As mentioned in Chapter two, conversion is a word-formation process where a word that normally occurs in one word-class takes on the characteristics of a different word-class without changing its form (Bauer 2004:36). Although this process usually takes place in the donor language, it can also occur when words are imported from one language to another. In the case of the latter, the conversion takes place in the receiving language. Example [75] shows conversion from noun to verb, and in this case the pupil has used the noun *game* as a verb *game*, with a Norwegian infinitival marker.

[75] *Fordi eg komme kje t å sitta inne og* ***game*** *gjennom russatiden* 'Because I'm not gonna sit inside and **game** all through my senior year' (Boy 18-19).

This was the only example of conversion used on English words by the pupils in the present study, which might indicate that the process does not very frequently occur when words are imported from one language to another. Nevertheless, the data in the present thesis is too small to be able to conclude on this statement.

Compound words. A compound word can be defined as a lexeme that contains two or more bases (Bauer 2004:32), and it is usually the second component of the unit that determines the meaning of the compound (Huddleston & Pullum 2005:283). Grøvli (2013:84) termed the compounds where one base is in Norwegian and the other is in English *hybrids*, and she found 38 different hybrids during one week of sampling messages from Norwegians in a chat-forum. In example [76] presented below, the pupil has combined the English adjective *nice* with the Norwegian adverb *drit*, which in this case is used as an amplifier representing *very*. Since the last component determines the meaning of the compound, the compound is translated as meaning *very nice*.

[76] *Drit****nice****!* 'Very **nice**!' (Boy 18-19).

The data collected for the current thesis only found one example of this kind of hybrid in the pupils' messages, but it is important to keep in mind that Grøvli's amount of data was nearly three times the size of mine (1188 tokens versus 418 tokens). The results

might have been different if the data for the current thesis had been larger, i.e. if it had included more tokens.

In sum, the results presented in this subsection show that although some loanwords are affected by derivational morphology when imported from English to Norwegian, it is not a very common process to occur.

4.2.3.8 English verbs, nouns, and adjectives

The subsections above have discussed instances where English nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs have been affected by characteristic CMC forms, various word-formation processes, or Norwegian orthography or inflectional morphology. Although these make up a very large portion of the data, the pupils did also produce English verbs, nouns, and adjectives in their original form without imposing any word-formation processes or Norwegian inflections or orthography on the loanwords.

If the English phrases written by the pupils are excluded, the data consists of 23 instances of English nouns [77], 19 English adjectives [78] and five English verbs exemplified in [79] and [80]. Hence, this group constitutes 19% of the English single words used by the pupils if grouped together as one category.

[77] *Bare lag ein sånn* ***story*** *såm bare noen kan se* 'Just create a **story** that only a few can see' (Boy 12-13).
[78] *Heie på deg ass, meld deg på også når du blir* ***famous*** *så gir du meg shout out på Instagram hahaha* 'I'm rooting for you, sign up and when you get **famous** you can give me a shout out on Instagram hahaha' (Girl 18-19).
[79] ***Add*** *henne på snap* '**Add** her on Snapchat' (Boy 18-19).
[80] ***Drop*** *ut av skolen* '**Drop** out of school' (Boy 12-13).

Age-wise the two groups produced almost equally as many English words in this category, whereas separated by gender the female pupils wrote 29 words within this category and the males wrote 18. Thus, the female participants produced more English verbs, nouns, and adjectives in their original form in their answers to the fictional messages.

If only English verbs are to be analyzed, the pupils' messages contained five instances of English verbs in their original form, which are exemplified in [79–80]. By contrast, their messages had ten occurrences of English verbs with Norwegian inflections, thereby showing that there were twice as many instances of English verbs with Norwegian inflections compared to those with no Norwegian inflection added. Thus, the former was more common in use by the pupils in the current study, demonstrating the grammatical influence of the Matrix language in code-switch situations (see Section 2.3.3).

4.2.3.9 Miscellaneous

The last category classifying the English single words used in the participants' messages will be termed *miscellaneous*. This is due to the words either not belonging to a specific category, or being too few to actually need their own category. Examples of miscellaneous words can be greetings [81], exclamations [82–83], and discourse markers [84].

[81] *Hadde dratt til USA,* ***hello*** *tenk på all shoppingen å godteriet bro* 'I would have gone to the US, **hello** think about all the shopping and candy brother' (Girl 12-13).
[82] ***What****!? E jo drit skoi* '**What**!? That is so much fun' (Girl 18-19).
[83] ***Yikes*** (Boy 18-19).
[84] *ja* ***sure*** 'yes **sure'** (Boy 12-13).

In total, the pupils wrote 22 words that can be placed in this category, and they were almost equally as much used by both genders and both age groups. The category is rather broad, and in most cases the words added to this category can be removed without affecting the grammatical structure of the sentences. Cambridge Dictionary (2019) states that discourse markers are added to '[…] connect, organize and manage what we say or write or to express attitude', and discourse markers such as [84] are referred to as *response tokens* included by the speaker or writer to show that he or she is listening and is interested in what the other person is saying. Thus, although they do not change the grammatical structure if removed, they nonetheless help the speaker show his or her attention to the matter and their attitude to the topic of conversation.

Lastly, an intriguing observation when analyzing the pupils' answers to the fictional messages is that there are great variations when it comes to their treatment of English single words and English phrases in relation to morphology. As has been presented and discussed in this section, several of the English single words written by the participants were given characteristic CMC forms or were affected by word-formation processes and Norwegian inflections and orthography. The findings in relation to the English phrases presented in Section 4.2.2, however, revealed that very few phrases were affected by these features compared to the single words. Thus, there seems to be a different morphological treatment of English single words versus English phrases produced by the pupils in the current study, where the phrases were subjected to far less derivational and inflectional morphological influence than the single words were.

4.3 Testing and discussing hypotheses

This third and last part of Chapter four presents, tests, and discusses the hypotheses presented in Chapter two. Hypothesis one stated that Norwegian teenagers insert an extensive amount of English into their written CMC, while hypothesis two argued that female Norwegian teenagers use more English in their written CMC than male Norwegian teenagers. Moreover, hypothesis three looked at age and claimed that older Norwegian teenagers, i.e. 18-19-year-olds, use more English in their written CMC compared to younger Norwegian teenagers, in other words 12-13-year-olds. Lastly, hypothesis four looked at use of English single words and stated that abbreviations and acronyms are the English words most frequently used in Norwegian teenagers' written CMC. Additionally, the hypothesis claimed that female Norwegian teenagers use more English abbreviations and acronyms in their written CMC compared to male Norwegian teenagers. Further elaborations on the hypotheses are found in the subsections below.

4.3.1 Statistical testing

To test the hypotheses and say whether the results are statistically significant or not, the current thesis has taken advantage of the Chi-square test (Preacher 2001). The reason for choosing this test is that the objectives of the hypotheses are to see if there is a relationship between the nominal variables, i.e. between gender groups (girls and boys) and age groups (younger and older pupils). Furthermore, the categories are mutually

exclusive and cannot be organized in a logical sequence. A p-value of .05 or less indicates a statistically significant difference between the groups compared. It should be kept in mind that the results from the Chi-square test presented in the sections below are meant as supplementary and not as absolute evidence for the truthfulness of the results.

4.3.2 Testing H1: Frequency in use of English in written CMC

A common perception of Norwegian teenagers' language is that it contains a high amount of English words both in spoken and written communication, and especially so in social media contexts (Skretting 2014; Ramberg & Aronsen 2015). Hypothesis number one therefore stated that Norwegian teenagers insert an extensive amount of English words and phrases into their written CMC. In addition to various newspaper articles discussing the topic, this hypothesis was based on research done by The Gallup Organization (2011), which looked at EU countries' use of English in online communication, and the study done by Forskningskampanjen (2014), in which a great majority of the teenage participants claimed that they use English in CMC areas such as text-messaging and chatting.

Table 4.14 contains an overview of the number of words found in the pupils' answers to the fictional messages, and it includes both the word number in total, the number of Norwegian and English words produced by the pupils, and lastly the percentages of English words used in their messages. Both single words and words found in phrases are included in the word count. Furthermore, this hypothesis will be discussed without any statistical testing, since it does not compare variables. Gender and age discrepancies will be dealt with in Sections 4.3.3 and 4.3.4.

Table 4.14: *Number of words found in pupils' messages*

	Words in messages	**Norwegian words in messages**	**English words in messages**	**% of English words in messages**
Young girls	1,804	1,729	75	4.2%
Older girls	2,497	2,312	185	7.4%
Young boys	1,435	1,329	106	7.4%
Older boys	1,090	1,038	52	4.8%
Total	6,826	6,408	418	6.1%

The table shows that the pupils sent in 6,826 words, and that 418 of them were in English. The English words thus constitute 6.1% of all the words used by the participants. The Norwegian words, on the other side, constitute 93.9% of all the words used by the pupils. Consequently, the results presented in Table 4.14 illustrate that a rather limited amount of words were written in English compared to the words produced in Norwegian. These results indicate that although the teenagers *did* insert English words into their written CMC, the amount they produced in answer to the fictional messages was rather low.

Moreover, through the questionnaire the participants were asked to rate approximately how many messages they send per day that contain English words. The question originally had seven alternative answers: *0, 10-30, 30-50, 50-70, 70-100, 100-150* and *150 or more*. However, several of them have been combined in this section to ease the presentation of alternatives and to improve the appearance of the table. Thus, the alternatives presented here will be the categories *0-49 messages* and *50 messages or more.* For a full overview of the answers on all the alternatives, see Appendix III. Table 4.15 shows an outline of the pupils' own estimates of how many messages they send per day that contain one or several English words.

Table 4.15: *Messages with English words sent per day*

	0-49 messages	**50 messages or more**
Young girls n= 17	15 (88%)	2 (12%)
Older girls n=18	4 (22%)	14 (78%)
Young boys n= 24	17 (71%)	7 (29%)
Older boys n= 15	9 (60%)	6 (40%)
Total n= 74	45 (61%)	29 (39%)

Although Table 4.15 does not account for the amount of English inserted into every message sent with English words, the table *does* demonstrate that the majority of the participants, more precisely 61%, placed themselves in the lower half of the two categories. The *50 messages or more* category had a lower response rate, with 39% of the pupils claiming that they send this amount of messages with English words per day.

Although it should be noted that the table is based on the pupils' own assumptions, it does hint at the fact that, as shown in Table 4.14, the amount of English used by the teenagers in electronic communication might not be as extensive as often believed to be when reading articles on this topic published in various newspapers and other media outlets in Norway.

All things considered, the results presented in this section show that Norwegian teenagers *do* insert English into their written CMC, but indicate that the amount is nowhere near as extensive as initially thought to be. Hence, although newspapers and teenagers themselves claim that they use a great deal of English in communication with others, the results in the current study indicate that these assumptions should be analyzed more thoroughly before conclusions are drawn. However, it should also be highlighted that the participants in the study done by Forskningskampanjen (2014:16) noted that they use English somewhat more in spoken rather than written communication. The data collected for the current thesis does not cover the amount of English used in spoken communication amongst the teenagers, and by adding this the outcome could potentially have been different. Nonetheless, inclusion of spoken conversation is beyond the scope of the current thesis.

4.3.3 Testing H2: Gender-based frequency in use of English in written CMC

The research on language and dialect usage done by Forskningskampanjen (2014) showed that there are some gender differences when it comes to the participants' use of English in spoken and written communication, where the girls had a higher percentage of participants stating that they use English in spoken or written communication. Due to these results, hypothesis number two stated that female Norwegian teenagers use more English in their written CMC compared to male Norwegian teenagers.

Table 4.16 presented below contains an overview of the words used by the pupils in their answers to the fictional messages categorized by gender. The table covers the total amount of words written by the participants, in addition to an overview of the number of Norwegian and English words produced by the pupils coupled with the percentages of English words used in the messages. As in the previous subsection, English phrases and English single words are combined to show the total number of

English words used. Decimals will be included in the rightmost column to better differentiate between the variables.

Table 4.16: *Number of words found in pupils' messages based on gender*

	Words in messages	Norwegian words in messages	English words in messages	% of English words in messages
Girls	4,301	4,041	260	6.05%
Boys	2,525	2,367	158	6.26%
Total	6,826	6,408	418	6.12%

The numbers presented in Table 4.16 show that the boys had a slightly higher percentage of English words in their messages compared to the girls. While the male participants had 6.26% of their words written in English, the messages written by the female informants contained 6.05% English words. Although the difference based on gender is not as large as the one found in Forskningskampanjen (2014), it is still present and conclusive for the current study. Moreover, a Chi-square test was performed on the variables presented in Table 4.16, and the results were not statistically significant (x^2= 0.11, df= 1, p= >.05).

As previously mentioned, the English words presented in Table 4.16 are based on the total amount of English words produced by the pupils, and therefore not categorized into single words and phrases. This categorization is presented in Tables 4.11 and 4.12, where it was visible that the boys had a higher number of English single words compared to English words in phrases, while the girls had half of their English words as single words and the rest as phrases. Thus, if the agenda was to *only* look at the number of English words used in phrases, the girls would have surpassed the boys with 50% of their English words placed in this category, while the boys only had 26%. Nevertheless, the objective of hypothesis two was to take all the English words used by the pupils into consideration, and the results therefore show that the boys had a somewhat higher number of English words in their messages. It should also be noted that Table 4.7 illustrated that the male participants had a higher percentage who used English with friends abroad compared to their female counterparts, and this usage might

lead the pupils to use English words and expressions in their daily interactions with or without any conscious effort.

Furthermore, as noted in the previous section, the questionnaire asked the pupils approximately how many messages they send per day that contain English words. Again, several of the seven alternative answers *0, 10-30, 30-50, 50-70, 70-100, 100-150* and *150 or more* have been combined, this time due to low response rates in some of them. Thus, in order to make them testable with the Chi-square test, the alternatives presented here will be the categories *0-49 messages* and *50 messages or more*. For a full overview of the pupils' answers on all the alternatives, see Appendix III. Figure 4.1 presents an overview of the participants' answers to this question based on gender.

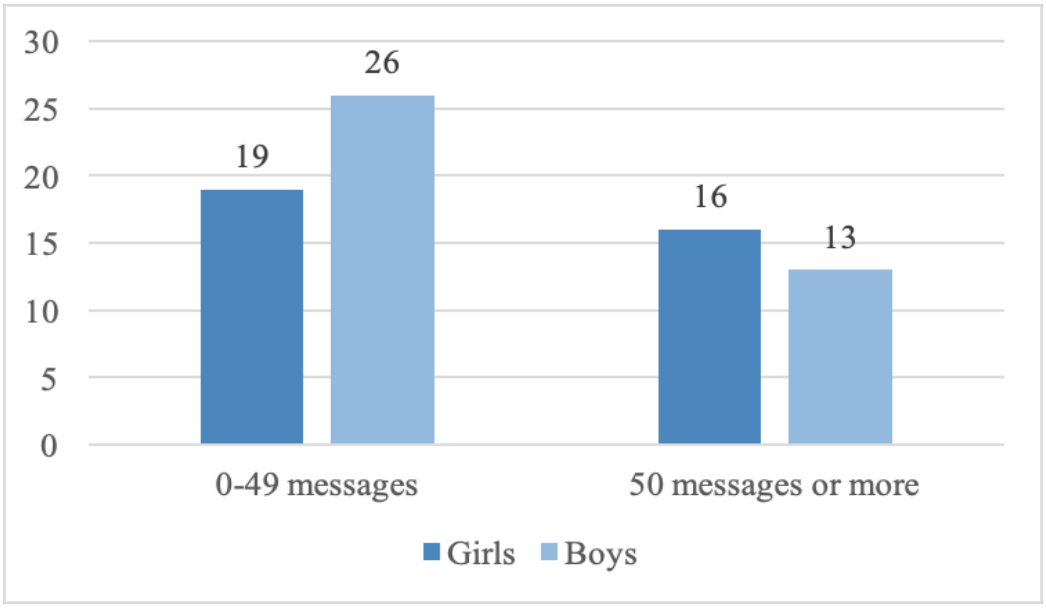

Figure 4.1: *Messages with English words sent per day in written CMC based on gender*

For the category *0-49 messages*, 54% (19/35) of the girls and 67% (26/39) of the boys were gathered in this group. Furthermore, for the *50 messages or more* category, 46% (16/35) of the girls and 33% (13/39) of the boys answered within this number of messages. Consequently, the girls had a higher number of participants claiming to be sending more messages with English words daily. This means that they differ from the results presented in Table 4.16, where the boys had a somewhat higher percentage of words in English. Nevertheless, the question did not ask them *how many* English words they insert into their messages, only how many messages they send with English words

per day. Additionally, it is important to keep in mind that these results are based on the pupils' own assumptions on usage and communication behavior online, making them less reliable than actual data produced by participants. Lastly, a Chi-square test was performed on the results in Figure 4.1, and they were not statistically significant (x^2= 1.1, df= 1, p= >.05).

The number of messages sent with English words could also be counted for in the pupils' own messages, and Table 4.17 presents the number of messages answered by the participants based on gender, in addition to the number of messages with one or several English words in them, and the percentages these numbers constitute when taking in all the messages they answered.

Table 4.17: *Total number of messages and messages with English word(s) based on gender*

	Messages answered	**Messages with English words**	**% of messages with English words**
Girls	363	125	34%
Boys	385	116	30%
Total	748	241	32%

Even though Table 4.16 shows that the boys had a slightly higher percentage of English words in their messages, Table 4.17 illustrates that the girls had a higher percentage of messages containing one or several English words. Hence, although the boys inserted more English words into their messages, the girls sent in a higher number of messages with one or several English words in them. This result supports the outcome presented in Figure 4.1. Moreover, a Chi-square test was performed on the results in Table 4.17, and there was no statistically significant difference between the two variables (x^2= 0.8, df= 1, p= >.05).

Consequently, although the girls produced a higher number of messages with one or several English words in them, the results presented in Table 4.16 indicate that boys have a somewhat higher percentage of English words inserted into their written CMC compared to their female counterparts. However, the results presented in this section were not statistically significant, meaning that the null-hypothesis cannot be

rejected, and the results could have happened by chance. Thus, the hypothesis claiming that female Norwegian teenagers use more English in their written CMC compared to male Norwegian teenagers cannot be confirmed. As noted in the conclusion of hypothesis one, the results do not account for any language used in spoken conversation. Thus, there is a possibility that the outcome could have been changed if this form of communication had been included. Nevertheless, this is beyond the scope of the current thesis.

4.3.4 Testing H3: Age-based frequency in use of English in written CMC

Hypothesis three is based on the research study done by Forskningskampanjen (2014). In Forskningskampanjen (2014), a higher number of older participants (3rd grade upper secondary school) replied that they use English in their spoken and written communication, compared to the younger participants (8th grade lower secondary school). This was also the case with electronic communication, where a higher number of older participants claimed to use English in these areas of communication. These results show that a larger majority of the older teenagers state that they use English in their written CMC compared to the younger participants in the study. Based on this, hypothesis three stated that older Norwegian teenagers, i.e. 18-19-year-olds, use more English in their written CMC compared to younger Norwegian teenagers, in other words 12-13-year-olds. Table 4.18 presents the number of words written by the pupils, and it includes the total number of words produced by the pupils, in addition to the amount of Norwegian and English words they wrote coupled with the percentages of English words used in their messages. As in the previous subsections, English single words and words used in phrases are combined in the table. The results are categorized by the two age groups *younger* and *older* pupils.

Table 4.18: *Number of words found in pupils' messages based on age*

	Words in messages	**Norwegian words in messages**	**English words in messages**	**% of English words in messages**
Younger	3,239	3,058	181	5.6%
Older	3,587	3,350	237	6.6%
Total	6,826	6,408	418	6.1%

The table shows that there are differences related to their insertion of English based on the two age groups. The younger pupils' messages contained 5.6% English words, whereas the older pupils' answers to the fictional chat-messages contained 6.6% English words. Hence, there is a 1% difference in their production of English words. In other words, the older pupils used more English in their answers to the fictional messages. Although this distinction is rather small, it still accounts for a contrast between the two groups. Furthermore, a Chi-square test was performed on the outcomes presented in Table 4.18, and the results were not statistically significant (x^2= 2.7, df= 1, p= >.05). Additionally, it should be highlighted that Table 4.8 showed that, compared to the younger participants, a higher percentage of older pupils claimed to use English with friends abroad in their written CMC. Interacting with people from other countries may cause the teenagers to use English in their conversations, which might inspire them to bring certain English words and expressions into their daily conversations with friends and family.

Moreover, the pupils' answers to approximately how many messages they send per day that contain English words is presented below in Figure 4.2. The alternatives have again been reduced to *0-49 messages* and *50 messages or more*.

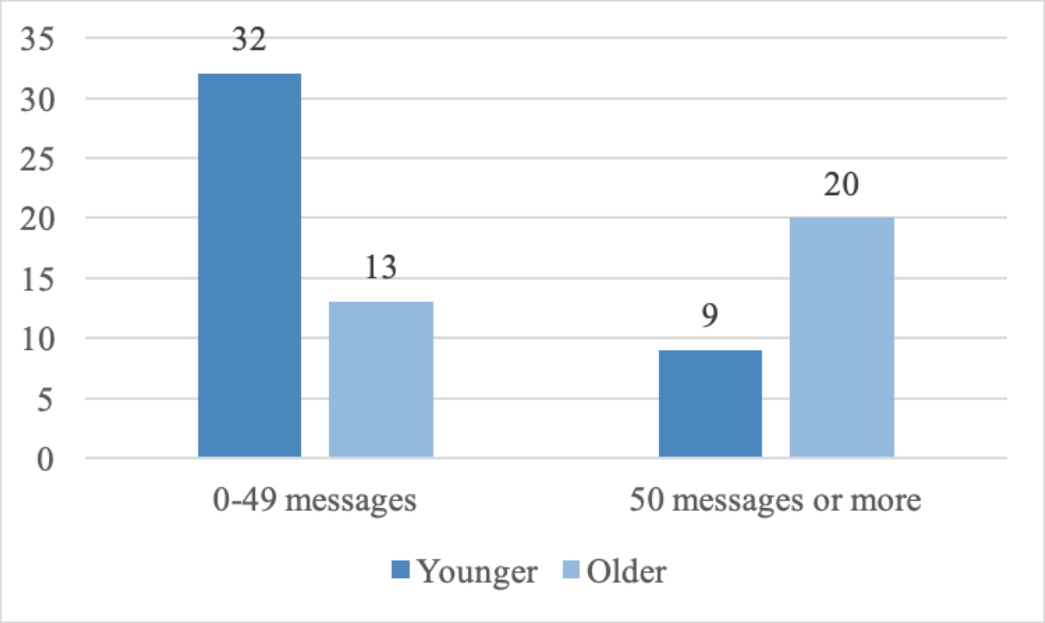

Figure 4.2: *Messages with English words sent per day in written CMC based on age*

The figure shows that 61% (20/33) of the older pupils placed themselves in the *50 messages or more* category, while only 22% (9/41) of the younger pupils did the same. Thus, a greater majority of the older participants claim to be sending 50 messages or more with English words per day, and these answers correlate with the percentages presented in Table 4.18, even though the differences between variables are substantially larger in Figure 4.2. However, it is important to remember that these numbers are based on the pupils' own beliefs, which might differ from what they actually do in real life. Finally, a Chi-square test was performed on the results in Figure 4.2, and the outcome was statistically significant (x^2= 11.4, df= 1, p= <.05).

The insertion of English based on age can also be seen in light of the number of messages answered by the participants. Table 4.19 presents the number of messages answered by the pupils based on age, in addition to the messages containing one or several English words and the percentages these constitute.

Table 4.19: *Total number of messages and messages with English word(s) based on age*

	Messages answered	**Messages with English words**	**% of messages with English words**
Younger	407	132	32%
Older	341	109	32%
Total	748	241	32%

The table shows that percentage-wise the two age groups produced equally as many messages containing one or several English words, which could indicate that the groups are rather similar in their insertion of English. Nevertheless, Table 4.18 and Figure 4.2 show that there is a small but significant difference between the two groups.

In conclusion, even though Table 4.19 implies that the two age groups are similar in their usage of English, the pupils' own production of messages demonstrates that there are differences. The older participants in Table 4.18 had, as previously mentioned, a higher percentage of words in English compared to the younger participants. Additionally, Figure 4.2 supports the results presented in Table 4.18, thus advocating for the affirmation of hypothesis three. This could indicate that older

teenagers use more English in their written CMC compared to younger teenagers. However, the results presented in Table 4.18 were not statistically significant, meaning that the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected, and the results could have happened by chance. Therefore, hypothesis three claiming that older Norwegian teenagers use more English in their written CMC compared to younger Norwegian teenagers cannot be confirmed. As mentioned in hypotheses one and two, spoken conversation is not included in the current thesis. Although only a presumption, one could imagine that the inclusion of spoken conversation could have produced a different outcome. Nonetheless, that is beyond the scope of the present thesis.

4.3.5 Testing H4: English single words most frequently used in written CMC

The results from Forskningskampanjen (2014:14) present eight different words that most of the participants claimed were their favorite words to use in communication with others. Four of these words were in English, and the top three words were abbreviations or acronyms. The pupils stated that they commonly use these words in online communication, and when communicating through text-messages (Forskningskampanjen 2014:14). Likewise, the results demonstrated that, compared to the male participants, a higher number of the female participants submitted English abbreviations and acronyms to the research study. Hypothesis four therefore claimed that abbreviations and acronyms are the English single words most frequently used in Norwegian teenagers' written CMC, and that female Norwegian teenagers use more English abbreviations and acronyms in their written CMC compared to male Norwegian teenagers.

In Section 4.2.3, English single words produced by the participants in the current study were counted, analyzed, and discussed. English phrases are treated as a separate category and will not be included in this section. Table 4.20 contains an overview of the categories offered in Section 4.2.3. The table presents the categories' number of occurrences, and illustrates the percentages they constitute based on all the English single words used by the participants in the study. The categories are arranged according to percentages, i.e. from highest to lowest percentages based on the calculations presented in Section 4.2.3.

4.20: *Categorized occurrences of English single words with percentages*

	Occurrences	Percentage of single words
Abbreviations and acronyms	67	27%
English verbs, nouns and adjectives	47	19%
Negation	26	11%
Miscellaneous	22	9%
Clippings	19	8%
English nouns with Norwegian inflection	14	6%
Expressive lengthening	13	5%
Profanities	10	4%
English verbs with Norwegian inflection	10	4%
Nonstandard spellings	9	4%
English words with Norwegian orthography	4	2%
Contractions	3	1%
Compounds	1	0.4%
Conversions	1	0.4%
Suffixations	1[5]	0.4%
Total	247	100%

A prominent category in Table 4.20 is precisely *abbreviations and acronyms*, which had 67 occurrences in the pupils' messages and thus constitute 27% of all the English single words used by the participants. This category is without a doubt the most frequent group, followed by *English verbs, nouns, and adjectives* which constitute 19% of all the English single words. *Negation* is situated in third place, and the various forms implemented in this category were used 26 times, meaning that they constitute 11% of all the English single words. Consequently, the category of English single words most frequently taken advantage of in the pupils' answers to the fictional messages were abbreviations and acronyms.

[5] The other two occurrences are placed in *English words with Norwegian orthography.*

Furthermore, hypothesis three deals with gender discrepancies in the usage of English abbreviations and acronyms. Table 4.21 illustrates the number of English single words and English abbreviations and acronyms produced by the pupils, coupled with the percentages these English abbreviations and acronyms constitute based on the total amount of English single words found in the pupils' messages. The numbers are categorized by gender.

Table 4.21: *Total number of English single words and abbreviations and acronyms based on gender*

	Total amount of English single words	English abbreviations and acronyms	% of abbreviations and acronyms
Girls	130	28	22%
Boys	117	39	33%
Total	247	67	27%

The table shows that the boys made greater use of English abbreviations and acronyms in their messages compared to the girls, where the former had 39 instances of English abbreviations and acronyms in their messages, while the latter had 28. This means that 33% of the males' English single words were abbreviations and acronyms, whereas the females' English single words consisted of 22% abbreviations and acronyms. Thus, there is a 10% discrepancy between the boys and the girls when it comes to their use of English abbreviations and acronyms. This discrepancy was also evident in Section 4.1.4, where 11% (4/35) of the girls and 23% (9/39) of the boys claimed to be using English due to its abbreviated forms. Hence, when it comes to the ability to abbreviate words, a higher number of the male participants answered this as a reason for using English in their written CMC. Moreover, a Chi-square test was performed on the results presented in Table 4.21, and the outcome was not statistically significant (x^2= 2.4, df= 1, p= >.05).

Even though the English single words most frequently used by the participants were abbreviations and acronyms, the percentage they constitute is not exceedingly high if all the words produced by the pupils in their answers to the fictional chat-messages are taken into consideration. Tables 4.9 and 4.10 showed that the pupils produced 6,826 words in their messages, and considering that they wrote a total of 67 English

abbreviations and acronyms, this category only constitutes 1% of the totality of words in the current study. This can hardly be said to be a large part of the overall data gathered from the participants. Tagliamonte (2016:219) argues that the use of abbreviations and acronyms in CMC does not occur as frequently as people might think, and she furthermore states that they tend to be cited as common characteristics of CMC because they are the most striking features found in this type of discourse, but that the user frequency is actually quite low – meaning that they are much rarer in use than media often lead people to believe. The results presented in this section seem to be in accord with this statement.

To summarize this section, hypothesis four, which stated that abbreviations and acronyms are the English single words most frequently used by Norwegian teenagers, is supported by the results presented in Table 4.20. The table showed that English abbreviations and acronyms were used 67 times in the pupils' messages, whereas the second most used category, namely English verbs, nouns, and adjectives, were written 47 times. Although abbreviations and acronyms are not the majority of English single words used by the pupils in the current study, they did have the highest percentage of frequency compared to the other categories presented in Table 4.20. Moreover, the hypothesis claimed that teenage girls use more English abbreviations and acronyms than teenage boys. Table 4.21 showed that the male participants used more English abbreviations and acronyms compared to their female counterparts, which would indicate that teenage boys make more use of English abbreviations and acronyms than teenage girls in their written CMC. Nevertheless, the results presented in Table 4.21 were not statistically significant, meaning that the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected, and the results could also have happened by chance. Hypothesis four can therefore not be confirmed.

4.3.6 Time spent on written CMC and number of English words produced

Despite not being directly connected to the hypotheses presented in this section, it would be intriguing to see if there are any correlations existing between time spent on written CMC (see Tables 4.3 and 4.4) and the number of English single words and phrases produced by the pupils in answer to the fictional chat-messages (see Tables 4.9 and 4.10). Table 4.22 contains an overview of the average number of words produced

by the pupils in their answers to the fictional chat-messages, based on their time spent on written CMC per day (see Section 4.1.3). Single words and phrases in English are included as one category in the table.

The averages presented in Table 4.22 reveal that participants who replied that they spend *0.5 hours* communicating in written CMC per day, produced on average 4.8 English words in their answers to the fictional chat-messages. Furthermore, the pupils who answered that they spend *5 hours or more* on written CMC every day, wrote on average 11 words in English in their replies.

Table 4.22: *Average number of words produced by participants based on time spent on written CMC*

Time	Total number of words	English words
0.5 hours	90.3	4.8
1 hour	74	4.7
2 hours	116.4	5.9
4 hours	111.2	7.8
5 hours or more	128.8	11

Apart from those who replied *1 hour*, the table shows that there is a steady increase in the average production of English words correlating with time spent on written electronic communication. This could indicate that the more time teenagers spend on written CMC, the more English they use when interacting with others in these platforms of communication. These results could be related to the findings presented in the research study *Norsk holder 'basically' på å dø ut*, where the researchers found that pupils with good English language abilities use social media more often (Haugum, Jensen, & Grønningsæther 2018:22). The findings in the present study indicate that there is a correlation between spending more time on written CMC and thus using more English, which again may lead to improvement of the teenagers' English language abilities. It is however important to keep in mind that time spent daily on written CMC is based on the pupils' own assumptions, which, as previously mentioned, may be unreliable.

All things considered, there seems to be a correlation between the pupils' assumptions of time spent communicating in written CMC daily and the number of English words produced, where those who stated that they spend little time on written CMC per day used less English in their answers to the fictional messages, compared to those who claimed to spend a great deal of time communicating in written CMC per day, who similarly produced more English words in their messages. Thus, the results suggest that there is a link between spending time interacting in written CMC and using English in these communicational platforms.

5. Conclusion

The results presented in Chapter four have given insight into Norwegian teenagers' use of English in written CMC. Firstly, the results showed that the teenagers in the present study did not insert such an extensive amount of English into their written electronic communication as initially thought. Though various research and newspaper articles claim that Norwegian teenagers use an extensive amount of English in their spoken and written communication, the present study revealed that the teenage participants only produced 6.1% English words in their answers to fictional chat-messages. Although the findings demonstrate that English was used by the pupils, the frequency was not as high as one would assume by reading research and newspaper articles on the topic in Norway.

Secondly, even though the percentages of English words used in the pupils' messages were not exceedingly high, there were small but nonetheless noticeable differences between the genders in the present study. The results illustrated that the boys, compared to the girls, had a somewhat higher percentage of English words in their answers to the fictional chat-messages. This was noticeable when the former inserted 6.26% English words into their messages, while the latter produced 6.05% English words. Likewise, the findings revealed that there were differences present between the two age groups taking part in the study. While the older pupils inserted 6.6% English words into their messages, the younger participants produced 5.6% English words. However, it must be highlighted that the present study's results showing differences in use of English between age and gender groups were not statistically significant, meaning that the null-hypothesis cannot be rejected and the results could also have occurred by chance. Thus, the present study cannot claim that differences in use of English between age and gender groups will occur in the population, but the findings illustrate tendencies in Norwegian teenagers use of English in written CMC.

Thirdly, the pupils' production of English can be separated into single words and phrases. The production of English single words was higher than the production of English phrases, and this was illustrated in the pupils' messages, which contained 59% single words in English and 41% phrases. With regards to English single words, the most recurrent category was abbreviations and acronyms, and they were written 67 times by the participants and thus constitute 27% of all the English single words produced by the pupils. However, they only comprise 1% of *all* the words written by

the pupils in the present study, which illustrates that the insertion of English abbreviations and acronyms is rather modest if seen in a larger scale. Furthermore, an intriguing finding was the teenagers' morphological treatment of English single words versus English phrases, where the pupils seemed to treat the English single words differently than the English phrases. The results showed that the phrases, as opposed to the single words, were far less affected by Norwegian inflectional morphology and various word-formation processes, in addition to characteristic CMC forms. This indicates that the teenagers view the phrases as more fixed and context dependent than the single words, making the former less vulnerable to morphological impacts.

Moreover, despite it being expected in advance that a great deal of the teenagers in the current study would state their peers as reason for why they choose to use English in their written CMC, the category with the highest response rate turned out to be *habit*, in other words doing it without being actively aware of it. Although this was somewhat surprising, one could think that this is a common response for younger people who have not reflected over these types of questions before. For many, the motivation behind an action such as inserting English into their conversations might be so embedded that they struggle to see the reason behind why they *actually* choose to do that they do. Nonetheless, their answers seem to indicate that English is helping them express themselves and their feelings, and it would seem as if English assists their communicational needs in electronic communication. The results presented in Chapter four also indicated that there is a relationship between time spent communicating in written CMC and the number of English words used in these areas of communication. The present study showed that the teenagers who stated that they spend little time communicating with others in written CMC per day used fewer English words in their answers to the fictional chat-messages, compared to those who claimed to use a great deal of time every day in written CMC, who similarly produced a higher number of English words in their messages.

Lastly, the informants were sampled through opportunistic or convenience sampling, meaning that they were selected on the basis of my acquaintances with teachers in various schools in Rogaland and Hordaland. Though this can be viewed as a weakness in relation to generalization, the chosen sampling method allowed me to get hold of a relatively high number of pupils to answer *both* the questionnaire *and* the

fictional chat-messages. The results cannot be said to represent the language habits of all teenagers in Norway, but the they give an indication of the current and ongoing trends in the use of English in written CMC amongst Norwegian teenagers.

To summarize, although Norwegian teenagers *do* use English in their written CMC, the results of the current study show tendencies which indicate that the production is limited and consists of either single words or short phrases. Thus, English words imported into the Norwegian language are primarily noticeable within the lexical area, which is revealed through the use of isolated English words and short phrases in the teenagers' language. The Norwegian language is constantly changing under influence of other languages, but to say that it is at the brink of extinction is most likely taking it a bit too far. Though the findings indicate that Norwegian teenagers' language is not changing as quickly as previously presumed under English influence in written electronic communication, it should be remembered that languages continually change and that there '[…] can never be a moment of true standstill in language, just as little as the ceaseless flaming thought of men. By nature it is a continuous process of development' (von Humboldt 1836, cited in Aitchison 2001:3).

5.1 Variables

The questionnaire completed by the participants did not cover other factors which might have influenced their choice of language in electronic communication. This was mainly done to avoid a lengthy questionnaire and for space considerations. Firstly, the pupils were not asked if they had any learning disabilities that affected their spelling, such as dyslexia. Secondly, they were not asked about their mother tongue, i.e. if they speak another language at home. These variables could have impacted their use of English in everyday conversations, and they could have been interesting variables to include in the study. Nevertheless, the decision was made to narrow down the variables and go more into depth on those that are used and discussed in Chapter four. The results and the discussion presented in that chapter managed to show interesting differences between the groups tested, although a focus on the variables mentioned above could have resulted in an even more nuanced and insightful discussion. Thus, this illustrates just how vital a thorough and reflected planning process is in this type of research, showing how the initial stages of a study can both facilitate and restrict the researcher.

5.2 Problematizing fictional chat-messages

By relying on fictional chat-messages to sample teenagers' use of language in electronic communication, there are bound to be certain weaknesses. Firstly, the question of authenticity appears. Although it did not seem to be an issue when analyzing the participants' answers, one cannot know for certain if the pupils managed to see the fictional messages as real messages and thus answer them like they would have answered the messages in real life. Only two pupils gave answers that did not seem to be very realistic, considering that they wrote *Jeg driter*, meaning 'I'm taking a dump', in answer to almost all of the messages. Nevertheless, these were the only two instances out of 68 that stood out in this way. Secondly, the fictional chat-messages contained English words that may have affected the participants' use of English when answering the messages. This can however not be said for certain, and a more thorough investigation of this issue is beyond the scope of this thesis.

5.3 Further research

This study has exclusively focused on the teenagers' use of English in written electronic communication. As highlighted in Forskningskampanjen (2014:16), the participants noted that they use somewhat more English in spoken rather than written conversations. The findings in the present study indicated that the teenagers' insertion of English was nowhere near as extensive as initially thought, and an idea could therefore be to examine teenagers' spoken conversations to compare their use of English in these two areas of communication. Although this might be more time-consuming than analyzing written communication, it would most likely reveal interesting findings.

Moreover, if the focus was to stay on written communication, it would have been interesting to try to get access to real messages produced by participants. This would possibly add an extra layer of authenticity to the study. Since an issue with this type of data collection is ethical restrictions as well as willingness on behalf of the participants to share their personal messages, a possible option could be to either analyze conversations in a chat-forum, or to give the informants more time to gather messages in advance of the collection of data. Another idea could be to maintain the fictional messages, but to divide the groups into two, where one part got the fictional messages with English words, while the other group got the messages without any

English words in them. It could be interesting to see if these alterations would have produced a difference in result.

Lastly, the final questions in the questionnaire related to spelling and school work were not used in the present study, and neither was the last page consisting of various English abbreviations and the pupils' usage and knowledge of these. These decisions were made due to content and time constraints, but it could have been intriguing to see if there is a link between spelling and use of English, or a correlation between the teenagers' use of English in their free time and the language they produce in written assignments at school.

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Appendix I: Consent form

Datainnsamling til masteroppgave ved universitetet i Bergen

Til foreldre/foresatte

Hei! Mitt navn er Janne Helgesen, og jeg er lektorstudent ved universitetet i Bergen. Jeg skriver for tiden min masteroppgave i engelsk lingvistikk, og oppgaven veiledes av professor Kevin McCafferty ved UiB. Masteroppgaven omhandler norske tenåringers bruk av engelsk i skriftlig, uformell hverdagskommunikasjon med andre. For å kunne gjennomføre prosjektet mitt er jeg derfor på jakt etter informanter på __ trinn ☺ Jeg har fått godkjenning av rektor __ samt faglærer(e) __ til å gjennomføre denne undersøkelsen på ___ trinn på ___ ungdoms-/videregående skole, med forbehold om samtykke fra foresatte.

Formål og plan
Jeg ønsker i min masteroppgave å se i hvilken grad norske ungdommer bruker engelsk i sitt skriftlige, uformelle datamedierte hverdagsspråk, om det er noen kjønns- eller aldersforskjeller tilstede og hvordan bruken av og kunnskapen om engelske forkortelser samsvarer med resultater på staveprøver. Planen er derfor å først gjennomføre et kort spørreskjema på norsk, hvor elevenes kommunikasjonsvaner kartlegges, før elevene gjennomfører en engelsk staveprøve. Avslutningsvis ønsker jeg å se hvordan språket til ungdommene er i kommunikasjon med venner, og hvor mye engelsk de faktisk bruker. Ønsket er derfor at elevene kopierer utdrag av samtaler de har hatt med venner på Facebook eller andre sosiale medier, og limer disse inn i et eget tekstdokument som sendes til meg på e-post. Her er det kun språket til elevene som skal analyseres, og alle faktorer som kan virke gjenkjennende (navn, datoer, hendelser, steder etc.) vil elevene selv få mulighet til å fjerne før innsending før det så dobbeltsjekkes av meg under behandlingen av datamaterialet. Elevene får selvsagt velge helt selv om de ønsker å sende noe, hva de ønsker å sende og hvor mye de vil sende. Helt avslutningsvis ønsker jeg at deltakerne svarer på fiktive chat-meldinger.

Dine rettigheter
Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:
- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få slettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få utlevert en kopi av dine personopplysninger (dataportabilitet), og
- å sende klage til personvernombudet eller Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?
Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke. På oppdrag fra Institutt for fremmedspråk har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Personvern

Det må selvsagt understrekes at alt av innsamlet materiale vil bli anonymisert i masteroppgaven, og at deltakelsen er fullstendig frivillig. Det er kun kjønn og alder som vil bli registrert i oppgaven, og deltakerne blir derfor fullstendig ugjenkjennelige og anonyme. Datamaterialet behandles i samsvar med retningslinjene til NSD, og jeg har søkt om tillatelse hos dem til å gjennomføre prosjektet. Du kan trekke deg underveis i prosjektet om det skulle være ønskelig, enten muntlig før eller under undersøkelsen, eller i etterkant via e-post til meg. Innsamlet og anonymisert datamateriale vil kun gå til min masteroppgave, og det vil bli slettet på en forsvarlig måte iht. retningslinjene til NSD etter at prosjektet avsluttes i juni 2019. Avslutningsvis må det påpekes at deltakelse er fullstendig frivillig, og at det ikke vil medføre noen negative konsekvenser hvis du velger å delta i vanlig klasseromsundervisning istedenfor å gjennomføre undersøkelsen.

Send meg gjerne en e-post på Janne.Helgesen@student.uib.no eller Kevin McCafferty på kevin.mccafferty@uib.no hvis du har noen spørsmål i forbindelse med prosjektet.

Jeg gir samtykke til at _____ kan delta i prosjektet

_____
Underskrift foreldre/foresatte

På forhånd tusen takk!
Vennlig hilsen Janne Helgesen ☺

Appendix II: Questionnaire

The questionnaire was originally written in Norwegian, but has here been translated to English for the sake of the thesis.

The questionnaire is a part of the data material collected for the master's thesis I am writing at the University of Bergen. The questions are connected to your use of English in written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer. In other words, the questions are related to your language in text-messages, Messenger-messages, Snapchat-messages, Twitter-messages, direct messages on Instagram or other forms of written communication on your cellphone and/or computer. The questionnaire is completely anonymous, and only gender and age will be registered.

Check the box that best suits you in the questions below

1. Age 12 yrs ☐ 13 yrs ☐ 14 yrs ☐ 17 yrs ☐ 18 yrs ☐ 19 yrs ☐ 20 yrs ☐

2. Gender Girl ☐ Boy ☐

3. How do you communicate in writing with others on your cellphone and/or computer? You can check multiple boxes if preferred.

SMS ☐ Facebook Messenger ☐ Instagram ☐ Snapchat ☐ WhatsApp ☐
Twitter ☐

Others: _____

4. Approximately how much time do you spend every day communicating in writing with others on your cellphone and/or computer?

0 min ☐ 30 min ☐ 1 h ☐ 2 h ☐ 4 h ☐ 5 h or more ☐

5. Approximately how many of the messages you send from your cellphone and/or computer every day contain English words or expressions?

0 ☐ 10-30 ☐ 30-50 ☐ 50-70 ☐ 70-100 ☐ 100-150 ☐ 150 or more ☐

6. Who do you send most of your messages with English words or expressions to? You can check multiple boxes if preferred.

No one ☐ Friends in Norway ☐ Friends abroad ☐ Parents/legal guardians ☐
Siblings ☐ Grandparents ☐ Uncles/aunts ☐

Others: _____

Answer the questions below using your own words

7. Do you use English words or expression sin written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer? If yes, why? If no, why not?

8. Do you switch between Norwegian and English in written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer? If yes, why? If no, why not?

9. Do you use English words or expression in writing assignments in other school subjects than English? If yes, why? If no, why not?

10. Would you have used English abbreviations, such as lol, omg, and wtf in your school work? If yes, why? If no, why not?

11. Which English abbreviations do you know and which do you use in written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer?

English abbreviation	**Do you know what it means? (underline your answer)**	**Approximately how often do you use it (underline your answer)?**	**Can you write the abbreviation in full words in English?**
OMG	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
LOL	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
THX	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
WTF	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
U	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
SUP	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
NP	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
ILU	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
BF	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
BRO	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
MIA	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
ASAP	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
GR8	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
TB	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
PLZ	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
RLY	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
JK	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	
L8R	YES / NO	Every day / Once a week / Once a month / Never	

Thank you for your participation!
Best, Janne Helgesen ☺

Appendix III: Questionnaire answers

This appendix contains answers from the questionnaire. The tables presented below contain either alternatives that were removed from tables in chapter four, or answers that were not presented in the thesis but that are seen as interesting or relevant for the topic. Following the tables, the pupils answers to question seven and eight are presented.

Question three: How do you communicate in writing with others on your cellphone and/or computer? You can check multiple boxes if preferred.

	SMS	Facebook Messenger	Instagram	Snap-chat	Twitter	What's App	Other
Younger girls	16	7	13	17	0	1	1
Older girls	15	18	12	18	1		2
Younger boys	18	6	13	24	0	1	3
Older boys	8	14	7	12	0	2	5
Total	57	45	45	71	1	4	11

Question four: Approximately how much time do you spend every day communicating in writing with others on your cellphone and/or computer?

	0 min.	30 min.	1 h.	2 hours	4 hours	5 hours or more
Younger girls n= 17	0	6	4	4	3	0
Older girls n= 18	0	1	3	4	7	3
Younger boys n= 24	0	13	3	3	4	1
Older boys n= 15	0	1	4	4	4	2
Total n= 74	0	21	14	15	18	6

Question six: Who do you send most of your messages with English words or expressions to? You can check multiple boxes if preferred.

	Aunts/uncles	Other	None	Grandparents
Younger girls	0	0	0	0
Older girls	2	1	0	0
Younger boys	0	2	0	0
Older boys	0	1	0	0
Total	2	4	0	0

Question seven: Do you use English words or expression sin written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer? If yes, why? If no, why not?

	Friends do not speak Norwegian	Peers	Word does not exist in Norwegian	External factors	Quick	Cool
Younger girls	1	2			1	
Older girls	1	2	2	2		
Younger boys	1				1	2
Older boys	1			1		
Total	4	4	2	3	2	2

	Trend	Looks better	Do not know	No
Younger girls	1			
Older girls		1		
Younger boys			1	1
Older boys				
Total	1	1	1	1

Question eight: Do you switch between Norwegian and English in written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer? If yes, why? If no, why not?

	Yes	Occasionally	No
Younger girls	4	9	0
Older girls	12	6	0
Younger boys	6	7	1
Older boys	8	5	2
Total	**30**	**27**	**3**

Question seven: Do you use English words or expression sin written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer? If yes, why? If no, why not?

- For det høres bedre ut på engelsk og begge forstår det
- Tenker ikke over når jeg gjør det men det er sikkert fordi jeg ser andre gjøre det
- Når jeg bruker engelske ord skriftlig er det fordi jeg synes det blir lettere og slipper og skrive så lenge
- Det kan være jeg ikke kommer på hva det er på norsk
- Hvis jeg bruker engelske ord i skriftlig kommunikasjon er det fordi jeg forklarer det til noen eller bruker det som forkortelse
- Jeg gjør det gjerne fordi det kan gå raskere enn det norske ordet
- Noen ord er bedre å skrive på engelsk. For eksempel Love you, bye eller no og yes. Også er jeg så vant med det at det kommer helt naturlig i noen setninger
- Noen ganger høres det bedre ut eller så vet jeg ikke hva det heter på norsk
- Fordi det er kortere ord enn på norsk og fordi det er et bedre ord jeg kunne brukt i den sammenhengen
- Noen ganger gjør jeg det på tull. Andre ganger bruker jeg engelske ord i skriftlig kommunikasjon uten at jeg tenker over det
- Det høres mye bedre ut når man skriver noen engelske ord
- Fordi de fleste forkortelser er på engelsk
- Jeg bruker det mest sannsynlig fordi det høres best ut, f.eks ”whatsup, vil du være med på kino”
- Noen ganger skriver jeg det uten at jeg merker det
- Det har bare blitt sånn og det er ofte enklest
- Fordi i samfunnet i dag har ungdom tilgang over hele verden og gjerne får venner utenlands og tar det inn i Norge
- Det er en trend. Lettere (feks. LYSM = Love you so much). Mer naturlig (skriver ikke ”elsker deg”, men ”love you” går fint). Morsomt. Bitmoji.
- Det har igrunn bare blitt en del av mitt hverdagslige språk

- Fordi engelsk høres/ser bedre ut, og uttrykker bedre hva jeg føler til tider. + kjæresten/venner snakker ikke norsk
- Noen engelske ord høres bedre ut og gir mer forståelse enn hvis det blir oversatt til norsk. Omg høres bedre ut enn å si Å min gud, det har forskjellig betydning
- Fordi dei eg kommuniserar med snakkar på engelsk
- For noen uttrykk eller ord høres bedre ut på engelsk og enkelte ord blir mer naturlig å skrive på engelsk for det er så mange som bruker det
- Dersom jeg ikke kommer på hvordan jeg skal skrive det på norsk, eller så høres noe bedre ut på engelsk
- Det er noen ord som beskriver det du vil si bedre på engelsk
- Noen ord er mye bedre på engelsk
- Det har blitt normalt i språket til meg og venner. Bruker ikke så mye engelske ord, men mer engelsk slang
- Jeg bruker engelske språket i kommunikasjon med andre mennesker, fordi det høres bedre ut, kjekkere å skrive engelsk og jeg føler poenger mitt kommer mer fram når det er skrevet på engelsk
- Noen setninger eller ord høres bedre ut på engelsk og gir på en måte mer mening når vi sier det. Det er lettere å beskrive situasjonen eller følelser med t engelsk ord i en setning
- Fordi det er lettere å uttrykke seg, og innenfor visse interesser er det dårlig med norske oversettelser
- Eg gjer det fordi det ofte er ord ein ikkje har på norsk, eller eg har gløymd ut kva dei er på norsk
- Jeg tror jeg blir mye påvirket av engelske serier, sanger og filmer. Jeg sitere mye fra dem
- I og med at jeg har engelsk og ofte bruker engelsk til vanlig blir det fort naturlig å blande inn engelske ord
- Ofte er det fordi jeg ikke kommer på det norske ordet, eller fordi jeg synes et engelsk ord bedre forklarer det jeg prøver å si
- Det er bare en del av språket vårt men engelske ord/uttrykk så kan du uttrykke deg mer, pga det er mer måter å fortelle/forklare ting på. Så refererer vi til serier osv
- Enkelte av ordene jeg bruker på engelsk sier jeg sjeldent på norsk, og når jeg da skal svare ”fort” på meldinger kommer jeg ikke allti på det norske ordet + det engelske faller meg mer naturlig inn å skrive
- Fordi på engelsk er det mange forkortelser så ofte er det lettere å bruke dem
- Lettere, raskere og mer normalt
- Fordi det er lettere og skrive
- Vet ikke helt, kanskje fordi det er enklere?
- Enten fordi jeg vil beskrive meningen min med andre ord, eller slik at de jeg snakker med skal forstå meg
- Det er litt kulere en norsk
- Jeg bruker engelske ord skriftlig fordi det er naturlige ord å bruke for meg
- Jeg bruker for eksempel forkortelser som: Ik = i know THX = Thanks
- Nei
- På snapchat
- Enklere og kortere
- Fordi jeg synes det er gøyt å bruke noen engelske ord blandet med norske

- Hvis de er engelske bruker jeg engelsk. Hvis de er norsk bruker jeg litt engelsk i en setning
- Tenker egentlig ikke over det
- Fordi av og til er det enklere å bruke engelske ord og forkortninger
- Fordi det er ork og skrive hele ord plass det er mye enklere og forkorte ord
- Fordi noen ting er lettere skrive på engelsk
- Vet ikke
- Fordi eg synes det er kult
- Jeg gikk på amerikask skole når jeg bodde i Brasil og jeg har en venn i Norge og noen i Brasil jeg snakker engelsk med
- Jeg gjør det på grunn av at det gjør at setninger blir kortere noen ganger
- Av og til så passer det bare bedre og jeg tenker ikke så mye over det når jeg snakker
- Jeg gjør det fordi mange av ordene er kortere å skrive på mobil
- For å variere språkbruken og/eller fremheve en reaksjon
- Sette ord på følelser
- Fordi det er morsomt
- Det er lettere å skjønne, av og til kommer man ikke på det samme ordet på norsk
- Jeg finner kanskje ikke det norske ordet, eller føler at et engelsk ord ville passe bedre inn. Jeg bruker ofte engelsk i hverdagen og jeg har derfor blitt vant til det
- De kan ikke norsk, eller engelske enkeltord der det norske ordet er lite brukt
- Lettere å uttrykke seg
- Ord på engelsk er lettere å flette inn i en samtale, og jeg har gjort dette så lenge at jeg ikke tenker over det lenger
- Enklere forkortelser. De samme ordene på norsk er ofte mye lengre og vanskeligere enn de på engelsk
- Jeg vet ikke når det begynte eller hvorfor, men det brukes mest når vi forteller en løyen historie eller bare kødder med hverandre
- I mange tilfeller er det enklere å bruke engelsk enn de andre språk jeg bruker
- Fordi det kan være slang (uttrykk) som vi bruker for å beskrive noe eller bekrefte noe. Feks ”aight! eller ”okey”
- Slik at det blir lettere å formulere noe med engelsk språk i enkelte sammenhenger
- Fordi det passer inn med måten vi snakker og eller så passer det til referanser og vår interne humor
- Som oftest bruker jeg engelske låneord som feks. surfe og please (plis) som ikke har en kort eller mye brukt norsk oversettelse

Question number eight: Do you switch between Norwegian and English in written communication with others on your cellphone and/or computer? If yes, why? If no, why not?

- Jeg gjør vel det noen få ganger men jeg prøver å la være fordi jeg synes det høres rart ut å skift ut et ord i en norsk setning til engelsk
- Jeg skriver alltid på norsk, men det kan hende jeg skriver engelske ord innimellom. Det er fordi noen ganger passer det bedre med engelske ord
- Jeg det gjør jeg. Fordi det høres kult ut og beskriver ofte mer hva jeg føler. Kanskje det er litt lettere, selvom de fleste forstår det

- Ja noen ganger blander jeg norske og engelske ord
- Jeg bruker bare noen ord på engelsk men i en norsk setning
- Ja, jeg skriver ofte norske meldinger som inneholder engelske ord, men aldri hele engelske setninger
- Jeg skriver norsk, men bruker engelske ord innimellom, for at det ikke skal høres så teit ut
- Ja for jeg skriver på norsk til familie og litt engelske uttrykk til venner
- Ja, det kommer veldig ann på hvem jeg snakker med. Men med venner i Norge bytter etter hvordan sammenhengen er. Hvis det er i samme samtale kommer det fortsatt ann på hvem jeg snakker med. Hvis det f.eks er bestevennen min snakker jeg ganske mye engelsk, men det er litt blandet med norsk
- Jeg skriver en norsk setning med for eksempel et engelsk ord fordi det kommer automatisk og noen ord er det samme på norsk som på engelsk
- Jeg pleier å skrive på norsk, men av og til har jeg med noe engelsk
- Ja, for eksempel besteforeldrene mine kan ikke engelsk. Foreldrene mine vet sikkert ikke alle ordene heller. Ja, det gjør jeg. Fordi jeg bare gjør det.
- Ja. Pga besteforeldrene mine forstår jo ikke så mye av de engelske ordene vi bruker, mens vennene mine forstår alt.
- Ja! Se over
- Ja, fordi forkortelser er på engelsk og tar mindre tid å skrive + jeg føler ord/setninger er bedre på engelsk til tider
- Pleier ikke ofte å gjøre det, men hvis jeg skifter er det som regel bare forkortninger som omg eller lol
- Ja, fordi eg synes det er enklare å uttrykka meg på engelsk
- Ja, fordi noe høres mer naturlig ut å si på engelsk og noe bare skriver jeg på engelsk uten å tenke over det
- Ja, av og til kan det være vanskelig å finne det rette ordet for å beskrive noe, eller så beskriver det engelske ordet bedre det man vil fram til
- Ja, varierer språket og fordi det har blitt en del av det å kommunisere på nett for meg
- Ja, fordi det er egentlig en vane og som sagt så er noen ord bedre på engelsk
- Ja, fordi det faller naturlig og er blitt en del av det norske språket. Feks: chill
- Ja, fordi det er ikke alt som er like lett å formulere på engelsk
- Som jeg sa på den første spørsmålet så er det lettere å beskrive situasjonen og få fram det jeg mener
- Ja, det varierer ofte på grunn av samtaleemner
- Det er berre enkelte ord som er på engelsk, men det er berre i uformelle samtalar. Det er fordi det er ord som ikkje er på norsk eller slangord
- Ja, for det virker ofte litt kulere eller passer mer inn med et engelsk ord av og til. Ofte er det fraser fra filmer, serier eller forkortelser
- Ja. Som sagt er det veldig naturlig å bruke engelsk, og det er generelt mer engelsk innflytelse i norsk språk per dags dato
- Ja, det skjer av og til om jeg ikke kommer på det norske ordet
- Ja, for å uttrykke meg bedre
- Ja, hele tiden! På grunn av det samme som jeg skrev i oppg.7
- Jeg skifter litt av og til. Fordi hvis det er noen som sender meg en video som er kul sier jeg Nice
- Ja! Det bare skjer

- Ja jeg skifter av og til fordi det er gøyt
- Ja fordi hvis de er engelsk bruker jeg kun engelsk fordi de ikke forstår norsk. Hvis de er norsk bruker jeg noen setninger på engelsk
- Ja, ve egentlig ikke hvorfor men til mamma og pappa for eksempel skriver jeg uten engelske ord. Ja, jeg er egentlig bare blitt vandt med det
- Hvis jeg snakker med mamma, tante eller mormor da skriver jeg på norsk, men jeg bruker av og til engelske forkortelser med mamma
- Nei men det varierer. Snakker ikke så mye med engelske folk
- Ja fordi det er noen ganger og litt enklere skrive på engelsk
- Ja. Vet ikke helt
- Ja fordi det er lettere på norsk
- Ja fordi noen snakker ikke norsk
- Ja, jeg gjør det fordi setninger kan bli kortere og noen ganger spiller eg og da må jeg skrive engelsk
- Ja det gjør jeg fordi jeg snakker med folk fra England og Tyskland (spill?)
- Ja noen ganger bruker jeg bare norsk og noen ganger ikke hvis jeg ikke skriver fort swipter jeg til engelsk
- Ja, for å variere språk og det er enklere å skrive det
- Bare innimellom som uttrykk
- Ja, fordi noen ting er bedre på engelsk enn på norsk
- Nei, det blir forvirrende
- Jeg finner kanskje ikke det norske ordet, eller føler at et engelsk ord ville passe bedre inn. Jeg bruker ofte engelsk i hverdagen og jeg har derfor blitt vant til det
- Ja, det hender. Ord og uttrykk som funker bedre på engelsk
- Sjeldent, men om jeg gjør det er det fordi det er lettere å uttrykke meg
- Ja jeg skifter mye mellom norsk og engelsk. Mest fordi jeg er vant til å snakke engelsk hjemme også
- Ikke vanligvis. Kun hvis det er spesielle ord
- Ja, jeg har lagt merke til selv av når jeg skal ha en seriøs dialog med venner så skriver vi på norsk, men eller så skriver vi på engelsk
- Nei. Det er fordi det høres rart ut å skifte språk selv om personen kan den norske og bruker andre språk istedenfor
- Ja det gjør jeg nok. Det er fordi det er slang
- Ja, fordi noen uttrykk og forkortelser er bare naturlig for meg å bruke (engelsk?)
- Ja, for en del av humoren vi har i vennegjengen er på engelsk. og av til snakker vi om engelsk fotball
- Jeg kommuniserer ikke utelukkende på engelsk med mindre det er nødvendig. Om jeg kan, bruker jeg norsk

Appendix IV: Fictional chat-messages

The fictional chat-messages were designed to resemble the Facebook Messenger application, but they are given as numbered sentences in this appendix for space considerations. The fictional chat-messages given to the groups of younger pupils are presented below.

1. Omg jeg hater prøver! Noen tips til hvordan jeg kan få bedre karakterer haha
2. Lyst å joine kino til helgen? Vi tenker å se den nye mamma mia filmen
3. Fikk du med deg hva vi hadde i lekse til i morgen i engelsk?
4. Hallo vi skal enten til USA eller Thailand i sommer! Hva hadde du valgt??
5. x sa at h*n var forelska i meg! Hva skal jeg gjøre?
6. Lol mamma kom inn og sa at hvis jeg ikke gjør leksene snart skrur hun av wifien.. Kan jeg flytte inn hos deg plis?
7. Er det innafor å droppe fotballkampen i morgen for å gå på kino istedenfor?
8. Er du klar til norsk fremføringen neste uke? Jeg er dritnervøs, redd for å få dårlig karakter....
9. Wtf nesten alle i klassen ser på skal vil danse! Bare jeg som synes det er sykt kjedlig?
10. Haha jeg vurderer å melde meg på Paradise hotel eller Ex on the beach etter at jeg er ferdig med vgs! Med på det eller?
11. Mamma og pappa vil legge meg til på Snapchat, har du familien din på Snapchat eller er det teit?

The fictional chat-messages given to the groups of older pupils are presented below.

1. Omg jeg hater prøver! Noen tips til hvordan jeg kan få bedre karakterer haha
2. Lyst å joine kino til helgen? Vi tenker å se den nye Halloween filmen
3. Fikk du med deg hva vi hadde i lekse til i morgen i engelsk?
4. Hallo vi skal enten til USA eller Thailand i sommer! Hva hadde du valgt??
5. x sa at h*n var forelska i meg! Hva skal jeg gjøre?
6. Lol mamma kom inn og sa at hvis jeg ikke gjør leksene snart skrur hun av wifien.. Kan jeg flytte inn hos deg plis?
7. Er det innafor å bruke alle konfirmasjonspengene mine på russetiden?
8. Sånn serr, hva synes du om Melina fra Ex on the beach?
9. Wtf nesten alle i klassen ser på skal vil danse! Bare jeg som synes det er sykt kjedlig?
10. Haha jeg vurderer å melde meg på Ex on the beach etter at jeg er ferdig med vgs! Med på det eller?
11. Er det teit av meg å droppe russetiden og bare være edru dette året?