FRÆNDAFUNDUR 11

Fyrirlestrar frá íslensk-færeyskri ráðstefnu
í Reykjavík 16.-18. ágúst 2022

Fyrilestrar frá íslendsk-føroyskari ráðstevnu
í Reykjavík 16.-18. august 2022

Ritstjórar
Jóhannes Gísli Jónsson
Tóta Árnadóttir

Málvísindastofnun
Reykjavík 2023

FRÆNDAFUNDUR 11

Frændafundur 11

Fyrirlestrar frá íslensk-færeyskri ráðstefnu
í Reykjavík 16.–18. ágúst 2022

Fyrilestrar frá íslendsk-føroyskari ráðstevnu
í Reykjavík 16.–18. august 2022

Ritstjórar
Jóhannes Gísli Jónsson
Tóta Árnadóttir

Málvísindastofnun
Reykjavík 2023

Kápa: Margrét Lára Höskuldsdóttir

Tölvuvinnsla: Jóhannes Gísli Jónsson

ISBN 978-9935-25-505-1

Efnisyfirlit

SIGRÍÐUR SIGURJÓNSDÓTTIR

Digital language contact with English: Comparison of children's language input and use in Iceland and the Faroes

1. Introduction

The language situation in Iceland and the Faroes has changed drastically in recent years. Current globalization and the advent of digital media and language technology has increased exposure to English, which is more intense and interactive than before, particularly among children and adolescents. This new language situation, characterized by digital language contact with English, has been much discussed in popular media in Iceland and the Faroes in recent years.

In the public discourse, a causal relationship between digital English input and reduced/incompletely acquired Icelandic/Faroese has often been assumed without any evidence. This public concern in Iceland was one of the motivating factors behind the research project "Modeling the Linguistic Consequences of Digital Language Contact" (MoLiCoDiLaCo, *www.molicodilaco.hi.is*) which received a Grant of Excellence from the Icelandic Research Fund in 2016–2019.[1] One goal of the project was to address this concern by collecting data to answer the question whether a globally dominant L2 (English) can affect the acquisition of a domestically dominant but globally small L1 (Icelandic) through digital language contact.

This article is organized as follows: Section 2 starts with a brief introduction to Danish and English influence in Iceland through the ages and the social and technological changes which shape Icelandic children's language environment today. In section 3, the children's part of the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project is briefly described and some of its main results outlined. The primary focus is on the measurements of the 3–12-year-old children's Icelandic and English input and language use and its relationship to their Icelandic and English vocabulary and Icelandic grammar.[2] In section 4, the language situation in the Faroes is compared to the Icelandic one, the main difference being the prominent role that Danish has played in the Faroe Islands through the ages. Also, the results of a couple of studies which have been conducted on the effects of digital language contact with English on Faroese children's language use are outlined. Finally, in section 5, the paper concludes with a few words on the vitality of globally small languages, like Icelandic and Faroese, in the digital age.

2. The Icelandic language environment

2.1 A brief history of Danish and English influence in Iceland

After the settlement of Iceland in 874, Iceland came under Norwegian rule in 1262. The year 1387 marks the beginning of Danish presence in Iceland (Karlsson 2010:17, 23). However, although first being under the Danish-Norwegian crown and then the kingdom of Denmark, Icelanders remained largely monolingual (Hilmarsson-Dunn and Kristinsson 2010). Icelandic was a written language at least from the 12th century (Árnason 2002:173) and Icelanders continued to write and publish in Icelandic after the union with Denmark. According to Ottósson (1990:31, 92), Danish was most

[1] The project was supported by grant number 162991-051 from the Icelandic Research Fund, awarded to Sigríður Sigurjónsdóttir and Eiríkur Rögnvaldsson.

[2] The results of the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project, outlined in sections 3.3 and 3.4, are published in Nowenstein and Sigurjónsdóttir (2021) and Sigurjónsdóttir and Nowenstein (2021).

dominant in commerce and administration until Iceland became an independent republic in 1944.

The year 1940 marks the beginning of English presence in Iceland, when British and later American troops occupied Iceland during World War II. In the latter part of the 20th century, British and American popular culture had great influence in Iceland, as in many other countries, and in the first decades of the 21st century, the contact with English increased even further with the advent of digital technology and media, where English is the dominant language.

Foreign language education in Iceland reflects this shift from Danish to English. Due to close ties with Denmark from 1387 on, Danish was the first foreign language taught in Icelandic schools for most of the 20th century. In 1999, however, English replaced Danish as the first foreign language taught in elementary school (Arnbjörnsdóttir 2018a:24). Today, English language instruction begins in 4th grade of elementary school, when children are 9–10 years old, although schools have permission to start instruction earlier and many nursery schools now teach their pupils some English. Danish instruction, on the other hand, begins in 7th grade, when students are 12–13 years old (Sigurjónsdóttir and Nowenstein 2021:703–704). Moreover, English has strengthened its status in Icelandic Universities and academia where many courses at the graduate level are taught in English and doctoral dissertations are often written in English (Kristinsson and Bernharðsson 2014; Arnbjörnsdóttir 2018b).

The spread of English throughout the world in the last decades is unprecedented, as indicated by the term *English as a global language* (Crystal 2003). Arnbjörnsdóttir and Ingvarsdóttir (2018) and Rögnvaldsson (2016) discuss how English affects communication and cultures world-wide. Since English is the dominant language of digital media and technology, most of the world's languages are now in digital language contact with English. One result of these altered conditions is that many children in traditionally non-English-speaking language communities today acquire some of their English skills before English is introduced in formal education (De Wilde et al. 2020). This also applies to many Icelandic children who learn English outside of school through contextual learning (e.g., Lefever 2010; Jóhannsdóttir 2018; Sigurjónsdóttir and Nowenstein 2021). This means that the learning takes place incidentally and is a by-product of children's extracurricular activities where they are attending to their interests in their free time.

2.2 A small homogeneous society going global

Icelanders are known for their strong tradition for language planning, prescriptivism, and purism regarding their mother tongue (Hilmarsson-Dunn and Kristinsson 2010). The purism efforts switched from clearing Icelandic of unwelcome Danish influence in the 19th and the first part of the 20th century to protecting it from English during and after World War II (Kristinsson 2017:47). In the 21st century, the focus of language planning in Iceland shifted from the form of the language to its status where the issue of domain-loss to English has become the focal point (Árnason 2001).

Thus, in recent years, due to both social and technological changes, Icelandic is losing important domains of language use to English (Rögnvaldsson 2016:22–24). For example, Icelandic is no longer the language of most ordinary face-to-face communication in all domains since in many restaurants and shops in Iceland, customers have to speak English. Due to the explosion in tourism in Iceland in the last decade, migrant workers have been imported from abroad and neither they nor immigrants in Iceland get the support they need to learn Icelandic. The technological advances of recent years also have increased English exposure in Iceland affecting the Icelandic speech community in various ways, especially young children and teenagers. Many young Icelanders spend a lot of time online, where according to the

results of the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project most of the content is in English (Sigurðardóttir 2020:102). Finally, language technology with voice-controlled equipment, for example digital assistants like Alexa and Google Home, are not yet available in Icelandic and are most often set to English in Icelandic homes. However, due to support from the Icelandic government, the groundwork is now being laid for them to speak Icelandic (Rögnvaldsson 2016:29).

As outlined in section 2.1, the Icelandic language community was rather homogeneous through the ages, but immigration to Iceland has increased in recent years and has in fact doubled since 2012. On January 1st, 2021, 15.5% of the population of Iceland were so-called "first generation immigrants".[3] Together with their children, this percentage is 17.1% of the population (Hagstofa Íslands). Studies on children and teenagers' learning of Icelandic as a second language (L2), e.g., Thordardottir (2021) and Thordardottir and Juliusdottir (2013), show large gaps between L2 Icelandic and native skills, gaps which persist. The L2 Icelanders have significantly less competence in Icelandic than native-speakers of the same age, speak "simpler" Icelandic, and few of them finish upper secondary school (16–19 years old) if they enroll at all. According to Thordardottir (2021), young L2 learners of Icelandic do worse than in other countries, with only a minority of Icelandic L2 learners shifting to dominance in Icelandic, whereas L2 learners of English typically shift to dominance in the L2 (community) language. This means that L2 Icelanders do not have the same opportunities in Iceland as native speakers of Icelandic. Moreover, Icelandic L2 teens use English significantly more than L1 teens and some know more English than Icelandic even after more than six years of residence (Thordardottir 2021). Finally, Sigurðardóttir's (2020:92) study, conducted within the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project, indicates that Icelandic L1 and L2 children prefer to communicate with each other in English rather than in Icelandic (see also Sigurðardóttir and Sigurjónsdóttir 2020).

As the previous discussion indicates, the Icelandic language environment has undergone dramatic changes in recent years as Icelandic now is in both traditional and digital language contact with English. Icelandic has of course been in contact with other languages before, especially Danish, as outlined in section 2.1, but as discussed by Rögnvaldsson (2016:22–24) there are three factors which seem to be different at this point in history which make the contact more intense than before in the history of Icelandic. First there is the quantity of English due to its dominance in the digital world. Second, the recipients of English input are younger than before and thus more receptive to English exposure. Third, the use of English is becoming increasingly interactive compared to the passive reception of the past; interactive and productive communication (speaking and writing) have been shown to be one of the best types of input for children's language acquisition (DeWilde et al. 2020:180).

This intense contact with English has caused growing public concern in Iceland where the globally dominant English has been perceived as a threat to Icelandic (Kristinsson 2017). For example, it has been claimed that some Icelandic children are not acquiring certain basic Icelandic vocabulary items nowadays although they know the English words (Markúsardóttir 2015), and that many Icelandic children and teenagers play and talk together in English rather than in their native language ("Börnin tala saman á ensku í skólanum" 2017).

[3] Hagstofa Íslands (Statistics Iceland) uses this term for immigrants who are born abroad as well as their parents and grandparents.

3. The Icelandic research project MoLiCoDiLaCo 2016–2019

In order to find out if Icelandic is losing ground to English and to map the status of Icelandic and English in Iceland today, Eiríkur Rögnvaldsson and I initiated the research project *Modeling the linguistic consequences of digital language contact* (www.molicodilaco.hi.is). One of the main research questions that the project aimed to answer was:

(1) Can a contextually learned and globally dominant L2 (English) affect the acquisition of a domestically dominant but globally small L1 (Icelandic)?

The effects of an L2 on an L1 are well-known in work on L1 attrition, where due to immersion in the L2, people lose some of their language abilities in the mother tongue (Nowenstein and Sigurjónsdóttir 2021:19). However, that research has been conducted on L1s which are minority languages and not the dominant language of schooling or society more broadly (e.g., Montrul 2008). Thus, research is lacking on the possible impact of increased (L2) English digital language input on a domestically dominant L1 like Icelandic. The MoLiCoDiLaCo-project addressed this understudied scenario.

3.1 Methods and data collection in the children's part of the project

The goal of the data collection in the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project was to construct a nation-wide profile of the amount that Icelandic speakers of different ages receive of Icelandic and English input, their language use and competence in both languages, as well as their attitudes to Icelandic and English. As described in detail in Nowenstein and Sigurjónsdóttir (2021:21–31) and Sigurjónsdóttir and Nowenstein (2021:704–707), two main methods for data collection were used in the project: online surveys tailored to each age group and subsequent in-depth testing sessions and interviews. The online surveys for the 3–12-year-old children were sent out to 1,500 children, yielding 724 participants and a response rate of 48%. The children were divided into four age groups where the survey was adapted to each age group. In total, the surveys included 265 questions and were parent-administered for the 3–9-year-olds but in part completed independently by the 10–12-year-olds.

The sample for the in-depth testing sessions were 106 children out of those who responded to the online survey. The participants were selected based on English input data results from the online survey, with small, average, and large amounts of English input within each age group. The 3–9-year-old children came in with a parent for three one-hour sessions and the 10–12-year-olds for two one-and-a-half-hour sessions. In these sessions the children and their accompanying parent were interviewed separately about the children's input both in Icelandic and English and their language attitudes. The children were tested on Icelandic grammar and on Icelandic and English vocabulary; language samples in both languages were also collected.

3.2 Some results regarding 3–12-year-old Icelandic children's digital language use

Results regarding the children's starting age of smartphone and tablet use in the online surveys of the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project show that children in the youngest age group, the 3–5-year-olds, started using these devices at the youngest age. The results for this age group, which are based on parental reports, show that 58% of the 3–5-year-olds were two years old or younger when they started using smartphones and tablets and 8% were younger than one year old.[4] For comparison, a study which was

[4] For more detailed information regarding our quantitative measurements, outlined in sections 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4, see the references cited in each section.

conducted in 2013 showed that only 2% of Icelandic children started using the Internet before the age of three (Sigurjónsdóttir and Rögnvaldsson 2018a:6–7).

In the online surveys, the parents of the 3–9-year-olds and the 10–12-year-olds themselves also were asked to mark which activities the children took part in at least twice a week both for Icelandic and English. The results for the 3–12-year-old children's computer game playing in Icelandic versus English by age show that only the 3- and 4-year-olds play more computer games in Icelandic than in English. The 5–12-year-old children play more games in English and computer game playing in English increases as the children grow older (Nowenstein et al. 2018:18). In this respect it should be noted that very few computer games are available in Icelandic and those that are target young children. Interestingly, our findings show gender differences in computer game playing where 3–12-year-old boys play more games than 3–12-year-old girls and this gender difference increases as the children grow older. Also, boys in most age groups play more computer games in English than girls, and in the 8–12-year-old age groups, a higher percentage of 8–12-year-old boys (36−43%) than girls (15%) play computer games which allow communication between players (Guðmundsdóttir et al. 2022:85–88). Interestingly, the statistical results from the children's online surveys show that 3–12-year-old boys have significantly more English vocabulary than girls the same age (Nowenstein and Sigurjónsdóttir 2021:35). Indeed DeWilde et al.'s (2020:177–180) results indicate that gaming provides one of the best inputs for children's contextual language learning of English vocabulary due to its interactive and productive use.

3.3 Children's language environment: How much English and Icelandic is there?

Within the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project, we conducted thorough measurements of the 3–12-year-old children's English and Icelandic input and use. As discussed in more detail in Nowenstein and Sigurjónsdóttir (2021:38−42) and Sigurjónsdóttir and Nowenstein (2021:710–712), the results of a statistical analysis (modeling results) from the in-depth testing sessions indicate that the average proportion of English input and output in a typical day for the 3–12-year-old children is 14%. However, the range is wide, from 0–52%, so there is a great deal of individual variation between children, and the proportion of English input and use increases as the children grow older. Moreover, according to our results, the average amount of English input and output per day is 90 minutes, or one hour and 30 minutes, and that amount also increases with age. On the other hand, the children across age groups have similar amounts of Icelandic input/output in minutes daily with an average amount of 519 minutes or 8 hours and 39 minutes per day (Sigurjónsdóttir et al. 2020:614). Thus, according to our measurements, the children in general across age groups receive a lot more input in Icelandic than in English and use Icelandic more than English in a typical day. Hence for the average child, English still is a relatively small part of Icelandic children's language environment.

3.4 Effects of English input on children's L1 Icelandic and L2 English

The results of the statistical analyses in the online surveys do not show any effects of English input and use on the many Icelandic linguistic variables evaluated in the surveys. The only significant effect on Icelandic for the 3–12-year-old children is a small negative effect of smart device use on their understanding and use of Icelandic vocabulary. However, there are more effects of English input and use on the children's knowledge of English. Thus, the children's interest in English, receptive English input, productive English use, and their smart device use all show a significant positive effect on the children's understanding and use of English vocabulary. Finally, there is a significant positive effect of receptive English input

and English interest for the 10–12-year-old children's judgments on standard English syntactic structures and grammar (Nowenstein and Sigurjónsdóttir 2021:33–38; Sigurjónsdóttir and Nowenstein 2021:708–710).

Turning to the results of the statistical analyses in the in-depth testing sessions and looking first at vocabulary, there are no effects of English on the Icelandic vocabulary scores, but again there is a significant effect of the children's English input and use on their English vocabulary scores. For the various Icelandic linguistic variables that were tested in the in-depth sessions, the only significant effect is that digital receptive English has a significant negative effect on the standard use of the subjunctive mood in Icelandic. Finally, the results of the Icelandic language samples, which were collected from the children in the sessions, show a significant negative effect of receptive English for the children's mean length of utterance (MLU) (for a more detailed discussion see Nowenstein and Sigurjónsdóttir 2021:42–50; Sigurjónsdóttir and Nowenstein 2021:713–716). Thus, the answer to one of the project's main research questions, stated in (1) in section 3: Can a contextually learned and globally dominant L2 (English) affect the acquisition of a domestically dominant but globally small L1 (Icelandic)? seems to be yes, although according to our results there are no large-scale effects on children's acquisition of Icelandic so far.

3.5 Children's attitudes to Icelandic and English

The results of the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project show that Icelandic teenagers and young adults are more negative towards their mother tongue than older people (Sigurjónsdóttir 2020:9). However, although the 3–12-year-old children seem to foster positive attitudes towards both Icelandic and English, a closer look at their responses in the in-depth testing session reveals that many of them associate Icelandic with compulsory school assignments, prescriptive grammar and learning to speak and write Icelandic in the grammatically correct way. On the other hand, most of them associate English with entertainment in the digital world, travel abroad, and modern technology. Thus, the domains of use of these two languages are quite different (Sigurðardóttir 2020:110–112; Sigurðardóttir and Sigurjónsdóttir 2020).

4. How do the Faroes compare?

4.1 A brief history of Danish and English influence in the Faroes

Historically, there are differences between the language situation in the Faroes and Iceland. Faroese speakers are used to more variability in language use than Icelanders, due to a wider range of dialectal differences in the Faroe Islands than in Iceland. Also, due to the prominent role that Danish has played in the Faroes through the ages, they are much more accustomed to using a second language in their home country than Icelanders are. For example, all written communication in the Faroes took place in Danish until 1846 when a spelling system was at last constructed for Faroese, after which the restoration of the Faroese language began (Petersen 2008). This is quite different from Iceland, as mentioned in section 2.1, where a written form of Icelandic has existed from at least the 12th century, and the New Testament was already translated into Icelandic in 1540 (Ottósson 1990:15). Also, in the Faroes up until 1938, people generally were required to use Danish in churches and schools, although the use of Faroese was allowed when talking to young children (Hansen 2018). Thus, there were significant domain restrictions on the use of Faroese through the ages, restrictions which did not exist in Iceland. It was not until 1938 and 1939 that the use of Faroese and Danish was made equal in schools and churches, and finally in 1948, Faroese became the main language of the Faroe Islands.

Today, Faroese has gained ground in old and new domains although intense contact with Danish through the ages has influenced both its lexicon and linguistic

structure (Petersen 2008). The linguistic environment in the Faroes today is characterized by Faroese being used in most domains although Danish is the official second language of the islands and practically everyone speaks and writes Danish. Danish instruction begins in third grade of elementary school, when children are 8–9 years old, and a majority of the textbooks used in upper secondary school are in Danish. Moreover, Danish news and media are still prominent in the Faroes. Thus, the language situation in the Faroes differs from Iceland, where the nation remained largely monolingual through the ages and Danish never had the prominent status that it still has in the Faroes.

As in Iceland, the year 1940 marks the beginning of English presence in the Faroes when British troops occupied the islands during World War II. However, it was the rise of digital media and technology, where English is the dominant language, that brought intense contact with English to the Faroes, just as in Iceland. Thus, English has taken over some of the domains in the Faroes where Danish was prominent before, especially in the case of younger speakers; see section 4.2.

4.2 Studies on English influence on Faroese children's language use

A difference in language use between younger and older Faroese speakers has been documented in a number of recent studies. For example, this contrast clearly surfaced in a small study conducted by Sigurjónsdóttir (in press) in the Faroes in 2019 where a part of the Icelandic MoLiCoDiLaCo-questionnaire was translated into Faroese to gain insight into the language situation in the Faroes. The results indicate that young Faroese adults, 20−40 years old, now speak more English daily than Danish, whereas older adults, 41–79 years old, still speak more Danish daily than English. However, the results of both this small study conducted in the Faroes and the Icelandic MoLiCoDiLaCo-project indicate that daily speech in both countries is mostly in the mother tongue.[5] Also, Andreasen (2021) studied 16–29-year-old Faroe Islanders' use of Faroese, Danish and English as well as their attitudes towards the three languages. The results of her study show that the 16–29-year-old participants use Danish less, and English more, than older Faroese people. There is a hierarchy both in the young participants' language use and conscious attitudes towards the three languages where Faroese comes first, English is second and Danish comes last.

As discussed in Petersen and Rasmussen (2018), there has been a growing public concern in the Faroes in recent years regarding digital language contact with English. The issues are the same as discussed for Icelandic in section 2.2. English is perceived as a threat to Faroese and its future, as parents and teachers point out that some Faroese children do not know common Faroese words, whereas they know the English words, and that they often use English when communicating with each other. Indeed, the results of Steinbjørnsdóttir's (2018) M.A.-thesis indicate that Danish words have to some extent been replaced by English words in 2−4-year-old Faroese children's talk when they play together. The study of Rasmussen et al. (2018), where 1,300 children in elementary school were asked about their English usage, points in the same direction. Responses to their questionnaire indicate that 30% of 9–14-year-old Faroese youths very often or often use English words when they communicate with their friends, as do 27% while playing computer games. These results are similar to the results of the online survey in the Icelandic MoLiCoDiLaCo-project, where 29% of 10–12-year-old children agree or strongly agree that they use English when playing with their friends (Sigurjónsdóttir and Rögnvaldsson 2018a:11–12). The results that older Faroese children and boys use more English words than

[5] Note that there were only 32 participants (20–79 years old) in the Faroese study compared to the 1,615 teenagers and adults (13–98 years old) who responded to the adults' part of the Icelandic MoLiCoDiLaCo-survey.

younger children and girls are also similar to the results from the Icelandic MoLiCoDiLaCo-project (see section 3.2).

5. Conclusion

To conclude this comparison of the language situation in the Faroes and Iceland, the interesting question arises whether the different experiences of language contact which these two closely related nations have had through the ages influence the linguistic effects of increased English in their language environment today. Icelandic has been the domestically dominant language in Iceland through the ages, whereas Danish was the official second language of the Faroe Islands for centuries. Thus, the Faroe Islanders are much more accustomed to using a second language in their home country than Icelanders. This historical fact might make the Faroese population more adaptable to the new language situation characterized by digital language contact with English (see the discussion in Sigurjónsdóttir and Rögnvaldsson 2018b:53). English also has taken over some of the domains in the Faroes where Danish was prominent before, especially in the case of younger speakers.

Finally, what does the future hold for these two sister languages in the North Atlantic Ocean in an age of intense digital language contact and domain loss to the globally dominant English? Both Icelandic and Faroese are small languages. As stated by UNESCO (2003:8): "A small speech community is always at risk", since it is more vulnerable to language contact than languages spoken by larger populations. However, when considering the vitality of Icelandic and Faroese, it should be kept in mind that the research discussed in sections 3 and 4.2 indicates that both languages are the domestically dominant languages and the results of the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project do not indicate large scale effects of L2 English on the L1 acquisition of Icelandic children. On the other hand, we find that Icelandic children are learning English extramurally and thus adding to their language expertise. A cause of concern might be the age trend which we observe in the MoLiCoDiLaCo-project where Icelandic teenagers and young adults are more negative towards their mother tongue than older people, as well as Thordardottir's (2021) finding that only a minority of young L2 learners of Icelandic shift to dominance in Icelandic even after more than six years of residence, with some of them knowing more English than Icelandic.

The results of the Icelandic MoLiCoDiLaCo-project indicate that in order to ensure that young Icelandic and Faroese children today bring their mother tongues with them into the future, it is essential that they foster positive attitudes towards their native languages. Icelandic and Faroese adults need to boost children's and teenagers' self-esteem in their respective mother tongues, while acknowledging that knowing English is a useful tool in today's world.

REFERENCES

Andreasen, Rakul Skaale. (2021). *Útlitini fyri einum málskifti: Fara vit at tosa enskt?* [The prospects for changing language: Will we start speaking English?] Setursrit 12. Fróðskapur - Faroe University Press. https://ojs.setur.fo/index.php/frodskapur/article/view/167/860

Arnbjörnsdóttir, Birna. (2018a). The policies and contexts that frame English education and use in Iceland. In Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir and Hafdís Ingvarsdóttir (Eds.), *Language development across the life span* (pp. 19–34). Springer.

Arnbjörnsdóttir, Birna. (2018b). Using English at university. In Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir and Hafdís Ingvarsdóttir (Eds.), *Language development across the life span* (pp. 143–162). Springer.

Arnbjörnsdóttir, Birna and Hafdís Ingvarsdóttir. (2018). Language development across the life span. English in Iceland: From input to output. In Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir and Hafdís Ingvarsdóttir (Eds.), *Language development across the life span* (pp. 1–18). Springer.

Árnason, Kristján. (2001). Málstefna 21. aldar [The language policy of the 21st century]. *Málfregnir*, *11*, 3–9.

Árnason, Kristján. (2002). Upptök íslensks ritmáls [The origin of Icelandic written language]. *Íslenskt mál*, *24*, 157–193.

Börnin tala saman á ensku í skólanum. (2017, March 21). https://www.mbl.is/frettir/innlent/2017/03/21/tala_saman_a_ensku_i_skolanum

Crystal, David. (2003). *English as a global lan*guage. Cambridge University Press.

De Wilde, Vanessa, Marc Brysbaert and June Eyckmans. (2020). Learning English through out-of-school exposure. Which levels of language proficiency are attained, and which types of input are important? *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *23*(1), 171–185. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1366728918001062

Guðmundsdóttir, Dagbjört, Sigríður Sigurjónsdóttir and Iris Nowenstein. (2022). Digital language contact between Icelandic and English. In Kristiina Kumpulainen, Anu Kajamaa, Ola Erstad, Asa Makitalo, Kirsten Drotner and Sólveig Jakobsdóttir (Eds.), *Nordic childhoods in the digital age* (pp. 79–91). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003145257-10

Hagstofa Íslands. *Mannfjöldi eftir bakgrunni 1. janúar 2021* [The population in Iceland according to background]. https://hagstofa.is/utgafur/frettasafn/mannfjoldi/mannfjoldi-eftir-bakgrunni-1-januar-2021

Hansen, Zakaris Svabo. (2018, August 28). *Challenges for Faroese in the digital world*. [Paper presentation]. An international conference within the Icelandic research project Modeling the linguistic consequences of digital language contact (MoLiCoDiLaCo), University of Iceland.

Hilmarsson-Dunn, Amanda and Ari Páll Kristinsson. (2010). The language situation in Iceland. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *11*, 207–276.

Jóhannsdóttir, Ásrún. (2018). English exposure and vocabulary proficiency at the onset of English instruction. In Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir and Hafdís Ingvarsdóttir (Eds.), *Language development across the life span* (pp. 57–78). Springer.

Karlsson, Gunnar. (2010). *Íslandssaga í stuttu máli* [A short history of Icelandic]. Mál og menning.

Kristinsson, Ari Páll. (2017). *Málheimar* [Language worlds]. Háskólaútgáfan.

Kristinsson, Ari Páll and Haraldur Bernharðsson. (2014). Íslenska og enska í íslensku háskólastarfi [Icelandic and English in Icelandic universities]. *Orð og tunga*, *16*, 93–122. https://ordogtunga.arnastofnun.is/index.php/ord-og-tunga/article/view/86

Lefever, Samuel. (2010). English skills of young learners in Iceland. *Ráðstefnurit Netlu: Menntakvika*. https://skemman.is/handle/1946/7811

Markúsardóttir, Linda Björk. (2015, April 14). Ég kann þetta ekkert á íslensku. *Vísir*. https://www.visir.is/g/2015704149993/-eg-kann-thetta-ekkert-aislensku

Montrul, Silvina A. (2008). *Incomplete acquisition in bilingualism: Re-examining the age factor*. John Benjamins.

Nowenstein, Iris, Dagbjört Guðmundsdóttir and Sigríður Sigurjónsdóttir. (2018). Að tileinka sér móðurmál í tæknivæddum heimi [To acquire a native language in a technologically advanced world]. *Skíma*, *41*, 17–21.

Nowenstein, Iris Edda and Sigríður Sigurjónsdóttir. (2021). Stafrænt málsambýli íslensku og ensku: Áhrif ensks ílags og málnotkunar á málfærni íslenskra barna.

[Digital language contact between Icelandic and English: The impact of English input on the language skills of Icelandic children]. *Ritið*, *21*(3), 11–56. https://ritid.hi.is/index.php/ritid/article/view/150/138

Ottósson, Kjartan. (1990). *Íslensk málhreinsun: Sögulegt yfirlit*. [Language purism in Iceland: A historical overview]. Íslensk málnefnd.

Petersen, Hjalmar P. (2008). The borrowing scale and Danish in Faroese. *Fróðskaparrit*, *56*, 97–115. https://pure.fo/ws/files/23844331/Petersen_Borrowing_Scale.pdf

Petersen, Hjalmar P. and Sissal M. Rasmussen. (2018, September 12). *Fara vit heldur at speaka enskt?* Fróðskaparsetur Føroya. https://www.setur.fo/fo/setrid/tidindi/fara-vit-heldur-at-speaka-enskt/

Rasmussen, Sissal M., Lydia Didriksen, Turið Kjølbro and Marjun Ziskason. (2018). *Kanning av lesivanum hjá børnum 2017/18*. *Frágreiðing*. https://www.malmenning.fo/kanning-av-lesivanum/

Rögnvaldsson, Eiríkur. (2016). Um utanaðkomandi aðstæður íslenskrar málþróunar. [On the external conditions of Icelandic language development]. *Skírnir*, *190*(1), 17–31.

Sigurðardóttir, Ólöf Björk. (2020). *Tungumál og tæknivædd börn: Viðhorf barna til íslensku og ensku og tengsl þeirra við skjá- og netnotkun* [Children's views on Icelandic and English and how they relate to their use of digital media and the internet]. MA-thesis, University of Iceland. https://skemman.is/handle/1946/35319

Sigurðardóttir, Ólöf Björk and Sigríður Sigurjónsdóttir. (2020). Viðhorf íslenskra barna til íslensku og ensku: Hvað segja þau okkur um íslensku- og enskukennslu í grunnskólum [How Icelandic children view Icelandic and English: What does this tell us about the teaching of Icelandic and English in elementary schools?] *Netla–Veftímarit um uppeldi og menntun. Sérrit 2020 – Menntakvika 2020*. https://netla.hi.is/serrit/2020/menntakvika_2020/03.pdf

Sigurjónsdóttir, Sigríður. (2020). Viðhorf ungra Íslendinga til íslensku á tímum stafræns málsambýlis við ensku [The views of young Icelanders on Icelandic in the times of digital language contact with English]. *Málfregnir*, *28*(1), 7–14. https://islenskan.is/wp-content/uploads/2022/12/malfregnir-2020-28-1-tbl.pdf

Sigurjónsdóttir, Sigríður. (in press). Sambúð norrænu eyjamálanna og ensku á tímum snjalltækja og alþjóðavæðingar [Language contact between Insular Scandinavian and English in the times of smart devices and globalization]. *Frændafundur* 10. Fróðskaparsetur Føroya.

Sigurjónsdóttir, Sigríður and Eiríkur Rögnvaldsson. (2018a). Stafrænt sambýli íslensku og ensku [Digital language contact between Icelandic and English]. *Netla–Veftímarit um uppeldi og menntun. Sérrit 2018–Menntakvika 2018*. http://netla.hi.is/serrit/2018/menntakvika_2018/05.pdf

Sigurjónsdóttir, Sigríður and Eiríkur Rögnvaldsson. (2018b). Íslenska á tölvuöld [Icelandic in the computer age]. In Höskuldur Þráinsson and Hans Andrias Sølvará (Eds.), *Frændafundur* 9 (pp. 47–56). Hugvísindastofnun Háskóla Íslands. https://fraendafundur.hi.is/fraendafundur-9/

Sigurjónsdóttir, Sigríður and Iris Nowenstein. (2021). Language acquisition in the digital age: L2 English input effects on children's L1 Icelandic. *Second Language Research*, *37*(4), 697–723. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/02676583211005505

Sigurjónsdóttir, Sigríður, Iris Nowenstein, Thorbjörg Thorvaldsdóttir and Dagbjört Guðmundsdóttir. (2020). Contact without contact: English digital language input and its effects on L1 Icelandic. In Megan M. Brown and Alexandra Kohut (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 44th Annual Boston University Conference on Language*

Development (pp. 606−619). Cascadilla Press. http://www.lingref.com/bucld/44/BUCLD44-49.pdf

Steinbjørnsdóttir, Eyð Berghamar. (2018). *Lítla mín hvat sigur tú? Purple, flower, blóma, blue. Ein kanning av málinum hjá tvey-fýra ára gomlum føroyskum børnum – við serligum atliti at útlendskum orðum/íkasti* [A study of the language of two four year old Faroese children with a special emphasis on foreign words/input]. MA-thesis, University of the Faroe Islands.

Thordardottir, Elin. (2021). Adolescent language outcomes in a complex trilingual context: When typical does not mean unproblematic. *Journal of Communication Disorders*, *89*, 1–16. https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0021992420301283

Thordardottir, Elin and Anna G. Juliusdottir. (2013). Icelandic as a second language: A longitudinal study of language knowledge and processing by school-age children. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *16*, 411−435. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.693062

UNESCO Ad Hoc Expert Group on Endangered Languages. (2003). Language vitality and endangerment. https://ich.unesco.org/doc/src/00120-EN.pdf

ÚTDRÁTTUR

‘Digital language contact with English: Comparison of children’s language input and use in Iceland and the Faroes’

Keywords: digital language contact with English, increased use of English, the grammatical consequences of digital language contact, the language environment of Icelandic and Faroese children

Miklar samfélags- og tæknibreytingar hafa haft áhrif á málumhverfi Íslendinga og Færeyinga á þessari öld og valdið aukinni enskunotkun frændþjóðanna tveggja. Þessar breytingar og áhyggjur íslensks almennings af áhrifum aukinnar enskunotkunar á íslensku voru hvatinn að rannsóknarverkefninu *Greining á málfræðilegum afleiðingum stafræns málsambýlis*, sem hlaut öndvegisstyrk Rannsóknasjóðs á árunum 2016–2019 og Sigríður Sigurjónsdóttir og Eiríkur Rögnvaldsson stýrðu.

Í þessari grein eru nokkrar helstu niðurstöður barnahluta íslenska rannsóknarverkefnins reifaðar og þær bornar saman við niðurstöður þeirra kannana sem fyrir liggja um enskunotkun færeyskra barna. Rétt er að hafa í huga að mikill munur er á umfangi íslenska öndvegisverkefnisins og þeirra fáu kannana sem gerðar hafa verið á áhrifum ensku á málnotkun barna í Færeyjum. Þessi munur gerir allan samanburð erfiðan. Í niðurstöðum færeysku kannananna er þó margt sem minnir á niðurstöður íslenska öndvegisverkefnisins, t.d. hvað varðar breytt málumhverfi færeyskra barna þar sem gagnvirkt enskt máláreiti virðist meira og ná til fleiri sviða og yngri barna en áður í gegnum stafræna miðla. Auk þess benda niðurstöður færeysku athugananna til þess að aukin enska í málumhverfi færeyskra barna hafi rétt eins og á Íslandi haft áhrif á orðaforða þeirra og málnotkun þar sem þau tala sum hver saman á ensku þegar þau leika sér og spila tölvuleiki.

Í öllum samanburði á málumhverfi og málnotkun barna og ungmenna á Íslandi og í Færeyjum endurspeglast þó sá munur sem er og hefur verið á málnotkun í löndunum tveimur í gegnum aldirnar. Íslenska hefur verið nær einráð á Íslandi en færeyska hefur aftur á móti lengi verið í nánu sambýli við dönsku. Þessi munur kemur m.a. fram í því að aukin enskunotkun barna og ungmenna í Færeyjum virðist

mögulega skerða notkun dönsku á ákveðnum sviðum í eyjunum meira en færeysku en skerðir hins vegar aðallega notkun íslensku á Íslandi.

Sigríður Sigurjónsdóttir
Háskóla Íslands
siggasig@hi.is

Frændafundur 11

ISBN 978-9935-25-505-1