



universität
wien

DIPLOMARBEIT

Titel der Diplomarbeit

“Because you need it everywhere“ –
English language attitudes
of Austrian grade 12/13 students

Verfasserin

Bettina Kranawetter

Angestrebter akademischer Grad

Magistra der Philosophie (Mag. phil.)

Wien, 2012

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt
Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt

A 190 344 362
Lehramtsstudium UF Englisch UF Russisch

Betreuerin

Ao. Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Ute Smit

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank all the students who participated in the questionnaire survey. Of course I also want to thank all the teachers who let me have parts of their lessons to do the survey. In this context, special thanks go to Mag. Lora Autischer.

Moreover, I wish to thank Ao. Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Ute Smit most sincerely for her valuable insights and suggestions. She supported my project from the beginning and assisted me during the process of writing this paper.

I am deeply grateful to Manuel and Lucas for reading parts of this paper and providing me with valuable feedback, and to Katharina for her useful comments. Thank you, Elena, for answering all my questions with regard to working with SPSS.

Finally, I would like to thank Michael and my friends for their moral support and encouragement.

Table of contents

1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 Theoretical considerations: Language, Identity and Attitude.....	2
2. Attitude.....	3
2.1. What is an attitude?	3
2.2 Mentalist and behaviorist theories of attitude.....	4
2.3 Structure of attitudes.....	5
2.4 Functions of attitudes.....	7
2.5 Attitude and related terms.....	8
2.6 Language attitudes	11
2.7 Previous attitude research – an overview	12
2.7.1 Types of language attitudes.....	15
2.8 Determinants of language attitudes: gender, school, ability and language background.	16
2.9 Attitudes as input and output	17
3. Motivation in Second/Foreign Language Learning	17
3.1 What is motivation?.....	18
3.2 The social psychological period	19
3.2.1 Integrativeness revisited	23
3.3 The cognitive-situated period.....	23
3.2.2.1 Self-determination theory	23
3.2.2.2 Attribution theory	25
3.2.3 The process-oriented period.....	25
3.2.3.1 The L2 Motivational Self System	27
3.3 Concluding remarks.....	29
3.4 The relationship between motivation and attitude.....	31
3.5 Motivated behavior: willingness to communicate.....	32
4. The multifunctionality of English.....	35
4.1 English in the European Union – functions, use and status.....	35
4.2 The interrelationship of youth, language and media	36
4.3 The role of media in second/foreign language learning	37
4.4 New Englishes and new English learning contexts: ELF and EIL.....	40
4.5 English language teaching (ELT) and language attitudes in Austria	41
5. The field study	42

5.1 Research methodology	42
5.2 Aims of the study.....	42
5.4 The design of the questionnaire	43
5.5 Piloting the survey	47
5.6 Sample	47
5.7 Procedure	48
5.8 Analyzing the data	49
6. Results	50
6.1 Part I: students' attitudes towards English with regard to their professional future.....	50
6.1.1 Part I - Differences across school types	50
6.1.2 Part I - Differences across sexes	52
6.2 Part II - students' perceptions about EFL at school.....	52
6.2.1 Part II - Differences across school types.....	53
6.3 Part III - students' feelings concerning English with a view to professional preparation	56
6.3.1 Part III - Differences across school types	56
6.3.2 Part III - Differences across sexes.....	57
6.4 Part IV - Differences across school types.....	57
6.5 Part V - motivation to learn English and use it outside the classroom	58
6.5.1 Part V - Differences across school types	58
6.5.2 Part V: Differences across gender.....	60
7. Analysis of open-ended questions	61
7.1 Students' instrumental orientations and beliefs about their future with regard to English – positive and negative responses.....	61
7.2 Students' feelings concerning English language preparation – positive and negative responses.....	67
7.3 Students' opinions towards the usage of new media in EFL.....	70
7.4 Students' willingness to communicate – negative responses	83
7.5 Functions and Use of English outside the language classroom.....	83
8. Discussion.....	87
8.1 Instrumental attitudes and students' beliefs concerning English in relation to their professional future	88
8.1.1 Differences across school types	88
8.2 Students' opinions towards EFL.....	90
8.2.1 Differences across school types	90

8.3 Students' feelings concerning English language preparation	91
8.3.1 Differences across school types	92
8.3.2 Differences across sexes	92
8.4 Students' willingness to communicate	93
8.4.1 Differences across sexes	94
8.5 English language learning motivation	94
8.5.1 Differences across school types	95
8.5.2 Differences across sexes	96
8.6 Functions and use of English outside the language classroom.....	96
9. Conclusion	98
10. Bibliography.....	104
11. Appendix	115
11.1 Abstract (English)	115
11.2 Zusammenfassung (German)	116
11.3 Questionnaire (German).....	117
11.4 Curriculum Vitae.....	123

1. Introduction

Language attitudes have traditionally been regarded as a decisive factor concerning learning motivation and second/foreign language achievement. Thus, it is not surprising that a great amount of research has been conducted in this area. The concept of attitude has not only been a popular research area for sociolinguistics and education, it has also occupied a special place in social psychology.

Since attitudes to language (varieties) influence global decisions such as language policy, they play an important role with regard to language planning. In the linguistically rich European Union we have 23 official languages which have to be administered. This fact entails the importance of foreign language learning and the development of intercultural communicative competence.

The English language has recently been undergoing considerable changes. Formerly taught in order to enable learners to visit an English-speaking country and communicate with people there, it has now been separated from a specific cultural group and become the primary means of communication between speakers within different first languages within and beyond Europe.

Thus, it can be said that globalization and the world's increasing interconnectedness have not only been affecting economy and trade, but the English language as such as well. Nowadays, English is globally used in a multitude of areas. Thus, it can be said that English has a universal character.

The above mentioned facts make it a highly interesting and challenging task to conduct research in this field. Unfortunately, studies of attitudes towards the English language among the Austrian population are few (cf. Hebenstreit 1997, Knollmayr 2003, Damböck 2005, Plot 2008, Svara 2009, Wöckinger 2010, Zeiss 2010). The focus of this study is on youth, as young people's attitudes towards languages have a great impact on the 'life' of languages. It is the young people who decide whether or not to use a certain language and thus initiate language change.

The aim of this thesis is to investigate attitudes towards the English language of grade 12/13 students as well as their learning motivation. Furthermore, the study will shed light on the uses and functions of English outside the language classroom. The survey will be conducted in high schools and higher vocational schools. The first chapter will provide information on

the concept of attitude from a sociopsychological perspective. The second chapter deals with motivational theories in second/foreign language learning. This will be followed by a discussion of the status, use and functions of English in Europe. As nowadays young people are increasingly exposed to all sorts of media from an early age onwards, specific attention will be given to the role of English in the media. After the theoretical part, the results of my study will be described and analyzed in greater detail and compared according to the variables school type and gender. This thesis will finally be rounded off by a discussion of the findings, followed by a conclusion.

1.1 Theoretical considerations: Language, Identity and Attitude

At the outset of this thesis, it is useful to introduce the concepts that are most relevant with regard to my study: language, identity and attitude.

Undoubtedly, language is multifaceted and multifunctional. It is not only a means of expression and communication, language also shapes and influences the way we think, we feel, we behave, in other words, the way we are. Thus, it also has a great impact on how we see the world, on how we construct reality¹. The language or variant of language we use defines us. It, so to speak, serves as a marker as it marks us out as belonging to a certain social group. In the same way, we use language to describe and define people. We judge people according to the way they speak. In this context, the assumption that we are dependent on language might be a valuable one. The fact that the (variant of) language we use and the way we use it are closely connected with who we are and with the way we see ourselves has long been proven and, unsurprisingly, become a popular research field. Research concerned with the relation of language and identity has yielded many results. The reason for the great interest in this subject lies in the strong belief that, as Joseph (2010: 9) puts it, “[i]n reality, our very sense of who we are, where we belong and why, and how we relate to those around us, all have language at their centre”. This does, naturally, not only apply to the first language (L1) but also to (the) second (and further) language(s) (L2).

With regard to the reason why we form attitudes Smit neatly highlights that “we only form attitudes towards language because it reflects and embodies societal structures on various levels, from the national to the interpersonal ones [...]” (1996: 8). In this context, she refers to

¹ The Sapir-Whorf-hypothesis suggests that language determines thought to a certain extent and that linguistic categories limit and determine cognitive theories (for more information see Thomas & Wareing 1999: 21 ff.).

Dirven who points to the underlying and essential message that language lies at “the very heart of our social [...] identity” (Dirven 1991 quoted in Smit 1996: 8).

2. Attitude

Attitudes play a crucial part in our everyday lives. If we have a positive attitude towards an object or a person, it usually means that we like this object or this person.

A great amount of our behavior and actions like for example voting, buying organic food, the newspapers we read, reflect attitudes that we hold. If we know somebody’s attitudes towards an object or a particular situation, we are able to predict his or her behavior, opinions, beliefs, and motivations. Thus, it seems natural that the concept of attitude has long been a widely discussed one and maybe the most popular research area in social psychology.

Yet, the frequent usage of the term attitude did not remain restricted to the field of social psychology only. Attitude is a commonly used term in everyday speech. Nowadays, for example, people highlight the importance of positive attitudes towards healthy eating and exercise. Apart from that, attitudes are assigned a vital role in terms of policy planning and making. For a successful implementation of any policy the attitudes of those involved should be taken into consideration. Therefore, a survey of attitudes can be considered a useful tool as it serves as an indicator of prevailing beliefs and thoughts of a community.

Up to the present, manifold topics such as sports, religion, health-related concerns have used attitudes as essential explanatory concept. While this thesis is mainly concerned with language attitudes, it seems valuable at this point to have a close look at the general theoretical concept of attitude. This chapter will therefore deal with possible definitions, the structure and functions of attitudes as well as other terms commonly associated with attitude.

2.1. What is an attitude?

Since the concept of attitude is multi-dimensional, there is no uniquely valid description of this term. Various theorists and researchers have come up with a considerable number of definitions, often reflecting their own fields of interest. In fact, a vast amount of research has been conducted focusing on “the most pervasive theme” in social psychology (Edwards 1991: 101). Already in the 1930s, the psychologist Allport (1935) claimed the concept of attitude to

be “the most distinctive and indispensable concept in [...] social psychology” (Allport 1935 quo. in Eagly et al. 1993: 1).

Even if definitions tend to be “stifling [...] yet, since we have to use words when we talk, it probably helps to sketch out occasionally what we mean by our terms” (McGuire 1969²: 142). With regard to this thesis and the aim of my study, the definition provided by Oppenheim (1982) is considered most adequate. According to him, an attitude is a hypothetical construct which

cannot be directly apprehended. It is an inner component of mental life which expresses itself, directly or indirectly, through such more obvious processes as stereotypes, beliefs, verbal statements, or reactions, ideas and opinions, selective recall, anger or satisfaction or some other emotion and in various other aspects of behaviour (Oppenheim: 1982: 39).

As mentioned in the definition above, since an individual’s thoughts, feelings and desires are covert, attitudes cannot be directly observed. Yet they can be inferred from observable responses, which are elicited by stimuli and as a result reveal or express evaluation. Garrett et al. stress the evaluative nature of attitude by saying that an attitude is an “evaluative orientation to a social object” (Garrett et al. 2003: 3). The referents of attitudes are referred to as attitudinal objects and include attitudes towards objects, institutions, individuals, events and abstract ideas (cf. McKenzie 2010: 19).

Additionally, it seems crucial to mention that attitudes are considered relatively stable dispositions that render identification and measurement possible. Furthermore, it is important to note that the concept of attitude does not stand on its own as such. There is an overlap with concepts such as belief, behavior, opinion, value, stereotype and others, which are commonly strongly associated with attitude and often used interchangeably. Importantly, as studies have shown, these terms are closely related with attitude. Before we move on to a detailed description of these terms, it is necessary to have a close look at theories of attitude as well as the structure of attitude.

2.2 Mentalist and behaviorist theories of attitude

Within the field of social psychology, there are two predominant perspectives from which attitudes are considered. Some researchers view attitude as a mental state whereas others regard it as an aspect of behaviorism (cf. Eagly et al. 1993: 3).

² This edition (1969) is used because in the later editions (1985, 1999) his essay “The Nature of Attitude and Attitude Change” is not included.

Social psychologists who accept the mentalist view of attitude regard attitude as a mental state that is evoked by a certain stimulus (cf. Fasold 1984: 147). The individual's attitude is, so to speak, responsible for his or her reaction and behavior to a given stimulus. Williams (1974) proposed the following mentalist definition of attitude: "Attitude is considered as an internal state aroused by stimulation of some type and which may mediate the organism's subsequent response" (Williams 1974 quoted in Fasold 1984: 147). Thus, in former times, it used to be claimed that attitude has a direct relation to overt behavior or verbal responses. However, an individual's behavior also depends to a large extent on contextual variables and social factors. Therefore, this belief attracted a great deal of criticism (the complex relationship between attitude and behavior will be explained in greater detail in section 2.5 Attitude and related terms).

The virtue of the view that attitude has a direct relation to overt behavior is that attitude, although closely related with overt behavior, remains an independent variable (cf. Fishman & Agheyisi 1970: 138).

With regard to research methodological considerations, this view seems to be rather problematic. If an attitude is an inner state of readiness, and can therefore not be inferred from observable responses, the only method to investigate attitudes would be self-reported data. In terms of validity, however, self-reported data are often doubtful. What is more, mentalists believe that attitudes have subcomponents, such as cognitive (knowledge), affective (feeling), and behavioral or conative (action) components (cf. Agheyisi and Fishman 1970: 139).

The behaviorist view, on the other hand, suggests that an individual's attitudes can only be found in the responses he or she makes to social situations. In other words, the individual's overt behavior is observed, tabulated and analyzed. The downside of this view is that attitudes defined this way are regarded as dependent on specific stimuli and thus cannot be used to forecast other behavior (cf. Agheyisi and Fishman 1970: 138). In contrast to the mentalists, who regard attitudes to have subcomponents, behaviorists consider attitudes as single units (cf. Fasold 1984: 147-150).

2.3 Structure of Attitudes

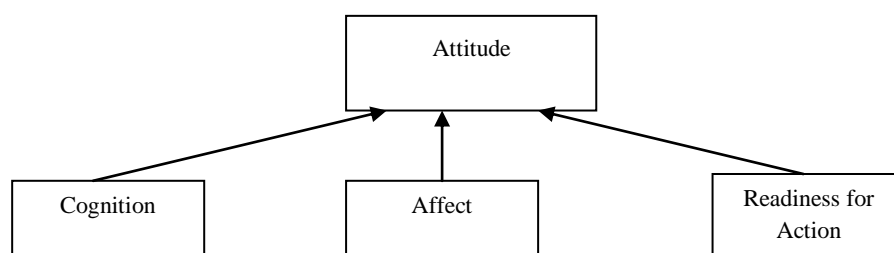
As far as the structure of attitudes is concerned, the two major trends – mentalist and behaviorist – probably face their biggest gap in the discussion whether attitudes have a unitary or a multiple structure (cf. Fishman and Agheyisi 1970: 138-139). Traditionally, three components of attitude - cognition, affect and behavior - have been repeatedly put forward.

The “trilogy”, as McGuire calls it, has experienced great popularity within the scientific study of attitudes and the thus tricomponential analysis has been used to a great extent (cf. McGuire 1985: 242). The three-components model³, originally proposed by Katz & Stotland (1959), divides the structure of attitudes into three components, namely the cognitive, affective and behavioral (also called conative) component. Interestingly, some researchers preferably distinguish between three types of responses rather than three components. For this context, the latter will be used.

According to Ajzen (1988), responses of a cognitive nature refer to the beliefs we hold towards a certain object (cf. Ajzen 1988: 5). Thus, cognitive responses reflect perceptions of and knowledge about the attitude object. The second category of responses, affective responses, deals with feelings toward and evaluations of a particular object. Finally, behavioral or conative responses refer to “behavioral inclinations, intentions, commitments, and actions with respect to the attitude object” (Ajzen 1988: 6). Therefore, this type of response serves as an indicator of people’s behavior with regard to the attitude object (cf. Ajzen 1988: 6-7).

Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) suggest that this three component model of attitude should be considered in a hierarchical form. Cognition, affect and action provide the foundation in order to become one single construct of attitude at a higher level of abstraction (Ajzen 1988, Rosenberg and Hovlan 1960, Ajzen and Fishbein 1980 quoted in Baker 1992: 13).

Figure 1. Hierarchical model of attitude (adapted from Baker 1992: 13)



To sum up, an individual’s attitude can be deduced from his/her verbal or nonverbal responses towards the attitude object, institution, event, etc. The responses can be conative, indicating how a person would act with reference to the object; they can be of an affective nature, reflecting how a person feels about the object; and they can be of a cognitive nature, reflecting the person’s beliefs about and perceptions of the object (cf. Ajzen 1988: 7).

³ In this context it is essential to mention that the model by Katz and Stotland is not exclusive. Rokeach (1968) and Fishbein (1966), to name but a few, devised even more complex models of attitude structures.

While the views concerning the nature and structure of attitudes differ widely, there seems to be some consensus that attitudes are learned through direct experience, stable and closely related to overt behavior (cf. Fishman & Agheyisi 1970: 151).

2.4 Functions of Attitudes

Attitudes are developed, maintained and changed due to various functions they serve. Theorists like Smith and Katz (Smith 1956, Katz 1960, Katz and Stotland 1959) have highlighted the view that attitudes do not only fulfill certain functions but also that the procedures or methods for changing attitudes depend on the functions the respective attitudes fulfill. Katz (1960) suggested four different functions that can be beneficial to an individual's personality.

First, he mentions the utilitarian or instrumental function which refers to the assumption that attitudes help people to achieve desired goals and to avoid negative outcomes. McGuire points out that the utility of an attitude might be its value for the purpose of social adjustment (Smith, Bruner and White 1956 quoted in McGuire 1969: 158). He illustrates this assertion by mentioning the 'conventional anti-Semites' described by Adorno (Adorno et al. 1959 quoted in McGuire 1969: 158). Conventional anti-Semites, as he names them, did not hold hostile attitudes toward Jews because they disliked them. They, in fact, held this attitude because it helped them to ensure that they were accepted by their anti-Semitic social environment. Kelman (1958) referred to this notion as the 'identification' mode of attitude formation "wherein the believer adopts the attitude so as to help maintain a satisfying role relationship with some significant other, for example, a peer, authority figure, or (in the case of a negatively normative reference group) some despised other" (Kelman 1958 quoted in McGuire 1969: 158).

In short, utilitarian attitudes help individuals to receive rewards and avoid punishment (cf. Banaji and Heiphetz 2010: 356).

Second, the ego-defensive function refers to the maintenance and promotion of self-esteem. Katz and Stotland (1959) suggested that many attitudes are held in order to help individuals to cope with their inner conflicts rather than because of any relationship or experience with the attitude object (cf. McGuire 1969: 160). So, those kinds of attitudes "protect the individual from psychic threats" (Banaji and Heiphetz 2010: 356). They serve as an "ego-enhancing" 'tool' in order to boost an individual's self esteem so that he/she is able to function in a competitive world (ibid.).

Third, the value-expressive function posits that individuals use attitudes to express their personal values and self-concepts. “[A]ttitude expression is considered valuable in providing an opportunity for a cathartic acting-out of inner tensions, thus providing the person with relief at relatively little cost in effort or risk” (McGuire 1969: 159). Similarly, self-assertion has been identified as another expressive function of attitudes (McGuire 1969: 159). Within this notion, “[t]he person creates an identity for himself by taking a stand on issues. Holding attitudes thus becomes a means of self-realization” (McGuire 1969: 159).

As a fourth function, Katz names the economy or knowledge function which pertains to the assumption that attitudes help individuals to process information by providing a schema for management and simplification. It has been suggested that this function can be regarded as a practical manual that tells individuals how to behave appropriately towards a certain object (cf. Lippmann 1922 quoted in McGuire 1969: 158). There are so many phenomena in this world that it is impossible to grasp each and every one in its full complexity. Thus, people tend to simplify them and put them into categories, in other words, they build stereotypes. “By their simplification and their relatively univocal implications for action in the face of an otherwise overpoweringly complex social universe, attitudes give us a needed feeling of competence to deal with present and future experiences” (McGuire 1969: 158). Thus, attitudes fulfilling the knowledge function “allow an understanding of the situations in which one finds oneself” (Banaji and Heiphetz 2010: 356).

2.5 Attitude and related terms

As previously mentioned, the term attitude does not exist in isolation, but has related terms such as opinion, belief, behavior, stereotype, and value⁴. This overlap with other concepts poses a major problem, especially in terms of definition and demarcation. Yet, as Shaw and Wright (1967) have stressed, there are subtle differences between attitude and its neighboring terms (cf. Shaw and Wright 1967 quoted in Baker 1992: 13). In the following description, the emphasis will be on the above mentioned terms (i.e. opinion, belief, and value) as those terms are drawn upon in my study. Due to the fact that stereotype and behavior are the most prominent issues with regard to the concept of attitude and attitude research, they will be included below as well.

⁴ In this respect it is important to mention that there are various other concepts that overlap with attitude such as trait, habit, motive, and ideology. However, as these concepts are not relevant for my study a detailed description will not be provided.

Attitude and opinion are often used synonymously in everyday speech. In contrast to attitudes, opinions do not contain an affective reaction. Besides, opinions can be verbalized while attitudes are latent and can be conveyed by verbal and non-verbal behavior (cf. Baker 1992: 14). In addition to these distinctions, many theorists (e.g. Rokeach 1973) seemingly have agreed upon the concept that opinion is more observable and conscious, whereas attitudes are latent and unconscious (cf. McGuire 1985: 241). Others (e.g. M.J. Rosenberg 1960, Osgood et al. 1957) state that opinions refer to matters of fact whereas attitudes seem to be emotionally charged (cf. McGuire 1985: 241).

As far as attitude and behavior are concerned, in previous days, the claim was made that an individual's attitudes can perfectly explain and predict his or her behavior. Yet, in the 1960s, first criticisms concerning this assumption began to emerge (cf. Wicker 1969; McGuire 1969). The most famous example for research aimed at proving this common belief wrong is LaPiere's study that was conducted in 1934. A Chinese couple went to 251 restaurants in the USA and was refused service in only one of them. Six months later a letter was sent to these restaurants. As a result, 92% of the businesses stated that they would refuse entry to a Chinese couple. It can be said, therefore, that behavior is not always congruent with expressed attitudes (cf. Baker 1992: 15).

However, as Baker stresses, results of studies like the one of LaPiere should not lead to wrong conclusions. It is not the case that observation of behavior only leads to valid results while expressed attitudes are not trustworthy. Instead, Baker draws attention to the fact that behavior might be "consciously or unconsciously designed to disguise or conceal inner attitudes" (Baker 1992: 15). Moreover, he highlights that

[a] direct, predictive relationship between attitude and external behavior can no can no more be assumed than that between behavior and attitude. The psychologists [sic!] ability to predict action from attitude, or attitude from action, is somewhat imperfect. Behavior tends not always to be consistent across contexts (Baker 1992: 16).

Ajzen (1988) perfectly complements Baker's statement by saying that "[e]very particular instance of human action is, in this way, determined by a unique set of factors. Any change in circumstances, be it ever so slight, might produce a different reaction" (Ajzen 1988: 45).

From the above mentioned facts, it can be concluded that the relationship between attitude and behavior is highly complex. Indeed, behaviors can reflect an individual's attitude towards an attitude object. However, it is important to bear in mind that this might not always be the

case (cf. Dolan 2011: 88 ff.). An individual might, for example hold positive attitudes towards organic food, but might not purchase it because it is more expensive than non-organic products. What is more, behavior is influenced by various factors such as “preconceptions about self and others, monetary factors, social influences or norms (what peers and community members are saying or doing, and convenience [...]” (Dolan 2011: 88). Dolan’s demarcation of the two concepts seems to fit well into the present context:

Attitude is a feeling or opinion of approval or disapproval toward something. Behavior is an action or reaction that occurs in response to an event or internal stimuli (e.g. thought) (Dolan 2011: 88).

Summing up, it can be stated that attitudes and behaviors are not directly related, but that their relation is highly context-dependent.

Attitude and belief are two terms that are used almost interchangeably. People have beliefs in or about something while they hold attitudes towards an object. One distinct characteristic of belief is that some beliefs can be verified or falsified with external, objective criteria (cf. Eagly et al. 1993: 8). For example, the belief that water freezes at 0 degrees Celsius can easily be verified. Beliefs strongly relate with truth: we believe what we take to be true. Thus, it is not surprising that Eagly & Chaiken have highlighted that beliefs strongly pertain to knowledge. “Beliefs are typically conceptualized as estimates of the likelihood that the knowledge one has acquired about a referent is correct or [...] that an event or state of affairs has or will occur” (Albarracin and Wyer 2005 in Albarracin et al. 2005: 273). Attitudes, by contrast, are usually more subjective in nature and thus variable across different judges (cf. Albarracin et al. 2005 in Albarracin et al. 2005b: 5).

At this point, it is also vital to mention that beliefs vary in strength. People might be absolutely confident that some things are true (e.g. that Abraham Lincoln was president of the United States) and confident that other things are not true (e.g. that Abraham Lincoln was tsar of Russia), but might be very uncertain about other things (e.g. that Abraham Lincoln had brown eyes) (cf. Albarracin et al. 2005a: 273). These elaborations can be perfectly illustrated by the comparison of the following two statements: “Cigarette smoking is unhealthy” and “I detest cigarette smoking”. The former statement can be verified and thus based on the subjective probability that the proposition is true. It is therefore assumed to express a belief. The latter, however, is assumed to express an attitude (cf. Albarracin et al. 2005a: 276).

Researchers who have accepted the view that attitudes have a tripartite structure regard belief as a component of attitude while others regard belief as the cognitive factor that influences attitudes (cf. Fishbein & Ajzen 1975: 12).

Stereotype is another concept closely related to attitude. Kramarae (1982) defined stereotypes as “rigid attitudes about categories and objects which actually vary over time and situations” (Kramarae 1982: 85). Stereotypes have been defined as more rigid and fixed than attitudes. It has been highlighted that stereotypes are distinctively formed by group members to demarcate themselves against other groups (Weber 1992: 70).

Attitude and value are two terms that more often than not tend to be treated as synonyms. Basically, there have been two theoretical approaches to the study of value. Some theorists agree upon the presumption that an object has an intrinsic worth that is unrelated to the user of this object. This view contrasts with the assumption that objects do not have intrinsic worth, but individuals have to ascribe worth to certain objects. A given object can therefore have a great amount of different values ascribed to it by various individuals. Accordingly, Cooper and McGaugh have defined value as “an attitude which is dominated by the individual’s interpretation of the stimulus object’s worth [...]” (Cooper and McGaugh 1966: 29-30).

2.6 Language attitudes

Language is the primary form of human communication. Therefore, it stands to reason that language attitudes have a great impact on our language behavior (cf. Lasagabaster 2006: 402). With regard to predominant languages such as English, McKenzie refers to Perloff who highlights that

Attitudes towards global languages such as English are likely to be strong (as are attitudes towards ethnic groups, celebrities or favorite products) and are characterized by well-learned association between the language and the evaluation, which can be activated automatically from memory (Perloff 2003: 68 quoted in McKenzie 2010: 25).

In general, the term “language attitudes” is an umbrella term which comprises a wide range of research topics and areas:

- attitude to language variation, dialect and speech style
- attitude to learning a new language
- attitude to a specific minority language (e.g. Irish)
- attitude to language groups, communities and minorities
- attitude to language lessons
- attitude to the uses of a specific language
- attitude of parents [together with other relatives as well as an individual’s social environment] to language learning
- attitude to language preference (cf. Baker 1992: 29)

Gardner (1985) distinguishes attitudes towards learning the language from attitudes towards the language community itself (cf. Gardner 1985: 24). Since languages are mostly learnt in

educational institutions, the teacher, the learning environment and the colleagues will be crucial factors in the formation process of attitudes towards the language. It is worth noting that language attitudes play an important role with reference to language maintenance and language planning. What is more, people's attitudes towards language, language varieties and their speakers may strongly influence phenomena related to language. Bailey (1973) states that e.g. sound change depends upon whether the change is welcome by the speaker community (cf. Bailey 1973 quoted in Fasold 1984: 148). Also, a study conducted by Lambert (1972) showed that language attitudes have a great impact on how teachers behave towards pupils.

It is vital to point out that there is evidence that attitudes about language affect second/foreign language learning (cf. e.g. Lambert 1972, Gardner 1985). Indeed, research has found a positive correlation between positive attitudes towards language and language achievement. Thus, language attitudes play a crucial role in second/foreign language achievement. Unsurprisingly, a great deal of language attitude research has been conducted in the education sector. Attitude studies have looked at language attitudes of teachers and of course second/foreign language learners.

2.7 Previous attitude research – an overview

Since the 1950s language attitudes have been a very popular and extensively investigated research area. Lambert and his associates (1960) paved the way for future language attitude research. They conducted a study examining attitudes towards French and English among the Francophone and Anglophone community in Canada. Then, in 1972, Gardner and Lambert were the first ones to investigate the role of sociopsychological variables in second language learning. They found that there was a positive correlation between attitudes towards the L2 and learning motivation. Furthermore, attitudes towards the L2 correlate with success in language achievement. Later studies have revealed that various other factors such as age, personality, gender, intelligence and language aptitude, additionally to affective variables such as attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety seemingly affect success in language acquisition (cf. McKenzie 2010: 29).

As far as language attitudes of non-native speakers are concerned, it has been found that respondents generally have positive attitudes towards English. However, reservations have been put forward as well concerning the threat that the spread of the English language poses

to indigenous languages. Examples of such studies include: attitudes towards the spread of English in Italy (Pulcini 1997), attitudes and motivations towards English in Albania (Dushku 1998), attitudes towards English and its functions in Finland (Hyrkstedt and Kalaja 1998), attitudes of English teachers in Hong Kong (Tsui and Bunton 2000), attitudes towards English among Hungarian students (Dörnyei and Cziser 2002) (cf. McKenzie 2010: 58-59).

In her study “A New English for South Africa?” Smit (1996) investigated language attitudes towards the English language as well as varieties of English in South Africa with special regard to language planning and language policy. The study revealed that the respondents had positive attitudes towards English. Also, they favor English as main language of instruction. As to the favored varieties, the informants prefer the non-standard varieties spoken by the majority of South Africans (cf. Smit 1996: 183-184).

It is worth noting that only a small number of studies have focused on the attitudes of non-native speakers towards varieties of English (cf. McKenzie 2010: 59). Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenböck and Smit (1997) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes of university students of English in Austria. The respondents were asked to evaluate two Austrian non-native accents of English and three native English accents (RP, near RP and General American). The data obtained revealed that the three native accents, especially RP, were preferred whereas the two non-native accents were assigned a rather low status (cf. McKenzie 2010: 60).

Some studies have been conducted focusing on the attitudes towards the English language in Japan (e.g. Haarmann 1989, Kobayashi 2000, Yashima (et al.) 2002, 2004, 2009) (cf. McKenzie 2010: 62-63). Most of them show that Japanese learners in general have positive attitudes towards English and that the language seems to enjoy tremendous prestige in Japan. Moreover, learners who take a positive stance towards the English language were more successful in language acquisition (cf. McKenzie 2010: 64).

A number of studies have been conducted concerning English language attitudes in Austria. Hebenstreit (1997) investigated language attitudes of Austrian pupils towards British and American English. In 2003 Knollmayr examined attitudes of future English teachers and teachers working at the Viennese English department towards English as an international language particularly with regard to pronunciation models. In her diploma thesis Damböck (2005) focused on attitude development and speaker preference among small children. Plot

(2008) carried out research on Austrian attitudes towards Australian English. Schauer's (2009) study investigated the motivation(s) of Austrian and Spanish learners to use English in their leisure time and to communicate in it. Svara (2009) examined English language attitudes and English language learning motivation of Austrian high school and vocational college students. In her thesis, Wöckinger (2010) dealt with the social and cultural parameters that influence the attitudes of Austrian teenagers to the English language. Zeiss (2010) investigated attitudes towards English as a *lingua franca* in Europe.

For the present survey especially Svara's (2009) investigation proved valuable. She surveyed high school and vocational college students aged fifteen and seventeen with the aim to find out why they have positive or negative attitudes to English. The main findings of her study were that in general the students hold favorable attitudes towards learning English. Yet, vocational college students have a stronger instrumental orientation than high school students. Furthermore, high school students hold more positive attitudes towards reading English books and magazines and watching English TV series and movies. In addition, her results show that younger learners take a more positive stance towards learning English and are higher motivated than older ones. Another important finding of Svara's study is that the students agree upon the fact that English is of great importance for intercultural communication. As far as the use of English outside the classroom is concerned, they use English most often on vacation, in connection with various media and for communicating with friends and family members (cf. Svara 2009: 104-108).

Educational institutions are a very popular place for conducting language attitude studies. The teacher, the language course and the colleagues are important factors that shape and influence the learners' attitude towards the second/foreign language. Teachers' and learners' attitudes to language issues are frequently investigated for pedagogical and curricular-related reasons. Attitudes to language and to language learning are particularly important with reference to motivation in second language acquisition. The study of language attitudes can be assigned great significance in the particular context of language learning. Research in this field has found a positive correlation between favorable language attitudes and the learners' achievement.

In general, language attitude research is a wide field that aims to investigate many different variables that shape people's attitudes. Smit highlights that three variables appear to be of special importance: "the attitude holders as members of groups and a society, the referents as

part of the societal setting of the attitude holders, and the types of attitude held by the holders towards the language-related referents under investigation” (1996: 40).

2.7.1 Types of language attitudes

The great diversity of different categorizations of types of language attitudes is a challenging factor in the attempt to provide a lucid picture.

Formerly, a distinction was made between language attitudes that refer either to monolingual settings or bi- or multicultural settings. The belief that was held was that in multilingual societies the various (varieties of) languages of the different speech communities are in competition and thus have to be evaluated against each other (cf. Baker 1992: 79). In fact, there have been various ways of distinguishing types of language attitudes. Jones (1966) differentiates between four types of language attitudes which are (1) attitudes which reflect an interest in a language, (2) utilitarian attitude, (3) attitude to the national character, (4) attitude to proficiency (cf. Jones 1966 in Baker 1992: 31).

Probably the most straight-forward categorization of different types of language attitudes was made by Schmied (1991) (cf. Smit 1996: 39). He proposes a tripartite framework for the distinction of types of language attitudes. He divides the various language attitude studies into (1) investigating attitudes towards certain languages, (2) attitudes towards particular language varieties, and (3) attitudes towards specific sociolinguistic topics (cf. Schmied 1991: 164). As language is regarded as symbol of the respective ethnic or social group, the first domain includes the elicitation of stereotypes. As to the second domain, the aspect of norm and social group marking becomes relevant, which is inextricably linked to language varieties. The third area deals with attitudes towards language uses, e.g. the use of specific varieties for specific purposes and in specific domains (cf. Schmied 1991: 164-168).

The perhaps most widely known and used distinction is the division into instrumental and integrative language attitudes proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1972). The former is characterized by “a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language” (Gardner and Lambert 1972: 14). In addition, Baker names further significant characteristics of instrumental attitudes, namely that they are “mostly self-oriented and individualistic” (Baker 1992: 32). Thus, instrumental attitudes may refer to vocational reasons, status, achievement, personal success, self-enhancement, self actualization

or basic security and survival. Integrative attitudes, by contrast, refer to the “desire to be like representative members of the other language community” (Gardner and Lambert 1972: 14).

In contrast to Gardner and Lambert’s twofold distinction, Yashima is convinced that in today’s world the distinction between instrumental and integrative orientation as an attitude toward learning English is neither valid nor useful. A study by Yashima (2009) conducted among Japanese learners of English revealed that the informants consider both the utilitarian value and the possibility for international communication important and desirable (cf. Yashima 2009: 146).

To sum up, there are various approaches to the categorization of language attitudes that depend on specific contexts and differing perspectives and research interests of scholars. With regard to my study, the concept of instrumental orientation will be of great importance.

2.8 Determinants of language attitudes: gender, school, ability and language background⁵

Attitudes to language are, of course, influenced by a variety of different factors such as gender, school, ability and language background. As far as gender is concerned, Baker states that “the reasons for difference are presumably located in the socio-cultural behaviors of the two genders” (Baker 1992: 42). Boys and girls are socialized within different contexts: different expectations, different perceptions etc. This might influence their attitudes. With regard to school, the fact that schools can greatly affect attitudes to a language is not surprising. Extra-curricular activities such as drama groups, book clubs and conversation classes may of course lead to more favorable attitudes and may even initiate attitude change (cf. Baker 1992: 43). With respect to ability, there is ample evidence that ability in a language and attitudes towards that language are closely related: the higher the proficiency, the more favorable the attitude (cf. Baker 1992: 44). The key concern in this context is, as Baker highlights, the cause-effect relationship. The question remaining is obvious: do favorable attitudes to a language lead to higher achievement, or does high achievement in a language lead to positive attitudes towards that language? This question has not been answered, yet. However, in Baker’s view, it is possible that there is a reciprocal relationship between the two. “Attitudes and achievement may be both the cause and effect of each other. In a cyclical,

⁵ Baker (1992) also lists age and cultural background as determinants of language attitudes. As these are not important for the purpose of the study they will not be included here.

spiral relationship, one builds on the other – in an upward or downward relationship” (Baker 1992: 44). As for language background, the socio-cultural context in which one grows up is a highly significant determinant of language attitudes. Language usage and, needless to say, the attitudes of family and friends can have a big say in attitude formation. What is more, mass media, popular and youth culture, and peer groups might have a big impact on attitudes as well (cf. Baker 1992: 44).

2.9 Attitudes as Input and Output

In the field of education there is consensus that attitudes can function as both input and output from social action. A favorable attitude to physics or to language learning can be regarded as a crucial factor in terms of physics or language achievement. Thus, “attitude is a predisposing factor, affecting the outcomes of education” (Baker 1992: 12). As mentioned above, attitude can also be an outcome in itself. After a computer programming or a language learning course, the participants may have developed favorable attitudes to programming a computer or the language learned. Attitudes as output in this sense are of course hoped for by teachers, course instructors and educationists as they hope that the participants or students develop their skills and deepen their knowledge in the particular field being learned. Therefore, attitudes have a dual function. They serve as a “predisposer and an outcome” (cf. Baker 1992: 12). Baker additionally emphasizes that in Gardner’s (1985) socio-educational model attitude is assigned a double function as well: it is defined (besides intelligence, aptitude, and anxiety) as an initial ingredient in bilingual proficiency, and it is also regarded as an outcome alongside bilingual proficiency in the model (cf. Baker 1992: 12).

3. Motivation in Second or Foreign Language Learning

Motivation has long been identified as a significant variable within the study of second language acquisition. The concept of motivation and particularly its role in second language acquisition and achievement have attracted a great amount of research. The importance of motivation, be it in second language learning or different contexts in life, is, of course, not difficult to understand. It is, so to say, the driving force that initiates the learning process and helps to sustain it in order to promote the achievement of one’s goals. It has even been found that a high level of motivation can defy deficiencies both in one’s language aptitude and learning conditions (cf. Gardner and Lambert 1972). Thus, since Gardner and Lambert (1959)

discovered that second language (L2) achievement is strongly related not only to language aptitude but also to motivation, a great number of theories have been constructed that try to explain the motivation construct. As it is simply not possible to represent every model that has been established, only the most essential theories will be discussed. Therefore, this chapter will give an overview of L2 motivation research of the past and be rounded off with a discussion of the aforementioned motivation theories.

3.1 What is motivation?

We have an intuitive understanding of motivation. When trying to put it into words, however, one might realize that the conceptualization of motivation is not as straightforward as probably assumed. In everyday language, motivation is what makes one do something. The level of motivation influences the effort one puts into an action, the persistence of a certain behavior, and the degree of perseverance in a particular process. Furthermore, motivation is amenable to change and can fairly rapidly be altered by the individual himself.

Gardner (2007) congruously states that it is impossible to define the complex phenomenon that is motivation; nevertheless, one can enumerate various characteristics of the motivated individual (cf. Gardner 2007: 10). According to him, the motivated individual is “goal directed, expends effort, is persistent, is attentive, has desires (wants), exhibits positive affect, is aroused, has expectancies, demonstrates self-confidence (self-efficacy), and has reasons (motives)” (Gardner 2007: 10). In the educational context, he differentiates language learning motivation from classroom learning motivation. The former refers to the motivation to acquire a second/foreign language “relevant in any second language-learning context” (Gardner 2007: 11) whereas the latter relates to the individual’s learning motivation in the classroom (cf. Gardner 2007: 11). Needless to say, this type of motivation is influenced by a variety of factors such as learning materials, course content, classroom atmosphere and, of course, the teacher (ibid.).

In his socio-educational model, Gardner (2001) views motivation to learn a second language as comprising three components: effort, desire, and affect. Effort, as Gardner puts it, refers to the individual’s “persistent and consistent attempt to learn [a language]” (Gardner 2001: 6). What is more, in order to be successful in second language achievement, the desire to do so is vitally important. A student who truly indulges in the learning of a language will develop

positive affect and, consequently, be more enthusiastic and thus might be more likely to achieve success in second/foreign language learning.

To sum up, it can be said that motivation is a highly complex phenomenon which cannot be easily defined. It is the driving force behind the individual's action and behavior and is considered crucial in any learning situation. There is a great variety of factors that influence motivation. Thus, it is not surprising that a vast amount of motivation theories has been constructed, aiming at explaining the multi-faceted nature of motivation.

As mentioned before, there is a considerable volume of literature on L2 motivation research. Dörnyei (2005) identifies three phases of L2 motivation research:

- 1) The social psychological period (1959 -1990) – characterized by the work of Gardner and his students and associates in Canada
- 2) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s) – characterized by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology
- 3) The process-oriented period (the past five years) – characterized by an interest in motivational change, initiated by the work of Dörnyei, Ushioda, and their colleagues in Europe (Dörnyei 2005: 66-67).

3.2.1 The social psychological period

The L2 motivation research tradition has evolved in the 1960s in Canada. Wallace Lambert and Robert Gardner, inspired by the particular Canadian situation of having a juxtaposition of Anglophone and Francophone communities, were convinced that motivation to learn the language of the other community would primarily develop out of the desire to communicate and identify oneself with members of the other group. Furthermore, they assumed that students' attitudes towards the specific language group would have a great impact upon their success in language learning (Gardner 1985: 6). Based on these assumptions, Gardner devised the Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition, which is represented in Figure 2. Since then the model has undergone a number of changes. The version that can be seen below is taken from Gardner (2001: 5).

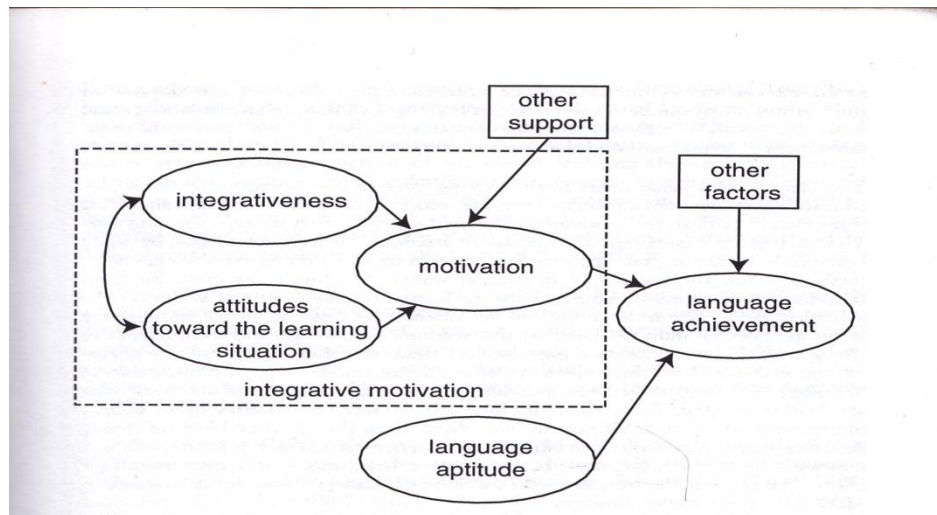


Figure 2. Gardner's (2001) Socio-Educational Model

Gardner's construct has been one of the most influential and widely accepted constructs in L2 motivation research. Nevertheless, it has been criticized for various reasons (criticism of Gardner's model will be discussed in the next subsection). The model states that language achievement depends on the following variables: the level of integrative motivation, language aptitude and a number of other factors. His concept of integrative motivation has been a much-discussed subject. According to Gardner, integrative motivation involves "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of language learning plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language" (Gardner 1985: 11). It consists of three main components, namely Integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation. Integrativeness "reflects the individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups" (Gardner and MacIntyre 1993: 159).

As far as language learning motivation is concerned, there are several factors that are crucial: the student, his/her personal background and various external factors, e.g. the teacher, the classmates, the course materials etc. (cf. Gardner 2001: 17). Needless to say, motivation is influenced by a great number of factors, which cannot be fully explained and may also vary between various situations. In order to explain motivation connected specifically to the school context, Gardner suggests to view it from two different perspectives, the 'Educational Context' and the 'Cultural Context'. As both contexts "do not operate in isolation of one another" (Gardner 2007: 15), he considers them to be of great importance. The term 'Educational Context' refers to the immediate educational situation, such as the teacher, classroom atmosphere, course material, the curriculum etc. (cf. Gardner 2007: 14) Variables

linked to the ‘Educational Context’ are directly linked to ‘Attitudes toward the learning situation’ (cf. Gardner 2007: 14). As far as ‘Cultural Context’ is concerned, matters become more complicated. The term refers to the cultural background of the students, their beliefs, ideals and attitudes, his/her personality characteristics etc., characteristics that have an impact on ‘Integrativeness’ (interest in learning the language in order to interact with members of the target culture) (cf. Gardner 2007: 14).

3.2.1 Integrativeness revisited

As mentioned before, Gardner’s notion of Integrativeness has been enormously criticized during the past two decades. A considerable number of theorists and researchers seem to agree upon the fact that this concept is no longer suitable (cf. e.g. Lamb 2004, Pavlenko 2002, Coetzee-Van Rooy 2006). In times of increasing economic and linguistic globalization, it has become questionable whether people can still be integratively oriented/motivated. The points of criticism of Gardner’s concept are founded upon the following aspects.

First of all, it needs to be noted that Gardner and Lambert conducted their study in a context where two communities, the Francophone and the Anglophone, coexist. In this context, one has to bear in mind that their research was not carried out in a foreign language context, but in a second language environment where the language is supported by the social milieu (cf. Stern 1991: 279). Moreover, in contrast to a foreign language learning environment, people are in direct contact with the language and its native speakers. Thus, attitudes to the L2 and L2 learning motivation are influenced by sociopolitical and geographical aspects (cf. Dörnyei 2003a: 178). However, Gardner’s theory does not take into account the “complex interrelationship of Anglophone and Francophone communities in Canada or how changing power relations between the groups impact L2 learning [...]” (Gu 2009: 42).

In line with this, Clément and Kruidenier (1983) suggested that in order to sustain motivation four orientations (travel, friendship, knowledge and instrumental orientation) play a crucial role. They claimed that the validity of Integrativeness depends on the specific sociocultural setting in which language learning takes place. Several studies found that Integrativeness as proposed by Gardner is not relevant in foreign language learning contexts.

McClelland (2000) states that in the era of English as a global language, Integrativeness needs to be redefined to refer to “integration with the global community rather than assimilation with native speakers” (2000: 109).

Lamb (2004) conducted a study in Indonesia and found that the boundaries between integrative and instrumental orientation are fuzzy. Rather, in today’s globalized world, the two concepts are closely interrelated.

Similar to McClelland and Lamb, Yashima (2002) found that young people nowadays consider both the utilitarian value and the ability to communicate internationally important and desirable (cf. Yashima 2009: 146). She thus claims that the division into instrumental and integrative motivation is no longer useful. Furthermore, in the era of worldwide communication in English, it might not be the learner’s prime desire to be like the American, British or Australian native speaker, but to be part of the international community. She refers to this notion as international posture which has been defined as “attitude toward the international community (cf. Yashima 2002: 57). The concept of international posture refers to the things that English symbolizes for learners: connection to foreign countries, interest in foreign affairs, openness⁶ toward different cultures, communication with others (cf. Yashima 2002: 57). In other words, “[i]nternational posture captures a tendency to see oneself as connected to the international community, have concerns for international affairs and possess a readiness to interact with [other] people [...]” (Yashima 2009: 146).

In contrast to the above mentioned findings, Dörnyei and Clément (2000) found that Integrativeness can indeed play a key role in L2 learning. In a longitudinal survey among 13,000 teenage learners in Hungary, “a language-learning environment that is strikingly different from Canada in that it is largely monolingual and monocultural” (Dörnyei and Clément 2000 quoted in Masgoret and Gardner 2003: 133) and people have very limited contact with native speakers, they found Integrativeness “to be the most powerful [...] component of the participants’ [...] language-related affective disposition” (ibid.). Thus, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) conclude with a call to “seek potential new conceptualizations and interpretations that extend or elaborate on the meaning of the term without contradicting the

⁶ In this context, it is important to mention that Gardner himself (2001) revised his concept as he states that openness towards other cultures and non-ethnocentric attitudes constitute important parts of Integrativeness (Gardner 2001: 5).

large body of relevant empirical data accumulated during the past four decades” (Dörnyei and Csizér 2002: 456).

The aim of this subsection was to highlight that Integrativeness is a highly context-dependent construct that has seen various interpretations. Various researchers support the idea that Gardner’s theory needs to be further researched in different learning contexts. Moreover, with regard to the function of English in the 21st century, a more globally oriented model of motivation should be aimed for (cf. Gu 2009: 42).

3.2.2 The Cognitive-Situated Period

During the 1980s and 1990s, the main fields of interest in motivation research began to change. Dörnyei (2005) identified two main tendencies that are typical of the cognitive-situated period. First of all, motivational psychology began to be increasingly interested in cognitive concepts developed in the 1980s. The predominant view among motivational psychologists was that an individual’s thoughts and beliefs about their own abilities in common with the perceived values related to his goals have a significant impact on motivation. Second, instead of focusing on motivational attitudes of large communities, the desire to yield more specific and detailed results concerning actual learning situations (e.g. in the language classroom) became the center of attention (cf. Dörnyei 2005: 74). Similarly, researchers had become interested in the dynamic nature of motivation (cf. Dörnyei 2005: 75). Yet, this does not imply that Gardner’s concept and findings were abruptly regarded as useless. Up to the present day, Gardner’s model has been used as basis for studies of motivational patterns of whole communities (cf. Dörnyei 2005: 74):

It was generally accepted that Gardner and his associates’ macroperspective was useful to characterize and compare the motivational patterns of whole language learning communities and then to draw inferences about important issues such as intercultural communication and affiliation, language contact, multiculturalism, and language globalization. However, if we also want to understand the motivational features of actual language classrooms, these broad factors have little explanatory power and need to be supplemented with motives associated with the learners’ immediate learning situation”(74-75).

Two important theories focusing on cognitive aspects illustrate the thoughts and convictions of this period: self-determination theory and attribution theory.

3.2.2.1 Self-Determination Theory

One of the most widely known theories that are distinctive of the cognitive period is Self-Determination Theory (SDT). This theory is based on the widely accepted distinction between

two types of motivation, intrinsic (IM) and extrinsic motivation (EM). Intrinsic motivation “involves people doing an activity because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from the activity itself” (Gagné and Deci 2005: 331). Extrinsic motivation, by contrast, is instrumental in nature as satisfaction does not come from the activity itself but rather from tangible or verbal rewards. In the school context, such a reward might be e.g. a good grade, an excellent report card or praise from the teacher.

In addition, SDT suggests a third type of motivation, which is amotivation. “[This type of motivation] refers to situations in which people have no reasons for their performance [...]” (Noels et al. 2000 quoted in Gu 2009: 47). The three types of motivation, IM, EM and Amotivation “can be identified to the extent to which a learner participates in an activity due to their inner drive” (Gu 2009: 46).

It has been found that in order to be intrinsically motivated people need to feel autonomous and competent. “Autonomy involves acting with a sense of volition and having the experience of choice” (Gagné and Deci 2005: 333). Intrinsic motivation is a prototype of autonomous motivation.

With regard to extrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan (1985) claimed that, although externally regulated, this type of motivation can also be internalized, thus become intrinsic. Yet, the degree to which this behavior can be internalized might vary. They identify four types of extrinsic motivation, from the lowest to highest level of self-determination: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation (cf. Gagné and Deci 2005: 335).

External regulation, the least self-determined form of EM, refers to motivation completely externally regulated and is derived from external sources such as rewards and threats only. Introjected regulation is more internalized and indicates that the student takes externally imposed rules as norms to be followed in order not to feel guilty, “e.g. rules against playing truant” (cf. Dörnyei 2011: 24). When a person does something because he or she sees its usefulness and assigns value to this activity, “e.g. learning a language which is necessary to pursue one’s hobbies or interests” (Dörnyei 2011: 24), this can be described as identified regulation. Integrated regulation, is the most self-determined form of EM and refers to behavior that is fully internalized and identified with the individual’s values, needs and identity, “e.g. learning English because proficiency in it is part of an educated cosmopolitan culture one has adopted” (Dörnyei 2011: 24), and thus, apart from intrinsic motivation, represents another example of autonomous motivation (cf. Gagné and Deci 2005: 340).

The concept of SDT has been very influential in psychology and has yielded a great amount of research studies (for a collection of research studies see Deci and Ryan 2002). Thus, components of the theory have been incorporated into L2 motivation research as well. Researchers especially emphasize on the similarities between intrinsic motivation and integrative motivation and between extrinsic motivation and instrumental orientation (cf. Gu 2009: 48).

3.2.2.2 Attribution Theory

Due to its emotive nature, attribution theory became the prevailing model in research on student motivation in the 1980s. Attribution theory is based on the assumption that the causal attributes an individual ascribes to his or her past failures and successes have a significant impact on future behavioral motivation (cf. Weiner 1986). In other words, people try to understand the causal determinants that led to success or failure and consequentially these factors are responsible for future motivation. For example, if a learner does not pass a test and ascribes this failure to his perceived low ability, the chances that he might take the test again are rather low. Yet, if the learner ascribes this failure to his/her e.g. laziness or lack of time to prepare well enough, the chances that he might try the test again are very high. Therefore, attribution theory can be said to be the first approach to include and focus on students' perceptions and emotions in motivation research. With regard to school settings, Graham (1994) identified the following factors students ascribe attributions to most frequently: ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood, family background, and help or hindrance from others (Graham 1994: 46). Furthermore, out of these perceived causes, ability and effort have been identified as the most dominantly perceived causes in western culture (cf. Graham 1994, Dörnyei 2011: 15).

Dörnyei has pointed out that although the significance of attributional processes in L2 learning and motivation has been recognized, only a small amount of research integrating attribution theory has been conducted (cf. Dörnyei 2011: 55).

3.2.3 The Process-Oriented Period

The process-oriented period has been characterized by a strong interest in the dynamic character of motivation and its temporal variation, two aspects that had not been taken into consideration in the past research. Motivation is by no means static in nature but it rather shows fluctuations. Dörnyei has pointed out that even during a single L2 class it is noticeable

that language-learning motivation varies to a great extent (2005: 83). Thus, it has been the various motivational phases of the motivation process that have been at the center of attention.

Needless to say, with regard to L2 learning, this motivation process cannot be ignored. Consequently, in 1998, Dörnyei and Ottó devised a model attempting to represent the process dimension of L2 motivation called the process model of L2 motivation. This model aims at representing a synthesis of different perspectives in research in a unitary framework. It consists of two main dimensions, i.e. action sequence and motivational influences. The former refers to the behavioral process by which hopes, wishes and desires are translated into goals, subsequently into intentions, finally leading to action and accomplishment of the goals; thereafter final evaluation of the process takes places. The latter dimension, motivational influences, concerns the energy sources and motivational forces underlying the behavioral process (cf. Dörnyei 2011: 65). Building on Heckhausen and Kuhl's (1985) Action Control Theory, Dörnyei and Ottó named three main phases of the motivated behavioral process:

- (1) Preactional phase: In the initial stage, motivation needs to be generated. Dörnyei and Ottó refer to this type of motivation as choice motivation for the fact that on the basis of this motivation we select the goals or tasks we will pursue.
- (2) Actional phase: In this phase, after an individual decided to pursue a certain goal, he/she starts to carry out action. Executive motivation, as it has been named, energizes this action and, of course, in order to pursue rather lengthy processes like learning a foreign language, this motivation has to be maintained. This is particularly important for learning in classroom settings, where students can be easily distracted by various impacts such as off-task thoughts, distractions from others, or anxiety about the tasks.
- (3) Postactional phase: After an action has been completed, the learner critically evaluates the learning process and their past experiences. This motivational dimension has been referred to as motivational retrospection. At this stage, the learner forms causal attributions about the outcome of his set of action plans. Thus, these attributional processes will significantly influence all further ambition (cf. Dörnyei 2005: 84, 2011: 65-66).

The benefit of this process-oriented approach is, as Dörnyei highlights, that the various motives that lead people to action can be organized and grouped according to the phase they

are actually related to. Furthermore, diverse motivation theories proposed by scientists can usefully be integrated into the process model of L2 motivation. As opposed to this, Dörnyei has also identified the downsides of his process model. First, he explains that the actional process cannot be as easily divided into clear-cut stages as the model suggests. Second, the actional process does not occur in complete isolation but there may be interferences from other activities the learner is involved in. This thought is particularly relevant with regard to classroom contexts where students' goals and intentions are influenced by academic and social forces (cf. Dörnyei 2005: 86).

3.2.3.1 The L2 Motivational Self System

The L2 Motivational Self System devised by Dörnyei (2005) can be said to represent an entirely different perspective to L2 learning motivation. Dörnyei conceptualized L2 learning motivation within a 'self' framework derived from the field of psychology. He draws on findings from L2 research as well as personality and social psychology. The benefits of conceptualizing L2 motivation in this manner are that the model emphasizes the individual learner's characteristics (cf. MacIntyre et al. 2009: 50). It is Dörnyei's firm conviction that learning a language is a process that has to be distinguished from learning any other subject. "[L]earning a language is linked to the individual's personal 'core', forming an important part of one's identity" (Dörnyei 2009: 9). Gardner (2001) seems to agree with Dörnyei by pointing out the personal conflict, which is linked to the learning of a second or foreign language:

[L]earning another language involves making something foreign a part of one's self. As such, one's conception of the "self" and their willingness to open it up to change, as well as their attitudes toward the other community, or out-groups in general, will influence how well they can make this material part of their behavioral repertoires [...] learning a second language involves taking on the behavioral characteristics of another cultural group of people, and that this has implications for the individual (Gardner 2001: 6).

Before the L2 Motivational Self System will be described in greater detail, it seems worthwhile to provide some information on the underlying concept of Dörnyei's framework. It is based on a concept that refers to an individual's view of him/herself at present and in the future defined as 'possible selves'. This concept was proposed by the motivation theorists Markus and Nurius (1986). They distinguished between three main types of possible selves, (a) ideal selves that we would very much like to become, (b) selves that we could become, and (c) selves we are afraid of becoming (Markus and Nurius 1986: 954). In this context it is important to highlight that possible selves involve tangible images, which means that they are

real for the individual. The claim that is made is that people can actually hear, see and smell a possible self (cf. Dörnyei 2009: 12).

Dörnyei refined Markus & Nurius' notions of possible selves, and based on their previous work, devised the L2 Motivational Self System (2005), which consists of the following three components:

- 1) Ideal L2 Self, “which is the L2-specific facet of one’s ideal self: if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the Ideal L2 Self is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves” (Dörnyei 2005: 106).
- 2) Ought-to L2 Self, “referring to the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e. various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) in order to avoid possible negative outcomes” (Dörnyei 2005: 106).
- 3) L2 Learning Experience, “which concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience” (Dörnyei 2005: 106).

A very interesting fact about Dörnyei’s framework is that it relates to Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model. Both theories represent social psychological approaches to motivation, and both focus on identity and identification (cf. Dörnyei 2009: 29-30). More importantly, the three components of Dörnyei’s system correspond with the elements proposed in Gardner’s motivation construct: ‘Integrativeness’, ‘Instrumentality’, and ‘Attitudes toward the Learning Situation’ (Dörnyei 2009: 30). The common belief is that an individual who wants to learn a second/foreign language imagines his/her ideal self who is able to speak the target language and therefore strives for becoming proficient in the L2/FL. Thus, it can be said that the ‘Ideal L2 Self’ is closely connected to the notion of ‘Integrativeness’ which refers to the “genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer psychologically to the other language community” (Gardner 2001: 7). The ‘Ideal L2 Self’ can therefore be said to be a strong motivator.

As previously mentioned, Dörnyei and Clément (2000) found that Integrativeness does indeed play a key role in L2 motivation (cf. Dörnyei 2009: 30). The ‘Ought-to L2 Self’ is related to the fulfillment of expectations, hence, it is closely linked to extrinsic types of Instrumental Motivation. The third component, L2 learning experience, is perfectly in line with Gardner’s notion of ‘Attitudes toward the Learning Situation’.

Thus, Dörnyei does not contradict the Socio-Educational Model, but simply adapts it to a different context (cf. Dörnyei 2009: 30). He conceptualizes motivation from the self perspective and in so doing strengthens the explanatory power of Gardner's (1985) traditional concept of L2 motivation (cf. Dörnyei et al. 2006: 145).

[I]t can be used to explain the motivational set-up in diverse learning contexts even if they offer little or no contact with L2 speakers (e.g. in typical foreign language learning situations where the L2 is primarily a school language) and it is also suitable for the study of the motivational basis of language globalization, whereby international languages, and Global English in particular, are rapidly losing their national cultural base (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 145).

Dörnyei's construct is one of the most recent in language learning motivation research and certainly needs further investigation (cf. Dörnyei 2005: 107). At the same time, it is a perfect illustration of the shift of focus from rather stable attitudes of groups of people to the individual whose motivation and attitudes can vary and are amenable to change.

3.3 Concluding remarks

At this point, it is crucial to mention that the deliberate selection of motivation theories presented in the previous sections is by no means intended to be comprehensive. The aim was rather to represent some of the most recognized and widely used approaches in second and foreign language learning motivation research. Since motivation has been found to be a crucial factor in second/foreign language learning achievement, an astonishing number of different theories have been proposed. Each theory is valuable as each framework presents its own valid aspects and explanations. However, as motivation is a complex concept depending on a variety of different factors, it seems to be nearly impossible for one model to cover all aspects and facets of L2 motivation. Due to its complex and multifaceted nature, second/foreign language learning motivation will certainly remain an attractive research area.

The model that clearly has dominated the field, Gardner's 'Socio-Educational Model', focuses on factors from the educational and cultural background. Its most important components are 'Integrativeness', 'Instrumentality', and 'Attitudes toward the Learning Situation'. The main claim that is made is that language learning motivation depends on the individual himself. Additionally, it is strongly influenced by social and personal variables (cf. Gardner's Socio-Educational Model 1985, 2001, 2010).

In the 1990s, a shift of paradigms took place. The focus was now on learner autonomy and responsibility. Two theories that were very influential at that time are Ryan & Deci's 'Self-Determination Theory' (1985) and Graham's 'Attribution Theory' (1994). Ryan & Deci introduce the notion of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation. Intrinsically motivated students display a genuine interest and pleasure in performing a task, whereas extrinsically motivated students derive satisfaction from the consequences which performing a task might entail, e.g. a good grade or praise by the teacher. According to Deci and Ryan, this type of motivation can also be internalized. 'Attribution Theory' emphasizes students' perceptions and emotions in (language) learning. Motivation theorists claim that in order to understand the determinants that lead to success or failure, individuals ascribe causal attributes to their past failures and successes. These attributes are of great importance as far as future (motivated) behavior is concerned.

Then, the foci in L2 motivation research were on the dynamic character of motivation. Inspired by this realization, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) devised the process model of L2 motivation. It does not take into account any variables that might have an impact on motivation but represents a framework that tries to grasp the dynamic character of motivation. Most interestingly, the model already anticipates Dörnyei's 'L2 Motivational Self System' as in the first – pre-actional – phase motivation needs to be generated. Although he does not elaborate on the 'generator' of motivation, it seems to be perfectly integrable into his later construct. The third – postactional – phase draws on attribution theory as it is said that the learner reflects and evaluates the learning process and the outcome.

One of the most recent models of second/foreign language learning motivation is Dörnyei's 'L2 Motivational Self System' (2005). Dörnyei places the language learner at the center of his construct and bases his framework on a 'Self-System'. The underlying assumption is that the imagination of possible selves can serve as a powerful motivator and that possible selves thus influence the learning process.

The comparison of different theories in the area of second/foreign language learning motivation serves the purpose of giving an insight into the debates and discussions surrounding L2 motivation research. Additionally, it should demonstrate the paradigm shifts that took place in the past and, of course, the change of focus that is taking place at the moment in the field of L2 learning motivation. Clearly, the focus of this research field has

been put on the language learners and their motivation changing dynamically.

3.4 The relationship between motivation and attitude

Since Gardner's (1985) influential study, it has been evident that attitude and motivation are very closely linked. Various researchers have tried to examine the relationship between the two concepts. The fact that the two concepts frequently have been investigated in isolation from each other has been criticized. Dörnyei (1994) stresses that due to the versatile nature and role of language, "the motivational background of L2 learning involves a unique and necessarily eclectic construct where 'motivational' and 'attitudinal' approaches *should* meet" (Dörnyei 1994b: 519).

Attitude and motivation have served as explanatory variables concerning failure or success in second/foreign language learning. Positive attitudes towards the L2/foreign language and its culture are said to be vital in language learning achievement. However, research studies have also found that language achievement can foster and contribute to the formation of positive attitudes (cf. Morgan 1993). Thus, it seems to be evident that attitude and motivation shape and influence each other (cf. Baker 2006).

Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) first found out that learners' attitudes towards the language and the language learning situation can significantly influence the language learning process. In addition, motivation has been found to be inextricably linked to L2 achievement. The questions remaining in this context seem to be obvious: How exactly is motivation related to learning? Is motivation responsible for successful learning or is it successful learning that promotes motivation? (cf. Lightbown and Spada 2001: 33).

Lightbown and Spada (ibid.) refer to motivation in terms of two aspects: learners' communicative needs and their attitudes towards the second language community. Also, there are various factors that affect motivation, e.g. if a language is learnt because of external pressure only or one language (variety) is more prestigious than the other one (cf. Lightbown and Spada 2001: 33-34).

As a result of their longitudinal study, Gardner and Lambert (1972) concluded that the learner's motivation for the study of language would depend on "his attitudes and readiness to identify and [on] his orientation to the whole process of learning a foreign language" (cf.

Gardner & Lambert 1972: 132). Thus, both attitude and motivation are crucial variables that affect the language learning process.

Also if taken on their own attitude and motivation are highly complex concepts. Thus, trying to define the relationship between the two is a very difficult task. As mentioned before, there is consensus that attitude and motivation are always closely linked, nevertheless, there is discrepancy as to what the relationship between attitude and motivation looks like (cf. Lagabaster 2006: 403).

3.5 Motivated Behavior: Willingness to Communicate

It can be stated that research concerning L2 motivation has predominantly focused on L2 acquisition (Gardner and Lambert 1972, Clément and Kruidenier 1983, Garrett 2010) whereas research on willingness to use and communicate in it and possible variables influencing it have been rather neglected. Willingness to communicate refers to the idea that language learners really *do* communicate in the target language. Thus, the aim of any language course should be to engender willingness to communicate in students (cf. MacIntyre et al. 1998: 547).

It is well established that use of the L2 contributes greatly to successful language acquisition which is of course the primary goal of the language learner. “Motivation and willingness to communicate [can be regarded as the] main causes of the frequency of L2 use [...]” (Hashimoto 2002: 30). Swain (1985, 1998) was the first to explicitly stress the importance of output in L2 learning. Her output hypothesis stated that output is crucial for the acquisition of a foreign language since comprehensible input (cf. Krashen’s Input hypothesis 1985), only fosters listening and reading skills. In addition, various research studies have identified a wide range of variables affecting willingness to communicate (see e.g. Ely 1986, Gardner, Smythe, Clément & Glikman, 1976, Glikman et al. 1982). The focus of these studies is mainly on classroom participation.

Hashimoto (2002) sheds light on the probably most essential variables influencing the frequency of L2 use, which are willingness to communicate, L2 anxiety and perceived competence (cf. Hashimoto 2002: 30). Studies conducted by Gardner et al. found that integrative motivation affects L2 use and, as a result, L2 use contributes to L2 proficiency (cf. Hashimoto 2002: 37). Horwitz (1986) also found out that, apart from attitudes and motivation, language anxiety affects second language learning.

MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1998) devised a pyramid model in order to research willingness to communicate (WTC). Initially, WTC was proposed by McCroskey and Baer (1985) with reference to native language use. However, “it is highly unlikely that WTC in the second language (L2) is a simple manifestation of WTC in the L1” (MacIntyre et al. 1998: 546). Therefore, they extended it to L2 use.

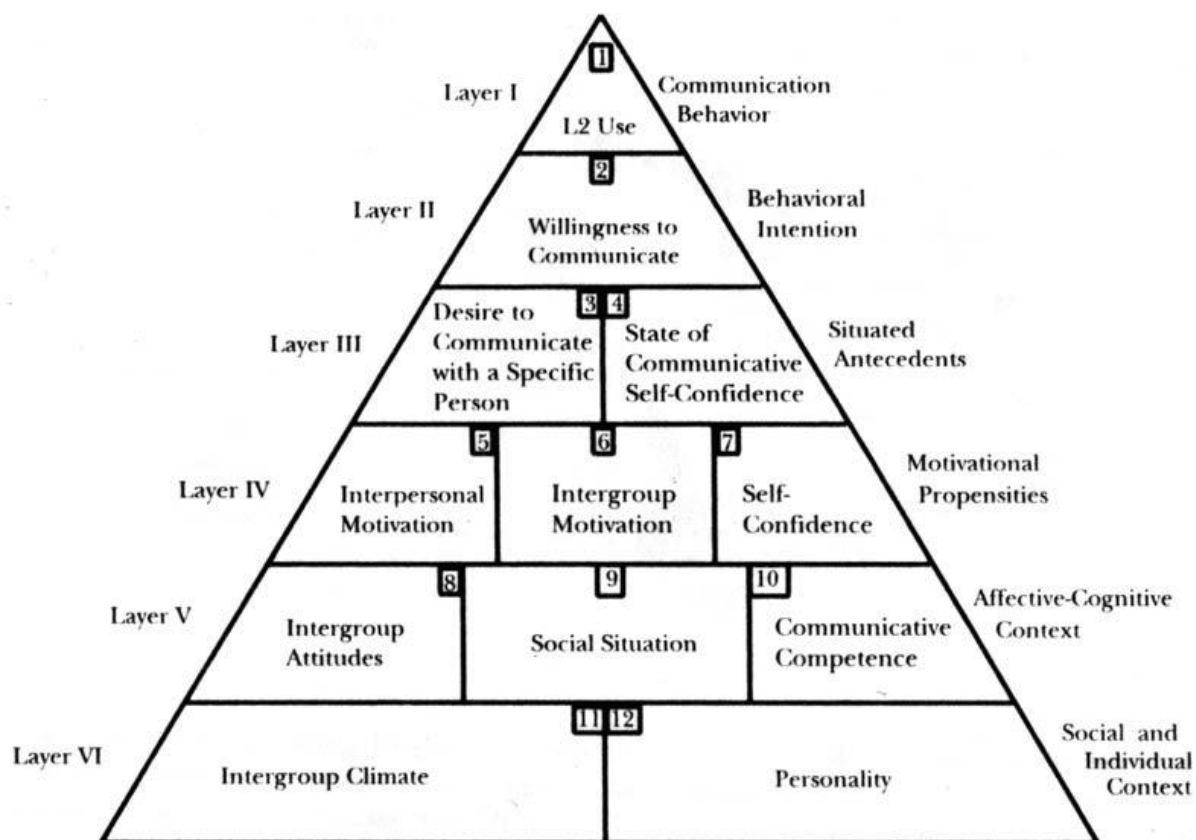


Figure 3. Heuristic model of variables influencing WTC (Macintyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels 1998: 547)

In the model proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998) willingness to communicate (layer II) is presented as the most immediate behavioral intention (Ajzen 1988 quoted in Clément et al. 2003: 191). The social and the individual context (layer VI) are seen as the most remote influence. Intermediate layers refer to situated antecedents (e.g. communicative confidence) (layer III), the motivational propensities related to the group and the interlocutor (layer IV), and the affective-cognitive context (layer V), which comprises intergroup attitudes, aspects of the social situation and communicative competence (Clément et al. 2003: 191). The model devised by MacIntyre et al. (1998) sheds light on the factors that may influence willingness to communicate. However, the number of factors determining the choice to communicate is overwhelming indeed so that one model can hardly grasp the complexity of this phenomenon to its full extent.

Further research has shown that communication anxiety and perceived communication competence (in the WTC model these two factors constitute L2 confidence) are the most effective variables concerning the prediction of willingness to communicate. Thus, a person who feels competent and self-confident is more likely to initiate communication. On the other hand, if a person feels anxious and doubts his or her linguistic competence, it is rather unlikely that he or she will initiate communication (cf. MacIntyre et al. 1998).

Indeed, various researchers claim that anxiety is one of the most effective predictors of performance in a foreign/second language (cf. Cheng & Chang 2004, Hubenthal 2004). Indeed, studies have shown that anxiety negatively correlates with L2/FL performance (cf. Aida 1994, Sparks et al. 1997, Cheng and Chang 2004). Clément et al. highlight that “although actual competence might influence communication, it is the perception of competence that will ultimately determine the choice of whether to communicate” (Clément et al. 2003: 192). Hashimoto’s (2002) investigation of affective variables as predictors of L2 use underlines Clément et al.’s conclusion. She found that less able students would be willing to speak if they perceived themselves as competent, whereas more able students would not (Hashimoto 2002: 57).

To sum up, it can be said that L2 confidence, which consists of communication anxiety and perceived communication competence, is the most powerful variable concerning the prediction of WTC. As has been previously stressed, the personal perception of one’s L2/FL competence has been regarded as the most decisive factor of WTC (cf. Clément et al. 2003: 192).

As to the Austrian context, Schauer (2009) carried out a study on Austrian and Spanish learners’ motivation(s) to use English outside the classroom and to communicate in it. Results show that Austrian learners use the English language more often for communication than their Galician peers. Furthermore, the Austrian participants have more contact with English media. Another finding was that the Galician participants do not use English as often as their Austrian peers in their leisure time. Schauer further on paid special attention to parameters influencing students’ willingness to communicate in the target language: language anxiety and linguistic self-perception (cf. MacIntyre et al. 1998, Hashimoto 2002 quoted in Schauer 2009: 121). She found that Galician learners do not perceive themselves to be linguistically competent and for this reason do not feel comfortable speaking English. Moreover, Galician learners feel more anxious using English and are more afraid of committing errors. As already

mentioned, language anxiety has a negative impact on perceived competence (cf. Hashimoto 2002: 57). Therefore, if a student feels anxious, it is likely that he or she will underestimate his/her ability in the foreign language (cf. MacIntyre, Noels & Clément 1997 quoted in Hashimoto 2002: 37). This lack of perceived competence, in turn, might lead to the avoidance of English use (cf. Schauer 2009: 119-122).

4. The multifunctionality of English

The globalization of the world's economy has been accompanied by an enormous spread of English. As a result, we are evermore surrounded by English. It serves a wide variety of purposes all over the globe with the most important undoubtedly being communication. English is not only used among native speakers and English as a second language speakers, it is also “the most frequently used language of communication in interactions between two Europeans [of different first languages] or a European and another speaker of English – whether a native or non-native speaker – from anywhere in the world” (Berns et al. 2007: 2). The spread of English has led to newly emerged trends and research areas. Indeed, a vast amount of research has been conducted with respect to this phenomenon. Moreover, the omnipresence of English has changed the English learning context in that the English language does no longer symbolize British or American culture only.

This chapter will discuss the role of English in Europe. Moreover, newly emerged ‘Englishes’ like English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and English as an International Language (EIL) will be briefly described. As the usage of new media in language learning constitutes an important part of the study, the emerging of and potential benefits of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) will be included in this chapter. Finally, it will be rounded off by general information about English Language Teaching (ELT) in Austria.

4.1 English in the European Union – functions, use and status

Since the use of a language, contact possibilities and language teaching practices have a significant impact on language attitudes, it is worthwhile to discuss the situation of English (use) in Europe in a sociolinguistic context.

In the European Union, English has become the global lingua franca for cross-cultural communication, trade, tourism, air travel, popular media, sport, science, technology and many other areas in contemporary life (cf. Hoffmann 2000: 5). Viereck (1996) claims that as far as the use of English in Europe is concerned, one can observe a north-south divide. In the

Scandinavian countries and in the Netherlands English has reached the status of a *lingua franca* as opposed to Southern Europe where English is “very much a foreign language” (Viereck 1996: 16). Up to the present day, the situation has not changed much. According to the Eurobarometer (2006), the majority of the population in southern European countries such as Italy (59%), Spain (56%) and Portugal (58%) states that they do not know any foreign languages (cf. European Commission 2006: 8-10). With regard to central Europe, Viereck states that Germany, Switzerland and Austria take a “middle position [as] the knowledge of English is, generally speaking, higher in these countries than in southern Europe, yet not nearly as high as in the north of Europe; it is still largely a foreign language but on its way to attaining a *lingua franca* status” (Viereck 1996: 16). Almost ten years later, it was found that 58% of the Austrian population have substantial knowledge English knowledge. Comparing northern European countries such as e.g. Sweden (89%), Denmark (86%) and the Netherlands (87%) with Austria (cf. European Commission 2006: 12-13), it can be seen that Viereck’s thesis is still valid.

English is the most widely-spoken foreign language all over Europe (cf. European Commission 2006: 12). It is therefore used for cross-cultural contacts and, as one could witness during the last decade, its use is also enormously enhanced by the establishment of various social networks. All of the above mentioned facts and increasing opportunities for communicating in and using English have led to a raised motivation for learning English and reaching a high level of proficiency. While some are of the opinion that this will not change that soon and therefore promote an increased access to its learning and use (e.g. Gnutzmann 1999, Truchot 1997), others regard English as a threat to Europe’s multilingual and multicultural diversity and would like to limit its use and access to learning (e.g. Pennycook 1994, Phillipson 1992 quoted in Berns et al. 2007: 1-3).

4.2 The interrelationship of youth, language and media

Media and English language are very closely connected. The worldwide distribution of Anglo-American popular culture with English as a medium has led to an enormously increased language contact in the lives of European youth. It is a well-known fact that especially young people use a great amount of newer technologies. According to a study conducted by the European Commission, the percentage of 15-25 year olds who use the Internet on a regular basis, use a computer and play video games has more than doubled since

1997 (cf. European Commission 2001 quoted in Berns et al. 2007: 3). Thus, young people are ever more exposed to media products.

Before the changes brought about by the media concerning language learning will be touched upon, it seems necessary to explain why media can have a significant impact on language use and language choice. Therefore, nowadays, language, youth and media are closely interrelated. Media products not only influence young people's personal lives, they can have significant impact on language use and language choice as well: they adapt and favor a particular (style of) language and reject another. "[L]anguage choice and use of young people are nowadays significantly influenced by media products and issues of media contact and use, language and identity" (Berns et al. 2007: 3). Berns et al.'s statement neatly encapsulates the message of this subchapter: there is an interrelationship between language, youth and media which must not be underestimated. As English is the language predominantly present in various kinds of media, the assumption that this presence might be a major factor contributing to young people's positive emotions towards English does not seem far-fetched.

4.4 The role of media in second language learning

Indeed, the Internet has opened up an astounding amount of new ways of communication. It offers e-mails, blogs, forums, chat programs as means of fostering exchanges between language learners and a new channel for tandem learning. Social networks like *MySpace* and *Facebook* have given millions of people the opportunity to communicate and share content about themselves. Moreover, the Internet provides learners with access to authentic material. In the foreign language teaching and learning context, authentic material can be understood as material not designed for teaching purposes, but rather as material "which involve language naturally occurring as communication in native-speaker contexts of use [...]: newspaper reports, [...] magazine articles, [...] cooking recipes [...]" (Kilickaya 2004, <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Kilickaya-AuthenticMaterial.html>). The use of authentic material enables students to experience 'real' language and how it is used within different contexts.

Thus, it is safe to say that new computer and web technologies provide learners with plenty of opportunities for the learning of languages. Little (1998) highlights that media technologies can serve a variety of functions with regard to foreign language learning. They can be used as analytic tools that foster language learning; they can provide language learners with various kinds of input (examples of language use and stimuli for their own target language

production); and as learners are connected with each other and the world, they can serve as output tools (cf. Little 1998: 22). As far as input is concerned, there are some researchers (e.g. MacWilliam 1986, Garza 1991, Meskill 1998, Vanderplank 1999), who support the view that media can be a source of comprehensible input. It is important to note in this context that input only leads to progress in the learning of a language if it is comprehensible (for more information concerning comprehensible input see Swain 1985).

Therefore, it is not surprising that the role of media technologies in language learning has changed. They are no longer used as support to learning, but they have become channels of language use that deserve to be taken seriously. Importantly, new technological developments have contributed a great deal to the reduction of barriers between language learning and language use (cf. Little 1998: 77-79).

The aptness/suitability of the computer for the purpose of language learning was formerly met with skepticism (cf. Ahmad et al. 1985: 120). The question as to the effectiveness of computer-assisted learning (CALL) still cannot be answered adequately. However, research has shown that language learners around the world have positive attitudes towards using computers for language instruction (cf. Ritchie et al. 2009: 549). Moreover, there seems to be agreement among both language teachers and learners that the computer nowadays is a basic necessity of any teaching. It is worthwhile at this point to have a close look at this newly emerged trend in foreign/second language teaching.

CALL can be defined as “any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language” (Beatty 2010: 7). There is a great variety of activities which can be subsumed under the term CALL. It comprises materials design and technologies as well as pedagogical theories and modes of instruction. More often than not, one might encounter commercials which mistakenly promote CALL as a complete method of learning a language. Of course, exercises and activities conducted on the computer cannot replace the traditional method of language learning.

In classrooms, the computer can be used in various ways. It can be used as a reward for better learners, and as a remedial aid for weaker ones. It can be used as a teacher, a reference and research tool and as a text-processing tool. Language labs as well as networked learning through the use of e-mail, blogs and wikis have been integrated into language teaching. It has been stressed that the use of the computer as a tool for language learning or language

improvement and the Internet as a research tool promotes learner autonomy in different ways. The learner can study on his own and independent of teachers. He or she can study in privacy at his or her own pace and speed. The learning process is therefore individualized. The number of homepages which feature online interactive quizzes, crosswords, and other activities has increased enormously. In this context, “[I]nteractive refers to a software program in which the learner has some degree of choice, perhaps only in selecting answers to multiple choice questions” (Beatty 2010: 13) Pervasive access to and use of the Internet has made it easier for learners and teachers to acquire authentic material such as radio broadcast or newspaper articles.

Since CALL is a relatively new phenomenon, there is a lack of sufficient research concerning the testing of hypotheses about SLA in this context. Thus, questions with regard to the effectiveness of CALL still cannot be answered adequately. However, it can be said that CALL plays a significant role in reducing negative affect in the learner. Studies show that the usage of new technologies helps lowering anxiety levels and creates higher interest and higher student participation.

In this context, more explanation on newly developed technologies that can be used in the classroom is necessary. An e-learning platform or ‘Learning Management System’ (LMS) is a software system which can be used to organize learning processes and it enables the provision of learning contents. In adult education or even at university, some courses are partly conducted through online activities and online communication. As far as distance learning is concerned, the computer and the Internet have brought about tremendous advantages. Due to these facts, e-learning seems to enjoy great popularity among students. It is synonymous with flexibility and independence. Each student or course participant is granted access to the LMS and can download the relevant learning contents. He/She has the possibility to organize his/her learning independently from the teacher and at his or her pace and in domestic environment. Therefore, computer-mediated learning and e-learning can be said to foster autonomous learning. What is more, an LMS enables communication between teacher and student and collaboration with their peers (cf. Holmes and Gardner 2006: 26-28).

Instant messaging systems like MSN, Skype and ICQ enjoy great popularity not only among young people. They can be downloaded for free which is, of course, also an important aspect that explains the more than frequent use of these tools. With Skype, computer phone calls can be made and even video conferences can be held (cf. Holmes and Gardner 2006: 21-22).

A blog (a truncated form of ‘web’ and ‘log’) is a journal or diary which is published on a website. A blog often consists of entries with which the blogger writes down his/her thoughts or discusses current events. The blog owner(s) set(s) the theme of the blog discussions. More often than not, other individuals or users are allowed to respond and comment on his/her/their entries. It therefore serves as a medium to exchange experiences, information and thoughts, but can also have a communicative function in that it invites other users to participate. There are a number of blog-hosting sites featuring instruction on how to set up your own blog (e.g. <http://www.blogger.com>) (cf. Holmes and Gardner 2006: 161-162).

4.6 New Englishes and new Trends in English Language Learning: ELF, EIL and CLIL

The newly evolved context in which the learning of English takes place has led to a change concerning the functions of language in performing social roles and the structuring of identities of individuals and the culture of whole communities and societies (cf. Berns et al. 2007: 4). The new paradigm of European English is one example of language acculturation. Ammon has called this “the non-native speakers’ right to linguistic peculiarities” (Ammon 1998, 2000 quoted in Berns et al. 2007: 5).

The recently emerged paradigm English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) has attracted a great deal of research. ELF can be defined as “a ‘contact language’ between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common [...] culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication” (Firth 1996 quoted in Seidlhofer 2007: 138).

English as an international language (EIL), in contrast, refers to the use of English in settings where communication takes place between first as well as second-language English speakers. In Europe English is used in both ways (cf. Berns et al. 2007: 5). As the students who participated in my study often referred to English as an international language when they actually meant “English is a global means of communication”, the two terms will be used synonymously in this context.

As Berns et al. highlight, one decisive characteristic of these uses of English is that the English language tends to no longer be regarded as closely related with the Anglo-American culture, it is, so to say, culturally neutral (cf. Berns et al. 2007: 5).

Taking into consideration the effects of globalization and the potential of English to replace local languages, questions concerning loss of identity and fear of unification are, certainly, of high significance. In this connection, Berns refers to Byram (1996) who most adequately said that “if and when English becomes a European lingua franca it will embody and reflect a pan-

European cultural identity, and be an additional identity, not one which replaces national identity” (Byram 1996 quoted in Berns et al. 2007: 6).

The globalization of the English language has not only led to new Englishes, but also to newly emerging trends concerning English language learning. Due to growing internationalization, there is the need for educational systems to train students to “stand their ground in international contexts” (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 1). One of those trends is Content and Integrated Language Learning (CLIL). It can be defined as a “dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language” (Coyle et al. 2010: 1). In contrast to traditional foreign language classes, CLIL is content-driven meaning that the focus is rather on the content than on the language (ibid.). The aim of CLIL is to increase students’ level of proficiency and of course to foster the development of communicative competence and provide a naturalistic learning environment (cf. Dalton-Puffer 2007: 3).

Due to the general trend to approach EFL teaching in innovative ways, Austrian schools have been implementing CLIL [to a variable extent] over the last 15 years as well (cf. Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann 2010: 61 in Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010). However, the extent to which CLIL takes place is diverse as for one thing it depends on the school type (e.g. primary, secondary, tertiary) and country-specific (e.g. environmental) factors (cf. Wolff 2009: 547-548 in Seidlhofer & Knapp 2009) and for another thing on the willingness of the principal and the teaching staff to really integrate this approach into the curriculum.

4.7 English Language Teaching (ELT) in Austria

In Austria, English as first foreign language is a compulsory subject from lower secondary onwards. Additionally, it is taught as “Verbindliche Übung Lebende Fremdsprache” in most of the fourth forms of elementary school. The increase of the use of English as means of communication has given rise to curricular changes. The main aim of foreign language teaching is to enable the students to communicate effectively in the respective foreign language. Nowadays, special focus is placed on four basic skills: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. For this reason, the four-skills-Matura has been introduced. Furthermore, communicative competence has been made the goal of foreign language teaching. In other words, the development of language skills important for interaction ranks first.

5. The field study

5.1 Research methodology

In language attitude research a variety of different research methods and techniques is used. Usually, one differentiates between three categories of research methods: the direct approach (e.g. questionnaires and interviews), the indirect approach (e.g. matched-guise technique), and the societal treatment approach (e.g. participant observation) (cf. McKenzie 2010: 41-52). As there is a substantial volume of literature on language attitude research methodology there is no need to go into detail (for a detailed account see Dörnyei 2009).

For practical reasons I decided that for the purpose of my study a questionnaire is the most suitable and fruitful research method. The benefits of a questionnaire are not far to seek. A questionnaire is a reliable and efficient method to collect data. Questionnaires are anonymous which means that participants are more likely to answer honestly than e.g. in an interview. Moreover, they are objective and avoid interviewer bias that might have an impact on the consistency and reliability of the results (cf. Dörnyei 2003b: 9)

In addition, a great amount of data can be collected in a (relatively) short time. What is more, questions and statements are usually answered and evaluated by answering scales which can then be codified and statistically analyzed (ibid.). This facilitates the processing of the collected data.

5.2 Aims of the study

Language attitudes and motivation play an important role in second/foreign language learning. Favorable attitudes and a high level of motivation are linked to success in language achievement (cf. chapter 3). For this reason, language teachers should not ignore their students' perception of the target language. In addition, teachers need to be aware of the fact that they can have a major impact on their students' attitudes towards language. Moreover, it is important to be aware of factors that diminish their learning motivation. Ideally, positive attitudes towards the target language increases the chances of students using it outside school as well.

The overall aim of this study is to investigate the attitudes of grade 12/13 students towards the English language. Furthermore, the study should shed light on students' motivation to learn English and to use it outside the classroom. Also, students are surveyed concerning their willingness to communicate in English. Based on Svava's (2009) findings, it should be

revealed which group of students is more instrumental in their attitudes, who is more motivated to learn English and when and where they use it outside the classroom.

However, my aim was to go one step further than Svara and focus more specifically on students' instrumental orientation as well as their perceptions and beliefs concerning English particularly with reference to their professional future. Furthermore, a section comprising questions concerning the usage of media in English language classes was integrated into the questionnaire as well.

As far as willingness to communicate is concerned, various studies (MacIntyre et al. 1998, Hashimoto 2002, Schauer 2009) found that perceived low L2/FL competence is the most inhibiting factor in terms of target language use. The present study seeks to find out students' motivation to communicate in the target language and the factors that reduce their willingness to communicate. The responses of the three student groups are compared. What is more, gender-related differences are investigated as well. It is assumed that girls are more enthusiastic language learners and are more willing to communicate. In order to see whether the above mentioned assumptions can be verified, data of girls and boys will be analyzed and compared.

5.4 The design of the questionnaire

To begin with, I had a look at the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) devised by Gardner & Lambert (1972). The AMTB was, so to speak, my first source of inspiration. The AMTB, as already mentioned, was designed to investigate English-speaking students' motivation and attitudes towards learning French as a second language. Other frequently used questionnaires include *Pupil's Attitudes toward Learning French* Burstall et al., (1974), *Language Learning Orientations* (Clément & Krudenier, 1983), *Attitudes questionnaire for self-access* (Wenden, 1991), *Language Orientation Questionnaire* (Dörnyei & Clément, 2001).

My field of interest should be English language attitudes in relation to the professional future. None of the above mentioned specifically deals with this area, thus, I felt the need to design my own questionnaire. Some of the items used in my questionnaire, however, have been adapted from the AMTB. All questions and items have been written in German as the questionnaire was distributed in high schools and higher vocational schools in Vienna and the

surrounding area and nearly all participants were German native speakers or used it as a second language.

It is generally suggested that a questionnaire that should be completed by the participants within 30 minutes should not consist of more than four to six pages (cf. Dörnyei 2007: 110). My concern that it might take the students too long to fill in the questionnaires could be dispelled after the pilot test.

The title of my questionnaire reads “My thoughts about English related to my professional future”. The first page of the questionnaire comprises general information concerning the motive of the study and the participants are asserted that the data is treated confidentially. Also, students are informed about how to fill in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of five main parts (see Appendix, p. 116) and comprises attitudinal as well as factual questions that serve the purpose to gain information about the current situation of EFL in the participating schools, e.g. introduction of content and language integrated language learning, extra-curricular English language activities, and presence of foreign language assistants.

The five parts my questionnaire consists of shall now be briefly explained. The first part aims at investigating students’ attitudes and beliefs towards English in relation to their professional future. Students are required to state whether they think that English will be important for their professional future and whether and why they believe that high English proficiency will increase their job opportunities. Also, they are asked to give information about which jargons of English (colloquial English, technical vocabulary, etc.) they think they will need the most in their future jobs.

The second part should shed light on whether and how the school imparts the importance of English. Participants are required to state whether English is used in other subjects as well (*Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)*) and whether they think that the number of English lessons is sufficient for a good preparation for the future job. Moreover, the students are asked to give information about extra-curricular activities the school offers in relation to English language teaching, e.g. English Conversation, English Theater, English Bookclub. Moreover, it should be revealed whether the students have the opportunity to work with a native speaker (Fremdsprachenassistent/in). As English is a major subject as “Erste

Lebende Fremdsprache” in most of Austrian higher vocational schools and high schools, it should be assumed that every school places a great value on English language teaching and is endeavored to offer contemporary, efficient, and motivating language training.

This part should reveal students’ perceptions concerning English language classes in the respective schools.

The third part aims at revealing students’ beliefs and emotions as to the English language preparation for their professional future. The participants are required to give information on whether they would feel comfortable in a largely or merely English-speaking job environment and whether they consider themselves able to work in a position where they have to communicate in English to a great extent. Furthermore, students are asked whether they feel well-prepared as regards their professional future. The results of this part will be especially interesting and of great importance for teachers, educators and curricula designers.

The fourth part of my survey deals with the usage of new media in English language classes.

Participants are surveyed concerning the use of different media for the purposes of English language teaching. This part includes questions about the use of the Internet (e.g. for reading English articles or researching online) and different programs for communicative purposes (e.g. blogs, discussion forums, instant messaging programs such as Skype, MSN or ICQ), and e-learning (LMS) programs such as Moodle, Fronter or other programs designed by the respective school itself). Moreover, students should state whether they like using new media within the scope of English language classes and whether they consider it beneficial with regard to their professional future. This part should give information on the usage of new media within the scope of English language classes in Austrian schools and students’ attitudes towards it.

The impartation of media literacy is a general educational objective as explicitly stated in the curricula for both grammar schools and higher vocational schools.

Innovative Technologien der Information und Kommunikation sowie die Massenmedien dringen immer stärker in alle Lebensbereiche vor. Besonders Multimedia sowie die Telekommunikation sind zu Bestimmungsfaktoren für die sich fortentwickelnde Informationsgesellschaft geworden. Im Rahmen des Unterrichts ist diesen Entwicklungen Rechnung zu tragen und das didaktische Potenzial der Informationstechnologien bei gleichzeitiger kritischer rationaler Auseinandersetzung mit deren Wirkungsmechanismen in Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft nutzbar zu machen. [...] Ein kritischer Umgang mit und eine konstruktive Nutzung von Medien sind zu fördern (Lehrplan für AHS, <http://www.bmukk.gv.at/medienpool/11668/11668.pdf>).

It should be assumed that by now new media have been integrated into language teaching to a certain extent. Doubtlessly, new media offer a great variety of language training and communication possibilities. As already mentioned, computer-assisted language learning has proven efficient and popular. This part should reveal in how far new media have been integrated into language teaching in Austrian schools and students' attitudes towards the usage of new media in relation to English language classes. One of my main interests is to find out whether students regard the usage of new media enjoyable. Moreover, I want to investigate how students think about the usage of new media with reference to preparation for their professional future.

The fifth part aims at investigating students' motivation to learn English and to use it outside the classroom context. It includes questions concerning students' desire to learn English and their willingness to communicate in English. As already mentioned, students' motivation and willingness to communicate are influenced by various factors: English course material, teachers, classroom atmosphere, students' personality and their perceived competence as well as their attitudes towards the L2/FL culture and its speakers. Due to this fact, negative responses are probable. Students might not be highly motivated to learn English because they have made bad experiences or they may not like their teacher(s) or their English classes. They may not be willing to communicate with English-speaking people because they feel too shy or they may not perceive themselves to be competent speakers of the foreign language.

The fifth part of my survey will be of special interest for language teachers and educators as it will hopefully shed light on motivating and demotivating factors as well as reasons for (non-) willingness to communicate.

Apart from part II, all parts comprise open-ended as well as closed-ended questions. Additionally, on the last page there are some factual questions concerning sex, age, attended school type, and students' native languages. Finally, students are asked whether they have been to an English-speaking country (school trip), about other languages they can communicate in and where and in which context they use English outside the classroom.

For the closed-ended questions in parts I, II, and III a multi-item Likert (1932) scale is used including four items ranging from *strongly agree*, *partly agree*, *slightly disagree*, to *strongly disagree*. For parts IV and V a multiple-choice item format is used. In my survey a statement has to be completed by ticking off one out of four possible answers. In order to prevent

participants from ticking off the answer in the middle without much consideration, I decided to use an even number of response possibilities (cf. Dörnyei 2003: 36).

In order to give the participants the opportunity to express their opinions concerning a particular topic freely, each part (except part II) contains open-ended questions. This kind of questions enables the researcher to gain a deeper insight into students' thoughts, beliefs and opinions.

5.5 Piloting the survey

After having designed the first draft of the questionnaire, I decided to do a pilot test. The aim of this test was to find out whether the instructions and questions were clear and whether the time limit of 20-30 minutes was enough to fill in the questionnaire. In this context, it was my concern to try out different versions of the questionnaire. Thus, two different versions were distributed to five students of a vocational school for fashion and clothing in Vienna. Two of them were given a questionnaire with four response possibilities and three students received a questionnaire with six response possibilities. The aim of testing two different versions of the questionnaire was to find out which version is the more favorable one. Students should give information on whether the instructions were understandable and whether the items and questions were formulated clearly. Also, they were asked to give feedback on the layout and whether they favor four or six response possibilities. Moreover, it was tested whether 20-30 minutes time would be enough to read through and fill in the questionnaire.

After the students had read through and filled in the questionnaire, they provided the researcher with valuable feedback according to which it was revised. The final version includes four response possibilities and comprises six pages.

5.6 Sample

The study was carried out at two different fashion colleges, two different high schools and a vocational college. In this context, it seems vital to provide information on the educational aims of each school type.

The fashion colleges offer several educational branches including fashion design and clothing, product design, production engineering, and fashion management. The vocational college provides four different educational branches: European studies, industrial environmental management, culture & tourism, and social management.

The schooling in both school types includes five years of professional education ranging from grade 9 to 13 and concludes with the school leaving exam which enables the students to study at university. Due to the professional training students are able to enter into employment immediately after graduation. English is taught as compulsory subject throughout the five years. Additionally, students have the option to choose between French, Italian and Spanish as their second foreign language.

The aim of high schools is to provide their students with general knowledge and prepare them for tertiary education. Usually, there are two different branches, namely *Gymnasium* with the focus on modern languages and *Realgymnasium* where the emphasis is on scientific subjects (e.g. biology, mathematics, chemistry). The schooling covers eight years from grade 5 to grade 12. English is taught as a compulsory subject throughout the eight years. Students attending the *Gymnasium* additionally have Latin and French as foreign languages. Students who opt for the *Realgymnasium* can select Latin or Spanish as third foreign language.

Needless to say, the difference between the two school types is reflected in the contents of the English lessons as well. Whereas in higher vocational school the content of the English lessons is business-oriented and related to the specific areas the students are trained in, English lessons in high schools deal with a broad range of different topics.

The survey was conducted with final-year students only. The total sample number included 177 students aged 17-20. Whereas 133 girls participated in the study, only 40 male respondents took part. Depending on the type of school they attend, the students have been learning English for eight or nine years. 88.4 per cent of the respondents were German native speakers. While 4.6 per cent of the participants did not provide information concerning their native tongue, the remaining 6.9 per cent were among others Bosnian, Serbian, and Polish native speakers. The high school students had 3 weekly English lessons, whereas the vocational school students had 2 lessons per week.

5.7 Procedure

The questionnaires were completed in class and in my presence. After introducing myself, I explained to the students the topic and aim of the study and that their participation was voluntary. Furthermore, I assured them that the questionnaire was anonymous and that the results were treated confidentially. In order to receive valid questionnaires, I encouraged the

students to give honest answers. Students were explained that the questionnaire comprises open-ended and closed-ended questions and how to fill in the different parts of the questionnaire. In case that something remained unclear the students were allowed to ask questions. The majority of the students was very serious about the task and carefully filled in the questionnaire. Both teachers and students expressed their interest in receiving the results of the study. A summary of the main findings will be submitted to all teachers.

5.8 Analyzing the data

To begin with, all questionnaires were reviewed. Those questionnaires that contained several unanswered items were sorted out. In the end, 173 questionnaires were included in the statistical analysis whereby only closed-ended questions were typed in. They will be analyzed in a quantitative manner which requires statistical methods. The open-ended questions cannot be analyzed in a quantitative way as the responses of the students are diverse. Thus, they will be analyzed qualitatively. The responses of the informants will be grouped according to several categories which will be built based on the respondents' answers.

For the statistical analysis the computer program SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used. The responses to the closed-ended questions were given a numerical code. The questions with the response options ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* were transformed into digits one to four. One was given to the most positive answer and four was assigned to the most negative answer. Although the answer options of parts IV and V have a different answer format, they were turned into digits one to four, too. One was given to the most positive answer and four was given to the most negative answer.

After the data was typed into the computer program, descriptive statistics were compiled and frequencies of answers and the mean of every item were calculated. These methods give a general picture of the results of the study. Afterwards, the test method "one-way anova"⁷ was used to check whether there were statistically significant differences between the different school types. The tail probability 'p', indicating the level of significance, was set for $p < 0.05$. Results ranging from 0.01 to 0.05 indicated that there was a highly significant difference concerning the responses. Whenever items showed a statistically significant difference the frequency of the answer options was calculated. In order to find out whether there are gender-specific differences concerning the responses, the test method "t-test for independent

⁷ Information on statistical analysis is obtained from Field 2005.

samples” was used. With each of the five parts of the questionnaire a scale was built and the mean of each scale was calculated. The lower the means the more positive is the response.

6. Results of the closed-ended questions

As my questionnaire comprises five main parts, the following section will be divided into five main parts as well. The results of each part will be described as follows: first, a general summary of the findings will be presented. Second, each part will further be subdivided according to statistically significant differences in school type and gender.

6.1 Part I: students’ attitudes towards English with regard to their professional future

Table 1: mean for part I calculated for each school type

Part I	HS* group (N =62) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	VC* group (N=57) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	FC* group (N=54) Mean \bar{x} (SD)
	2.49 (0.62)	2.44 (0.22)	2.36 (0.26)

*HS=High school, VC=Vocational College, FC=Fashion College

The table shows the mean for part I of the questionnaire, calculated for each school type. According to the results, it can be stated that all students believe in the importance of English with reference to their professional future.

A closer look at the results of each item reveals that a notable majority of the participants firmly believes in the importance of English with regard to their professional future and that high English proficiency increases their job opportunities. A considerable amount of the respondents is convinced that English will be more important than other foreign languages. Also, students confirm the idea that they will definitely need English in their prospective jobs. Although they acknowledge that colloquial English will be useful, they say that technical vocabulary will be of more importance.

6.1.1 Part I - Differences across school types

The table shows that statistically relevant differences are obtained in 3 out of 8 items. One significant difference is found in item 1 “*Studying English is important for my professional future*” ($p=0.04$). Further analysis reveals that fashion college students most strongly agree, whereas high school students agree the least. Among the three groups high school students disagree the most with the statement.

Table 2: Students' responses to Item 1 *"Studying English is important for my professional future"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	74.1%	22.2%	3.7%	0%
VC* students	59.6%	36.8%	3.5%	0%
HS* students	51.6%	40.3%	8.1%	0%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

As far as English proficiency is concerned, all three groups hold the view that excellent English language skills increase their career prospects. One statistically significant difference is found in item 2 *"Excellent knowledge of English immensely increases my career prospects"* ($p=0.01$). As already observed in table 2 above, fashion college students most strongly agree on the statement whereas high school students agree the least. Interestingly, 1.9 per cent of the fashion college students, the group who most strongly agrees are the only ones who strongly oppose the idea of the importance of high English proficiency.

Table 3: Students' responses to Item 2 *"Excellent knowledge of English immensely increases my career prospects"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	83.3%	11.1%	3.7%	1.9%
VC* students	57.9%	36.8%	5.3%	0%
HS* students	48.4%	41.9%	8.1%	0%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

Based on the findings illustrated above it is arguable that the fashion college students seem to be more instrumentally oriented than the high school students (Svara's (2009) study yields the same results).

With regard to students' beliefs concerning the jargon they will need the most in their future jobs, students' opinions are rather stable between the three groups. One significant difference yields item 7 *"I think in my future job I will need technical vocabulary most of all"* ($p=0.03$). Further analysis indicates that 18,6 per cent of the fashion college students disagree with the statement whereas the number of opponents among the other two groups is considerably higher (42.1 and 40.3 per cent). It can be observed that vocational college students' and high school students' opinions are almost one of a kind whereas the views of the fashion college students stand out as strikingly different.

Table 4: Students' responses to Item 7 *"I think in my future job I will need technical vocabulary most of all"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	31.5%	44.4%	16.7%	1.9%
VC* students	19.3%	36.8%	35.1%	7.0%
HS* students	22.6%	37.1%	35.5%	4.8%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

6.1.2 Part I - Differences across sexes

Table 5: Part I - Statistically significant mean differences concerning gender

	Item	Girls (N=140) Mean \bar{X} (SD)	Boys (N=33) Mean \bar{X} (SD)	Sig.
I)5*	I think that foreign languages other than English are going to be more important as regards my professional future.	1.79 (0.72)	1.52 (0.57)	0.02

*1=strongly disagree, 2=slightly disagree, 3=slightly agree, 4=strongly agree
The lower the mean the more they disagree with the statement.

Each part of the questionnaire was analyzed concerning differences across sexes. In the first part, item 5 *"I think that foreign languages other than English are going to be more important as regards my professional future"* ($p=0.02$) yielded a statistically significant difference. Further analysis reveals that more than 80 per cent of the female students disagree with the statement whereby 35.7 per cent strongly disagree (Table 6). Looking at the frequency of chosen answers by the male students, more than 90 per cent do not hold the view that other foreign languages will be of more importance. 51.5 per cent of the male participants strongly disagree with the statement. A very small fraction of the female participants (2.1%) argues that other foreign languages will definitely be more important than English whereas none of the male students opts for the same choice.

Table 6: Female and Male students' responses to item 5 *"I think that foreign languages other than English are going to be more important as regards my professional future"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Females	2.1%	10.7%	51.4%	35.7%
Males	0%	3.0%	45.5%	51.5%

6.2 Part II - students' perceptions about EFL at school

Table 7: Mean for part II calculated for each school type

Part II	HS* group (N =62) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	VC* group (N=57) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	FC* group (N=54) Mean \bar{x} (SD)
	2.55 (0.34)	2.46 (0.46)	2.20 (0.40)

Table 7 represents the mean for part II calculated for each school type. The responses indicate that students' opinions towards their English classes are positive. Nearly all of the students share the view that their schools place emphasis on foreign language teaching. More than half of the students argue that they have enough English lessons to prepare them for their future job. As regards English across the curriculum, only few students declare that English is used in other subjects as well. A considerable number of students state that they learn English with a foreign language assistant whereas only a small part reports that their school offers extra-curricular English language activities.

6.2.1 Part II - Differences across school types

As already mentioned above, nearly all respondents have the impression that foreign language teaching is of (prime) importance in their schools. Although the responses show only slight differences, they are still statistically significant (Table 8).

Table 8: Students' responses to Item 1 *"My school attaches great importance to foreign language teaching"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	33.3%	57.4%	9.3%	0%
VC* students	21.1%	64.9%	10.5%	1.8%
HS* students	37.1%	59.%	3.2%	0%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

Due to its specificity, item II *"In order to prepare us for (possible) future jobs, we deal with work-related topics in our English lessons"* yields highly diverse responses (Table 9). It is not surprising that fashion college and vocational college students agree considerably more with this statement than high school students. 9.7 per cent of the high school students agree only partly with the statement. In this context, it is interesting to observe that there is a significant difference between the two vocational school groups. Nearly 80 per cent of the fashion college students state that their English lessons deal with work-related topics. Among the vocational college students, however, only 54.4 per cent opt for the same answers.

Table 9: Students' responses to Item 2 *"In order to prepare us for (possible) future jobs, we deal with work-related topics in our English lessons"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	37.0%	42.6%	16.7%	3.7%
VC* students	15.8%	38.6%	28.1%	17.5%
HS* students	0%	9.7%	48.4%	41.9%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

In order to continue this subject, students' views concerning whether they are offered practice-related language classes are varied as well (Table 10). Fashion college students agree the most as opposed to high school students who agree the least. 50.9 per cent of the vocational college students argue that their language classes are practice-related whereas only 30.6 per cent of the high school students choose the same category.

Table 10: Students' responses to Item 3 *"I think that my school offers language courses that relate to practice"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	20.4%	53.7%	20.4%	3.7%
VC* students	10.5%	40.4%	36.8%	8.8%
HS* students	1.6%	29.0%	59.7%	8.1%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

As can be seen in table 11, students' responses concerning the perceived importance of English as a subject differ strikingly. High school students disagree the most with the statement whereas the responses of the other two groups indicate that they do perceive other subjects as more important. More than half of the vocational college students and fashion college students argue that the statement can be considered applicable/accurate for their school context.

Table 11: Students' responses to Item 4 *"In my school other subjects are more important than English"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	25.9%	46.3%	24.1%	1.9%
VC* students	17.5%	36.8%	35.1%	7.0%
HS* students	11.3%	32.3%	46.8%	4.8%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

With respect to Content and Integrated Language Learning (CLIL), less than 30 per cent of the participants claim that English is used to teach other subjects as well. Further analysis shows that fashion college students agree the most with the statement (Table 12). In contrast, only a rather small number of high school and vocational school students choose the same answers. It can be noted that nearly half of them strongly disagree with the statement.

Table 12: Students' responses to Item 5 "*In my school English is used to teach other subjects as well*"

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	14.8%	25.9%	42.6%	16.7%
VC* students	8.8%	17.5%	24.6%	49.1%
HS* students	11.3%	8.1%	32.3%	48.4%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

Moreover, students were asked to state their opinions towards CLIL. In this context, it should be pointed out that overall only 48 students (27.7 per cent) stated that English had been used to teach other subjects as well. This means that the remaining 124 students who answered the question concerning the usage of CLIL negatively were excluded from the further analysis of the subsequent item "*I think that I highly benefit from CLIL*". Considering the results of the calculation (Table 13), it can be stated that fashion college students have a more positive opinion towards CLIL than the other two groups. 22.2 per cent of the fashion college students strongly agree with the statement whereas only 6.5 per cent of the high school students choose the same category.

Table 13: Students' responses to Item 5a "*I think that I highly benefit from CLIL*"

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable
FC* students (N=22)	22,2%	14,8%	1,9%	1,9%	59,2%
VC* students (N=14)	12,3%	8,8%	3,5%	0%	75,4%
HS* students (N=12)	6,5%	9,7%	1,6%	1,6%	80,6%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

As to the contact with a native speaker at school, the majority of all students state that they also learn English through contact with a native speaker. Fashion college students agree the most whereas vocational school students agree the least (Table 14). An interesting observation is that the answers of students of the same school are very divergent.

Also, it is surprising that students of the same school both agree and disagree with the statement. A possible explanation for this discrepancy might be that the classes are divided and are taught by different teachers. Furthermore, it might well be that only students who chose English as an additional elective subject have classes with a foreign language assistant. Another reason that could account for divergent answers within the same school is that students have different perceptions concerning the quality of classes held by native speakers.

Table 14: Students' responses to Item 7 *"In my school I have the possibility to study English through contact with a native speaker (foreign language assistant)"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	51.9%	31.5%	11.1%	3.7%
VC* students	26.3%	36.8%	21.1%	14.0%
HS* students	41.9%	30.6%	24.2%	3.2%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

6.3 Part III - students' feelings concerning English with a view to professional preparation

Table 15: mean for part III calculated for each school type

Part III	HS* group (N =52) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	VC* group (N=57) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	FC* group (N=54) Mean \bar{x} (SD)
	2.48 (0.25)	2.51 (0.29)	2.50 (0.24)

Table 15 shows the mean for part III calculated for each group of students. In general, it can be said that the students have positive attitudes towards using English in their future jobs.

More than half of the students feel well prepared for their professional future and the majority of the students feel able to work in a job where they have to communicate in English to a great extent. However, the results also reveal that only few students – if given a choice - would prefer such a job. Also, more than half of the students think that they would need further language training in order to work at a company that has many English-speaking clients and partners respectively. Half of the students argue that they would not feel very comfortable in a merely English-speaking job situation.

6.3.1 Part III - Differences across school types

A statistically relevant difference is obtained in item 5 *"In an exclusively English-speaking job situation I would feel rather uncomfortable"* ($p=0.04$). Further analysis implies that high school students have rather negative emotions towards an exclusively English-speaking job situation (Table 16). Vocational college students and fashion college students feel more positive about this idea whereby the latter group seems to have the most positive attitudes towards it.

Table 16: Students' responses to Item 5 *"In an exclusively English-speaking job situation I would feel rather uncomfortable"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	13.0%	22.2%	38.9%	25.9%
VC* students	17.5%	31.6%	31.6%	19.3%
HS* students	24.2%	29.0%	35.5%	9.7%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

6.3.2 Part III - Differences across sexes

Table 17: Part III - Statistically significant mean differences concerning gender

	Item	Girls (N=140) Mean \bar{X} (SD)	Boys (N=33) Mean \bar{X} (SD)	Sig.
III)5*	In an exclusively English-speaking job situation I would feel rather uncomfortable.	2,39 (0.99)	2,79 (0.93)	0.04

*1=strongly disagree, 2=slightly disagree, 3=slightly agree, 4=strongly agree
The lower the mean the more they disagree with the statement.

As far as male and female students' feelings towards English-speaking job situations are concerned, additional analysis of the data reveals that female students have more favorable attitudes than the male respondents (Table 18). More than half of the females disagree with the statement whereat 20.7 per cent strongly disagree. In contrast, only 6.1 per cent of the males choose the same category. 16.4 per cent of the female participants argue that they would not feel comfortable in an exclusively English-speaking job situation whereas 27.3 per cent of the male participants hold the same view. This can be accounted for by the widely held belief that teenage girls are more mature than their male counterparts and thus have completely different areas of interest. Furthermore, it is a societal stereotype that females have better developed communicative skills than males.

Table 18: Female and Male students' responses to Item 5 *"In an exclusively English-speaking job situation I would feel rather uncomfortable"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Females	16.4%	27.1%	35.7%	20.7%
Males	27.3%	30.3%	36.4%	6.1%

6.4 Part IV - Differences across school types

A statistically relevant difference can be found in item 6 *"With reference to my professional future I think it is very beneficial to use new media in English classes"* ($p=0.04$). As could already be observed before, fashion college students are more instrumentally oriented than the other students (Table 19). Nearly all of them acknowledge the benefit and advantage of the

usage of new media concerning their professional future. High school students do acknowledge the usefulness of the usage of new media, at the same time they disagree the most with the statement.

Table 19: Students' responses to Item 6 *"With reference to my professional future I think it is very beneficial to use new media in English classes"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	48.1%	40.7%	3.7%	7.4%
VC* students	24.6%	43.9%	15.8%	10.5%
HS* students	29.0%	37.1%	24.2%	6.5%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

6.5 Part V - motivation to learn English and willingness to communicate

Table 20: mean for part V calculated for each student group

Part V	HS* group (N=62) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	VC* group (N=57) Mean \bar{x} (SD)	FC* group (N=54) Mean \bar{x} (SD)
	2.04 (0.53)	2.14 (0.64)	1.84 (0.52)

Table 20 shows the mean for the last part of the questionnaire calculated for each student group. The low mean implies that the students generally are motivated to learn English and to use it outside the classroom. According to the results, fashion college students are most highly motivated whereas vocational college students have the lowest motivational level of the three groups.

6.5.1 Part V - Differences across school types

Based on the results in table 21, one can infer that students' attitudes towards learning English are exceedingly positive. A distinct majority of all three groups argues that they would definitely choose English if they were given the choice. It seems essential to point out that out of the three groups not a single participant opts for the most negative response whereby 1.8 per cent of the vocational college students and 3.2 per cent of the high school students claim that they would rather not choose English. None of the fashion college students chooses the same category. 12.3 per cent of the vocational college students and 14.5 per cent of the high school students state that they would choose English more likely than not whereas only 1.9 per cent of the fashion college students are of the same opinion. The fashion college group is the group that expresses the desire to learn English the most.

Table 21: Students' responses to Item 1 *"If I was in first grade again and could choose whether or not to take English classes, I would"* (p=0.05)

	Choose English in any case	Choose English more likely than not	Rather Not Choose English	Definitely Not Choose English
FC* students	96.3%	1.9%	0%	0%
VC* students	86.0%	12.3%	1.8%	0%
HS* students	82.3%	14.5%	3.2%	0%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

As far as students' affect towards English language learning is concerned, it can be said that a considerable share of students likes English more than other subjects whereby the fashion college students amount to the largest share (Table 22). As a matter of fact, 13 per cent of the fashion college students argue that they like English the most whereas only 3.5 per cent and 6.5 per cent of the other two groups opt for the same answer. 9.7 per cent of the high school students argue that they like English the least whereas only 1.9 per cent of the fashion college students express the same opinion.

Table 22: Students' responses to Item 2 *"In comparison to other school subjects I like English"*

	The Most	More Than Other School Subjects	Less Than Other School Subjects	The Least
FC* students	13.0%	61.1%	20.4%	1.9%
VC* students	3.5%	47.4%	38.6%	7.0%
HS* students	6.5%	51.6%	29.0%	9.7%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

As to the fun factor of English language classes, fashion college students enjoy English the most whereby 33.3 per cent only partly agree with the statement (Table 23). Vocational college students disagree the most whereby 35.1 per cent only slightly disagree with the statement. The majority of high school students only partly think that English is fun.

Table 23: Students' responses to Item 6 *"I think English is fun"*

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
FC* students	44.4%	33.3%	18.5%	3.7%
VC* students	33.3%	17.5%	35.1%	12.3%
HS* students	29.0%	40.3%	22.6%	8.1%

*FC=Fashion college students, VC=Vocational college students, HS=High school students

6.5.2 Part V: Differences across gender

Table 24: Part V – Statistically significant mean differences regarding gender

	Item	Girls (N=140) Mean \bar{X} (SD)	Boys (N=33) Mean \bar{X} (SD)	Sig.
V)3*	If English speaking persons were in my near environment, I would ... talk to them.	1.90 (0.80)	2.30 (0.77)	0.01
V)4*	If I had the possibility to watch movies/series in English, I would ... use it.	1.89 (0.88)	2.24 (0.79)	0.03

*1=as often as possible, 2=often, 3=occasionally, 4=never

With respect to female and male students' willingness to communicate with English-speaking persons, the data shows that the female students express more willingness to do so than the male students (Table 24). When looking at the frequency of selected answers by both sexes, more than 70 per cent of the females argue that they would definitely seize the occasion to talk whereat 35.7 per cent claim that they would do so at every possible opportunity (Table 25). Only a small fraction (12.1%) of the males opts for the same choice. 6.1 per cent of the male participants claim that they would certainly not be willing to talk as opposed to their female counterparts among whom only 1.4 per cent choose the same category.

Table 25: Female and Male Students' Responses to Item 3 *"If English-speaking persons were in my near environment, I would talk to them..."*

	As Often As Possible	Often	From Time to Time	Never Talk To Them
Females	35.7%	40.0%	22.9%	1.4%
Males	12.1%	51.5%	30.3%	6.1%

Another statistically relevant difference is obtained in item 4 *"If I had the possibility to watch movies/series in English, I would take advantage of it ..."*. Compared to the male students, the female students would embrace the opportunity to watch movies or series in English more often. 42.9 per cent of the female students claim that they would do so as often as possible whereas only 18.2 per cent of the male respondents opt for the same answer (Table 26). Almost half of the male students (42.4%) argue that they would take advantage of the possibility often as opposed to their female counterparts among whom only 27.9 per cent select the same category.

Table 26: Female and Male Students' Responses to Item 4 *"If I had the possibility to watch movies/series in English, I would take advantage of it..."*

	As Often As Possible	Often	From Time to Time	Never Take Advantage of it
Females	42.9%	27.9%	27.1%	2.1%
Males	18.2%	42.4%	36.4%	3.0%

7. Analysis of open-ended questions

The questionnaire comprises 12 open-ended questions (I_2a, I_7a, I_8a, I_8b, III_6a, IV_1, IV_5a, IV_6a, V_2a, V_3a, V_6a, V_7a). Those questions serve the purpose of gaining a deeper insight into the perceptions and beliefs of young people. The participants are asked to state reasons for their given answers, e.g. item I_2 asks the students whether they think that excellent English skills increases their job prospects; item I_2a is then a sub-question where they should give reasons for their answer.

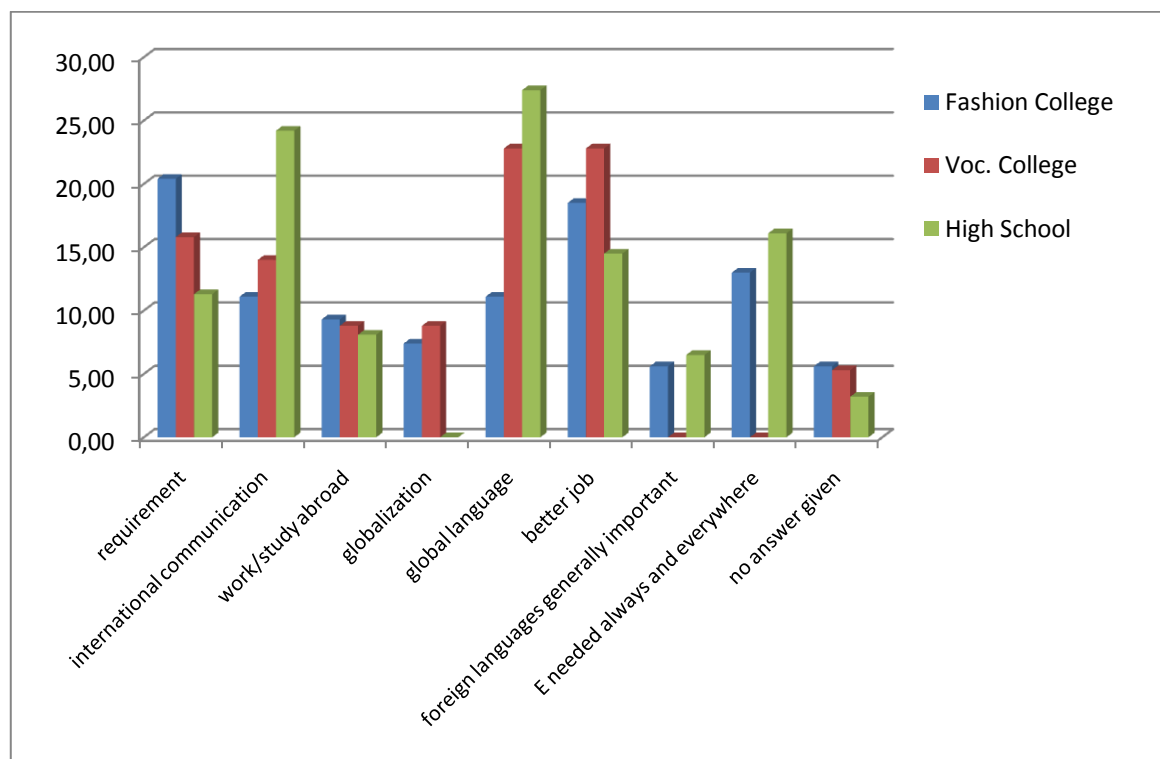
In order to handle the large and divergent amount of responses obtained by the open questions, I decided to do a content analysis. In other words, responses referring to the same subject were summarized into broader categories. Based on this analysis, several answer categories were created, which will be presented graphically.

7.1 Students' instrumental orientations and beliefs about their future with regard to English – positive and negative responses

Figure 1 presents the results of open question 2a *"Why do you think that high English proficiency increases your professional prospects?"*. According to the results, it can definitely be stated that the students are well aware of the unique status of the English language. 62.4 per cent of the respondents are of the opinion that high English proficiency definitely increases one's job prospects. Interestingly, the students adduce a variety of reasons in order to account for this belief. 20.1 per cent state that English is a global language which is necessary and in many cases even a requirement for international communication and cooperation. When looking at figure 1, it can be observed that high school students acknowledge the status of English as an international language the most. 15.6 per cent hold the view that English is a requirement for the exercise of a great number of professional activities whereby the number of fashion college students confirming this point of view is the highest (20.4 per cent). 18.5 per cent of the participants relate their English proficiency to

better job opportunities. In this context, it can be stated that vocational college and fashion college students have a stronger instrumental orientation than high school students. This result tallies with the findings of the post-hoc test illustrated in Table 3 where the two vocational school groups scored higher than the high school group.

Figure 4. Students' responses to Item I_2a "High English proficiency increases my professional prospects"



The following statements were chosen to illustrate the various responses⁸:

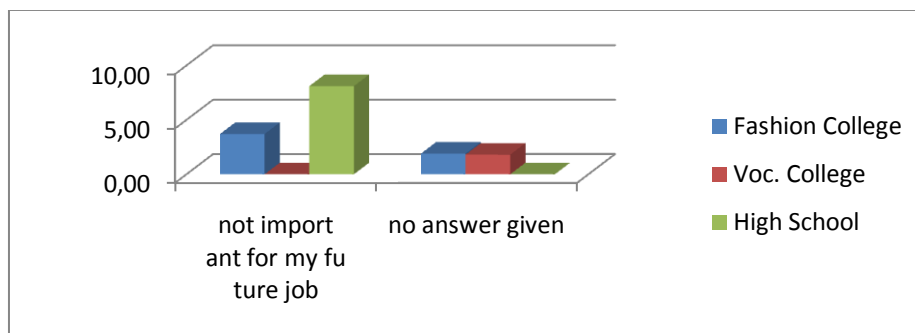
Englisch ist eine internationale Sprache und sie öffnet mir die Tore in andere Länder. Es macht sich im Lebenslauf gut, Englisch fließend sprechen zu können oder schon mal im Ausland studiert/gearbeitet zu haben (female high school student)

Englisch ist die Sprache, die überall gesprochen wird und die fast jeder versteht, daher verbessert es die Jobaussichten (fashion college student)

From the statements above it can be inferred that students are well aware of the status of English as a globally used and spoken language. A large number of students raise the subject of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) signifying that they are sensible of the fact that English is the language most frequently used as a means of communication between speakers of different mother tongues. Therefore, students are profoundly convinced that a high level of English proficiency will prove advantageous to their professional career.

⁸ All excerpts are cited in their uncorrected original form.

Figure 5. Students' responses to Item I_2a *"High English proficiency does not increase my job prospects"*



In order to illustrate the negative responses, the following two items were chosen:

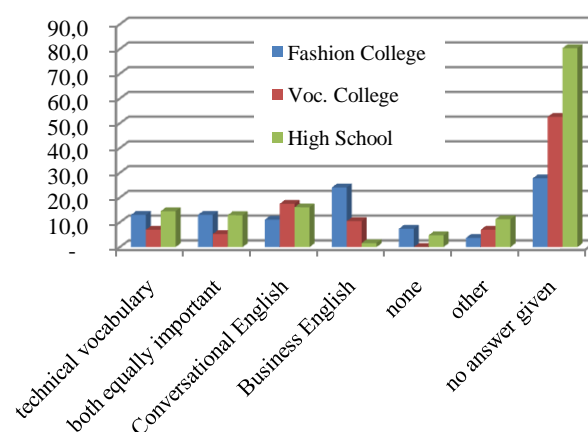
Auch andere Sprachkenntnisse verbessern Jobaussichten, Englisch wird langsam zu alltäglich (high school student)

Englisch ist heutzutage Standard und nichts besonderes mit dem man sich von der Masse abhebt (vocational college student)

Those two responses are not represented in the table above for the simple reason that only two out of the 173 participants answered in this manner. Nevertheless, the author regards it as particularly interesting that – although only to a very small extent – some students think that the importance of English is already overstated.

Further analysis of the data reveals that students who respond negatively to this item generally have concrete perceptions of their future profession and thus know or believe that excellent English language skills will not be relevant for their professional future. This issue will be elaborated on in greater detail in the description of the responses to item I_8/I_8a.

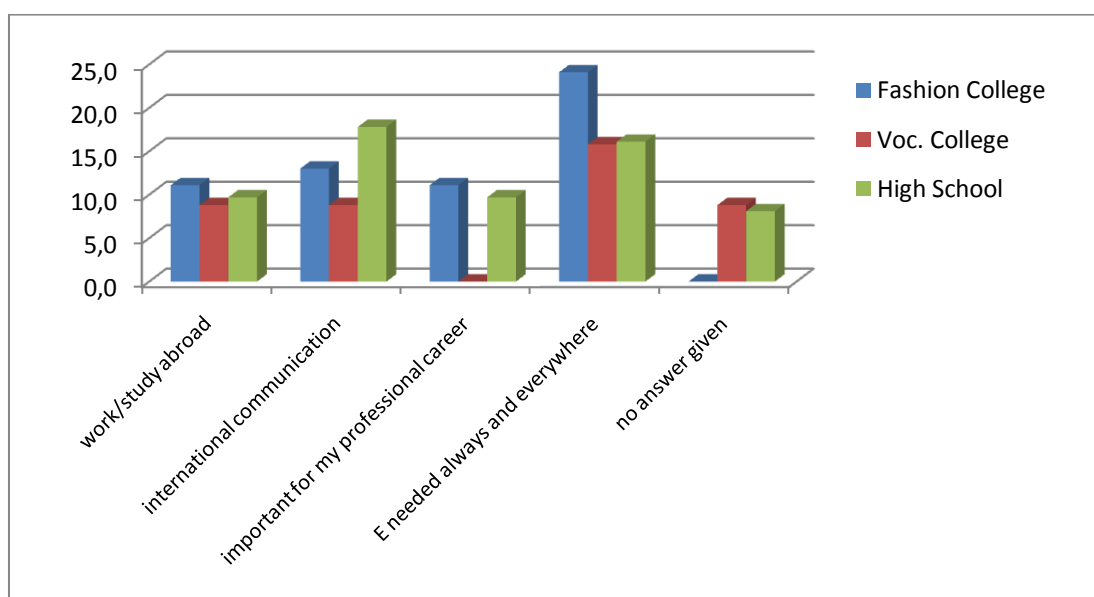
Figure 6. Students' responses to Item I_7a *"In your opinion, which jargons of English will you need in your future job?"*



In accordance with items I_6 *I think that I will need conversational English to a great extent in my future job* and I_7 *I think that I will primarily need technical vocabulary in my future*

job, the questionnaire comprises a supplementary open question asking the participants which register of English they will need in addition to technical vocabulary and conversational English. Although the earlier two items (I_6 and I_7) already encompass the issue of the need of conversational English and technical vocabulary, a considerable number of students refer to those kinds of formal register anew. When looking at figure 6 one can observe that the two most frequently given responses are conversational English and Business English. While there is a rather clear agreement between the three groups concerning the potential demand of conversational English, the situation is different with reference to Business English. 24.1 percent of the fashion college students choose Business English to be the most relevant jargon whereas only 10.5 per cent of the vocational college students and 1.6 per cent of the high school students opt for the same answer. Taking into consideration the distinct curricula and educational responsibilities of the two general school types, it is not surprising that only a very small fraction of the high school students opts for Business English as relevant for their professional future. What is further noticeable is that a number of students explicitly state that both kinds of formal register, conversational English and Business English, will be equally important in their future jobs. This implies that students are aware of the significance of communicative competence. They are conscious of the fact that technical vocabulary alone might not be sufficient for successful communication and cooperation.

Figure 7. Students' responses to Item I_8a *"I think that I will need English to a great extent in my future job"*



In jedem erfolgreichen, internationalen Unternehmen wird zum Teil Englisch gesprochen/verwendet“ (vocational college student)

As far as the positive responses to item I_8a *I think that I will need English to a great extent in my future job* are concerned, a considerable number of students (13.3%) repeatedly refers to the status of English as an international language and as a lingua franca. Thus, students consider English essential for worldwide communication and cooperation. The following responses should serve as an illustration:

Da Englisch im Ausland, in dem man nicht der Landessprache mächtig ist, als Erstes verwendet wird (high school student)

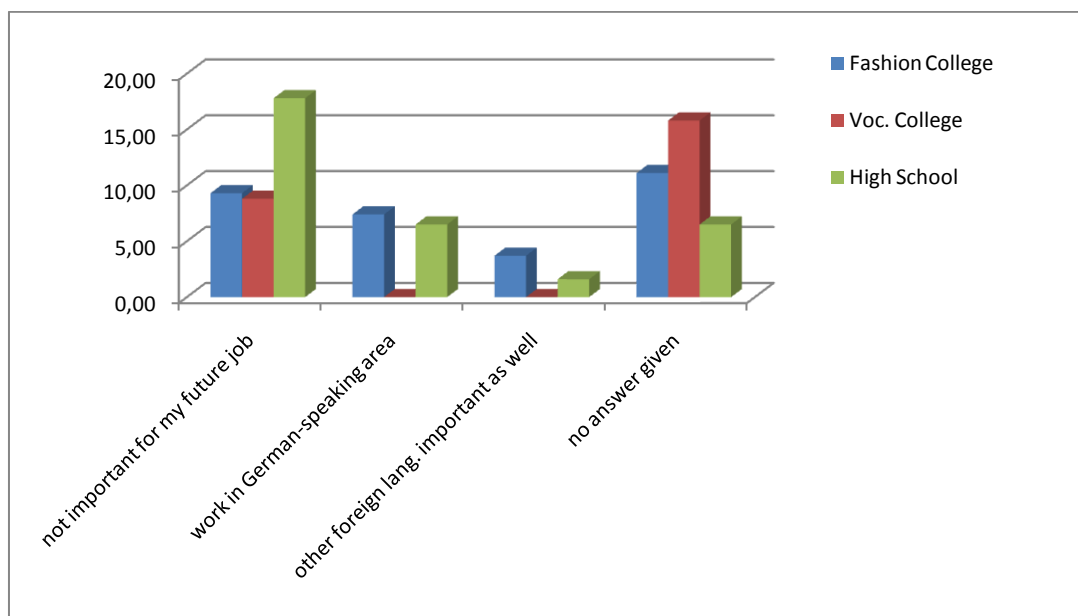
Sobald ich durch meinen Beruf ins Ausland geschickt werde, muss ich mich auch dort verständigen können (fashion college student)

Moreover, 18.5 per cent of the students are of the firm conviction that nowadays English will be needed in any case and regardless of one's occupation, which can be observed in the following statement:

Ich glaube dass künftig Englisch noch weiter verbreitet sein wird und es daher womöglich kaum Berufe gibt/geben wird in denen man kein Englisch braucht (fashion college student)

Reconfirming the commonly held view of the students, it can be said that the majority of the respondents acknowledge the status of English as a global language and its importance in today's interconnected world.

Figure 8. Students' responses to Item I_8a "I think that I will need English only sparsely in my future job"



With reference to the negative responses, 12.1 per cent of the respondents reasoned that English will not be relevant for their future job because of various reasons. In this respect, respondents often had concrete perceptions concerning their future job as illustrated in the following statements:

Als Buchhalterin in Ö[sterreich] ist Englisch nicht allzu wichtig
(vocational college student)

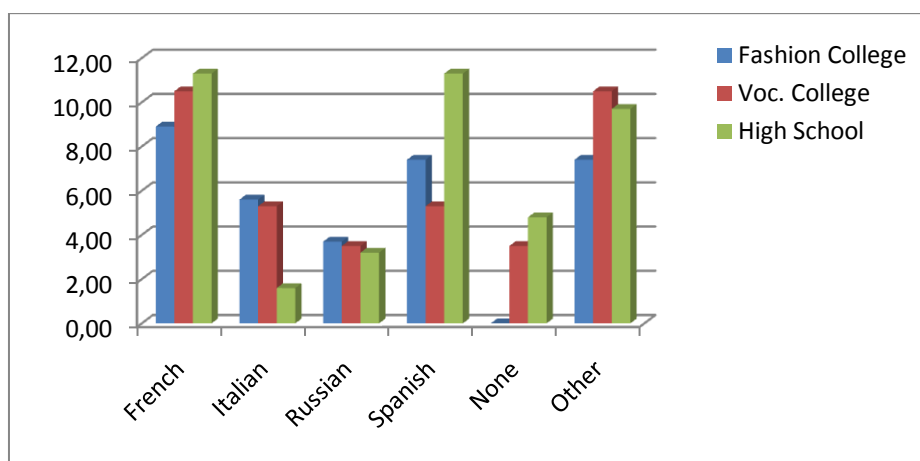
Ich will Mathematiklehrer werden (high school student)

Further on, nearly 5 per cent of the students claim that they wish to seek employment in the German-speaking area whereas a very small group of the respondents stresses that the knowledge of other foreign languages is crucial as well.

Englisch ist, denke ich, zur Zeit die wichtigste Fremdsprache, aber in Zukunft wird sicher auch Chinesisch, Russisch, etc. auch wichtig werden (Wirtschaftswachstum) (vocational college student)

The statement above perfectly demonstrates that some students (although only a very small fraction, admittedly) are distinctly aware of the rising importance of languages like e.g. Chinese and Russian which might soon engage in competition with the English language. The bar chart below presents the languages students consider relevant for their future jobs.

Figure 9. Students' responses to Item I_8b *"In your opinion, which languages apart from English will be relevant for your future job?"*



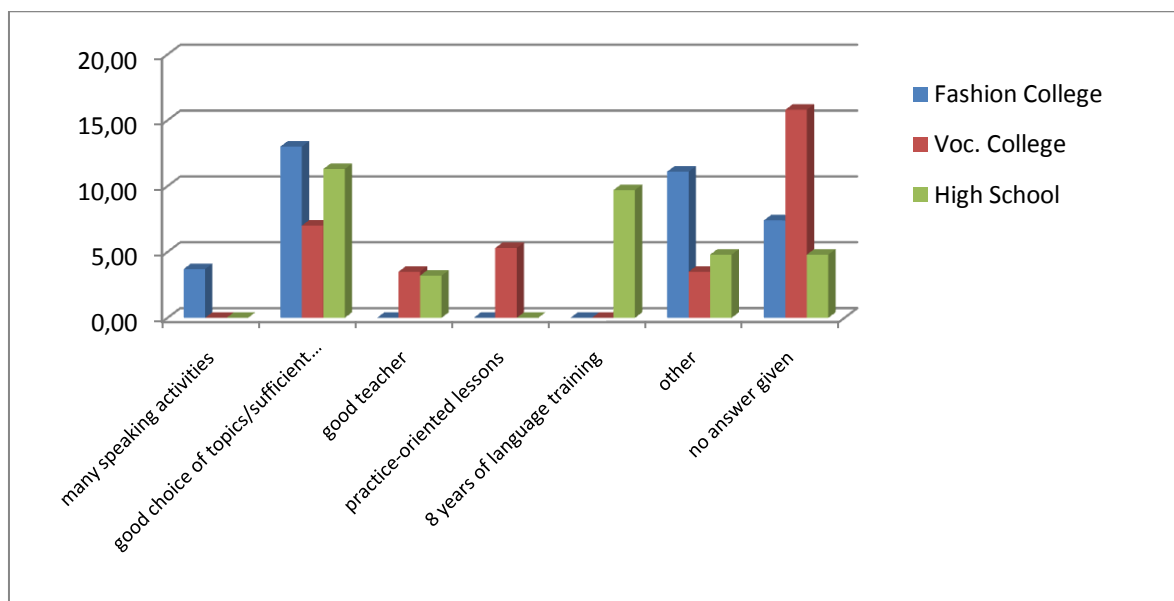
Dörnyei et al. (2006) remark that growing globalization and economic interdependence (?) lead to greater competition between languages (cf. Dörnyei et al. 2006: 6-7). Therefore, I thought it might be highly interesting to ask young people about their perceptions concerning the usefulness of foreign language skills. The students should state which languages apart from English might be relevant for their professional career. This information might be valuable for curricula designers as well. Interestingly, the most frequently mentioned languages are French (9.8 %) and Spanish (8.1%), followed by Italian (4.1%) and Russian (3.5%). Other responses include e.g. Japanese, Arabic, Chinese and Latin and a few other languages. 2.9 per cent of the respondents explicitly stated that apart from English no other language will be relevant for their future professional life. The choice of French and Spanish

as the languages that will be essential except for English might be explained by the simple fact that French is a compulsory subject as second foreign language in many Austrian secondary schools; Spanish has already been embedded either as elective subject in some Austrian secondary schools as well. From an (economic and) occupational perspective, the perceived importance of French for fashion college students can be accounted for by the fact that Paris is one of the centers of the fashion industry. Furthermore, French is the official language of international organizations (e.g. African Union, European Union). Moreover, it is one of the official languages of the United Nations Organisation (UNO). As far as Spanish is concerned, it is one of the most spoken languages in the world and as widely spread as English. Russian is the fourth most common chosen language which might be explained by the eastward expansion of the European Union and increasing trade with the Eastern states.

7.2 Students' feelings concerning English language preparation – positive and negative responses

A good half of the respondents claim that they feel rather well prepared by the English language training they receive at school whereby 6.4 per cent state that they definitely feel well prepared for their future job. The students give various reasons for the chosen answer categories.

Figure 10. Students' responses to Item III_6a *"I feel well prepared for my professional future"*



The analysis of the responses reveals that the majority of all three groups relate adequate preparation with a sound choice of topics relevant to their future life and profession and the teaching of a wide variety of vocabulary.

Viele Themen gelernt/durchgemacht, die man später brauchen kann
(high school student)

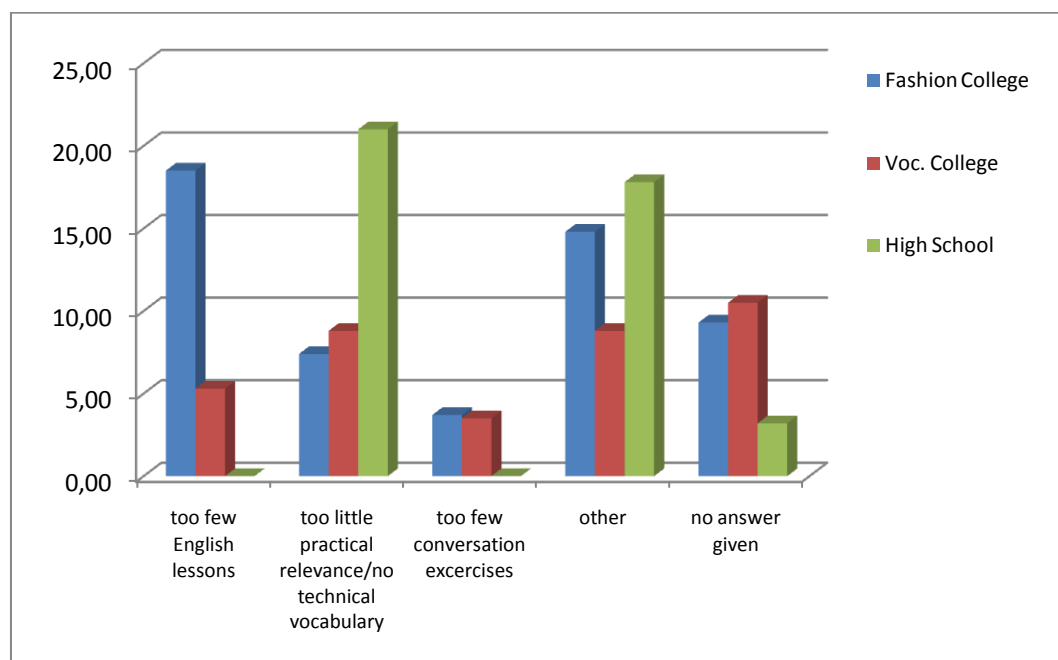
Wir üben viel im Englischunterricht – Präsentationen, 3-Min. Talk über
soziale Themen, Human Rights,... (vocational college student)

The reason for this result seems to be evident as topics that seem meaningful to students and the dealing with various kinds of vocabulary can be seen as an important part of vocational education and preparation. When looking at figure 10 one will notice that one answer category stands out strikingly. Whereas numerous high school students link good preparation to the respective length of language training, nobody from the other two groups shares the same conviction. The following statement illustrates the various responses:

Ich lerne seit 8 Jahren Englisch bei zwei guten Lehrern und glaube,
dass ich relativ gut vorbereitet bin (high school student)

A possible explanation for this might be that students attend high school throughout eight years as opposed to the vocational students who start higher vocational school at the age of 14 respectively 15 and graduate at the age of 18 respectively 19. Of course, students receive language training in the lower secondary as well, however, it might seem plausible that the feeling of ‘unitary’ education (they might have the same teacher throughout their school career) for 8 years strengthens the feeling of good preparation.

Figure 11. Students’ responses to Item III_6a “I do not feel well prepared for my professional future”



Barely half of the respondents voice doubts as regards adequate preparation for their professional future. Their responses shed light on the reasons why they do not perceive their English lessons as good preparation for their future (Figure 11).

Unsurprisingly, fashion college students and vocational college students criticize the number of English lessons at school. Language classes at higher vocational schools are more often than not restricted to two hours per week whereas at high schools students receive not less than three hours of language training per week, in some instances the number of language classes has even been increased to four hours per week. What is more, both groups express their discontent with the number of opportunities to practice talking in the target language.

The two statements below illustrate the various responses:

Ich denke, wir haben schon einen guten Unterricht, aber zu wenig Stunden meiner Meinung nach (fashion college student)

Es wird leider zu wenig gesprochen ... (fashion college student)

High school students, on the other hand, offer criticism regarding the choice of topics dealt with in English classes. A considerable number of students state that the content of English classes is of little practical relevance and that they learn only a small amount of technical vocabulary. This comes as no real surprise as the educational aim of high schools is to provide general knowledge and enable students to take up academic studies. The students report:

Eher nein, da unser derzeitiger E-Unterricht uns nur auf die Matura vorbereitet und wenig berufsbezogenes Englisch gelehrt wird (high school student)

Wir lernen zwar Basisvokabular, jedoch keine Fachbegriffe, die ich mir dann noch aneignen müsste (high school student)

One student explicitly explained that he does not quite believe that language training at school might be successful at all:

Ich bin der Meinung, dass man eine Sprache nur lernt, wenn man eine Zeit lang in dem Land lebt, wo diese Sprache gesprochen wird, Sprachunterricht in Schulen ist trocken, zu wenig Praxis (high school student)

In this context, few students address various further factors that cause dissatisfaction:

Weil der Englischunterricht nur unnötige Themen behandelt und allgemein schlecht ist (high school student)

Unser Englischunterricht ist überhaupt nicht ansprechend, eher demotivierend, lässt uns kaum kreative Möglichkeiten und die Fachprofessorin ist alles andere als kompetent, was den ganzen Unterricht zur Lachnummer macht (high school student)

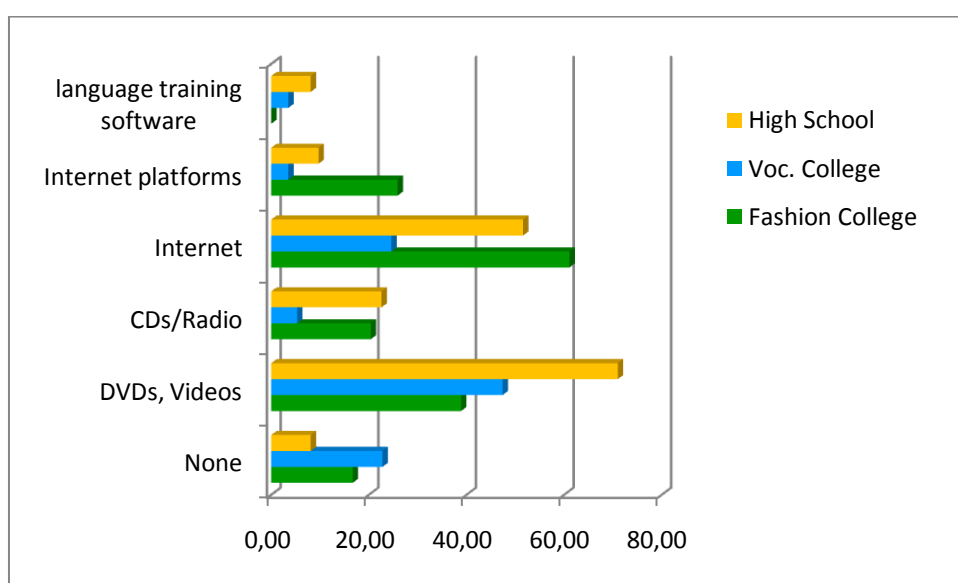
Furthermore, some students stress that they have been acquiring English rather through

various media such as books and movies and visits abroad than at school.

Overall, it can be said that there is a great variety of reasons why students do not have the impression that they are well prepared for their professional future. Fashion college students most frequently criticized the small number of English lessons while high school students level criticism at the almost non-existent practical orientation of their language classes.

7.3 Students' opinions towards the usage of new media in EFL

Figure 12. Students' responses to Item IV_1 "What new media (e.g. Internet, Internet platforms, language training software, Videos) do you use in English classes?"



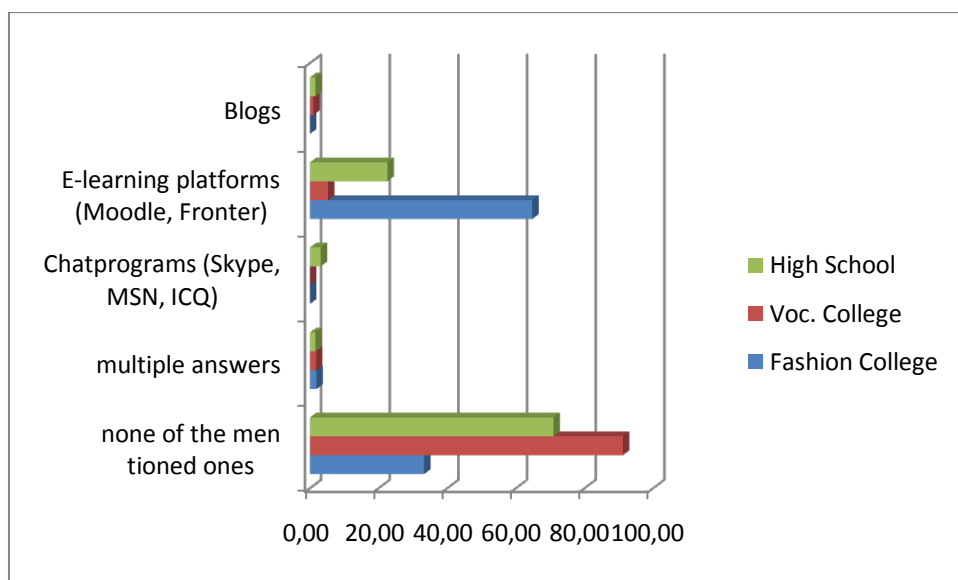
The investigation of which kinds of new media are used within the framework of EFL at school provides insight into the extent to which new media have been integrated into EFL at the respective Austrian schools. Aside from that, students are asked whether they enjoy the usage of new media and whether they regard it as beneficial for their professional lives.

The potential benefits of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) have already been discussed in section 4.5. Moreover, it has been mentioned that the incorporation of various kinds of media might have a positive (as well as negative) influence on teaching and it can be considered an important part of vocational training and preparation. The analysis of the responses shows that DVDs and videos and the World Wide Web are used the most. Numerous students state that they use Internet platforms (e.g. Moodle, Fronter) for communication with their peers and teachers and discussions whereby the number of fashion

college students is the largest. CDs and radio were the most widely used kinds of media in foreign language classes. However, according to the figures the situation has already changed as the Internet provides a great variety of authentic material for all needs. The data also reveals that language training software is used the least. A possible explanation for this might be that language training programs are still not that present and not that widely known. Furthermore, special software needs to be purchased and thus entails financial expenses. Another reason for the still small distribution of language training software may be that the older generation of teachers might feel inhibited using newer technologies.

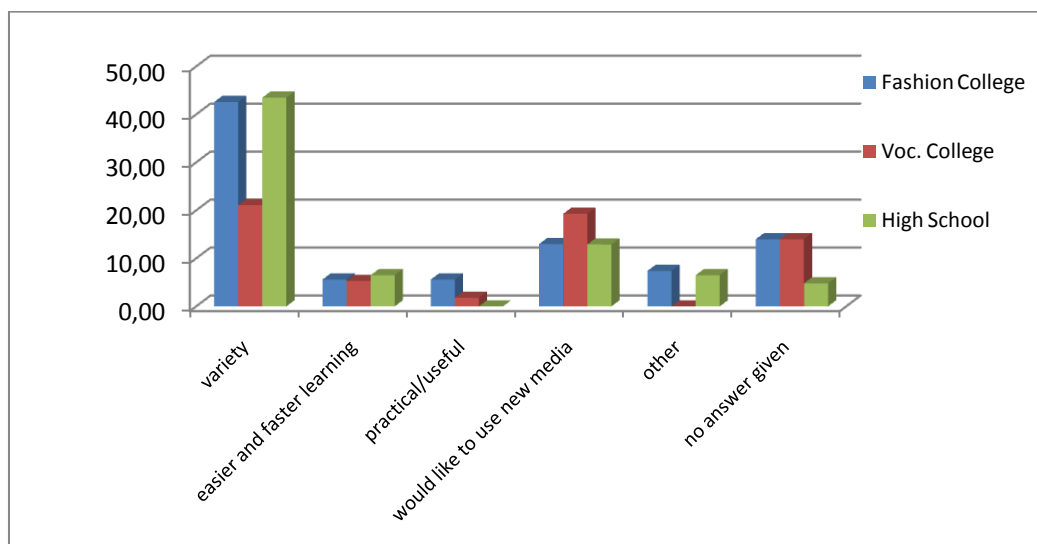
Although item IV_I already asks the students about the usage of media in EFL, I decided to add a further, more specific question, namely to which extent the above mentioned kinds of media have been incorporated into EFL at the respective schools. The results are illustrated in figure 13 below.

Figure 13. Students' responses to Item IV_4 *"We use the above mentioned kinds of media to communicate with each other and for discussions"*



As can be seen, apart from E-learning systems, none of the other kinds of media are used to a large extent at the respective schools. The reasons for this might be that those kinds of media are still relatively new and, as previously mentioned, some people might still have inhibitions or reservations against incorporating new media into ELT as they may not regard computers as a useful tool for language teaching.

Figure 14. Students' responses to Item IV_5a "I enjoy using various kinds of media within the scope of English classes"



More than half of the respondents state that they find the usage of new media within their English classes enjoyable. 35.8 per cent of the students have positive attitudes towards the usage of new media for the simple reason that it gives variety to the language lessons. Moreover, in their opinion, computer-assisted classes foster easier and faster learning and are regarded as highly practical and useful with regards to their future life. Figure 14 comprises an additional answer option for the numerous students who report that they do not use new media, but would appreciate it. Indeed, this can be seen as an indicator of the popularity of new media with the students.

The data reveals that students attach great value to challenging lessons and variation in teaching methods. Numerous students explicitly point out the following:

Abwechslungsreicher Unterricht ist wichtig! (fashion college student)

Aside from that, it can be said that nowadays students are already well acquainted with newer technology and therefore appreciate the blending of leisure activities and educational tasks. One high school student expresses:

Macht Spaß Schule (bzw. Englisch) mit Freizeitbeschäftigung
(Internet) zu vermitteln (high school student)

One high school student addresses the benefits of the Internet as regards language contact and the familiarization with different linguistic styles.

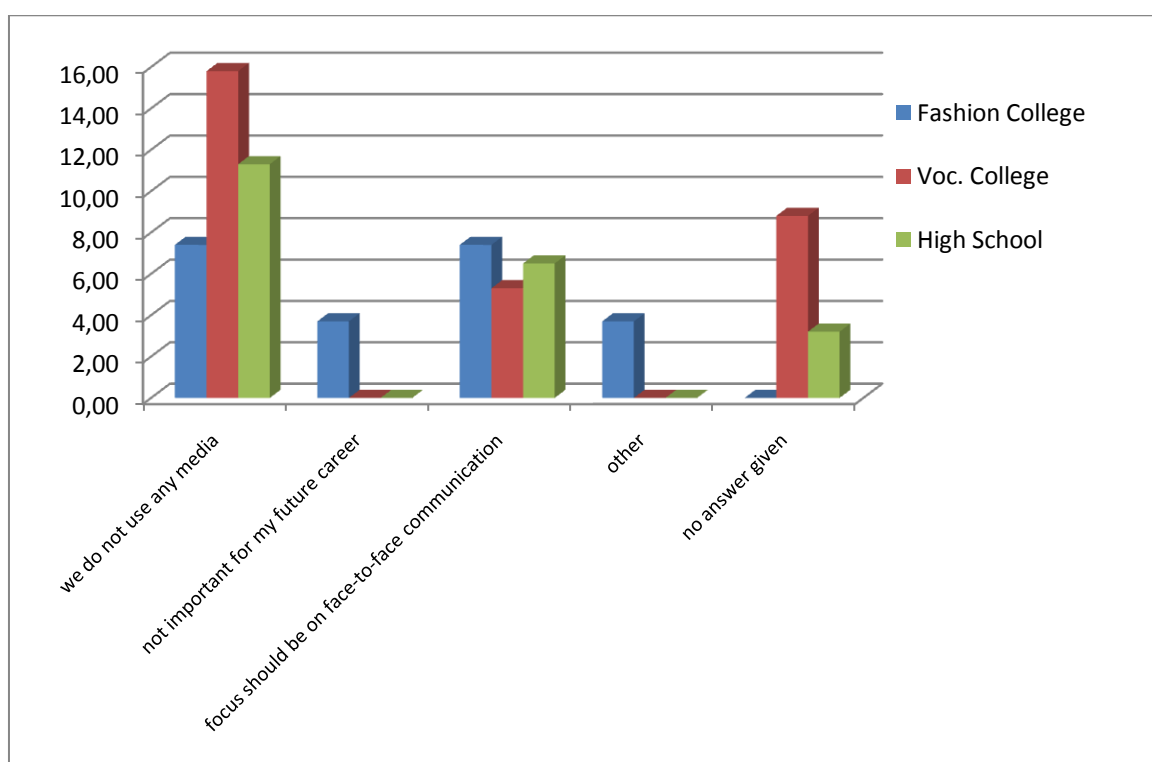
Man kriegt Eindrücke in verschiedenste Sprachformen (fashion college student)

In addition, one student points to our technologized everyday life and the relevance of the media and to the advantages their incorporation into teaching brings for young students.

Der Umgang mit Medien ist heutzutage unverzichtbar, wenn wir es in der Schule lernen haben wir viele Vorteile gegenüber denen, die das Angebot nicht haben (fashion college student)

This indicates that students are well aware of the significance of the media and the role they play in today's world. Furthermore, many students regard the usage of new media highly useful particularly with respect to their professional life.

Figure 15. Students' responses to Item IV_5a "I do not enjoy using various kinds of media within the scope of English classes"



As far as negative responses are concerned, 20.2 per cent of the respondents have negative attitudes towards the usage of new media. 5.2 per cent of the students oppose the incorporation of new media due to the fact that they feel that the emphasis should be put on spoken communication. The following two statements demonstrate the numerous responses:

Medien sollten das Sprechen nicht ersetzen! (fashion college student)

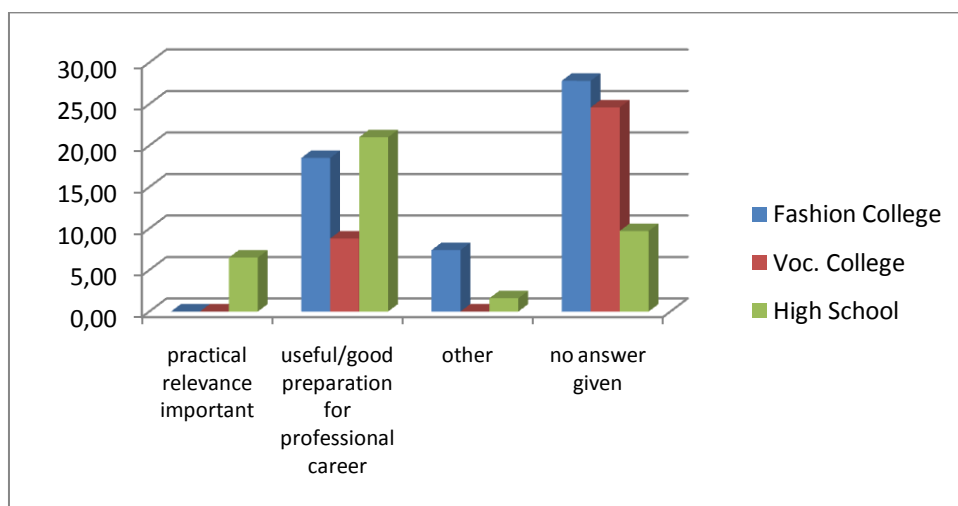
Weil Sprache auch mündlich praktiziert und geübt werden muss
(vocational college student)

In this context, a high school student expresses his general discontent with having to work with the computer to a large extent:

Als heutiger Schüler wird man durch die Schule praktisch gezwungen, stundenlang vor dem Computer zu sitzen, das ist ungesund und [man] verdummt (high school student)

3.7 per cent of the fashion college students explain their answer by highlighting that media will not play an important role in their professional future. Fashion college students are specifically trained for an employment in the fashion and clothing industry; taking this into consideration it seems perfectly plausible that they rather not like heavy use of various kinds of media.

Figure 16 . Students' responses to Item IV_6a "With regard to my professional future I think that the use of new media in English classes is beneficial"

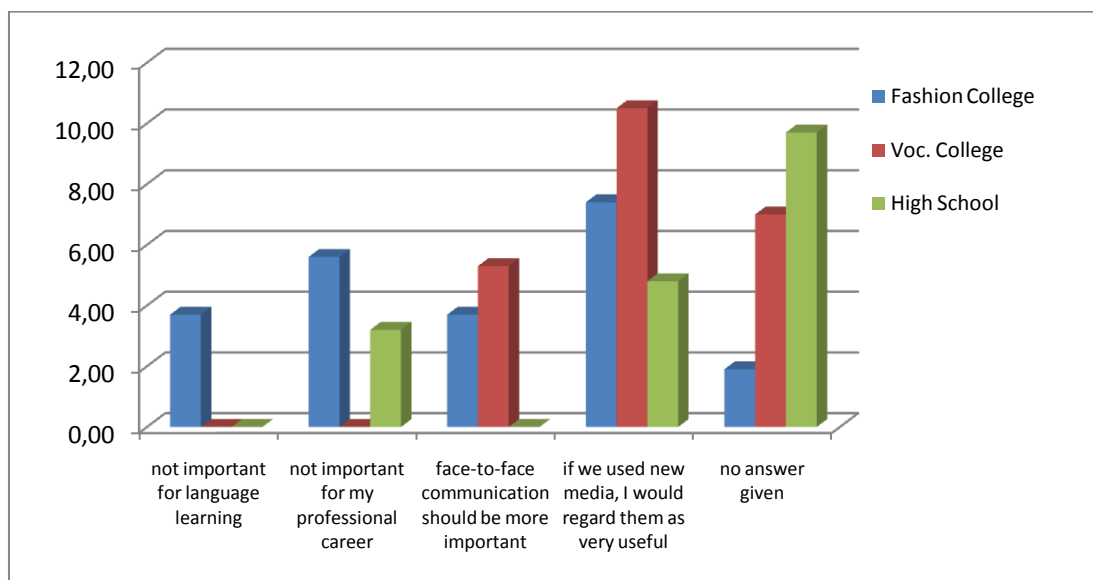


The vast majority of the respondents consider the use of new media beneficial as regards their professional future. 6.5 per cent of the high school students appreciate practical relevance and are therefore in favor of the incorporation of new media. 16.2 per cent of the respondents appreciate the use of new media because they regard it as highly useful and a good preparation for their professional future. Interestingly, they have fairly concrete ideas why new media might be of significance in their future job:

weil sie [Neue Medien] auch in Unternehmen immer mehr verwendet werden (fashion college student)

Die Welt ist global vernetzt, Kunden/Partner sind oft im Ausland und können meist nur durch neue Medien erreicht werden (vocational college student)

Figure 17. Students' responses to Item IV_6a "With regard to my professional future I do not think that the use of new media in English classes is beneficial"



While the majority of the three student groups confirm the usefulness of the use of new media, a small part of the participants does not view the integration of new media as beneficial. As can be seen in figure 17 the reasons for this opinion are various. The majority of nearly all three student groups (high school students are the lowest share) explicitly state that they would regard the usage of new media as useful if they used them. Therefore, figure 17 comprises an additional category referring to this answer. As could already be observed in figure 15 illustrating the responses to the previous item, numerous students (2.9 %) view the usage of media as unnecessary because in language teaching the focus should be on spoken communication. 5.6 per cent of the fashion college students and 3.2 per cent of the high school students express their disbelief in the relevance of new media for their future job. They state:

Ich denke, es wird eher wichtiger sein, zu kommunizieren, also [sich] verbal [ausdrücken zu können] als in einem Chat mit seinen zukünftigen Geschäftspartnern zu schreiben (high school student)

Moreover, some fashion college students claim that the application of new media is not important for language learning. None of the other two student groups shares their view.

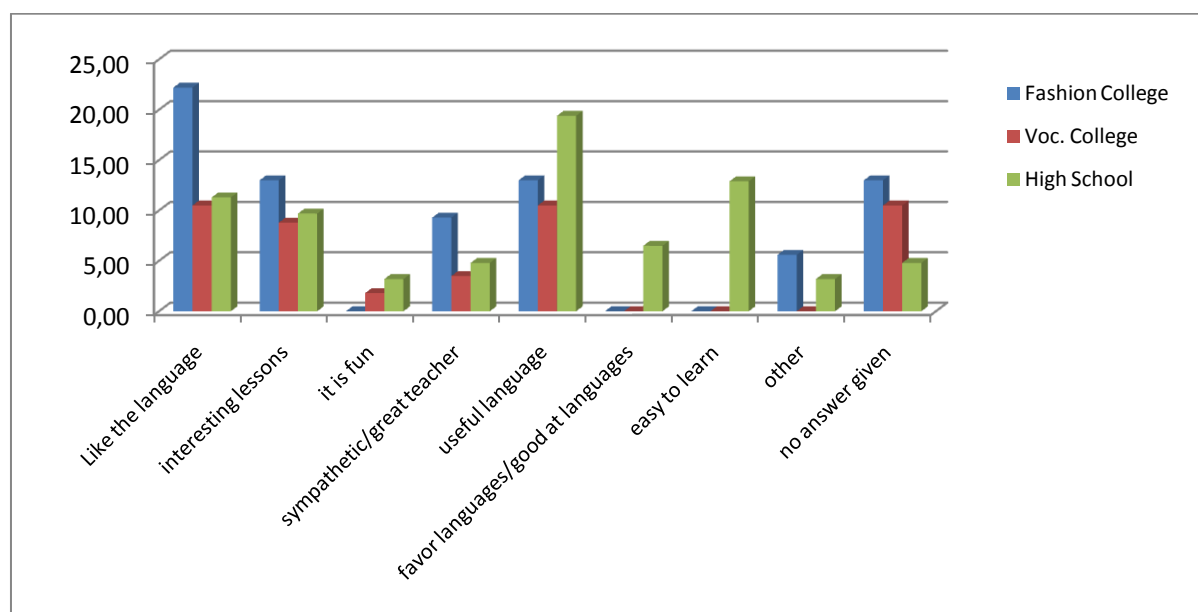
Several students address a further aspect that should be taken into consideration. They express the thought that nowadays young people are exposed to the media from an early age onwards. They learn how to use them at home with their parents or friends. For this reason the usage of new media at school is, in their opinion, superfluous.

Weil man auch so mit den Medien umgehen kann und es meines Erachtens nicht allzu wichtig ist (fashion college student)

Viele können so oder so schon damit umgehen! Das muss man nicht lernen (→ Internetgeneration) (high school student)

The bar chart below presents the reasons why students like English the most or more than other school subjects.

Figure 18. Students' responses to Item V_2a "In comparison to other school subjects I like English the most/more than other school subjects"



The data reveals that 56.6 per cent of the participants like English more than other school subjects whereas 7.5 per cent indicate that they like English the most. As can be seen in figure 15, the reasons given are various. A considerable number of students of all three groups reports that they are fond of the language and regard it as beneficial for their future life. One high school student highlights:

Ich weiß, dass Englisch für meine berufliche Laufbahn wichtig ist und ich freue mich auf jede Stunde, in der ich etwas dazu lerne (high school student)

Furthermore, numerous students (6.9 %) claim to prefer English over other school subjects for the simple reason that their language classes are interesting and challenging. In this context, the rapport with the English teacher has a great impact on how students perceive their language lessons and whether they find them enjoyable or not. Thus, it is not surprising that many students substantiate their answer by stressing that they are fond of their English teacher. A fashion college student states that he or she especially likes the teacher:

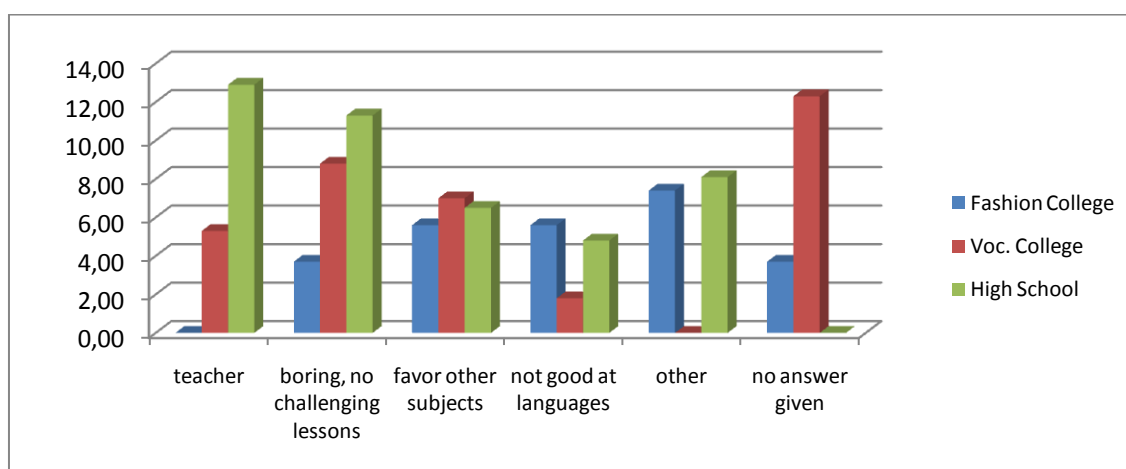
Weil die Lehrerin fähig ist und wir interessante Themen behandeln
(fashion college student)

In addition, another student is keen on the conversational nature of language classes:

Interaktiver als andere Fächer/man kann sich mitteilen, über
Geschmäcker und Meinungen sprechen (fashion college student)

Interestingly, only high school students explain their answer by reporting that they in general favor language classes (6.5 %) and find the English language easy to learn (12.9 %). This might be explained by the commonly existent idea that linguistically gifted students attend a high school with focus on modern languages (neusprachliches Gymnasium) rather than a higher vocational school as foreign language training is a key course element of such high schools.

Figure 19. Students' responses to Item V_2a "In comparison to other school subjects I like English less than other subjects/ the least of all"



While 6.4 per cent of the respondents claim to like their English classes the least, 29.5 per cent report to favor other subjects over English. Further analysis reveals that for high school students the main factor causing negative attitudes towards their language classes are the teacher (12.9 %) and the organization of their language classes (11.3 %). Fashion college students and vocational college students partly share this view although there is one exception: none of the fashion college students expresses discontent with the teacher.

Da ich mit unserer Englischlehrerin auf keinem guten Fuß stehe, fühle
ich mich nicht zum Reden motiviert, komme mit 2 Sätzen im Jahr
durch... (vocational college student)

Weil kein richtiger Englischunterricht stattfindet und ich daher aus dem
Unterricht nicht viel mitnehmen kann (vocational college student)

Those findings are tremendously valuable for (future) teachers and educators as they highlight the importance of using a variety of motivational strategies as well as diverse teaching methods. What is more, the teacher (as well as course material, classroom atmosphere, etc.) has a great influence on students' attitudes towards English language classes. Thus, a good rapport with the teacher can be regarded as an important factor that fosters the formation of positive attitudes.

6.4 per cent of the participants have deeper interest in other areas and therefore prefer other school subjects. In addition, some students (4.1 %) perceive themselves not to be linguistically gifted and thus have a rather adverse disposition towards the school subject English.

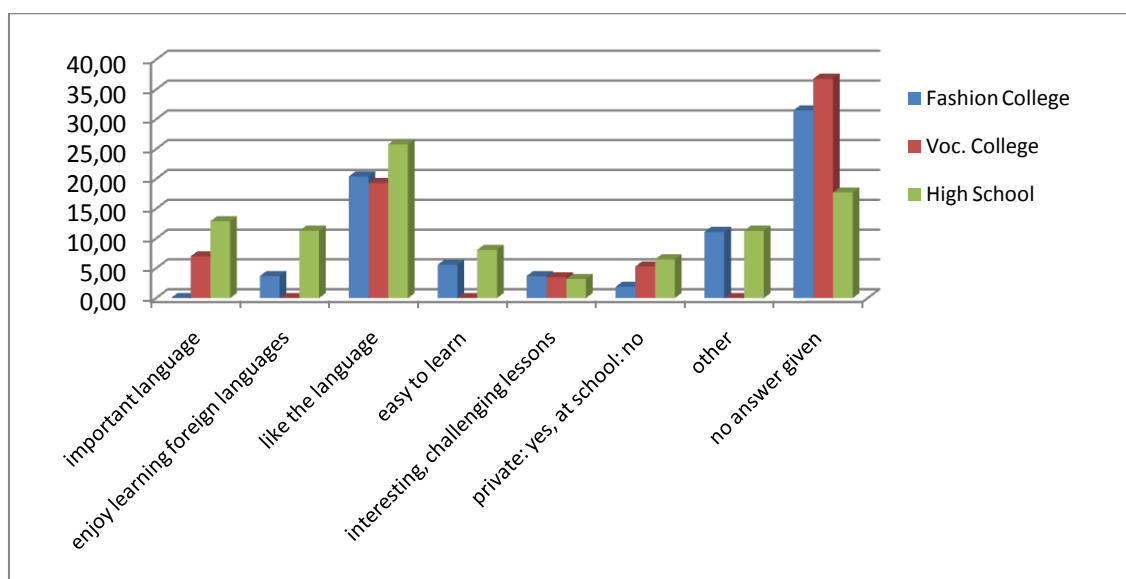
Interestingly, numerous high school students share this perception and consider themselves as not good at languages which contradicts the previously mentioned idea that linguistically gifted students commonly attend high schools.

One student seizes the occasion and voices his/her discontentment and frustration with various factors concerning his/her experiences with EFL and school in general:

1. Überfüllte Klassen, 2. Keine (freie) Diskussion, 3. Praxisfern,
4. Massenabfertigung. (high school student)

Figure 21 presents the reasons why students enjoy English.

Figure 21. Students' responses to Item V_6a "I enjoy English"



Before the responses to item V_6a "I enjoy English" are described in greater detail, it should be mentioned that the item is deliberately formulated rather vaguely. It can be interpreted by

the students in various ways: does the enjoyment relate to English language lessons or to the English language in general? Or does it refer to what can be 'done' with the language (read books and watch movies in the original language, understand music lyrics, make oneself understood when abroad, etc.)? I decided to leave it to the students to choose their own interpretation. The aim of this is to find out how the students see the English language: do they regard it as a mere school subject or do they already have 'internalized' English to the extent that they consider it as part of their personal life, as something belonging to them, as something that constitutes a part of their identity.

The data shows that only 8.1 per cent of the respondents strongly disagree with the item. The remaining 91.9 per cent (rather) agree with the item whereby 35.3 per cent strongly agree with the item. Therefore, it can be said that the vast majority take much pleasure in English.

22.0 per cent of the students explain their answer by reporting that they are fond of the language. The following statements were chosen to illustrate the various responses.

Super Sprache, klingt viel besser als Deutsch (fashion college student)

Klingt cool

Finde die Sprache schön und mag sie (high school students)

A fashion college student addresses a different issue:

Da die Kultur so gehyped wird, dass es gar nicht anders sein könnte
(fashion college student)

What the student seemingly points to is the wide distribution of Anglo-American popular culture, American business and brands due to which, in his opinion, one cannot but like English.

Another student touches upon the issue of English as a lingua franca since he/she expresses that he/she enjoys English because of the many possibilities for communication:

Weil man dadurch mit sehr vielen Menschen kommunizieren kann
(vocational college student)

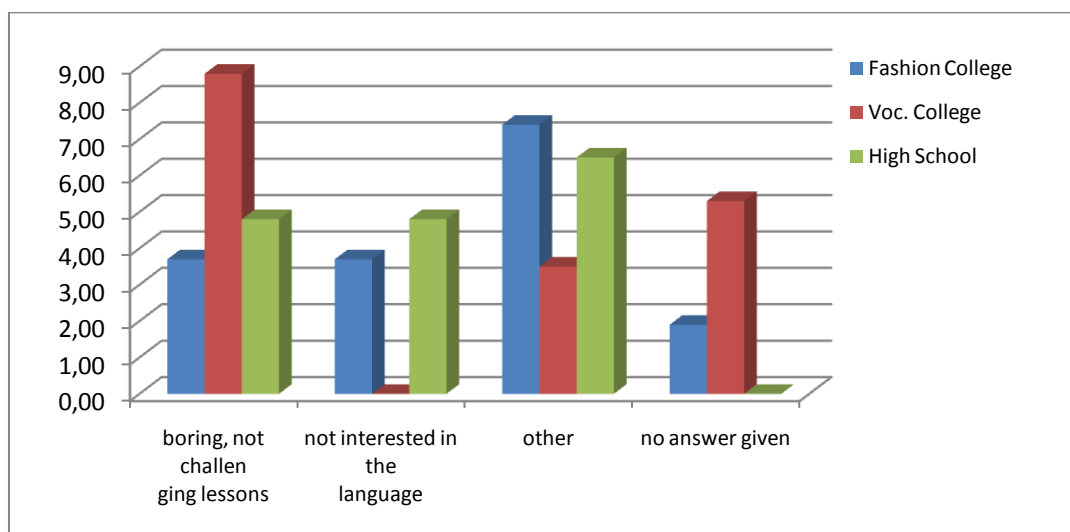
As already mentioned, this can be seen as an indicator of young people's awareness of the status of English as an international language.

Moreover, high school students reason their chosen answer by highlighting that they consider the language essential (12.9 %) and indulge in learning foreign languages in general (11.3 %). The other two student groups only partly share their view. Some students relate the statement to English language learning and state that they enjoy English because the language is easy to learn (4.6 per cent of the respondents) and their lessons are interesting and challenging (5.2 % of the participants). This implies that a considerable number of students really likes the

language in itself, independent from their experiences with foreign language learning and the design of their language classes.

In this context, it is important to note that a number of students (4.1 %) explicitly stress that they enjoy English in private while they do not at school. I find this detail extremely interesting as it indicates that English seems to have a higher significance for some students than as a mere school subject. The implication is that English has been incorporated into the personal lives of young people.

Figure 22. Students' responses to Item V_6a "I do not enjoy English"



As far as the negative responses are concerned, 8.1 per cent of the respondents claim that they do not enjoy English. Figure 22 above illustrates the reasons for their answer. 5.8 per cent refer to boring and not challenging lessons as cause for their negative attitudes towards English. They state:

Mir ist die Lust darauf durch den Unterricht vergangen
Wenig Abwechslung im Unterricht (high school students)

Once more, the statements serve as proof of the importance of diversified and motivating teaching methods. Unchallenging and not appealing language training can foster the formation of negative attitudes towards language and might lead to a radical refusal of the respective language.

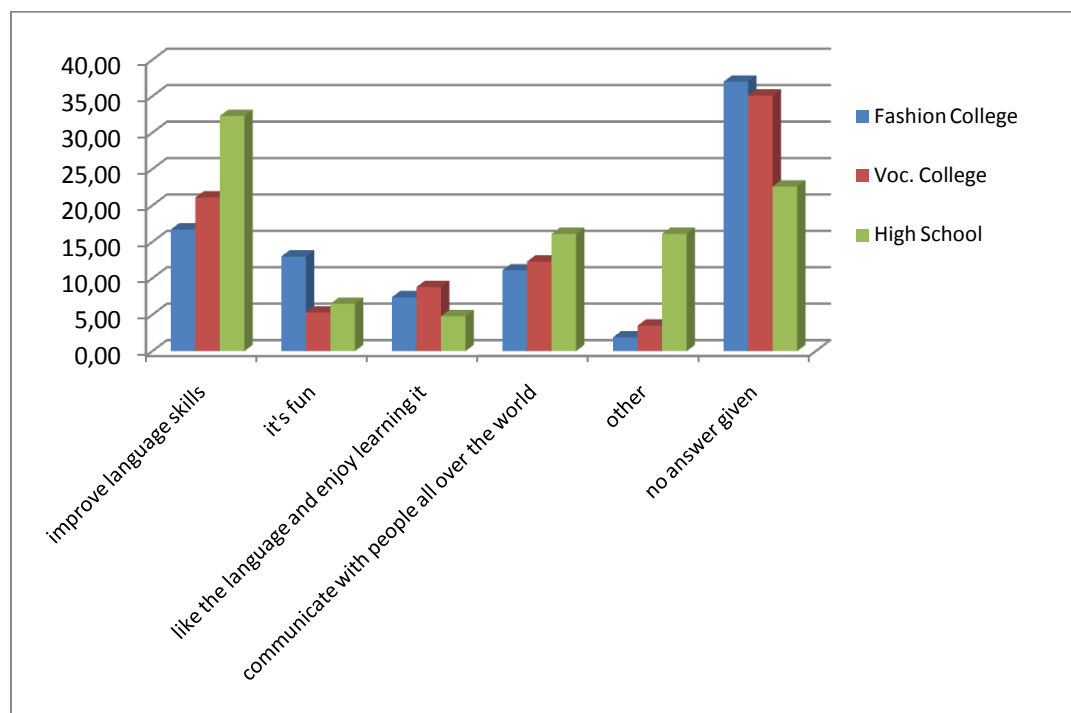
In addition, the data reveals that 2.9 per cent of the respondents do not take a great interest in the English language. Fashion college students (3.7 %) and high school students (4.8 %) assume this attitude while none of the vocational college students shares their opinion. They point out the following:

Finde Englisch keine schöne Sprache, gefällt mir nicht so und interessiert mich nicht so (fashion college student)

One student describes his/her ambivalent situation and the conflict he/she finds him-/herself in:

Mag die Sprache, jedoch fehlt mir die Praxis um immer und überall auf Englisch zu reden und zu jedem Thema (fashion college student)

Figure 23. Students' responses to Item V_7a "I enjoy being able to talk to other people in English"



Item V_7 "I enjoy being able to talk to other people in English" aims at investigating how the students perceive the ability to communicate in English: do they appreciate being able to speak English? Does it make a difference to them at all? Do they see it as a burden? It has already become apparent that a considerable number of the respondents regard English as a prerequisite for their future employment and that they are aware of and confirm the status of English as an international language. Yet, it might be worthwhile to find out which stance they personally take on it.

The data reveals that 45.7% per cent strongly agree with the item. This implies that almost half of the participants appreciates being able to communicate in English. A vast number of students (23.7 %) highlight the benefit of conversing in English.

Man kann sein Englisch verbessern
Weil ich dann weiß ob ich es gut kann und was ich noch lernen muss
(fashion college students)

Moreover, few students point to the credit they receive through their ability to speak English:

Macht mich vielseitiger/kultivierter (high school students)

which can be seen as an indicator of the prestigious status young people ascribe to English.

As second most common explanation, the students point out the idea that with English you can communicate and become acquainted with people all over the world. The following statement illustrates the various responses.

Weil man mit Englisch die Chance hat mit jedem zu reden, egal woher er/sie kommt (fashion college student)

Again, students address the status of English as an international language that enables them to communicate globally.

Furthermore, some students state that speaking English is fun (8.1 %) and that they enjoy the language as well as communicating in it (6.9 %). This confirms the assumption that English enjoys great popularity with young people, be it due to the fact that it is the prevailing language in the media, its 'cool' sound and character or that it is a language that opens up a wide variety of possibilities.

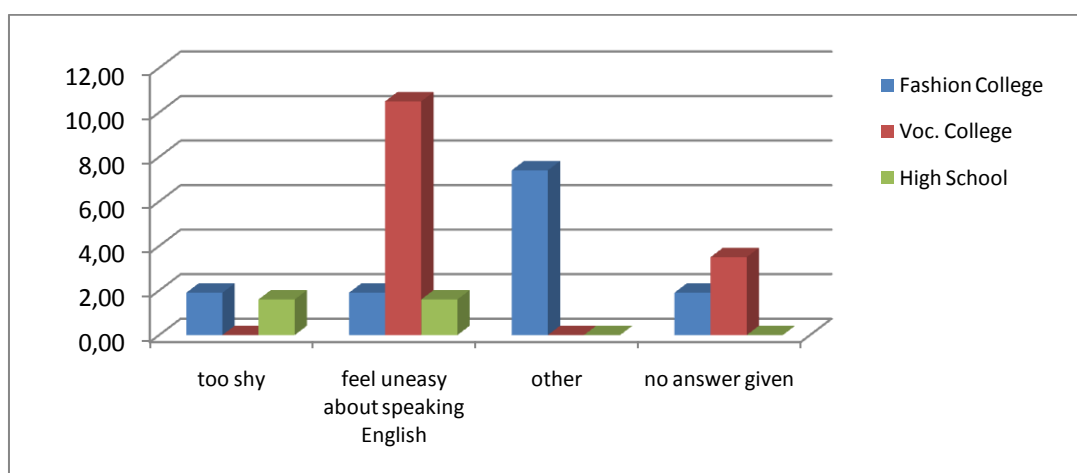
One statement of a high school student especially attracted my attention:

Weil mich die Sprache und alles was man damit anstellen kann doch sehr interessiert (high school student)

His/her statement caught my detailed attention because he/she previously had stated that he/she does not have a good opinion concerning EFL at school. He/She does not like the English lessons prepared by the teacher and that he/she perceives the language training as demotivating and as not appealing at all. However, despite his/her apparently bitter experiences concerning English language classes, he/she claims that she enjoys talking in and using English.

This instance implies that English seems to have a special status, independently and separated from school. English is not only seen as a mere school subject but has found entrance into the private lives of young people.

Figure 24. Students' responses to Item V_7a "I do not enjoy being able to talk to other people in English"



As far as the negative responses are concerned, 5.2 per cent of the participants strongly disagree with the item. 4 per cent of the students claim that they feel uneasy about respectively foolish when speaking English. 1.2 per cent feel too shy to speak English due to the fact that they perceive their competence to be too low to communicate effectively. They express:

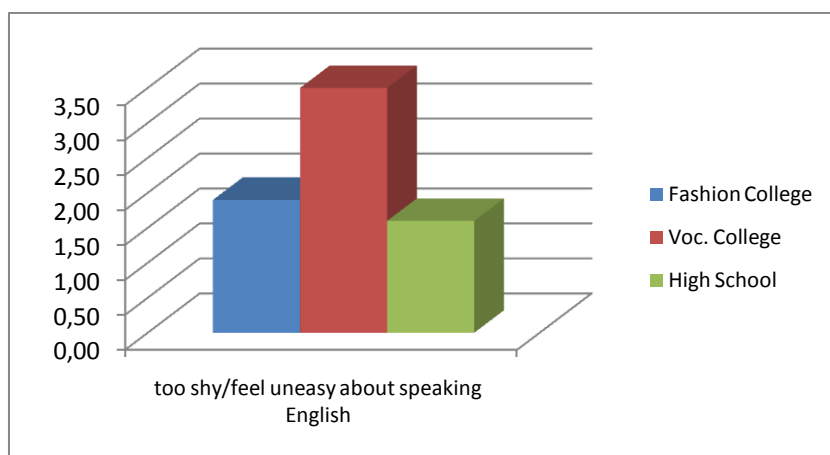
Weil ich lieber Deutsch rede und Angst habe etwas falsch zu machen
(high school student)

Weil ich es nicht gut kann und mich unsicher fühle (vocational college student)

Admittedly, those figures are very small, however, it highlights the importance of the application of motivational strategies in order to still the students' fears. Furthermore, it is essential that students are given the opportunity to talk as much as possible in the target language during language lessons. This is, of course, not an easy task as the number of foreign language lessons is limited to 2 to 3 hours per week.

7.4 Students' willingness to communicate – negative responses

Figure 20. Students' responses to Item V_3a "If English-speaking persons would be in my near environment, I would never talk to them"



As far as the respondents' willingness to communicate in English is concerned, 2.3 per cent express their reluctance to converse with English-speaking people. In this context, they claim that they feel too shy and uneasy about speaking English. The students voice their inhibitions to speak English:

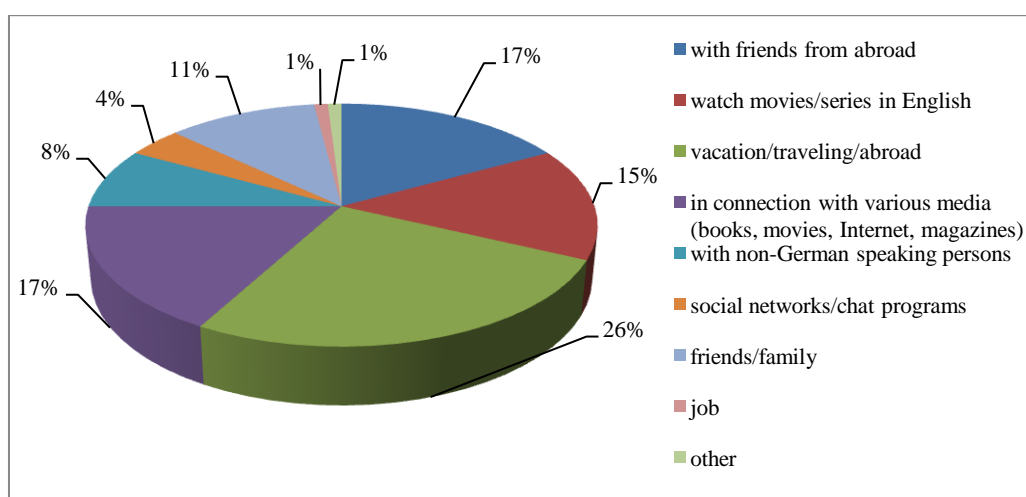
Ich traue mich nicht, weil ich mir denke, dass ich zu schlecht spreche
(vocational college student)

While this figure is very small, it implies that foreign language use anxiety needs to be taken seriously. Foreign language teachers need to be aware of this phenomenon and should take measures to help the learners get past their fear of speaking in the foreign language.

7.5 Functions and Use of English outside the language classroom

As final question, students are asked to state where and when they use English outside the classroom. It aims at finding out in which areas students use English outside school. The pie chart below illustrates the responses of the total population.

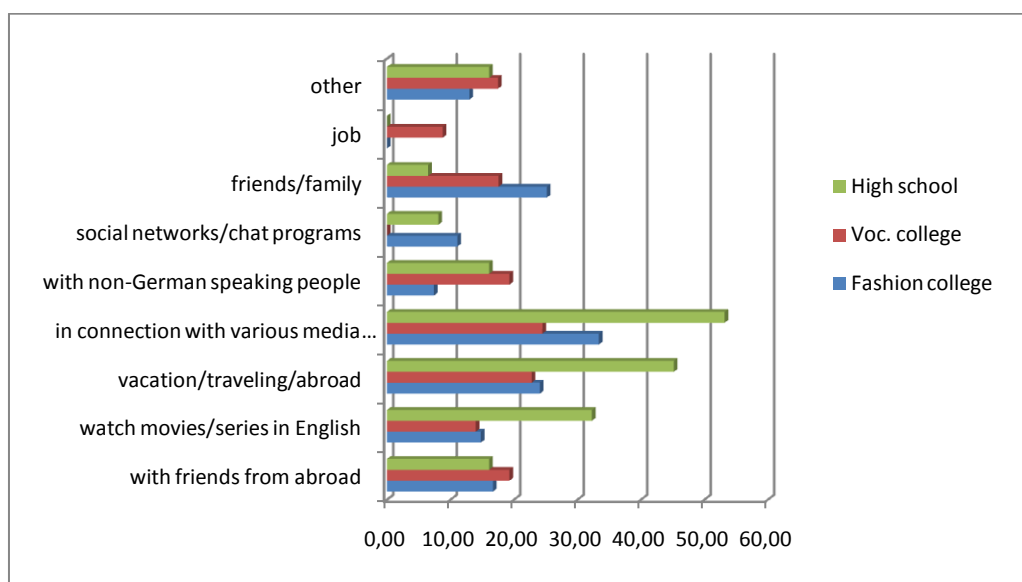
Figure 25. Students' responses to "Where and when do you use English outside the classroom?"



Again, responses referring to the same subject were summarized into broader categories. Based on this analysis, nine answer categories were created. While some categories ('vacation/traveling/abroad', 'watch movies/series in English', 'social networks/chat programs' and 'with friends from abroad') are self-explanatory, additional information will be provided for the remaining categories. The answer category 'in connection with various media' refers to the use of the Internet, watching English movies or DVDs, listening to music and reading books and magazines in English. As regards the category 'with non-German speaking persons', students state that they use English to communicate with people who do not speak German. The category 'friends/family' comprises the use of English within the family as well as with students' mates. Quite a few students report that they find pleasure in using English to talk to a family member who is a non-native English speaker. Also, some students state that a member of the family lives in an English-speaking country and thus they converse in English. Moreover, numerous students enjoy speaking English with their friends

who are native German speakers outside school. The category “job” refers to two issues. First, it refers to tutoring and second, several students state that they need English in their jobs (partly at weekends). Unfortunately, students did not state what exactly they do and where they work. The pie chart above illustrates the responses for the total population. In order to find out whether and to what extent the responses of the three student groups differ, further analysis is introduced. The following bar chart illustrates the responses of the three student groups.

Figure 26. Students’ responses to “Where and when do you use English outside the classroom?”



As far as the use of English outside school is concerned, the largest share of all three student groups uses English in connection with various media, e.g. books, magazines, Internet, DVDs, movies. Remarkably more high school students (53.2 %) than fashion college (33.4 %) and vocational college students (24.5 %) give this answer. It is obvious that nowadays the media play an important role in young people’s lives. Reading books and magazines, surfing the Internet, listening to music, playing video games and watching movies and series on TV or DVD belong to young people’s favorite leisure time activities. The large difference in the responses of high school students and the other two student groups might be explained by the fact that the use of media is more promoted in a high school than in a higher vocational school. The frequency and quality of media use at school can influence students’ attitudes towards the usage of new media. Thus, high school students might have a more positive attitude towards reading and watching English media than vocational college students.

As second most common response, students state that they use English when they are abroad.

Once more, the share of high school students giving this response is larger (45.2 %) than the share of their peers. Only 24.1 per cent of the fashion college students and 22.8 per cent of the vocational college students opt for the same answer. This difference can be accounted for by the common idea that high schools generally attach great value to and foster visits in English-speaking countries. However, this idea cannot be confirmed by this study as an equal number of high school students and vocational college students report that they have been on a language trip in an English-speaking country.

A considerable number of students (20.8 %) highlights that they enjoy watching movies and series in English. They stress that movies and series are more entertaining and more fun in their original language than in the translated version. Again, the share of high school students giving this response is the largest.

Almost an equal number of students of all three groups express that they use English with friends from abroad. In this context, it is highly interesting to note that quite a few students state that they not only use English to communicate with their friends from abroad but also with their friends and family at home. Relatively more fashion college students (25.2 %) than high school (6.5 %) and vocational college (17.6 %) students give this answer. The fact that they enjoy communicating in English with their friends and family although they are not native speakers of English implies that English is a popular, enjoyable language. Furthermore, it indicates that English might already be developing into a second language.

What is more, communication with friends and family can be considered good conversational practice. Another probable explanation for the use of English in the domestic area might be the rather small number of opportunities to speak English during the English lessons. The result that the number of fashion college students amounts to the largest share tallies with the results obtained in the analysis of item III_6a *“I do not feel well prepared for my professional future”*. In this respect, the share of fashion college students complaining about the very limited number of English lessons is the largest. Thus, it would be plausible to practice talking with family and friends. A few of the students report (14.5 %) that they use English with non-German speaking people.

Additionally, several students explain that they use English in relation with the usage of social networks and chat programs. This is no surprise as English is the most dominant language in the media and young people love to express themselves in English as it is ‘a cool language’.

Furthermore, a number of social networks and chat programs come in English as working language.

Vocational college students claim that they use English in their jobs. Unfortunately, they did not provide information what exactly they do and where they work. However, the vocational college trains the students for jobs in the economic domain and tourism. Students might have part-time jobs in tourism where they need to use English. Also, the students are obliged to do an internship where they might need English to a great extent.

8. Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate the attitudes of grade 12/13 students towards the English language with particular reference to their professional future. Three different student groups (fashion college, vocational college and high school students) took part in the study. The questionnaire evaluates five main issues: students' instrumental orientations and beliefs concerning their professional future, their opinions of EFL at school, their feelings and perceptions related to their professional preparation, usage of new media at school, motivation to learn English and willingness to communicate. The results will be compared according to the variables school type and partly to the variable gender. The findings of the survey are contrasted with past language attitude and L2/FL motivation research.

Table 24: Summary representing the means calculated for each student group for the most relevant questions

Category	Items	Fashion College (N=54) Mean (SD)	Vocational College (N=57) Mean (SD)	High School (N=62) Mean (SD)
Instrumental Orientation	Studying English is important for my professional future*	1.30 (0.54)	1.44 (0.57)	1.56 (0.64)
	High English proficiency immensely increases my career prospects*	1.24 (0.61)	1.47 (0.60)	1.60 (0.64)
Opinions towards EFL	I think that the number of English lessons is sufficient to prepare me for my professional future	2.41 (0.79)	2.37 (0.86)	2.15 (0.79)
Professional Preparation	By my English lessons I feel well prepared for my professional future	2.44 (0.74)	2.58 (0.82)	2.48 (0.78)
Attitudes towards the use of new media	I enjoy the usage of various media within the scope of my English lessons	1.74 (0.62)	1.75 (1.23)	1.95 (0.91)
Motivational intensity	If I had the possibility to watch movies/series in English, I would [...] use it*	1.83 (0.82)	2.09 (0.95)	1.94 (0.85)
	I prefer to read books/magazines in English.	2.72 (1.11)	2.95 (1.14)	2.81 (1.05)
Desire to learn English	If I was in first class again and could choose whether or not to take English classes (...)*	1.04 (0.19)	1.16 (0.41)	1.21 (0.48)
	In comparison to other school subjects I like English (...)*	2.11 (0.63)	2.49 (0.69)	2.42 (0.76)
Attitudes towards learning English	I really enjoy English*	1.81 (0.87)	2.26 (1.06)	2.10 (0.92)
Willingness to communicate	If English-speaking persons were in my near environment, I would talk to them (...)*	1.87 (0.75)	2.04 (0.87)	2.02 (0.78)

*A statistically significant difference was obtained.

8.1 Instrumental attitudes and students' beliefs concerning English in relation to their professional future

As already explained in section 2.7.1, instrumental orientation can be understood as the economic value of learning a foreign language. However, as various motivation researchers (e.g. Yashima et al. 2004) have pointed out in the EFL learning contexts nowadays instrumental and integrative orientation perhaps can no longer be treated as concepts that act in isolation from each other.

In addition, it can be said that students involved in the present study generally are convinced that English will be relevant for their future lives. However, some students pointed out that nowadays English is considered a given and thus does not make one competitive enough for today's world. Interestingly, this result tallies with Erling's (2007) findings of her study conducted among German university students. This is in line with Grin's (1999) view who claims that "knowledge of English is on the way to becoming an unremarkable skill" (Grin 1999 quoted in Erling 2007: 121).

8.1.1 Differences across school types

From the data obtained it became apparent that students from all three schools have a strong instrumental orientation. However, fashion college show the highest instrumental orientation (see the results of the analysis of item I_1 "*Studying English is important for my professional future*") although one has to admit that there are only slight differences. Previously, the I had assumed that – considering the different educational aims of the two school types high school and vocational college - there would be a greater disparity concerning the answers to this statement. The fact that this could not be confirmed perfectly illustrates that – no matter which vocational training and education they opt for - students are aware of the status of English and of its significance in today's world.

Nevertheless, it seems to be perfectly understandable that students attending vocational schools have a stronger instrumental orientation. Vocational schools train their students in specific areas and for specific professions. Thus, students often have concrete perceptions about which profession they will take up after graduation. Accordingly, students know that English will be relevant for their professional career. In this study the vocational schools offer specialized training programs for the fields fashion and clothing, and economics and tourism. In contrast, high schools aim at providing their students with general knowledge and preparing them for tertiary education. Therefore, it is possible that most of the students do not

know which profession they will pursue after they have finished school. This difference is reflected in the content of English lessons as well. In vocational schools the content deals with occupational issues and is oriented towards effective preparation for the students' professional career.

In order to see how the results relate to all Austrian students, the statistical report "Bildung in Zahlen 2009/2010 (published by 'Statistik Austria') was consulted. According to this report, 71.4 % of the high school graduates from 2008 took up academic studies within the next three terms whereas only 35.2 % of the graduates from higher vocational schools opted for the same choice. In the academic year 2009/2010 high school graduates formed the majority of first-year students (38.7 %) as opposed to students who graduated from higher vocational schools (26.2 %). Thus, it can be said that the majority of students attending a higher vocational school enter into employment immediately after school. This may serve as an explanation for the stronger instrumental orientation that could be found among the higher vocational college students.

Furthermore, it is important to mention that a clear tendency towards connecting both instrumental and integrative goals could be found among the informants. A nearly equal number of the respondents stated that they enjoy both the utilitarian value (e.g. better job opportunities) as well as the possibility to communicate with people all over the world (see e.g. figure 4) . The fact that students see the potential of English to participate in international and intercultural communication was also found in a study conducted among Japanese students (Yashima et al. 2004). She reports that for the informants English represents the "world as a whole" and connects them to people all over the globe (Yashima et al. 2004: 125). Yashima (2002) names this special attitude towards the international community *international posture* which was found to lead to willingness to communicate and communication behavior and enhances motivation to learn an L2/a FL (Yashima et al. 2004: 135).

These arguments are supported by the findings presented in the Eurobarometer concerning language use in Europe. 72% of all Austrian citizens believe English to be the most useful foreign language for personal development and career, followed by French (16%), Italian (9%) and Spanish (8%) (European Commission 2006: 30-32).

As could be noticed, the use of English for international communication is in fact a recurrent

and salient topic in my study. It is highly interesting that no one of the informants actually stated that he/she needs or likes English because he/she wants to talk to an English native speaker or is especially interested in the US or the UK (or any other English-speaking countries). The students repeatedly stressed that they need and enjoy English because it enables them to talk and become acquainted with people all over the world. This lends strength to the idea that students are firmly convinced that English is their connection to today's globalized and interconnected world.

In line with this, globalization is another term frequently stated as a reason why English might be relevant in students' future life. Indeed, increasing globalization and interconnectedness have a great impact on the formation of identity (cf. Arnett 2002). Arnett highlights that as a consequence of globalization people nowadays develop "a global identity that gives them a sense of belonging to a worldwide culture and includes an awareness of the events, practices, styles and information that are part of the global culture" (Arnett 2002: 777). As Lamb (2004) points out, English is the means to develop this global identity in order to become a global citizen (cf. Lamb 2004: 16).

Once more, these results indicate that for the students participating in my study English is not linked to any particular country or a specific cultural group, but seen as part of an international culture to which they would seemingly like to belong.

8.2 Students' opinions towards EFL

In general, students have a positive attitude towards EFL at school. Nevertheless, as far as the perceived importance of English as a subject and practice-oriented language classes are concerned, students' opinions differ greatly.

8.2.1 Differences across school types

With regard to perceived importance of English, it is not surprising that more high school students than vocational school students strongly agree that English is an important part of the school program. This can be explained by the fact that high schools offer more weekly English lessons and, generally, a higher number of extra-curricular activities. Additionally, students attending a high school with special emphasis on modern languages ('neusprachliches Gymnasium') might have different perceptions concerning the importance of English at school.

Higher vocational schools train their students for employment in certain occupational areas. Accordingly, the content of the English lessons is business-oriented and relates to the fields students are trained to work in. Therefore, it is hardly surprising that the fashion college and the vocational college students rate their language courses to be more practice-oriented than high school students. High schools, by contrast, provide their students with general knowledge and aim at preparing them for tertiary education.

In this context, it would be of great interest to research students' satisfaction with their language classes. Similarly, an investigation of how graduates (after having worked for some time in the area they have been trained for) assess the effectiveness of their prior language training would yield valuable information for curricula-designers and teachers.

Indeed, questionnaires can be a worthwhile source of information to help teachers design their course according to the learners' needs and wishes and thus enhance learning motivation and, ideally, students' performance (cf. Davies 2006: 3). The in-class material is one of the most important factors affecting learners' attitudes towards the learning situation. Thus, "[W]e need to find topics and tasks that will engage learners physically, emotionally, socially and intellectually in learning the new language" (Vincent 1984 quoted in Davies 2006: 4).

Moreover, only few of the respondents (11.6 %) stated that English is used in other subjects as well. While the potential benefits of CLIL are obvious, there are several factors that may account for the fact that CLIL still has not been introduced to a great extent in many schools. First, as there is no curriculum for CLIL, teachers have to collaborate and design their own curriculum. This is, evidently, time-consuming and thus requires the teachers' willingness. Second, learner assessment is another issue which needs to be tackled to guarantee a successful implementation of CLIL (cf. Coyle et al. 2010: 14-15). Thus, the lack of CLIL-curricula and rather loose specifications as to the implementation might serve as an explanation for the marginal use of CLIL in the respective schools.

8.3 Students' feelings concerning English language preparation

Generally, it can be stated that the students have positive attitudes towards using English in their future professions. Nevertheless, some respondents expressed that, if given a choice, would rather prefer a job where they do not have to use English to a great extent. Furthermore, half of the informants argued that they would not feel very comfortable in a merely English-speaking job situation.

The relevance of students' feelings in relation to English language preparation (i.e. perceived competence) must not be underestimated. If they feel confident and well-prepared, they are more likely to have the courage to take up challenging jobs and become successful.

8.3.1 Differences across school types

Interestingly, item III_5 "*In an exclusively English-speaking job situation I would feel rather uncomfortable*" yielded a statistically significant difference in comparison to both variables school type and gender. The number of fashion college students stating that they would not mind at all working in an English-speaking job situation amounted to the largest share. This might be due to the fact that the fashion college student group feels best prepared for their professional life (although there are, admittedly, only slight differences). Similarly, according to the data obtained, considerably more fashion college students receive practice-oriented language training and, more importantly, are fond of their EFL classes. Positive attitudes towards language classes can be regarded as a crucial factor affecting learning motivation as well as L2 use (cf. e.g. Gardner 1985, 2001, 2010).

8.3.2 Differences across sexes

As regards gender, the results (see section 6.3.2, Table 17) show that female students have more favorable attitudes towards an English-speaking job than their male peers. Various reasons can account for this difference.

First, girls are said to have an inclination towards languages and tend to be more sociable and communicative. Second, a study by Worrall and Tsarna (1987) found that language teachers favor female learners over male learners and that girls receive more support and encouragement (cf. MacIntyre 2002: 542). Similarly, Clark and Trafford (1995) state that they could find evidence that girls receive more attention from the teachers. Also, the teachers usually expect better performance from girls than from boys. Since no teacher interviews were conducted in my study, this can only remain a speculation in this context. However, the findings of Worrall and Tsarna and MacIntyre give rise to the assumption that males – due to the above mentioned facts - might not feel as confident as female students to use English extensively at their workplaces. Furthermore, lack of encouragement might lead to low L2 self confidence and may lower students' learning motivation. It is vital for language teachers to be aware of these differences and to make sure to use motivational strategies that encourage boys in the same way as they encourage girls.

8.4 Students' attitudes towards the usage of new media

More than half of the informants seem to be enthusiastic about the usage of new media within the scope of foreign language learning. The majority of students holding this view (35.8 %) highlight that they do so because they consider variety an important factor in language learning. Indeed, among educators and teachers it is well established that variety in teaching methods is a crucial factor that can lead to an increase in students' motivation. Students prefer certain learning styles over other learning styles and have different likes and dislikes. Thus, in order to appeal to every student and engage their interest in learning, various teaching methods should be applied. Various forms of media (especially new media) can be a welcome and beneficial source for (authentic) language contact as well as a useful tool for language practice. What is more, various studies found that students have favorable attitudes towards the use of new media within the context of foreign language learning (cf. Kohn 2007 in Knapp & Seidlhofer 2007, Beatty 2010). This impression could also be strengthened by the results of my study as a considerable amount of students (15 %) expressed the desire to use various kinds of media (although they currently do not use it). Teachers should bear in mind that the usage of new media can be a motivating factor indeed as the majority of young people enjoys working with new media and already uses them to a great extent in their leisure time.

8.5 Students' willingness to communicate (WTC)

MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) model postulates perceived competence and communication anxiety (in short, L2 self confidence) as the most crucial factors affecting WTC. "A student's perception of his or her competence seems to be strongly related to how willing he or she is to communicate in an FL" (Yashima et al. 2004: 135). Various studies have shown that WTC is a predictor of frequency of communication in the L2 and motivation is a predictor of WTC, frequency of communication, or both (cf. MacIntyre & Clément 1996 in Yashima et al. 2004: 123-124).

Admittedly, only a very small fraction of the informants (2.3 %) stated that they would not be willing to talk to English-speaking people in their near environment. It is striking that no one of the fashion college students chose the negative answer, underpinning the findings that the fashion college students feel best prepared for their professional future, have the most favorable attitudes towards EFL at school and are more motivated to learn English than their peers (see next section).

The students who expressed their refusal to talk English reasoned their answer by stating that

they would feel shy and uneasy about speaking English because they perceive their competence to be low and are thus afraid of making mistakes during conversation. This serves as a perfect demonstration of MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) and various other researchers' findings indicating that perceived competence is the strongest factor predicting and affecting WTC (cf. MacIntyre et al. 1998, 2000). Of course, also individual differences might account for the negative disposition towards communicating in an FL.

8.4.1 Differences across sexes

Considerably more females than males stressed their willingness to communicate. Various reasons may account for this difference. As already mentioned before, girls are said to be more sociable and communicative than boys and seem to enjoy learning languages more than their male peers. Similarly, girls often outperform boys as far as language achievement is concerned. Another explanation for this sex difference could be the observed dissimilar treatment of students by teachers. As already mentioned in section 8.3.2, Worrall and Tsarna (1987: 309) found that the surveyed English and French teachers generally favored girls in the language classroom. Also, it was found that teachers provide girls with more support and career encouragement (cf. MacIntyre 2002: 542). MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) WTC model suggests self-confidence to be one of the crucial factors affecting WTC. In fact, the importance of confidence building in language teaching has been pointed out by Clark and Trafford as well. "Confidence building [seems] to be crucial in the successful teaching of modern languages because of the inherent difficulty of the subject and the greater demands placed on the pupils in terms of concentration [...]" (Clark and Trafford 1995: 322). With regard to boys in language learning, they note that boys are often labeled as poor linguists (cf. Clark and Trafford 1995: 318) and tend to be neglected by the language teachers as far as classroom interaction is concerned. In Worrall and Tsarna's study, teachers generally had lower expectations with regard to boys' performance in modern languages. Thus, Clark and Trafford (1995) conclude with a call to make language learning more 'boy-friendly' and equalize opportunities for boys and girls in this "traditionally female-dominated field" (cf. Clark and Trafford 1995: 323).

8.5 English language learning motivation

Motivation is ascribed an important role in second/foreign language learning. According to Gardner, language learning motivation consists of three variables: motivational intensity,

desire to learn the language and attitudes towards the learning situation (cf. Gardner 1985, 2001, 2010). Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) process model of L2 motivation (presented in section 3.2.2) highlights the dynamic nature of motivation. A learner's level of motivation might not be stable, but might be higher at some times and lower at other times, depending on a variety of factors such as previous learning experiences and attitudes towards the language.

8.5.1 Differences across school types

As far as students' desire to learn English is concerned, all three student groups express a strong desire to learn English. Yet once more, the fashion college students are in contrast to their peers and seem to be more ambitious learners. Similarly, Svara (2009) found that vocational school students seem to have a stronger desire to learn English than high school students. This fact is in line with the other findings; fashion college students feel best prepared, have the most positive opinion towards EFL at school and overall show higher motivation to learn English than their colleagues (more on this below). Thus, it seems to be easily comprehensible that their motivation to learn English is higher than the motivation of their peers.

With regard to motivational intensity, students enjoy watching movies and series in English more than reading books and magazines. Again, the fashion college students score higher than the other two student groups (although, admittedly, no statistically significant difference was obtained). Contrary to these findings, Svara (2009) found that high school students have more favorable attitudes towards watching English movies and reading English books than vocational college students (cf. Svara 2009: 99). She explained this by stating that watching English movies and going to an English cinema are activities commonly more integrated into the English program of a high school rather than a vocational college (ibid.). However, this might, of course, vary as the design of the language classes and the integration of various (print) media largely depends on the teacher.

As to students' attitudes towards learning English, the data obtained implies that the fashion college students hold more positive attitudes than high school and vocational college students. In fact, fashion college students' more favorable attitudes towards English and learning it are a recurrent and salient phenomenon. In addition to the above mentioned facts, possible explanations for this might be that, according to the analysis of the open-ended questions,

more fashion college students state that their English lessons are interesting and challenging and express their appreciation of the teacher.

8.5.2 Differences across sexes

As opposed to Svava's (2009: 101) findings indicating that girls are more enthusiastic English language learners, no significant difference could be found between the genders. Both female and male students express their desire to learn English to the same extent. Similarly, the data analyzed implies that they both hold positive attitudes towards learning English. However, differences were obtained as far as the motivational intensity is concerned. Girls scored considerably higher than the boys indicating that girls are keen on reading books and magazines and watching series and movies in English. A possible explanation for this might be that, as previously mentioned, girls might have a higher L2 self-confidence and therefore enjoy using English in their spare time as well. Also, it corresponds to the common gender stereotypes: girls generally tend to be seen as ambitious and 'good' students whereas boys tend to be pictured as poorly motivated learners.

Generally, the data obtained implies that English as a lingua franca may serve as a strong motivating factor to learn English. Students are well aware of the fact that nowadays English is the most frequently used means of communication. They perceive English not only to be relevant for their professional future, but also for communicating internationally. From this perspective, English has become a tool not only for the achievement of pragmatic goals, but inter-personal goals as well (cf. Yashima et al. 2004).

8.6 Functions and use of English outside the language classroom

In chapter 4 it has been discussed that English is the language of the youth and that nowadays young people are increasingly exposed to it. Especially media have become a very important source for contact with English. The findings of my study confirm that school is not the only place where students encounter English. Apart from the language classroom, the most common instances for young people to use English are on vacation, in connection with media and communication with friends from abroad.

"[T]he most obvious impact that English makes on European life is undoubtedly via its presence in the public domains of the media, including the internet, advertising, many forms of popular culture and popular entertainment" (James 2000: 24). This quotation neatly

encapsulates the ubiquity of the English language in the media. Students enjoy taking advantage of the opportunities they are offered by the media. However, the results indicate that they rather favor forms of media other than print. Several reasons might account for this result. Although it is very easy to find English books at reasonable prices in Vienna, English newspapers are not that readily available. Only few selected stores offer magazines and newspapers from basically all over the world. Moreover, English newspapers are relatively expensive and therefore students might not want to buy them on a regular basis. However, the Austrian daily newspaper “Der Standard” offers an all-English *New York Times* supplement which is included in the Monday’s edition.

Additionally, the data obtained implies that watching movies and series in English is a very popular spare time activity among young people. Several students reported that movies in the original version would be much better than the dubbed ones. Besides, they also stressed that jokes would often be lost in translation. In fact, Austrian students rarely have the possibility to watch English programs on TV as sitcoms and movies and TV shows are usually dubbed into German. The language of certain music television programmes is mostly German as well. However, some series are broadcast via “Zweikanalton” which means that it is possible to watch the respective series in the original version. Also, some TV providers offer cable channels like BBC World or CNN which are broadcast in English. Furthermore, in Vienna there are several cinemas that show films in the English original.

Nevertheless, the most convenient way to watch English movies and series is probably via DVDs as they mostly give several foreign language options. In addition, there are plenty of homepages via which one can watch English sitcoms and TV shows online or where movies, series, etc. are available for download.

Furthermore, it is worthwhile to mention that various other studies (cf. Hyrkstedt & Kalaja 1998, Hilgendorf 2007, Erling 2007) confirm this finding as well: the use of English media enjoys great popularity among Europe’s youth.

Summarizing, it can be said that “school is but one source for contact with English – and at least for some groups not the most important one” (Berns et al. 2007: 115).

The data obtained indicates that the majority of the participants travels a lot. 80.3 % stated that they have been at least once to an English-speaking country within the context of language study travel. However, people nowadays do not have to go to an English-speaking country to use English for communication. A substantial amount of students remarked that

they use English a great deal on vacation, no matter which country they are going to. They use English in order to talk to the international community and to become acquainted with people in the world. They appreciate the access to foreign cultures that the knowledge of English grants them. Quite a number of students reported that English gives them the chance to talk to and get to know people all over the world. Moreover, they are convinced that everybody knows at least some English and can thus converse cross-culturally.

In line with the extensive use of English abroad, young people use English to stay in contact and communicate with friends from abroad. Once more, this example highlights the relevance of English as a global lingua franca as it brings people closer together and enables them to share their opinions, feelings and values. Indeed, in a multicultural and ever more closely connected world shared understanding becomes more and more important.

Interestingly, some students communicate in English with their friends who are non-native speakers of English. Similarly, they take pleasure in talking English at home with their families. This strengthens the idea that English has gained a special status and a special social value even in interactions between speakers of the same mother tongue. Besides, few students stressed that English sounds ‘cool’ and that it gives them the opportunity to express themselves in ways very different from their mother tongue(s).

9. Conclusion

The aim of the present study has been to investigate grade 12/13 students’ attitudes towards English and their motivation to learn the language. It should shed light on students’ beliefs about and opinions towards the English language with particular reference to their professional future. Furthermore, their willingness to communicate has been researched. The survey was conducted at different high schools and vocational colleges in Vienna and its environs. I hope that the findings of my study provide teachers and curricula-designers with valuable information on how learners perceive the English language in today’s world and how they can increase their motivation.

As far as research methodology is concerned, I designed a questionnaire which includes several items adapted from Gardner’s (1985) AMTB. The questionnaire was distributed to final year-students and filled in during classes.

Attitudes are evaluations of objects, events, institutions and abstract ideas that serve different functions. They are said to consist of three components: cognition, affect and behavior. The cognitive component, which comprises beliefs and perceptions towards the attitude object, is reflected in the students' firm beliefs that English will be highly important for their

professional future. The affective component became apparent in the students' statements confirming that English has been embedded into and plays an important role in their personal lives. Finally, the conative component, which refers to an individual's behavior towards a certain object, is expressed by the fact that the majority of surveyed students watches English TV series and movies and reads English books and magazines. Furthermore, they use it outside the classroom to a large extent as well.

Language attitudes and motivation are crucial factors with regard to second language achievement (cf. Gardner and Lambert 1972, Gardner 1985, Kormos & Csizer 2008). Therefore, it is important for teachers to be aware of their students' attitudes towards the language learned and be informed about motivating strategies in the foreign language classroom.

In the 21st century, English has become indispensable and ubiquitous. It is the primary tool for international communication and the predominantly used language in business, trade, air traffic, music and film industry, and of course in various forms of media. The latter has doubtlessly become an important source for contact with the English language. Globalization has not only affected business and trade, but also the English language learning context. In 21st century's Europe English is ubiquitous. Thus, school is only *one* source of contact with the English language.

In the present study a questionnaire was distributed to high school, vocational college and fashion college final-year students (N=173). The data was analyzed according to the variables school type and gender. In general, the participants' attitudes towards English are positive. Moreover, some differences between school types and between sexes became have been found.

Higher vocational school students (in this study vocational college and fashion college students) seem to have a stronger instrumental orientation. Taking into consideration that higher vocational schools train their students for employment in certain occupational areas (e.g. tourism, product management, fashion and clothing, economics), this finding is not surprising.

As far as students' motivation to learn English is concerned, nearly all of the informants have favorable attitudes towards learning English. Yet, females seem to be willing to put considerably more effort into studying English than their male counterparts.

With reference to willingness to communicate, females reached a lower mean indicating that girls are more willing to initiate communication with English-speaking persons.

As to the usage of various forms of media within the scope of English language lessons, the Internet and DVDs seem to be the mostly used media. As concerns the use of more recent and newer tools (e.g. blogs, e-learning systems, and chat programs), it has become apparent that - apart from e-learning systems such as Moodle or Fronter – newer technology is hardly used. However, the present study found that students enjoy the use of new media within the scope of English language classes and that they find it useful with regard to their professional future. Besides, the usage of new media can serve as a motivating factor as well.

As far as the use of English outside the classroom context is concerned, the largest part of all three student groups uses English in connection with various media, e.g. Internet, books, magazines, DVDs, movies. Considering that activities like surfing the Internet, listening to music, reading books and magazines, playing video games and watching movies and series on TV, this finding is hardly surprising.

Another instance where young people use English to a great extent is when they are traveling. It is obvious that nowadays English is the most frequently used language for international communication. What is more, a considerable number of students enjoys watching movies and series in English and uses English with friends from abroad.

Working on this study, various thoughts concerning implications for future teaching have entered my mind. First of all, teachers should bear in mind that motivation is by no means stable, but dynamic in nature. Students' motivation is subject to fluctuations and, as Dörnyei (2005) stated, varies greatly even during one single language lesson. Besides, teachers need to be aware of the numerous factors affecting motivation and students' attitudes towards foreign language learning: course material, peers, classroom atmosphere, teacher, previous language learning experience, personal background, physical condition, events in their personal life, etc. Some of them (personal background, physical condition and events in their personal life are, of course, beyond the teacher's control (cf. Gardner 2010: 183). Among all these factors, the teacher has been identified as the most influential factor affecting students' motivation and

attitudes. Thus, the rapport with the teacher has a great impact on second/foreign language achievement (cf. Gardner 2010: 186). This argument is supported by my findings as well. When asked why they do not like their English lessons, they claimed that the teacher was the most demotivating aspect.

For these reasons, teachers should be familiar with and apply a great variety of motivational strategies. There is a vast amount of literature concerning language classroom motivation and motivational strategies for learners. Some of the most important methods to motivate and help students' maintain can be found in Gardner (2010). Praise and encouragement, the creation of a supportive environment and the use of meaningful and relevant tasks are but some of important and worthwhile steps to take. An attractive course program that arouses students' curiosity is, of course, another factor that can increase students' motivation. One of the most important things to do is, in my opinion, to increase students' self-confidence in L2/FL learning. Students need to experience success and to realize that they themselves can change and control their L2/FL competence (cf. Gardner 2010: 183-187).

Furthermore, it is important to encourage boys and girls in the same manner. Numerous studies have found that girls are often favored over boys in language classes and that boys have traditionally been described as 'poor linguists'. Also, it has been found that girls receive more praise and encouragement than boys in the predominantly female-dominated field of language teaching. Teachers need to be aware of this and should invite colleagues to observe them in their lessons and give feedback concerning the treatment of their male and female students.

Another useful and worthwhile idea is to distribute questionnaires in order to gain information on what students really want and expect from a language course, how they perceive the rapport with the teacher and which material they would like to use. Evaluation sheets can be a valuable source of information for the teachers as well. They can receive information on the teaching material used, the teaching methods applied and students' preferences concerning course or language class design.

10. Bibliography

Ahmad, Khurshid. 1985. *Computers, language learning, and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ajzen, Icek. 1988. *Attitudes, Personality and Behaviour*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Aida, Y. 1994. "Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese." *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155-168.

Albarracin, Dolores; Wyer, Robert S. Jr. 2005a. "Belief Formation, Organization and Change: Cognitive and Motivational Influences". In Albarracin, Dolores, Johnson T. Blair, Zanna, Mark P. (eds.) 2005: *The handbook of attitudes*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum, 273-322.

Albarracin, Dolores, Zanna, Mark P., Johnson, Blair T., Kumcale, Tarken G. 2005b. "Attitudes: Introduction and Scope". In Albarracin, Dolores, Johnson Blair, Zanna, Mark P. (eds.) 2005. *The handbook of attitudes*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum, 3-20.

Arnett, Jeffrey J. 2002. "The psychology of globalization." *American Psychologist*, 57 (10), 774-83.

Au, S.Y. 1988. "A critical appraisal of Gardner's social psychological theory of second language learning." *Language Learning*, 38, 75-100.

Baker, Colin. 1992. *Attitudes and Language*. Clevedon, Philadelphia, Adelaide: Multilingual Matters.

Baker, Colin. 2006. *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Clevedon, Buffalo: Multilingual Matters.

Baker, Susan C.; MacIntyre, Peter D. 2000. "The effects of sex and immersion on communication and second language orientations." *Language Learning*, 50, 311-347.

Baker, Susan, C., MacIntyre, Peter, D. 2003. "The Role of Gender and Immersion in Communication and Second Language Orientations." In Dörnyei, Zoltan (ed.) *Attitudes, Orientations, and Motivation in Second Language Learning: Advances in Theory, Research, and Applications*. Language Learning Research Club, University of Michigan. Malden, USA, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, pp. 65-96.

Banaji, Mahzarin R.; Heiphetz, Larisa. „Attitudes“. In Fiske, Susan T.; Gilbert, Daniel T.; Gardner, Lindzey. (eds.) 2010. *Handbook of social psychology*. Vol. 1. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 353-393.

Bausch, Karl-Richard, Burwitz-Melzer, Eva, Königs, Frank G., and Krumm, Hans-Jürgen. (eds.) 2005. *Bildungsstandards für den Fremdsprachenunterricht auf dem Prüfstand*. Tübingen: Narr.

Beatty, Ken. 2010. *Teaching and Researching computer-assisted language learning*. Harlow, England, New York: Longman.

Berns, Margie, de Bot, Kees, and Hasebrink Uwe (eds.) 2007. *In the Presence of English: Media and European Youth*. New York: Springer.

Berns, Margie. 2009. "English as lingua franca and English in Europe." *World Englishes*, 28 (2), 192-199.

Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur. Allgemeines Bildungsziel. Online: <http://www.bmukk.gv.at/medienpool/11668/11668.pdf> (5.9.2011)

Chen, T-Y. & Chang, B. Y. 2004. "The relationship between foreign language anxiety and learning difficulty." *Foreign Language Annals*, 37, 279-289.

Chihara, I.; Oller, J.W. 1987. "Attitudes and attained proficiency in EFL. A sociolinguistic study of adult Japanese speakers." *Language Learning*, 28, 55-68.

Clark, A.; Trafford, J. 1995. "Boys into modern languages: An investigation of the discrepancy in attitudes and performance between boys and girls in modern languages." *Gender and Education*, 7, 315-325.

Clément, R.; Kruidenier, B. G. 1983. "Orientations on second language acquisition: The effects of ethnicity, milieu and their target language on their emergence." *Language Learning*, 33, 273-291.

Clément, R.; Baker, S.C.; MacIntyre, P.D. 2003. "Willingness to communicate in a Second Language: The Effects of Context, Norms and Vitality." *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 22 (2), 190-209.

Coetzee-Van Rooy, S. 2006. "Integrativeness: untenable for world Englishes learners?" *World Englishes*, 25, 437-450.

Cooper, J.B. and McGaugh, J.L. 1966. "Attitude and Related Concepts." In Jahoda, Marie; Warren, Neil. (eds.) *Attitudes: Selected Readings*. USA: Penguin Book Inc., 26-31.

Coyle, Do, Hood, Philip, Marsh, David. (eds.) 2010. *CLIL. Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge, UK, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Csizér, Kata; Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2005. "Language Learners' Motivational Profiles and Their Motivated Learning Behavior." *Language Learning*, 55 (4), 613-659.

Csizér, Kata; Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2005. "The Internal Structure of Language Learning Motivation and its relationship with Language Choice and Learning Effort." *The Modern Language Journal*, 89, 19-36.

Dalton-Puffer, C., Kaltenböck, G., Smit, U.; 1997. "Learner attitudes and L2 pronunciation in Austria." *World Englishes*, 16 (1), 115-128.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane. 2007. *Discourse in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane, Nikula, Tarja, Smit, Ute. (eds.) 2010. *Language use and language learning in CLIL classrooms*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub. Co.

Damböck, Christine. 2005. *Language attitudes of small Austrian children*. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.

Davies, Alun. 2006. "What do learners really want from their EFL course?" *ELT Journal*, 60, (1), 3-12.

Deci, E. Ryan, R. 1985. *Intrinsic Motivation and Self Determination in Human Behaviour*. New York: Plenum Press.

Deci, E. Ryan, R. (eds.) 2002. *Handbook of Self-Determination Research*. Rochester, NY: The University of Rochester Press.

Dolan, Simon L. 2011. *Coaching by values. A guide to success in the life of business and the business of life*. Bloomington: IUUniverse Inc.

Dörnyei, Z. 1994a. "Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom." *The Modern Language Journal* 78, (3), 273-284.

Dörnyei, Z. 1994b. "Understanding L2 Motivation: On with the Challenge!" *The Modern Language Journal* 78, (4), 515-527.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. 1998. "Motivation and second and foreign language learning." *Language Teaching*, 31, 117-135.

Dörnyei, Zoltán; Ottó, I. 1998. *Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. Working Papers in Applied Linguistics* (Thames Valley University, London), 4, 43-69.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2001a. *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Zoltán, & Clément, R. 2001. "Motivational characteristics of learning different target languages: Results of a nationwide survey." In Dörnyei, Zoltán & Schmidt R. (eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Centre, 399-432.

Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K. (2002). "Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey." *Applied Linguistics*, 23, 421-462.

Dörnyei, Zoltán (ed.) 2003a. "Attitudes, Orientations, and Motivations in Language Learning: Advances in Theory, Research and Application". In Dörnyei, Zoltán (ed.) *Attitudes, Orientations, and Motivation in Second Language Learning: Advances in Theory, Research, and Applications*. 2003. Language Learning Research Club, University of Michigan. Malden, USA, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 3-32.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2003b. *Questionnaires in second language research: construction, administration, and processing*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Zoltán; Skehan, Peter 2003c. Individual differences in second language learning. In Doughty, C. & Long, M.(eds) *The handbook of second language acquisition*, Oxford: Blackwell, 589-693.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2005. *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Zoltan, Csizér, Kata, Németh, Nóra. 2006. *Motivation, language attitudes and globalization: A Hungarian perspective*. Clevedon, Buffalo: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Zoltan. 2007. *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Zoltan; Ushioda, Ema. (eds.) 2009. *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Bristol [u.a.]: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Zoltan, Ushioda, Ema. 2011. *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow, England, New York: Longman.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. 2011. *Teaching and Researching Motivation. Applied Linguistics in Action Series*, Candin, N. Christopher, Hall, David R. (eds.).

Dushku, S. 1998. "English in Albania: Contact and convergence." *World Englishes*, 17 (3), 369-379.

Eagly, Alice H.; Chaiken, Shelly. 1993. *The Psychology of Attitudes*. Fort Worth, Texas: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Edwards, John. 1982. "Language attitudes and their implications among English speakers." In Ryan, Ellen Bouchard; Giles, Howard (eds.). *Attitudes towards language variation*. London: Edward Arnold, 20-33.

Edwards, John. 1999. "Refining our understanding of language attitudes." *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 18 (1), 101-110.

Ely, C. M. 1986. "An analysis of discomfort, risktaking, sociability, and motivation in the L2 classroom." *Language Learning*, 36 (1), 1-25.

Erling, Elizabeth, J. 2007. "Local identities, global connections: affinities to English among students at the Freie Universität Berlin." *World Englishes*, 26 (2), 111-130.

European Commission. 2006. "Eurobarometer: Europeans and their languages." http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_243_en.pdf. (5.9.2011)

Fasold, Ralph. 1984. *Sociolinguistics of society*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell Ltd.

Field, Andy P. *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. London: Sage, 2005.

Fishbein, Martin; Ajzen, Icek. 1975. *Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: an Introduction to Theory and Research*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

- Fishman, Joshua A; Agheyisi, Rebecca. 1970."Language attitude studies: A brief survey of methodological approaches." *Anthropological Linguistics*, 12, 137-157.
- Forgas, Joseph P.; Cooper, Joel; Crano, William D. (eds.) 2010. *The psychology of attitudes and attitude change*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Freudenthaler, Harald; Spinath, Birgit; Neubauer, Aljoscha C. 2008. "Predicting School Achievement in Boys and Girls." *European Journal of Personality*, 22, 231-245.
- Gagné, Marylène; Deci, Edward L. 2005. "Self-determination theory and work motivation." *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 26, 331-362.
- Gardner, Robert C & Lambert Wallace E. 1972. *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., Clément, R., Gliskman, L. 1976. "Second-language learning: A social psychological perspective." *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 32, 198-213.
- Gardner, Robert C. 1982. "Language attitudes and language learning". In Ryan, Ellen B. Giles Howard (eds.) *Attitudes Towards Language Variation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, Robert C. 1985. "Social Psychology and Second Language Learning. The Role of Attitudes and Motivation". In Giles, Howard (ed.) *The Social Psychology of Language 4*. London: Edward Arnold Publishing.
- Gardner, R.C., MacIntyre, P.D. 1993. "On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning." *Language Learning*, 43, 157-194.
- Gardner, Robert C. 2001. "Integrative motivation and second language acquisition." In Dörnyei, Zoltán & Schmidt R. (eds.) *Motivation and second language learning*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i Press, 1-20.
- Gardner, R.C. 2007. "Motivation and Second Language Acquisition." In: *Porta Linguarum* 8. http://www.ugr.es/~portalin/articulos/PL_numero8/1-R%20C%20%20GADNER.pdf (18.06. 2011)
- Gardner, Robert C. 2010. *Motivation and second language acquisition: the socio-educational model*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Garrett, Peter. 2010. *Attitudes to language*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Garza, T.J. 1991. "Evaluating the use of captioned video materials in advanced foreign language learning." *Foreign Language Annals*, 24, 239-258.
- Glikzman, L., Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C. 1982. "The role of the integrative motive on students' participation in the French classroom." *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 38, 625-647.

Gnutzmann, C. (ed.) 1999. *Teaching and learning English as a global language: native and non-native perspectives*. Tübingen: Stauffenberg Verlag.

Gnutzmann, Claus; Intemann, Frauke. 2008. "Introduction: The Globalisation of English. Language, Politics, and the English Language Classroom." In Gnutzmann, Claus, Intemann, Frauke (eds.) *The Globalisation of English and the English Language Classroom*. (2nd edition), Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag, 9-24.

Graddol, David. 2001. "The future of English as a European language." *The European Messenger* X/2, 47-55.

Graddol, David. 2006. *English Next: Why global English may mean the end of 'English as a Foreign Language'*. London: The English Company (UK) Ltd, British Council.

Graham, Sandra. 1994. "Classroom Motivation from an Attributional Perspective." In O'Neil, Harold F., Drillings, M. (eds.) *Motivation: Theory and Research*. Hillsdale, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates, 31-48.

Grau, Maike. 2009. "Worlds apart? English in German youth culture and educational settings." *World Englishes*, 28 (2), 160-174.

Gu, Mingyue. 2009. *The Discursive Construction of Second Language Learners' Motivation: A Multi-level Perspective*. Bern: Peter Lang.

Gubbins, Paul. Holt, Mike. (eds.) 2002. *Beyond Boundaries: Language and Identity in Contemporary Europe*. Clevedon, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Haarmann, H. 1989. *Symbolic values of foreign language use: from the Japanese case to a general sociolinguistic perspective*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Hasegawa, A. 2004. "Student demotivation in the foreign language classroom." *Takushoku Language Studies*, 107, 119-136.

Hashimoto, Y. 2002. "Motivation and Willingness to Communicate as Predictors of Reported L2 Use: the Japanese ESL context." *Second Language Studies*, 20 (2), 29-70.

Hebenstreit, Andrea. 1997. Language attitudes of Austrian pupils towards British and American English. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.

Hilgendorf, Suzanne K. 2007. "English in Germany: contact, spread and attitudes" *World Englishes*, 26 (2), 131-148.

Higgins, Edward Tory. (ed.) 1990. *Handbook of motivation and cognition*. New York, NY [u.a.]: Guilford.

Hoffmann, C. 2000. "The Spread of English and the Growth of Multilingualism with English in Europe" In Cenoz, J.; Jessner, U. (eds.) *English in Europe: The Acquisition of a Third Language*. Multilingual matters, 1-21.

Horwitz, E.K.; Horwitz, M.B.; Cope, J. 1986. "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety." *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132.

Hubenthal, W. 2004. "Older Russians' Immigrants' Experiences in Learning English: Motivation, Methods and Barriers." *Adult Basic Education*, 14 (2), 104-126.

Hyrkstedt, Irene; Kalaja, Paula. 1998. "Attitudes toward English and its functions in Finland. A discourse-analytic study." *World Englishes*, 17 (3), 345-357.

Holmes, Bryan; Gardner, John. 2006. *E-learning: concepts and practice*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Ikeno, O. 2002. "Motivating and demotivating factors in foreign language: A preliminary investigation." *Ehime University Journal of English Education Research*, 2, 1-19.

James, Allan R. 2000. "English as a European lingua franca: current realities and existing dichotomies. In Cenoz, Jasone; Jessner, Ulrike. (eds.) *English in Europe: The Acquisition of a Third Language*. UK: Multilingual Matters, pp. 22-38.

Jenkins, Jennifer. 2006. "Current perspectives on teaching world Englishes and English as a lingua franca." *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 40, pp. 157-181.

Jenkins, Jennifer. 2009a. "English as lingua franca: interpretations and attitudes." *World Englishes*, 28, (2), 200-207.

Jenkins, Jennifer. 2009b. *World Englishes: A resource book for students*. London, New York: Routledge.

Joseph, John E. 2010. "Identity". In Llamas, Carmen; Watt, Dominic. (eds.) *Language and Identities*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 9-17.

Katz, D., Stotland, E.; 1959. "A preliminary statement of a theory of attitude structure and change." In Koch, S. (ed.) *Psychology: study of a science*. Vol. 3. New York: McGraw-Hill, p. 423-475.

Katz, D. 1960. "The functional approach to the study of attitude." *Pub. Opin. Quart.* 24, 163-204.

Kilickaya, Ferit. 2004. Authentic Materials and Cultural Content in EFL Classrooms. *The Internet TESL Journal*. <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Kilickaya-AuthenticMaterial.html> (15.12.2011).

Kline, Matthew W. 2006. *The relationship between motivational variables, anxiety, exposure to English, and language learning strategies among adult ESL learners*. University of Southern California: ProQuest.

Knapp, Karlfried; Seidlhofer, Barbara. (eds.) 2007. *Handbook of applied linguistics. Communication competence, language and communication problems, practical solutions*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Knollmayr, Beate. 2003. *Attitudes towards English as an international language*. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.

Kobayashi, Y. 2002. "The role of gender in foreign language learning attitudes: Japanese female students' attitudes towards English learning." *Gender and Education*, 14 (2), 181-197.

Kormos, Judith; Csisér Kata. 2008. "Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: attitudes, selves, and motivated learning behaviour." *Language Learning*, 58 (2), 327-355.

Kramarae, Cherie. 1982. "Gender: How she speaks." In Ryan, Ellen B.; Giles Howard (eds.) *Attitudes Towards Language Variation*. London: Edward Arnold, 84-98.

Lamb, M. 2004. "Integrative motivation in a globalizing world." *System*, 32, 3-19.

Lambert, W., Hodgson, R., Gardner, R., Fillenbaum, S.; 1960. „Evaluational reactions to spoken languages." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 60, 44-51.

Lasagabaster, D. 2006. „Attitudes/Einstellungen.“ In Ulrich, Ammon; Norbert, Dittmar; Mattheier, Klaus J. Trudgill, Peter. *Sociolinguistics/Soziolinguistik. An International Handbook of the Science of Language and Society/Ein internationales Handbuch zur Wissenschaft von Sprache und Gesellschaft*. Berlin [u.a.]: de Gruyter.

Lightbown, P. M., Spada, N. 2001. "Factors affecting second language learning." In Candlin, C., Mercer, N. *English Language Teaching in its social context*. London, New York: Routledge, 28-43.

Lindzey, Gardner; Aronson, E. (eds.) 1992. *The handbook of social psychology*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

Little, David. 1998. *Technologies, media and foreign language learning*. Dublin: Authentik.

Llamas, Carmen; Watt, Dominic. (eds.) 2009. *Language and identities*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Ladegaard, Hans, J. 2000. "Language attitudes and sociolinguistic behaviour: Exploring attitude-behaviour relations in language." In *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 4 (2), 214-233.

MacIntyre, Peter. D; Gardner, Robert C. 1991. „Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of the literature." *Language Learning*, 41, 85-117.

MacIntyre, P.D.; Clément, R.; Dörnyei, Z.; Noels, K.A. 1998. "Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation." *The Modern Language Journal*, 82, 545-562.

MacIntyre, Peter D; Baker, Susan, C; Clément, Richard; Donovan, Leslie A. 2002. "Sex and Age Effects on Willingness to Communicate, Anxiety, Perceived Competence, and L2 Motivation Among Junior High School French Immersion Students." *Language Learning*, 53 (3), 537-564.

MacIntyre, P.D., Mackinnon, S. P., Clément, R.; 2009. "The Baby, the Bathwater, and the Future of Language Learning Motivation Research." In Dörnyei, Z., Ushioda, E.; Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self. Bristol [u.a.]: Multilingual Matters, 43-65.

- MacWilliam, I. 1986. "Video and language comprehension." *ELT Journal*, 40/42, 131-135.
- Markus, H.R.; Nurius, P. 1986. „Possible Selves.“ *American Psychologist*, 41, 954-969.
- Masgoret Anne-Marie; Gardner, Robert C. "Attitudes, Motivation and Second Language Learning: A Meta-Analysis of Studies Conducted by Gardner and Associates". In: Dörnyei, Zoltan (ed.) 2003a. *Attitudes, Orientations, and Motivation in Second Language Learning: Advances in Theory, Research and Applications*. 2003. Language Learning Research Club, University of Michigan. Malden, USA, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 167-210.
- McClelland, N. (2000). "Goal orientations in Japanese college students learning EFL." In Cornwell, S., Robinson, P. (eds.) *Individual differences in foreign language learning: Effects of aptitude, intelligence, and motivation*. Tokyo: Aoyama Gakuin University, 99-115.
- McGuire, William J. 1969. "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude change." In Lindzey, G.; Aronson, E. (eds.) *Handbook of social psychology*. Vol. 3. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 136-314.
- McGuire, William J. 1985. "Attitude and Attitude Change." In Lindzey, G.; Aronson, E. (eds.) *Handbook of social psychology*. Vol. 2. New York: Random House, 233-346.
- McKenzie, Robert M. 2010. *The social psychology of English as a global language: attitudes, awareness and identity in the Japanese context*. Dordrecht: Springer.
- Meskill, C. 1998. "Commercial television and the limited English proficient child: Implications for naturalistic and academic linguistic development. In Swan, K.; Muffaletto, R.; Meskill, C.; Steven, D. (eds.) *Social learning from broadcast television*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press, 61-85.
- Morgan, C. 1993. "Attitude change and foreign language culture learning." *Language Teaching*, 26 (2), 63-75.
- Oppenheim, B. 1982. "An exercise in attitude measurement". In G.M. Breakwell, H. Foot & R. Gilmour (eds.) *Social Psychology: A Practical Manual*. London: Macmillan Press.
- Osgood, C. E.; Suci, G. J.; Tannenbaum, P. H. 1957. *The measurement of meaning*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Oskamp, S. 1991. *Attitudes and opinions*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Pavlenko, A. "Poststructuralist Approaches to the Study of Social Factors in Second Language Learning and Use." In Cook, Vivian J. (ed.) 2002. *Portraits of the L2 user*. Clevedon, Buffalo: Multilingual Matters, 275-303.
- Pennycook, A. 1994. *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Harlow, England: Longman.
- Phillipson, R. 1992. *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Plot, Claudia. 2008. *Austrian attitudes towards Australian English*. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.

- Powell, R.C. 1979. "Sex Differences in Language Learning: A Review of the Evidence." *Audio-Visual Language Journal*, 17, 19-24.
- Pulcini, V. 1997. "Attitudes toward the spread of English in Italy." *World Englishes*, 16 (1), 77-85.
- Ritchie, W.C.; Bhatia, T.K. 2009. "Second Language Acquisition: Research and Application in the Information Age." In Ritchie, W.C.; Bhatia, T.K. *The new handbook of second language acquisition*. Bingley: Emerald, 545-561.
- Rodriguez, M., Abreu, O. 2003. "The stability of general foreign language classroom anxiety across English and French." *Modern Language Journal*, 87, 365-374.
- Rokeach, M. 1973. *The Nature of Human Values*. New York: Free Press.
- Rosenberg, M. J. 1960. An Analysis of Affective-Cognitive Consistency. In M. J. Rosenberg (ed.) *Attitude Organization and Change*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Ryan, Ellen Bouchard; Giles, Howard. (eds.) 1982. *Attitudes towards language variation. Social and applied contexts*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Sakai, Hideki; Kikuchi, Keita. 2009. "An analysis of demotivators in the EFL classroom." *System* 37, 57-69.
- Saville-Troike, Muriel. 2006. *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schauer, Elisabeth. 2009. *Austrian and Spanish learners' motivation(s) to communicate in English*. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.
- Schmied, Josef J. 1991. *English in Africa: an introduction*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2007. "Common property: English as a lingua franca in Europe". In Cummins, Jim (ed.) *International handbook of English language teaching*. Dordrecht: Springer, 137-153.
- Shaaban, K. A.; Ghaith, G. 2000. "Student motivation to learn English as a foreign language." *Foreign Language Annals*, 33, 632-644.
- Smit, Ute. 1996. *A New English for a New South Africa? Language Attitudes, Language Planning and Education*. Austrian studies in English, 83. Vienna: Braumüller.
- Soukup, Barbara. 2009. Dialect use as interaction strategy. A sociolinguistic study of contextualization, speech perception, and language attitudes in Austria. Markus, Manfred, Schendl, Herbert, Wolf, Werner (eds.) *Austrian studies in English*, 98, Vienna: Braunmüller.
- Sparks, R., Ganschow, L., Patton, J., Artzer, M., Siebenhar, D., Plageman, M. 1997. "Prediction of foreign language proficiency." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89, 549-561.

Spolsky, B. 1969. "Attitudinal aspects of second language learning." *Language Learning*, 19, 271-83.

Statistik Austria. „Bildung in Zahlen 2009/10. Schlüsselindikatoren und Analysen.“ Bundesanstalt Statistik Austria, Vienna. Online:
http://www.statistik.at/web_de/dynamic/services/publikationen/5/publdetail?id=5&listid=5&detail=461bildung_in_zahlen_200910_schlüsselindikatoren_und_analysen.pdf (2.9.2011)

Stern, Hans H. 1991. *Fundamental concepts of language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Svara, Christine. 2009. *English reconsidered: Investigating language attitudes of Austrian high school and vocational college students*. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.

Swain, M. 1998. "Focus on form through conscious reflection." In Doughty, C. Williams, J. *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 64-82.

Thomas, Linda; Wareing, Shan. 1999. *Language, Society and Power*. An Introduction. London, New York: Routledge.

Truchot, C. 1997. "The spread of English: from France to a more general perspective." *World Englishes*, 16 (1), 65-76.

Tsuchiya, M. 2006. "Factors in demotivation of lower proficiency English learners at college." *The Kyushu Academic Society of English Language Education (KASELE)*, 34, 87-96.

Tsui, A., Bunton, D. 2000. "The discourse and attitude of English teachers in Hong Kong." *World Englishes*, 19 (3), 287-304.

Vanderplank, R. 1999. "Global medium – global resource? Perspectives and paradoxes in using authentic broadcast material for teaching and learning." In Gnutzmann, C. (ed.) *Teaching and learning English as a global language: Native and non-native perspectives*. Tübingen: Stauffenburg Verlag, 259-272.

Viereck, Wolfgang. 1996. "English in Europe: its Nativization and use as a lingua franca, with special reference to German-speaking countries." In Hartmann, R.R. *The English language in Europe*. Oxford: Intellect Ltd., 16-23.

Weber, Ann L. 1992. *Social psychology*. New York: Harper Collins Publ.

Weiner, B. 1986. *An attributional theory of motivation and emotion*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Wicker, A.W. 1969. "Attitudes vs. Actions: The relationship of verbal and overt behavioral responses to attitude objects." *Journal of Social Issues*, 25 (4), 41-78.

Worrall, N.; Tsarna, H. 1987. "Teachers' reported practices towards girls and boys in science and languages." *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 57, 300-312.

Wöckinger, Katharina. 2010. *Attitudes of Austrian teenagers towards English: social and cultural parameters*. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.

Wright, M. 1999. "Influences on learner attitudes towards foreign language and culture." *Educational Research*, 41, 197-208.

Yashima, T. 2002. "Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese ELF context." *Modern Language Journal*, 86, 54-66.

Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L., Shimizu, K.; 2004. "The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication." *Language Learning*, 54, 119-152.

Yashima, T. 2009. "International Posture and the Ideal L2 Self in the Japanese EFL Context." In Dörnyei, Z., Ushioda, Ema. (eds.) *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Bristol [u.a.]: Multilingual Matters, 144-163.

Zeiss, Nadine. 2010. *English as a European lingua franca: changing attitudes in an inter-connected world*. Diploma thesis, University of Vienna.

11. Appendix

11.1 Abstract (English)

The present study investigates English language attitudes of Austrian grade 12/13 students. The study was carried out at two fashion colleges, two high schools and a vocational college in Vienna and its environs. The main objective of this study was to find out students' beliefs concerning English with relation to their professional future and their motivation to learn and communicate in it. Furthermore, the survey should shed light on students' English use outside the classroom.

The data was obtained from a specifically designed questionnaire comprising questions concerning five areas: (1) students' beliefs concerning English with relation to their professional future, (2) students' perceptions towards EFL, (3) students' feelings concerning English language preparation, (4) their opinions towards the usage of new media in EFL, and (5) English language learning motivation and willingness to communicate. The participants were students aged 17-21 (N=173). The data was analyzed according to school type and gender.

In general, all three student groups hold favorable attitudes towards English. More precisely, vocational college students have a stronger instrumental orientation than high school students. Furthermore, the majority of students hold positive attitudes towards EFL at school. As regards English language preparation, fashion college students feel better prepared than their peers. Besides, the overall majority of students are highly motivated to learn English and to use it outside the classroom. The rapport with the teacher and boring, not challenging classes are perceived as the most demotivating factors. As far as English use in students' leisure time is concerned, most of the students frequently use it on vacation, in connection with various media (books, magazines, Internet, DVDs), and for communicating with friends from abroad. Further analysis suggests that girls' motivational intensity to learn English is stronger than of their male counterparts. Besides, they express more willingness to communicate and are more enthusiastic about using English in their spare time.

Overall, it could be found that the students involved in the study perceive English as an important means to communicate internationally. They are well aware of the status of English as a lingua franca. It has become apparent that young people nowadays consider both the utilitarian value and the ability to communicate internationally desirable.

11.2 Zusammenfassung (German)

In der vorliegenden Diplomarbeit wird die Einstellung von Wiener AHS- und BHS-MaturantInnen gegenüber der englischen Sprache untersucht. Ziel dieser Arbeit ist es zu erheben, welche Spracheinstellung die MaturantInnen haben und wie hoch ihre Lernmotivation ist. Der Fokus wird hierbei auf die Auffassung und die Empfindungen der MaturantInnen bezüglich der Bedeutung von Englisch hinsichtlich ihrer beruflichen Zukunft gelegt. Ein weiterer Schwerpunkt dieser Studie ist die Erforschung ihrer Kommunikationsbereitschaft in der Fremdsprache. Zusätzlich wird erhoben, in welchem Ausmaß Neue Medien im Sprachunterricht verwendet werden und welche Haltung die SchülerInnen dazu einnehmen. Außerdem werden die TeilnehmerInnen befragt, wann sie Englisch in ihrer Freizeit verwenden.

Zahlreiche Studien belegen, dass eine positive Einstellung gegenüber der Fremdsprache sowie ein hohes Maß an Motivation den Sprachlernprozess fördern. Daher ist es für WissenschaftlerInnen, LehrerInnen und GestalterInnen der Lehrpläne von großer Wichtigkeit, zu wissen, welche Faktoren SchülerInnen motivieren und welche sie demotivieren, zum einen, um die Komplexität von Einstellung und Lernmotivation besser zu verstehen, und zum anderen, um einer Demotivation der SchülerInnen im Unterricht entgegenzuwirken.

Im Zuge dieser Arbeit wurde eine Umfrage an drei Berufsbildenden Höheren Schulen und zwei Allgemeinbildenden Höheren Schulen durchgeführt. Insgesamt nahmen 177 SchülerInnen daran teil. Die Ergebnisse wurden anhand der Kategorien Schultyp und Geschlecht analysiert und miteinander verglichen.

Im Allgemeinen zeigen die Daten, dass die MaturantInnen eine positive Einstellung gegenüber der englischen Sprache und dem Englischlernen haben. Einige Unterschiede ergaben sich zwischen den Schultypen und den Geschlechtern.

Aus der Studie geht hervor, dass BHS-MaturantInnen eine höhere instrumentelle Orientierung aufweisen als AHS-MaturantInnen. Im Hinblick auf Lernmotivation, kann man feststellen dass die Lernintensität bei den weiblichen Teilnehmern höher ist als bei den männlichen Teilnehmern. Ein weiteres Ergebnis ist, dass die SchülerInnen eine durchwegs positive Einstellung gegenüber der Verwendung von Neuen Medien im Englischunterricht haben. Was die Kommunikationsbereitschaft anbelangt, kann man sagen, dass die weiblichen Teilnehmer eine höhere Bereitschaft aufweisen als ihre männlichen Kollegen.

In ihrer Freizeit verwenden die MaturantInnen Englisch am häufigsten beim Reisen, im Zusammenhang mit verschiedensten Medien und um mit Freunden im Ausland zu kommunizieren.

Meine Gedanken über Englisch im Zusammenhang mit meiner beruflichen Zukunft

Ich bitte dich, die folgenden Fragen über deine persönliche Einstellung zur englischen Sprache zu beantworten. Diese Umfrage wird im Rahmen meiner Diplomarbeit an verschiedenen Schulen durchgeführt. Der Fragebogen ist anonym und die Ergebnisse werden vertraulich behandelt. Du kannst daher ganz offen und ehrlich antworten.

Zum Ausfüllen:

Bei den meisten Fragen solltest du in eines der vier Kästchen ein Kreuz (x) eintragen.

Beispiel:

		Trifft völlig zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft wenig zu	Trifft überhaupt nicht zu
	Der Winter ist für mich die schönste Zeit des Jahres.			x	

Bei manchen Aussagen gibt es zusätzlich offene Fragen, wo ich dich bitte, deine Antwort schriftlich zu begründen.

I)

		Trifft völlig zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft wenig zu	Trifft überhaupt nicht zu
1	Engischlernen ist wichtig für meine berufliche Zukunft.				
2	Sehr gute Englischkenntnisse verbessern meine Jobaussichten immens.				

2a. Bitte begründe deine Antwort zu Frage Nr. 2!

3	Ich bin davon überzeugt, dass in meiner beruflichen Zukunft die Kommunikation mit meinen Kunden (Partner, Auftraggeber, etc.) zu einem großen Teil auf Englisch stattfinden wird.				
4	Herausragende Englischkenntnisse haben meiner Meinung nach keinen Einfluss auf meine Jobaussichten.				
5	Ich glaube, dass in meiner beruflichen Zukunft andere Fremdsprachen wichtiger sein werden als Englisch.				

		Trifft völlig zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft wenig zu	Trifft überhaupt nicht zu
6	Ich denke, dass ich in meinem zukünftigen Beruf viel Alltagsenglisch verwenden werde.				
7	Ich denke, dass ich in meinem zukünftigen Beruf vor allem Fachvokabular brauchen werde.				

7a. Welches Englisch wirst du deiner Meinung nach in deinem zukünftigen Beruf noch brauchen?

		Trifft völlig zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft wenig zu	Trifft überhaupt nicht zu
8	Ich glaube, dass ich Englisch in meinem künftigen Beruf nur wenig brauchen werde.				

8a. Bitte begründe deine Antwort zu Frage 8!

8b. Falls Nr. 8 als zutreffend bezeichnet wird: Welche Sprachen – außer Englisch – wirst du deiner Meinung nach in deiner beruflichen Zukunft brauchen?

II)

		Trifft völlig zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft wenig zu	Trifft überhaupt nicht zu
1	In unserer Schule wird viel Wert auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht gelegt.				
2	Um uns auf zukünftige (mögliche) Berufe vorzubereiten, behandeln wir im Englischunterricht berufsbezogene Themen (z.B.: technische Ausdrücke, Computersprache, etc., Terminologie für die Modeindustrie; usw.)				
3	Ich finde, dass meine Schule praxisbezogenen Sprachunterricht bietet.				
4	Andere Fächer sind in meiner Schule wichtiger als Englisch.				
5	In meiner Schule wird Englisch auch in anderen Unterrichtsfächern verwendet.				

		Trifft völlig zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft wenig zu	Trifft überhaupt nicht zu
5 a	Falls Frage Nr. 5 zutreffend: Ich finde, dass ich durch diesen Unterricht profitiere.				
6	Das Angebot an Englischstunden in meiner Schule ist ausreichend, um mich auf meinen künftigen Beruf vorzubereiten.				
7	In meiner Schule lerne ich Englisch auch durch den Kontakt mit FremdsprachenassistentInnen (native speaker).				
8	In meiner Schule gibt es am Nachmittag ein zusätzliches Erweiterungsangebot für Englisch (English Bookclub, English Theater, English Conversation, etc.)				

III)

		Trifft völlig zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft wenig zu	Trifft überhaupt nicht zu
1	Ich möchte in meinem zukünftigen Beruf eher wenig Englisch verwenden.				
2	Ich fühle mich fähig, in einem Beruf zu arbeiten, wo ich größtenteils auf Englisch arbeiten bzw. kommunizieren müsste.				
3	Ich würde einen Beruf, wo ein Großteil der Kommunikation auf Englisch stattfindet, bevorzugen.				
4	Um in einer Firma zu arbeiten, die viele englischsprachige Kunden bzw. Partner hat, müsste ich mich noch weiterbilden (zB.: durch zusätzliche Sprachkurse).				
5	In einer rein englischsprachigen Jobsituation würde ich mich eher wenig wohl fühlen.				
6	Ich fühle mich durch meinen Englischunterricht gut auf meinen zukünftigen Beruf (je nach Schwerpunkt der Schule) vorbereitet.				

6a. Bitte begründe deine Meinung zu Frage 6!

IV)

1. Welche „Neuen Medien“ (z.B.: Internet, Internetplattformen, Sprachsoftware, Videos) werden in deiner Schule im Sprachunterricht verwendet?

2. Ich bekomme den Auftrag, im Internet Informationen über Themen zu suchen, die wir im Englischunterricht durchführen.

- ☐ häufig
- ☐ ab und zu
- ☐ eher wenig
- ☐ nie

3. Im Rahmen des Englischunterrichts lesen wir englische Zeitungsartikel im Internet.

- ☐ häufig
- ☐ ab und zu
- ☐ eher wenig
- ☐ nie

4. Im Rahmen des Englischunterrichts verwenden wir die unten angeführten (oder einige der unten angeführten) Programme bzw. Plattformen, um miteinander zu kommunizieren und diskutieren (mehrere Antworten möglich).

- ☐ Blogs
- ☐ Online-Diskussionsforen
- ☐ Chatprogramme (z.B.: Skype, MSN, ICQ)
- ☐ E-learning Plattformen (z.B.: Moodle, Fronter, schuleigene Plattformen)

5. Mir gefällt es, verschiedenste Medien im Rahmen des Englischunterrichts zu benutzen.

- ☐ Trifft völlig zu
- ☐ Trifft eher zu
- ☐ Trifft wenig zu
- ☐ Trifft überhaupt nicht zu

5a. Warum?/Warum nicht?

6. Im Hinblick auf meine berufliche Zukunft empfinde ich es als sehr nützlich, neue Medien im Englischunterricht zu verwenden.

- ☐ Trifft völlig zu
- ☐ Trifft eher zu
- ☐ Trifft wenig zu
- ☐ Trifft überhaupt nicht zu

6a. Warum?/Warum nicht?

V)

1. Wenn ich noch einmal in der ersten Klasse wäre und auswählen könnte, ob ich Englischunterricht habe oder nicht, würde ich

- ☐ Englisch auf alle Fälle wählen.
- ☐ Englisch eher wählen.
- ☐ Englisch eher nicht wählen.
- ☐ Englisch nicht wählen.

2. Im Vergleich mit anderen Schulfächern mag ich Englisch

- ☐ am meisten.
- ☐ mehr als andere Unterrichtsfächer.
- ☐ weniger als andere Unterrichtsfächer.
- ☐ am wenigsten.

2a. Warum?/Warum nicht?

3. Wenn Englisch sprechende Personen sich in meiner näheren Umgebung/meinem näheren Umkreis befinden würden, würde ich

- ☐ so oft wie möglich mit ihnen Englisch sprechen.
- ☐ häufig mit ihnen Englisch sprechen.
- ☐ gelegentlich mit ihnen Englisch sprechen.
- ☐ nie mit ihnen Englisch sprechen.

3a. Wenn nie, warum nicht?

4. Wenn ich die Möglichkeit hätte, Filme/Serien auf Englisch zu sehen, würde ich

- ☐ sie so oft wie möglich nutzen.
- ☐ sie häufig nutzen.
- ☐ sie gelegentlich nutzen.
- ☐ sie gar nicht nutzen.

5. Ich lese Bücher/Zeitschriften wenn möglich lieber auf Englisch.

- ☐ Trifft sicher zu
- ☐ Trifft häufig zu

- ☐ Trifft eher zu
- ☐ Trifft nicht zu

6. Englisch macht mir Spaß.

- ☐ Trifft sicher zu
- ☐ Trifft häufig zu
- ☐ Trifft eher zu
- ☐ Trifft nicht zu

6a. Warum?/Warum nicht?

7. Ich mag es, mich mit anderen Leuten auf Englisch unterhalten zu können.

- ☐ Trifft sicher zu
- ☐ Trifft häufig zu
- ☐ Trifft eher zu
- ☐ Trifft nicht zu

7a. Warum?/Warum nicht?

Persönliche Information:

Geschlecht:

☐ weiblich ☐ männlich

Schule: _____

Alter: _____

Warst du mit der Schule schon einmal im englischsprachigen Ausland?

☐ ja ☐ nein

Falls ja, wo und in welchem Zusammenhang?

Meine Muttersprache/n ist/sind _____

Andere Sprachen, in denen ich mich verständigen kann:

Wo und wann verwendest du Englisch außerhalb des Unterrichts?

Vielen Dank für deine Mitarbeit! ☺

Bettina Kranawetter

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL DATA

Name: Bettina Kranawetter
Date of Birth: February 12, 1986
Place of Birth: Neunkirchen, Lower Austria
Nationality: Austrian
Email Address: bettina.86@gmx.at

EDUCATION

2000-2005 Höhere Städtische Lehranstalt für wirtschaftliche Berufe, Wr.
Neustadt, Lower Austria
Since October 2005 English and Slavic studies at the University of Vienna
February – May 2009 study abroad in Kaliningrad, Russia

WORKING EXPERIENCE

08/2006, 08/2007,
and 03/2008 – 12/2008 Employment at “PayLife Bank GmbH” (office assistant)
09/2008 – 02/2011 Employment at “Lernquadrat”, Stockerau, Hollabrunn,
Mistelbach, Lower Austria
Since 2005 Private tuition
Since 2011 English teacher at Infinum Privatschule
Since 2011 English teacher for courses for adults, VHS Ottakring, Vienna

LANGUAGES

German mother tongue
English excellent written and oral skills
Russian good knowledge of the language
French basic knowledge