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Abstract

This thesis discusses the use of English among Austrian adolescents and their reasons for using English outside the classroom. There are various contemporary social and cultural reasons for adolescents to use English in their free time, such as social networking and video gaming. The purpose of this empirical study is to investigate whether contemporary Austrian adolescents acquire out-of-class English, and to what extent this use can be termed a *social* use of English. 169 Viennese and Lower Austrian pupils, all in their penultimate school year, participated in the survey. They were asked to complete a detailed questionnaire about their attitudes towards English, where they encounter English in their lives outside of school, and in what kinds of areas (including media, popular culture, travel etc.). The results indicate that Austrian adolescents have extensive contact with English, be it through various free-time activities or through media and the Internet. Indeed, their extracurricular use of English aims in specific areas to function socially (i.e. English-language interactions with other players during online-multiplayer computer games). My analysis also went deeper by including a comparative perspective on adolescents in the urban region of Vienna versus rural adolescents of Lower Austria. The contrastive analysis of urban and rural learners shows that learners from Vienna have slightly more intense contact with English than learners from rural areas of Lower Austria.

Kurzfassung

Die vorliegende Diplomarbeit befasst sich mit dem außerschulischen Gebrauch von Englisch bei Jugendlichen in Österreich. Heutzutage gibt es zahlreiche soziale und kulturelle Gründe für junge Menschen Englisch außerhalb der Schule zu verwenden, zum Beispiel beim Netzwerken im Internet oder während eines Videospiels. Der Fokus meiner Arbeit lag darin, heraus zu finden, zu welchem Ausmaß gegenwärtige Jugendliche in Österreich außerschulisches Englisch gebrauchen, und ob dieser Gebrauch auch einen sozialen Aspekt beinhaltet. Deshalb erstellte ich eine empirische Studie mit Hilfe einer Umfrage. Insgesamt nahmen 169 SchülerInnen aus Wien und Niederösterreich zwischen 16 und 18 Jahren an dieser Umfrage teil. Die SchülerInnen wurden gebeten einen Fragebogen auszufüllen, welcher Informationen über ihre Einstellungen zu Englisch als Sprache erfasste, sowie Auskünfte darüber einholte, wo und in welchem Ausmaß Österreichs Jugendliche in ihrer Freizeit englische Ausdrücke verwenden. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass junge Menschen in Österreich in vielerlei Hinsicht mit Englisch außerhalb der Schule konfrontiert sind. Hervorzuheben sind hier Freizeitaktivitäten, Medien und das Internet. Auch für soziale Zwecke wird die englische Sprache verwendet, z.B.: während eines Online-Multiplayer Computerspiels mit Gleichgesinnten. Die empirische Studie über den außerschulischen Gebrauch von Englisch beinhaltet auch eine vergleichbare Sichtweise auf Jugendliche aus der Stadt gegenüber Jugendlichen vom Land. Die Ergebnisse dieser Kontrastanalyse haben gezeigt, dass SchülerInnen aus Wien einen intensiveren Kontakt zu Englisch außerhalb der Schule haben als SchülerInnen aus Niederösterreich.

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1. Introduction

English is a world language and has made a considerable impact in contemporary Europe: it is used here as the most common communication tool between citizens with different mother tongues, and functions as a lingua franca to a greater extent than anywhere else in the world (Berns 2007: 2). In an age of globalization, English has also established itself as a culturally dominant language. There are rapidly growing cultural and social reasons for young people to use English outside from the classroom: social media, Internet, popular culture. Young people are stereotypically seen as the generation not only most in touch with popular culture, new technologies and what is fashionable or 'cool', but also the one most influenced by these things.

Demographic studies into youth and the use of English outside school have already been made in certain European countries. In "Worlds apart? English in German youth cultures and in educational settings" (2009), Maike Grau investigated German adolescents and their English acquisition inside and outside the classroom. A similar 2007 study of Finnish adolescents was conducted by Sirpa Leppänen, who discusses the different ways in which young people are exposed to English while using new media, by focusing primarily on code-switching between their L1 and English (in "Youth language in media contexts: insights into the functions of English in Finland). The largest European study of youth contact with English to date was undertaken in 2007 by Margie Berns, Kees de Bot and Uwe Hasebrink ("In the Presence of English: Media and European Youth"). The findings of this study confirmed a deep-rooted presence of English among the participants, which is particularly conspicuous in three areas: the media environment, personal networks, and intercultural communication (2007: 112).

The aim of my empirical study is to investigate whether contemporary Austrian adolescents acquire English outside of the pedagogical environment, and to what extent their use of English in daily life can be deemed a *social* use of English. I will focus on Austrian pupils in their penultimate school year before

taking the school leaving-examination, as young people at this age have a little more economic independence and are therefore more active consumers of popular culture. Furthermore, they have already achieved good English skills and are more career-orientated than younger pupils. My study is more wide-ranging in scope than research into language acquisition in a pedagogical context, and intersects with a number of other themes including new media, technology, popular culture, and the spread of English in non-native countries.

My thesis is broadly divided into the two traditional parts: a review of prior research and the theoretical background relevant to my topic; and the methodology, analysis and findings of my own empirical study. Here I will specify and give some brief detail on the chapters contained in these two parts, in order to provide an overview.

Chapter 2 begins with the background to the evolution of English as a modern lingua franca, focusing on important linguistic, sociocultural and political stages in the expansion of the language from the 5th century up to the 20th century. Chapter 3 examines English in the current context of globalisation, looking at issues including trade and commerce, globalised labour markets, mass media, and the Internet revolution. Examples of English's expanded functions within globalised society are given in chapter 4, which features evidence gathered on the status of English as the most commonly taught language in Europe, and as an international language for science and technology. In chapter 5 I will review the literature devoted to adolescents' use of English, which I have grouped into three areas: interactivity of Internet platforms including social networks and video games; the cultural construction of youth identities; and anglicisms common to youth, consumer and popular cultures. Moreover, an overview of previous studies which focus on young people's extracurricular use of English will be provided in this section.

In the second part of the thesis I begin with issues of methodology, outlining my interest in the area as well as the research question and hypotheses formulated for my study. Chapter 6 then deals with my methodological approach to data

collection. The findings gathered in my survey will be presented, discussed and summarised in chapters 7 & 8. Here I will also review the findings in the context of my research question, and relate my analysis to that of similar surveys cited in the theoretical part of my thesis (particularly Berns, Grau and Leppänen). In chapter 9 I will draw some general conclusions as well as suggest ideas for future research.

Theoretical Part

2. English as modern lingua franca

Modern global society has established English as a normative means of communication between diverse nations and cultures. The 2013 SIL Ethnologue list shows that approximately 1.5 billion people in the world speak English either as L1, L2, or a foreign language, resulting in the leading status of English as the most frequently used language in the world.¹ This is despite English not being the world's most widely spoken language in terms of total L1 speakers: English has only the third largest number of native speakers, after Mandarin and Spanish. It is however English and not Mandarin that makes its presence more deeply felt across the world, and I will later consider the role of globalisation in explaining why it is English that came to be dominant as a worldwide lingua franca. More non-native speakers using English for communication also has linguistic implications that are closely aligned with the popularity of English as an international language: more functions are added to English to the extent that English as a Lingua Franca, or ELF, has effectively become a “mode of communication in its own right” (Facchinetti, Crystal & Seidlhofer 2010: 10).

We might therefore begin by looking at the origins of lingua francas as a commonly recognised concept. Todd (1990: 21) locates the first cross-cultural development of a lingua franca in a Portuguese pidgin language, Sabir, which evolved due to maritime trade in the southern and eastern Mediterranean and became the common mode of communication with sailors and tradespersons in West Africa from approximately the 15th up to the 19th century (1990: 21). Sabir was based on Romance languages but also included elements from non-Romance tongues such as Arabic, Turkish, Persian and Greek (Knapp and Meierkord 2002: 9). Lingua francas are, however, not limited to pidgins and creoles, and have been used at earlier stages of human history; languages such as Portuguese, Latin or Sanskrit have also functioned as lingua francas

¹ Data collected from the 2013 SIL (Summer Institute of Linguistics) Ethnologue list (<https://www.ethnologue.com/statistics/size> 15 January 2014)

(Knapp and Meierkord 2002, Seidlhofer 2011). In contemporary usage, the term *lingua franca* describes a language that is mutually recognised as a common means of verbal communication by interlocutors whose mother tongues are different (Berns 2007: 5). This is to say that interaction takes place between at least two non-native speakers who do not share the same mother tongue, or between at least one non-native speaker and a native speaker (Motschenbacher 2013: 20). A stereotypical example of ELF in modern-day Europe involves interaction between tourists of different European nationalities who do not share a mutually intelligible mother tongue. Mullany & Stockwell (2010: 41) tell this familiar story in a revealing way by observing that the use of code-switching in such interactions has a similar normative status to the use of English itself: in a genuine interaction the authors watched unfold in real time, a group of Spanish tourists asked a Czech waiter for directions to Prague's Charles Bridge, selecting English as the language most likely to facilitate communication. Finding or guessing the appropriate English proper noun for the Czech 'Karlův most' was not a priority, however, and the request was heard as "Excuse me where is Carlos Bridge" (which the waiter did not need clarifying and was immediately able to respond to with the necessary directions) (Mullany & Stockwell 2010: 41). As Mullany & Stockwell (2010: 41) note:

In the tourist's initial utterance one lexical item, the proper noun 'Carlos' from her native language, was still present. It is clear from the waiter's response that this 'splicing' together of language varieties [...] had not hampered his understanding – the conversation was completed with all relevant information disseminated.

Mullany & Stockwell invoke here Firth's "let-it-pass principle", which posits that unfamiliar, inaccurate or code-switched expressions are less likely to be challenged on grounds of correctness in ELF but are rather overlooked or subsequently deciphered through contextual clarification (Firth 1996: 243ff.). The waiter considers the error of 'Carlos' Bridge irrelevant to the interaction, but has in any case understood the content of the request, and so "lets it pass" (Firth 1996): in this way ease of communication is privileged over accuracy. An ELF praxis which espouses this view and thereby tolerates practices such as code-switching has caused ELF to drift, linguistically, away from standard native English, leading to the coining of such terms as "Euro-English", "Global English", "International English" and "World English". The disparities between

these new and developing forms of English do not go unnoticed by native speakers: Mullany and Stockwell (2010: 41) also mention that a pair of British tourists overheard the 'Carlos Bridge' interaction, snidely commenting "Funny that I thought it was Charles Bridge not Carlos Bridge" (while oblivious to the fact that 'Charles' itself is a foreign translation of the bridge's original Czech name), which they characterise as "a prime example of native-English speaker monolingual superiority and a negative attitude towards code-switching".

This Prague vignette illustrates that ELF users sometimes utilise standard as well as non-standard features of the language in order to achieve mutual engagement, and that the pragmatics of this communication style can lead to rejection by native speakers. Jenkins (2013: 35) notes that code-switching is "typically interpreted as a sign that the EFL speaker is ignorant of the English for what he or she wants to say". Modiano (2009: 209) goes further, claiming it is high time for native speakers to accept such code-switching as a normalised aspect of L2 English. Crystal (2010: 17) points out that lack of recognition from native speakers does not stop ELF users from adapting the English language to their own specific needs and surroundings, and that "facets of everyday life soon accumulate a local wordstock which is unknown outside the country and its environs". ELF can therefore be considered as a "global jigsaw-puzzle" to which different nations add pieces reflecting their L1s (Crystal 2010: 25). Evidence for this can be found in studies undertaken using the framework of VOICE (Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English)², a corpus based on ELF interactions in different contexts. Such research is, as Motschenbacher (2013: 22) notes, presently less focused on determining "variety status" for ELF than about analysing features of ELF from a more functional perspective. As Seidlhofer (2009: 241) writes,

this research has tended to take a much more processual, communicative view of ELF, of which linguistic features constitute but a part and are investigated not for their own sake but as indications of the various functions ELF fulfils in the interaction observed.

² <https://www.univie.ac.at/voice/> (4 January 2014)

Mollin (2006: 11) observes that this shifts debate from “varieties according to users” to “varieties according to use”, noting that ELF may more usefully be conceptualized as a register.

Firstly, however, I intend to examine how varieties of English Native Language (ENL) came to be standardized in themselves, and, by the 20th century, had acquired hegemonic status as a global language.

2.1. Historical development of English

It is generally accepted that from its first occurrence up to now the English language has been through four developmental transitions, referred to as Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English and Modern English. Old English became established on the eastern coast of Britain in the 5th century due to Germanic settlers (known in popular history as Anglo-Saxons). The Anglo-Saxon invaders displaced the prevailing Celtic tribes whose members, descended from Ancient Britons but later conquered by and assimilated under the Romans, were at the time reconciling their Celtic and post-Roman heritages. With the Anglo-Saxons marginalising the Romano-Celts to the geographical extremities of Britain (mainly Scotland, Wales and Cornwall), there was space for a new linguistic identity to develop, more Germanic in origin and orientation than the linguistic culture it had replaced (but not entirely removed as an influence). Another noteworthy event during the Old English period that had significant influence on the development of the English language was the Viking invasions by the end of the 8th century (Singh 2005: 71). Influencing Old English at this time was Latin, which was mainly used for written documents (especially by the clergy), but was also adding to the lexicon of Old English due to the legacy of the Roman presence in Britain and missionary contact with the Anglo-Saxons (Stehling 2013: 2). Old English with its Germanic structures had no great similarity with Modern English in terms of pronunciation and rules (Singh 2005: 75), and after William the Conqueror invaded England and became king in 1066, French became the official language of the state. Old English with Norman French and Latin words incorporated then transitioned to

Middle English and was used by the lower classes of society (Stehling 2013: 2f.). Middle English began to fade in around 1500 when public documents of the state had only been written in English (Singh 2005: 112), leading to Early Modern English, which lasted from the 15th century to the 17th century. It is only with Early Modern English that English began to become dominant in England, and was also adopted as the state language (Singh 2005: 139). A major upheaval in pronunciation occurred with the Great Vowel Shift, a key event that paved the way for Modern English, which in turn became rapidly standardised due to the industrial innovation of the printing press and the ensuing mass dissemination of the written word (Stehling 2013: 4). Since the late 17th century, Modern English has become dominant at all levels of society. The evolution of standard English in this local context can be summarised as a language which rose from the bottom and overtook the entrenched courtly language of French, was spread largely by the uneducated masses, and expanded with innovations such as foreign words, neologisms and back-formation (Hurford 2011: 631). The next section will outline how English spread further due to the emerging status of Britain as a powerful nation.

2.2. Imperial power and colonialism

During the 17th century Britain increasingly became a maritime nation, with its navy growing in strength and London developing as a major port for incoming trade (Lawson 1993: 9). Exploration of the world beyond Europe led to the establishment of the first British colonies, which were used as places to resettle various unwanted groups, either by force or voluntarily. People left Britain for reasons including religious persecution, and criminals were shipped first to Georgia in 1733 (Pencak 2011: 92). Following the loss of the American colonies, Britain turned to Australia as a destination for convicts, where for the next hundred years it would expel over 160,000 prisoners. Though the penal colonies were stigmatised back home in Britain, it was the hope of the authorities that the harsh conditions would reform prisoners and make them productive. As Berg (2010: 178) notes, “by sending convicts to America and Australia, England’s swelling jails and harsh debtor prisons could be relieved

and the inmates could provide labour and other needed services in the colonies". The permanent removal of subjects no longer welcome in Britain was modelled after the traffic in slaves which had begun during the 17th century and was not seriously challenged until after Britain lost the American colonies. While penal colonies were state-run, the slave trade had a corporate history which began with the charter granted to the London-based Royal African Company in 1672. Monopoly status came to an end soon after, in 1698, after which the slave trade boomed, facilitated again by Britain's maritime standing and the presence of large-capacity ports such as London, Bristol and Liverpool (Morgan 2000: 9).

Trade besides the legal slave trade also added to Britain's growing power throughout the 17th century, though in this case monopoly protections endured for longer. Foreign trading of commodities such as tea and spices became associated with the British East India Company, which enjoyed special state protection (through monopoly status), became enormously prosperous, and in return acted as an important financial lender to the British state. Lawson (1993: 57) sees as significant the fact that the East India Company became a household name in the eyes of ordinary Britons for whom the East Indies were a remote place they otherwise knew little about, as this highlights the increasing integration of business and state interests. With British interests extending to Africa and South East Asia as well as the colonies, commodity trading, the trade in slaves, and growing imperial power all became intertwined. The interlocking relationship between human and material commodities at this time is commonly patterned as a triangular three-step process, which Morgan (2000: 9) summarises as follows:

Textiles, beads, firearms and metalware were shipped to west Africa and bartered or sold for Africans drawn from various tribes in the interior; the slaves were packed tight into the holds of ships for the Atlantic crossing ('the middle passage') and sold in the Americas; and then staple commodities were laden aboard ship for the voyage home and the prospects of sale in the ships' port of origin.

The penal colonies received a huge influx of English native speakers throughout the long period that Britain deported convicts, and the new English-speaking incomers soon overran the indigenous population in these places. As a result

the territories covered by the penal colonies “became English-speaking countries very naturally” (Sonnenburg 2003: 190). In other areas affected by British trade, the spread of the English language was slower, particularly in places such as Africa and Asia, where the indigenous populations outnumbered the Britons who either settled or were there regularly. When Britain eventually colonised these areas, the promotion of English was not seen as a priority for trading purposes, and was in fact to some degree opposed. Throughout the era of the slave trade, the British East India Company had been locked in tensions with Christian missionaries, who persistently aspired to convert indigenous peoples in the areas opened up by British trade. Since “the [East India] company was very sensitive about disturbing the religious feelings of the Hindus and Muslims lest it hinder their commercial enterprise,” the Company won the right, through a clause in their charter, to control the entrance of missionaries to India, and exercised it up until 1813 (Thomas 1974: 30).

The removal of this right came about due to the campaigning efforts of William Wilberforce, who is remembered mainly for opposing the slave trade (Carson 2003: 127), and the establishment of the Church of England in India followed soon after. Although Wilberforce was a committed abolitionist, he therefore effectively supported a form of cultural imperialism which was to pave the way for the “duty to educate and Christianize the so-called savage natives” that became a founding principle of the British Empire (Sonnenburg 2003: 190). Once churches had been established, then schools and other institutions followed, with the result that the ruling elite in places such as India slowly began to reproduce the social infrastructure they knew from back home. Only a small minority of natives were educated in the colonial education system, but those who were often ended up joining a colonial bureaucracy which was also modelled after the British system (Sonnenburg 2003: 190).

The development of Britain as a maritime power sees colonialism developing from simple trading arrangements, through to the bonding of mercantile and state interests and resulting land grabs in places like Asia, and culminating in the establishment of British imperialist rule such as the Raj in India. Parallel to

these processes of colonialism and imperialism, Kachru (1994: 502) traces the growing dominance of English in structural terms:

In retrospect we see that the introduction of English into the language policies of the [South East Asian] region has primarily gone through four stages. First *exploration*; second, *implementation*; third, *diffusion*; and finally, *institutionalisation*.

Kachru's final stage is what accounts for the intelligibility of English across colonised lands at the height of the British Empire, and its post-colonial endurance. In former colonies with multiple languages, English has therefore remained as a language of governance in some cases, with South Africa being a commonly cited example. English also retains a considerable presence in countries and regions such as India, Pakistan, Kenya, Nigeria, South East Asia and the former West Indies. This is in spite of a minority of citizens in these areas who use English as their first language.

2.3. *Ascendancy of the U.S. as a world power in the 20th century*

While the British Empire had been built on innovative strides in trade and industry, by the end of the 19th century one of its former colonies had seized the initiative and established itself as a major new centre for commerce. America was at this time pioneering new models of corporate organisation, and as Sklar has noted (1988: 159),

the large corporation as a form of business organization particularly suited to the consolidation and integration of industrial and marketing processes progressed farther, faster, and sooner in the United States than in the other industrial capitalist countries.

Emerging U.S. hubs of manufacturing had, throughout the 19th century, attempted to emulate British counterparts, and in some cases caught up: "Pittsburgh shifted from being compared to Birmingham to becoming the defining city for steel towns worldwide" (Eklund 2002: 17). Anti-corporate efforts to restrict the abuses of big business, most notably in the area of anti-competitive business practices, resulted in the 1890 passing of the Sherman Antitrust Act, although this did little to curb the power of monopolies and therefore eventually proved "inadequate to meet the very challenges for which

[it] was created” (McNeese 2009: 90). Indeed, Bowman (2010: 331) concludes that

it seems to be an incontrovertible fact that it was the general failure of antitrust enforcement under the Sherman Act (not the manner in which it was interpreted from 1897 to 1911) that greatly facilitated the corporate ascendancy.

At the same time as America was becoming a more corporate society, trends were in motion that sought the expansion of its consumer base. Whereas Taylorism had been more focused on refining the division of labour so as to make factory production more efficient, Fordism not only addressed the modernisation of production, but also building a market for consumer products. As Kütting explains (2004: 53),

the idea behind Fordism was not only the automation of the production process but also making mass-produced consumer goods available to a wider base. The rationale was simple: there was a limited market for capital goods such as cars and that market would be exhausted fairly soon. Therefore new markets needed to be created and the logical solution was to make luxury consumer goods available to workers by reducing the prices through mass production and by increasing wages. Thus cars became available for much larger segments of society.

Eklund (2002: 17) remarks that American corporate power did not immediately overtake old world industry and trade (“British capital remained influential, even central, in the 1920s and 1930s”), but many historians have noted, particularly in the wake of failed antitrust regulation and Fordism, a growing alignment between business and state interests. Hunt (2007: 97) notes that the 1920s saw business interests influencing U.S. foreign policy, with World War I having “accelerated this trend toward greater executive power in economic matters”.

The intense industrial mobilisation which took place as the United States prepared to enter World War II also had a significant impact, leading to what Bowman (2010: 125) describes as a new control structure, which emerged after the war, “to guide an economy dominated by large corporations in close association with government agencies”. In Bowman’s account (2010: 126), it is the consolidation of the corporations’ influence which brought about these new postwar arrangements, accounting for America’s world power status more

convincingly than geopolitical factors including the relative weakness of Europe following the war and the emergent Cold War:

Viewed from this standpoint, the ascendancy of the United States as a global power must be explained in light of the growth of U.S. direct foreign investment in the decades before and after World War II. The expansion of U.S.-based corporations during the interwar period not only hastened the collapse of British dominance in international markets but also paved the way for a new structure of international control. The structure of the postwar economy was carefully designed to accommodate the internationalization of American corporate enterprise.

McGrew & Lewis (1992: 73) voice agreement that the “global expansion of American capital can only succeed if supported by the power of the American state, which acts to protect and promote the interests of American capital abroad”, and also note that these are “economic imperatives which propel the American state into an expansionary and imperialist foreign policy”. This has not always been perceived in the same way as imperialisms of the past, and has received much positive promotion. Krasner (1978: 94) has emphasised that the American promotion of an

“international economic order in which goods and capital could move freely across international borders” became associated with prosperity and higher standards of living, lending the United States a postwar reputation of being the “most progressive” world power.

With America extending international influence, the profile of English rose even further. Phillipson (2009: 154) has traced English as an integral part of American national identity back to America at the time of the Revolutionary War, and has also documented early 19th century cases of Americans promoting English as a “common language” capable of being transmitted out to the world. Since America’s status as a superpower was cemented in the immediate postwar period, the worldwide promotion of English has been official U.S. government policy, mainly implemented through public diplomacy channels involving organisations such as the United States Information Agency (now defunct) and initiatives including the Fulbright Program, active since 1946 (Phillipson 2009: 155). America’s significant cultural influence, particularly concerning the entertainment industry and U.S. popular culture, I will address in the next section, from a broader perspective of globalisation.

3. English in the context of globalisation

As just discussed, the legacy of British imperialism includes a presence of English left behind in large parts of Asia, Africa and elsewhere. America's standing as a post-war superpower added to the influence English held in the world (Crystal 1997: vii), and following the collapse of the Soviet Union, English accumulated status even more rapidly. This outcome was not only attributable to geopolitics but also the impact of Anglo-American promotion of neoliberal reforms during the 1980s, including the opening up of foreign markets. Kachru's (1982: 356) typology of English's inner circle (representing the North American, British and Australasian centres of the language) and outer circle (representing the colonial legacy of the British Empire) are associated with nation-states and their imperialism, but his expanding circle moves beyond this political categorisation and is not just reflective of America's standing as the world's only remaining superpower. The modern use of English as a global lingua franca signifies the globalized interconnectedness which surrounds us today, with international English becoming more diverse and decentred.

This is particularly noticeable in contemporary European contexts. Let us imagine a highly stereotyped image of globalized commerce and corporate activity taking place on a European level: the location is multilingual and cosmopolitan, with a local airport awash not with tourists but rather business suits and Samsonite carry-on cases – think Geneva, Brussels, Luxembourg. The men and women in suits come from all over Europe and are culturally heterogeneous; they do not gather to observe and tend to business matters local to their meeting place, but instead to discuss business which itself is on the other side of the world and remote to Geneva. This seems as logical to them as it would seem illogical to the 19th century industrialist. As they go from airport to hotel to boardroom, we see familiar contemporary architectural and design signifiers for the modernity of high-level international business: steel and glass, sleek lines, clean and minimalist décor. We need not limit this image just to trade, commerce and finance. Top-level European politicians and

bureaucrats gather in a similar way, in modern buildings in Brussels and Strasbourg which look just as urbane and forward-looking.

In this scenario of the Geneva board meeting one thing is obvious: the common language is English. *Without* English, significant elements of this spectacle – such as the effortless ease with which the participants switch from their own cultural outlook to a more neutral, internationalized way of speaking and behaving – fall away. The multilingual environments of the United Nations and European Union, with their cumbersome and uneconomic support system of simultaneous translation, are alien to the world of modern international business. English as a lingua franca is crucial in these modern interactions in the worlds of high finance and multinational trade because it represents instant, barrier-free communication. Removing communications barriers has removed significant barriers to trade and commerce, enabling modern capitalism to enter a new age of efficiency and productivity. And just as the modern development of ELF overlaps with so many of the values which modern capitalism prizes, ELF itself has become representational of and central to globalization, in a way comparable to the sight of Starbucks and McDonalds on the streets of every global city. Globalization has acquired a dominant common language, and that language is not only English, but a form of English that inseparably goes hand in hand with the culture and practices of globalization itself.

3.1. *Economic power*

The business scenario presented above echoes one of the leading definitions of globalisation proposed by Giddens (1990: 64), who specifies the capitalist aspect of globalisation as “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring any miles away and vice versa”. Giddens (1990: 117) makes modernity, which was also evoked in my scenario, a cornerstone of this model to the extent that he argues that modernity is intrinsically globalising. An aspect of modernity central to economic globalization is the flexibility of international capital and commodities, as seen not just in the movement of goods and

services around the world but also currents which have opened up in labour markets.

The globalized labour market has been a key factor in the perception of English as a skill not only desirable but essential for many jobs. While the anti-globalist stance of the state government of West Bengal, until 2011 run for decades by one of the few democratically-elected communist parties in the world, led to a policy of not teaching English in schools, this position was reversed in 1999 following a report which argued that

the opening-up of the country's economy to foreign multi-national and trans-national corporations as a precondition for economic liberalisation, has also contributed to the high profile of English which it enjoys. (Ganguly-Scrase & Scrase 2009: 137)

The importance of English in the context of globalisation was in particular deeply felt by Bengali parents, who unhesitatingly correlated understanding of the language with career opportunities. As one parent commented,

[i]t is quite apparent that there are so many good students in West Bengal. However, when they compete on an all-India basis for jobs, they miss out because [their English] is not good. They have good credentials, good grades. When they go to interviews, their spoken English is really poor, so they do not get the jobs. (Ganguly-Scrase & Scrase 2009: 137)

The perception of English as a determining qualification above all others is echoed more bluntly by another respondent: "you are worth nothing in the job market without good command of English!" (Ganguly-Scrase & Scrase 2009: 137). Such views, which place heavy emphasis on personal advancement and the ability to compete, are strongly shaped by the logic of globalisation.

The maxims of competition and flexibility underpin another key concern of globalisation: efficiency. Lo Bianco et al. (2009: 188) argue that "[a] lingua franca succeeds because it is efficient" and that "convenience of communication" accounts for the spread of English under globalisation. In the introduction to this chapter I portrayed a business scenario which I suggested relied on the removal of communications barriers to the extent that this globalised style of conducting business would be unthinkable without the hyper-efficient communications tool of a lingua franca. This is backed up by

Gnutzmann (2005: 16), who suggests that English as a lingua franca and globalisation exemplify a mutually affirming alignment:

From a communicative point of view the phenomenon of globalisation is, above all, reflected in the use of English as a world-wide *Lingua Franca*. At the same time, the ever increasing use of English as a world language also reinforces the process of globalisation.

Nihalini (2010: 23) also raises the point that computer technology produced in English-speaking countries has been an important catalyst for globalisation, although I will address this and the English-dominated Internet in a separate section. The presence of the online world in the daily lives of millions however provides a powerful image of globalised infrastructure, and Nihalini (2010: 23) emphasises that we are, as a result, not only “interconnected” but “*inextricably* interconnected”, and that a better term for this might be “interdependence”. Nihalini (2010: 23) goes on to suggest that globalisation has become “no longer an objective but imperative”, and the pressure imposed by interdependence is quite evident in the Bengali parents’ perception of the indispensability of English, just as it is in the international business interactions where competence in English is assumed. Like capitalism, globalisation creates winners and losers. And given the ever-closer integration of globalisation and ELF, it seems increasingly inevitable that future winners will be proficient in English.

3.2. Mass Media

Widely consumed mass media has a relatively short history dating back to the Industrial Revolution and the rapid improvements in printing machinery this brought about. Consequently the first major mass medium was the newspaper, which experienced a significant rise in the 19th century and became accessible to a broad public for the first time. Explosions in circulation were particularly focused in the English-speaking world, and as Streeby (2002: 11) observes, “by 1840, more newspapers were published in the United States than in any other nation”. The establishment of a newspaper industry led to competition, rivalries and the first attempts to build media empires – such as by William Randolph Hearst. Newspapers run as businesses led to ever more sensational content, with Hearst paving the way for tabloid journalism.

Other important developments for the press which occurred during the second half of the 19th century also took place in English-speaking countries. The invention of the telegraph by the German Paul Julius Reuter, who established his business in London, and the foundation of the New York Associated Press set in motion the creation of the first news agencies, which emphasized speed of newsgathering and caused news to become more commoditized (Crystal 1997: 84). Parallel to the rise of mass news circulation in America during the 19th century was the emergence of the advertising agency, a concept invented by Volney B. Palmer, who from 1850 worked on behalf of newspapers to sell advertising space. Palmer's consulting practices, which included pitching advertising ideas to clients and selecting the optimal audience from among the 1300 newspapers his agency said it represented, were ahead of their time and prefigured the work of the modern advertising executive to a remarkable degree (Blanchard & Burwash 1998: 491). Advertising as it is known across the world today therefore had its roots in America. Over time, advertising became more focused on transmitting messages than simply publicising products. Chandrasekar (2010: 279) observes that marketing research became important in advertising from the 1920s, leading to advertisements which emphasised "the outcome of consumer purchases such as health, happiness, status and love".

The 20th century saw the development of technologies capable of broadcasting sound and images, which led to the proliferation of public and commercial radio in the 1920s, and the first experiments in television from the 1930s. A new mass medium had been born. Again, important developments in this new media landscape happened in English-speaking countries, and the success of commercial radio stations in America and the widely-copied public broadcasting model of the BBC in the United Kingdom had a transforming impact on society. From a language perspective, Hogg & Denison (2006: 34) note that "even in stable and isolated communities broadcast media have created widespread, if partial, familiarity with many varieties of spoken English". The emerging motion picture industry also experienced a boom, with the commercial potential of movie-making exploited most effectively in America. By the time *The Jazz Singer*, the first motion picture with synchronized dialogue, was released, Hollywood's studio system had become firmly established (Sine & David 2010:

232). With studios and their producers exercising a strong influence over the creative process, movies often ended up being produced according to tested formulas. As a result, studios became known both for their “house style” and the Fordist efficiency with which they delivered new products (Sklar & Zagarrio 1998: 18f).

The rise of radio and television, as well as the addition of sound to movies, greatly magnified the impact of the English language across the world, even though non-English-speaking countries were also engaged in making films and broadcasting in their own languages. Hogg & Denison (2006: 34) note that despite all the languages competing for attention around the world thanks to new media technologies, influence seemed mainly to go in one direction: “there has apparently been relatively little linguistic influence *into* English as a result of mass media, at least as far as Britain and the USA are concerned, though of course a great deal *from*”. Within the English language itself there was also considerable one-way influence exchanged between American and British English. Choudhury (2005: 334) observes that Hollywood movies enjoyed great popularity in Britain, but British movies on the whole did not appeal to Americans, which led the British government to introduce protectionist measures for home-grown cinema during the late 1920s. And yet this could not limit the cultural and linguistic appeals of American cinema: “national pride, however, could not prevent the influence of Hollywood in the way American idioms, expressions and even fashion infiltrated British life” (Choudhury 2005: 334).

The most recent revolution in mass media has occurred due to the commercialisation of IT. America has a strong tradition of producing digital innovations, a record which no other nation has come remotely close to matching. Barcode readers, hard drives, ATMs and the magnetic stripe card were all invented by just one American company, IBM (Miller & Muir 2005: 184). Other companies such as Intel, Microsoft, Apple, Hewlett-Packard and Dell are all highly successful American brands which dominate the hardware and software industries.

The mass consumer uptake of the Internet has only continued this pattern of American hegemony, with Hubbard (2011: 43) showing that worldwide Internet usage is dominated by the US brands of Facebook, Google, YouTube, Yahoo, Amazon, eBay and Twitter. Two major qualities of the Internet – its status as a massive repository of data, and global access – have also changed the way we consume and perceive old mass media. Movies, music and TV shows are now streamed and downloaded just as much as they are enjoyed in their traditional formats, while newspapers have become interactive. New media has also transformed the content of old media, as can be seen with TV migrating to Internet streaming channels, in a process which Jenkins (2006: 282) defines as “media convergence”. Independent of more traditional audio-visual forms of media, the Internet has brought about social changes which are entirely unique. Many routine activities that traditionally involved either human communication or being in a specific physical place – asking for directions, checking transport connections, personal banking – can now be performed using a smartphone.

We currently live in an age where the mass medium of the 19th century (the newspaper), the mass media of the 20th century (radio, cinema and TV), and the mass medium of the 21st century (the Internet) all co-exist, at least for the moment. The key factors which unite all these forms of mass media are the rapid dissemination of information and the promotion of mainstream popular culture – aspects which make contemporary media a good fit for a globalised world.

The convergence of mass media and globalisation is further evidence to Crystal (1997: 110) that English is “a language which has repeatedly found itself in the right place at the right time”. An argument which Crystal (1997: 112) raises in support of this observation is that the international IT industry might look (and talk) very differently if Bill Gates had been born in China. Since Gates and all the other successful IT entrepreneurs of the 1970s and 1980s were American, computer technology and the Internet all evolved from an English-speaking perspective (“new technologies brought new linguistic opportunities”, Crystal 1997: 110). According to Crystal (1997: 111), English has truly arrived as a “world language” because English-speaking individuals have been the most consistently innovative and transformational social leaders of the last 150 years.

3.3. *The English-dominated Internet*

A major point of discussion in contemporary ELF debates is the English-dominated Internet. UNESCO (Pimienta, Prado & Blanco 2009: 9) began monitoring linguistic diversity on the Internet in 1995, in response to claims that English was dominating 90% of the then-existing Internet. Critics of this statistic equated it with ethnocentrism, with the authors of the most recent UNESCO report (Pimienta, Prado & Blanco 2009:13) adding that “the question naturally arises as to whether the Internet heralds an opportunity or a threat for linguistic diversity”, while those who explicitly oppose the disproportionate web presence of English have been even sharper, likening it to “intellectual colonialism” and claiming that “the product comes from America so we either must adapt to English or stop using it” (Crystal 1997: 108). Crystal (2006: 5) has written that the Internet is a medium in which the “whole world” can theoretically participate, but adds that we need to be careful about inflating its global reach: “[the Internet] is still largely in the hands of the better-off citizens of the developed countries” (2006: 5).

Since the 1990s, the excessively disproportionate figure of 90% has however lost its validity. The Internet is steadily becoming a more multilingual arena of communication and Crystal (2006: 230) expects that a significant non-English majority will eventually emerge. In their UNESCO report (2009), Pimienta, Prado & Blanco have analysed limits to language penetration by measuring ratios of native speakers to Internet users, arguing that the English-language Internet has ceased to expand so rapidly because of early uptake and an ensuing limited number of native speakers left to become first-time adopters (“the main reason for the relative decline of English on the Internet is simply because it has already peaked, by reaching an early and transitory huge, initial presence”, 2009: 34).

A decline in the influence of standard English on the Internet could however also be seen as consistent with Seidlhofer’s (2005: 339) observation that “English is being shaped at least as much by its non-native speakers as by its

native speakers". Seargeant & Tagg (2011: 500) note that "the use of English on the Internet occurs in contexts in which new communicative genres are being established, and communicative practices are adapting accordingly". In addressing the concept of 'Internet Englishes', the authors criticize research on language penetration which measures influence in terms of the proportion of websites in a given language. Such surveys tend not only to treat English as a "homogenous category" (Seargeant & Tagg 2011: 502), but also

mostly exclude the often private and synchronous interactions that take place through virtual games, online chat and instant messaging [...] This is significant because it is predominantly in these interactions, rather than on the public, asynchronous Web, that speakers have been observed to engage in multilingual practices such as code-switching, and thus their exclusion casts doubt over the extent to which linguistic diversity on the Internet is being accurately measured by Web-based surveys. (Seargeant & Tagg 2011: 502)

Practices such as code-switching have not merely been extended by the Internet, but also transformed: "[the Internet] is a place where languages and scripts can be mixed in new ways, and where this mixing plays an important role in indexing identity given the relative absence of paralinguistic and social cues" (Seargeant & Tagg 2011: 502f.). The authors' analysis of web-based chats (performed using Facebook & MSN) among Thai speakers shows a "mixed" use of English-related forms" which is wide-ranging and drawn on extensively, but neither shows obvious outward functionality in many cases nor "appear[s] to predominantly orient towards a monolithic Inner Circle variety of the sort often used as a teaching standard" (Seargeant & Tagg 2011: 509). Thorne and Black et al. (2009: 804) argue that such reconfigurations of linguistic meaning are patterned on Internet-based "hybridizing", which is a "particularly salient aspect of contemporary youth's participation in online affinity spaces".

Greater fluidity in terms of identity, as facilitated by the hybridizing possibilities of online platforms in which ever more content is user-generated, only looks set to continue as an analogue to the ever-expanding phenomenon of social media. Though social networking platforms have only developed relatively recently (Facebook was founded in 2004, YouTube in 2005, and Twitter in 2006), they have rapidly magnified their influence, with users of Facebook alone now

exceeding one billion and accounting for one out of every seven minutes spent online (McChesney 2013: 132). The more users attracted by big players such as Google, Facebook and Twitter (which are all American companies), the more dominant they become within the online market – but, most importantly, this is not in equal proportion. As McChesney (2013: 132) explains,

the usefulness of a network increases at an accelerating rate as you add each new person to it. Google search is an example; the quality of its algorithm improves with more users, leaving other search engines with a less effective and attractive product.

StudiVZ.net, a website that draws its name from the German term *Studentenverzeichnis* (which translates into English as students' directory but has no real equivalent in US or UK universities), is a similar social networking site to Facebook developed by German native speakers. It however rapidly lost its popularity once Facebook entered the European market despite the fact that Facebook was not as attuned to the student university experience in German-speaking countries.

Facebook and its 'Made in the U.S.A.' status means that although users of Facebook are spread across the globe and the website is translated into the user's native language depending on location, the website remains culturally American to a significant extent. Regardless of the profile language selected by the user, every foreign version of Facebook is visually and interactively modelled after the American version. The uniformity and instant recognisability of leading Internet businesses such as Google, Facebook and Amazon is what has helped them to become such powerful brands. Brand uniformity points to a paradox of the Internet: social networks enable users to create and develop a representation of themselves in the form of a 'profile', or online persona, which can lead to highly individualised reconfigurations of normative behaviour and language use. At the same time, online profiles are created and cultivated within a framework defined by the site provider, which is why many online profiles look the same.

The paradoxical relationship between profile homogeneity on the one hand and the fluid sense of identity associated with online personae on the other is

echoed in the on-going debate about the English-dominated Internet. Crystal (1997: 112), writing over fifteen years ago, commented that “in a few generations’ time, the Net will not be like anything we know today”, a prediction already being realised with the transformational shift towards user-generated content. What long-term implications this will have for cultural and linguistic identities on the Internet have yet to play out, although we are beginning to see these emerge in paradoxical ways (as with so many other aspects of the Internet). Warschauer (2013: 157) addresses the roots of this paradox directly, and even though his clear-headed thoughts do not explicitly refer to the linguistic concerns raised by Crystal and others, they are nevertheless relevant to this context. To conclude, I will cite Warschauer’s summary (2013: 157) of the present situation:

The Internet is on the one hand a highly restrictive medium, based on the cost of access to computers and connections as well as its historical domination by a white, well-to-do, English-speaking North American community. On the other hand, the Internet is potentially the most democratic media yet developed, in that it places powers for broadcasting, research, and interaction into the hands of greater numbers of people than ever before. Because of this basic contradiction, the Internet can both magnify existing inequalities in society while also facilitating efforts to challenge these inequalities.

4. Functions of English in a globalised society

Over the last few decades the functional range of English has spread tremendously, affecting various domains in a worldwide context. It enables interaction for many sectors including technology, science, business, media, politics, and international organisations. English teaching in the classroom is becoming more widespread because English in the workplace is becoming more widespread. Management, IT, industry and tourism are all examples of professional fields in which communication in English is to be expected (Berns et al. 2007: 19). In addition to professional purposes, English is also used for activities such as holidays, family outings or sporting events, outside of school and work (Berns 2007: 2). Another significant role for ELF is the growing social use of English. This is connected to the online phenomenon of social media and the rapid proliferation of social networking platforms such as Facebook. I will

devote a separate section in the next chapter to the interactivity of Internet platforms, as this topic merits extended discussion.

In this chapter I will move on to discuss the role of English in the technological and scientific fields, as well as in context of teaching.

4.1. *An international language for the sciences and technology*

The marker for a successful scholarly career is having work recognised by the academic community, which affects everything from the way scholars package their ideas to the language which they use (Canagarajah 2002: 6). The academic community evaluates the significance of research according to various criteria, including originality, relevance and presentation, with the peer review process acting as a gatekeeper of quality (Hames 2007: 2f.). Of particular interest from the perspective of ELF are the presentational standards expected from academics, which involve the casting of ideas and research into academic discourse. Bhatia et al. (2011: 181) highlight that written modes of academic discourse have the highest status, so publications such as books and journal articles are regarded as more important than conference papers and teaching, which are constrained in their impact due to the limited audience and transient nature of the spoken word. Effective spoken communication, whether in conferences, teaching or meetings, is however also a critical part of day-to-day professional life for academics (Hyland 2009: ix). Both written and spoken modes of academic discourse can therefore present challenges for the non-native researcher confronted by the dominant presence of English in the academy.

The dominance of Anglophone academic literature relative to that produced in other languages accounts for English now being regarded as the “universal language” of scientific communication (Drubin & Kellogg 2012: 1399). Hamel (2007: 53) records the astonishing statistics that more than 90% of all papers in the natural sciences and over 75% of papers in humanities and the social

sciences are now written in English. This overwhelming degree of linguistic penetration has the one clear advantage that foreign researchers and scientists who are proficient in English but otherwise not multilingual have greater ease of access to the scientific literature. Acquiring English speaking and writing skills is therefore considered by Berns et al. (2007: 22) as a “linguistic sine qua non among researchers”.

The dense and sometimes turgid nature of academic prose can however limit access, with partial proficiency in English acting as a brake on understanding similar to the experience of a layperson when encountering advanced scientific knowledge. The challenges of literacy are discussed by Kaplan (2001: 14), who states that “[t]ranslation and the use of technical dictionaries are not sufficient to access science research”. Other difficulties raised by complex academic writing include “discourse styles” and “rhetorical structures” which the reader is expected to be familiar with (Burrough-Boenisch 1999, cited in Kaplan 2001: 14). Drubin and Kellogg (2012: 1399) argue that “the fact that English is the de facto global language of science is not likely to change anytime soon”, but emphasise that this creates a responsibility for native speakers:

We believe that the communications advantage realized by native speakers of English obligates them to acknowledge and to help alleviate the extra challenges faced by their fellow scientists from non-English-speaking countries. (2012: 1399)

Hamel (2007: 68) is pessimistic about such ideas and cites Graddol’s view that “both Anglophones and non Anglophones prefer to read texts written by Anglophone native speakers over those written by non native language users who publish in English”. It is unrealistic, he suggests, to expect a more inclusive approach to language while the supremacy of English is continually reinforced by Anglophone readers who “enjoy texts that confirm their own knowledge, beliefs and values including familiar ways of organising texts” (Hamel 2007: 68).

For Hamel (2007: 68), the current imbalance is so serious that it requires somewhat more far-reaching ways out which, in his view, would have greater efficacy. This leads him to a plurilingualist position which calls for linguistic diversity, a halt to the translation of papers and titles into English, and the

delivery of conference papers in the language of the host country. Whereas Hamel (2007) is concerned with stretching the language skills of Anglophone researchers, Drubin & Kellogg (2012) are convinced that the use of English in science can be reformed so as to open up scientific fields to non-native speakers while essentially maintaining the hegemony of English. Their outlook comes close to echoing Firth's let-it-pass principle that I mentioned in chapter 2:

Nonnative speakers of English can write effective manuscripts, despite errors of grammar, syntax, and usage, if the manuscripts are clear, simple, logical, and concise. (We note that native speakers of English sometimes write manuscripts exhibiting good grammar, yet filled with muddled and confusing logic. (Drubin & Kellogg 2012: 1399)

In analyses of ELF, Firth and others have repeatedly observed that non-native speakers of English value effective communication more highly than correctness, particularly when two non-native speakers with different mother tongues interact. Drubin & Kellogg (2012: 1399) seem to be in agreement with the ELF literature by regarding this as no strongly negative attitude to have. Indeed, they support the position of communication over correctness by prescribing it as a way for the academic community to act in a more inclusive and collegial way towards scientists who are not native speakers of English. This suggestion, which Drubin and Kellogg (2012: 1399) specify only in relation to written academic publications, threatens however to add a potentially cumbersome layer to the peer review process for which opposition is conceivable from a number of sides. Although peer review is an established element of academic publishing which presently faces no serious challenge, critics of its efficacy are numerous, with Smith (2006: 179) listing among its flaws that it is "slow, expensive, profligate of academic time, highly subjective, something of a lottery, prone to bias, and easily abused". For the suggestions of Drubin and Kellogg (2012: 1399) to be formalised as policy would add to the workload of reviewers and editors while potentially attracting criticism for the highly subjective basis of its measurement. On the subject of a push for inclusivity, Ammon (2001: 354) sounds a sceptical note similar to Hamel when he observes that "norm expectations tend to be rather rigorous – in contrast to wide-spread assumptions of the considerable linguistic tolerance of the English-speaking world".

In Information Technology, hardware and software are regarded as inseparable: for a machine to perform even simple computational functions it needs programming; and to perform multiple functions, like a PC does, complex programming architecture is required. Dhunna & Dixit (2010: 102ff.) highlight how IT has evolved with four generations of programming language: machine language, which used binary code to instruct the machine to perform simple tasks; assembly language, which replaced numeric instructions with the first low-level written code; high-level source code, used to enable devices such as PCs to perform basic operating functions; and very high-level or problem-oriented code, which tells a PC to run more complex software tasks.

Third and fourth generation high-level programming therefore moved on from numeric binary code patterns and established its own procedural language made up of written instructions. Such procedural language “resembles some human language such as English” (2010: 103), and Dhunna & Dixit (2010) add that a fifth programming generation will see more instructions written in a form closer to natural language.

The very first high-level programming language, developed in 1957 by IBM, used English keywords as shortcuts to make code “easier to write, read and share” (Tranquillo 2011: 3), and the English lexicon has played an outsized role in programming language ever since. It is only very recently that programming has become more multilingual, and even then progress is slow. M Programming, a language first developed in 1966 for use in hospital systems, was the first to move towards multilingual functionality, although there are technical obstacles lying in the way of full implementation (Walters 1997: 281).

4.2. *The most commonly taught language in Europe, and Austria*

According to 2012 statistics from the European Commission's Eurydice Network, a body which analyses cross-European educational systems and policies in 28 different countries, English is the most-taught language in European countries, and German and French the second most common

(Eurydice 2012: 11)³. Depending on the EU member state, English as a subject in schools may be either compulsory (it is mandated in 14 EU countries) or optional. Statistics since 2004/2005 show a steady increase in the number of pupils studying English at all levels, with the 2012 Eurydice survey informing us that in the school year 2009/2010, an average 73% of European pupils were learning English in primary education, while lower secondary and general upper secondary education reached a proportion higher than 90%. In the pre-vocational and vocational education sector the percentage of EU pupils studying English was 74.9% (Eurydice 2012: 11).

In the past the main teaching goal was to “become proficient in English solely to interact with British subjects” (Berns et al. 2007: 23), but now English is not only taught for integrative but also for instrumental purposes. English is an instrument for all speakers of non-English language backgrounds, and therefore learners need to develop communicative competences to use English with other English users inside and outside of Europe. The teaching of English in European countries is increasingly taking on a hybrid character, with both integrative and instrumental approaches forming part of primary and secondary school curriculums (Berns et al. 2007: 23f). I will now turn to how this has affected Austria’s highly diverse school system.

School reform passed during the 1960s led to foreign language skills taking on new importance in the Austrian education system, and though the teaching of a foreign language only became a part of the compulsory curriculum in primary education from 2002/2003, schools had steadily been increasing the provision of language teaching up until this point (De Cillia & Krumm 2010: 154). According to the 2012 Eurydice survey, 98.6% of Austrian pupils had studied English in primary education in the school year 2009/2010 (60). Foreign language teaching in Austrian primary schools does not have the formal status of a school subject but is nonetheless compulsory and sometimes integrated as the language of instruction for other subjects (De Cillia & Krumm 2010: 155). However, which language has to be taught as the compulsory foreign language

³ http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/key_data_series/143DE.pdf (2 February 2014)

in primary school is left to the discretion of schools, and besides English can include French, and the languages of national neighbours and minorities, such as Burgenland Croatian and Slovene (De Cillia&Krumm 2010: 154f.).

After leaving primary education, Austrian pupils from age 11 to 14 (i.e. 5th to 8th grade) can attend either a four-year middle school (Hauptschule or Neue Mittelschule) or the first four years (lower cycle) of an eight-year school of general education (Allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen, or AHS). Besides the AHS, which is also referred to as the Gymnasium, there are also the Realgymnasium (focused on science-oriented subjects) and the Wirtschaftkundliche Realgymnasium (focused on economics-oriented subjects). Both the middle school and the lower cycle of the Realgymnasium teach one modern foreign language to the extent of 4/4/3/3 hours per week (per school year), while the lower cycle of the Gymnasium incorporates an extent of up to 4/4/4/3 hours per week (numbers here are varied autonomously by the respective AHS). Languages offered include English, French, Italian, Russian, Spanish, Czech, Slovenian, Hungarian, Croatian, Serbian and Bosnian with the exception of Turkish only in the middle school. Both the middle school and the lower cycle of AHS can autonomously offer a second modern language as an optional subject with or without grading, and with weekly teaching time of 6 to 12 hours throughout all four years. Since 2006/2007 the AHS offers Latin in the 7th grade or a second modern foreign language as compulsory elective subject. After leaving lower secondary, Austrian learners can either attend a polytechnic institute (Polytechnischen Schule, or PTS) in order to complete their compulsory education, which spans 9 years in the Austrian education system, following up with an apprenticeship, or attend the second four years (upper cycle) of the AHS and a 3 to 5 year vocational school (Berufsbildende mittlere und höhere Schulen, or BHMS) respectively. In polytechnic institutes learners have 3 hours (which can be lowered to 2 or increased to 4) per week in the modern foreign language English. After completing polytechnic institute, learners usually serve an apprenticeship requiring the attendance of compulsory part-time vocational school (Berufsbildende Pflichtschule, or BPS). The teaching of a modern foreign language in such schools is restricted to 1 hour per week. Depending on the apprenticeship, a second modern foreign language may be prescribed, such as

for tourism. In the upper cycle (grades 9-12(13)), learners have to study a second modern foreign language in addition to their first (either in 6 years, when starting from the 7th grade, or in 4 years, when starting from the 9th grade until the school-leaving examination), both to an extent of 3/3/3/3 hours per week. A third modern foreign language in the upper secondary is not obligatory, but can be chosen in form of a compulsory elective subject. In 3 year vocational schools (Berufsbildende mittlere Schulen, or BMS) the teaching of one modern foreign language is compulsory, whereas the teaching of a second one is optional. De Cillia reports that in 3 year commercial schools (Handelsschulen, or HAS) the subject “Englisch einschließlich Wirtschaftssprache” is taught to an extent of 3/3/3 hours per week. In three year secondary schools for economic professions (Fachschulen für wirtschaftliche Berufe, or FW) English is determined as a compulsory foreign language and taught to a weekly extent of 3/3/3. 3 to 4 year schools of technical-industrial education (Technisch-gewerblichen Fachschulen, or FT) teach English as a compulsory modern foreign language as well, usually to an extent of 2/2/1/1. In 5 year vocational schools (Berufsbildende höhere Schulen, or BHS) the choice of modern foreign languages ranges from one to three, whereupon one modern foreign language is obligatory. In 5 year commercial schools (Handelsakademien, or HAK) and 5 year secondary schools for economic professions (Höhere Lehranstalten für wirtschaftliche Berufe, or HLW) the teaching of two modern foreign languages is mandatory, whereas in 5 year secondary schools for technical professions (Höheren Technischen Lehranstalten, or HTL) the teaching of a second modern foreign language is not. In HTLs the modern foreign language is English taught to 2/2/2/2/2 hours per week. The subjects “Englisch einschließlich Wirtschaftssprache” (in HAKs) and “Englisch” (in HLWs) are taught to a weekly extent of 2/3/3/3/3 and 3/3/3/3/3. The teaching of the second modern foreign language ranges to an extent of 3/2/3/3/3 hours per week in HAKs and 3/3/3/3/3 hours per week in HLWs. Another type of educational institution worth mentioning is the school for nursery education (Bundesanstalt für Kindergartenpädagogik, or BAKIP). Learners of this school can study English (3/3/2/2/2) as a compulsory modern foreign language, or a different language determined by the school itself.

Most EU countries have developed foreign language curricula under the principles of an official charter called the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The CEFR was published by the Council of Europe in 2001 and represents an instrument for evaluating the level of outcomes in the first foreign language as well as in the second foreign language. More precisely, the CEFR defines “in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively” (Council of Europe 2001: 1)⁴. From A1 Basic user to C2 Proficient user it specifies six levels of attainment for evaluating the progress of foreign language learners in a transparent and comparable way. In most countries the guidelines of the CEFR specify the minimum level to be reached in a foreign language by the end of compulsory general education as between A2 and B1 (Eurydice 2012: 12).

An innovative form of language teaching that has come to prominence over the course of the last few years is CLIL (Content-and-Language-Integrated-Learning). CLIL defined as a teaching approach applies to “educational settings where a language other than the students’ mother tongue is used as medium of instruction” (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 1). In virtually all European countries some schools offer the CLIL approach, by which school subject matters are either taught in two different languages or in the language that has been defined in the curriculum as “Fremdsprache”. Any foreign or second language can be the target language for CLIL, but Dalton-Puffer (2007: 1) argues that English is the language that is most dominant in “educational reality”. According to the 2012 Eurydice survey, only very few countries, such as Greece, Iceland and Turkey do not offer this kind of teaching approach (39). CLIL is widely applied in Austrian schools and especially in secondary education, where it is also referred to as *Fremdsprache als Arbeitssprache* (FsAA). Austrian educational authorities decided to use CLIL for the teaching of the “Sachfachunterricht” for all pupils aged between six and eight with regard to the first foreign language (Eurydice 2012: 160). Individual subject matters or optional topics can be taught either partly, entirely or in the form of project-based lessons in a foreign

⁴ http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf (2 February 2014)

language. De Cillia & Krumm (2010: 165) state that there is no obligation to apply FsAA in Austrian schools. However, a survey from 1996 shows that approximately 14% of Austrian schools in secondary education, that is 7% of secondary modern schools and 30% of schools providing vocational education, have incorporated FsAA into their teaching. According to the Austrian *Language Education Policy Profile Länderbericht*, the same was proven in the school year 2006/2007, when it was reported that the language chosen had almost invariably been English, termed then *English als Arbeitssprache* (EaA) (De Cillia & Krumm 2010: 166). In addition, based on the concept of FsAA, several bilingual schools (GIBS, LISA, Vienna Bilingual Schooling) have been established in Austria in recent years.

Some fifteen years ago, Graddol (1997: 36) speculated about the possible decline of English in the 21st century, arguing that languages such as Mandarin looked set to become important regional lingua francas, and that the monolingualism of many English native speakers would increasingly become a disadvantage in a multipolar world. In his 2006 follow-up publication to *The Future of English?*, Graddol (2006: 9) maintains his earlier position that “the future development of English as a global language might be less straightforward than had been assumed”, but acknowledges that “more people than ever want to learn English [...] English learners are increasing in number and decreasing in age” (10). The increasing number of young English learners across Europe is a particularly pronounced trend in Austria, as confirmed by the various European and Austrian statistics cited in this chapter.

Graddol observes that these demographic shifts in English learning have gained rapid momentum in a very short time since his 1997 publication. Some countries are actively pursuing a radical transition in the status of English, as a goal set by political leaders. The aim of countries including Mongolia, Chile and South Korea is no longer to teach English as a foreign language but to build up bilingual national populations within a short timeframe (Graddol 2006: 89). By contrast, the European Union promotes an official language policy of plurilingualism, according to which young European students should have the

opportunity to become proficient in two or more foreign languages, with English not recognised as a lingua franca even though it dominates European language teaching, as the Eurydice statistics show (Braine 2005: 29). So despite explicit bilingualism policies or a more moderated multilingualist approach designed to protect linguistic diversity, the dominance of English nevertheless emerges intact, and the language looks set to consolidate this position as the teaching of English is transferred ever more from the secondary to the primary level (Graddol 2006: 96).

This is a situation affected by many factors. Graddol (2006: 89) notes that the transfer of English learning to the primary level is in part a matter of logistics, since “timetables in secondary schools now have too many competing demands”. Phillipson (2004: 65) adds that Europe-based research into multilingualism and language policies is too limited, and that the European policy itself is haphazardly implemented by national ministries with “little expertise in language policy”. Amid this ambiguity and uncertainty, language teaching reverts to an “English first” default explained by the set of structural and ideological factors which Phillipson also identifies, ranging from economic globalisation to the leading status of English in popular culture (2004: 64f.).

5. Adolescents’ use of English

The classroom is certainly not the only place where contemporary adolescents are exposed to the English language. Traditionally, the most in-depth extracurricular contact with English came via English-language pop lyrics and the use of English when travelling abroad, either on school trips or holidays. Current social and cultural interaction however now provides numerous encounters with English outside of school, through a combination of the popular culture, consumer culture, the Internet, and gaming. The mass uptake of smartphones and other mobile technology has greatly expanded such interactions and led to the medialisation of personal environments (i.e. routine events of everyday life are posted as status updates to Facebook, or captured visually and uploaded to photo-sharing networks such as Instagram). With this

in mind it is important to consider more closely adolescents' use of English within their own personalised media environments. In Europe, a comparative study on young people, media and the role of English, which surveyed over 2000 school pupils in Belgium, France, Germany and the Netherlands, was conducted by Berns, de Bot and Hasebrink in 2007. The results from this study emphasise factors such as the identity-forming influence of media (Berns 2007: 11), the global impact of American or Anglophone products including pop music and Hollywood films (Berns et al. 2007: 33), and Internet use, although correlation between exposure to media formats and the use of English was found to be limited to the Internet, where strong patterns of English contact were identified (Hasebrink 2007: 92). The authors note that this does not necessarily reflect on English language penetration within particular media but rather on use: "young people in contemporary Europe may be selective in their media use, either favouring only certain media and discarding others, or combining different media and adding new ones to their individual menu" (Hasebrink 2007: 90). Since the Internet has rapidly expanded since the authors' publication date of 2007, with the online migration of old media such as TV playing a major role, it may now be necessary to rethink patterns of media selection in the context of the proven correlation between English contact and the Internet. This online migration has for instance created trends such as fansubbing, a form of online activism devoted to making foreign TV shows accessible to web-based streaming communities before official subtitled versions are made available. In the case of Germany, where TV dubbing for English-language content is common practice (Berns et al. 2007: 32), consumption via online streaming services will therefore involve a change to subtitled content. Diaz-Cintas (2010: 112) notes why this form of consumption has become so popular among young people:

[fansubbing] means that the latest films or episodes of popular TV series broadcast in the USA can be readily available on the net with Spanish, Italian or Chinese subtitles in literally a matter of hours after their first public airing. Audiences do not need to wait anymore until their favourite series have been purchased by national television stations, translated, and broadcast months later. These new developments in fansubbing free viewers from traditional broadcasting logics, as they only need to surf the net and download their preferred programmes, with subtitles in their mother tongue or in another language that they can read and understand.

A German study undertaken by Grau (2009) comes to different conclusions about exposure to English, confirming significant contact with the language in students' free time, and not just limited to the Internet. Her findings show a

gender-specific contact with media" in which "boys seem to spend a lot of time playing (English) computer games, [while] girls prefer to watch (English) TV programmes or listen intensively to (English) music, involving, for example, copying or translating the lyrics. (2009: 166)

English-language lyrics have been dominant in popular music for decades, a position consolidated in the European context by developments such as the relaxation of language rules in the Eurovision Song Contest, where English now leads (Berns et al. 2007: 30). Leppänen (2007) has studied, in a Finnish context, how lexical items from such media forms including video games and pop lyrics enter youth language, so that "uses of English function performatively as a means for a young individual to construct themselves as a particular kind of young person, with particular allegiances, values, and lifestyles" (2007: 150). Preisler defines this as "English from below", as opposed to the "English from above" taught in schools, suggesting that the two have divergent functional roles (1999: 247). The purpose of this sub-chapter is to examine this split in greater detail.

5.1. Interactivity of Internet platforms, from social networking to video gaming

Sites such as Facebook and Twitter are not the only platforms which aim to bring together people with common interests through interactive user-generated content. The Internet provides numerous online communities, which involve varying levels of active participation structured around certain themes or sets of themes. Although the Internet is becoming more multilingual, English remains the majority language, accounting for 56% of all online content⁵, and this is worth viewing from an ELF perspective. Interactive online platforms develop into communities when input is compounded by individual Internet users. This phenomenon has become widespread following the infrastructure advances of Web 2.0, a term that refers to massively expanded interactivity and user-

⁵ http://w3techs.com/technologies/overview/content_language/all (15 March 2014)

generated content compared to the World Wide Web of the 1990s, when user participation was more of a passive experience. The content of innovative websites such as Reddit⁶, which uses social networking to aggregate entertainment and news stories, is entirely user-governed, since community members vote content up or down, with the result that entries with the most votes feature the most prominently on the site. In this way, the collective presence of the user community is imprinted on the site.

Wikipedia, regularly surveyed as one of the top ten busiest websites on the Internet (Campbell, Mackinnon & Stevens 2010: 268), is also user-generated by a multilingual online community of contributors and editors – and unlike Reddit, the content featured is original to Wikipedia. Hautasaari et al. (2011: 232) comment that “in the multilingual Wikipedia, users from different language backgrounds have to rely on their second or third language in order to effectively communicate with other Wikipedia users”. For passive users of Wikipedia with foreign language skills, accessing the site’s content might also involve using their language experience from time to time – for example, if an article is not available in their native language but is covered on the English-language version of Wikipedia. Jørgensen (2013: 182) cites an interesting statement from Wikipedia founder Jimmy Wales about the linguistic ambitions of the site: “[Wikipedia is] an effort to create and distribute a free encyclopedia of the highest possible quality to every single person on the planet *in their own language*” [my emphasis]. The current reality of Wikipedia however has some way to go in fulfilling this objective: 56.5% of Wikipedia’s traffic goes to its English-language pages (a proportion similar to current figures for English-language sites on the Internet as a whole), followed by the Spanish, Japanese and Russian versions of the site, which trail behind with 8%, 7% and 6% respectively (Jørgensen 2013: 182). Warschauer (2004: 96), who has worked extensively on language and the digital divide, reminds us that such figures for English are “well out of proportion to the number of English speakers in the world”.

Wikipedia pages culturally specific to Austria do not always reveal this bias, showing that exposure to English-language pages is also strongly influenced by

⁶ <http://www.reddit.com/> (15 March 2014)

the type of content accessed. All fourteen members of the current Austrian cabinet have Wikipedia pages in German, while five out of the fourteen have no equivalent page in English (Wikipedia, 2014)⁷. Of the nine members with English pages, five are stubs (which Wikipedia defines as “an article deemed too short to provide encyclopedic coverage of a subject”),⁸ while the other four, despite containing more information in English, are still much less extensive than the German equivalents. With less culturally specific content, the English-language bias however becomes far more noticeable. If I wish to learn about the solar system from Wikipedia, the German-language page offers an article of just over 3000 words⁹, with 3 sections and 14 references. The English-language version is far more extensive, with over 7500 words, 11 sections of text, and 144 references¹⁰.

Multilingual online communities have also emerged in consumerist contexts, for example in the reviews sections of online retailers such as Amazon. Product reviews on country-specific Amazon sites tend to be in the native language of the respective country, but in the case of products sold on the international version of the site, English leads as the dominant language. It is however hard to examine the influence this has from a language perspective, since Amazon does not release exact sales figures and a broad study into the multilingual aspects of online retail communities has yet to be undertaken. Seargeant & Tagg (2014) have recently published a book containing research into online reviews, but their analysis of identity and discourse in Tripadvisor reviews is limited to English-language reviews written by native speakers.

An online community popular in male youth culture is multiplayer gaming. As recently as fifteen years ago multiplayer gaming used to require the physical presence of the gamers involved, with players usually knowing each other as friends, and their numbers being limited to the number of controllers that could be plugged into the non-networked gaming consoles available at the time. A

⁷ http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bundesregierung_Faymann_II (9 April 2014)

⁸ <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wikipedia:Stub> (9 April 2014)

⁹ <http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sonnensystem> (9 April 2014)

¹⁰ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solar_System (9 April 2014)

combination of faster broadband capability, more powerful computer processors, and the Internet as a gateway has since made networked, interactive gaming a reality, anonymising players and lifting the limit on numbers (which have grown exponentially). Another departure from the traditional social model of gaming has been a radical shift in what it means to be part of a gaming community, since this structure now transcends nationality and location. Huntemann & Payne (2009: 193) also note how retail figures for massively multiplayer games confirm their position as a new form of mass culture: “Call of Duty 3 (2006) has sold over three million units [...] and its predecessor Call of Duty 2 (2005) has sold over 2.8 million units for the Xbox 360 and PS2 alone”. The authors also highlight the extensive peripheral networking held outside the gaming environment, which enhances interaction between gamers (Huntemann & Payne 2009: 194). This includes fan websites and online forums, which can become sharply factionalized according to multiplayer team membership (known within the shooter and military-themed genre as ‘clans’). A further interesting finding from this study is the observation that “fan bulletin boards also attract international players, allowing for unique cross-national comparisons of video game audiences” (Huntemann & Payne 2009: 194).

According to Pietroni (2012: 4), a “massively multiplayer online game” can involve a constituency ranging from several hundreds of thousands to millions of players, leading to a necessary reorientation of ties between gamers (“the term community identifies groups of subjects sharing characteristics and drivers, but not forcibly locations and objectives”, 2012: 3). Pietroni (2012: 7) argues that this causes some familiar patterns to emerge: namely, that gaming outcomes have been shown to differ between specific geographical regions of the world, which Pietroni narrows down to “unequal interaction stances”, determined principally by how anglophone the culture of the gamer is. Drawing from the work of Seidlhofer (2004: 7), Pietroni (2012: 7) writes that

[...] in systems in which coordination is rewarded through progression and achieved through communication, common linguistic grounds are required in order to succeed, and those who do not possess them receive limited access to the rewards of the system.

Pietroni (2012: 10) subsequently explains that communication in online gaming communities is limited to objective-focused language exchanges framed by the linguistic worlds of the games in question and gaming in general. This is particularly pronounced in more collaborative games such as World of Warcraft. To what extent English is relied on within gameplay is a theme I expect to feature in the results of my own survey.

5.2. *English and the cultural construction of youth identities*

Adolescence as a bodily phenomenon falls chronologically between childhood and adulthood, but as Leppänen (2007: 151) highlights, social aspects of “youth” cannot be defined so precisely. Youth culture today is a complicated blend of the global and the local, and as Wortham (2011: ix) emphasises, “youth do not find the heterogeneity [...] unsettling, as many adults do, but instead embrace multiplicity and rapid change as they position themselves in increasingly complex Western societies”.

This flexibility is confirmed by youth society varying widely according to region, culture, and other contexts. Feldman and Elliott (1990: 231) observe that “it makes little sense to speak of a monolithic youth culture”. Indeed, one of the few fixed things appears to be a tendency to code youth identities and practices using “semiotic resources” appropriated from the broader social and cultural environment (Leppänen 2007: 151). This is felt particularly strongly in the linguistic sphere, where youths who take control of meaning in this way have traditionally been perceived as culturally transgressive by adults. Jørgensen (2003: 765) notes here that linguistic provocation “explicitly and repeatedly denounced by teachers and gatekeepers is valuable to the young generation as a signal of group identity and perhaps solidarity”. Penetration of youth-constructed linguistic forms however can remove the threat, with Jørgensen (2003: 765) also observing that “teenage language features, or some of them, become household features a generation later”. Since Wortham’s (2011: ix) media- and internet-dominated rapid change has not only affected youth culture, the timeframe for this has recently become much less than a

generation. A 2007 comic sketch broadcast on the BBC as part of the British charity fundraising initiative “Comic Relief” featured the actress Catherine Tate playing the character of a “fast-talking, uppity teenager” (Richardson, Parry & Corner 2013: 206). The sketch, which has attracted over a million views on YouTube, shows the rebellious teenager using youth slang and references from popular culture in order to show her disrespect to adults (YouTube, 2014)¹¹. Tate continues her aggressive verbal style even when confronted with the then-serving prime minister, who functions as a symbol for higher authority. In his cameo, Tony Blair provides the joke by showing he can answer back perfectly well using Tate’s own language, and even steals her slang catchphrase (“am I bovvered”), leaving her lost for words (Richardson, Parry & Corner 2013: 206).

So even though youth cultures reacts, in many ways, against perceived ‘adult’ culture, there is much scope for adult participation in youth culture. This can be traced back to counter-cultural trends of the 1960s, which remained culturally relevant even as their participants aged. Jagodzinski (1997: 209) writes that “boomer disposable incomes have defined a mobile and aging youth culture. As these 1960s rock-and-rollers become grandparents it appears that youth is a state that is available to everyone of any age”.

The sight of adults taking possession of trends in youth culture, even though this is more diverse nowadays than it has ever been, has become more commonplace due to media and the Internet. The social networking site Facebook was initially only open to students registered at institutions of higher education, then became accessible to high school pupils, and was finally opened up to any user with a valid email address in 2006. What was earlier an online space for young people soon became dominated by their parents (Wright & Webb 2011: 33).

As noted at the beginning of this chapter, youth culture today is shaped by both local and global factors, and the Internet is a good example of this. Youth identity and language have also been strongly impacted by globalisation and

¹¹ <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sfkjvagVsRI> (11 April 2014)

English-language popular culture. Feldman & Elliott (1990: 232) observe that adolescents do not have the same financial responsibilities as adults, and that their disproportionate purchasing power leads to much consumer spending. With their money, adolescents mostly buy into culture, or more specifically, popular culture: “Entrepreneurs [...] appropriate the indigenous symbols of youth leisure, rebellion, and revolt, and translate them into consumer goods” (Feldman & Elliott 1990: 232). The authors also offer the theory that “since the 1950s the music industry has been largely underwritten by teenagers’ cash” (1990: 232).

Popular music, as we have seen, is a cultural form dominated by the English language, and unlike the Hollywood movie, the singing voice remains intact and cannot be dubbed into other languages. I will turn now to the influence of English-language popular culture and media on specific linguistic aspects of contemporary youth identity.

5.3. *Anglicisms in consumer culture and youth culture*

Much research has been done into the spread of the English language in Europe and its importance as a second language. In this sub-chapter I want to address the impact English has had on the German language, which is most noticeable in contemporary consumer culture and youth culture. English imprints contemporary German mostly through anglicisms, or terms of English origin. A more precise definition of this linguistic development is offered by Zindler (1959: 2, cited in Carstensen 1965: 30):

Ein Anglizismus ist ein Wort aus dem britischen oder amerikanischen Englisch im Deutschen oder eine nicht übliche Wortkomposition, jede Art der Veränderung einer deutschen Wortbedeutung oder Wortverwendung (Lehnbedeutung, Lehnübersetzung, Lehnübertragung, Lehn schöpfung, Frequenzsteigerung, Wiederbelebung) nach britischem oder amerikanischem Vorbild.

Schelper (1995: 16) adds to this “loan syntax”, which indicates syntactical and morphosyntactical changes influenced by English structures, but finds that these changes could also be conceivably influenced by dialectal forms of

German. With the origins of influence hard to determine, the evidence for “anglicised syntax” is inconclusive. Görlach (2003: 1) also formulates a broader definition than Zindler, writing that a legitimate anglicism is “a word or idiom that is recognizably English in its form (spelling, pronunciation, morphology, or at least one of the three)”.

It is a long-established practice for anglicisms to enter the German language. Many anglicisms still used today count as historical. Onysko (2007: 72) notes that the German word “Boycott” comes from “the name of Capt. Boycott who was abandoned by his workers and servants due to his outrageous behaviour”. The case was reported widely outside of Boycott’s native Ireland, and as a term meaning “protest”, the anglicism entered a number of European languages after appearing in newspapers (Onysko 2007: 72). Because the word’s uptake was recorded in newspapers, this case can be dated quite specifically back to the 1880s. Other anglicisms which von Polenz (1978: 141) traces back to this earlier period include *Club*, *Cocktail*, *Dandy*, *Gentleman* and *Snob*.

The influx of anglicisms into German has risen steadily since 1945, beginning with the American and British military presence in Allied-occupied Germany and Austria. Burmasova (2010: 74) argues that limited German patriotism following the end of the war led to many anglicisms finding easy acceptance in German, either through direct contact with British and American soldiers, or the growing economic and cultural influence of America. European economic reconstruction of the 1950s also brought a recovery in household disposable income which fuelled the ‘American way of life’ fashions popular in consumer culture at the time. Yang (1990: 2) lists some of the numerous anglicisms which entered German as a result, in areas such as fashion (*Jeans*, *Jogginganzug*, *T-Shirt*), food and drink (*Hamburger*, *Hot-Dog*, *Soft Drink*), cosmetics (*Eyelinier*, *Shampoo*, *Make-up*), and entertainment and popular music (*Talkshow*, *Rock’n’Roll*, *Musical*).

Globalisation has brought about its own changes in the arenas of politics, business, technology and culture. The use of corporate jargon has become

widespread in America and Britain since the 1970s, with many job titles and other terms also entering German as anglicisms: *Marketing-Manager/in*, *Financial Controller/in*, *Chief Sales Officer* (Hilgendorf 2007: 137). German-adapted IT jargon such as *surfen*, *Link* or *downloaden* are now considered basic lexical terms for which scarcely anybody uses the German equivalents. Anglicisms are also strongly prominent in contemporary advertising and marketing.

Contemporary youth language tends to be where the newest and most up-to-the-minute anglicisms are found, and as mentioned above, the English language holds a particular attraction for young German speakers. Elsen (2003: 268f) indicates that it is especially the younger generation which introduces English words into their everyday language, which can then become subsequently integrated into the wider German lexicon. Words like *chill*, *relax*, *keep cool*, or *sucks* to express irritation (as in English) are some of the current vogue words of today's youth. A lot of anglicisms have no equivalents in German or in other languages as they describe new things, concepts or institutions. This also applies to terms and trends in youth culture which originated in the English-speaking world, for example *Hip hop* and *Hip-Hopper* (with varying capitalisation and hyphenation), *Rockers*, *Ravers*, *Surfers* or *Skaters*. Fashion and other youth accessories are also incorporated with terms such as *Sneakers*, *Hoodies*, *Skateboard* and *Waveboard*.

Youth behaviour, clothes and music style therefore have picked up well-known English expressions which are not just anglicisms in German, but other languages too. As a consequence, it is often said that English is the world language for today's youth, which according to Androutsopoulos (2003: 1), is a misunderstanding. Androutsopoulos (2003: 1) indicates that anglicisms are only used in combination with youth cultures which have developed recently such as the activities listed above, while in more traditional youth pursuits and groupings there is no need for anglicisms. An example of this in Austria is the "Landjugend", a traditional organisation with a history dating not so long back to the immediate post-war years. With a focus on traditional customs and native

culture, the lexicon of its members is oriented on the German language, while their interests, clothes and style of music are likewise traditionally Austrian. With approximately 90,000 members the 'Landjugend' is the largest youth organisation in Austria's rural regions¹². A reverse outlook to Androutsopoulos is however argued by Großegger, Heinzlmaier & Zenter (2001: 205), who write about "scenes" being stronger than traditional forms of youth culture, with most young Austrians belonging to one or more scenes affected by globalised popular culture (among their "top ten scenes among young men and women", the authors list computer game players, hip-hop fans, fans of a particular band). Elsewhere, Großegger & Heinzlmaier (2002: 8) claim that youth scenes function like "social worlds" which are of great importance in the daily lives of young people, and can be considered the predominant core culture [Leitkultur] of contemporary youth.

In reflecting on the difference between youth scenes and traditional youth cultures, we see that anglicisms and contemporary youth culture are not always inseparable, and certain trends and activities within youth culture lean more towards anglicisms than others. Anglicisms within youth culture do not always stay as fixed in meaning either. Androutsopoulos has observed young people using anglicisms with two meanings: the first in accordance with English usage, the second in alternative contexts not related either to English or the original area of meaning. For example, HipHoppers use the word "freestylen" and creatively adopt it in new contexts, like, for instance, to comment that the teacher is not prepared: "Der Lehrer freestylt" (Androutsopoulos 2003: 2).

There is much research yet to be done on the impact of English-language trends in contemporary German-speaking youth culture. While authors such as Androutsopoulos insist that young people do not always gravitate to English-influenced activities and that the use of anglicisms is not so widespread, other researchers find a strong English-language influence in youth culture. For example, Waibel (2007: 105) claims that hip-hop is the most popular form of youth culture in Switzerland, and that anglicisms are far more prevalent in

¹² <http://www.landjugend.at/?id=2500%2C%2C2277%2C> (20 March 2014)

Internet chats among young Swiss hip-hop fans than with other teens (2007: 115). Yildiz (2004: 328) adds that hip-hop has had a considerable impact on social work strategies in Germany:

[...] hip hop and rap culture and aesthetics have been actively promoted by state institutions as an appropriate 'language' and cultural practice for Turkish-German youth in particular. German social workers in youth clubs have organized courses in rap and staged local graffiti and breakdance competitions. Paradoxically, they saw these forms of U.S. minority culture as a means of integrating young Turkish-German men into German society.

These are just a few examples of significant social and cultural developments in which English is embedded. Regardless of whether the overall number of English loanwords is increasing, decreasing or staying the same, their use across large elements of youth culture looks likely to stay for as long as English remains such a dominant language within global popular culture. On this note, I will finish this chapter by citing Hasebrink, Berns & de Bot (2007: 115), where it is claimed that "school is but one source of contact with English – and at least for some groups not the most important one".

Empirical study

6. Description of Empirical Study

Before discussing methodology, I will first describe how my research interest has been affected by engaging with the literature reviewed in the first part of the thesis. This has enabled me to formulate a set of research questions and hypotheses which I will specify in the remainder of this introductory chapter.

6.2. *Research interest*

After a close reading of the literature relating to English as a lingua franca and English in the context of globalisation, I became aware of what a dominant role English plays in European countries, a phenomenon particularly noticeable through media, technology and science. Europeans are exposed to English in various domains: in the workplace, during their leisure time, when travelling, and in the educational system. With regard to the educational system, I discussed in chapter 4 that English has become more of a second language than a foreign language in many European countries, and that this also applies for Austria. English is the most commonly taught modern foreign language in Austria and is therefore the foreign language most recognised by Austrian adolescents.

Contemporary daily life however offers numerous social and cultural reasons for young people to use English outside of school: chatting with friends in English, playing popular computer games, using English-language websites and applications, listening to English-language music, or watching popular American sitcoms. Activities such as social networking or computer gaming are usually accompanied by a specific jargon which is typically English-based, which is not only limited to media environments. Specific identities within youth culture also have their own individual English-influenced jargon, as well as names which derive from the English-speaking world (i.e. hip hop, skater). English terms used

in a German-speaking context in this way are referred to as anglicisms, which are also commonly encountered in advertising and marketing, and are therefore a highly visible aspect of both contemporary youth and consumer cultures.

Young people are stereotypically seen as those most interested in and influenced by new media and popular culture. Based on the high profile of English in these areas, I have developed a considerable interest in young people's use of English outside the pedagogical environment.

My interest in this field also has an applied aspect, as it is stated in the Austrian national curriculum¹³ that it is positive to incorporate learners' spheres of interest in teaching. As a future teacher, it is therefore of personal interest to develop insights into which free-time activities Austrian adolescents like to do and whether English plays a role in them.

The issues discussed in the literature review provided a panoramic view of the role of English in different contexts and a broad understanding about the status English has in the lives of contemporary adolescents. The research cited in this section has substantially informed the theoretical background to my research, and the questions for my empirical study are strongly based around young people's extracurricular use of English in regard to new media, popular culture, social life, and English-language consumerism.

This study is limited to information gathered from 169 participants and so has its limits when it comes to drawing general conclusions. However, even results from a small sample can definitely add to an enhanced understanding of the extracurricular use of English among Austrian adolescents, as well as potentially open up new directions for further research.

¹³ http://www.bmukk.gv.at/medienpool/11854/lp_ahs_os_lebende_fs.pdf (24.03.2014)

6.2.1. Research questions

Based on my research interest, I formulated the following research question: *do contemporary Austrian adolescents use a significant amount of English outside the classroom?*

In order to determine their extracurricular use of English in greater detail, I formulated the following sub-question: *to what extent can their use of English be deemed a social use of English?*

Furthermore, I was also interested in what differences might be found in the use of English among Austrian adolescents from different regions of the country. A busy, diverse city like Vienna offers more possibilities for young people to consume popular culture than small towns in rural areas of Austria. Whether this fact is reflected in the use of English among Austrian adolescents forms another part of my research. Taking into account this comparative analysis, I have devised a second sub-question: *Are there any differences in the extracurricular use of English among Austrian adolescents living in urban Vienna versus those living in rural areas of Lower Austria?*

6.2.2. Hypotheses

In order to test my findings I am proposing here three hypotheses. A research hypothesis is “set upon the basis of theory or prior observation or on logical grounds” (McNemar 1962: 61, cited in Khan 2011: 61).

Referring to the general research question, my hypothesis is that *contemporary Austrian adolescents use English outside the classroom to a considerable extent*. This assumption is based on the findings of a smaller study which I conducted a year ago and dealt with a similar research question (“*For what purposes do Austrian adolescents use English outside of school?*”). However, as my previous study was conducted with only 80 participants, the findings were

limited. Therefore, it is worth retesting the hypothesis with a larger number of participants.

The two sub-questions have been newly devised for the present study. Consequently, my second and third hypotheses do not relate back to my previous research. With regard to the first sub-question, my hypothesis is that *out-of-class English is used socially by Austrian adolescents to a certain extent*.

My third hypothesis, related to the second sub-question, is that *adolescents living in Vienna have a more intensive extracurricular use of English than adolescents from rural areas of Lower Austria*.

6.3. Methodological approach and quality criteria

The aim of this study is to specify whether Austrian adolescents use English outside the classroom, and to what extent this constitutes a social use of English. The scope in which English plays a role in the lives of contemporary Austrian adolescents is potentially wide-ranging.

For my research, I have therefore decided on a quantitative methodological approach that will involve a questionnaire, since the experience from my previous study was that this is the most effective method to ask a lot of questions within a very short time. A questionnaire also is comparatively simple to develop, versatile, and above all, supplies answers to questions in a “systematic and disciplined manner” (Dörnyei 2007: 101). Questionnaires are defined by Brown (2001: 6) as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to respond to either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”, and the questionnaire constructed for this survey principally required the respondents to select one (or more) of the given answers. However, to bring specific information about their interests to the surface, a few open-response questions invited the participants to volunteer individual information in written

form. Brown (2001: 36) argues that “open-response questions are particularly good for finding unexpected answers”.

6.3.1. *Limitations of questionnaires*

Although a questionnaire has advantages that justify its approach, its weaknesses should also be considered. When constructing questions, ambiguity can result in invalid or unreliable data. Dörnyei (2007: 115) indicates that “the weakest aspect of questionnaires is the fact that the items need to be sufficiently simple and straightforward to be understood by everybody”. Consequently, to develop reliable questions it is necessary to be clear and follow guidelines in terms of item wording (i.e. use of simple language, avoidance of ambiguous sentences), but also try not to limit the scope of the questionnaire as a result. Another important step is piloting the questionnaire. The questionnaire should be piloted with a similar group to the intended target group in order to assess the comprehensibility of the questions (Dörnyei 2007: 112).

6.3.2. *Overcoming methodological challenges*

Having gained experience in writing questionnaires for use in my previous study, I wanted to be bolder and feature more qualitative content. The questionnaire for the present study is more detailed in this regard, and includes more open-response questions. Proposing a mixed method that introduces some elements of qualitative content to the results is a common solution to determine causality (Johnson & Christensen 2010: 51). It seemed beneficial to include some qualitative content not only to make the questionnaire more mixed but also from a data collection perspective, in order to make the data as full and representative as possible. This can be seen in question 54, which invites respondents to indicate English words that are parts of their daily lexicon. This data could not be collected without the use of qualitative methods, and in fact provided some of the more interesting results from the survey.

6.4. Sampling

Sampling [...] is the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group. (Gupta & Gupta 2011: 41)

For the empirical part of my study I deliberately surveyed classes of schools located in rural areas of Lower Austria and classes of schools in Vienna in order to determine potential regional differences in the extracurricular use of English among the pupils. The sample consisted of learners in their penultimate school year before taking the Austrian Matura, and as previously explained, this particular group has already acquired good English skills and adolescents at this age are keen consumers of popular culture. My aim was to conduct the survey with at least 150 pupils consisting of a roughly equal number of urban and rural learners as well as an equal number of female and male learners. However, ensuring a fully equal balance is nearly impossible due to the heterogeneity of the classes.

In the end I gathered information from 169 pupils in total, aged between 16 and 18. 95 of these were female and 74 male. These numbers consist of four 7th grade classes of a Viennese general educational school (AHS), totalling 80 pupils (46 female and 34 male), and four 4th grade classes of two vocational schools (two from a HTL and two from a HLW) located in rural Lower Austria, totalling 89 pupils (49 female and 40 male).

Table 1

Number of participants in total, according to gender and region.

Number of pupils participated in the survey: 169			
Number of female pupils participated in the survey: 95		Number of male pupils participated in the survey: 74	
Number of pupils from Vienna: 80		Number of pupils from Lower Austria: 89	
Number of female pupils from Vienna: 46	Number of male pupils from Vienna: 34	Number of female pupils from Lower Austria: 49	Number of male pupils from Lower Austria: 40

6.4.1. Problems caused by sampling

Relating results from a limited sample to a general population requires careful analysis. Various factors can skew results, including interest in the very activity of filling out questionnaires itself. As Brown (2001: 85) remarks:

The problem is that the types of respondents who return questionnaires may be a specific type of 'eager-beaver' or 'gung-ho' respondent. Thus the results of the survey can only be generalized to 'eager-beaver' or 'gung-ho' people in the population rather than to the entire population.

Dörnyei (2007: 101) largely echoes this, arguing that “drop-outs may be more unmotivated than their peers and therefore their departure might make the remaining participants' general level of motivation unnaturally high”. An aspect which Dörnyei does not discuss but which it seems necessary to consider is that of respondents who do have information to contribute but are however not motivated, simply because they are uninterested in filling out questionnaires. It is not hard to imagine a respondent who does use English in their leisure time and hence has data to contribute, but is not interested in completing the questionnaire. As a result, the characteristics of the target group itself cannot be stated with absolute certainty, which again leads to problems concerning the generalisability possible with the sample.

6.5. Ethics

“Issues of ethics focus on establishing safeguards that will protect the rights of the participants” (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtler 2010: 17).

When conducting research, there are important ethical guidelines to consider. In applied linguistics specifically, Dörnyei (2010: 79f.) has formulated five ethical principles based on the theories of Sudman and Bradburn (1983) and Oppenheim (1992). Protecting participants against harm during the research is clearly stated as the first ethical guideline. The other guidelines are: respecting participants' rights during research (i.e. the right not to answer questions and the right to decide to whom information is accessible); securing positive consent

from participants by supplying adequate information at the onset; determining if an adult is required to authorise participation (the age at which informed consent is needed depends on the legal provisions of the country in question); and guaranteeing the researcher's commitment to discretion and guidelines agreed with the participants.

While collecting the data for my survey, I followed these ethical principles to the fullest extent and also made the participants explicitly aware of their rights beforehand.

6.6. Data collection and procedure

In order to investigate the extent of Austrian adolescents' extracurricular use of English, my empirical study concentrated on gathering information about their attitudes towards English, where they encounter English outside from school, and reasons for using English in their free time. In these areas I decided to include types of questions suggested by Dörnyei (2007: 102): factual questions, behavioural questions and attitudinal questions. An example of the questionnaire for a factual question is: *how often do you use English outside of school?* Behavioural questions are about habits and personal actions, for example: *do you travel abroad on a regular basis?* An attitudinal question included in the questionnaire reads: *is it important for you to understand English songs?*

With regard to the answer formats of questionnaire items, I complied with the standards discussed by Dörnyei (2007: 104ff.). The questionnaire is primarily made up of closed items, for which the respondents have to choose one (or more) of the given answers. Questions that invite the respondents to select more than one of the given alternatives are called *multiple-choice items*. In addition, with *multiple-choice items* the respondents have the possibility to provide alternatives themselves. Such questions can be useful for obtaining information about potential reasons for the respondents to use English outside of school. For instance, question 51 asks whether respondents use English for

contacting people socially. The multiple items provided for this question suggest alternatives such as *I text my friends/relatives in English in order to stay in contact* or *I write English emails/letters to my friends/relatives in order to stay in contact*. Moreover, the multiple-choice questions included in this questionnaire also feature a blank line for additional alternatives created by the respondents themselves. Some questions are made up of *true-false items*. These questions require the respondent to decide between *yes* or *no*. This format was used to detect possibilities where the respondents encounter out-of-class English, just as for question 26 *do you listen to English-language radio programmes?* However, according to Dörnyei (2007: 106), this answer format “can simplify things too much, resulting in highly reduced and occasionally even distorted data”. Questions with this answer format are therefore mostly followed by qualitative questions to seek out further details. For example, question 35 asks whether participants watch English-language TV shows, and if the answer is yes, the open-response question 37 invites them to name the TV shows they watch. Another example of a qualitative element is question 54, which requires free writing by asking the participants to write down some examples of the English slang words they use. Information like this is rather difficult to collect when focusing entirely on quantitative research. Questions that aim at measuring the extent of extracurricular use among the participants feature items which give information about the frequency of a particular free-time activity. For example the items to question 47 (*how often do you use English-language apps?*) range from *several times a day* to *less than once a week*. Another type of closed-ended item included in the questionnaire is the so-called *Likert scale*. Items of this particular type range from affirmative to negative, so from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* are beneficial to gain attitudinal information. They follow statements such as *nowadays it is important to be able to speak in English*. However, as the questionnaire was written in German I used the standard five options from ‘Trifft zu’ to ‘Trifft nicht zu’. The final type of closed item embodied in the questionnaire is *rank order items*. This format requires the respondents to order the given items according to their priority, or in this case according to the frequency in terms of use: to question 60 (*in what form do you use English outside of school?*) the items presented have to be numbered from

1 to 4, where 1 implies the most frequently used form and 4 the least frequently used.

All in all, the questionnaire consists of 60 questions divided into six parts. The first part asks for 'personal information' and includes questions like *how old are you?* or *which language(s) do you use within your family?* The second part features attitudinal statements (*English is important for my future job/study*) about the English language in general and is therefore called 'English as a first modern foreign language'. The next part is called 'personal contact with English' and the questions included suggest specific situations and circumstances in which one may get (in)voluntarily exposed to English (*have you ever had to communicate with online traders in English?*). 'English use in leisure time' comprises the fourth part and presents respondents with questions about various English-based activities, such as *do you watch films in the original English-language version?* The fifth part is called 'English as a trendy language' and investigates other ways in which English may appeal to the respondents: *do you integrate English words, which you acquire while listening to hip hop, to your daily lexicon?* The last part 'personal evaluation' features questions which evaluate the respondents' personal opinions about their use of English in the free time (*After you have answered the above questions, would you think that you use English outside of school?*).

The presentation of the findings in the next chapter is structured according to the title of the respective part of the questionnaire.

After deciding on the target group and developing the questionnaire, I contacted the headteachers of three different schools, two located in Lower Austria and the third in Vienna. I introduced my project and asked permission to distribute my questionnaires in the classes corresponding to the target group. After receiving a positive answer from each school, I informed the class teachers beforehand that it takes about eight minutes to complete the questionnaire. Due to the short duration I had been invited to come in during school hours, and before I distributed the questionnaires to the pupils I provided them with the

necessary information about my project and the ethical principles which guide it. All pupils voluntarily agreed to take part in the survey and after about ten minutes I could collect the completed questionnaires and thank them for their participation.

7. Presentation of findings

The aim of this chapter is to present the empirical findings and comparative data of my study. The presentation follows the structure of the questionnaire and so is divided into six parts: 1. Personal information; 2. English as first modern foreign language; 3. Personal contact with English; 4. English use in leisure time; 5. English as a trendy language; 6. Personal evaluation. Each individual part consists of an introduction with consideration of theoretical background applicable to the topic, a description of the findings and comparative data, as well as a discussion of the most relevant results. A full statistical breakdown of the data collected is contained in Appendix 2. Any significant relationships between the overall data will be analysed in chapter 8, which will summarise the main findings.

7.1. *Personal Information*

The first part deals with the personal background information of the participants and aims to build a profile of the sample as well as contribute to a better understanding of the answers given to subsequent questions. The data covers information about the participants' gender, age, and current academic year. Regarding languages, the participants indicated which language/s other than English they are learning at school and which language/s they use with their family.

7.1.1. Description of findings and comparative data

Table 2 presents personal data from the entire sample such as sex, age and current academic year. As explained in sub-chapter 6.3., 95 (56.2%) of the 169 participating pupils are female and 74 (43.8%) are male. At the time when the study was conducted, the majority (50.3%) were 17 years old, while 21.3% were 16 and 28.4% were 18. Concerning the academic year, 47.3% attended the 11th form of a general educational school (AHS) and 52.7% attended a vocational school (BHS).

Table 2

Sex, age, and current academic year:

		Female	Male
Sex:		56.2%	43.8%
	16 years	17 years	18 years
Age:	21.3%	50.3%	28.4%
		11. (AHS)	12. (BHS)
Academic year:		47.3%	52.7%

Table 3 reports other languages learned by the respondents in school and language/s spoken within their family. I learned here that each participant studies only one foreign language in addition to English. The dominant second language taught at school is French, with a percentage of 81.1%. The remaining 18.9% learn Italian. German is the dominant language used at home, in the urban area as well as in the rural area: 100% of the Lower Austrian participants indicated German as their home language, although 2.2% (that is 2 pupils) also speak Turkish at home in addition to German. The home languages of pupils coming from the urban area are more diverse. Besides German, which with a percentage of 96.3% is still the dominant home language, other languages include Turkish (13.7%), Serbian and Bosnian (each 5.0%), Macedonian (3.7%), Greek, Czech, Russian, Croatian and Mandarin (each 2.5%), Tagalog, Arabic, Japanese and Hindi (each 1.2%).

Table 3*Other language(s) learned at school:*

	French	Italian	Other language/s
Which language/s other than English are you learning at school?	81.1%	18.9%	00.0%
Which language/s are you using within your family?			
Urban area	German		96.3%
	Turkish		13.7%
	Serbian		5.0%
	Bosnian		5.0%
	Macedonian		3.7%
	Greek		2.5%
	Czech		2.5%
	Russian		2.5%
	Croatian		2.5%
	Mandarin		2.5%
	Tagalog		1.2%
	Arabic		1.2%
	Japan		1.2%
	Hindi		1.2%
Rural area	German		100.0%
	Turkish		2.2%

7.1.2. Discussion

The participants who contributed to the survey either attend a general educational school (AHS) or vocational school (BHS). The data collected comes from learners of a general educational school (AHS) in Vienna and from learners of two vocational schools (BHS) in Lower Austria, so as to contrast urban and rural results. Indicating the type of school is important when discussing the findings as it plays a role for the information about age and academic year. Those who attend a general educational school are completing their school career after 12 years and those who chose to attend a vocational school take their final examination after 13 years. As the survey focused on learners in their penultimate school year, learners of the general educational school (AHS) attend the 11th academic year and learners of the vocational schools (BHS) attend the 12th academic year. The type of school is also reflected in the findings in regard to age. Those pupils who attend the general educational school (AHS) are aged between 16 and 17, and those who attend the vocational schools (BHS) are aged between 17 and 18. As a result, the overall data used in this study was collected from learners between 16 and 18 years all in their penultimate school year.

Regarding the question about which language(s) other than English are learned at school, a larger number of the respondents study French and a smaller number study Italian. I informed myself beforehand about whether English is taught as the first modern foreign language at the respective schools and in all schools this is the case. As each participant indicated only one language studied next to English, it can be ruled out that there are any other languages offered in the form of a compulsory elective subject by the schools (De Cillia & Krumm 2010: 154f.). Therefore, both French and Italian function as second modern foreign languages. In terms of home languages, it is striking that none of the respondents speaks English within their family. Certainly, this limited study is not as extensive as the findings of the study conducted by Berns et al. (2007). However, Berns et al. show that English, if only in low numbers, is spoken in addition to the national language at home in Germany, France and the Netherlands. For example, 1.4% out of 145 French students spoke English in addition to French at home (de Bot, Evers & Huibregtse 2007: 55). The overall number of French students is comparable to the number of Austrian students that contributed in my study. Therefore, I did not expect that nobody uses English within their family, especially not in regard to learners from the more multicultural city of Vienna. However, what I did expect beforehand was a diverse number of home languages spoken by participants coming from urban Vienna¹⁴, and the results confirmed this.

7.2. *English as first modern foreign language*

English is the most commonly taught foreign language in Europe and this is also true of the Austrian education system. The second part of the questionnaire was therefore aimed at encouraging learners to reflect on the role of English as a quasi-official first modern foreign language. I was interested in whether learners like English as a foreign language, how they assess themselves as learners of English, and whether there is a relationship between these two questions. Research in the field of language motivation and language

¹⁴ BMUKK: pupils with migrant backgrounds:
http://www.rechnungshof.gv.at/fileadmin/downloads/2013/berichte/teilberichte/bund/Bund_2013_06/Bund_2013_06_4.pdf (20 March 2014)

acquisition confirms a correlation between the attitude towards a foreign language and the learning success of that language (Berns 2007: 10).

An important task of school education is to prepare learners for their future working life. English is particularly important for skilled professionals, and so learning English to an advanced level in order to improve job chances is highly common in areas such as management, IT, business and tourism. In these particular fields, the presence of English is impossible to avoid (Berns et al. 2007: 19). Based on this theory, I asked the participants what they thought about the role of English. In order to find out their opinion, I formulated three statements which required their personal evaluation: firstly, about the importance of English in their future work or study; whether they think it is important to be able to write in English nowadays; and whether they think it is important to be able to speak English nowadays.

7.2.1. Description of findings and comparative data

Table 4 informs us about the respondents' attitude towards English and their subjective assessment of their performance as L2 learners of English. What is striking is that the majority of the respondents either 'strongly agree' or 'partly agree' that they like English as a language, totalling 72.7%. Only 5.9% of the pupils claim that they do not like English at all. This might also be reflected in the follow-up question which asks whether they are good at English. 5.3% deny that they are good at English. Even disregarding the quarter who ticked 'don't know', an overall majority (56.2%) of pupils still assess themselves as good English learners. The comparative perspective on learners in the urban region of Vienna versus learners of rural schools in Lower Austria shows no significant differences in the results.

Table 4

Personal information about whether the participants like English, and subjective assessments of participants' performances as learners of English:

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Don't know	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
<i>I like English.</i>	39.6%	33.1%	14.2%	7.1%	5.9%
<i>I am good at English.</i>	20.1%	36.1%	23.1%	15.4%	5.3%

Table 5 gives results about opinions on the importance of English for future work or study as well as opinions on the importance of being able to write and speak English nowadays. A key initial result was that very few participants ticked the box 'strongly disagree' concerning these three statements (only 5 out of 169), while most find that they 'strongly agree'. The respondents reported with overwhelming 'strong' agreement (82.8%) that nowadays it is most important to be able to speak English, as opposed to only 46.8% who gave the same answer for the importance of written English. The findings indicate no considerable urban and rural differences regarding these three statements. However, the survey produces an interesting result on the question of motivation. These respondents who see English as important for future work or study prospects totalled 74.6%, with only 4 respondents (or 2.4%) already confident that they will not need English in their future. Add the 2.4% and the 3.5% that ticked 'somewhat disagree' to the 19.5% that 'don't know', however, and 25.4% do not see English as relating to their immediate future. While the 74.6% who answered positively is a strong result, it is less impressive that the 82.8% who agreed with the statement 'It is important to be able to speak English nowadays'. Why does the 2.4% who responded negatively widen to 8.2% when the question is more directly addressed?

Table 5

Participants' opinions on the importance of English for the future (work or study), and on the importance of written and spoken English ability nowadays:

	Strongly Agree	Somewhat agree	Don't know	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
<i>English is important for my future.</i>	44.4%	30.2%	19.5%	3.5%	2.4%
<i>Nowadays it is important to be able to write in English.</i>	46.8%	40.2%	8.9%	4.1%	0.0%
<i>Nowadays it is important to be able to speak English.</i>	82.8%	14.2%	1.8%	0.6%	0.6%

7.2.1. Discussion

The second part of the study addresses English as the first modern foreign language and aims at gaining insights into the respondents' attitudes towards English. A large majority like English and see it as important for their future. The results here therefore correlate with respondent opinions reported in the study by Berns et al. (2007: 64). Generally speaking, Europeans appear to have a positive outlook on foreign language learning, and research on continental European school pupils confirms a considerable interest in English as a school subject (Berns et al. 2007: 39).

Only a very small number of pupils asked in my survey do not like English at all (5.9%), which is a similar figure to those who consider themselves to have poor proficiency in English (5.3%). Naturally it is conceivable that a pupil who rates his or her performance in a school subject highly might nevertheless have a limited liking for that subject. When I processed the individual results from each survey I did however notice a correlation between these two figures, which indicated that those who are not so proficient in English also do not like the subject. This conforms with a claim by Berns (2007: 10), namely that "attitudes towards the target language, its speakers, and the learning context may all play some part in explaining success or lack thereof in acquiring a particular language".

A further interesting finding is the fact that participants consider English speaking skills more important than ability in written English. This finding tallies with an observation by Berns (2007: 3) that “the young are more linguistically able than their parents’ generation”, mainly because they view learning English as socially essential.

An issue raised in my description of these results involved the 74.6% who answered affirmatively that English will be important for their future study or work. This percentage rises to 82.8% when it comes to the more precisely formulated question about the importance of being able to speak English nowadays. There is therefore what appears to be a slight shift in the results when a question is more directly addressed. An answer for this could be that English is not only useful for educational and professional purposes, but is also practical for activities such as holidays (Berns 2007: 2). In today’s global world, the domains in which we come into contact with English are wide-ranging.

7.3. *Personal contact with English*

This part of the questionnaire deals with the respondents’ contact with English on a personal level. There are various reasons for this, an obvious one from the perspective of adolescents being travel. In order to find out the travel habits of the participants, I asked them how often they travel abroad and whether they have already been to an English-speaking country.

Berns (2007: 2) indicates the popularity of English for “cross-cultural communication” within various EU programmes, which are often directed at adolescents. These programs are typically accompanied by activities such as excursions, sport events or bowling, which connect adolescents from different countries. Communication within such activities is only made possible when participants are able to interact using a common language (Berns 2007: 2), and so these programmes have led to an increase in the contact with and motivation for using English. Based on this development, I asked the participants whether

they have ever participated in a language trip to an English-speaking country, either with their school or privately.

Another reason for travelling, and applying English language skills in foreign settings, may be friends or relatives who live abroad. In order to find out the extent of their multicultural relations I evaluated how many of the respondents have friends and/or relatives living abroad. More specifically, I also asked them whether they have any friends and/or relatives with English as a mother tongue.

Adolescents may also get personally involved with English on a professional level. A lot of pupils at this age have already done work experience or holiday jobs, either voluntarily or as an educational requirement. Outside of school some pupils might also independently pursue paid work on the side, in order to generate disposable income. English skills are not only an important requirement for graduates but also for pupils who pursue some side jobs, especially in tourism. Concerning this point, I was interested to learn whether participants have had any experience in the employment sector, and what role English skills might have played in this.

Sometimes one is confronted with English on an involuntary basis, such as when foreign tourists ask for directions or information, or through conversations elsewhere. Based on this fact, questions also included in this part prompt the participants to reflect on specific situations which require the use of English language skills and whether they have already encountered such situations.

7.3.1. Description of findings and comparative data

Table 6 reveals data about the participants' travel habits in terms of frequency. 17.2% of the entire sample travel abroad on a regular basis, while 5.3% never travel abroad. Most responses therefore fall in the middle of the scale, with 'sometimes' accounting for 45.6% of the total. A closer look at the results revealed a minor difference between the travel habits of urban pupils and rural pupils. The figures show that more learners from Vienna indicated 'regularly'

and ‘often’ on the numerical scale, totalling 38.7%, than learners from Lower Austria, who totalled 23.6%.

Table 6

Travel habits:

	Regularly	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
<i>Do you travel abroad? (overall)</i>	17.2%	13.6%	45.6%	18.3%	5.3%
<i>Urban area</i>	22.5%	16.2%	40.0%	16.2%	5.0%
<i>Rural area</i>	12.4%	11.2%	50.6%	20.2%	5.6%

Table 7 is concerned with travel to English-speaking countries. The participants were asked whether they have already been to an English-speaking country. A high number (72.8%) indicated ‘yes’. However, the data shows that most of their travel to English-speaking countries might have taken place in the form of a language trip: 63.3% of the respondents travelled in order to study English. Generally speaking, no differences between the results of rural learners and urban learners arose. However, during the evaluation of the answers to this question, I noticed that one Lower Austrian class has not been in an English-speaking country so far, which makes up the other 41.4%. So this figure could well have been much higher – or indeed much lower – depending on the timing of my research.

Table 7

Travel to English-speaking countries:

		Yes	No
<i>Have you ever been to an English-speaking country?</i>		72.8%	27.2%
	Privately	With school	No
<i>Have you ever been on a language trip to an English-speaking country?</i>	13.6%	49.7%	41.4%

Table 8 gives information about potential domestic and professional situations where the participants have contact with English. A particularly striking result is that more than half the overall number of respondents (65.1%) has friends or relatives living abroad, and that in the case of Viennese pupils this is twice as

likely as the pupils from Lower Austria. Another interesting finding is that nearly half of the overall respondents have friends or relatives whose mother tongue is English. There again, a differentiated presentation of the results shows that pupils from the urban area have more friends/relatives with English as their mother tongue (56.2%) than rural pupils (38.2%).

Furthermore, the table provides information about the adolescents' experiences in the professional world. More than two-thirds of the sample have already done a work placement/work experience or have a side job. However, English skills seem not to be so significant for these roles, according to the overall majority who answered either 'rarely' or 'never'. Still, over 57% responded positively, with almost 22% using English on a frequent basis. I will explore possible explanations for this in the discussion.

Table 8

Contact opportunities with English:

	Yes	No
<i>Do you have friends/relatives living abroad? (overall)</i>	65.1%	34.9%
<i>Urban area</i>	85.0%	15.0%
<i>Rural area</i>	47.2%	52.8%
<i>Do you have friends/relatives speaking English as L1? (overall)</i>	46.7%	53.3%
<i>Urban area</i>	56.2%	43.7%
<i>Rural area</i>	38.2%	61.8%
<i>Have you already done a work placement/work experience or do you have a side job? (overall)</i>	69.8%	30.2%
<i>Urban area</i>	47.5%	52.5%
<i>Rural area</i>	89.9%	10.1%

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
<i>If you have already done a work placement/work experience/ side job, did/do you need English skills for it?</i>	11.0%	10.2%	36.4%	27.1%	15.3%

Table 9 presents the findings to questions which asked the participants to reflect on specific situations which require the use of English and whether they have already come across such situations. As retail has become more

internationally dispersed through the popular activity of online shopping, I wondered whether the participants have ever had to communicate with online traders in English. This question was received a clear negative response of 72.8%, with only 6 pupils out of 169 claiming that they do it often. However, a large majority (84.0%) has come into contact with tourists, and used English skills in this context. The results in both rural and urban area do not present any significant differences concerning these questions.

Table 9

Situations which require English language skills:

	Often	Sometimes	Once	Never before
<i>Have you ever had to communicate with online traders in English?</i>	3.6%	10.7%	13.0%	72.8%
			Yes	No
<i>Have you ever been spoken to in English by tourists?</i>			84.0%	16.0%

7.3.2. Discussion

The questions in this part were formulated to find out more about the adolescents' personal contact with English, be it through travels, connections to English native speakers, or interaction with online traders. In contrast to the questions formulated for the fourth part of the questionnaire, which focused more on purposeful uses of English in leisure time, this part aimed to find out to what extent adolescents can be voluntarily as well as involuntarily confronted with English.

A question also featured in Berns et al. (2007) concerns whether students have ever been to an English-speaking country. 72.8% of the participants in my study indicated 'yes' to this question. The results harvested by Berns et al. vary from 45.7% (out of 527) in the sample from the Netherlands to 89.2% (out of 65) in the sample from France, and so are similarly substantial (de Bot, Evers & Huibregtse 2007: 62). My study further shows that travel to English-speaking countries is often connected with language study. The majority of the respondents visited an English-speaking country within the framework of a

language trip. Language trips help learners to experience the language in an authentic context, and also bring them into contact with other learners from different cultures. Berns (2007: 2) claims that “[s]uch contacts become vehicles for the establishment of networks requiring communication between people regardless of particular interest in or knowledge of respective languages and cultures”. Other research on adolescent travel reveals an important role for the ideas of adventure and immersive experience in different cultures, suggesting that young people who travel abroad at this formative stage of their lives are profoundly shaped by such experiences. Arnett (2007: 961) cites statistics from Sweden which suggest that foreign travel undertaken in a spirit of discovery and adventure is particularly important for adolescents. Experience of foreign countries can be doubly consequential for adolescents who choose to experience work for the first time there, and here Arnett (2007: 961) lists familiar jobs carried out abroad, like working as an au pair, manual labourer, or sports instructor. Given the strong response to my question about travel to English-speaking countries, it might have been interesting to follow up with some qualitative questions on this topic.

However, there is further discussion to be had about the results I did receive. Regarding travel habits, the data showed greater travel frequency on the part of the urban pupils. A reason for this might be that some of the Viennese respondents are learners with a migrant background who regularly visit friends and relatives living abroad. A particularly surprising result is that a third of the sample has no work experience (table 8), which is quite high for 16-18 year olds in the penultimate school year. More learners from Lower Austria have already gained work experience due to the fact that all these learners attend a vocational school (BHS)¹⁵, which usually requires compulsory work placements. Less than half of the urban learners attending a general education school (AHS) have done a job so far as this type of school does not have a similar requirement. None of the studies conducted by Leppänen (2007), Grau (2009) and Berns et al. (2007) include information on young people’s contact with English while doing work experience or a side job, and here it would have been interesting to have a comparative perspective from other countries. My survey

¹⁵ <http://www.abc.berufsbildendeschulen.at/de/page.asp?id=47> (20 March 2014)

showed that 11% of respondents use English on a frequent basis in this context, and again, a more qualitative focus might explain why this is so. Does this show a larger presence of English across the entire job market, or does it simply reflect sectors where English has traditionally been integral to jobs? Regarding the latter, I mean jobs in sectors such as tourism, where one would regularly come into contact with foreign visitors. A recent government report from the Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft, Familie und Jugend gives statistics that show 5.1% of the workforce which is not self-employed have jobs in the hotel and restaurant industry, so this is a strong employment sector in Austria (Statistik Austria/WKÖ/BMWFJ/ÖHT 2012: 14). Demonstrating that my results indicate the presence of English in a wider range of jobs would involve making allowances for such areas as tourism.

7.4. *English in leisure time*

This fourth part of the questionnaire focused on various reasons for adolescents to use English in their leisure time, most commonly to do with popular culture, the Internet and social media. Concerning popular culture, Berns (2007: 3) explains the following:

The global distribution of American popular culture through film, television, and music with English as a medium illustrates the close connection between the areas of English language and media.

Working with this observation in mind, I formulated several questions about activities related to popular culture, which are often heavily medialised and English-influenced.

Another opportunity to get in contact with English is presented by the Internet, which Berns et al. (2007: 34) characterise as “undoubtedly the fastest-growing communication tool known to the world”. In addition, as already mentioned in sub-chapter 5.2, 56% of its content is written in English. I was therefore interested for example whether the participants have any English-language e-mail or other online conversations and whether they read any English-language content on the Internet, such as Wikipedia articles.

Along with the Internet, social media has gained huge importance in the last decade. Through smartphones and other mobile technology, virtual interactions on social networking platforms have significantly expanded. Consequently, detailed questions about social networking were included in this part of the questionnaire.

The use of English in leisure time is, for contemporary adolescents, strongly influenced by media and technology: this was my assumption. The questions for this part were therefore predominately formulated so as to evaluate to what extent this assumption is accurate.

7.4.1. Description of findings and comparative data

Table 10 concerns the participants' contact with English-language reading material in terms of frequency. Although the figures for 'sometimes' are quite similar in both urban and rural areas, the overall outcome shows that learners from Vienna tend to read more English material than learners from Lower Austria. 30% of the respondents asked in Vienna indicated that they often read a book or magazine in English, compared to only 10.1% of the rural learners. This big gap is also present in the figures for respondents who have never had any contact with English-language reading material.

Table 10

English-language reading material:

	Often	Sometimes	Once	Never before
<i>Have you ever read an English-language book/magazine/newspaper? (overall)</i>	26.0%	34.3%	30.8%	8.9%
<i>Urban area</i>	30.0%	48.7%	18.7%	2.5%
<i>Rural area</i>	10.1%	44.9%	30.3%	14.6%

Table 11 reports the regularity of looking up English-language Wikipedia articles as well as translations of unfamiliar English words. The results here show a strong presence of English, with 5.9% who always read English-language articles on Wikipedia, 21.3% who do it often, and 27.8% sometimes. This is

followed up another question which asks if participants look up the German equivalent if they do not understand an English word. The positive result here is almost unanimous, totalling 91.7%. There is no regional breakdown here because the results were similar in both areas.

Table 11

Reading English articles on Wikipedia:

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Do you read English-language articles on Wikipedia?	5.9 %	21.3%	27.8%	25.4%	19.5%
Do you look up translations if you don't understand an English word?	29.6%	35.5%	26.6%	7.1%	1.2%

Table 12 deals with music, another activity often affected by the English language. Listening to English-language radio programmes, such as on Austria's FM4 or BBC radio, does not appear to be particularly popular. In relation to English-language songs, I asked the participants whether they pay attention to the lyrics when they listen to music, which by contrast received a very strong response. Only 5 respondents (3%) say that they never take notice of song texts. This is followed by another question about whether it is significant for them to understand what English lyrics are about, which again receives remarkable confirmation. Asked if they take a closer look at English-language lyrics when they do not or only partially understand them, the respondents reveal a tendency to do it often or sometimes. The findings here also brought out consistent answers from both urban and rural pupils.

Table 12

Listening to English-language music:

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Do you listen to English-language radio programmes?	6.5%	10.6%	18.3%	23.1%	41.4%
When listening to English-language music, do you take notice of the lyrics?	23.1%	39.6%	24.3%	10.1%	3.0%
Is it important for you to understand what English-language songs are about?	24.8%	27.8%	29.6%	13.0%	4.7%
Do you take a closer look at song texts when you don't/partially understand them?	16.6%	24.8%	27.8%	15.4%	15.4%

Table 13 provides information about contact with English-language films. The results show that more than half of the sample (56.2%) watches films in the English original version – that is to say, undubbed. Frequency of film-viewing in English also produced strong numbers, with almost 75% of the sample confirming that this activity takes place at least once a month or more often. For me it was interesting to evaluate if those who say they watch English original version movies do so with subtitles. Only 27.4% watch them with German subtitles, leaving a considerable majority which either uses English-language subtitles or no subtitles at all. The result for ‘no subtitle’ was one of the most striking outcomes in the entire questionnaire: 54.74%, which amounts to 30.8% of the entire sample.

Table 13

Watching English-language films:

	Yes				No
<i>Do you watch films in the English original version?</i>	56.2%				43.8%
	Several times a week	3-4 x a month	1-2 x a month	Less than once a month	
<i>If yes, how often do you watch English-language films?</i>	22.1%	23.2%	28.4%	26.3%	
		With English subtitle	With German subtitle	No subtitle	
<i>If yes, do you watch English-language films with subtitle?</i>		17.9%	27.4%	54.7%	

The participants' contact with English through TV shows is presented in table 14. The numbers totalled in this field are relatively similar to the results on English films, with nearly half of the respondents (47.3%) confirming that they watch English TV shows. Titles of shows listed in the open-response question include, in order of popularity: *How I Met Your Mother (HIMYM)*, *Two and a Half Men*, *The Big Bang Theory*, *The Walking Dead*, and *The Vampire Diaries*. Aside from the one supernatural drama and horror drama, this shows a clear preference for sitcoms. Also, all the shows mentioned are American imports. Concerning frequency, the results establish the watching of TV shows as a highly popular free-time activity. The questionnaire also reveals a similar striking response to the question of subtitles that we already saw in relation to films,

with 58.7% watching their favourite shows in English and entirely without subtitles.

Table 14

Watching English-language TV shows:

					Yes	No
Do you watch TV shows in the English original version?					47.3%	52.7%
	Daily	3-4 x a week	1-2 x a week	Less than once a week	Rarely	
If yes, how often do you watch English-language TV shows?	6.3%	25.0%	26.2%	25.0%	17.5%	
			With English subtitle	With German subtitle	Without subtitle	
If yes, do you watch English-language TV shows with subtitle?			13.8%	27.5%	58.7%	
If yes, which English-language TV shows are you watching?						
		HIMYM				23
		Two and a Half Men				19
		The Big Bang Theory				14
		The Walking Dead				13
		The Vampire Diaries				9
		The Mentalist				8
		Grey's Anatomy				6

In addition to watching television, I was also curious about the participants' interest in serious television programmes, such as English-language news on networks like CNN. Table 15 shows that this is a minority activity.

Table 15

Watching English-language news channels:

					Yes	No
Do you watch English-language news channels?					23.7%	76.3%
	Daily	3-4 x a week	1-2 x a week	Less than once a week	Rarely	
If yes, how often do you watch English-language news channels?	5.0%	2.5%	12.5%	50.0%	30.0%	

Table 16 is concerned with English-language computer games and video games, which received a strong positive result of 49.7% divided sharply by gender (77.0% male, 28.4% female). The frequency questions addressed to those who answer 'yes' show to this to be a popular activity. Nowadays computer games often involve multiplayer online communities, and 57.1% of the

respondents report participating in online multi-player games. The next question reveals a sizeable number (27.2%) of respondents who use English for online interactions with other players. Furthermore, the questionnaire elicited strong responses on various other aspects of computer/video games that feature the English language, such as the soundtrack (29%), comments (34.3%), and in-game notifications (21.9%). The participants ranked the computer game *Call of Duty* as the most popular, followed by *Assassin's Creed IV*, *Egoshoooter* (which refers to the 'first-person-shooter' genre and not a specific game), *Battlefield* and *League of Legends*. Regarding video games, *FIFA 14* and *Grand Theft Auto V* are the most commonly named titles. These questions elicited similar responses from Vienna and Lower Austria with no clear regional differences.

Table 16

Playing English-language computer/video games:

	Yes	No			
<i>Do you play English-language computer/video games? (overall)</i>	49.7%	50.3%			
<i>Boys</i>	77.0%	23.0%			
<i>Girls</i>	28.4%	71.6%			
	Several times a day	Daily	2-3 x a week	Less than once a week	Less than once a month
<i>If yes, how often do you play English-language computer/video games?</i>	10.7%	13.1%	22.6%	26.2%	27.4%
				Console Games	Online multi-player games
<i>If yes, which types of English-language computer/video games are you playing?</i>				51.2%	57.1%
		Soundtrack	Interactions with other players	Comments	Notifications
<i>If yes, which parts of the games are in English?</i>		29.0%	27.2%	34.3%	21.9%
	Computer			Video Games	
	Games				
<i>If yes, which English-language computer/video games are you playing?</i>	<i>Call of Duty</i>	15	<i>FIFA 14</i>	9	
	<i>Assassin's Creed IV</i>	9	<i>Grand Theft Auto V</i>	9	
	<i>Egoshoooter</i>	8	<i>Killing Floor</i>	2	
	<i>Battlefield</i>	6			
	<i>League of Legends</i>	4			

Table 18 deals with the role played by English-language apps in the free time of participants. 61.5% of the respondents use apps which are based on the English language. The five most attractive are the free messaging system

WhatsApp, the image- and meme-based application 9GAG, the photo-sharing and networking service *Instagram*, *Instant Buttons* (a soundboard of funny tones), and *Daily Photo*. The overwhelming response given for the question of how often they use these apps tells us that for most respondents, using apps is a fixed part of their daily time devoted to leisure. Again, there were no salient regional differences for this question.

Table 17

Use of English-language apps:

		Yes	No		
Do you use English-language apps?		61.5%	38.5%		
If yes, which English-language apps are you using?	WhatsApp	18			
	9GAG	14			
	Instagram	7			
	Instant Buttons	6			
	Daily Photo	6			
	Several times a day	Daily	3-4 x a week	1-2 x a week	Less than once a week
If yes, how often do you use English-language apps?	28.8%	18.3%	23.1%	17.3%	12.5%

Table 18 addresses social networks. Not surprisingly, 161 pupils (95.3%) out of 169 are members of one or more social networks, which Facebook leads with a percentage of 82.2%. 13.6% and 3.5% of the respondents have an account on Twitter and Myspace respectively, and 21.3% are users of other networks. Only 8 (4.7%) pupils indicate that they don't socialise online at all. A clear majority of the overall users set German as the language for their online account(s), with a percentage of 82.6%. It is interesting that 14.3% of the respondents actually have their accounts in English. However, there is a clear difference regarding the comparative perspective on urban and rural learners. The majority of social network members with English-language accounts are found in Vienna, with a percentage of 21.6%, in comparison to the results obtained in Lower Austria (8.0%). Only 3.1% of the respondents use a different language than German and English.

Table 18*Membership in social networks:*

	Facebook	Twitter	Myspace	Other networks	No member of social networks
<i>Are you a member of social networks?</i>	82.2%	13.6%	3.5%	21.3%	4.7%
			German	English	Other language
<i>If you are a member of social networks, which language have you selected for your account? (overall)</i>			82.6%	14.3%	3.1%
<i>Urban area</i>			74.3%	21.6%	4.1%
<i>Rural area</i>			89.7%	8.0%	2.3%

Table 19 is concerned with the question of whether participants use English in their free time for contacting people socially and if yes, in what form. While only 13% and 10.6% of the respondents state that they write English letters/e-mails and speak in English in order to stay connected with friends and relatives, individual results from Lower Austria and Vienna show that Viennese respondents have many more face-to-face conversations with friends/relatives in English (22.3%) than rural learners (5.0%). However, 31.9% indicate that they chat or send text messages to English-speaking friends or relatives in order to stay in contact. The item 'others' provides respondents with the possibility to report other social purposes they use English for and are not mentioned in the multiple-choice question. Three respondents (1.8%) came up with Skype, the Internet videotelephony service.

Table 19*Use of English for social contacts:***Do you use English for contacting people socially in your free time?**

<i>I do not use English for social contacts. (overall)</i>	52.1%
<i>Urban area</i>	34.9%
<i>Rural area</i>	58.4%
<i>I write e-mails/letters to my friends/relatives in order to stay in contact.</i>	13.0%
<i>I chat with/send text messages to friends/relatives in order to stay in contact.</i>	31.9%
<i>I have face-to-face conversations with friends/relatives in order to stay in contact. (overall)</i>	10.6%
<i>Urban area</i>	22.3%
<i>Rural area</i>	5.0%
<i>Others: Skype</i>	1.8%

7.4.2. Discussion

Hasebrink, Berns and de Bot (2007: 112) have written about the “omnipresence” of English in young people’s lives. The results in this media-oriented part show this very strongly, which is an outcome I expected. Young Austrians are today confronted with an Internet which looks very different to the Internet of 10 years ago, when few people had heard of Facebook and mobile broadband was new on the market, having only been introduced in Austria in 2003 (Preissl, Haucap, & Curwen 2009: 97). Today’s Internet encourages more interaction and contact time because broadband is much faster, smartphones have made the Internet more mobile, and many more activities are user-generated. Postings on social media are a good example of this.

The findings of this survey show quite clearly that pupils often use the English-language version of Wikipedia. If the German-language version of this website were as extensive as the English version, the figure for this would possibly be lower. But as things stand, Wikipedia certainly seems to bring a significant English presence into the online activity of the adolescents surveyed. As smartphone users, adolescents also access much virtual content via apps, with

a significant response in the survey for the question about usage of English-language apps. Beyond this there is some ambiguity in the response, as many respondents appear to have listed popular apps which originated in the United States (such as WhatsApp). The infrastructure of apps themselves might however not necessarily be in English, since WhatsApp exists in multilingual versions which, when installed, adopt the language the phone is set to. A nearly unanimous response of 95% concerning membership of social networks was predictable, and here I was able to obtain information about the numbers who access these networks in their English-language versions. The figure for this of 14.3% was surprising, when one considers that Facebook and Twitter are now global brands which exist in comprehensive multilingual versions, and that unlike Wikipedia, one does not “miss out” on expanded content and features by using the German version instead of the English version. Both versions are equally attractive in terms of infrastructure.

English-language pop music has a much longer cultural tradition than newer forms of media such as video games. For decades it has been common for successful European bands to record and perform English versions of their songs, with ABBA being one of the most famous examples. Unlike with new media and the Internet, young people’s exposure to English through pop music is going to look somewhat similar to the exposure their parents had. Berns et al. (2007: 59) conclude that listening to English-language songs consumes a great quantity of leisure time, an unsurprising result in itself. An interesting result which registered strongly in both my survey and Berns et al. (2007: 59) is that many young people consider it important to understand English-language lyrics, which makes their intensive contact with pop music an important source for an *active* (rather than passive) presence of English in their lives.

German and Austrian TV channels have shown stable, decades-long patterns when importing English-language content: most imported TV shows tend to be American rather than British, and shows are dubbed into German with very rare exceptions. The latter accounts for results in Berns et al. (2007: 60), which found that only 43.7% of German respondents watched English-language TV

programmes, while the figure for Dutch pupils (in normal rather than bilingual schools) was 90.5%. The results in my survey (47.3%) were consistent with these German findings. Still, 47% is not an insignificant figure. Of this number, 57.5% report that they watch TV shows in English more than once a week, with 31.3% claiming to do this either daily or 3-4 times a week. This shows considerable commitment from a minority of the sample. One likely reason for this might well be the widespread practice of downloading shows from the Internet as soon as they have been broadcast in America. This is attractive because adolescents do not have to wait to see what happens in their favourite show.

In addition to watching TV shows, I was also curious about the participants' interest in serious television programmes, such as English-language news on networks like CNN. Table 15 shows that this is also a minority activity. These programmes lack the entertainment value of sitcoms and present themselves as an inherently less attractive option in the context of leisure time. Despite this, the survey shows a strong response of 24% who, in their free-time, seek to inform themselves about the world around them, and do so in English. The statistical breakdown for this figure however does not show this to be a regular activity for too many pupils, so watching English-language TV news multiple times a week is an option for a dedicated but very small minority.

Perhaps even more striking than the results for TV is the shift to a clear majority for those who confirm watching undubbed English-language films. This might be because TV channels do not always show the films that adolescents want to see, whereas the download market makes every possible kind of film available. Here there were no results from Berns et al. (2007) to give a comparative perspective, but the fact that films require a much longer period of attention than pop songs or TV shows indicates an extraordinary level of ease and comfort with the presence of English.

Playing computer and video games is an activity which accounts for English contact more in the lives of male pupils than female pupils. The importance of

this activity can be easily underestimated because of this gender split, as well as the fact that video games do not have the same wider cultural impact as movies, which are advertised more conspicuously and also involve public locations (the cinema). While video gaming is a niche activity, it is nevertheless an extraordinarily powerful niche: Steinkuehler (2006: 521) reports that already in 2003, “the videogame industry made a reported \$9.3 billion – *more money Hollywood box office movies* (\$8.1 billion)”. Turkle (1995: 184) also adds that the culture of video gaming can make a profound impression on personal identity: “playing one’s character(s) and living in [these virtual worlds] becomes an important part of daily life”. Of particular interest to me are the ever-increasing interactivity of games and the transnational aspect of massively multiplayer games which involves players from all over the world. This has implications for discourse. Turkle (1995: 184) also writes that “much of the excitement of the game depends on having personal relationships and being part of [the] community’s developing politics and projects”, thus confirming that communication is an important part of the gaming experience. I will consider the effect this has had on the lexicon of respondents in my survey in the next part.

7.5. *English as a trendy language*

Anglicisms play a significant role in many domains, such as advertising, business, commerce, media, science and technology. And as mentioned in the literature review, English has a certain fashionable status among young people (Elsen 2003: 268f.).

Based on these two observations I was therefore interested in the actual presence of English slang words in the pupils’ everyday speech. The participants were asked whether they use any English slang words, how often they use them, and to provide some examples of the words they are using currently.

Furthermore, I was also interested in whether they tend to use English expressions which have already become integral to some situations. Using

English words and phrases such as 'Einen *coffee to go*, bitte' or 'Eine Portion Pommes, *medium* bitte' when ordering at fast food restaurants serve in the questionnaire as an example for such a situation.

A question that also comes up in this part asks if participants think that they use more English words in their everyday speech nowadays than before.

7.5.1. Description of findings and comparative data

Firstly, I was interested to learn how common English slang words (i.e. *chill*, *cheers*, *shit*) are in the lives of Austrian adolescents. Table 20 presents the participants' self-reported everyday use of English slang words in terms of frequency, as well as some examples of the slang words they use. More than half of the respondents asked use English words at least once a day, if not several times a day, totalling 58.6%. Only 7 people (4.1%) indicate that they never use any anglicisms in their everyday speech. No significant differences emerge in the comparison between rural and urban learners. However, the survey reveals some interesting results in the use of English slang words among male and female respondents, with English slang being more present among boys than girls.

Specific examples given include adjectives and nouns used as exclamations to describe situations or objects, such as *fuck* (the number one slang word listed by the respondents), *cool* and *shit*. *Chill* and *sorry* are other popular words, and typically used when addressing another person. Of the words given, some are used more by boys, and others by girls. *Awesome*, *noob*, and *bullshit* tend to be dominant in the lexicons of male respondents. The top three English words used by girls in their everyday speech are *nice*, *What's up?* and *thanks*.

Table 20

English slang words in everyday speech:

	Several times a day	Daily	3-4 x a week	1-2 x a week	> than 1 x a week.	Never
Do you use English slang words in your everyday speech? (overall)	29,0%	29,6%	10,1%	11,8%	15,4%	4,1%
Boys	35,1%	32,4%	5,4%	10,8%	13,5%	2,7%
Girl	24,2%	27,4%	13,7%	12,6%	16,8%	5,3%
If yes, can you list some of the words you use? (overall)	<i>fuck</i> <i>cool</i> <i>chill</i> <i>sorry</i> <i>shit</i>					31 14 13 11 8
Boys	<i>awesome</i> <i>noob</i> <i>bullshit</i>					8 6 6
Girls	<i>nice</i> <i>What's up?</i> <i>thanks</i>					7 5 4

Table 21 presents the results to the question about the participants' use of English expressions such as *large* or *medium* when ordering at restaurant and coffee chains (i.e. McDonalds, Starbucks), in terms of frequency. 'Always' to 'sometimes' account for 65.7% of responses here. The comparative perspective on urban and rural pupils shows that more learners from Vienna use such English expressions than learners from Lower Austria.

Table 21

Use of English expressions when ordering a menu/coffee at American-style fast food restaurants:

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Do you use English expressions such as 'Large' or 'Medium' when you order a menu/coffee at fast food restaurants (McDonalds)? (overall)	20.7%	15.4%	29.6%	18.3%	16.0%
Urban area	23.7%	17.5%	32.5%	13.7%	12.5%
Rural area	18.0%	13.5%	26.9%	22.5%	19.1%

Table 22 presents the results to the question of whether respondents use more English words in their everyday speech nowadays than before. Over two-thirds 'strongly agree' and 'somewhat agree' that more English words are incorporated

in their lexicon than was the case previously, totalling 71%. Only a marginal number (2.4%) ‘strongly disagree’.

Table 22

Participants revealing whether they now use more English words in their everyday speech than previously:

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Don't know	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
<i>Do you now use more English words in your everyday speech than previously?</i>	26.6%	44.4%	17.8%	8.9%	2.4%

7.5.2. Discussion

The fifth part of my questionnaire was concerned with the verbal use of English, dealing particularly with English slang words. The majority of respondents reported that they use at least one English word a day outside the classroom, making anglicisms an integral part of their lexicon. The results also show usage of English heavily affected by media content and presence. The popularity of the word *awesome* has been recently fuelled by the successful American sitcom *How I Met Your Mother*, which was also the most watched sitcom in the English original version among the respondents (table 14). *Awesome* occurs throughout all seasons of this sitcom and is used by the five main characters to describe the awesomeness of particular situations. Barney Stinson, one of the main characters, lends particular importance to the word as he uses it very creatively. One statement of his featuring this word (“When I get sad, I stop being sad and be awesome instead. True story”) has struck a particular chord with viewers and is represented on Facebook with 37 groups, all named after this statement and marked by thousands of ‘likes’. Krause & Gibbs (2008: 180) write that “nerfing, G2G, ATM, aggro devs, AFK, spawn, mob, pwn and tanking are but a few of the terms originating (or at least flourishing in online gaming communities”, and in my survey I also observed a transfer of computer game jargon into everyday speech, with the words *noob* and *campen* listed as favourite anglicisms. When exploring the meanings of these terms, I discovered that the *noob* refers to and shames a person who fails at an activity due to typical beginner’s mistakes,

while *campen*, in the sense of waiting for somebody, is also used socially, to mean waiting for friends. Krause & Gibbs (2008: 181) note a fluidity in these lexical items, observing that they can easily take on other meanings, and this I also found. The examples from my questionnaires show these terms submitted to a question which asked about everyday use of anglicisms, indicating that these new anglicisms have a certain trendy status.

The question about using English words (i.e. *small*, *coffee to go*) when ordering in American-style chains shows that such expressions are routine. The urban and rural split shows this happening more in Vienna than Lower Austria, which can be easily explained by the higher prevalence of such establishments in the city. Pupils from Vienna have much easier access than those in rural areas.

It might have been interesting to gather additional information on whether the participants bring English words acquired in their free-time into the classroom. This question was included in the quantitative survey by Grau (2009: 168) and its results revealed that from the 900 German pupils who participated, over 560 do this either frequently or sometimes.

To conclude, the results presented in this part confirm a conspicuous extracurricular use of English among contemporary Austrian adolescents, and that this demographic is independently incorporating English words which do not appear as anglicisms common to other groups (i.e. computer game-related anglicisms). Much of the adolescent contact with English is stimulated by old and new forms of media. Frehner (2008: 263) has discussed an increase in the medialised use of anglicisms and predicts that there will be “major changes in the near future” (263).

These are changes which also affect the English language itself, to some degree. When English-speaking Facebook users click “like”, they use a meaning of the verb form “to like” that has entirely shifted due to Facebook. Although “to like something on Facebook” often signals that the user has delighted in something (the traditional meaning associated with the verb), this

connotation has become displaced. The *main* meaning behind the phrase is that the user has clicked on an icon and made this known to their friends. For this new meaning, an existing English word has been adapted. The interesting difference is that for the comparable function, German users have done this only up to an extent. “Gefällt mir” is used for the function of liking something on Facebook, but the anglicisms “like” and “liken” are also common.

We see this in newly-developed terms for other technological innovations (i.e. *app*, which adapts an existing English word and was also adopted in German). If this pattern persists, then we will continue to see new terms adapted and developed in English that subsequently migrate to the German language. The results of my survey appear to confirm the increasing uptake of anglicisms from new media, indicating an expanding use of English in young people’s lives.

7.6. Personal Evaluation

After the respondents had gone through the first five parts, the last part of the questionnaire asked explicitly whether they think they use English outside the school and if yes, how often and in what form. The latter relates to the four language skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking, and was ordered from 1 to 4, with 1 implying the most frequently used form and 4 the least used. Having answered the previous questions, the respondents are prompted to reflect on their actual use of English, and so these questions serve as control questions.

7.6.1. Description of findings and comparative data

Table 23 presents the responses to the question about whether participants use English outside of school and if yes, how often. A clear majority is aware of the omnipresence of English in their lives outside the classroom: 84.6% of respondents use English in their free time, only 15.4% do not. When questioned about frequency, the urban/rural comparative perspective correlates with some

results to previous questions, which indicated a more intensive use of English by the Viennese learners. While more than half of the urban respondents say they use English on a daily basis, only 38.2% of the rural respondents claim the same.

Table 23

Use of English outside the classroom:

	Yes	No
<i>Do you use English outside of school? (overall)</i>	84.6%	15.4%
<i>Urban area</i>	83.7%	16.2%
<i>Rural area</i>	85.4%	14.6%

	Daily	2 x a week	1 x a week	1 x a month	Less than 1 x a month
<i>If yes, how often do you use English outside of school? (overall)</i>	45.4%	19.6%	22.4%	8.4%	4.2%
<i>Urban area</i>	53.7%	19.4%	17.9%	4.5%	4.5%
<i>Rural area</i>	38.2%	19.7%	26.3%	11.5%	3.9%

Table 24 reveals in what form (i.e. writing, listening, reading or speaking) the participants use English the most. A majority indicates listening, which can be explained by music, films and TV. Very few pupils ranked this last. Reading was the second most used form, which was established earlier in the questionnaire with the responses to reading habits. Both speaking and writing scored low, with very few pupils claiming that they speak much English outside the classroom.

Table 24

Participants revealing in what form they use English most outside the classroom:

<i>If you use English outside of school, in what forms do you use it most and least? (Please rank in order 1-4)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.
<i>Writing</i>	10.7%	21.3%	32.5%	35.5%
<i>Listening</i>	49.7%	27.2%	13.0%	10.1%
<i>Reading</i>	29.0%	36.1%	20.1%	14.8%
<i>Speaking</i>	10.7%	15.4%	34.3%	39.6%

7.6.2. Discussion

These control results confirm the substantial extracurricular use of English established in the previous parts of the questionnaire. A strong earlier response to reading habits was corroborated in the ranking, with reading coming second to listening.

There were however some results which could not confirmed or further explained by these control questions. For example, only 4.1% reported not using any English slang words in their everyday speech, and yet the percentage (15.4%) of participants who said they do not use English outside of school was more than three times higher. Reasons for this might be that participants did not take time to reflect on their actual use of English when answering the question, or that my survey was missing a question about extracurricular use of English *within* school.

When considering the results presented throughout the individual parts, the contrastive analysis of urban and rural learners demonstrates that Viennese learners have a slightly more intense contact with English than Lower Austrian learners. This is also reflected in the results (table 27) to the question about how often they use English outside of school, which show that learners from urban Vienna use English more frequently than learners from rural areas in Lower Austria. Vienna of course provides a wider variety of contact possibilities such as food and drink chains, and cinemas which show movies in their English original versions (in Lower Austria, only one cinema in St. Pölten offers this opportunity). The regional differences are further explained by Vienna's status as a multicultural metropolitan area, where more pupils are likely to have friends from different countries.

It is not surprising that listening and reading were indicated as the first and second most active forms when using English. This correlates strongly with earlier responses which found relatively high percentages that watch English-language TV shows or films, take notice of the lyrics of English-language songs,

and play computer/video games with English-language soundtracks. Listening and reading were also the most dominant forms among the 15-year-old German students who took part in Grau's survey (Grau 2009: 172). Berns et al. likewise reported students assessing themselves as most proficient in listening and reading (de Bot, Evers & Huibregtse 2007: 67).

8. Summary of main findings

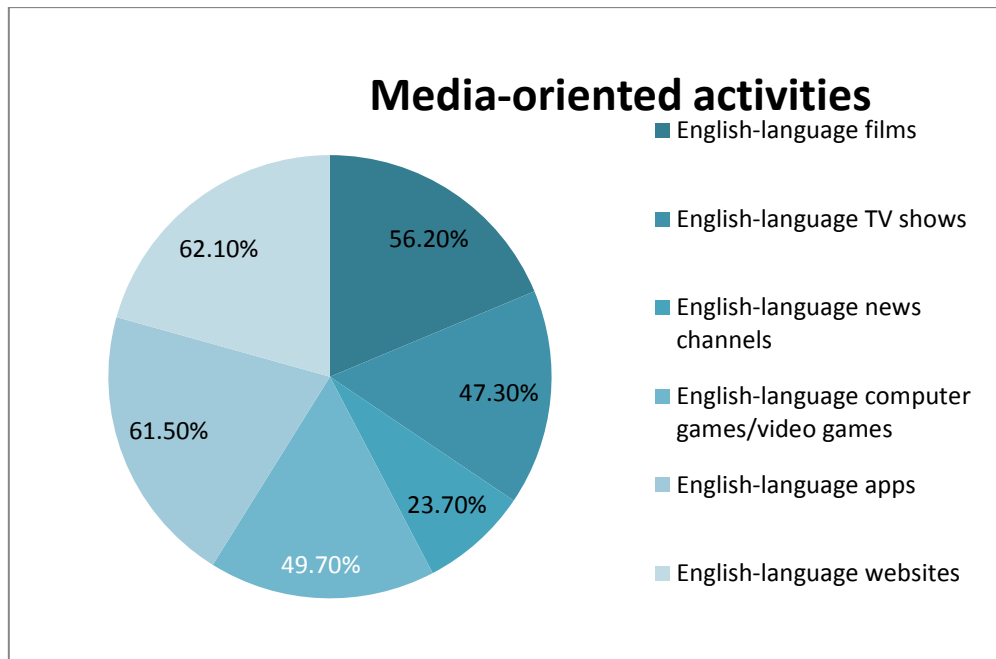
This chapter aims to summarise the main findings with particular reference to my research questions:

- (1) *Do contemporary Austrian adolescents use a significant amount of English outside the classroom?*
- (2) *To what extent can their use of English be deemed a social use of English?*
- (3) *Are there any differences in the extracurricular use of English among Austrian adolescents living in urban Vienna versus those living in rural areas of Lower Austria?*

The findings presented in the previous chapter revealed a distinct extracurricular use of English especially regarding media-oriented activities, and confirmed my hypothesis that English is used to some considerable extent outside the classroom.

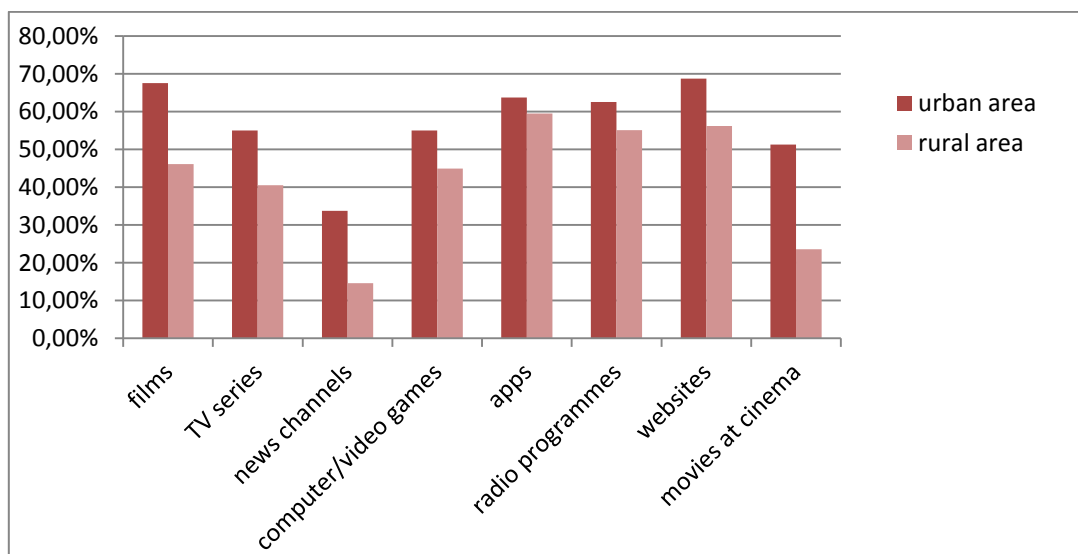
The graph in figure 1 shows the overall percentages of the various activities which participants indicate using during their leisure time. The highest percentages are found in the category *English-language apps* and *English-language websites*. More than half of the pupils encounter the language while watching English-language films (56.2%). Significant percentages were also found in the categories *English-language computer games/video games* and *English-language TV shows*. Even accounting for more limited activities, such as watching English-language TV news, the graph clearly shows a considerable presence of English in the lives of the pupils asked.

Figure 1: Overview of the overall percentages of media-oriented activities from the total sample:



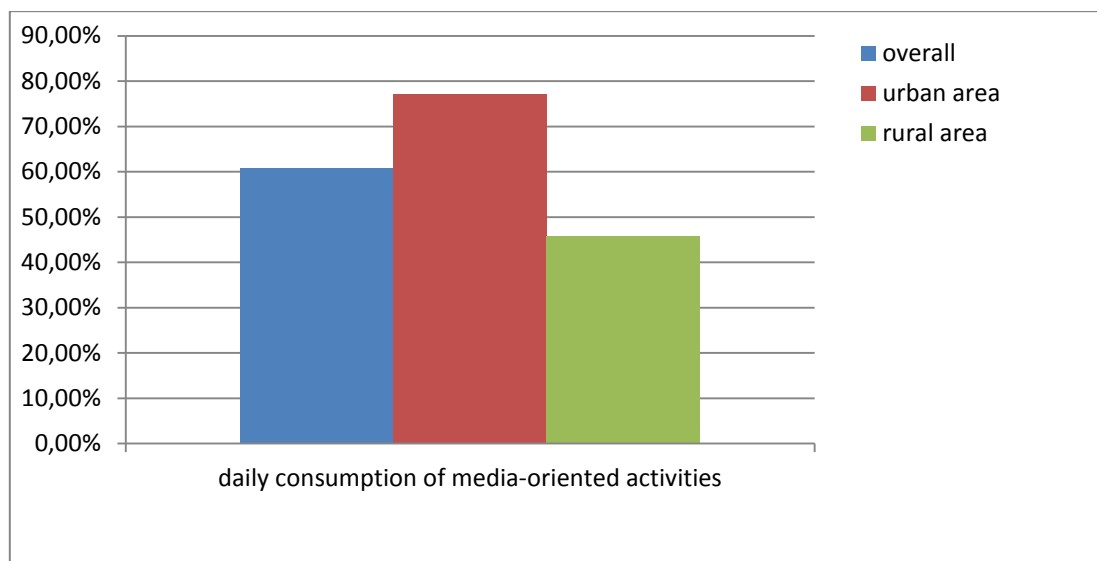
The findings in chapter 7 showed that learners from Vienna have more reasons to be in contact with English than learners from Lower Austria. This result also conforms to my hypothesis considering the contrastive analysis. Figure 2 shows results based on the media-oriented activities discussed above, demonstrating that pupils from the urban area have a slightly more intense contact with each of the individual activities than pupils from the rural area.

Figure 2: Overview of the percentages of media-related activities from the urban/rural area:



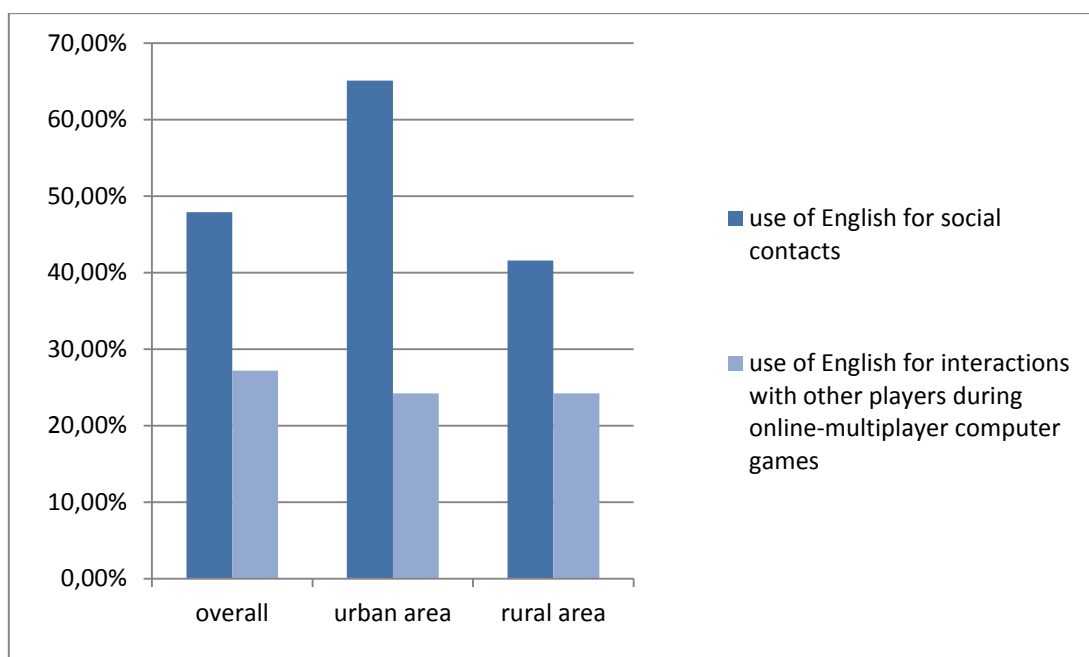
In order to specify the extent of English use among the participants, I measured their precise exposure to media-oriented activities typically associated with English. Here, I singled out those who ticked 'daily' in the relevant categories, and came to the result that 60.9% of the overall participants (77.1% of the Viennese pupils and 45.9% of the Lower Austrian pupils) have daily contact with English through media products. This overall result is very striking, and again there is a pronounced uptick in the results for the urban pupils.

Figure 3: Percentages of all media-oriented activities indicated to be pursued on a daily basis from the total sample and from the urban/rural area:



My final research question asked to what extent extracurricular English use can be deemed a social use of English? Figure 4 shows a high number (47.9%) who indicated social purposes for their English use, either through written communication in English or face-to-face conversation.

Figure 2: Overview of the percentages of social activities from the total sample and from the urban/rural area:



This number is higher than I expected. Of the 52.7% who participate in online multiplayer games, 27.2% said they have English-language interactions with other players. Turkle (1995: 184) argues that the excitement of playing these complicated interactive depends to a large extent on “having personal relationships” with other players, and so I count the discourse that takes place within this context as a social use of English.

The percentages presented here are again higher in the urban field.

9. Conclusions

My research in this diploma thesis has addressed the issue of Austrian adolescents who use their second language not only when studying it in the classroom, but also for social purposes outside of school. After reading the relevant literature on the status of English as a modern global language and then surveying two groups of Austrian adolescents, I was able to draw some conclusions about why these young people find English attractive.

My readings of earlier scholarly research on English as a lingua franca indicated that English has become a powerful language in modern-day European countries. Europeans are no longer just exposed to English in the education system, but also encounter it in the workplace, when communicating with people on holiday, and more and more during their leisure time. Austria is very representative of this European experience: English is the most commonly taught modern foreign language here, and everyday life offers many opportunities for young people to use English socially. These opportunities are focused in areas strongly affected by globalisation and new technology: films, TV, music, computer games, social networking.

The global influence of the language makes it easy to immerse oneself in English even if one does not leave German-speaking Austria. One can go to see undubbed English-language films in a number of cinemas, play pop music in English, listen to a domestic radio station (FM4) which has English native speaker presenters and broadcasts in English, or watch American TV shows. It is clear from the results of my survey that adolescents are actively doing these activities in English, as well as many others made possible via the Internet, including multiplayer video games and accessing English-language websites and applications. In addition to the media environments young people choose for themselves, further exposure is coming from the strong impact English has on domestic youth culture. As discussed in the literature review, many contemporary Austrian youth scenes have identities which are named after English-language terms such as hip hop or skater (Großegger, Heinzlmaier & Zenter 2001: 205).

I modelled my survey on similar research done by Berns et al. (2007), which involved large numbers of pupils in four different European countries. I was not in a position to make such an extensive survey, so my findings have less generalisability. On the whole I was satisfied with the questionnaire I developed, but there were improvements that could have been made. One oversight in part four was the lack of two questions asking whether the participants listen to English-language music, and to what extent they listen to English-language music compared to artists/bands in their own and other languages. It is

reasonably safe, however, to assume that consumption of English-language music is a commonplace activity, given the dominance of English in the music marketplace. Further strengthening this assumption are the strong responses given to my questions about English-language lyrics, which respondents not only take notice of, but also wish to understand. In her survey, Grau (2009: 165) included a question to measure how much adolescents listen to English-language music, and this got by far the strongest response compared to all other media (including TV, films and computer games).

Other aspects of my findings made me consider the directions in which further research could be developed. One example involves the strong response concerning travel habits. Following this, I looked into research concerning adolescents and travel, finding that adolescents who travel often have different motivations to adults who go on foreign holidays (Richards & Wilson 2004: 52). For adolescents, travel is more of a formative experience than it is for adult holiday-goers: adolescents do not travel to take a break from the pressures of work, do not tend to visit the same foreign destinations repeatedly, and travel for reasons of adventure as well as leisure. This means that travel experience can have an important cultural impact, especially as it takes place at a stage of life which is “sensitive [...] for adult identity development” (Berns 2007: 3). With this in mind, I can see that it might be informative to follow up my quantitative questions about travel with some open-response questions, which as Brown (2001: 36) states, can be “particularly good for finding unexpected answers”. This aspect of the survey in Berns et al. (2007: 62f.) is also exclusively quantitative, so potential connections between attitudes towards English and identity-forming experiences of adolescent travel remain to be researched and tested.

Although a low figure in itself, I also found the number for those who access social networking sites in English (14.3%) quite surprising. The motivation for checking out English-language Wikipedia articles conceivably has something to do with the expanded content and features one finds in these articles. By reading the German version one can miss out, and in some cases a German-

language article does not always exist where there is an English one. However, Facebook and Twitter are now global brands which exist in comprehensive multilingual versions, and so unlike Wikipedia, one does not miss out by using the German version instead of the English version. Both versions are equally attractive in terms of infrastructure. This leaves only social reasons to explain why adolescents are accessing Facebook in English, their second language. Is there perhaps a coolness factor at play? This is however hard to measure with a quantitative survey, and would require a more qualitative approach probably involving interviews.

This thesis has determined that Austrian adolescents are using English for a considerable number of social purposes. To some extent this is because they have interests in areas where the English language is greatly influential. Adolescents are stereotypically seen as the demographic group most interested in new media and popular culture. My results confirm this stereotype to some degree, but further qualitative research could explore beyond the stereotypes and build a more detailed profile of the intense contact many adolescents have with English.

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FRAGEBOGEN

Dieser Fragebogen ist im Rahmen meiner Diplomarbeit zum Thema „Extracurricular use of English among Austrian adolescents“ am Department für Anglistik und Amerikanistik der Universität Wien entstanden. Mit Hilfe dieses Fragebogens möchte ich herausfinden, für welche Zwecke Jugendliche Englisch außerhalb der Schule verwenden. Alle Angaben werden anonym und vertraulich behandelt. Die Umfrage wird ca. 8 Minuten in Anspruch nehmen.

Wenn nicht extra angeführt, bitte nur eine Antwort wählen!

a) PERSÖNLICHE ANGABEN: Bitte beantworte die folgenden Fragen.

1. Geschlecht

☐ Weiblich ☐ Männlich

2. Wie alt bist du?



3. Welche Schulstufe besuchst du?



4. Welche anderen Sprachen lernst du außer Englisch in der Schule noch?



5. Welche Sprache/n sprichst du innerhalb deiner Familie?



b) ENGLISCH ALS SPRACHE: Bitte gib an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf dich zutreffen.

6. Ich mag Englisch.

☐ Trifft zu ☐ Trifft eher zu ☐ Ich weiß es nicht ☐ Trifft eher nicht zu ☐ Trifft nicht zu

7. Ich bin gut in Englisch.

☐ Trifft zu ☐ Trifft eher zu ☐ Ich weiß es nicht ☐ Trifft eher nicht zu ☐ Trifft nicht zu

8. Englisch ist wichtig für meine Zukunft (Studium/Job).

☐ Trifft zu ☐ Trifft eher zu ☐ Ich weiß es nicht ☐ Trifft eher nicht zu ☐ Trifft nicht zu

9. Heutzutage ist es wichtig in Englisch schreiben zu können.

☐ Trifft zu ☐ Trifft eher zu ☐ Ich weiß es nicht ☐ Trifft eher nicht zu ☐ Trifft nicht zu

10. Heutzutage ist es wichtig Englisch sprechen zu können.

☐ Trifft zu ☐ Trifft eher zu ☐ Ich weiß es nicht ☐ Trifft eher nicht zu ☐ Trifft nicht zu

c) PERSÖNLICHER KONTAKT MIT ENGLISCH: Bitte beantworte die folgenden Fragen.

11. Warst du schon einmal in einem englischsprachigen Land?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

12. Hast du schon einmal an einer Sprachreise in ein englischsprachiges Land teilgenommen? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

- ☐ Privat ☐ mit der Schule ☐ Nein

13. Reist du regelmäßig ins Ausland?

- ☐ Regelmäßig ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

14. Hast du Freunde/Verwandte im Ausland?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

15. Hast du Freunde/Bekannte mit Englisch als Muttersprache?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

16. Hast du schon mal ein Praktikum gemacht bzw. übst du einen Nebenjob aus?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

17. Wenn JA, waren/sind bei diesem Praktikum/Nebenjob Englischkenntnisse nötig?

- ☐ Sehr oft ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

18. Hast du schon einmal mit Online-Händlern (Amazon, Ebay, etc.) auf Englisch kommunizieren müssen?

- ☐ Schon oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Einmal ☐ Noch nie

19. Wurdest du schon einmal von Touristen auf Englisch angesprochen?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

d) ENGLISCH IN DER FREIZEIT: Bitte beantworte die folgenden Fragen.

20. Hast du in deiner Freizeit schon einmal ein englisches Buch/Magazin/Zeitung gelesen?

- ☐ Schon oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Einmal ☐ Noch nie

21. Liest du englische Artikel auf Wikipedia?

- ☐ Sehr oft ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

22. Besuchst du andere englischsprachige Websites?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

23. Wenn JA, wie oft besuchst du englischsprachige Websites?

- ☐ Mehrmals ☐ 3-4 x im ☐ 1-2 x im ☐ Weniger als
die Woche Monat Monat 1 x im Monat

24. Wenn JA, welche englischsprachigen Websites besuchst du? (Bitte Titel angeben)





25. Schlägst du englische Wörter nach, die du nicht verstehst?

- ☐ Immer ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

26. Hörst du in deiner Freizeit englischsprachige Radiosender (BBC Radio, FM4, etc.)?

☐ Immer ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

27. Wenn JA, wie oft hörst du englischsprachige Radiosender?

☐ Täglich ☐ 3-4 x in der Woche ☐ 1-2 x in der Woche ☐ Weniger als 1 x in der Woche ☐ Selten

28. Wenn du englische Musik hörst, achtest du dabei auf den Songtext?

☐ Immer ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

29. Ist es dir wichtig zu verstehen, worum es in einem englischen Lied geht?

☐ Immer ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

30. Siehst du dir die Songtexte an, wenn du den Song in englischer Sprache nicht oder nur teilweise verstehst?

☐ Immer ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

31. Siehst du dir Filme (DVDs, Downloads, etc.) in englischer Originalversion an?

☐ Ja ☐ Nein

32. Wenn JA, wie oft siehst du dir englischsprachige Filme an?

☐ Mehrmals die Woche ☐ 3-4 x im Monat ☐ 1-2 x im Monat ☐ Weniger als 1 x im Monat

33. Wenn JA, siehst du dir englischsprachige Filme mit Untertitel an?

☐ Ja, mit englischem Untertitel ☐ Ja, mit deutschem Untertitel ☐ Nein, ohne Untertitel

34. Siehst du dir im Kino Filme in englischer Originalversion an?

☐ Immer ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

35. Siehst du dir Fernsehserien in englischer Originalversion an?

☐ Ja ☐ Nein

36. Wenn JA, wie oft siehst du dir englischsprachige Fernsehserien an?

☐ Täglich ☐ 3-4 x in der Woche ☐ 1-2 x in der Woche ☐ Weniger als 1 x in der Woche ☐ Selten

37. Wenn JA, siehst du dir englischsprachige Fernsehserien mit Untertitel an?

☐ Ja, mit englischem Untertitel ☐ Ja, mit deutschem Untertitel ☐ Nein, ohne Untertitel

38. Wenn JA, welche englischsprachige Fernsehserien siehst du dir an? (bitte Titel angeben)





39. Siehst du dir englischsprachige Nachrichtensendungen (CNN, BBC, etc.) an?

☐ Ja ☐ Nein

40. Wenn JA, wie oft siehst du dir englischsprachige Nachrichtensendungen an?

☐ Täglich ☐ 3-4 x in der Woche ☐ 1-2 x in der Woche ☐ Weniger als 1 x in der Woche ☐ Selten

41. Spielst du Videospiele/Computerspiele auf Englisch?


☐ Ja ☐ Nein


42. Wenn JA, wie oft spielst du englische Videospiele/Computerspiele?

- ☐ Mehrmals am Tag ☐ Täglich ☐ 2-3 in der Woche ☐ Weniger als 1 x in der Woche ☐ Weniger als 1 x im Monat

43. Wenn JA, welche Art von englischen Videospiele/Computerspielen verwendest du? (mehr Antworten möglich)

- ☐ Konsolenspiele (Wii, PS, etc.) ☐ Online Multiplayerspiele

 _____


 _____

44. Wenn JA, welche Videospiele/Computerspiele spielst du? (bitte Titel angeben)

 Videospiele: _____  Computerspiele: _____

 _____  _____

45. Wenn JA, welche Teile des Spiels sind auf Englisch? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

- ☐ Soundtrack ☐ Interaktionen mit anderen Spielern ☐ Kommentare ☐ Benachrichtigungen  _____

46. Verwendest du englische APPS?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

47. Wenn JA, wie oft verwendest du englische APPS?

- ☐ Mehrmals am Tag ☐ Täglich ☐ 3-4 in der Woche ☐ 1-2 x in der Woche ☐ Weniger als 1 x in der Woche

48. Wenn JA, welche englischen APPS verwendest du? (Bitte Titel angeben)

 _____

 _____

49. Viele soziale Netzwerke (z.B. Facebook) unserer Zeit basieren auf der englischen Sprache. Bist du Mitglied eines sozialen Netzwerks bzw. mehrerer sozialer Netzwerke? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

- ☐ Facebook ☐ Twitter ☐ Myspace ☐ Andere soziale Netzwerke ☐ Kein Mitglied sozialer Netzwerke

50. Wenn Mitglied sozialer Netzwerke, welche Sprache hast du für deinen Account eingestellt?

- ☐ Deutsch ☐ Englisch ☐ Andere Sprache

51. Verwendest du Englisch in deiner Freizeit für soziale Kontakte? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

- ☐ Ich verwende Englisch für keine sozialen Kontakte.
☐ Ich schreibe E-Mails/Briefe mit Freunden/Verwandten um in Kontakt zu bleiben.
☐ Ich chatte/simse mit Freunden/Verwandten um in Kontakt zu bleiben.
☐ Ich spreche mit Freunden/Verwandten persönlich um in Kontakt zu bleiben.

☐  _____

52. Fallen dir weitere Bereiche ein, in welchen du in deiner Freizeit mit Englisch in Kontakt kommst?



e) ENGLISCH ALS TRENDSPRACHE: Bitte beantworte die folgenden Fragen.

53. Verwendest du englische Umgangswörter, wie Cheers, Chillax, Shit, etc. in deiner Alltagssprache?

- ☐ Mehrmals am Tag ☐ Täglich ☐ 3-4 in der Woche ☐ 1-2 x in der Woche ☐ Weniger als 1 x in der Woche ☐ Nie

54. Wenn JA, fallen dir weitere englische Umgangswörter ein, die du in deiner Alltagssprache verwendest?



55. Wenn du Hip Hop hörst, übernimmst du dann englische Wörter und verwendest sie in deiner Alltagssprache?

- ☐ Sehr oft ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

56. Verwendest du englische Bezeichnungen, wie Large, Medium, Small, wenn du ein Menü, einen Kaffee etc. in amerikanischen Schnellrestaurants (McDonalds, Starbucks etc.) bestellst?

- ☐ Immer ☐ Oft ☐ Manchmal ☐ Selten ☐ Nie

57. Verwendest du heutzutage mehr englische Wörter in deiner Alltagssprache als früher?

- ☐ Trifft zu ☐ Trifft eher zu ☐ Ich weiß es nicht ☐ Trifft eher nicht zu ☐ Trifft nicht zu

f) PERSÖNLICHE EINSCHÄTZUNG: Bitte beantworte die folgenden Fragen.

58. Nachdem du nun die folgenden Fragen beantwortet hast, würdest du sagen, dass du Englisch außerhalb der Schule verwendest?

- ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

59. Wenn JA, wie oft verwendest du Englisch außerhalb der Schule?

- ☐ Täglich ☐ 2x wtl ☐ 1x wtl ☐ 1x im Monat ☐ Seltener als 1x im Monat

60. Wenn JA, in welcher Form verwendest du English am Häufigsten außerhalb der Schule? (Nummeriere die Kästchen von 1-4: 1= am Häufigsten, 4=am Seltensten):

- ☐ Lesen ☐ Schreiben ☐ Sprechen ☐ Hören

DANKE! 😊

Barbara Ringl

Appendix 2

Ergebnisse/Findings:

a) PERSÖNLICHE ANGABEN / PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Geschlecht:	Weiblich	Männlich
Gesamt	56,2%	43,8%

2. Alter:	16 Jahre	17 Jahre	18 Jahre
Gesamt	21,3%	50,3%	28,4%

3. Schulstufe:	11. (AHS)	12. (BHS)
Burschen	22,1%	23,7%
Mädchen	27,2%	28,9%
Gesamt	47,3%	52,7%

4. Welche anderen Sprachen lernst du außer Englisch in der Schule noch?

	Französisch	Italienisch	Andere Sprache/n
Gesamt	81,1%	18,9%	0,0%

5. Welche Sprache/n sprichst du innerhalb deiner Familie?

11. Schulstufe (AHS):	Deutsch (96,3%); Türkisch (13,7%); Griechisch (2,5%); Tschechisch (2,5%); Russisch (2,5%); Tagalog (1,3%) Serbisch (5%); Bosnisch (5%); Kroatisch (2,5%); Arabisch (1,3%); Japanisch (1,3%); Hindi (1,3%); Mandarin (2,5%); Mazedonisch (3,7%);
12. Schulstufe (BHS):	Deutsch (100%); Türkisch (2,2%);

b) ENGLISCH ALS SPRACHE / ENGLISH AS FIRST MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE

6. Ich mag Englisch.	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Ich weiß es nicht	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Burschen	36,5%	36,5%	16,2%	6,8%	4,0%
Mädchen	42,1%	30,5%	12,6%	7,4%	7,4%
Gesamt	39,6%	33,1%	14,2%	7,1%	5,9%

7. Ich bin gut in Englisch.	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Ich weiß es nicht	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Burschen	21,6%	43,2%	17,6%	12,2%	5,4%
Mädchen	18,9%	30,5%	27,4%	17,9%	5,3%
Gesamt	20,1%	36,1%	23,1%	15,4%	5,3%

8. English ist wichtig für meine Zukunft (Studium/Job).	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Ich weiß es nicht	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Burschen	48,6%	25,7%	17,6%	4,1%	4,1%
Mädchen	41,0%	33,7%	21,0%	3,2%	1,1%
Gesamt	44,4%	30,2%	19,5%	3,5%	2,4%

9. Heutzutage ist es wichtig in Englisch schreiben zu können.	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Ich weiß es nicht	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Burschen	51,3%	36,5%	5,4%	6,8%	0,0%
Mädchen	43,2%	43,2%	11,6%	2,1%	0,0%
Gesamt	46,8%	40,2%	8,9%	4,1%	0,0%

10. Heutzutage ist es wichtig in Englisch sprechen zu können.	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Ich weiß es nicht	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Burschen	81,1%	14,9%	1,3%	1,4%	1,3%
Mädchen	84,2%	13,7%	2,1%	0,0%	0,0%
Gesamt	82,8%	14,2%	1,8%	0,6%	0,6%

c) PERSÖNLICHER KONTAKT MIT ENGLISCH / PERSONAL CONTACT WITH ENGLISH

11. Warst du schon einmal in einem englischsprachigen Land?	JA	NEIN
Burschen	73,0%	27,0%
Mädchen	72,6%	27,4%
Gesamt	72,8%	27,2%

12. Hast du schon einmal an einer Sprachreise in ein englischsprachiges Land teilgenommen? (mehrere Antworten möglich)	Privat	Mit der Schule	Nein
Burschen	14,9%	45,9%	43,2%
Mädchen	12,6%	52,6%	40,0%
Gesamt	13,6%	49,7%	41,4%

13. Reist du regelmäßig ins Ausland?	Regelmäßig	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	24,3%	14,9%	37,8%	17,6%	5,4%
Mädchen	11,6%	12,6%	51,6%	18,9%	5,3%
Gesamt	17,2%	13,6%	45,6%	18,3%	5,3%

14. Hast du Freunde/Verwandte im Ausland?	JA	NEIN
Burschen	66,2%	33,8%
Mädchen	64,2%	35,8%
Gesamt	65,1%	34,9%

15. Hast du Freunde/Bekannte mit Englisch als Muttersprache?	JA	NEIN
Burschen	48,6%	51,4%
Mädchen	45,3%	54,7%
Gesamt	46,7%	53,3%

16. Hast du schon einmal ein Praktikum gemacht bzw. übst du einen Nebenjob aus?	JA	NEIN
Burschen	63,5%	36,5%
Mädchen	74,7%	25,3%
Gesamt	69,8%	30,2%

17. Wenn JA, waren/sind bei diesem Praktikum/Nebenjob Englischkenntnisse nötig?	Sehr oft	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	4,3%	6,4%	31,9%	31,9%	25,5%
Mädchen	15,5%	12,7%	39,4%	23,9%	8,5%
Gesamt	11,0%	10,2%	36,4%	27,1%	15,3%

18. Hast du schon einmal mit Online-Händlern (Amazon, Ebay) auf Englisch kommunizieren müssen?	Schon oft	Manchmal	Einmal	Noch nie
Burschen	5,4%	12,2%	14,9%	67,6%
Mädchen	2,1%	9,5%	11,6%	76,8%
Gesamt	3,6%	10,7%	13,0%	72,8%

19. Wurdest du schon einmal von Touristen auf Englisch angesprochen?

	JA	NEIN
Burschen	90,5%	9,5%
Mädchen	78,9%	21,1%
Gesamt	84,0%	16,0%

d) ENGLISCH IN DER FREIZEIT / ENGLISH IN LEISURE TIME

20. Hast du in deiner Freizeit schon einmal ein englisches Buch/Magazin/Zeitung gelesen?

	Schon oft	Manchmal	Einmal	Noch nie
Burschen	24,3%	32,4%	28,4%	14,9%
Mädchen	27,4%	35,8%	32,6%	4,2%
Gesamt	26,0%	34,3%	30,8%	8,9%

21. Liest du englische Artikel auf Wikipedia?

	Sehr oft	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	5,4%	33,8%	27,0%	21,6%	12,2%
Mädchen	6,3%	11,6%	28,4%	28,4%	25,3%
Gesamt	5,9%	21,3%	27,8%	25,4%	19,5%

22. Besuchst du andere englischsprachige Websites?

	JA	NEIN
Burschen	82,4%	17,6%
Mädchen	46,3%	53,7%
Gesamt	62,1%	37,9%

23. Wenn JA, wie oft besuchst du englischsprachige Websites?

	Mehrmals die Woche	3-4/Monat	1-2/Monat	< als 1/Monat
Burschen	59,0%	16,4%	13,1%	11,5%
Mädchen	40,9%	22,7%	29,6%	6,8%
Gesamt	51,4%	19,1%	20,0%	9,5%

24. Wenn Ja, welche englischsprachigen Websites besuchst du?

Burschen	Ebay (7x); Wikipedia (9x); 9Gag (14x); Twitter (1x), Facebook (3x); YouTube (2x); Cliphunter (3x); BBC (1x); Movie4k (5x); Pornhit (3x); "verschiedene Foren" (1x);
Mädchen	Facebook (8x); Wikipedia (7x); Women's Health (1x); Google (1x); Tumblr (5x); Pinterest (2x); Amazon (1x); 9Gag (8x);

25. Schlägst du englische Wörter nach, die du nicht verstehst?

	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	18,9%	31,1%	35,1%	12,2%	2,7%
Mädchen	37,9%	38,9%	20,0%	3,2%	0,0%
Gesamt	29,6%	35,5%	26,6%	7,1%	1,2%

26. Hörst du in deiner Freizeit englischsprachige Radiosender?

	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	4,0%	6,8%	16,2%	25,7%	47,3%
Mädchen	8,4%	13,7%	20,0%	21,1%	36,8%
Gesamt	6,5%	10,7%	18,3%	23,1%	41,4%

27. Wenn JA, wie oft hörst du englischsprachige Radiosender?

	Täglich	3-4/Woche	1-2/Woche	< als 1/Woche	Selten
Burschen	7,3%	9,8%	7,3%	24,4%	51,2%
Mädchen	15,5%	10,3%	22,4%	20,7%	31,0%
Gesamt	12,1%	10,1%	16,2%	22,2%	39,4%

28. Wenn du englische Musik hörst, achtest du dabei auf den**Songtext?**

	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	18,9%	35,1%	29,7%	10,8%	5,4%
Mädchen	26,3%	43,2%	20,0%	9,5%	1,1%
Gesamt	23,1%	39,6%	24,3%	10,1%	3,0%

29. Ist es dir wichtig zu verstehen, worum es in einem**englischen Lied geht?**

	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	20,3%	14,9%	36,5%	21,6%	6,8%
Mädchen	28,4%	37,9%	24,2%	6,3%	3,2%
Gesamt	24,8%	27,8%	29,6%	13,0%	4,7%

30. Siehst du dir die Songtexte an, wenn du den Song in englischer Sprache nicht oder nur teilweise verstehst?

	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	10,8%	18,9%	27,0%	17,6%	25,7%
Mädchen	21,0%	29,5%	28,4%	113,7%	7,4%
Gesamt	16,6%	24,8%	27,8%	15,4%	15,4%

31. Siehst du dir Filme (DVD, Downloads, etc.) in englischer Originalversion an?

	JA	NEIN
Burschen	59,5%	40,5%
Mädchen	53,7%	46,3%
Gesamt	56,2%	43,8%

32. Wenn JA, wie oft siehst du dir englischsprachige Filme an?

	Mehrmals die Woche	3-4/Monat	1-2/Monat	< als 1/Monat
Burschen	20,5%	20,4%	31,8%	27,3%
Mädchen	23,5%	25,5%	25,5%	25,5%
Gesamt	22,1%	23,2%	28,4%	26,3%

33. Wenn JA, siehst du dir englischsprachige Filme mit Untertitel an?

	Ja, mit engl. Untertitel	Ja, mit deutschem Untertitel	Kein Untertitel
Burschen	20,5%	20,5%	59,1%
Mädchen	15,7%	33,3%	51,0%
Gesamt	17,9%	27,4%	54,7%

34. Siehst du dir im Kino Filme in englischer Originalversion an?

	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	4,0%	5,4%	8,1%	14,9%	67,6%
Mädchen	0,0%	4,2%	8,4%	27,4%	60,0%
Gesamt	1,8%	4,7%	8,3%	21,9%	63,3%

35. Siehst du dir Fernsehserien in englischer Originalversion an?

	JA	NEIN
Burschen	37,8%	62,2%
Mädchen	54,7%	45,3%
Gesamt	47,3%	52,7%

36. Wenn JA, wie oft siehst du dir englische Fernsehserien an?	Täglich	3-4/Woche	1-2/Woche	< als 1/Woche	Selten
Burschen	10,7%	17,9%	25,0%	32,1%	14,3%
Mädchen	3,9%	28,9%	26,9%	21,1%	19,2%
Gesamt	6,3%	25,0%	26,2%	25,0%	17,5%

37. Wenn JA, siehst du dir engl. Fernsehserien mit Untertitel an?	Ja, mit engl. Untertitel	Ja, mit deutschem Untertitel	Kein Untertitel
Burschen	7,1%	17,9%	75,0%
Mädchen	17,3%	32,7%	50,0%
Gesamt	13,8%	27,5%	58,7%

38. Wenn JA, welche englischen Fernsehserien siehst du dir an?

Burschen	Two and a Half Men (11x); The Walking Dead (7x); The Big Bang Theory (8x); How I Met Your Mother (13x); Games of Thrones (3x); Jamie Oliver (2x); South Park (3x); Arrow (1x); Kenny vs. Spenny (3x); Malcolm in the Middle (3x); Scrubs (1x);
Mädchen	Two and a Half Men (8x); The Walking Dead (6x); The Big Bang Theory (6x); How I Met Your Mother (10x); The Vampire Diaries (9x); The Mentalist (8x); Grey's Anatomy (6x); Lie to Me (3x); Castle (4x); South Park (2x); Breaking Bad (5x); North & South (3x); True Blood (2x); Malcolm in the Middle (2x); 90210 (2x); New Girl (2x); Two Broke Girls (2x);

39. Siehst du dir englische Nachrichtensendungen an?	JA	NEIN
Burschen	23,0%	77,0%
Mädchen	24,2%	75,8%
Gesamt	23,7%	76,3%

40. Wenn JA, wie oft siehst du dir englischsprachige Nachrichtensendungen an?

	Täglich	3-4/Woche	1-2/Woche	> als 1/Woche	Selten
Burschen	0,0%	5,9%	23,5%	47,1%	23,5%
Mädchen	8,7%	0,0%	4,4%	52,2%	34,8%
Gesamt	5,0%	2,5%	12,5%	50,0%	30,0%

41. Spielst du Videospiele/Computerspiele auf Englisch?	JA	NEIN
Burschen	77,0%	23,0%
Mädchen	28,4%	71,6%
Gesamt	49,7%	50,3%

42. Wenn JA, wie oft spielst du englische Videospiele/Computerspiele?

	Mehrmals am Tag	Täglich	2-3/Woche	< als 1/Woche	< als 1/Monat
Burschen	12,3%	19,3%	33,3%	22,8%	12,3%
Mädchen	7,4%	0,0%	0,0%	33,3%	59,3%
Gesamt	10,7%	13,1%	22,6%	26,2%	27,4%

43. Wenn JA, welche Art von englischen Videospielen/Computerspielen verwendest du? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

	Konsolenspiele	Online Multiplayerspiele	Anderes:
Burschen	42,1%	73,7%	PC Single-Player Spiele (3x)
Mädchen	70,4%	22,2%	PC Single-Player Spiele (2x)
Gesamt	51,2%	57,1%	PC Single-Player Spiele (2x)

44. Wenn JA, welche Videospiele/Computerspiele spielst du?

	Videospiele	Computerspiele
Burschen	Grand Theft Auto V (9x); FIFA 14 (9x); Killing Floor (2x);	Call of Duty (15x); Assassin's Creed IV (9x); Egoshooter (8x); Battlefield (6x); League of Legends (4x); The Walking Dead (4x); Minecraft (5x);
Mädchen		The Walking Dead (2x); Indie Games (1x);

45. Wenn JA, welche Teile der Videospiele/Computerspiele sind auf Englisch? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

	Soundtrack	Interaktionen mit Spielern	Kommentare	Benachricht.	Sonstiges:
Burschen	50,0%	55,4%	54,1%	31,1%	0,0%
Mädchen	12,6%	5,3%	19,0%	14,7%	0,0%
Gesamt	29,0%	27,2%	34,3%	21,9%	0,0%

46. Verwendest du englische apps?

	JA	NEIN
Burschen	64,9%	35,1%
Mädchen	58,9%	41,1%
Gesamt	61,5%	38,5%

47. Wenn JA, wie oft verwendest du englische apps?	Mehrmals am Tag	Täglich	3-4/Woche	1-2/Woche	< als 1/Woche
Burschen	27,1%	18,7%	29,2%	14,6%	10,4%
Mädchen	30,4%	17,9%	17,9%	19,6%	14,3%
Gesamt	28,8%	18,3%	23,1%	17,3%	12,5%

48. Wenn JA, welche englische apps verwendest du?

Burschen	Fun Run (2x); WhatsApp (8x); 9Gag (8x); Hill Climb Racing (4x); YouPorn (3x); Fitness Point (1x); Instant Buttons (3x); Instagram (4x); Atomic Bomb (3x); Total Commander (4x); Subway Surf (2); Poker (2x);
Mädchen	WhatsApp (10x); 9Gag (6x); Instagram (3x); Instant Buttons (3x); Daily Photo (6x); Mahjong (1x); Fotocollagen (2x); Sportsapps (1x); Color Note (1x);

49. Bist du Mitglied eines sozialen Netzwerks bzw. mehrerer sozialer Netzwerke (z.B. Facebook)? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

	FB	Twitter	Myspace	Andere Netzwerke	Kein Mitglied
Burschen	82,4%	17,6%	2,7%	21,6%	5,4%
Mädchen	82,1%	10,5%	4,2%	21,0%	4,2%
Gesamt	82,3%	13,6%	3,5%	21,3%	4,7%

50. Wenn Mitglied sozialer Netzwerke, welche Sprache hast du für deinen Account eingestellt?

	Deutsch	Englisch	Andere Sprache
Burschen	80,0%	15,7%	4,3%
Mädchen	84,6%	13,2%	2,2%
Gesamt	82,6%	14,3%	3,1%

51. Verwendest du Englisch in deiner Freizeit für soziale Kontakte? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

	Keine sozialen Kontakte	via E-Mail/Brief	via Chat/SMS	via Sprechen	Sonstiges
Burschen	55,4%	10,8%	28,4%	22,1%	
Mädchen	49,5%	14,7%	34,7%	11,6%	Skypen (3)
Gesamt	52,1%	13,0%	31,9%	10,6%	

52. Fallen die weitere Bereiche ein, in welchen du in deiner Freizeit mit Englisch in Kontakt kommst?

Burschen	Fußball (1x); YouTube (1x); Blogs von DJs (1x); Werbungen (1x); Teamspeak (2x); Facebook (2x);
Mädchen	Omegle (1x); Urlaub (5x); Skype (2x); Touristen (3x); McDonalds (3x); Starbucks (2x); Chats (1x);

e) ENGLISCH ALS TRENDSPRACHE / ENGLISH AS A TRENDY LANGUAGE

53. Verwendest du englische Umgangswörter, wie Cheers, Chillax, Shit, etc. in deiner Alltagssprache?

	> am Tag	Täglich	3-4/Woche	1-2/Woche	< als 1/Woche	Nie
Burschen	35,1%	32,4%	5,4%	10,8%	13,5%	2,7%
Mädchen	24,2%	27,4%	13,7%	12,6%	16,8%	5,3%
Gesamt	29,0%	29,6%	10,1%	11,8%	15,4%	4,1%

54. Wenn JA, fallen dir weitere englische Umgangswörter ein, die du in deiner Alltagssprache verwendest? (mehrere Antworten möglich)

Burschen	awesome (8x); noob (6x); bullshit (6x); fuck (17x); shit (5x); grumpy (2x); chill (6x); cool (5x); campen (3x) sorry (4x); cheat (3x); pussy (2x), damn (4x); bitch (3x); chillen (2x); keep calm (4x);
Mädchen	Nice (7x); What's up? (5x); Thanks! (4x); Sorry (7x); chill (7x); cool (9x); fuck (14x); Oh my god (3x); shit (3x); Thank you! (2x); What the fuck (2x); "Standardwörter" (1x);

55. Wenn du Hip Hop hörst, übernimmst du dann englische Wörter und verwendest du sie in deiner Alltagssprache?

	Sehr Oft	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	2,7%	8,1%	12,2%	18,9%	58,1%
Mädchen	4,2%	4,2%	14,7%	31,6%	45,3%
Gesamt	3,6%	5,9%	13,6%	27,2%	49,7%

56. Verwendest du englische Bezeichnungen, wie Large Medium, Small, wenn du ein Menü/Kaffee in amerikanischen Schnellrestaurants (McDonalds) bestellst?

	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
Burschen	16,2%	10,8%	21,6%	29,7%	21,6%
Mädchen	24,2%	19,0%	35,8%	9,5%	11,6%
Gesamt	20,7%	15,4%	29,6%	18,3%	16,0%

57. Verwendest du heutzutage mehr englische Wörter in deiner Alltagssprache als früher?

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Ich weiß es nicht	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Burschen	24,3%	48,7%	16,2%	8,1%	2,7%
Mädchen	28,4%	41,1%	18,9%	9,5%	2,1%
Gesamt	26,6%	44,4%	17,8%	8,9%	2,4%

f) PERSÖNLICHE EINSCHÄTZUNG / PERSONAL EVALUATION

58. Nachdem du nun die folgenden Fragen beantwortet hast, würdest du sagen, dass du Englisch außerhalb der Schule verwendest?

	JA	NEIN
Burschen	86,5%	13,5%
Mädchen	83,2%	16,8%
Gesamt	84,6%	15,4%

59. Wenn JA, wie oft verwendest du Englisch außerhalb der Schule?

	Täglich	2/Woche	1/Woche	1/Monat	< als 1/Monat
Burschen	46,9%	21,9%	18,7%	7,8%	4,7%
Mädchen	44,3%	17,7%	25,3%	8,9%	3,8%
Gesamt	45,5%	19,6%	22,4%	8,4%	4,2%

60. Wenn JA, in welcher Form verwendest du Englisch am Häufigsten außerhalb der Schule?

(Nummeriere von 1-4: 1= am Häufigsten, 4= am Seltesten)

	1. Schreiben	2. Schreiben	3. Schreiben	4. Schreiben
Burschen	10,8%	29,7%	21,6%	37,8%
Mädchen	10,5%	14,7%	41,0%	33,7%
Gesamt	10,7%	21,3%	32,5%	35,5%

	1. Hören	2. Hören	3. Hören	4. Hören
Burschen	59,5%	25,7%	9,5%	5,4%
Mädchen	42,1%	28,4%	15,8%	13,7%
Gesamt	49,7%	27,2%	13,0%	10,1%

	1. Lesen	2. Lesen	3. Lesen	4. Lesen
Burschen	20,3%	27,0%	33,8%	18,9%
Mädchen	35,8%	43,2%	9,5%	11,6%
Gesamt	29,0%	36,1%	20,1%	14,8%

	1. Sprechen	2. Sprechen	3. Sprechen	4. Sprechen
Burschen	9,5%	17,6%	35,1%	37,8%
Mädchen	11,6%	13,7%	33,7%	41,1%
Gesamt	10,7%	15,4%	34,3%	39,6%

Appendix 3

Curriculum Vitae

PERSÖNLICHE DATEN

Vorname: Barbara

Zuname: Ringl

Geburtsdatum: 27. Jänner 1989

Geburtsort: Waidhofen an der Thaya, NÖ

Staatsangehörigkeit: Österreich

Eltern: Hermann und Gabriele Ringl

Familienstand: ledig

SCHULBILDUNG

1995 - 1999 Volksschule Weikertschlag an der Thaya, NÖ

1999 - 2003 Hauptschule Raabs an der Thaya, NÖ

2003 - 2008 Höhere Lehranstalt für wirtschaftliche Berufe Horn, NÖ

26.05.2008 Reifeprüfung an der HLW Horn, NÖ

2008 - 2014 Lehramtsstudium UF Englisch und UF Psychologie/Philosophie an der
Universität Wien

seit WS2013 Zusatzausbildung des Universitätslehrgangs Ethik an der Universität
Wien

RELEVANTE PRAKTIKA / ERWERBE / ARBEITSVERHÄLTNISSE

03/2010 - 05/2010 Pädagogisches Praktikum im Unterrichtsfach

Psychologie/Philosophie am Bundesgymnasium und Bundesrealgymnasium,
BGRG VIII in Wien (bei OstR. MMag. Josef Neuwirth)

08/2010 - 09/2010 Erwerb des Cambridge ESOL Certificates in St. Julians, Malta

09/2010 - 06/2012 Engagement als Nachhilfelehrerin am Nachhilfeinstitut

Schülerhilfe im Unterrichtsfach Englisch

10/2011 - 12/2011 Fachbezogenes Praktikum im Unterrichtsfach English an der

Höheren Bundeslehranstalt für Tourismus bzw. Interkulturelle Hotelfachschule
in Retz, NÖ (bei Dr. Per-Tomas Paichl)

02/2013 - 04/2013 Fachbezogenes Praktikum im Unterrichtsfach

Psychologie/Philosophie am Gymnasium und wirtschaftlichen

Realgymnasium der Dominikanerinnen, pGRg 13 in Wien (bei Mag. Doris
Gloggnitzer)