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1. Introduction

English has advanced to the status of a language spoken worldwide. Political relations, global trade, travel, people's higher mobility, mass media and popular culture have made it necessary to use a shared language of communication – in the present case English. Especially within the EU this language has become the unofficial lingua franca (cf. Graddol 2001: 55).

Europeans are well aware of the benefits of knowing foreign languages. Being proficient in more than one language increases job opportunities, studying and travelling across Europe and eases intercultural communication. In 2006 the European Commission published a 'Eurobarometer' study in which Europeans and their languages were investigated. Even though the EU is a multilingual conglomerate with 20 different official languages spoken (European Commission 2006: 3), the member states rated merely four foreign languages as most useful. Not surprisingly, 68 per cent of the Europeans regarded English to be the most useful language (ibid: 30). This figure is even higher when Europeans stated which language children should learn at an educational institution. 77 per cent of the twenty-five member states claimed that English should be the first foreign language being taught (ibid: 33).

Austria follows this global trend and the dominance of English is clearly reflected in the Austrian school system with all students starting to learn English at primary level (Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck, Smit 1997: 115). While there seems to be a consensus in Austria and other EU member states that learning English is a prerequisite for intercultural communication and occupational success, data on learners' individual attitudes and perceptions towards English, at least in Austria, are scarce. Often, previously conducted studies (Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck, Smit 1997, Soukup 2009, Plot 2008) focus on the evaluation of the language or language variety spoken by a particular speaker and not on attitudes towards the language itself. Assuming that language attitudes are a crucial factor with reference to language learning, this topic becomes relevant for language teaching. Apart from language attitudes, motivation has a decisive impact on students' willingness and effort invested in language study. Gardner (1985, 2001) asserts that language attitudes and motivation are predictors of language achievement. In other words someone who has positive attitudes towards the target language and is highly motivated to learn the language will ultimately succeed in mastering it. The question whether Austrian pupils have

favourable attitudes towards English and are motivated to study the language has been a central issue of the present MA thesis.

In order to capture learners' language attitudes towards English and their motivation to learn the language, a field study was carried out in Lower Austria in two specific schools: an academic high school and a vocational college. The study addressed students (N=240) aged fifteen (grade 9) and seventeen (grade 11) about their perceptions of English. The employed questionnaire is a modified version of Gardner's (1985, 2001) Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The survey intends to find out whether attitudes towards English and motivation to learn the language are correlated with the attended school type. In addition the study seeks to determine whether language attitudes and motivation change as students progress in their study. Moreover the survey attempts to highlight gender-specific differences among the participants.

In the first part of this thesis the concepts of attitudes and language attitudes will be explained. This will lead to a description of the origin and function of language attitudes. After establishing some theoretical background different techniques of measuring language attitudes will be emphasized. More attention is given to direct measurements since this is the kind of approach I have employed in my empirical study. In the view of the fact that language attitudes and motivation are closely linked, a subsequent chapter will present various motivation theories. Special emphasis is put on Gardner's (1985) Socio-Educational model and its concept of integrativeness which refers to a psychological and emotional identification with the target language community (Kormos & Csizér 2008: 329). This will offer the reader some background knowledge, since the AMTB used in the present study is based on this theoretical framework.

While integrativeness and favourable language attitudes are important they may no longer be the most crucial aspects in terms of language learning in a European context. Within the EU numerous foreign language learners study English in order to communicate with other non-native speakers. In this sense, the *de facto* lingua franca fulfils a variety of communicative functions. Today it seems reasonable to assume that foreign language (FL) learners study English for its varied functions. This can additionally be seen as a specific type of motivation. A brief section will be dedicated to the functions of English in Europe.

The present study is based on the research findings in the fields of language attitude and motivation. Concerning the questionnaire pupils were asked to answer items dealing with their attitudes towards foreign languages and in particular English, their opinion of English foreign language (EFL) at school, their motivation and their desire to learn the

language. In addition pupils had to state where and when they use English outside the classroom context. Learners' responses will be reported and compared. Furthermore the findings of the present study will be evaluated with other similar studies in order to highlight parallels and differences.

Understanding students' attitudes and motivation to learn English offers teachers valuable feedback on their language teaching and might encourage the development of different teaching strategies and learning material.

2. Language attitudes

In very broad terms 'language attitudes' comprise all attitudes that relate directly to language as a referent (Soukup 2009: 85). Therefore the basic concept of attitudes themselves needs to be addressed prior to describing language attitudes. The starting point will be a general definition of the term and further theoretical frameworks that are often linked to the issue of attitudes. After that the structure and functions of attitudes will be explained. In addition the process of attitude formation will be briefly outlined. Then we will investigate the question why attitudes are subject to change.

2.1 Attitudes

2.1.1 Definition – What is an attitude?

With the help of attitudes people develop perceptions of their social and physical world. In addition they have an impact upon their overt behaviour (Albarracín *et al.* 2008: 19). To a large extent attitudes are responsible whether we regard someone as likeable or not. If we are in the position of hiring employees our attitudes towards the candidate and his or her behaviour will have a certain influence on our decision. We also vote for a particular political candidate only if we have positive attitudes towards him or her. Attitudes are not always favourable. Anti-Semitic people or racists for example have negative attitudes towards a particular group of people.

Attitudes play an important part in our everyday lives. This fact explains why psychologists have been interested in the subject matter for several decades. Nevertheless,

it is not easy to find a unique satisfying definition, since many scholars described 'attitudes' in a different manner, depending on their own scientific interest. In general a distinction can be made with regard to the two varying approaches that investigated the issue of attitudes namely the mentalist and the behaviourist approaches (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970: 137). Gordon Allport argued in the first edition of the *Handbook of Social Psychology* (1935) that "the concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology [...]" (Allport quoted in Krosnick, Judd, Wittenbrink 2005: 22). In the forties researchers defined attitudes in a much wider sense than in contemporary social psychology. Again Allport (1935) worked out a definition that enjoyed long-lasting validity among psychology scholars. He claimed an attitude to be

a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Allport quoted in Krosnick, Judd, Wittenbrink 2005: 22)

Within the field of social psychology, attitudes are regarded as internal sets or "dispositions to act to an object or stimulus" in a particular manner (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970: 138-9). Mentalists consider attitude as an inner concept that is thus not directly observable. This approach includes various complex psychological aspects that are embodied within attitudes. In contrast to the behaviourist approach mentalists claim that human attitudes do not depend upon a certain setting. In addition the study of attitudes seeks to predict future behaviour. I have already pointed out that attitudes are regarded as inner concept and people might not even be consciously aware of them. Since attitudes might therefore not always be overtly stated it is more difficult to measure them. Researchers are often left with testing aids that need to be interpreted accordingly. To interpret the responses of the people asked is to a certain degree a subjective endeavour. Hence introspection does not account for the most reliable means of observation (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970: 138).

The behaviourist approach on the other hand considers attitudes as direct behavioural responses of human beings. To put it in other words "attitudes are to be found simply in the responses people make to social situations" (Fasold 1984: 147). The only possibility to investigate attitudes according to the behaviourist notion is by observation. The behaviour shown in specific situations is then analysed. This approach investigates only overtly expressed behaviour which is in its nature rather straightforward. That is the beneficial

aspect of this notion. A drawback of this approach is that an attitude is always tightly connected with the situation in which it is expressed. According to behaviourists the attitude goes hand in hand with the situation and can therefore no longer be generalised but develops towards a depended concept (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970: 139).

Since the forties much investigation on attitudinal research has been conducted. Throughout the years the mentalist approach gained more acceptance and appreciation among the scholars. Nowadays the concept of attitudes stresses the evaluative disposition. One definition that is repeatedly used in contemporary literature is that of Eagly and Chaiken (1993) who specified that an

attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour (Eagly & Chaiken 1993: 1).

In other words attitudes are evaluative in nature. In general an attitude is linked to the feelings between an attitude object and its evaluative categorization (Albarracín *et al* 2005: 19). In simpler terms an evaluative category could be the two opposites good vs. bad. An attitude object can refer to numerous entities such as another human being, behaviour, an abstract concept such as love or a happening. An example would be the newly designated president of the United States, Barack Obama as an attitude object and the evaluative category good vs. bad attached to it. Individuals, however, will not only make judgements of the new president based on a 'he is good or bad' distinction but their memories and experiences of previous presidents will have an influence on their current evaluation.

This explains why the study of attitudes always includes two components, initially we form judgements as we are confronted with a situation or person and then we reactivate the evaluative representations in memory (Albarracín *et al.* 2005: 4). Those judgements are always current thoughts in a particular context; hence they might not be formed identically in another setting. This does, however, not mean that we have to start all over again when we develop an attitude towards another person or an event. As Olson and Kendrick (2008: 111) put it, attitudes are "precomputed evaluations" that ease our process of judgement making with regard to the attitude object. This concept ties in with Campbell's (1963) issue of *acquired behavioural dispositions*. Campbell argued that attitudes are only established when the human being detects and reacts either consciously or unconsciously to the attitude object. Eagly and Chaiken (2005) illustrate this concept by giving an example of a person encountering a spider (Eagly & Chaiken 2005: 745). It seems

reasonable to assume that people's attitudes towards spiders are rather negative in general. Those socially accepted prejudices about spiders will be activated as soon as the person first encounters a spider. The person's unfavourable or avoidant response will be reactivated in future encounters with a spider.

This example nicely addresses the issue of consistency of attitudes. Scholars classify attitudes according to different levels of commitment (Garrett *et al.* 2003: 5). A general differentiation is made between spontaneous evaluations and long term attitudes. Long term attitudes are viewed as stable. When referring back to our spider example this becomes more obvious. Usually people encounter spiders in their childhood and hence their attitudes towards spiders are learned early in their lives. Therefore it is likely to assume that those attitudes are enduring. On the other hand, it is claimed that the more spontaneous the evaluation on an attitude is, the likelier it is subject to inconsistency.

2.1.2 The structure of attitudes

The fascinating question how and why attitudes are formed interested psychologists, philosophers as well as theologians. An example with regard to language learning will be my starting point. A pupil might enjoy English lessons because he or she is curious to learn the language and it is fun to produce utterances in the target language. Another classmate might only learn the foreign language because his or her parents said that English is important for his or her prospective career and he or she wants to have a highly paid job in the future. Basically two different sources underlie the differentiation that researchers make concerning the foundations of our attitudes (Olson & Kendrick 2008: 112). While the first pupil shows a more "emotional" attitude towards language learning, the latter exhibits a more "rational" attitude (ibid: 112).

The example presented above stresses that the basis of attitude formation can be emotion or affect. Moreover, attitudes can also be based on beliefs and cognition. Thirdly attitudes can be constructed with the help of our past behaviour (Olson & Kendrick 2008: 112). Emotion and affect deal with the feelings that we have towards an attitude object while the beliefs and cognition entails our belief system of the world we live in (Garrett *et al.* 2003: 3). In order to account for those various elements a tripartite structure is commonly used within the field of attitudinal research. This model is only one means to investigate attitude

formation research. Attitudes can also be formed implicitly or explicitly as we will explore in a subsequent section.

When attitudes are formed on the basis of emotional responses in connection to an attitude object they are affective in their origin (Olson & Kendrick 2008: 115). Emotions arise often after certain experiences that human beings have made. Returning to our example mentioned above the first pupil will experience a positive emotional reaction when thinking of the English lessons which could lead to a positive attitude towards English as such.

The cognitive component can be explained by Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) expectancy-value model that offers one among many other frameworks in order to understand cognitive bases of attitudes. When attitudes are formed on a basis of beliefs then we need to make judgements about the attitude object and the information that is connected with it (Olson & Kendrick 2008: 113). In other words we use the information about an object to be able to evaluate it in a certain way. Often we form attitudes by obtaining beliefs about the attitude object or it activates certain feelings when we are confronted with it. Sometimes, however, we can not establish attitudes based on affective or cognitive components. If this is the case then we consult our prior behaviour towards the attitude object in a manner of self-perception (ibid: 117).

The tripartite model is accompanied by the current assumption that attitudes might also be seen as implicit or explicit. The model distinguishes between different sources – affective, cognitive and behavioural, that form the attitude toward the attitude object. The recent approaches are more concerned with the differentiation of the various attitude formation processes irrespective of the source (ibid: 118). When attitudes are implicitly formed then the person is not aware of its formation. The attitude formation process is automatically done either as a response to the attitude object itself or due to the information provided with the object. Implicit attitudes might be responsible for more spontaneous behaviour (Eagly & Chaiken 2005: 747). Explicit attitudes are formed consciously with more consideration which calls for cognitive strength (ibid: 747).

Whether the tripartite model or the distinction of implicit and explicit attitudes is used to describe attitude formation, it remains a complex and difficult construct. Attitudes do not have to entail all three components proposed by the model but on the other hand they hardly ever include only one component. In some cases a dominance of cognitive or

affective components can be found whereas others exhibit features of all elements. Smit (1996: 27) investigated the power relations between the individual three components and concluded that the affective component proved to be stronger than the other two, since attitudes are consciously as well as unconsciously established. Olson and Kendrick (2008: 124) summed it up aptly in arguing that

attitudes clearly involve multiple sources – learned, innate, affective, cognitive, behavioural, implicit, and explicit, and future research will help untangle how each of these contribute to the richness of our attitudes.

Scholars agree that those three components are correlated but they also stress that the individual parts are not necessarily linked (Gallois, Watson, Brabant 2007: 596). In many instances people will not reveal their inner attitudes but act in contradiction to them. A person might have favourable beliefs and emotions towards English but behave in a totally different way when conversing with native-English speakers. This example challenges the assumption that attitudes have the capacity to predict behaviour. Those findings have caused the necessity to investigate the relationship between attitudes and behaviour in order to understand their interconnectedness better.

2.1.3 Attitudes and behaviour

Especially social psychologists have studied the relations between attitude and behaviour. A lot of research has been conducted in order to analyse the correlation between people's attitudes and their overtly stated behaviour. The conclusions vary to a great extent and no generally accepted explanation of attitude-behaviour relations could be agreed on. In his earlier research Cohen (1964: 138) argued that "attitudes are always seen as precursors of behaviour, as determinants of how a person will actually behave in his daily affairs". But in fact LaPierre provided as early as 1934 the counter-evidence to this notion. In his famous research he sent a Chinese couple to 251 restaurants in the US. One restaurant refused to serve the Chinese couple. Half a year later the restaurants visited received a letter asking them if they would deny service to a Chinese couple. Interestingly enough, 92 per cent claimed that they would not serve a Chinese couple (Baker 1992: 15). The previous study nicely illustrates that attitudes can be inconsistent with the actual behaviour. This is not to say that attitudes are not essential with regard to behaviour but they are not the only factors that influence behaviour. Wicker (1969) even asserted that "attitudes account for only about 10 per cent of the variability in behaviour" (quoted in Gardner

1982: 132). Wicker's (1969) assumption might explain why attitudes do not necessarily predefine behaviour. When we intend to make precise predictions of behaviour, both variables attitude and behaviour must have the same conditions in terms of "target, action, context and time" (Ajzen and Fishbein 1977 in Gardner 1982: 133). I agree with Baker (1992: 16) who claims that "[b]ehaviour tends not always to be consistent across contexts". The same notion might be true in the case of attitudes. They are not always consistent, but depend upon the given stimulus situation as we have seen in previously mentioned example. Ajzen (1988: 45) brought it to the point when claiming

[e]very particular instance of human action is, in this way, determined by a unique set of factors. Any change in circumstances, be it ever so slight, might produce a different reaction.

2.1.4 Attitude and other related terms

The term *attitude* is tightly connected to other concepts such as *opinion*, *belief* and *stereotype*. Often those terms are used synonymously in every day conversations. While this is acceptable in frequently, informally exchanged utterances, scholars make a clear distinction between the definitions of those terms. Hence it is important to explain in which way those terms differ from the concept of attitude.

Attitude and *opinion* seem to be used most often synonymously in everyday communication. Smit (1996: 29) argues that opinions are more conscious, direct and obvious. Attitudes, in contrast, are often not fully conscious and therefore more individualistic while opinions are generally held by a group of people (Stenzenberger 1992: 26). Baker (1992: 14) stresses another important aspect; he defines opinion as "an overt belief without affective *reaction*". Attitudes on the other hand include affective reactions. Another difference between both terms is made concerning surveys. While opinion polls reflect the views the population holds towards specific issues, attitude surveys are concerned with the correlation of people's attitudes in combination with many other variables. Attitude surveys aim at understanding human functioning better (Baker 1992: 14).

When it comes to *belief*, most researchers claim that this cognitive concept is more conscious than attitudes. In addition, beliefs can be explained reasonably (Smit 1996: 29).

The difference of both terms tends to be in degree rather than in their nature (Soukup 2007: 148).

Stereotypes are defined as rigid attitudes. In general they are created by group members in order to differentiate themselves from other groups (Weber 1992: 70). The most common way to distinguish the in-group members from their out-group members is by stressing the dissimilarities between these groups. Stereotypes have the tendency to be oversimplified and undifferentiated. Very often those standardized beliefs and opinions are shared within a group (Soukup 2007: 148). Therefore they “constitute a crucial aspect of intergroup communication” (Hewstone & Giles 1997: 278).

2.1.5 Functions of attitude

The main function of attitudes is to provide people with coherence and assistance in the process of making sense of the world. Attitudes are essential in our everyday life as they “provide cognitive simplicity, thus fulfilling the human need for affect” (Heining-Boynton & Haitema 2007: 150). This is achieved by structuring the world into easily comprehensible bits and pieces. Our mind creates categories in which we place objects and human beings that we like, dislike and those we have neither a positive nor negative opinion on (Maio & Olson 2000). Attitudes allow people to make quick decisions about the relevance of the attitude object. Based on those decisions a person will either start interactions with the attitude object or will deny them.

Regarding educational research the functions of attitudes are twofold (Baker 1992, Garrett *et al.* 2003). They can be regarded as input and output to social action (Baker 1992: 12). This dichotomy will be illustrated with an example. Positive attitudes towards the English course might be an important input for further learning achievement of the learner. In addition attitudes can also function as an output from social action. Ideally, after an English language course, the students will develop positive attitudes towards English and continue studying the language and engaging with the second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) culture. Baker (1992: 12) summarised that an “attitude serves a double function. [...] it provides a presage and a product variable, a predisposer and an outcome”.

A more recent approach claims that attitudes fulfil instrumental or symbolic functions (Herek 2000). The instrumental function concerns the person’s self-interest. Every

individual judges whether the attitude object is useful for his or her own purposes. The symbolic function determines an attitude object as a representation mirroring values and prejudices (Heining-Boynton, Haitema 2007: 150). It is a reasonable indicator of social adjustment and is attached to identity affirmation. This partly explains why people develop their personality in the way they do (ibid: 150).

2.1.6 Attitude formation and change

Attitudes shape our perception of other human beings and events and influence our behaviour towards them. Therefore it is difficult to separate social behaviour from attitudes. Within the discipline of attitudinal research, scholars have been interested in attitude formation and change. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argued that attitude formation happens as a part of cognitive processes (Walther & Langer 2008: 87). A more recently established approach challenges this notion. A lot of research found evidence that affective processes might be responsible for attitude formation. Several studies on evaluative conditioning (Dijksterhuis 2004, Hammerl & Gablitz 2000, Olson & Fazio 2001) indicate that attitudes can be influenced by the presence of a neutral stimulus with affective stimuli. Olson and Fazio (2001) conducted a study where they showed participants pictures with Pokemon characters. They attached negative words to some pictures that the participants received. After the experiment the subjects showed negative reactions towards the fictitious characters that were accompanied with a negative word.

The disagreement between the cognitive approach and the affective approach might be solved when we accept that both approaches refer to different stages of attitude formation and change (Walther & Langer 2008: 88). While the cognitive approach states that cognitively based beliefs are responsible for attitude change, the components of the affectively based approach rather address the initial phase of attitude formation. In other words, attitudes originate from affectively based components and they can be changed by cognitively based processes (ibid: 89).

In general attitudes are learnt or acquired through society. The previously presented study states that conditioning is one way responsible for the development of favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards an attitude object. Attitudes can also be learnt from one's own experience. Sherif (1967) states that

[w]hen we talk about attitudes, we are talking about what a person has learnt in the process of becoming a member of a family, a member of a group, and of society that makes him react to his social world [...] (Sherif 1967: 2 quoted in Garrett *et al.* 2003: 4).

In this sense attitudes towards an attitude object are formed or changed whenever they are associated with an incident. Some subjects participating in my empirical study reported that they have been living in an English-speaking country for a longer period. They base their attitudes towards the English-speaking community on their previously made experiences. Nevertheless, people who have never been to the United States, to Australia or to Great Britain might still have attitudes towards English-speaking communities.

Attitudes may also be acquired through adopting other people's experiences and attitudes (Plot 2008: 13). Sometimes people develop attitudes toward an attitude object even though they have never been confronted with it. A pupil who has never visited Great Britain might still have attitudes toward it. Those attitudes can be the result of the experiences and attitudes that friends or family members have. Often this attitude remains stable until one encounters the attitude object itself. Some students having a negative attitude towards the British might change their attitude once they travel to the country and make friends with British teenagers. Baker (1992) refers to this concept of attitude formation as human modelling. This concept relates to imitating the attitudes of a role model. Role models might be parents, siblings as well as peers. Baker (1992) admits that the person who is speaking might be more important than the content itself. He makes reference to Triandis (1971) who claimed that attitudes only change under condition that the models are "perceived as having the appropriate status" (Baker 1992: 103). Whether or not a model is considered as appropriate depends on factors such as physical attractiveness, clothes, speech, expertise, age, race, or nationality (*ibid.*: 103).

Age is an especially important factor concerning language attitudes. Attitudes towards languages have the tendency to change with age (Baker 1992: 106). Findings in social psychology suggest that attitude change is a process influenced by social interaction and environmental experiences. During our life-span we re-evaluate attitudes. Baker (1992: 106) concludes that age-linked changes happen rather due to social than physiological changes.

Family members, peers and age are not the only factors that influence our attitudes. Especially with reference to language attitudes, schools play an important role. The

curriculum assigns prestige to certain languages by selecting them as compulsory subjects. The status of a language is even higher when it is chosen as the sole medium of instruction. It is thus not surprising that those decisions of official institutions have a strong impact upon attitude formation i.e. language planning is relevant for attitude formation. Attitudes can also be influenced through the manner of teaching. Favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards languages and its speakers can to a certain degree determine the attitudes of the students.

In addition, mass media have an influence on public attitudes. Television, radio and the internet influence language attitudes of teenagers. Researchers claim that the effects of mass media are overestimated (Baker 1992). While analysing my questionnaires, however, I got the impression that the majority of the subjects aged 15 to 17 spend a lot of time in front of the computer or the television and I can hardly believe that this exposure does not influence their language attitudes. More emphasis on the impact of English media will be presented in the discussion section of my empirical study (see chapter 7. discussion p. 100)

Finally, a correlation exists between attitudes and gender. Studies have revealed that the differences are not based on biological factors but rather on the socio-cultural behaviours of the two genders (Baker 1992: 42). Researchers (Jones, 1950, Sharp et al. 1973, Jones E. 1982) found that girls showed more favourable attitudes towards minority languages such as Welsh than boys. Baker (1992) assumes that young female adolescents might be more integrative in their attitudes than young males (Baker 1992: 42).

2.2 Language attitudes

Language attitudes refer to attitudes people hold towards language. They play an important role in second and foreign language learning, language policy and language planning. As a starting point, the concept of language attitudes will be explained. In addition it is important to stress why language attitudes need to be studied. We will also have a closer look at how language attitudes are established and what types of language attitudes can be distinguished. Finally the issue of measuring language attitudes will be addressed.

2.2.1 Defining language attitudes

Social psychologists started to investigate language attitudes in the 1950s. The increased interest in studying language attitudes in the early years needs to be seen in relation to the growing acceptance of the mentalist approach that regarded language production not as behaviour but as cognitive or mental activity. Since then a lot of research has been carried out on describing and understanding language attitudes. The complexity of language attitudes with their linked concepts of language and attitude and their correlation with society make it impossible to devise a definition that is theoretically comprehensible and also applicable in the real world context (Smith 1996: 31). Many researchers distinguish language attitudes from general attitudes “by the fact that they are precisely about language” (Faso 1984: 148). The problem with this rather simple and straightforward definition is that it does not account for the complex nature of language (Smith 1996: 31). A more promising classification is given by Ryan and Giles (1982), who define language attitudes as “any affective, cognitive or behavioural index of evaluative reactions towards different language varieties or their speakers” (Ryan et al. 1982 quoted in Soukis 2007: 144). In the context of second or foreign language learning, the learner has certain perceptions and beliefs about the target language that will influence his/her attitudes and consequently the learning process. Gardner (1985: 40) differentiates between attitudes towards learning the language and the language community itself (cf. chapter 3 motivation p. 24). Since languages are often taught in an educational institution, the teacher, the language course and the colleagues will be relevant factors that shape the learners’ attitudes towards the second language (L2) or foreign language (FL). Moreover the learners’ social surrounding, his/her parents and the general perception about the target language within the learners’ country will have an impact on his/her attitudes. In addition those perceptions towards a language will affect language policy and language planning. The study of language attitudes in the context of language learning is important as research has found a correlation between favourable language attitudes and the learners’ achievement in the second or foreign language.

2.2.2 Origin of language attitudes

Everyone has attitudes towards language. An official standardised language that is used as the sole medium of instruction will thus have a differently perceived value by its speakers than an informal minority language that is not granted any official status. People speaking

that minority language might probably have a more favourable attitude towards their mother tongue than towards the officially imposed language. Both examples emphasise the existence of language attitudes. The interesting questions, however, are why they exist and how they come into being. In the following section both questions will be answered.

Initially the question why language attitudes exist and why some languages are attached with more status, prestige and value than others needs to be addressed. Two possible reasons, internal to language might account for this phenomenon: linguistic or aesthetic inferiorities. Linguistic inferiority means that the language cannot fulfil all linguistic functions. This argument was weakened by the fact that languages have the capacity to perform all linguistic functions (Milroy 1991). Edward (1982: 21) asserts that the participants of studies did not explain differing languages in terms like “better” or “worse” and “correct” or “incorrect”. While this finding might be true for a particular sample, people in general tend to make exactly those judgements about a language.

The second entity that might account for a differing evaluation of languages is aesthetic inferiority meaning that one language sounds more pleasing than another. Edwards (1982: 21) argues that people do not tend to base aesthetic judgements on “inherent qualities of pleasantness or unpleasantness”.

After explaining why there are language attitudes, we will take a closer look on how they come into existence. Society is hereby a key element when it comes to the formation and rising of language attitudes. Language is closely related to its social groups and its function to identify one group and distinguish it from other groups (Smith 1996: 34). The interesting issue concerns the power relations between the in-group and the out-group. In general the in-group is regarded as more powerful and hence it is reasonable to assume that the language is attached with more power, value and prestige. Those factors could consequently lead to the standardisation of this powerful language. A possibility for members of the out-group intending to enhance their social standing is to adopt the language of the prestigious in-group. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the out-group might not give up their variety entirely but use the prestigious in-group language only in specific domains. This example nicely illustrates that languages are never perceived as neutral by the in-group and out-group speakers. They are a powerful means of defining one’s own identity, his or her feelings, values and ideas. When linguistic forms and varieties are used they automatically evoke ideas and beliefs about the speaker, his

speaking community, social roles and the status (Garrett et al. 2003: 4). Those ideas are then referred to as language attitudes (Smith 1996: 37).

Baker (1992: 41) emphasised other influential features with regard to language attitude construction. He extended Gardner's (1985) investigation of language attitudes which focussed primarily on language proficiency and use. Baker (1992: 41-47) looked at factors such as age, gender, ability and cultural background that influenced language attitudes. His research was concerned with the Welsh language context; however, those ingredients might also be applicable for other language settings. In the subsequent section each factor will be explained briefly.

Concerning age, Baker (1988) and other researchers (W.R. Jones 1950, Sharp et al. 1973, E.P. Jones 1982) found evidence that favourable attitudes toward the Welsh language deteriorated with age (Baker 1992). Those findings seem to be consistent also in other foreign language settings. In a more recent study (Heining-Boynton, Haitema 2007) researchers investigated students' attitudes toward early foreign language learning over a period of 10 years. The subjects attended a Foreign Language in Elementary Schools (FLES) programme in two school systems in North Carolina. They studied either French or Spanish. The obtained data revealed that the interest in FL declined as they advanced to higher grades (Heining-Boynton, Haitema 2007: 160). Interestingly enough, another study conducted with a smaller sample of students enrolled in a Japanese FLES programme indicated that the more years the students attended the programme the more positive attitudes the students held (Donato, et al. 2000). This study, however, seems to be atypical in relation to the numerous studies that revealed a downward trend concerning favourable attitudes towards FL and age.

The previously mentioned longitudinal study (Heining-Boynton, Haitema 2007) addressing attitudes toward FL learning indicated also a correlation between attitudes and gender. In general boys showed a more negative attitude towards FL at the beginning of their education than girls. While the negative attitudes of the boys towards FL remained rather stable or increased slightly, the initially positive attitudes of the girls towards FL declined throughout the investigated period. In addition girls had a favourable attitude with reference to continuing with their foreign language study in the next grade whereas boys' attitudes were more neutral. The study concluded that the declines were statistically

relevant but admitted that the changes were rather small (Heining-Boynton, Haitema 2007). This finding will also be present in my empirical study that sheds light on differing gender-related attitudes.

It is generally agreed that the ability in a language and the attitudes to that language are in some way correlated (Baker 1992, Gardner 1985). Gardner (1985) argued that the ability of language learning, a high proficiency level and achievement in the L2 will enhance favourable attitudes towards the target language. Another researcher brought forth a reversed order of influence in his longitudinal study of primary school students studying French (Burstall et al. 1974). This study suggests that achievement influences attitude and not the other way round. While those findings might not be consistent within other settings it is important to acknowledge the interrelatedness of attitude and achievement (Baker 1992: 44).

Lastly, the importance of cultural background and its influence on language attitudes will be highlighted. Baker (1992: 45) analysed in his study on attitudes towards Welsh that students participating actively in Welsh cultural activities maintained a more positive attitude toward the language than those students who did not. The same might be true for Austrian students learning English. If they are exposed to the target language outside the classroom in an enjoyable way such as watching English TV programmes or writing an email to an English-speaking pen friend they might also maintain their positive attitudes towards English. Travelling to and experiencing an English-speaking country can also lead to more favourable attitudes towards the target language.

2.2.3 Types of language attitudes

Initially a distinction needs to be made between types of language attitudes that correspond either to monolingual settings or bi-/multilingual settings. In the earlier days of language attitude research it was believed that in mono- or multilingual societies' languages had to be evaluated against each other. Findings, however, indicate that bi- or multilinguals who are proficient in several varieties do not necessarily consider one language as more favourable than another. Instead many speakers argue that the varieties are equally important and fulfil similar communicative functions (Baker 1992:79).

Throughout the history of language attitude research different concepts for categorising language attitudes have been established. In the subsequent section two possible ways of distinguishing types of language attitudes will be presented.

Schmied (1991: 164) proposed a tripartite framework for the classification of different types of language attitudes. According to him language attitude studies deal with one of the three, partly overlapping fields: attitudes towards certain languages, attitudes towards varieties of a language and attitudes towards sociolinguistic topics. The first category deals with uniform attitudes and stereotypes, whereas the second investigates norm and standard varieties in comparison to non-standard varieties. The third category is concerned with attitudes towards language uses. This entails the issue of exploring which language variety is used in which domain.

Another way of distinguishing different types of language attitudes was suggested by the social psychologists Gardner and Lambert (1972: 14). Those researchers were concerned with language attitudes and motivation. (see chapter 3 motivation). They identified two types of language attitudes: instrumentally-oriented language attitudes and integratively-oriented language attitudes. The first refers to the necessity for someone to learn a language in order to achieve some non-interpersonal purpose. This could include passing a language course or learning a language for a better job. Integratively-oriented language attitudes, on the other hand, relate to a learner's desire to acquire more knowledge about the cultural community of the target language and to identify with this group. Integratively-oriented language attitudes are related to higher achievement in foreign or second language learning than instrumentally-oriented language attitudes (Gardner 1985).

Language attitude research looks at many different attitudes. Within the studies three variables seem to be of special importance: the attitude holders, the referents and the types of attitudes. An attitude holder needs to be seen in relation to his group and in broader terms to the society he identifies with. The referents relate to the collective setting of the attitude holders. The types of attitudes are reflected and mediated by the holders towards the language-related referents being studied (Smit 1996: 40).

2.2.4 Methodologies in attitude research

Language attitude research is such a wide and multifaceted field that many different approaches for investigating language attitudes have been established. Since the 1950s

investigation has been carried out in psychology and applied linguistics to find out more about people's attitudes towards languages and language related changes. In fact research into language from a social perspective developed as a field from social psychology with the work of Lambert, Gardner and their associates (Gallois, Watson, Brabant 2007: 595). The core emphasis of the researchers was put on the experimental social psychology doctrine which focused primarily on social psychology and used linguistics only to gather additional information on the subject matter. It is thus not surprising that the research of language attitudes is closely linked to social-psychological methods (ibid: 595).

Ryan, Giles and Hewstone (in Garrett *et al* 2003:14) proposed three assessment techniques for measuring language attitudes: content analysis of societal treatment, direct measurement and indirect measurement. A more recent approach dealing with the study of language is discourse analysis (ibid: 14). In the following section each method will be explained briefly. More emphasis will be put on the direct measurement since this is the kind of measurement that I have used for my empirical study.

Content analysis of societal treatment looks at language varieties and how they are treated within a society. This method does not only investigate official language policies, but it also studies the use of the languages in various domains such as social groups, government, education and mass media. Data is obtained by autobiographical and observational case studies as well as ethnographic studies (Ryan, Giles, Sebastian 1982: 7). However, this measuring technique is often not favoured within the field of language attitude research since it is considered as being too informal and thus not very reliable (Garrett *et al.* 2003: 15-16).

Indirect measurement techniques emerged as a consequence of dissatisfaction with the existent methods and the desire to develop alternatives. In the 1960s Lambert and his associates developed the Matched Guise Technique (MGT) (Gallois, Watson, Brabant 2007: 599). For this procedure a speaker with native-like proficiency in all languages and varieties under investigation is selected and his reading of a neutral text in various guises is recorded. The participants listen to the readings and they evaluate the speakers according to personality traits on attitude-rating scales. They are not aware of the fact that they had listened to only one speaker who is capable of speaking with native-like ability in various languages or varieties. Attitude studies using the matched guise technique usually employ

bi-polar scales like the semantic differential. In general those scales comprise a seven point adjective scale ranging from positively worded items to negatively worded items.

In this intercultural context Lambert (1967) concluded that the initial judgements of the participants were based on ethnicity and culture, mediated through language (ibid: 599). This method has been used extensively in various contexts and it is a good instrument for predicting personality judgments based on language and accent within the given context.

Regardless of its worldwide success, the MGT has been criticised especially from linguistics. One issue that has been raised is the unnatural and artificial setting of this measuring technique (Smit 1996: 47). Furthermore it was stated that speakers change language features when it comes to their identity. The stereotypes held by the speaker towards languages and language varieties will thus have an impact on his or her accent and style (Gallois, Watson, Brabant 2007: 599). Moreover researchers applying the matched guise technique hardly ever considered other characteristics than language and ethnicity. Aspects such as sex and occupational role have been disregarded for a long time. Pressing problems and surprising outcomes of studies focussing on language attitudes have promoted a return to more direct measurement techniques (ibid: 600).

An alternative method, discourse analysis, is used for studies focussing on inter-group conversational behaviour. The rationale behind this approach is that speakers and listeners negotiate their attitudes while they are interacting with each other. In general the functionality of language is stressed and it is believed that perceived beliefs and attitudes are influenced through discourse and not the other way round (Gallois, Watson, Brabant 2007: 603).

Direct measures of attitudes elicit information on language attitudes rather straightforwardly by asking participants questions in either written or oral form. This method is widely applied among researchers in language and social psychology. A questionnaire can be very efficient concerning the researcher's time and effort. It is possible to distribute the questionnaires to large groups of people and to get a great amount of information in a relatively short period of time. In addition sophisticated computer programmes can be used to analyse the obtained data. In general those questionnaires ask participants to make inter-group comparisons about language and communication (Gallois,

Watson, Brabant 2007: 600). Traditional questionnaires use a closed-ended question format. Often the multi-item scale invented by Rensis Likert (1932) is applied. Those scales include a variety of statements that relate to a particular target. Respondents have to mark to what extent the statements characterise them (Dörnyei 2003). The original Likert scale comprises five response options ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. With the help of those scales researchers study the perception of the respondents towards their own language and other languages, styles and dialects (ibid: 600). This measurement technique sheds light on the prestige that is assigned to certain language varieties by their speakers. Apart from the semantic differential many questionnaires employ multiple choice formats, where the respondents have to tick the most suitable answer. In more recent studies open-ended questions are included to offer the participants the opportunity to state their opinion more freely. Furthermore, with the help of open-ended questions researchers obtain more accurate and comprehensive responses. People might answer differently in open-ended questions since more emphasis is put on their own perception than in formats exhibiting only ready-made patterns to choose from. Similar to open-ended questions are interviews. This means of investigation is beneficial as it establishes direct contact between the researcher and the interviewee. The risk of misunderstandings is limited since the participants and the researchers can clarify the questions and responses immediately.

In a way this measuring method is a valuable indicator of respondents' expressed attitudes. The drawback of this approach, however, is that those stated attitudes do not necessarily predict actual behaviour (cf. chapter 2 attitudes and behaviour p. 8). This inconsistency will be explained by giving an example. In a study French Canadians were asked if they would use English if they were addressed by an English-speaking stranger (Bourhis 1983). The majority of the people asked denied that they would accommodate to English. In everyday encounters, however, those people switched unhesitatingly to English when confronted with an English-speaking person. A possible explanation for this behaviour refers to the fact that the respondents wanted to be polite and therefore acted contradictorily to their expressed attitudes. Direct measurement has also been criticised for its social-desirability predisposition (Gallois, Watson, Brabant 2007: 599). Respondents have a tendency to make rankings not according to their inner conviction but base their answers on the expectations of the researcher. In other words they want to please the experimenter with their responses and intend to present themselves most favourably. Moreover, the design of the questionnaire is a crucial issue since researchers may

manipulate the respondents by the wording of the question items. The presence of the researcher during an interview might also influence the participants' responses. Gallois, Watson and Brabant (2007: 601) summarised that “[o]verall, direct measures are a good way to discover how people believe they would behave, but not how they behave in real interactions.”

So far we have defined important terms concerning language attitudes and stated why there is a need to study them. Furthermore the benefits and disadvantages of the three measurement techniques have been highlighted. In the context of foreign and second language learning favourable attitudes are not the only essential component that will lead to higher language achievement. Gardner (2001: 12) asserts that language achievement and persistence in the language study are strongly connected to motivation in language learning. First the basic concept of motivation and motivation research will be presented. Then some motivational theories will be explored in greater detail. This selection of models is by no means complete and does not account for the great amount of existing theories. It is rather an overview of different approaches to the concept of motivation that are important for the present study.

3. Motivation

1.3 What is motivation?

The essential question, why humans act in a certain way and do particular things, has ever so often interested psychologists, philosophers, educators, parents and students alike. In the field of psychology two sets of explanations for behaviour were established. Motivation can be based on basic biological needs or drives that are linked to survival and reproduction and extrinsic rewards or punishment (Sasone & Harackiewicz 2000: 1). Human *needs* refer to anything that is regarded necessary but lacking whereas *drives* rather relate to a planned effort to achieve a goal.¹ Both types of explanation have in common that the behaviour is motivated by the necessity or desire to accomplish particular aims. In other words motivation is always goal-directed (Gardner & Masgoret 2001:173, Heckhausen 1991). Motivation is in its nature very complex and entails multiple factors. As a working definition Heckhausen's (1991) formulation of motivation is seen as most promising. He claims that motivation is

¹ Cambridge Online Dictionary, Cambridge University Press
<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/define.asp?key=23944&dict=CALD> (25 May 2009)

a global concept for a variety of processes and effects whose common core is the realization that an organism selects a particular behaviour because of expected consequences, and then implements it with some measure of energy, along a particular path (Heckhausen 1991: 9).

Motivation research investigates those particular behaviours and attempts to find patterns that explain why humans behave in the manner they do. In a very broad sense motivation is the underlying force in three areas: the initial selection of the action, “persistence with it and the effort expended on it” (Dörnyei & Skehan 2003: 614). In other words motivation would be responsible for the decision of a student to begin studying a foreign language, it would influence the length of the period of study and it would also have an impact upon the learner’s level of achievement. Many factors influence people’s motivation and it is therefore not very likely that one theory or model can account for all possible motivational variables, especially so because models of motivation are simplifications that focus only on a few components that influence people’s acting (Dörnyei 2003: 1). Those components are said to trigger other motivational parts which explain the differing behaviour of people encountering same or similar situations (Dörnyei & Skehan 2003: 614-15). Motivational theories differ in that way as they have different foci and they include different factors in order to explain motivation.

3.2 Motivation to learn a Second or Foreign language

Research in the field of motivation to learn a L2 or FL has been conducted for the last forty years. “Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second/foreign language learning” (Dörnyei 1998:117). In addition it is ascribed to being even more influential than language aptitude. Since motivation and achievement in the L2 are so closely linked, a learner needs to be motivated in order to start learning a second or foreign language. Roles and functions of the target language will also influence the motivation towards it. The following questions might be important for future language learners: Is the studied language a world language? Is it the official second language of the country? Is it an extinct language like Latin? Is it only a compulsory school subject which students have to pass in order to get their exam? Those few questions offer a glimpse on the wide scope of the roles and functions a language fulfils. Motivational research looks at those questions from a scientific point of view. In addition researchers in the field of L2 motivation seek to find out if motivation is directly linked to achievement. Many studies have addressed this

question with different measures of motivation. Before we will explore those studies and their underlying theoretical concepts we will first look at the unique situation of language learning.

Many scholars (Gardner & Lambert 1972, Dörnyei 2001a, Dörnyei 2003a) argue that learning a L2/FL is different from learning any other subject such as mathematics or science. Learning a language does not only mean studying grammatical rules and lexical items but it requires an engagement with the L2 culture. Therefore foreign language learning is influenced by many socio-cultural factors such as language attitudes and cultural stereotypes (Dörnyei 2005: 67). Concerning the special status of foreign language learning Marion Williams (1994: 77) states that:

There is no question that learning a foreign language is different to learning other subjects. This is mainly because of the social nature of such a venture. Language, after all, belongs to a person's whole social being: it is part of one's identity, and is used to convey this identity to other people. The learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills [...] it involves an alteration in self-image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner.

The finding that second language learning is a “deeply social event” (Dörnyei 2003a: 4) that cannot be compared to other school subjects is a vital one. This might also account for the fact that it is very difficult to devise a comprehensive L2 motivation theory that includes all relevant variables.

Within this complex research field it is common to differentiate three periods of L2 motivation investigation: the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period and the process oriented period (Dörnyei 2005: 66). The following section is dedicated to present a few relevant L2 motivation theories. Gardner's socio-educational model will be my starting point.

3.3 The socio-psychological period: The socio-educational model and “Integrativeness”

The work of the Canadian psychologist Robert C. Gardner and his colleagues has had a deep impact on further research of L2 motivation. It is no coincidence that the initial studies on L2 motivation were conducted in Montreal, Canada. This country proved to be unique in a sense that its population was comprised of anglophone and francophone communities speaking the world's leading languages, at least at the period of investigation.

The initial research of the Canadian psychologists was concerned with understanding the Canadian social situation where two languages coexisted (Dörnyei 2005: 67). They concluded that both languages were used as the mediating agent between the different ethno-linguistic communities in multicultural settings (Dörnyei 2003a: 4, 5). However, results also shed light on the fact that the language attitudes towards the L2s differed considerably. Favourable attitudes towards the other language influenced the learning process positively and promoted intercultural contact. In addition the level of motivation and willingness to learn the language of the other community were responsible for improving or decreasing the possibility for mutual communication (ibid: 5). Inspired by those findings, Gardner and Lambert developed a social psychological approach which stressed that “students’ attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language” (Gardner 1985: 6). Many subsequent studies found that attitudinal factors and motivational factors play an important role with regard to achievement in the L2.

The Socio-Educational Model seeks to explain motivation. A possibility to simplify this complex psychological theoretical construct is by dividing it into three levels. The first level is described as integrative orientation. Within this model orientation refers to a set of reasons responsible for studying a language (Gardner, Tremblay 1994). Integrative orientation characterises the learner’s desire to integrate with the target language community. Oxford (1996: 2) argues that other orientations might also be plausible; however they have not been addressed.

The second level features integrativeness and attitudes towards the L2 learning situation. Integrativeness is comprised of integrative orientation, general foreign language interest and attitudes towards the target community. Attitudes towards the learning situation are especially important since most L2s and FLs are taught in a classroom context.

Overall the model stresses the relationship between integrativeness and the attitudes towards the learning situation. Those correlated variables strengthen the learners’ motivation to learn a second language. This model suggests that integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation are linked to achievement in the L2, “but their effect is indirect, acting through motivation” (Gardner & Masgoret 2003: 170).

The third level contains three components: effort or motivational intensity, the desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language (Oxford 1996: 2). Those features taken together identify a motivated learner. In other words someone will be considered a motivated learner if he or she wants to learn the language, regards learning as a joyful experience, and tries very hard to acquire the language (Liuoliené & Metiuniené 2006: 93). These prerequisites can be found in Gardner's definition of L2 motivation. He states that motivation is "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner 1985: 10).

To sum it up, the Socio-Educational Model emphasises integrative motivation at all three levels. The integrative aspect proved to be fundamental regarding language achievement at least in particular contexts. Nevertheless the term 'integrativeness' remains problematic since it cannot be found in any other area of mainstream motivational psychology and hence is difficult to define. Even Gardner admits that "the term is used frequently in the literature, though close inspection will reveal that it has slightly different meanings to many different individuals" (Gardner 2001: 1). Yet the "integrative" aspect is present in many empirical studies and provides information on the differences in the L2 motivation of the learner and his or her motivated language behaviour (Dörnyei 2003a: 5).

So what does integrativeness in this context actually involve? First of all this concept relates to an openness to identify at least to a certain degree with the L2 or foreign language community (Gardner & Masgoret 2003: 172). An integratively motivated learner would want to interact with the target community and would respect this cultural group. In extreme cases the learner would identify completely with the target community and would no longer see himself as a member of his original cultural group (Dörnyei 2003a: 5). In other words a speaker would give up his original identity and would assimilate completely into the L2 community. This development might be possible in a bilingual context where speakers are constantly faced with the other language; in a European context, however, the FL learners' possibility to communicate with the L2 target group is limited. Therefore Dörnyei (1991) expanded this notion and stresses that learners who are merely confronted with the L2 or foreign language within the classroom context will rather identify with the cultural and intellectual values that are attached to the target language than with the actual target language community itself (Dörnyei 2003a: 6).

By looking at the work of Dörnyei and other L2 researchers it becomes quite obvious that Gardner's original model has been expanded and interpreted differently. While researchers claim that his theory is important they also stress that it focuses clearly on the social factors of L2 motivation and not so much on the influence of motivation in a language classroom (Liuoliené & Metiuniené 2006: 94). This finding and the fact that second or foreign languages are almost always learned in a school setting emphasised the necessity to develop alternative theories that explained L2/FL motivation. In the following section I will have a closer look at four prominent cognitive approaches: *self-determination theory*, *attribution theory*, *goal theory* and *the Process Model of L2 motivation*.

3.4. The cognitive period: intrinsic vs. instrumental motivation

This theory was inspired by Gardner and Lambert's (1959, 1972) work on L2 motivation and Gardner's socio-educational model. Both researchers claimed that an understanding of the learners' motivation can only be established if we understand the learners' aim or purpose for learning a language (Liuoliené & Metiuniené 2006: 94). They created two categories that accounted for the different orientations for learning a language: integrative and instrumental. Integrative orientation is used as a synonym for integrativeness as explained in the previous section. Instrumental orientation, on the other hand is based on the necessity to learn the L2 in order to pass a course or achieve occupational success. Gardner and Lambert (1972) assumed that a learner embodying integrative orientation will be more motivated to learn the L2 and thus achieve a higher proficiency level.

Gardner and Lambert's assumption encouraged many researchers to investigate this subject matter (Au 1988, Gardner 1985). However, this model did not always prove to be consistent. In some studies the instrumental orientation could even provide more valuable results than the integrative orientation (Chihara & Oller 1978, Oller, Hudson, & Lui 1977). Clément and Kruidenier (1983) criticised the model since it did not consider the influence of the social milieu (Noels *et al.* 2000: 37). They believed that this lack caused inconsistent results across the studies conducted. In order to gather more information on the underlying sources of L2 motivation they investigated the orientation of French and English high school students and found out that integrative orientation could only be measured in the context of multicultural groups (*ibid.*: 37). Nevertheless they identified four orientations that were present in all groups of learners studied: travel, friendship, knowledge and

instrumental orientations (*ibid*: 37). To a certain degree it could be argued, however, that travel and friendship form part of Gardner's integrative orientation.

Clément and Krudinier (1983) found students' motivation was maintained because of the four proposed orientations and that integrative motivation did not play a very important role (Noels *et al.* 2000: 37). Their finding contradicts Gardner and Lambert's (1972) conclusion that contact and identification with the L2 community are fundamental when it comes to the L2 acquisition process. While Clément and Krudinier's (1983) finding is interesting they have never investigated which psychological factor is responsible for the importance of the four orientations in L2 motivation.

Presumably this incompleteness of the model encouraged researchers to question the existing concepts of language learning motivation and to search for alternative motivational theories. This is not to say that the integrative-instrumental distinction has lost its validity, but rather it is accompanied by other models (Oxford 1996: 2). One alternative approach that has gained acceptance among many scholars is the differentiation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In the following section the self-determination theory that focuses on those different types of motivation will be explored in greater detail.

3.5 The self-determination theory (SDT)

This theory regards motivation as a twofold concept differentiating between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation (Gagné & Deci 2005: 333). Autonomy hereby includes feelings of independence and the possibility of choice. In this sense intrinsic motivation can be seen as autonomous motivation. It arises when an activity fulfils human needs for competence and control, and humans are interested and enjoy carrying it out (Sasone & Harackiewicz 2000: 444). In the school context learners would simply engage in an activity because it is fun and enjoyment. Deci (1975: 23) defines that

intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake not because they lead to an extrinsic reward [...] Intrinsically motivated behaviours are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination.

Extrinsic motivation on the other hand refers to something that is extrinsic to the activity or to the person (Sasone & Harackiewicz 2000: 445). In other words learners would have to accomplish a task and would have to cope with a feeling of pressure imposed on them. In

connection to extrinsic motivation rewards play a crucial role. A positive mark on an exam or project could be seen as such a reward.

Extrinsic motivation has often been regarded as one factor that can reduce intrinsic motivation. Many studies have found that students' intrinsic motivation to engage in an activity decreases if they are forced to accomplish it in order to fulfil extrinsic requirements (Dörnyei 2001b: 28). On the other hand, several subsequent studies have revealed that a negative correlation of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation could not be found. Those findings have convinced Deci and Ryan (1985) that the dominant distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation might not account for all relevant features enhancing or diminishing motivation. Therefore, they have proposed a more complex concept that was referred to as self-determination theory (ibid: 28). This theory suggests that behaviours can be described with regard to their degree of autonomy and control. In order to explain this construct a continuum was established that ranges from an intrinsically motivated to three different extrinsically motivated regulatory processes. Before we investigate this continuum further it is important to point out that autonomous motivation as well as controlled motivation is intentional (Gagné & Deci 2005: 334). Those two are contrasted with amotivation that does not include an intention or motivation (ibid: 334).

Deci and Ryan (1985) regarded intrinsic motivation as uni-dimensional concept whereas Vallerand and his colleagues (1997) expanded this construct and created three subcategories to intrinsic motivation (IM). The IM subtypes will be explained in the subsequent section. First of all, they propose IM-Knowledge which means that learners carry out an activity because they experience pleasure and satisfaction while they gain understanding of new content (Dörnyei 2001b: 28). They can explore further ideas, satisfy their curiosity and extend their own knowledge. This challenging process should increase the learner's competence in the target language. Secondly they suggest IM-Accomplishment that is concerned with the positive feelings that are attached to the mastery of an activity. Learners are faced with challenges while they accomplish the task in order to achieve an aim (ibid: 28). Thirdly they promote IM-Stimulation which relates to the motivation that is based on positive excitement stimulated by completing an activity (Noels *et al.* 2003: 38).

Extrinsic motivation (EM) is associated with receiving a reward or avoiding punishment. This is not to say that extrinsic motivation can be equated to a lack of self-determination on

the learner's behaviour. Within the educational system three levels of EM have been classified (Vallerand 1997): external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation. The theory postulates that intrinsically motivated behaviour has to be seen as typically autonomous. Nevertheless extrinsically motivated behaviour can also exhibit a certain degree of autonomy. This is not the case with external regulation that indicates the lowest level of self-determination (Noels, et al. 2003: 39). In this instance people could follow two aims; one is to accomplish the task and receive the desired reward or to avoid an undesired consequence. In the classroom context this would mean that the student would drop learning the language unless there is an instrumental reason for studying it. External regulation is commonly used to differentiate between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Dagné & Deci 2005: 334). The introjected regulation is connected to the self-concept of the learner. It relates to the reason to carry out a task because of some type of pressure. Even though the source of pressure is internal it can not be regarded as self-determined. The learners accomplish the task due to pressure and not because they have decided to do so based on personal choice (Noels *et al.* 2003: 39). For instance, a student acts according to the established rules at school in order not avoid punishment or the feeling of guilt (Dörnyei 2001b: 28). The identified regulation is the most self-determined form upon the categories of extrinsic motivation mentioned above. This would mean that learners have decided to invest time and effort in an activity in order to achieve personal aims (Noels *et al.* 2003: 39). In theory all subtypes of IM and EM were seen in contrast to amotivation (Deci & Ryan 1985). Amotivation asserts that the learner does not connect the activity to the outcome. Hence in the classroom context the learner would not be intrinsically or extrinsically motivated and thus would give up carrying out the task.

Numerous scholars believe that the investigation of learner's extrinsic and intrinsic motivation can provide them with information about the future achievement in the L2. This model is unique in a sense that it includes psychological factors such as self-determination and competence which might clarify and forecast how motivation is linked to language learning achievement (Noels, et al. 2003: 41). Nevertheless it is still not clear in how far self-determination theory relates to the four orientations illustrated by Clément and Krudénier (1983). The instrumental orientation and the externally regulated motivation are similar since they both refer to an activity that the learner fulfils due to an entity that is external to the person and the task itself (*ibid.*: 41). The connection between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the other three orientations proposed by Clément and Krudénier

(1983) are not so evident. Travel, knowledge and friendship can be regarded as both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated. Noels *et al.* (2003) proposed that they are extrinsic since they relate to aims that are extrinsic to the process of language learning itself. (ibid: 41). On the other hand those three orientations are connected with intrinsic motivation since they increase the positive emotions caused by autonomy, self-perception and competence (ibid: 41). On the whole it remains a difficult endeavour to merge Clément and Krudénier's (1983) theoretical approach with the concept of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation into one comprehensive L2 motivation model.

3.6 Attribution theory

Weiner's (1985, 1992) attribution theory is based on the core concept of previous attribution theories arguing that people hold a strong desire to make sense of their worlds (Molden & Dweck 2000: 132). This theory includes the important question that people ask themselves why an activity was successful or a failure. Weiner (1980) argues that people will assign different meanings or attributions to outcomes and hence the reactions to the outcome will be emotionally and behaviourally influenced (Molden & Dweck 2000: 132). What is unique to this theory is that it correlates people's previous experiences with the forthcoming attainment efforts (Dörnyei 2003a: 8). The mediating agents hereby are the so called causal attributions (ibid: 8). According to this theory "the subjective reasons to which we attribute our past successes and failures considerably shape our motivational disposition." (Dörnyei 2003a: 8, 9). In practice students will probably not resume an activity if they have failed in the past and believe that they have not got the ability to accomplish the task. On the other hand if a task fails and the learners assume that the lack of success was due to inadequate learning strategies or not enough effort they will presumably attempt it again (Dörnyei 2003a: 9).

Attributional processes are said to play an important motivational role within foreign language learning. Negative attributions might be linked to the high frequency of language learning failure (Dörnyei 2005: 79). Many studies (Ushioda 1998, 2001, Williams & Burden 1999, Burden & Al-Bharna 2001) have revealed that positive attributions can enhance students' motivation.

However, the theory does not address the question why people seek success. An explanation to this question was attempted by introducing goals to the field of achievement motivation.

3.7 Goal theories

The initial research on motivation emphasised the importance of human needs. Maslow (1970) defined a hierarchical order which included five needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation. While this differentiation is vital, more recently established research has argued that the concept of need might be too broad as it contains five entities. Therefore scholars have increasingly used the term *goal* instead of *need* since it is regarded as “the engine to fire the action and provide direction in which to act” (Dörnyei 2001b: 25). This explains why goal theories consider goals and their related issues as the driving force of motivational processes. In general two different goal theories have been acknowledged: the goal-setting theory and the goal-orientation theory.

3.7.1 Goal-setting theory

Goal-setting theory claims that humans always act according to a specific purpose. It is therefore essential to set goals prior to carrying out the action. Locke and Latham (1990) have defined three areas where goals might vary, they are: specificity, difficulty and goal commitment (Dörnyei 2001b: 25). It is not a differentiation in absolute terms but rather in a matter of degree. Goal-setting theory asserts that people’s commitment increases if they are convinced that the goal can be achieved and that the action has importance for their personal aims. Locke (1996 quoted in Dörnyei 2001b: 26) divides the most important findings from previously conducted research into five statements:

1. The more difficult the goal, the greater the achievement.
2. The more specific the goal, the more accurately performance is controlled.
3. Goals that are considered specific and difficult result in the highest performance.
4. Commitment to goals depends highly on the specificity and difficulty of the goal.
5. High commitment to goals is maintained when the individual considers them as important and attainable.

3.7.2 Goal-orientation theory

The intention of this theory is to describe children’s learning and performance in educational settings such as schools (Dörnyei 2001b: 27). The theory has gained a lot of appreciation and researchers stress that “currently, it is probably the most active area of

research on student motivation in classrooms and it has direct implications for students and teachers” (Pintrich & Schunk 2002: 242).

Goal-orientation theory differentiates between two sets of goals: the *performance goal* and the *learning goal*. The first involves the demonstration and validation of ability, the latter refers to acquiring ability (Molden, Dweck 2000: 133). When people fail to demonstrate their level of ability it is likely that this experience is face-threatening and they feel helplessly lost. On the other hand if people are in the process of learning something they regard setbacks as natural occurrences as they go along. They embody a ‘mastery-oriented’ response to failure (ibid: 133). Those two examples nicely illustrate the dichotomy of performance goals. In the first example they are considered as being counter-productive to the learners’ development but in the latter case they are seen as being beneficial since they enhance the learners’ progress. Many researchers stress the relevance of performance goals relating to real life contexts. Learners are not only confronted with exam situations in the classroom where they have to demonstrate their ability, they might encounter similar settings in sport or in their future career. Thus it is essential to figure out when performance goals are valuable and when they are frustrating.

Before we explore this issue I will briefly explain aspects of Atkinson’s (1957) achievement motivation theory as they are vital for the investigation of the different performance goals. Atkinson (1957, 1974) is regarded as a precursor of goal theory, in that he defined two features underlying achievement motivation, namely an *approach-oriented need to achieve* and an *avoidance-oriented fear of failure* (Molden & Dweck 2000: 132). In the previously established goal theories it is believed that the approach-oriented and the avoidance-oriented performance goals appear together and are thus not treated as separate entities. In other words this would mean that a person seeks to demonstrate their abilities while avoiding showing incompetence at the same time (Molden & Dweck 2000: 135). Analyzing both types of performance goals can provide information on when they are useful or detrimental. Performance goals can even enhance intrinsic motivation for individuals under specific conditions (Epstein & Harackiewicz 1992). When performance goals do not include avoidance and focus only on the desire to demonstrate competence, we can assume that intrinsic motivation is increased (Molden & Dweck 2000: 136). As a concluding remark on goal theories and performance goals in particular I would like to return to the question of when these goals are beneficial and when they fail to increase intrinsic motivation. If a learner considers an achievement situation as a means to measure

the intelligence he or she possesses, performance goals might become disadvantageous. Performance goals are positive when the learners regard them as an evaluation of their present level of a particular ability. In this situation the learners are not occupied with self-worth concerns and hence the performance goals can enhance their concentration and effort in achievement situations. Moreover, performance goals have the capacity to develop an even stronger desire to learn (ibid: 154-155).

3.8 The process-oriented period: Process Model of L2 Motivation

This approach connects motivation to the individual learner behaviour and the classroom processes. The core component of this notion is a process-oriented paradigm that accounts for the dynamic character and current changes of motivation (Dörnyei 2005: 83). For this reason, motivation is not seen as a stable entity but as a dynamic factor that increases and decreases throughout the learning process. This finding is especially important as foreign language learning is a long and complex process. The Process Model of L2 Motivation was inspired by Heckhausen and Kuhl's (1985) 'Theory of Action Control'. Furthermore it integrates various factors from other influential models on L2 motivation. It is created along two axes: *Action Sequence* and *Motivational Influences* (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998: 47). Action Sequence refers to the behavioural process that entails wishes, hopes, desires and opportunities. The model asserts that those emotions are transformed into goals and further into intentions. Then it is probable to assume that those intentions initiate action that is carried out until the desired goal has been achieved. Motivational Influences comprise all relevant motivational sources that underlie and nourish the behavioural process (ibid: 47). The whole action sequence process is made up of three parts: pre-actional stage, actional stage and post-actional stage. In the first stage the learners' motivation is generated and initiated, whereas the actional stage includes the executive motivation where a student monitors his or her progress and controls the action. Special emphasis is put on students' self-regulation, a prominent notion within the field of L2 motivational research leading to more learner autonomy. As for the last stage, it entails the motivational retrospection where students are required to conduct self-evaluation and self-reflection (Dörnyei 2003a: 19).

3.9 Language anxiety

Current language pedagogy stresses the significance of communication. One of the learners' ultimate aims is to be able to converse successfully with other people in the FL. When speaking in a foreign language learners are more concerned with being understood by others and they feel more anxious about making mistakes. This uneasiness that is directly related to the process of language learning is called language anxiety. Various researchers (Horwitz & Cope 1986, MacIntyre 1995, Young 1992) have found that anxiety can inhibit foreign language production and achievement (von Wörde 2003). Language anxiety is a common phenomenon within the field of L2/FL learning. It causes difficulties "because it can interfere with the acquisition, retention and production of the new language" (MacIntyre & Gardner 1991: 86). Horwitz and Cope (1986: 128) were among the first to investigate language anxiety, they defined the concept as "a distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process."

Horowitz et al (1986) included three performance related anxieties within the framework of language anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation (Wang 2005: 2). Communication apprehension refers to a feeling of shyness and anxiety that a learner experiences when he or she has to communicate with other people. Anxiety increases in a potential communicative situation and the learner is occupied with self-focused attention and distracting thoughts that will consequently have an impact on the quality of the communication (MacIntyre et al 2002: 539). Within the language classroom students are required to take in new input as they go along as well as immediately perform the newly acquired knowledge (Wang 2005: 17). It is thus not surprising that language anxiety appears most often in speaking activities.

Test anxiety manifests itself when learners are afraid of failing an exam. Similar to the notion of attribution theory asserting that past failures shape students future motivation they also increase language anxiety. In an exam situation test-anxious students develop negative thoughts which distract them from mastering the task. Consequently those students perform poorly in the language classroom.

Learners' fear of negative evaluation is not only present within an exam situation but can arise in many social or evaluative contexts (ibid: 19). Characteristically students would limit the possibility of receiving negative evaluation by remaining silent and not participating in classroom activities. This behaviour is especially problematic as it reduces students' opportunities to improve their language skills (Aida 1994: 157).

Overall language anxiety might affect course grades, oral performance, writing and reading skills in the foreign language and the entire language learning process. In extreme cases anxiety might be so severe that the learner avoids communicating in the FL altogether. Apart from language anxiety learners might have a limited willingness to communicate in the foreign language for other reasons. Researchers (Phillips 1984, Baker & MacIntyre 2000) claim that learners' perceived communication competence plays a crucial role with reference to using the target language. It is assumed that students who lack communicative skills will avoid communicating rather than those who apply certain communicative strategies (Phillips 1984). Baker and MacIntyre (2000) state that it is not so much the lack of communicative skills than students' own perception of their competence that reduces their willingness to communicate. The two researchers McCroskey and Richmond (1991: 27) brought it to the point:

Since the choice of whether to communicate is a cognitive one, it is likely to be more influenced by one's perceptions of competence (of which one is usually aware) than one's actual competence (of which one may be totally unaware).

Studies (MacIntyre, Noels & Clement 1997, McCroskey & Richmond 1990) revealed that students' perceived competence and language anxiety tend to be negatively correlated. Learners showing a high level of language anxiety considered their communication competence to be lower even though neutral observers rated them more positively (MacIntyre et al 2002: 540). Several students who participated in my empirical study also estimate their own communication competence to be inferior to that of their colleagues.

3.10 Concluding remarks

After presenting various motivational theories and aspects of language anxiety it is time to combine certain important features that were highlighted by the models and explain their relevance for the empirical study.

Gardner's socio-educational model was among the first theoretical constructs that defined motivation. His work was very influential and many subsequent theories built on the basis of this model. Its core message that the learner's attitudes towards the target language will have an impact upon his or her responses to it (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998: 45) is still valid. Apart from illustrating it for reasons of completeness with regard to the history of L2 motivational research, the theory is also the foundation of the Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) that has been employed in my empirical study. Therefore the theory functions as a framework for this overview of motivation research. By

explaining the theory, the components addressing integrativeness, instrumental orientation and attitudes towards the L2 learning situation were clarified. This is an important prerequisite to understand the test battery applied in the study.

The self-determination theory with its distinction of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is important since it integrates self-initiating and self-regulating processes. The theory asserts that both processes are intrinsically rewarding for the learner and that the motivated action is promoted by learner autonomy (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998: 44). In a school setting where most of the decisions and goals are not initiated by the learners but instead imposed on them by the system it is probable that intrinsically motivated behaviour decreases. Therefore it is essential to involve students actively in the decision-making process concerning the task fulfilment and to offer them control over their learning processes. More learner autonomy thus increases intrinsic motivation which is a prerequisite of L2 achievement.

Attribution theory suggests that the manner in which learners process their past achievement experiences will have an impact upon their future learning processes. If a student's previous learning experience is equated with failure the desire and the motivation to learn the target language will diminish. Therefore it is important to create challenging but still manageable tasks for those students in order to boost their self-esteem. A student in my survey expressed that he has already given up and is no longer interested in mastering English. As a teacher it is our responsibility to encourage and motivate those students and to find out why previous learning experiences have been disadvantageous. Only then will it be possible to devise appropriate learning strategies.

Goal theories offer explanations for the sources of motivations and how they are influenced. Those theories claim that human action is initiated by having a purpose. In addition goals have to be set before engaging with the task. Attainable goals boost motivation. Therefore it is essential that teachers select teaching materials which are relevant and appropriate for the learners. Since human beings strive towards goals in various different domains it seems reasonable to include them in the classroom context.

The final theoretical framework, the Process Model of L2 motivation accounts for the temporal motivational changes throughout the learning process. The model attempts to explain the major stages of action initiation and enactment. In addition it emphasizes various forces that can positively influence and thus improve the effort exerted on the

process. This comprehensive framework offers a basis for developing motivational strategies that can be applied in the classroom (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998: 65). In this sense it is one of the first models that merges theory and practice in an all-embracing manner including mental processes as well as motivational conditions (ibid: 65).

The previously presented motivation theories have primarily focused on the acquisition and the learning of a new language. However, they have not dealt with the actual use of the target language within communicative situations. Gardner and Lambert (1972) stressed that the willingness to communicate in the L2/FL influences the learning process positively and consequently results in higher language achievement. In contrast language anxiety affects the learners' willingness to exchange information in the target language negatively. Anxious learners fear communicative situations and in severe cases they avoid communication in the FL/L2 totally. Consequently language anxiety distracts and disrupts the learners from their learning process. This finding is especially problematic within the language classroom. Therefore teachers need to be aware of foreign language anxiety and they have to develop positive motivational strategies, a supportive environment and appropriate teaching methods including non-threatening error correction in order to alleviate anxiety.

4. Functions of English within a European context

Learning English as a foreign language differs from learning another European or Asian language as it plays a very important role for Europeans, especially teenagers. It is in fact the language of the youth. European adolescents have a lot of contact with English in their free-time. They listen to British or American pop songs on the radio, watch English TV series, and play computer games or surf on the internet. Apart from media-related activities teenagers use English with friends and family and for maintaining intercultural contact with people they have met on holidays. The following section will highlight the communicative functions of English for Europeans.

So far it has been stressed that favourable attitudes and motivation be it integrative and/or instrumental, are prerequisites for studying a foreign language successfully. At the verge of globalisation, however, students might be more motivated to study English because of its communicative function. Especially within the European Union (EU) English has gained a dominant status. Graddol (2001: 55) argues that within the EU English is spoken as an official language in three member states, it is the unofficial European lingua franca and

additionally it represents the global lingua franca. Before we explore the functions of English in Europe in more detail we have to define the term ‘English as Lingua Franca’ (ELF) and explain whether ‘English as an International Language’ (EIL) refers to the same concept.

Defining the construct ELF is not an easy endeavour as the term has been used interchangeably to refer to two different concepts. First of all it describes the sociolinguistic function of English, meaning that people with varied mother tongues use it for interpersonal communication. At the same time ‘lingua franca’ is used to refer to the “system of the forms that are peculiar to a specific variety of a language” (Berns 2009: 192). The latter concept includes the analysis of the formal features of English that would be used by non-native English speakers. Researchers in this field are interested in pronunciation, sentence structure and lexis. In this sense “lingua franca” refers to the functions that English fulfils and in addition to a particular variety of English. To complicate the issue even more ELF and EIL appeared synonymously in various publications. According to Jenkins (2000) using both terms interchangeably is no longer practiced for two reasons. First of all it causes confusion and secondly EIL comprises native speakers (Berns 2009: 192). As a working definition I like to refer to Jenkins (2006: 160) who asserts that “in its purest form, ELF is defined as a contact language used among non-mother tongue speakers”.

This definition of ELF applies especially to the European context that among other countries belongs to Kachru’s (1985) Expanding Circle. On the EU level the majority of conversations are conducted in English even though none of the speakers necessarily uses English as a native language (ENL). In this sense English as a lingua franca in Europe is

typically manifested in spontaneous spoken interaction, such as casual conversation, but also in discussions at international conferences or in business meetings, whenever there is no possibility of ‘on-line’ editing by ENL speakers (but speakers may of course monitor themselves carefully, or not) Speakers may either see themselves as learners of English or users of English in their own right (Seidlhofer *et al.* 2006: 9).

As can be seen from the previous quote, English serves various communicative functions in Europe. In order to capture the wide range of functions that English fulfils for its users sociologists have coined a profile including four categories: instrumental, interpersonal, institutional (or administrative) and innovative (cf. Berns & Friedrich 2003, Hasanova 2007, Proshina 2005).

In Europe English is not merely used for international conversation but it is present in domains such as mass communication and media (Hilgendorf 2001; 2005). English is used extensively among Europeans to communicate with other Europeans as well as English speakers outside Europe. The sociolinguistic profile of English presented above, clearly applies to Europe.

In all European member states, English is a medium of instruction in schools and university institutions. In this sense English performs an instrumental function. Austria was among the forerunners introducing English as a compulsory subject from elementary school onwards. The dominance of English is even more visible in the academic context of universities. Study exchange programmes such as Erasmus and Joint Study made it necessary for European universities to run courses in English. Davison and Trent (2007: 200 quoted in Gnutzmann & Intemann 2008: 18) observed that an “Englishisation in higher education” is taking place in Europe and Asia. On the one hand universities seek to attract more potential students by offering English-medium study programmes but on the other hand they fulfil the increased requirements of the academic community. If researchers want to publish their articles in disciplines such as information technology, mathematics and natural sciences they are obliged to make their scientific contributions in English (Gnutzmann & Intemann 2008: 18). It is a fact that the topical and relevant literature in various research fields is exclusively written in English.

As far as the interpersonal use of English is concerned Europeans speak English in order to maintain their human relations and social networks. Most obviously Europeans converse in English when they are on holiday. This will also be a strong factor for using this FL for the participants of this empirical study. Other settings might be work and personal networks such as friends and family. Online community platforms such as *Facebook* offer young people the opportunity to communicate with their friends worldwide. The previously mentioned student exchange programs are also a beneficial option for learners to meet varied people from different countries and different language backgrounds.

Apart from the English speaking countries in Europe, English is not used for institutional purposes such as law and administration at a national level. Nevertheless English has gained a special status within the EU. Even though all member states were granted linguistic equality, the reality appears to be different. Within EU institutions three working languages are favoured: English, French and German (Gnutzmann & Intemann 2008: 16). It is not surprising that English is used extensively in this context.

The fact that European pupils nowadays have more and varied contact with English partly relates to the increased status and importance of the media. English is present in the internet, blogs, popular music as well as advertising. Several researchers (Schlobinski 1995, Elsen 2003) come to the conclusion that English is reflected in the innovative use of the language of teenagers. Gerritsen *et al.* (2007) analysed the use of English in product advertising in several European countries. They found that two out of three advertisements included English words and phrases (Gerritsen *et al.* 2007: 309ff). According to Elsen (2003: 268) English words are commonly associated with a young, dynamic and fresh lifestyle which seems to be appealing to the target audience.

The previously presented sociolinguistic profile clearly depicts the varied functions that English accomplishes. Due to its prominence in many different settings the English language classroom is faced with new requirements. It is no longer sufficient to provide learners with solid linguistic skills but they additionally need to acquire intercultural communicative competence for “establishing and maintaining relationships” (Byram 1997: 3) with other non-native English speakers in an international context. From the perspective of the learners, the functions that English fulfils as a lingua franca can be regarded as strong motivating force.

5. The field study

5.1 Research questions

The purpose of my study is to report and compare language attitudes and motivation of high school and vocational college students in Lower Austria. Moreover the study seeks to find out whether language attitudes and students’ motivation to learn English are related to their age. For this reason two age groups are selected and compared with each other. Furthermore the data of female and male students is contrasted.

The study focuses on the following research questions:

1. Do language attitudes towards English differ with regard to the school type the subjects attend?
2. Do the language attitudes towards English differ with regard to the age group?
3. Are language attitudes towards English gender-specific?

5.2 Aims of the study

Language attitudes and motivation play a crucial role in foreign language learning. Favourable attitudes and motivated learner behaviour are correlated with high language achievement (cf. chapter 3 motivation p. 22). For this reason, language teachers need to be aware of their students' perceptions of the target language and help them to develop positive attitudes towards English. Moreover it is important to investigate what kind of motivation they need in order to enjoy learning and to explore what factors influence whether students' are willing to continue studying English after they have finished school. Ideally positive attitudes towards English can promote the use of it outside the school context. Keeping those factors in mind, teachers will be able to adjust their lessons better to the learners' needs. Consequently this will lead to a more successful learning process.

The overall aim of the present study is to capture students' attitudes towards English and their motivation for learning the language. Moreover the study intends to find out whether students' attitudes and motivation are correlated with their attended school type and their age. Age can be a decisive factor when it comes to language learning. A longitudinal study (Heining-Boynton & Haitema 2007) found that favourable attitudes decline as the students' progress in their language learning process. The present study seeks to find out whether positive attitudes towards learning English deteriorate with age. Therefore the responses of both age groups are compared. This analysis will give insight into factors that might increase or decrease students' willingness to learn English. Apart from comparing school types and age, the study investigates gender related differences. It is assumed that girls will be more motivated language learner than boys. In order to see whether this assumption can be verified, data of boys and girls will be analysed and compared.

5.3 The design of the questionnaire

After considerable consultation of various existing questionnaires on language attitudes and motivation (Burstall et al, 1974: Pupils' Attitudes toward Learning French, Clément & Krudenier, 1983: Language Learning Orientations, Wenden, 1991: Attitudes questionnaire for self-access, Dörnyei & Clément, 2001: Language Orientation Questionnaire)² I chose Gardner's (1985) Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The test battery has been used extensively with slight modifications in different regions of Canada. It proved to be very successful, reliable and valid. I decided to use this test battery because I felt that with the help this questionnaire I could find answers to my research questions and investigate my field of interest. For my personal research questions I have adapted the AMTB accordingly. All relevant questions are translated into German since nearly all participants are German native speakers. The idea behind distributing a questionnaire in German ensures that the students will understand every single item. Moreover my sample includes two age groups and I cannot assume that the younger learners are highly skilled English speakers and experienced in filling out questionnaires.

One rather pragmatic aim is to stay within the four page limit as far as the length of the questionnaire is concerned as the questionnaire has to be completed by the participants within 30 minutes (Dörnyei 2003b:18). This is essential since I carry out my study during the regular lesson hours and teachers are not willing to offer one entire lesson for filling out the survey.

The questionnaire comprises four sections (see Appendix, p. 116). Three parts deal with attitudinal questions and the concluding fourth section includes factual questions such as sex and grade. Concerning the initial two parts, they only contain closed-ended questions, the third part includes three open-ended questions and the fourth section is a mixture of open-ended and closed-ended questions. All four parts are numbered with roman letters and the question items in each section are numbered additionally. The title of my survey reads "What I think of English". The general instruction entails information on

² Burstall et al's (1974) questionnaire deals exclusively with the immersion context in Canada and its questions did not fit to the Austrian school context. Clément and Krudenier's (1983) questionnaire intends to clarify the definition of orientations in the L2. This questionnaire includes items on the learners' milieu, their ethnicity and the target language. The researchers designed it for a multilingual context with an emphasis on English and French immersion students. Since the majority of the participants of my study are native Austrians this questionnaire is regarded too specific. Wenden's (1991) attitudes questionnaire for self-access relates more to a foreign language course evaluation and does therefore not cover students' language attitudes on a general level. In addition this questionnaire features only a few question items and does not include open-ended questions. Dörnyei and Clément's recent questionnaire on students' language orientations relates to Dörnyei's concept of the Ideal L2 Self and therefore focuses on a different L2/FL motivation approach that did not fit to my field of interest.

the reason and importance of the study, that it is part of an MA thesis and that the data is treated confidentially. It is followed by specific instructions explaining how to fill out the initial part of the questionnaire. For the first section a multi-item Likert (1932) scale is used including six items ranging from “strongly agree”, “agree”, “partly agree”, “slightly agree” and “disagree” to “strongly disagree”. An even number of response possibilities is favoured to prevent participants from using the middle category without much consideration (Dörnyei 2003b: 36).

For the second section a multiple-choice item format is applied. This design is very common in language research. Respondents are enquired to mark one or more options. In my study a statement has to be completed by ticking one possible answer of the four options provided.

The third part is made of three open-ended questions. In order to simplify the task the respondents have to give two answers for each question. For the first answer the students have to tick either “does apply” or “does not apply” and then they have to explain their decision. Open-ended questions are very popular since they offer the subjects to state their opinion toward a topic freely. The open-ended questions are deliberately placed at the end of the questionnaire. Thus it is assured that the participants will not leave out the closed items due to lack of time or become discouraged with the open-ended questions at the very beginning of the survey.

Concerning the first part of the questionnaire I want to gather information about ten areas of interest which will be explained briefly. The category ‘interest in foreign languages’ (items 1, 3, 4) investigates whether students will use English when they are travelling to a European country and deals with their usage of English printed media. In the second category ‘attitudes towards learning English’ students are required to state whether they have positive or negative perceptions of their role as an English learner (2, 7, 10-15). Although the AMTB provides a section for teacher and language course evaluation, the questions do not fit into my empirical study. They are too specific and therefore I added the additional category ‘opinions of EFL at school’ featuring three items (6, 8-9). Those items are more language course related than teacher centred. Items 5 and 16 look at ‘integrative orientation’, as it is important when it comes to language achievement. Furthermore items 17 to 20 and 23 to 24 address ‘instrumental orientation’, which refers to the utilitarian purpose of studying a foreign language (see chapter 3 motivation, p. 24). The category ‘attitudes towards English speaking countries’ (items 21, 22) investigates students’ perceptions towards English speaking people and their culture and traditions.

The second part of the survey addresses motivational intensity (items II_1, II_6) and students' desire to learn English (items II_2 – II_5). Students are asked to evaluate their English course and state whether they use English outside the classroom context for interpersonal communication or to consume English media.

As for the third part, three open-ended questions look at students' attitudes towards learning English, their instrumental orientation and language anxiety in the English classroom (see chapter 3 motivation, p. 35)

The final section includes factual questions such as their sex and grade and specific open-ended questions such as their mother tongue, other languages that they can communicate with and where and when they use English outside the classroom context. All factual questions are placed at the end. This seems reasonable as the participants first learn about the purpose of the study and they are ready to answer questions upon the topic without being discouraged or bored with filling out personal information at the early beginning (Oppenheim 1992).

5.4 Piloting the survey

After the initial piloting phase where I received valuable feedback from my peers that had studied my questionnaire carefully I distributed it to ten sixteen-year old students attending the vocational college in Mödling. Even though the questionnaire has been used successfully in previously conducted studies one could not foresee how the items would work in this setting and whether the respondents would be able to answer the given questions. The pilot test is a means to find out whether the instructions and the wording of the statements are clear and whether thirty minutes are enough time to complete the questionnaire. Based on the feedback that I got from those students I finalized my questionnaire.

5.5 Sample

The study was carried out at a higher level secondary vocational college and at a secondary academic high school in the district Mödling in Lower Austria. For the study the shortened forms 'vocational college' and 'high school' will be used. The vocational college in Mödling offers two different educational branches, fashion and design, and product management and presentation. The schooling includes five years of professional education ranging from grade 9 to 13 and concludes with the school leaving exam which enables the students to study at any university institution. The school is specialised in the fields of IT,

communication and design. English is taught as a compulsory subject throughout the five years. In addition students attending the fashion branch study French as their second foreign language. Students enrolled in the product management and presentation branch study two additional foreign languages. French is taught as another compulsory foreign language and students can choose Spanish or Italian as their third obligatory foreign language.

The high school in Mödling provides two different educational branches as well. Students can decide on the *Gymnasium* which refers to an academic high school or the *Realgymnasium*. The latter is an Austrian secondary educational school type with an emphasis on sciences. Its schooling covers eight years of education ranging from grade 5 to 12. English is taught as a compulsory subject over the entire school days. Students attending the regular academic high school can either select French or Spanish in seventh grade as another foreign language. Latin is taught from ninth grade onwards. The *Realgymnasium* features two further educational branches. Students can either opt for natural science with an emphasis on Biology and Chemistry, or the more economically related education that entails the autonomous subject 'Visual digital designing'. Concerning the latter another compulsory foreign language is taught from fifth grade on. Students can select Latin, French or Spanish. During the school year 2008/2009 952 students attended the school. More than two thirds of the total number of students studied at the lower secondary level including grades 5 to 8. The majority of all students were female accounting for 61.5 per cent. Since my empirical study only included subjects attending the upper secondary level it seemed reasonable to calculate the gender ratio. Again girls held the majority with 71 per cent of the students being female.³

The total sample number included 240 students of two different age groups: 120 fifteen-year olds (60 per school type) and 120 seventeen-year olds (60 per school type). An imbalance of boys and girls in both schools explains the fact why 196 girls and only 44 boys participated in the study. Six school classes of each school were selected. The younger learners attended the grade 9 and had studied English for five years, whereas the advanced learners attended grade 11 and had learned English for seven years. Both age groups attending high school had three English lessons per week. The class schedule for

³ Figures are obtained from the website of the Bundesgymnasium Mödling.
<http://www.bgmoedling-bach.ac.at/> (30 May 2009)

the vocational college students contained two English lessons per week. 95 per cent of the respondents were German native speakers and the remaining 5 per cent were native Chinese, Czech and Romanians.

5.6 Procedure

The questionnaires were completed in class. I was present throughout the whole procedure. After introducing myself, the topic of the research was explained and it was clarified that it was part of a MA thesis. Students were asserted that their English teacher would not see the completed questionnaires. In addition emphasis was put on the fact that the questionnaire was anonymous, thus encouraging the students to give honest and critical answers. After that the general instructions printed on the first page of the questionnaire were discussed. Students were informed on how to fill out each of the four sections. They were allowed to ask questions whenever something remained unclear. The majority of the subjects invested a lot of time thinking about their opinions towards English before completing each individual section of the questionnaire. Especially the advanced, older learners expressed that they would appreciate to receive the results. I am planning to submit a brief summary of the main findings to both schools.

5.7 Analysing the data

Initially the obtained questionnaires had to be checked for their validity. Those questionnaires that included several unanswered items were sorted out. Finally, 240 questionnaires were selected as valid and therefore included in the statistical analysis. It is important to note that the collected data showed different characteristics. The first two parts consisted of closed-ended questions with pre-given answer options whereas the third and partly the fourth part contained open-ended questions with individual responses. For the two initial parts the data was analysed in a quantitative manner that required statistical methods. The other parts could not be analysed in a quantitative way since the responses were so varied that no significant statistical result could be obtained. In order to reflect the multifaceted opinions of the students towards English qualitative measures were favoured over quantitative ones. Therefore the analysis of the data will be divided in two parts. The first part including the closed-ended questions will be analysed quantitatively. For the second part, comprising the open-ended questions students' responses will be grouped into several categories.

5.7.1 Analysing the data with statistical methods

The data including only closed-ended questions was computer coded and SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 15.0 was used for analysing the data. Every question was turned into various variables and each answer was given a numerical code. The first part of the questionnaire with the six response options ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” were transformed into digits one to six. One was assigned to the most positive answer and six was given to the most negative answer. The four answer options of the second part of the questionnaire were also changed into digits one to four. Hereby one was given to the most positive answer, in other words, the ticking box on the top of the list, and four was given to the most negative answer, the ticking box at the bottom of the vertical list. In this sense, the means are more favourable the lower they are.

After the data was typed into the computer programme, the normality plots were investigated in order to check whether the data was distributed normally or abnormally. This distribution provided information on the statistical test that could be applied for the analysis of correlations and significances. The data was abnormally distributed and hence a *Nonparametric Test with Two Independent Samples* has been used. This test is called the Mann-Whitney U-test and it is a method to compare the medians of non-normal distributions of X and Y⁴. The Mann-Whitney U-test was used to compare the data according to three criteria: school type, age and gender. The tail probability, ‘p’ indicating the level of significance was set for $p < 0.05$. Any result ranging below 0.01 indicated a high significance in the relation of the variables (Babic 2007: 89). Whenever instances showed a significant statistical difference the frequency of the answer options was calculated. Those results were rounded to two decimal places.

⁴ Information on statistical tests is obtained from Bochanov, Sergey & Bystritsky, Vladimir 2009. ALGIBNET. Online: <http://www.alglib.net/statistics/hypothesistesting/mannwhitneyu.php> (3 March 2009)

6. Results

In order to structure the results the following section is divided into four main parts. The initial part covering questions 1 to 24 addresses students' language attitudes towards English. The second part (items II_1 – II_6) deals with motivation to learn English whereas the third part analyses students' responses to the three open-ended questions. Finally the factual questions will be analysed in greater detail. The first and second parts are further subdivided according to statistically significant differences in school type, age and gender. For the open-ended questions I have compared the schools and age groups with each other. Students' responses to the factual question were analysed according to their school type.

Before we take a closer look at the findings of each of the four parts a brief summary of students' language attitudes towards English will be presented.

6.1 Questionnaire part I: language attitudes - general findings

In general the attitudes of the student population towards English are positive.

Students from both school types most strongly agree on the following four items

- If I were visiting a foreign European country I would like to be able to communicate in English.
- I wish I could speak English fluently.
- Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.
- I would like to travel to GB/US and I want to be able to communicate in English there.

The obtained data reveals that the majority of the participants take a great interest in foreign languages. Nevertheless, as apparent from table 1, high school students hold an even more positive attitude towards reading English media (Item 3, 4) than vocational college students. This finding will be treated in greater detail in the following section. Both groups' attitudes towards learning English are favourable (Items 7, 10-15). The participants aim at speaking English fluently and they enjoy studying this foreign language. In addition the population stresses that English is an important subject on their curriculum. Integrative orientation (Item 5, 16) seems to be a driving force for both groups. The majority of the participants acknowledge meeting people who speak a different language as a rewarding experience. Even though students from both school types emphasize that knowledge of English is essential for occupational success, vocational college students attach more importance to the economic and work-related value of English

than high school students (Items 17-20, 23-24). Attitudes towards English speaking countries (Items 21-22) are positive in both student groups. The results seek to show that high school students' attitudes towards people from English speaking countries are even more favourable than those of vocational college students.

For reasons of completeness the statements that students most strongly disagree with, will also be mentioned.

- I hate the English language.
- Learning English is a waste of time.

It is not surprising that the opinion of the population towards those provocative statements is extremely negative. The subsequent detailed analysis of the statistically significant differences according to school type, age and sex will highlight the varying results.

Table 1: Results of mean comparison between vocational college students and high school students' attitudes toward English

	Items	VC* group (N=120) Mean† (SD)	HS* group (N=120) Mean† (SD)	Sig.
1	If I were visiting a foreign European country I would like to be able to communicate in English.	1.41 (0.63)	1.42 (0.63)	0.86
2	I wish I could speak English fluently.	1.30 (1.36)	1.36 (0.59)	0.32
3	I want to read English books in the original language not in translation.	3.47 (1.52)	3.06 (1.49)	0.03
4	I want to read newspapers and magazines in English.	2.54 (1.43)	2.19 (1.23)	0.07
5	I enjoy meeting people who speak another language.	2.41 (1.18)	2.47 (1.38)	0.98
6	I think we have enough English lessons.	2.53 (1.08)	2.95 (1.32)	0.02
7	I enjoy studying English.	2.57 (1.37)	2.46 (1.21)	0.74
8	I would like to have other subjects in English too.	3.42 (1.69)	3.42 (1.69)	0.96
9	I enjoy the English lessons.	3.16 (1.28)	3.15 (1.30)	0.97
10	English is an essential part of the school program.	2.34 (1.13)	2.58 (1.06)	0.65
11	I'm an enthusiastic English learner.	3.13 (1.17)	3.20 (1.35)	0.61
12	I hate the English language.	5.53 (0.96)	5.67 (0.73)	0.35
13	I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English.	4.61 (1.23)	4.82 (1.19)	0.12
14	Learning English is a waste of time.	5.55 (0.78)	5.57 (0.75)	0.84
15	When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English.	4.61 (1.49)	4.88 (1.36)	0.17
16	Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.	1.44 (0.65)	1.47 (0.64)	0.60
17	Studying English is important from my future career.	1.93 (1.02)	2.35 (1.16)	0.03
18	My chances to get a good job are higher if I'm a proficient user of English.	1.61 (0.88)	1.80 (0.94)	0.09
19	Studying English is important for me because my friends/family will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.	4.54 (1.64)	4.32 (1.58)	0.13
20	Studying English is important for me because I would like to work/study in other European countries.	3.14 (1.58)	3.21 (1.74)	0.86
21	I have positive attitudes toward people from English speaking countries.	2.19 (1.01)	1.95 (0.98)	0.04
22	I'm very interested in the culture and tradition of English speaking countries.	3.16 (1.35)	3.19 (1.39)	0.82
23	I would like to travel to GB/US and I want to be able to communicate in English there.	1.71 (1.13)	1.64 (1.03)	0.70
24	I would like to work/study in GB/the US and therefore I need English.	3.54 (1.59)	3.30 (1.69)	0.25

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

† 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=partly agree, 4=slightly agree, 5=disagree, 6=strongly disagree. The smaller the mean the more the students agree with the statement.

p<0.05

6.1.1 Differences across school types

Table 1 shows that statistically relevant differences are obtained in 4 out of 24 items. All of the high school students are more interested in English than vocational college students. One significant difference is found in item 3 “*I want to read English books in the original language not in the translation*” ($p=0.03$). Further analysis indicates that 25 per cent of the high school students ‘partly agree’ with this statement whereas only 15.8 per cent of the vocational college students hold the same view (Table 2).

Table 2 Students’ responses to Item 3 “*I want to read English books in the original language not in translation*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
HS* students	20.8%	15%	25%	21.7%	10.8%	6.7%
VC* Students	14.2%	15%	15.8%	30%	15%	10%

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

Students’ opinions towards EFL at school are rather stable between the two groups. One significant difference yields in item 6 “*I think we have enough English lessons*” ($p=0.02$). Relatively more vocational college students ‘agree’ with this item (38.3%) than high school students (34.2%). Even though only slight differences are obtained they are still statistically significant (Table 3).

Table 3 Students’ responses to Item 6 “*I think we have enough English lessons*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
HS* students	10%	34.2%	26.7%	12.5%	12.5%	4.2%
VC* Students	15.8%	38.3%	28.3%	12.5%	4.2%	0.8%

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

Moreover, vocational college students’ instrumental orientation seems to be a stronger cause for studying English than that of high school students. A significant difference is found in item 17 “*Studying English is important for my future career*” ($p=0.03$). When comparing the data it appears that 43.3 per cent of the vocational college students ‘strongly agree’ with this statement whereas a mere 24.2 per cent of the high school students make the same choice. Nevertheless instrumental orientation is also an important factor for high school students since 40 per cent of them ‘agree’ with this statement (Table 4)

Table 4 Students' responses to Item 17 "*Studying English is important for my future career*"

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
HS* students	24.2%	40%	20%	9.2%	5.8%	0.8%
VC* Students	43.3%	31.7%	14.2%	10%	0.8%	0%

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

Another significant difference is obtained concerning item 21 "*I have positive attitudes toward people from English speaking countries*" ($p=0.04$). 39.3 per cent of the high school students 'strongly agree' with this statement but only 28.3 per cent of the vocational college students opt for the same answer. Nevertheless 35.8 per cent of both groups argue that they 'agree' with the statement (Table 5).

Table 5 Students' responses to Item 21 "*I have positive attitudes toward people from English speaking countries*"

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
HS* students	39.2%	35.8%	18.3%	4.2%	2.5%	0%
VC* Students	28.3%	35.8%	26.7%	6.7%	2.5%	0%

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

6.1.2 Differences across grade levels

Initially all students regardless of their school type, are divided into younger learners and advanced learners and their responses are compared with each other. With reference to age the data analysed reveals two significant differences between the two age groups. In order to see whether results differ within one age group the data sets of the vocational college students and high school students are arranged accordingly. All younger learners and all advanced learners are grouped into two different data sets. Thus it is possible to find out whether the responses of the two age groups are correlated with their attended school type.

In general advanced learners' opinions are more positive with reference to interest in English than those of younger learners. When looking at the whole data a significant difference is obtained in item 4 "*I want to read newspapers and magazines in English*" ($p=0.01$). The responses of the advanced, older learners reveal that 45 per cent 'strongly agree' with this statement whereas only 25.8 per cent of the younger learner express the wish to read newspapers and magazines in English (Table 6).

Table 6 Students' responses to Item 4 "*I want to read newspapers and magazines in English*"

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Age group 1*	25.8%	24.2%	24.2%	16.7%	7.5%	1.7%
Age group 2*	45%	25.8%	10.8%	10.8%	5.8%	1.7%

*Age group 1: grade 9, Age group 2: grade 11

As an additional step the data sets of the younger learners and the older learners of both school types are compared. This further analysis shows that no significant difference between younger vocational college and high school students can be obtained. Among both groups of the younger learners 45 per cent agree with this statement. However, when comparing the advanced, older learners statistically significant differences are found ($p=0.04$). The majority of the older high school students (53.3%) 'strongly agree' with this statement whereas only 36.7 per cent of the older vocational college students make the same choice (Table 7).

Table 7 Older learners' responses to item 4 "*I want to read newspapers and magazines in English*"

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Older HS* students	53.3%	23.3%	10%	11.7%	1.7%	0%
Older VC* students	36.7%	28.3%	11.7%	10%	10%	3.3%

*HS: high school students, VC: vocational college students

As illustrated in table 8, statistically significant differences are yielded in item 6 "*I think we have enough English lessons*" ($p= 0.00$). The data indicates that 45 per cent of the younger learners (Age group 1) agree with this statement as opposed to 28.3 per cent of the advanced learners (Age group 2) that choose the same category.

Table 8 Students' responses to item 6 "*I think we have enough English lessons*"

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Age group 1*	14.2%	45%	24.2%	12.5%	3.3%	0.8%
Age group 2*	11.7%	28.3%	30.8%	11.7%	13.3%	4.2%

*Age group 1: grade 9, Age group 2: grade 11

Again data sets of younger learners and older learners are analysed separately in order to see whether vocational college or high school students show more positive attitudes

towards the item in question. Significant differences are yielded with regard to the responses to item 6 from the younger learners ($p=0.02$). The majority of both groups of younger learners amounting to 45 per cent agree with this statement. Interestingly, three times as many vocational college students (21.7%) as high school students (6.7%) ticked the ‘strongly agree’ response category (Table 9). When comparing the data from both groups of older learners no statistically significant difference can be found.

Table 9 Younger learners’ responses to item 6 “*I think we have enough English lessons.*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Young HS* students	6.7%	45%	26.7%	18.3%	3.3%	0%
Young VC* students	21.7%	45%	21.7%	6.7%	3.3%	1.7%

*HS: high school students, VC: vocational college students

6.1.3 Differences across sexes

At first the responses of female and male students are compared. Table 10 illustrates only the statistically significant mean differences that are found in 5 items out of 24. Overall, the data indicates that girls are more integratively oriented and in addition they show more positive attitudes towards learning English than boys. Moreover, girls attach more value to instrumental orientation than boys. Whenever significant differences are found, male and female students are grouped into two additional data sets. With the help of those supplementary data sets it is possible to find out whether the opinions of male and female students are correlated with their attended school type.

Table 10 Statistically significant mean differences regarding gender

	Item	Girls (N=196) Mean † (SD)	Boys (N=44) Mean† (SD)	Sig.
5.	I enjoy meeting people who speak another language	2.32 (1.22)	3.00 (1.43)	0.00
11.	I’m an enthusiastic English learner.	3.04 (1.18)	3.75 (1.43)	0.02
14.	Learning English is a waste of time.	5.63 (0.67)	5.25 (1.03)	0.01
15.	When I leave school, I will give up studying English.	4.89 (1.38)	4.09 (1.47)	0.00
24.	I would like to work/study in GB/the US, I need English.	3.33 (1.62)	3.84 (1.65)	0.05

† 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=partly agree, 4=slightly agree, 5=disagree, 6=strongly disagree.
The smaller the mean the more the students agree with the statement.

The data analysed reveals that female students have more favourable attitudes towards meeting people who speak a foreign language than male students. One significant difference is obtained in item 5 “*I enjoy meeting people who speak another language.*” ($p=0.00$). Of the female students 31.1 per cent ‘agree’ with the statement as opposed to

18.2 per cent of the male students. The majority of the male students (25%) only ‘slightly agree’ with this statement (Table 11).

Table 11 Female and Male students’ responses to Item 5 “*I enjoy meeting people who speak another language.*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Females	30.6%	31.1%	21.4%	11.2%	4.1%	1.5%
Males	20.5%	18.2%	20.5%	25%	13.6%	2.3%

In addition female students’ attitude towards learning English proves to be more positive than that of male students. One significant mean difference yields in item 11 “*I am an enthusiastic English learner*” ($p=0.02$). The majority of the female students that account for 35.2 per cent ‘partly agree’ with this statement whereas a mere 20.5 per cent of the males have the same opinion. Moreover, 29.5 per cent of the male students only ‘slightly agree’ with this statement (Table 12).

Table 12 Female and Male students’ responses to Item 11 “*I am an enthusiastic English learner*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Females	10.2%	21.4%	35.2%	23.5%	6.6%	3.1%
Males	6.8%	13.6%	20.5%	29.5%	15.9%	13.6%

Concerning item 14 “*Learning English is a waste of time*” both sexes strongly disagree with this statement ($p=0.01$). Almost three-fourths (73%) of the female students disagree with this assertion. More than half of the male participants (54.5%) opt for the same choice. Only a small fraction of the male students (2.3%) agrees with this statement whereas none of the female students choose this option (Table 13).

Table 13 Female and Male students’ responses to item 14 “*Learning English is a waste of time*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Females	0%	0%	1.5%	6.6%	18.9%	73%
Males	0%	2.3%	6.8%	9.1%	27.3%	54.5%

In terms of instrumental orientation, the data shows that more female students are willing to continue studying English after finishing school than their male counterparts. Statistically significant differences are obtained in item 15, “*When I leave school, I shall*

give up the study of English” ($p=0.00$). Nearly half of the female proportion (47.4%) strongly disagrees with this statement as opposed to 22.7 per cent of the males. The largest share of the male students amounting to 25 per cent partly agrees with this statement (Table 14).

Table 14 Female and Male students’ responses to item 15 “*When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English.*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Females	4.1%	3.1%	9.2%	13.8%	22.4%	47.4%
Males	6.8%	4.5%	25%	22.7%	18.2%	22.7%

Concerning item 24 “*I would like to work/study in GB/the US, I need English*”, slightly more female than male students expressed the intention to work or study in Great Britain or the US for which they need English. Even though the differences between the responses from both sexes are not as varied as in the previous items, a statistically significant difference is obtained ($p=0.05$). When looking at the frequency of selected answers by females, 20.4 per cent partly agree with this statement whereas 15.9 per cent of the males make the same choice. The majority of the male participants (22.7%) disagree with this statement. In addition the data from the male participants is analysed separately to find out whether the responses from high school males differ from those of male vocational college students, which, however, is not the case. Supplementary data analysis between female students from both school types does not reveal any statistically significant differences (Table 15).

Table 15 Female and male students’ responses to item 24 “*I want to work/study in GB/the US – therefore I need English*”

	Strongly agree	Agree	Partly agree	Slightly agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Females	17.3%	16.8%	20.4%	19.4%	13.3%	12.8%
Males	13.6%	9.1%	15.9%	20.5%	22.7%	18.2%

The analysis of the first part addressing students’ language attitudes towards English highlights several interesting findings. There is a tendency that high school students have more positive attitudes towards English speaking people and books in English than vocational college students. The data reveals that English fulfils a utilitarian purpose for vocational college students meaning that they consider knowing English as important for their future career. In contrast, this is not a very strong motivating factor for high school

students. Attitudes of older and younger learners differ as well. Older learners, especially advanced high school students take greater pleasure in reading English books than younger learners. Younger learners consider their English lessons as sufficient whereas older learners would appreciate more lessons. When comparing language attitudes of girls and boys we notice that female students are highly integratively oriented and enjoy learning English more than their male peers.

6.2 Questionnaire part II: motivation to learn English

Those six questions, presented in table 16, deal with motivational intensity (Items 1, 6) and students' desire to learn English (Items 2-5). This time students are asked to tick one of the four provided answers that suit them best. Overall, the test population holds positive attitudes towards both issues, with high school students' attitudes being slightly more favourable than those of vocational college students. The one exception is item II_1 "*effort invested in studying English*". In this case vocational college students have more affirmative opinions than high school students.

Table 16 Results of mean comparison between vocational college students and high school students' motivational intensity and their desire to learn English

	Items	VC* group (N=120) Mean† (SD)	HS* group (N=120) Mean† (SD)	Sig.
II_1	effort in studying English	2.51 (0.84)	2.80 (0.95)	0.03
II_2	English compared to other subjects	2.31 (0.62)	1.47 (0.66)	0.04
II_3	students' choice to take English	1.47 (0.73)	1.33 (0.57)	0.15
II_4	speak English outside school	2.30 (0.77)	2.12 (0.77)	0.13
II_5	speak English to a English NS family living nearby	2.15 (0.85)	2.13 (0.78)	0.73
II_6	watch series/films in English	2.44 (0.90)	2.14 (0.93)	0.01

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

† 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=partly agree, 4=slightly agree, 5=disagree, 6=strongly disagree.

The smaller the mean the more the students agree with the statement.

6.2.1 Differences across school types

A significant difference yields in item II_1 "*Effort invested in learning English*" ($p=0.03$). The data shows that 45.8 per cent of the vocational college students say they really learn English compared to 34.2 per cent of the high school students who are of the same opinion. As apparent from table 17 an almost equal proportion of both groups amounting to more than 30 per cent claim that they pass exams on the basis of sheer luck/intelligence because they do very little work. One fourth of the high school students (25.8%) argue that they

invest just enough time to pass English compared to 14.2 per cent of the vocational college students that opt for the same response (Table 17).

Table 17 Students' responses to item II_1 "*Effort invested in learning English*"

	Item	VC* group (N=120)	HS* group (N=120)
II_1	Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I		
a	invest a lot of time and effort in studying English so that I get good grades.	8.3%	5.8%
b	really try to learn English	45.8%	34.2%
c	will pass on the basis of sheer luck/intelligence because I do very little work.	31.7%	32.5%
d	do just enough to get positive grades	14.2%	25.8%
e	am bilingual and therefore I do not need to study a lot**	0%	1.7%

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

** 2 students created an additional answer category since none of the provided answers are suitable for them.

Statistically significant differences are also found in item II_2 "*Desire to learn English compared to other subjects*" ($p=0.04$). The data reveals that high school students' desire to learn English is slightly higher than that of the vocational college students. Nevertheless, the majority of both groups claim that they like English slightly more than their other courses. In this case more vocational college students (61.7%) than high school students (59.2%) argue that they favour English compared to other subjects. The figures of the groups indicate that both of them have very positive attitudes towards their English lessons (Table 18).

Table 18 Students' responses to item II_2 "*Desire to learn English compared to other subjects*"

	Item	VC* group (N=120)	HS* group (N=120)
II_2	Compared to my other courses, I like English		
a	the most.	5%	14.2%
b	slightly more than my other courses.	61.7%	59.2%
c	slightly less than my other courses.	30%	25%
d	least of all.	3.3%	1.7%

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

Another statistically significant difference between the two school types is found in item II_6 "*I watch films/series in English*" ($p=0.01$). More than half of the vocational college students (54.2%) say that they would sometimes watch those programmes whereas 36.7

per cent of the high school students make the same choice. Nevertheless it seems that high school students have more favourable attitudes towards watching films and series in English than students attending the vocational college. 32.5 per cent of the high school students claim that they would watch those programmes often, compared to 22.5 per cent of the vocational college students. Only a very small proportion of both groups (approx. 5%) stresses that they would never watch those programmes (Table 19).

Table 19 Students' responses to item II_6 "*Watch films/series in English*"

Item		VC* group (N=120)	HS* group (N=120)
II_6	If I had the opportunity to watch films/series in English I would		
a	Try to watch it often.	22.5%	32.5%
b	Turn it on occasionally.	17.5%	25.8%
c	Turn it on sometimes.	54.2%	36.7%
d	Never watch it.	5.8%	5%

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

6.2.2 Differences across grade levels

A statistically significant difference regarding item II_6 "*I watch films/series in English*" ($p=0.00$) is additionally found across grade levels. Overall, it appears that the older learners have more favourable attitudes towards watching TV in English than the younger learners. More than half of the younger learners (54.2%) say that they would sometimes watch those programmes compared to 35.8 per cent of the older learners. Moreover, 33.3 per cent of the older learners claim that they would watch those programmes often whereas only 21.7 per cent of the younger learners would do the same (Table 20).

Table 20 Students' responses to item II_6 "*Watch films/series in English*"

Item		Age group 1* (N=120)	Age group 2* (N=120)
II_6	If I had the opportunity to watch films/series in English I would		
a	try to watch it often.	21.7%	33.3%
b	turn it on occasionally.	17.5%	26.7%
c	turn it on sometimes.	54.2%	35.8%
d	never watch it.	6.7%	4.2%

* Age group 1= grade 9, Age group 2= grade 11

In a further analysis the data sets of younger learners and older learners are analysed separately in order to see whether vocational college or high school students show more

positive attitudes towards watching films/series in English. A statistically significant difference is found when it comes to the responses to item II_6 from the younger learners ($p=0.03$). More than half of the vocational college students (61.7%) and 46.7 per cent of the high school students argue that they would sometimes watch films and series in English. As apparent from table 21, almost twice as many high school students (28.3%) as vocational college students (15%) emphasise that they would try to watch those programmes often. Those results indicate that high school students have a higher readiness to watch films and series in English than vocational college students. In comparing the responses of the older high school and vocational college students no statistically significant differences are obtained.

Table 21 Younger learners' responses to item II_6 "*Watch series/films in English*"

Item	Young VC* students (N=60)	Young HS* students (N=60)
II_6 If I had the opportunity to watch films/series in English I would		
a try to watch it often.	15%	28.3%
b turn it on occasionally.	15%	20%
c turn it on sometimes.	61.7%	46.7%
d never watch it.	8.3%	5%

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

6.2.3 Differences across sexes

Statistically significant difference are yielded in item II-1 "*Effort invested in learning English*" ($p=0.00$). As apparent from table 22, female students say that they invest more effort in learning English than their male colleagues. The majority of the females (44.9%) argue that they really study English whereas a mere 18.2 per cent of the males selected the same response option. Unsurprisingly, the majority of the males amounting to 47.7 per cent say that they pass exams on the basis of luck and/or intelligence since they invest little effort in studying. 28.6 per cent of the females opted for the same answer (Table 22).

Table 22 Female and male students' responses to item II_1 "*Effort invested in learning English*"

	Item	Females (N=196)	Males (N=44)
II_1	Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I		
a	invest a lot of time and effort in studying English so that I get good grades.	7.7%	4.5%
b	really try to learn English	44.9%	18.2%
c	will pass on the basis of sheer luck/intelligence because I do very little work.	28.6%	47.7%
d	do just enough to get positive grades	18.4%	27.3%
e	am bilingual and therefore I do not need to study a lot*	0.5%	2.3%

* 2 students created an additional answer category since none of the provided answers were suitable for them.

Another statistically significant difference is found in item II-4 "*Speaking English outside of school*" ($p=0.01$). The largest share of female students comprising 46.4 per cent stress that they would speak English outside the classroom context occasionally compared to 38.6 per cent of the male students. However, the majority of the males (47.7%) claim that they would only speak English if they have to. Concerning the female subjects, 30.1 per cent admit that they would also only speak English if there is no other possibility to communicate (Table 23).

Table 23 Female and male students' responses to item II_4 "*Speaking English outside school*"

	Item	Females (N=196)	Males (N=44)
II_4	If I had the opportunity to speak English outside of school, I would		
a	speak English most of the time, using my L1 only if necessary.	20.4%	9.1%
b	would speak it occasionally.	46.4%	38.6%
c	would only speak it if I have to.	30.1%	47.7%
d	would never speak it.	3.1%	4.5%

Additional analysis reveals that the female vocational college students' attitudes towards speaking English outside school differ from those of the female high school students. Statistically significant difference are yielded in item II_4 "*Speaking English outside school*" ($p=0.04$). According to the data obtained, almost half of the female vocational college students (48.6%) stress that they would speak English occasionally compared to 43.7 per cent of the high school students that make the same choice. Almost twice as many

high school students (27.6%) as vocational college students (14.7%) believe that they would speak English most of the time, using their mother tongue only if they cannot express their thoughts in English. In addition the proportion of female vocational college students (32.1%) who say that they would only speak English if there is no other possibility to communicate is slightly higher than that of high school students (27.6%). Overall female high school students show a higher level of willingness to communicate in English outside the classroom than female vocational college students.

To sum it up motivation clearly differs between the two student groups. Vocational college students have the feeling that they really study English whereas the majority of the high school students admit that they pass exams on the basis of luck or intelligence as they do very little work. In addition more vocational college students favour English over other subjects than high school students. Regarding English TV series and films, high school students show a clear preference for watching those programmes as vocational college students. Older learners are more willing to watch English TV than younger learners. Additionally, younger high school students have more positive attitudes towards watching English films and series than younger vocational college students. The data shows two gender-related differences, indicating that girls invest more time in studying English and that they rather communicate in English outside the classroom context than boys.

6.3 Questionnaire part III: students' attitudes towards learning English

The three open-ended questions address three different areas of interest. While the first question investigates instrumental orientation, the second deals with attitudes towards learning English and the third focuses on classroom anxiety. The results of the total population are presented in table 24. Overall, the attitudes of the population are very positive. More than three fourths of the participants (77.1%) consider their English lessons as a solid and qualitative preparation for their future. Most students are in perfect agreement with the second statement III_2 "*I want to study as much English as possible*". The majority of the students that intends to study English as much as possible amounts to 87.2 per cent. As far as classroom anxiety is concerned only 29.7 per cent of the students have the feeling that their classmates do better in English.

The three questions are analysed according to school type and age. Initially the positively worded responses are separated from the negatively worded responses (Table 24). In order to compare students' opinions, categories are developed for both sets of

responses. The written explanations of the students reflect their opinions towards the three items in question. They are a personal account of how each participant perceives learning English and what attitudes she or he has towards this foreign language. With the intention of capturing a wide range of students' responses up to eight categories have been compiled. Moreover, it seemed reasonable to provide one category for those instances where no written answer is given. I have decided to present the four most often stated responses in greater detail as they portray the largest share of students' responses.

Table 24 Results of students' responses to the open-ended questions

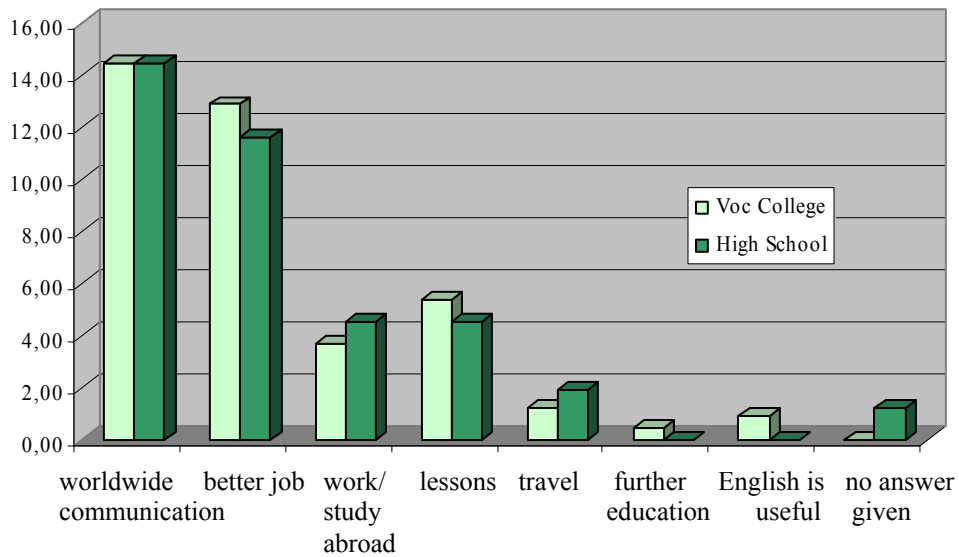
Item	Category	Total population (N=240)	
		Does apply	Does not apply
III_1 The English lessons are a good preparation for my future	Instrumental orientation	77.1%	22.9%
III_2 I want to study as much English as possible	Attitudes towards learning English	87.2%	12.8%
III_3 I always feel that the other students speak better English than I do	English class anxiety	29.7%	70.2%

6.3.1 Questionnaire part III – differences across school types

6.3.1.1 Instrumental orientation – positive responses

After reading the positively worded set of responses to item III_1 “*English is a good preparation for my future*” eight answer categories have been created. Figure 1 illustrates the responses of vocational college students (light green) and high school students (dark green). The graph shows a clear agreement between the two schools. 14.5 per cent of the students from both schools argue that their English lessons prepare them for communicating internationally.

Figure 1 Student responses' to Item III_1 "My English lessons are a good preparation for my future"



To illustrate the numerous responses two statements were chosen:

[Englisch] ist eine internationale Sprache mit der ich mich in der ganzen Welt verständigen kann. (No. 138, female high school student)

weil die Sprache es mir ermöglicht mit vielen Menschen zu kommunizieren, was für meine berufliche Laufbahn sehr wichtig ist. (No. 2, female vocational college student)

While both students stress the value of English as an international language, the vocational college student additionally emphasises the importance of English regarding occupational success. This illustrates that slightly more vocational college students (12.9%) than high school students (11.6%) claim that their English lessons improve their opportunities on the job market. Apparently, vocational college students have a stronger instrumental orientation than their high school mates. This result tallies with the finding in item 17 "English is important for my future career" where vocational college students scored higher than high school students. Several vocational college students strongly relate knowledge in English to their future career. They have concrete perceptions why they need to study English in order to get better jobs.

Um Kunden auch im Ausland meine Produkte verkaufen zu können (No 91, male vocational college student)

Compared to the vocational college students it seems that the largest share of high school students has only a rather vague idea why English might be essential for their choice of employment.

[E]nglisch] ist im Berufsleben wichtig, viele Möglichkeiten. (No. 214, female high school student)

In den meisten Fällen wird Englisch im Beruf benötigt, daher trifft dies wahrscheinlich auf mich zu. Ich weiß aber noch nicht welchen Beruf ich einmal ergreifen möchte. (No. 177 male high school student)

Interestingly enough, I have obtained different findings concerning the response category *“I want to work/study abroad – therefore I need English”*. While vocational college students put a stronger emphasis on the economic value of English they are less willing to study or work abroad than high school students. The results indicate that more high school students (4.5%) as vocational college students (3.7%) consider their English education at school as a prerequisite for working or studying abroad. Two female high school students expressed that:

[i]ch finde [E]nglisch] ist eine tolle Sprache und ich möchte in Amerika studieren. (No. 145 female high school student)

[w]eil ich nächstes Jahr für elf Monate in die USA gehe und weil ich später in den USA studieren möchte. (No. 153 female high school student)

The analysis of the responses reveals that more vocational college students (5.4%) as high school students (4.5%) state that their English lessons are well prepared and structured and hence they consider them a good preparation for their future. The following statement of a female vocational college student represents the opinion of numerous other vocational college students.

Wir lernen alles ziemlich genau und werden auch immer überprüft. (No. 70 female vocational college student)

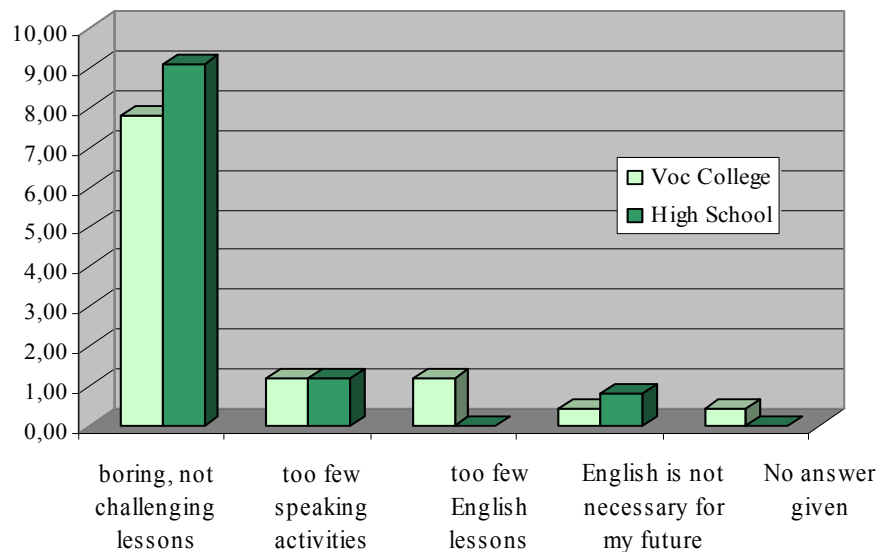
Quite a few high school students are satisfied with their English lessons as well. One student brought it to the point:

[d]ie Lehrerin ist sehr bemüht uns mit der Sprache vertraut zu machen und wir haben obwohl wir lernen müssen, Spaß am Unterricht. (No.169 female high school student)

6.3.1.2 Instrumental orientation – negative responses

Even though the majority of both student groups responded positively to item III_1 it is vital to investigate those instances where students did not agree with the statement. Their answers shed light on the reasons why they doubt that their English lessons are a good preparation for their future (figure 2).

Figure 2 Students' responses to item III_1 "My English lessons are not a good preparation for my future"



The largest share of the two student groups in the present study who disagree with the statement claim that their English lessons are of no interest, boring, poorly prepared and not challenging enough. A breakdown of the figures indicates that relatively more high school students (9.1%) as vocational college students (7.9%) share this view.

Sicher lernt man die Grammatik, aber wir sprechen so gut wie nie frei Englisch und lesen die Sätze meist nur ab und lernen absolut unnötige Vokabeln. (No. 137 female high school student)

A small fraction of the vocational college students criticise the English lessons since they consider them too business-oriented.

Weil der Unterricht nicht auf die Sprache sondern eher auf BWL bzw. Produktmanagement abzielt. (No. 23 male vocational college student)

While it seems legitimate to level criticism at the English lessons, the response from the vocational college student is problematic with reference to the objectives of the vocational college. The Austrian Ministry of Education (bm:ukk) regulates by the education act that industrial and technical vocational colleges are obliged to educate their students in a in

depth general and vocational training that will enable them to work in a technical, industrial or economic field or to study at a university.⁵ Hence the aim the vocational college in question is the specialisation of its students in certain occupational areas. It is therefore not surprising that the English lessons at this vocational college focus more on work-related issues than in a high school.

Apart from the unsatisfactory content and the structure of the English lessons some students expressed that they do not have a good rapport with their teachers.

[D]adurch das meine Englischlehrerin nicht gerade begeistert von mir ist, bin ich [diejenige] die nicht oft dran kommt und so übe ich nicht viel (No. 192 female high school student)

Another reason for the students' discontentment is the fact that their English lessons do not provide enough possibilities to speak in the target language. Even though only a very small amount of students (1.2%) expresses this statement it is an important feedback for the teacher. A small proportion of vocational college students (1.2%) states that the amount of English lessons is insufficient. While many students say that they work too much with their text book, one vocational college student addresses several demotivating factors in the EFL classroom.

Ich finde, wir haben viel zu wenige Stunden um wirklich viel zu lernen und der Unterricht bezieht sich meistens nur auf das Lehrbuch das ziemlich fad ist. Wir sprechen auch viel zu wenig. (No. 7 female vocational college student)

A very small fraction of both student groups emphasises that English skills are not a requirement for their prospective jobs. More than twice as many high school students (0.8%) as vocational college students (0.4%) gave this explanation. Admittedly, those figures are very small but they highlight the fact that some students believe that English is not important for their future.

6.3.1.3 Attitudes toward learning English – positive responses

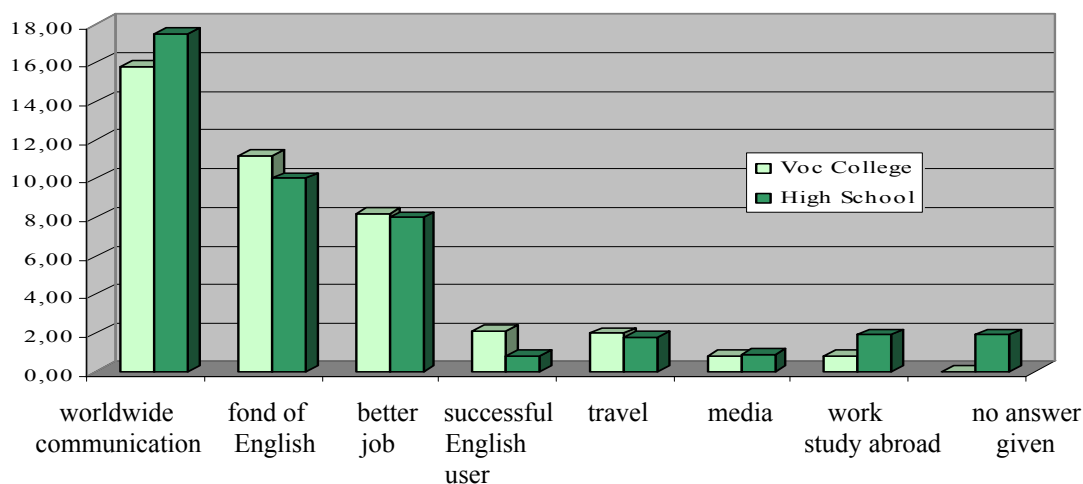
The same procedure is applied for analysing the second open-ended question III_2 *“I want to study English as much as possible.”* Again eight answer categories have been created (figure 3). It is interesting that students use their responses interchangeably for both

⁵ The Austrian Ministry of Education (bm:ukk)

Aufgabe der berufsbildenden höheren Schulen § 65. Die berufsbildenden höheren Schulen haben die Aufgabe, den Schülern eine höhere allgemeine und fachliche Bildung zu vermitteln, die sie zur Ausübung eines gehobenen Berufes auf technischem, gewerblichem, kunstgewerblichem, kaufmännischem oder hauswirtschaftlichem und sonstigem wirtschaftlichen Gebiet befähigt und sie zugleich zur Universitätsreife zu führen. http://www.bmukk.gv.at/schulen/recht/gvo/schog_02.xml (9 June.2009)

statements even though they address different fields of interest. High school students (17.5%) relate English proficiency even more to being able to communicate worldwide than vocational college students (15.8%).

Figure 3 Students' responses to item III_2 "I want to study English as much as possible"



While the majority of the students did not provide any additional information when, where and with whom they would communicate in English, one high school student emphasised that English is important for her own leisure activities and for general communication. Moreover her statement is a rare account of deliberately addressing English as a lingua franca.

Englisch ist für mich eine sehr wichtige Sprache, die ich oft brauche zB. für Songs schreiben oder wenn man sich auf der Straße verständigen muss mit Leuten, die nicht Deutsch sprechen können. (No. 122 female high school student)

As a second most common explanation, both groups present in this study claim that they have positive attitudes towards English, are interested in the language and enjoy applying it. Slightly more vocational college students (11.2%) than high school students (10%) opted for this rationalization.

Mich interessiert Englisch sehr und ich spreche es gerne. (No. 38 female vocational college student)

Ich spreche/schreibe/lese Englisch lieber als Deutsch. Habe auch bessere Noten als in Deutsch...obwohl ich nichts lerne (ich lerne meistens durch den Zweikanalton bei ORF oder Bücher). (No. 143 female high school student)

Similar to the answers from question III_1 both student groups regard English proficiency as a requirement for a proper job. With reference to this answer both groups reach almost the same scores. Since the students' explanations are identical with those presented in question III_1 no additional statement will be provided.

As another reason, both student groups stress that they aim at studying English as much as possible since they want to be successful users of this language. This category includes fluency, the acquisition of a comprehensive vocabulary, the appropriate register in a given situation and good grades. Relatively more vocational college students (2.9%) than high school students (0.8%) give this explanation.

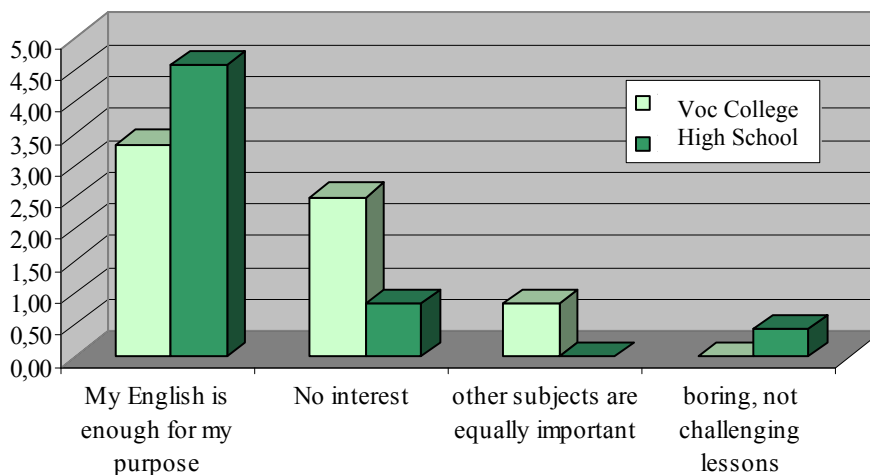
Es macht mir Freude, wenn ich mit einem Engländer spreche und mich mühelos und ohne stottern verständigen kann/mich mit ihm unterhalten kann. (No. 33 female vocational college student)

Weil ich in Englisch keine schlechten Noten haben will. (No. 149 male high school student)

6.3.1.4 Attitudes toward learning English – negative responses

Only 12.8 per cent of the total population disagree with this statement. As apparent from figure 4, four categories are sufficient to capture the students' responses. Since all students who insist that they do not want to study English as much as possible provided a written explanation, the category 'no answer given' is unnecessary.

Figure 4 Students' responses to item III_2 "I do not want to study English as much as possible"



The majority of the students explain that their command of English is sufficient for their purposes. More high school students (4.5%) than vocational college students (3.3%) do not intend to extend their knowledge of English. The following two examples describe why students argue in this manner.

Ich bin mit einem ausreichenden Vokabular und ausreichenden Grammatik Kenntnissen zufrieden. (No. 189 male high school student)

Ich brauche die Sprache zur Kommunikation, ich will nicht englischer Schriftsteller werden. (No. 2 female vocational college student)

In comparing the answers from the second most common response category “no interest”, relatively more vocational college students (2.5%) as high school students (0.8%) claim that they are not really willing to learn this foreign language. Interestingly enough, one student argues that

[w]eil ich mich mit der Sprache an sich nicht identifizieren kann. (No 10 female vocational college student)

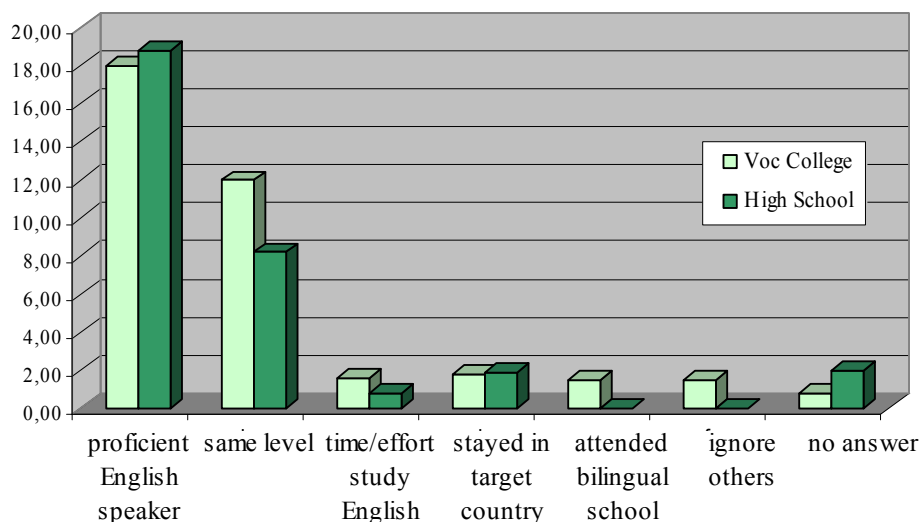
The student’s opinion towards English hints at a lack of integrative orientation (cf. chapter 3, motivation p. 24) According to Gardner (1985, 2001) students who cannot identify with the target language and culture will not attain high language achievement. This might, however not apply to the present context since no data on students’ grades have been collected.

A small fraction of vocational college students (0.8%) and none of the high school students indicates that all school subjects are equally important. For this reason they put no special emphasis on the study of English. In addition only high school students (0.4%) argue that they do not want to study English as much as possible since their English lessons are boring, uninteresting and tiresome or they performed poorly.

6.3.1.5 Classroom anxiety – negative responses

The wording of the final open-ended question differed from those of the previously presented two open-ended questions. This rather provocative statement in item III_3 “*I always feel that the other students speak better English than I do*” required students to elaborate on arguments that would weaken or confirm this assumption. In this case, students ticking the ‘does not apply’ box assumably feel less anxious about English classes than those ticking the other box. Concerning this question the category ‘no answer given’ had to be included (figure 5).

Figure 5 Students' responses to item III_3 "I do not feel that the other students speak English better than I do"



The majority of both student groups believe that they are proficient English speakers. The difference between high school students and vocational college students is minimal amounting to 0.8 per cent. Many students relate their proficiency in English to good grades.

Ich bin der Meinung, dass ich zu den Klassenbesten in Englisch gehöre, da ich immer nur sehr gute Arbeiten und Leistungen erbringe. (No. 52 female vocational college student)

Die Aussprache der meisten anderen ist schlecht und ich bin sehr gut in Englisch, allerdings war ich früher auf einer anderen Schule. (No. 230 female high school student)

Slightly more vocational college students (12%) than high school students (8.2%) say that the whole class has the same standard in English. Only a small fraction of both student groups claim that the statement does not apply since they put enough effort in studying English. Relatively more vocational college students (1.6%) than high school students (0.8%) have this opinion.

Ich lerne viel und finde meine Aussprache prima. Ich liebe Englisch also mache ich viel dafür um es besser zu können als andere. (No.76 female vocational school student)

In fact this student offers several reasons why this statement is not applicable for her. Positive attitudes towards the language can hereby definitely be seen as a motivating factor for high achievement.

6.3.1.6 Classroom anxiety – positive responses

The results presented in figure 6 clearly illustrate the different perceptions of vocational college and high school students. The largest share of vocational college students (7.4%) and high school students (5%) has the feeling that their classmates' performance in English is better than their own. Both student groups attribute their poor accomplishment in English to the absence of a feeling for the language, a lack of successful task fulfilment, or for reasons of dyslexia. Nevertheless, negatively worded responses do not necessarily indicate that the students are not fond of English, as can be seen in the following example.

Ich habe leider keinerlei Talente für Fremdsprachen, dennoch mag ich das Fach Englisch, weil es wichtig ist, aber auch nur solange ich eine gute Note habe. (No. 68 female vocational college student)

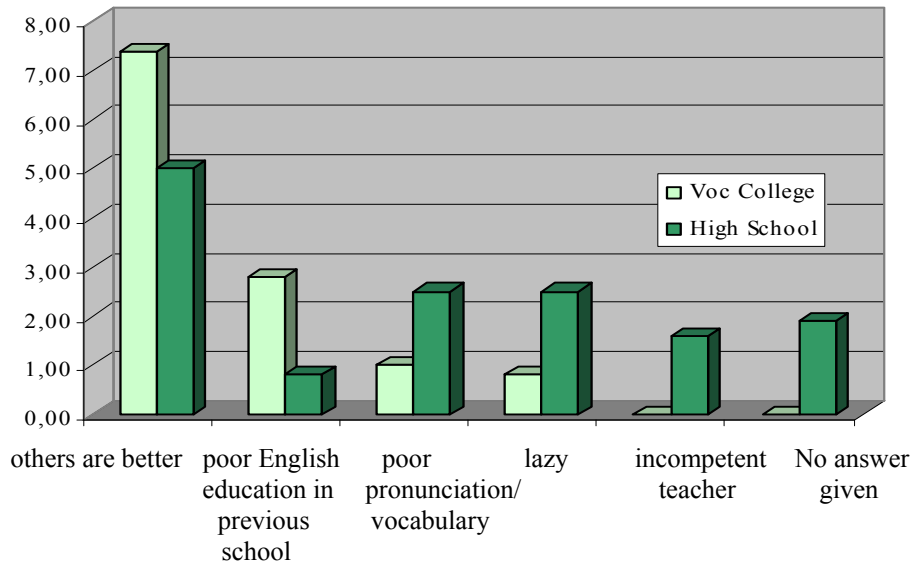
The responses indicate a correlation between classroom anxiety and previously attended school. More vocational college students (2.8 %) than high school students (0.8 %) relate their failure in English to prior schooling. Several of those students previously attended a 'Hauptschule' (lower comprehensive schools) and claim that they progress slower compared to their peers coming from high schools.

Da ich in der Hauptschule keine gute Englischlehrerin hatte und somit das Basiswissen fehlt. (No. 30 female vocational college student)

While vocational college students relate their poor performance stronger to previous schooling, high school students (1.6%) say that their 'incompetent teachers' in the present school are responsible for their low achievement.

High school students ticking the 'does apply' box relate their deficiencies in English more to their poor pronunciation, a limited range of vocabulary (2.5%) or to their own laziness (2.5%) than vocational college students. Among the vocational college students only 1.2 per cent state that their peers' pronunciation and their vocabulary skills are better than their own. A small proportion of vocational college students (0.8%) consider themselves as indolent English learners.

Figure 6 Students' responses to item III_3 "I always feel that the other students speak better English than I do"



6.3.2 Questionnaire part III – differences across grade levels

So far we got a first impression of students' perceptions towards the three open-ended questions. First responses of high school and vocational college students were compared. As a final analysis the open-ended responses are analysed across grade levels. Since the students used the same response categories as in the preceding section only significant differences will be presented. First we will look at the group of younger learners and older learners regardless of their school type. Secondly this analysis seeks to find out whether we find age-related differences within both school types.

6.3.2.1 Instrumental orientation – positive responses

We have previously seen that the investigated population's opinion (Table 24) towards item III_1 "My English lessons are a good preparation for my future" is very positive. However, it is quite striking that we obtain different results when comparing responses across grade levels. As apparent from table 25, the vast majority (94.2%) of the younger learners (group 1) from both schools agrees with this statement whereas a mere 59.3 per cent of the older learners (group 2) hold the same opinion. Although the responses vary considerably between the investigated grade levels the majority of both age groups holds a favourable attitude towards the item in question.

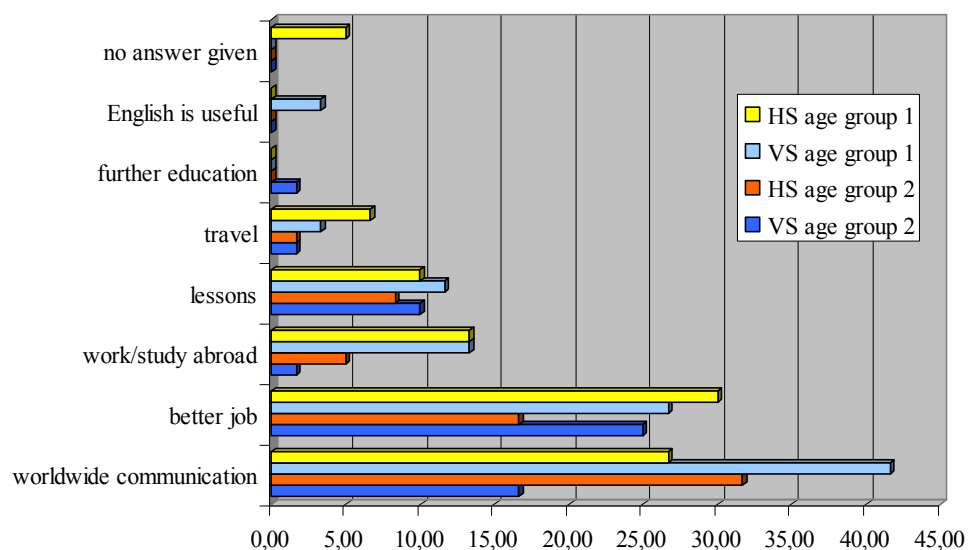
Table 25 Students' responses to item III_1 "My English lessons are a good preparation for my future"

My English lessons are a good preparation for my future	Does apply	Does not apply
Age group 1* (N=120)	94.2%	5.7%
Age group 2* (N=120)	59.3%	40.6%

* Age group 1= grade 9, Age group 2= grade 11

Initially the positively worded responses will be described in greater detail. The majority of the younger vocational college students (41.6%) stress that their English lessons prepare them for worldwide communication. Among the younger high school students 26.6 per cent opt for the same explanation. The largest share of the younger high school students amounting to 30 per cent emphasise that their English education at school improves their job opportunities after leaving school. It is interesting that younger high school learners relate their English lessons more to better prospective occupational opportunities than younger vocational college students even though we have obtained reversed results when comparing school types. When comparing the results from the older learners the data reveals that relatively more high school students (31.6%) than vocational college students (16.6%) consider their English lessons as a good preparation for communicating worldwide. The majority of the older vocational college students (24.9%) argue that their English education at school qualifies them for better jobs as opposed to 17 per cent of the older high school students (figure 7).

Figure 7 Older and younger learners' responses to item III_1 "My English lessons are a good preparation for my future"

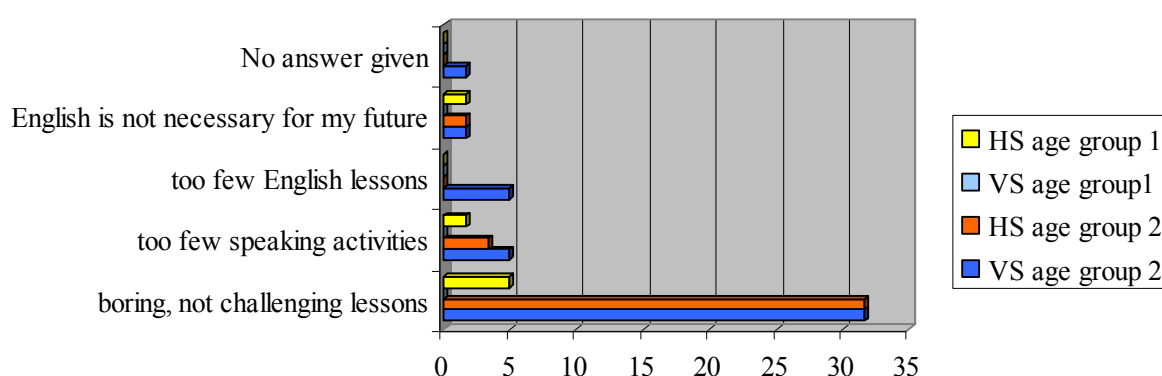


HS age group 1= High school students, grade 9, HS age group 2= High school students, grade 11,
 VS age group 1= Vocational college students, grade 9, VS age group 2=Vocational college students, grade 11.

6.1.1.2 Instrumental orientation – negative responses

After investigating the positively worded responses we will now turn to negatively worded ones. Figure 8 shows that none of the younger vocational college students believes that their English lessons are not a good preparation for their future. The majority of the students who disagree (5%), state that their English lessons are boring and not challenging enough. One young male high school student misses speaking activities and another young male high school student believes that English is not necessary for his future. Among the older learners 31.6 per cent attending both schools regard their English lessons as uninteresting, tiresome, boring and not challenging enough (figure 9).

Figure 9 Older and younger learners' responses to item III_1 "My English lessons are not a good preparation for my future"



HS age group 1= High school students, grade 9, HS age group 2= High school students, grade 11,
 VS age group 1= Vocational college students, grade 9, VS age group 2=Vocational college students, grade 11.

Apparently, students' opinions change with age. The older learners might be more experienced in their schooling and therefore analyse their English lessons more critically than younger learners. Other possible reasons will be looked at in the discussion section (see chapter 7, discussion, p. 82)

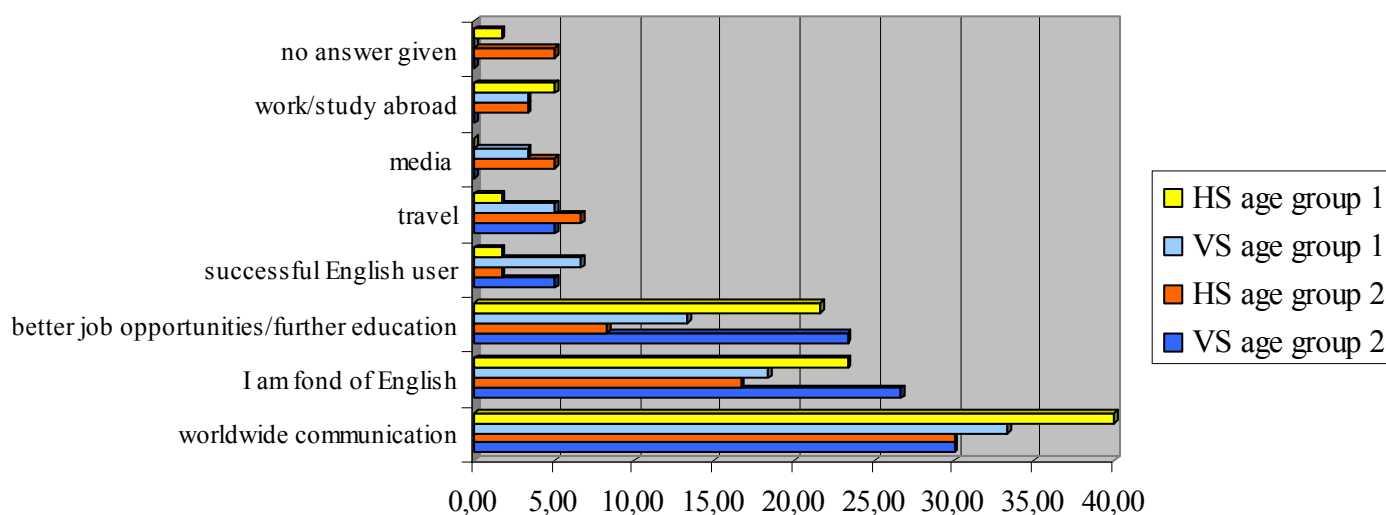
6.3.2.2 Attitudes towards learning English – positive responses

Students across both grade levels have very positive attitudes towards item III_2 "I want to learn English as much as possible". Slightly younger learners (89.1%) than older learners (83.3%) agree with this statement.

First the positively worded responses will be highlighted. It is interesting to note that most students from both grade levels regardless of their attended school want to learn English as much as possible in order to master worldwide communication. This is the

strongest reason for younger high school students (40%) to extend their knowledge in English. Also the majority of the younger vocational college students (33.3%) opt for this response. 30 per cent of both groups of the older learners state the same explanation. Relatively younger high school students (23.3%) than vocational college students (18.3%) enjoy studying English and therefore aim at a high language achievement. We obtain reversed results for the older learners. Whereas 26.6 per cent of the older vocational college students express this reason only 16.7 per cent of the older high school students choose the same response (figure 10).

Figure 10 Older and younger learners' response to item III_3 "I want to study English as much as possible"



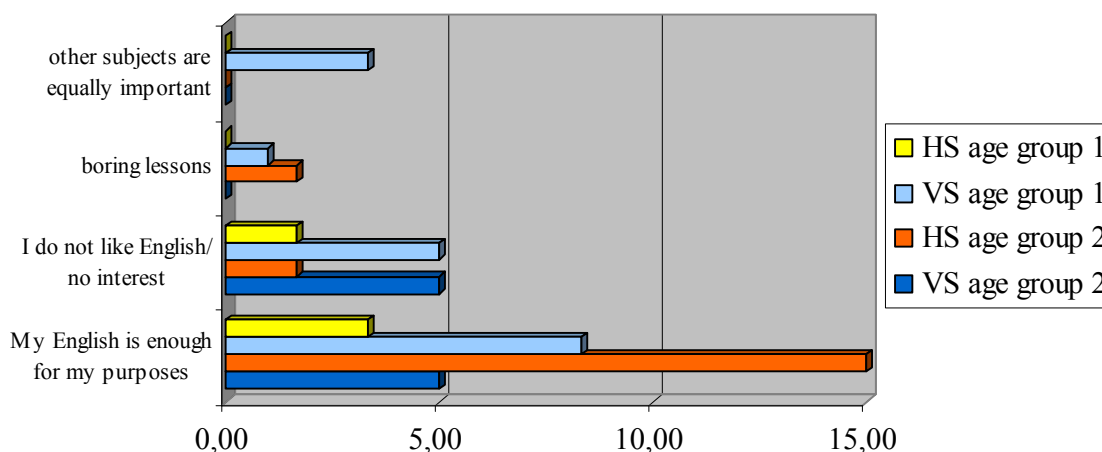
HS age group 1= High school students, grade 9, HS age group 2= High school students, grade 11,
 VS age group 1= Vocational college students, grade 9, VS age group 2=Vocational college students, grade 11.

It is eye-opening that 13.3 per cent of the younger vocational college students and 23.3 per cent of the older vocational college students believe that being an advanced English learner will increase job opportunities and ease further education. This finding clearly indicates that vocational college students' instrumental orientation increases throughout the years of study. Regarding the high school students, the figure shows a different picture. A considerable amount of younger high school learners (21.6%) argue in the same manner whereas only 8.3 per cent of the older high school students feel that learning as much English as possible will improve their job and further educational opportunities.

6.3.2.3 Attitudes towards learning English – negative responses

In total 14.9 per cent of all 240 learners (Table 26) disagree with the statement “*I want to study English as much as possible*”. Older learners (N=120) have more negatively oriented opinions (28.3%) towards this item than younger learners (22.6%). Interestingly students irrespective of their attended school state that they know enough English for their own purposes and therefore they do not want to invest a lot of time and effort into studying it. This finding is especially striking with regard to the older high school students of whom 15 per cent believe that they have sufficient English language skills. We obtain a reversed picture when looking at the vocational college students. 8.3 per cent of the younger learners and a mere 5 per cent of the older learners gave this explanation. What seems of interest is that relatively more vocational college students (both age groups 5%) as high school students (1.6%) claim that they are either not fond of English or they are not interested in the subject. Only older high school students (1.6%) and younger vocational college students (1%) relate their lack of motivation for learning English to poorly conducted lessons. Both figures are very small indicating that the majority of both student groups are satisfied with their English lessons. Only younger vocational college students (3.3%) consider that other subjects are equally vital and therefore they spend the same amount of time and effort for studying all subjects.

Figure 11 Older and younger learners’ response to item III_3 “*I do not want to study English as much as possible*”

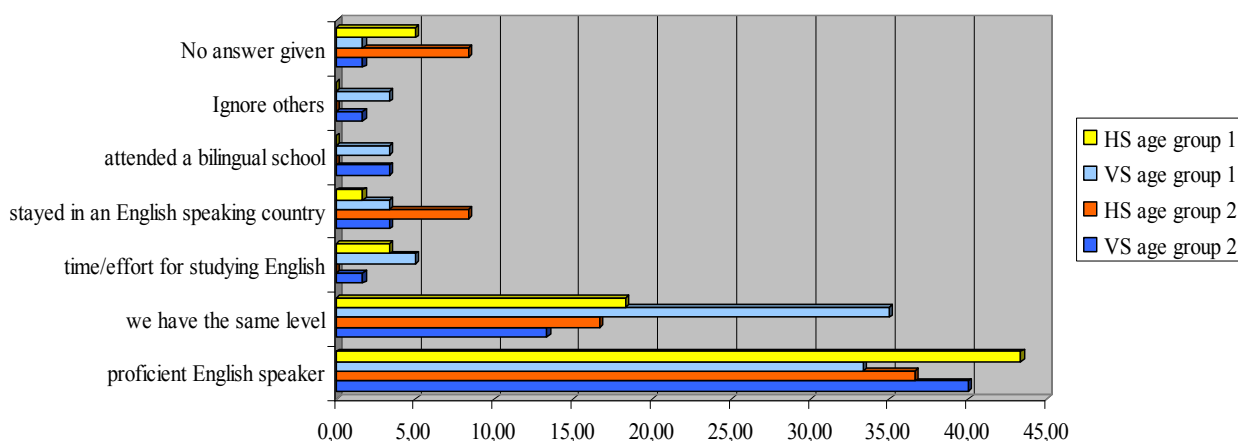


HS age group 1= High school students, grade 9, HS age group 2= High school students, grade 11,
 VS age group 1= Vocational college students, grade 9, VS age group 2=Vocational college students, grade 11

6.3.2.4 Class anxiety – negative responses

The majority of older learners believe that they are proficient and more successful English speakers than their classmates. Slightly older vocational college students (40%) as older high school students (36.6%) argue in this manner. Comparing responses of younger students, however, shows a different picture. 43.3 per cent of younger high school students and a mere 33 per cent of younger vocational college students consider themselves as better English speakers than their colleagues. The largest share of younger vocational college students (35%) stress that all classmates have the same level. In comparison a mere 16.6 per cent of younger high school learners believe that too. Among older learners slightly more high school students (16.6%) than vocational college students (13.3%) estimate that their peers have the same level (figure 12).

Figure 12 Older and younger learners' responses to item III_3 "I don't feel that my classmates speak better English than I do"



HS age group 1= High school students, grade 9, HS age group 2= High school students, grade 11,

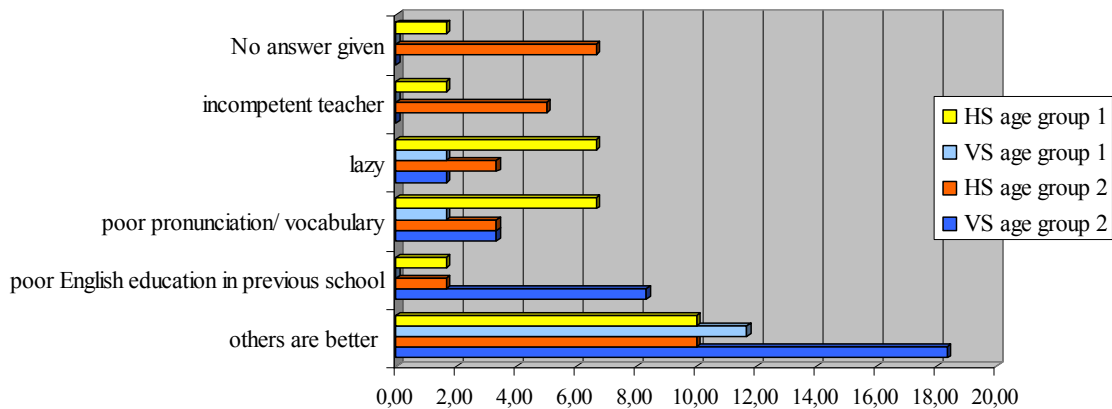
VS age group 1= Vocational college students, grade 9, VS age group 2=Vocational college students, grade 11

6.3.2.5 Class anxiety – positive responses

Finally we will look at the negatively worded responses. As apparent from figure 12 the majority of both age groups regard their classmates as better English speakers. 18.3 per cent of the older and 11.6 per cent of the younger vocational college students rate their performance in English less favourable than that of their peers. 10 per cent of both high school student groups state the same opinion. The majority of the students argue that poor grades decrease their confidence in using English. It is interesting that poor English

education in previous schooling is a strong factor for older vocational college students (8.3%) and to a lesser extent to high school students (both groups 1.6%). None of the younger vocational college students provided this explanation even though they have only attended the vocational college for half a year at the time of investigation (figure 13).

Figure 13 Older and younger learners' responses to item III_3 "I always feel that my classmates speak better English than I do"



HS age group 1= High school students, grade 9, HS age group 2= High school students, grade 11,
 VS age group 1= Vocational college students, grade 9, VS age group 2=Vocational college students, grade 11.

Analysing students' responses offers valuable insights into their perceptions of learning English. In general both student groups hold very positive attitudes towards the items "My English lessons are a good preparation for my future" and "I want to study English as much as possible." The data reveals that slightly more vocational college than high school students confirm both statements. Both student groups stress that their English lessons enable them for worldwide communication and their English skills improve their opportunities for working in better positions in Austria or abroad. Students who disagree with both statements argue that their lessons are boring, that their teacher offers too few speaking activities and some learners think that they do not have enough English lessons. 70 per cent of the total population (N=240) does not experience English classroom anxiety. The majority of both student groups consider themselves as proficient English speakers or they believe that everybody in their class has the same level. Slightly more high school students as vocational college students state that their classmates are better English speakers because of their poor grades, their previous schooling, their limited range of vocabulary and their own laziness.

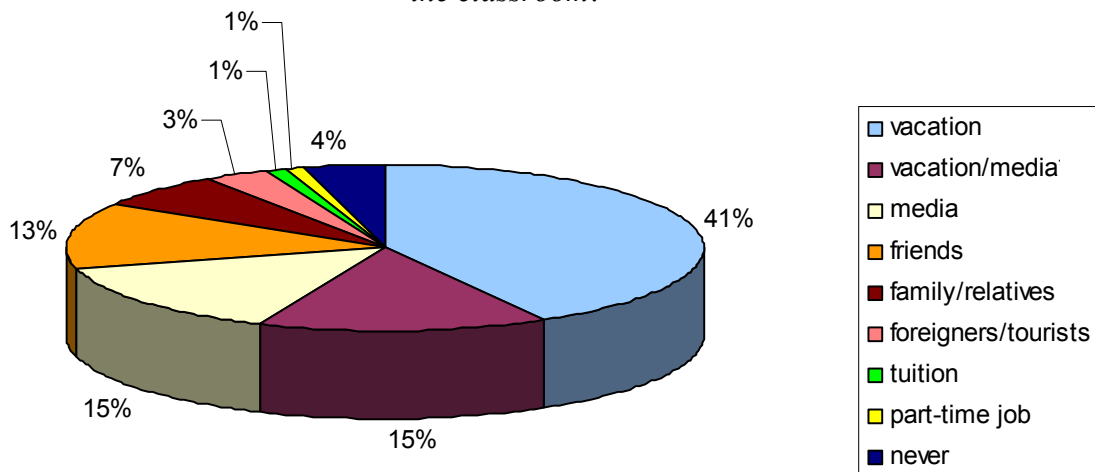
The most striking difference between the two age groups is that 94 per cent of the younger and a mere 59 per cent of the older learners believe that their English lessons are a

good preparation for their future. The majority of the older learners consider their English lessons as boring and not challenging enough. Another important finding shows that vocational college students' language anxiety increases as they advance to higher grades. The figures for the two high school age groups, however, remain stable.

6.4 Questionnaire part IV: Use of English outside school

Finally the factual question *“Where and when do you use English outside the classroom?”* aims at finding out in which domains students use English outside an educational institution. In total nine categories were created. The categories ‘vacation’, ‘tuition’ ‘part-time job’ and ‘never’ are self-explanatory, therefore additional information will only be provided for the remaining categories. The difference between the categories ‘vacation’ and ‘vacation/media’ is that in the former category students only wrote that they use English on holidays while the other category entails students’ use of English on holiday and for reading and watching media. In the ‘vacation/media’ category it is assumed that the students rank both categories as equally important. The category ‘media’ comprises the use of the internet, watching English TV programmes or DVDs, listening to English music and reading books and magazines in English. As far as the category ‘friends’ is concerned students state that they talk to friends who are native English speakers as well as to friends who are non native English speakers outside school. The category ‘family/relatives’ relates to two instances where English is used as a means of communication within the family. First of all it refers to family members who live in an English speaking country. Secondly, several students take pleasure in talking English with their siblings and parents who are not native English speakers. Multiple reasons account for the fact that students deliberately choose to communicate in English with their family. Some students consider it beneficial to use the foreign language more often in real life communication. Others explained that they tutor their younger siblings in English or stated that their parents are also English language learners. Even though ‘foreigners’ and ‘tourists’ are grouped together in one category they refer to different communicative situations. Communication with tourists is generally confined to giving directions. Unfortunately students did not state in which situations they talked in English to foreigners. The following pie chart illustrates the responses of the total population (figure 14).

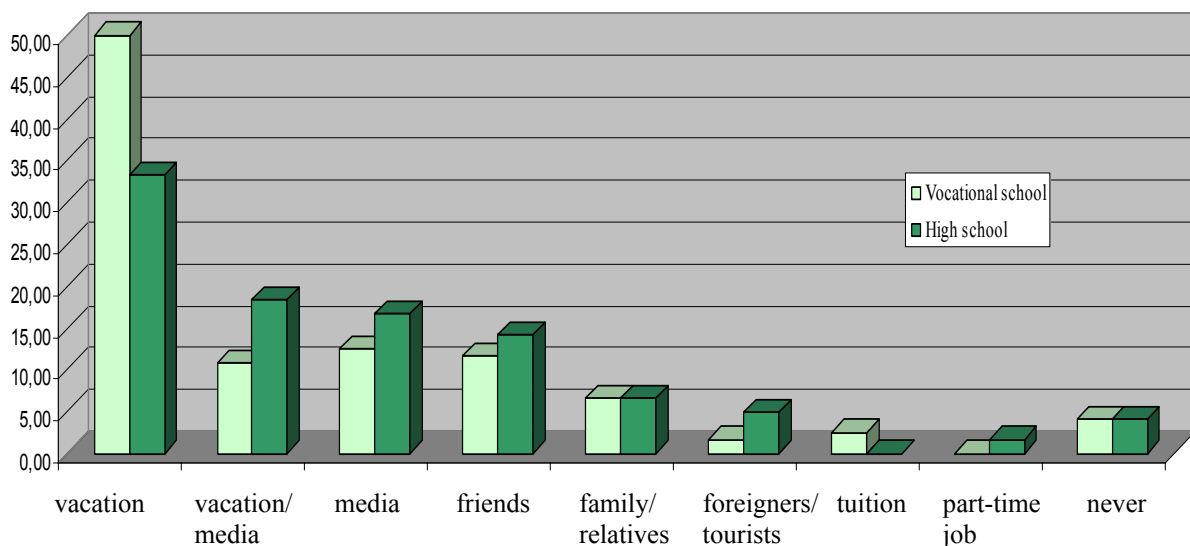
Figure 14: Students responses to Item IV_3 “Where and when do you use English outside the classroom?”



According to the data obtained, the majority of the students amounting to 41 per cent use English on vacation. Both categories ‘vacation/media’ and ‘media’ were mentioned by 15 per cent of the participants. 13 per cent indicated that they speak English with their friends.

Those results present students’ use of English outside the classroom context on a general level. In order to find out whether the responses of vocational college and high school students differ, additional analysis is carried out.

Figure 15 Students’ responses to Item IV_3 “Where and when do you use English outside the classroom?”



As apparent from figure 15 the largest share of both groups communicates in English on holidays. Relatively more vocational college students (50%) than high school students (30%) give this response. It seems that various reasons account for this difference. First of

all both schools have different school intakes. Students who want to attend the vocational college have to pass a placement test consisting of an evaluation of their grades and a personal interview with the headmaster. In interviewing the candidate the headmaster evaluates the candidate's rhetorical skills, his or her aims and why he or she has chosen this particular school. The high school, on the other hand, admits all students with a good average. Another reason might relate to a differing socio-economic background. Vocational college students need to have a private PC whereas the high school only recommends purchasing one. It is probable to assume that more parents of vocational college students and the students themselves can afford a vacation abroad. However, this notion remains an assumption since no information on the socio-economic background of the participants has been collected.

Regarding the categories 'vacation/media' and 'media' a breakdown of the figures shows that high school students score higher than vocational college students in both cases. We have previously seen that high school students have a more positive attitude towards reading and watching English media as vocational college students. Using English media in the classroom is stronger promoted in high schools as vocational colleges (see chapter 7. discussion p. 99). At the same time high school students might be more interested in reading and watching English content.

Quite a few students express that they use English with their friends. According to the data analysed, more high school students (14.1%) than vocational college students (11.6%) talk English with their friends. This might be due to the fact that more high school students than vocational college students have spent a semester or school year in an English speaking country. At this point it is important to note that communication in English outside the classroom context is not restricted to those who have English native speaking friends. Quite a few students from both school types reported that they enjoy exchanging information in English with their mates. One vocational college student even stressed that English is the language of the youth.

Additionally, 6.6 per cent of both student groups converse with their family and relatives in English. Approximately half of them have relatives living in an English speaking country, such as the US, Canada and Great Britain. The other half likes speaking English with their siblings and parents even though they are not English native speakers. Communicating with family members might be a good practice for authentic conversations with other non-native speakers.

The present analysis affirms that students use English most often while they are on holiday. Communicating in English can expand their language skills and might offer the students valuable insight into the target culture. Especially in teenagers' lives media plays an important role. Listening to song lyrics, surfing the internet, playing computer games, reading books and magazines and watching series and films on TV are typical leisure time activities. In the case of music and the internet English is the dominantly used means of communication. Several students have the opportunity to speak English with their friends and relatives. It is important to note that some pupils converse in English with their siblings, parents and friends even though they are not native speakers.

7. Discussion

The objective of the study was to find out more about teenagers' language attitudes and motivation to learn English. The questionnaire assessed three main issues: attitudes towards learning English, students' opinions of EFL at school and motivation to learn English. Each of the following three sections is subdivided into the variables school type, and age and partly into the variable gender. The findings of the present study are compared with past research in the field of language attitudes and L2/FL motivation.

7.1 Attitudes towards learning English

In general attitudes towards learning a foreign language are correlated with language achievement. It is assumed that learners with positive attitudes towards learning a FL will engage in the learning process, will enjoy acquiring new input, will accomplish tasks and therefore achieve more than learners with negative attitudes (Gardner 1985: 41).

7.1.1 Differing attitudes towards learning English across school types

In total 240 students participated in the questionnaire survey. In general the population has positive attitudes towards learning English. One statistically significant difference is found in item 3 "*I want to read English books in the original language not in the translation.*" Before we will look at this particular difference in greater detail some information on the other items (1, 3, 4) dealing with attitudes towards learning English will be given. 65.8 per cent of the participants (N=240) consider it as very important to communicate successfully in English when travelling to a European country. Students' attitudes towards reading newspapers and magazines in English are more positive than reading books in English.

Interestingly, more high school students enjoy reading books in English than vocational college students.

Which explanation can account for this difference? First of all students from both schools have access to books in English. They can purchase books in English book stores in Vienna or order them online via the internet. A drawback of buying English books in Austria is the relatively high price compared to German publications. Nevertheless interested students could purchase second hand books or borrow them from a local or school library to reduce costs. A more promising explanation for the different opinions of the student groups relates to the fact that high school students read more books in school than vocational college students. Reading books and magazines in the English lessons is an important part of high schools' curricula. Since high school students are more exposed to English media they might show a higher readiness to read English books.

One of the open-ended questions additionally addressed attitudes towards learning English. The responses from the students shed light on their reasons why they want to *learn English as much as possible* (cf. Table 27). Students' strongest motivation to become highly proficient English users is to be able to communicate worldwide. As a second most common response both student groups stress that they enjoy studying the language. On the third rank, both student sets emphasise that as a proficient English user your possibilities on the job market will increase. Even though only 12.8 per cent of the total population (N=240) disagree with the given statement; it is important to provide an analysis of their responses. The majority of both student groups claim that their knowledge of English is enough for their own purpose. In other words those students can communicate with non German speakers and are satisfied with their language skills. Several students of both schools explain that they are simply not interested in learning English or they do not need English for their future occupation.

7.1.2 Differing attitudes towards learning English across grade levels

Students' responses to item 4 "*I want to read newspapers and magazines in English*" differed with reference to grade level. The amount of older learners (45%) who claim that they enjoy reading English media is higher than that of younger learners (25.8%). Additional analysis of the data sets of older learners shows that more than half of the high school students (53.3%) strongly agree with this statement as opposed to 36.7 per cent of the vocational college students. Different findings are also yielded in item II_6 "*watching*

films and series in English". The majority of both age groups say that they sometimes watch English programmes. Nevertheless older learners have more positive attitudes towards watching English programmes than younger learners. Apparently, 33.3 per cent of the older learners indicate that they try to watch English programmes often compared to 21.7 per cent of the younger learners who claim the same. When comparing data sets of younger learners almost twice as many high school students (28.3%) as young vocational college students (15%) indicate that they watch English TV programmes often. The findings of the factual question "*Where and when do you use English outside school*" additionally emphasise high school students' stronger motivation to watch English media than vocational college students. Students' use of English media will be explored in a subsequent chapter (see 7.7 Functions of English outside the language classroom, p. 102).

Overall students' responses yield at two main findings: English media is preferred by older learners and high school students are more interested in English media as vocational college students. Initially the differences between the age groups will be treated and then the varying perceptions of older high school and vocational college students will be interpreted.

At the time of investigation, grade 9 students had studied English for five years compared to the older learners who had learned English for seven years. The older learners are more experienced English users and additionally they might have a wider range of vocabulary. Whenever they come across unknown words they might be more experienced in using dictionaries or guessing from context than younger learners. Moreover older learners will more often deal with newspaper articles and films in class compared to younger adolescents. They are familiar with the different genres. In addition teachers might encourage them to access free online publications of renowned English newspapers or borrow DVDs from the school library and exchange their information with classmates. Another fact that might have influenced the differing opinions is an increase in social, political and economic interests. Mature students might be more concerned about global, political and social trends and therefore consult international newspapers more frequently. English newspapers might be less attractive for younger learners for two reasons. First the articles are difficult to comprehend and secondly young teenagers might not be interested in politics, the job market and economic developments yet. Regarding English films schools might only have a very limited amount of DVDs consisting of classics such as Shakespeare's plays. The plot and the dialogues might be too challenging for grade 9 students.

The fact that older high school students enjoy reading and watching English media more than their vocational college colleagues could be related to classroom activities. It is very common in high schools that students subscribe to English newspapers. Usually those papers are produced especially for English language learners with explanatory vocabulary sections and slightly simplified articles from popular newspapers such as *The New York Times* or the *Guardian*. Ordering English newspapers for the whole class is less frequently done in vocational colleges. Rather, teachers purchase English newspapers and select certain articles for classroom use.⁶ In addition high school students regularly watch English movies at school as well as at cinemas. Vocational college students, on the other hand, rarely watch films or series in the original language.

Overall it seems that high school students are more often confronted with English media such as books, newspapers, magazines and films. They are accustomed to those genres and this might be the reason why they take greater pleasure in consuming English media than vocational college students.

7.1.3 Differing attitudes towards learning English across sexes

Boys' and girls' attitudes towards learning English differ considerably. Statistically significant differences are yielded in the following items:

- I'm an enthusiastic English learner. (item 11)
- Learning English is a waste of time (item 14)
- When I leave school, I will give up the study of English. (item 15)

Overall girls scored higher in all three instances indicating that they have more positive attitudes towards learning English than boys. Since positive attitudes towards learning English are said to relate to higher language achievement it might be the case that the investigated girls outperform their male classmates. This is, however, only an assumption since no data of students' language achievement in school was obtained. Two variables seem to be important concerning sex differences in language achievement: personality and motivation. Other studies (Freudenthaler *et al.* 2008) found that girls have a stronger motivation to receive good grades than their male counterparts. Apart from the trend that girls are more ambitious learners, studies (Jacobs *et al.* 2002) commonly reveal that girls are more intrinsically motivated for learning languages and boys for mathematics

⁶ This information has been obtained in a personal conversation with two English teachers from both schools to find out whether they deal with newspaper articles in class and whether their students subscribe to English newspapers.

(Freudenthaler et al. 2008: 233). Girls are said to perform better in every linguistic aspect such as speaking, reading, writing and listening (Powell 1979: 22).

Clark and Trafford (1995: 315) even assert that languages such as English are regarded as “traditionally female subjects”. Worrall and Tsarna (1987) found that English and French language teachers gave preference to girls over boys in a classroom context (MacIntyre et al. 2002: 542). In addition those educators assumed higher achievement for girls than boys (ibid: 542). Boyle (1987: 274) concludes that “teachers who think girls are better than boys in language, will spend more time on it with girls, and girls will probably live up to teachers’ expectations.” This might explain why the investigated boys in my empirical study are less enthusiastic language learners. A lack of teacher’s encouragement might also relate to the fact that fewer boys than girls intend to continue studying English after leaving school.

Wright (1999) who examined Irish adolescents learning French reported similar findings. He concludes that girls had more favourable attitudes towards learning and speaking this foreign language than their male peers. It seems that sex is a dominant predictor of students’ attitudes towards learning an FL. Therefore language teachers need to be aware of sex differences within their language classroom and they have to develop strategies to motivate and encourage boys in the same manner as they support girls.

7.2 Opinions of EFL at school

The socio-educational model stresses that attitudes towards the learning situation play a crucial part in the acquisition process of the language learner. Since Austrian pupils study English predominantly in a classroom context, it is important to investigate their opinions towards the learning situation. Students’ perceptions will have an impact on their attitudes towards learning the language in general. Gardner (1985, 2001) includes several variables that are present within the learning situation. Emphasis is put on the teacher, the teaching material, the variety of language related activities and the other class mates. The socio-educational model underlying the AMTB asserts that the learner’s attitudes towards those features will have an impact on their motivation and their orientation (Liuoliené & Metiuniené 2006: 94). Students who develop positive attitudes towards the learning situation will consider studying a language valuable and will put more effort in mastering the language. Although the AMTB provides a section for teacher and language course evaluation, the questions did not fit into my empirical study. They were too specific and

therefore I have created the additional category “opinions of EFL at school” featuring three items (6, 8-9). Those items are more language course related than teacher centred.

7.2.1 Opinions of EFL across school types

Overall both student groups are fond of their English lessons. Statistically significant differences are found with regard to school type and grade level in item 6 “*I think we have enough English lessons*”. When comparing school types more vocational college students than high school students strongly agree with this statement. An almost equal amount of both student groups agree with this statement. This finding is quite interesting when keeping in mind that the amount of English lessons per week varies according to the attended school. High school students have three English lessons whereas vocational college students have only two. I had previously assumed that vocational college students may express that they would like to have more English lessons. Results, however, show a different picture indicating that vocational college students consider the amount of English lessons as sufficient. One possible explanation is that vocational college students are obliged to study more foreign languages than high school students. Foreign language learning is an important feature within the curriculum of this vocational college. This is clearly reflected by three compulsory taught foreign languages amounting to six lessons per week. High school students, on the other hand, can choose their educational branch and thus deliberately decide how many foreign languages they intend to study. Another issue that might clarify the different opinions relates to students’ workload. On average vocational college students spend 37 hour in school whereas high school students have a 32-hour week. It would be unacceptable to increase vocational college students’ workload as they have to work on school projects also in their free time. The great amount of weekly lessons might explain why vocational college students’ learning capacities are exhausted and therefore they do not want to have even more English lessons.

Another question evaluating EFL at school asked students to identify how much they liked English compared to other subjects. The vast majority of both schools states that they like English more than their other subjects (cf. chapter 6. results, 6.2.1 p. 57). Nevertheless the second most common answer chosen by both groups indicates that students favour other subjects over English. The evaluation of English at school needs to be seen in direct connection to the teaching situation. Apparently some student groups are more satisfied with their English teacher and the provided material than others. Apart from this finding,

issues such as individual learner differences should not be disregarded as they might account for the fact that many students prefer other subjects than English.

An additional item evaluated the quality of the FL teaching. The open-ended question "*English lessons are a good preparation for my future*" tried to assess students' opinions towards their English classes. Students' qualitative descriptions reveal that they use the same explanations for the first two open-ended questions even though they address two different issues. Apparently the investigated population does not differentiate between instrumental orientation and attitudes towards learning English in this case. Since the answers between the two statements are so similar only the negatively worded responses will be treated in greater detail. 22.9 per cent of the total population (N=240) does not consider their *English lessons as a good preparation for their future*. The majority of both student groups claim that their English lessons lack quality. In other words they consider them as boring, not appropriate and not challenging enough. An equal amount of high school and vocational college students criticise that they do not have the opportunity to practice their oral skills in class often enough.

This finding that students consider their English lessons as inappropriate and tiresome is an important issue in many studies that investigate demotivating factors (Tsuchiya 2004, Hasegawa 2004, Ikeno 2002, Arai 2004) within the language classroom. Hasegawa (2004: 135) asked Japanese junior and senior high school students about general attitudes towards learning English and demotivating factors they have experienced in the language classroom. She found that students considered the teacher and his teaching style as the most demotivating factors. In another study (Arai 2004) Japanese university students, majoring in English gave an account of their negative experiences in an FL context. The most influential demotivating feature was the teacher and his or her personality followed by boring or monotonously conducted classes (Arai 2004 referred to in Sakai, Kikuchi 2009: 60). Even though the responses from Japanese high school and university students cannot be equated with our Austrian pupils, they still shed light on the fact why students are not satisfied with their English lessons. Those findings in Japanese studies as well as in my own empirical research stress a necessity for teachers to obtain feedback from their learners. While it might be impossible for an educator to change his or her personality, language lessons can definitely be improved by using different teaching methods and materials.

7.2.2 Opinions of EFL across grade levels

The analysis revealed that relatively more young learners consider the amount of their English lessons sufficient as opposed to the opinion from older learners. A breakdown of figures shows that 45 per cent of younger students attending both schools are satisfied with the number of provided English lessons. The majority of the older learners (30.8%) only partly agree with this statement. Younger and older learners also evaluate the quality of their English lessons differently. While 94.2 per cent of the younger learners regard their *English lessons as a good preparation for their future* a mere 59.3 per cent of the older learners do the same. Experience might play a role in the differing perceptions of the two age groups. Younger learners, especially vocational college students who need to accustom to a new school and an increased workload might be working at their full capacity. Requirements increase also from lower secondary to upper secondary grades in high schools. In addition younger learners might not question and evaluate English lessons as critically as older experienced learners. English skills are more important for advanced grade 11 students as they will soon take their 'Matura (school leaving exam). Apart from passing the written and/or oral exam in English they will judge the quality and purposefulness of their English lessons in relation to their future job opportunities or further education. Companies as well as university courses often require proficient English skills. Several students might also take English language certificates such as the TOEFL to increase their opportunities on the job market or to meet entrance requirements for university institutions.

This finding that younger learners generally have more positive attitudes towards school and specific subjects than advanced students is present in many studies (Davis & Brember 2001, 1994, Haldyna & Thomas 1979). Evidently, a negative correlation exists between students' attitudes and their years of study (Heining-Boynton & Haitema 2007:152). Advanced learners have more experience with institutional education and in addition they might have clearer perceptions of their occupational future than younger learners.

Regarding the present study, older students might evaluate their knowledge in English more critically than less experienced learners. This might explain why advanced learners want to extend their knowledge in English and therefore demand more English lessons. As far as the quality of the English lessons is concerned teachers should carry out a needs analysis with their learners. Motivation to learn English increases if the course

relates to the learners' environment and their ultimate learning goals. Preparation classes for external language certificates, rehearsals of future job interviews or communication moves of business meetings might be purposeful activities for FL learners.

7.2.3 Opinions of EFL across sexes

Boys' and girls' opinions of EFL are very favourable. The data did not reveal any statistically significant differences. Girls (77%) are slightly more convinced than boys (75%) that their *English lessons are a good preparation for their future*. Even though the number of boys and girls disagreeing with the statement is equally low, their written explanations differ. The majority of the girls claim that their English lessons lack quality whereas the largest share of the boys express having difficulties to cooperate with the language teacher. Girls tend to criticise the teaching material and the employed methods. It appears that collaboration between language teachers and female students cause fewer conflicts. Several reasons might account for this difference. First of all we observe that languages as well as other non-technical subjects are predominantly taught by women in both school types. Boys often lack male role models and male authorities in their schools. Puberty might cause even more difficulties for boys to get along with their female teachers than for girls. On a more speculative note female teachers might favour girls over boys as they are more motivated language learners and generally behave in a more agreeable way in the classroom (cf. Freudenthaler et al. 2008). In both schools there is a clear majority of female students. It is thus probable to assume that language teachers tend to offer articles or books that are more appealing to girls than to the male minority. Those reasons might explain why slightly more boys disagree with the statement as girls.

7.3 Integrative orientation

Integrativeness which comprises integrative orientation in Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model is a key element within L2 motivation research. As previously mentioned (cf. chapter 3. motivation), integrative orientation refers to a psychological and emotional identification with the language community (Kormos & Csizér 2008: 329). If the L2 community is not present in the student's learning environment, identification rather relates to the values attached to the language (Dörnyei 1990) than to the language community. At the same time findings of numerous studies (Clément, Dörnyei & Noels 1994, Shaaban & Ghaith 2000, Wen 1997) capture that integrativeness is an important predictor for students' motivated behaviour and as a consequence an indicator for

achievement in the FL. While those findings are still partly valid, the original framework of integrativeness may no longer be applicable for a European context. Nowadays the majority of the students study a FL in order to communicate with other non-native speakers on an international basis (Kormos & Csizér 2008: 330). In this sense, English plays an important role as an international language used by numerous speakers as a lingua franca in a rapidly changing, globalizing world (Crystal 2003). In his theoretical approach Gardner (1985) asserts that language learners' identification with native speakers of the target language will positively influence motivation and consequently the learning achievement. However, for the vast amount of FL learners today, integrativeness does no longer play an important role. Those learners want to be proficient speakers of a common foreign language with the intention of exchanging information with other non-native speakers (Kormos & Csizér 2008: 330).

This finding is also present in my study. Apparently students treated issues concerning instrumental and integrative orientation interchangeably. Other studies (Kimura, Nakata & Okumura 2001, Lamb 2004) reveal that especially with the subject English it is intricate to differentiate instrumentality from integrative orientation. I agree with Lamb (2004: 15) who asserts that “meeting with westerners, using pop-songs, studying and travelling abroad, pursuing a desirable career – all these aspirations are associated with each other.”

7.3.1 Students' integrative orientation across school types

Students from both schools have very positive attitudes towards the two items assessing integrative orientation. 62.5 per cent of the total population (N=240) strongly agrees with item 16 “*Studying English can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people*”. Half of the total sample (50.1%) has rather positive (comprising the categories ‘agree’, ‘partly agree’) attitudes towards item 5 “*I enjoy meeting people who speak another language.*” A breakdown of the figures revealed that vocational college students have slightly more favourable attitudes towards both items than high school students. Concerning item 5, vocational college students might have more possibilities to use English as their high school mates. Both student groups come from urban centres, so demography does not account for the different students' perceptions. Students' responses to the factual question “*Where and when do you use English outside school*” offer more promising explanations (see section 7.7. Functions of English outside the language classroom). 50 per cent of the vocational college students and 30 per cent of

the high school students use English on their holidays. This great difference suggests that more vocational college students travel abroad and therefore have more opportunities to converse with different mother-tongue speakers. In addition vocational college students are obliged to do a four-week practicum in the fashion or product management industry between grade 11 and 12. Especially in fashion industry many companies employ foreign designers from France and Italy. Usually trainees get to know all different departments of a company. Their task fulfilment clearly involves communicating in English with people who speak different mother tongues.

Whether students enjoy speaking to foreigners greatly depends on their own personality. Differences are too minimal for estimating that vocational college students are more open-minded and more interested in meeting new people as high school students.

7.3.2 Students' integrative orientation across sexes

Attitudes towards learning English as well as integrative orientation differ between girls and boys. Girls have more positive attitudes towards meeting people with different mother tongues than boys. The most promising explanation for this difference lies in the realm of personality. Presumably girls are more open-minded, have a higher willingness to communicate and are curious to converse with varied people. When observing teenage girls it becomes quite obvious that they are very talkative. Boys might share information with their close friends but might be too shy to start a conversation with a foreigner. Shyness definitely reduces the possibility to communicate in English with new people. This finding is also present in studies focussing on the potential differences between French immersion and nonimmersion students (Bardwick 1971, Gillian 1982, Baker & MacIntyre 2000). Not surprisingly immersion students indicate a higher willingness to communicate in their FL than nonimmersion students. Further analysis revealed that female students from both school programmes use the opportunity to communicate in their L2 more often than males (Baker & MacIntyre 2000) Baker and MacIntyre (2000) conclude that males are less socially oriented than their female peers. Even though the context of my empirical study differs from that of Baker and MacIntyre (2000) this finding might be applicable to my participants as well.

Bearing in mind that integratively motivated learning behaviour might promote higher language achievement parents and teachers should especially encourage boys to

practice their language skills more often in informal situations outside the classroom context.

7.4 Instrumental orientation

Originally instrumental orientation referred to the pragmatic profit of learning a foreign language. However as Lamb (2004) has pointed out instrumental and integrative orientation might not be seen as two different entities, but as connected concepts (see previous section).

7.4.1 Students' instrumental orientation across school types

Students from both schools scored high in all six items dealing with instrumental orientation. As apparent from the analysed data (see chapter 6. results, table 4 p. 51), vocational college students show a higher instrumental orientation than high school students with regard to item 17 "*Studying English is important for my future career*". This finding is not surprising as the educational aims of both investigated school types differ considerably. High schools offer a more general education whereas vocational colleges provide specialised training programmes in certain occupational fields. In the present study the vocational college' educational branches focus on fashion and design and product management and presentation. The content of English lessons is business-oriented and deals with economic issues. They are meant as a preparation for successful communication within the future workplace. In addition the teaching material differs between the two investigated schools. The high school uses "Meaning in Use" and "Make your Way Ahead" whereas the vocational college uses "Focus on Modern Business".

In order to see whether the instrumental orientations of the investigated high school and vocational college students are typical of all Austrian pupils attending the two different school types of secondary education, an annual statistical report was consulted. The 'Statistik Austria' published a report 'Bildung in Zahlen 2007/08' (statistics for Austrian education in 2007/08) in February 2009. In 2006 47.4 per cent of students taking the 'Matura' (school leaving exam) started within the next three months after their graduation to study at an Austrian university institution. The difference between graduates from high schools and vocational colleges is striking: 70.1 per cent of high school graduates started an education at university compared to 31.6 per cent of vocational college graduates. However, no data has been collected to account for those graduates who started studying at

a later period in time. The data was also analysed according to previously attended school type of Austrian university students. The cohorts of students who started a university degree in 2007/08 indicated that 41.1 per cent attended a high school prior to enrolling in a subject of study. In this sense former high school students comprise the largest share of Austrian university students. In comparison, approximately one fourth (25.8%) of former vocational college students opted for a university degree.

This broad database of the ‘Bildung in Zahlen 2007/08’ report allows generalisations which are very difficult to make on the basis of my present study. Overall it can be said that vocational colleges train their students for an immediate occupational career after leaving school whereas high schools’ education aims at preparing their students for tertiary education at a university. Presumably students’ motivation to attend a high school or a vocational college differs. Graduates from vocational colleges have two options; they can either work in their field of expertise or continue with tertiary education. High school graduates, in contrast usually face great difficulty in finding a decent job immediately after finishing school. Their education is very broad and they do not have any practical, professional training. This might explain why high school students participating in the present study are not certain in which occupational field they are going to work after they have finished school. The nationwide obtained data and the results from my present study suggest that vocational college students have clear expectations of their future careers, are highly trained and do not necessarily need an additional tertiary education.

7.4.2 Students’ instrumental orientation across sexes

Opinions of girls and boys differ regarding item 24 *“I would like to work/study in GB/ the US and therefore I need English”* In general boys are more negative about working or studying in an English speaking country than girls. Two possible reasons might account for the difference. First girls and boys might have different expectations of their lives and secondly genders might be treated differently within society and especially in a school context. As aforementioned girls are more motivated English learners and one of their ultimate goals might be studying or working in an English speaking country. Several organisations offering language learning programmes realised that girls might be more potential customers than boys. Organisations such as EF, SFA or Au pair programmes by companies such as AuPair for You, STS, SFA and EF clearly address female customers. Their programmes and courses might be more appealing for girls than boys. The second reason relates to different ways of treating boys and girls in school. According to Worrall

and Tsarna (1987), English and French language teachers offer girls more support and academic advice than boys. Moreover they found that girls obtain more career encouragement than their male peers (McIntyre 2002: 542). It can, however, not be verified whether this finding does apply to my empirical study since no teacher interviews were conducted. Still, it might give reasons why boys are not as enthusiastic English learners as girls. Language teachers need to evaluate their own teaching styles and try to offer both genders equal opportunities to develop into proficient English speakers. Language teachers should actively promote language course programmes for both sexes.

7.5 Attitudes towards English speaking countries

Two items of the questionnaire focused on students' attitudes towards native English speakers. Gardner (1985) proposes that positive attitudes towards the target community, in this case English speaking countries, will enhance the willingness for intercultural communication. Spolsky (1969: 274) argues that “[o]ne of the most important attitudinal factors is the attitude of the learner to the language and to its speakers”. In the context of a ‘global community’ speakers might also be bi- or multilinguals.

7.5.1 Attitudes towards English speaking countries across school types

The analysed data shows that both student groups have favourable attitudes towards people from English speaking countries. Still high school students' perception towards native English speakers is more positive (39.2%) as that of vocational college students (28.3%). One possible explanation might lie in the realm of how English is taught. Since 2008 the Austrian school syllabus for foreign languages has been altered according to the Common European Framework of Reference. This scholastic innovation concerns high schools as well as vocational colleges. The objectives are identical concerning the four skills: speaking, listening, writing and reading. Even though both curricula emphasise the cultural study of English speaking countries, their ultimate aims vary. The syllabus of vocational colleges sets forth that students should be able to deal with political, social and cultural topics mainly focusing on English speaking countries. Furthermore they should be aware of their own identity and show respect to people with a different cultural background. The immediate goal for the students is to be able to communicate in the home country and abroad.⁷ The syllabus of high schools also stresses the acquisition of intercultural

⁷ Bildungsstandards in der Berufsbildung. Englisch 13. Schulstufe
<http://www.berufsbildendeschulen.at/fileadmin/content/bbs/AGBroschueren/Englisch.pdf> (25 June 2009)

competence; however, they define their aims with reference to English speaking countries more precisely. According to their syllabus students will acquire

[e]inige Entwicklungslinien in der angelsächsischen Welt von den Anfängen bis zur Gegenwart, soweit diese wichtigen Beiträge zur geistigen, kulturellen, politischen, sozialen und wirtschaftlichen Situation der Gegenwart geleistet haben.⁸

In this sense high school students might have a greater knowledge of historical, cultural and social developments of English speaking countries than vocational college students. Furthermore high school pupils have had more contact with native speakers as they are regularly taught by a female American native speaker. The vocational college in contrast does not offer English lessons conducted by a native speaker. Moreover the high school organises language courses in English speaking countries for grade 11 high school students for a period of two weeks. Grade 11 vocational college students, on the other hand, spend only one week learning English in a language centre abroad.⁹ It seems reasonable to assume that high school students are more often faced with topics dealing with English speaking countries and people coming from English speaking countries and therefore they have more positive attitudes towards them than vocational college students.

7.6 Motivational intensity

Motivation is a crucial factor when it comes to language learning. Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) Process Model of L2 motivation (cf. chapter 3 motivation, p. 13) stresses the changing nature of students' motivation in the process of language learning. In other words the learners' motivation might not remain stable throughout the learning period and might fluctuate from one extreme to the other. Several factors such as classroom anxiety, previous learning experiences and poor performance can negatively influence student's motivation to learn English.

7.6.1 Students' motivational intensity across school types

With regard to the present study vocational college students describe their effort invested in learning English differently than high school students. The majority of both groups

⁸ Englisch Bildungs- und Lehraufgaben. Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kultur und Kunst http://www.bmukk.gv.at/medienpool/7026/Englisch2_OST.pdf (25 June 2009)

⁹ Information has been obtained in a personal conversation with two English teachers from both schools.

really endeavour to learn English. However, there is only a slight difference between the amount of high school students who ticked this answer option and those students claiming that they succeed on the basis of intelligence or luck without much studying. Vocational college students seem to be more ambitious English learners than high school students. There are several factors that could account for the varying findings between the two groups such as personal interest, differing requirements in class, peer pressure concerning grades to name but a few.

Another difference between school types concerns watching English movies and series. Here high school students score much higher than vocational college students (cf. chapter 6. results, 6.2.1. p. 57). Admittedly the majority of both groups stated that they would sometimes watch those programmes. However, the number of high school students consuming English TV or films occasionally or often is greater than that of vocational college students. Similar to the findings concerning English print media, high school students might be more experienced consumers than their vocational college colleagues. Watching English films and going to an English cinema as part of the language teaching is a common practice in high schools and to a lesser extent in vocational colleges.

The third open-ended question dealt with English classroom anxiety. Results revealed that approximately 30 per cent of the total population (N=240) believe that their classmates speak English better than they do (cf. 6.3.1.6 Classroom anxiety – differences across school types p. 22). Relatively more vocational college students than high school students consider their classmates as better English speakers. Several factors might be responsible for students' critical perception of their own performance. Many students stress that their grades are average or lower. Poor performance can increase students' language anxiety. Past research emphasises a correlation between language anxiety and students' course grades (Adia 1994, Horwitz et al. 1986). Saito and Samimy (1996 quoted in Wang 2005: 21ff) investigated American university students learning Japanese at three instructional levels (beginning, intermediate and advanced) in order to gather more information about the interrelatedness of language anxiety and students' language performance. They found that language anxiety proved to be the best predictor for students' course grades studying Japanese at intermediate and advanced levels (ibid: 22).

Quite a few students in the present study say that others are better English speakers without giving any additional information. On a more speculative note those

students might perceive their competence in the target language as very poor even though their perception might not correspond to their actual competence. They might be very critical about their own competence and therefore rate it less favourably than it is perceived by others such as the teacher. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) asked students to assess their oral performance. At the same time a neutral observer rated their English language skills. Taking students' self-assessment and the observer's evaluation together they obtained different opinions. They conclude that students rate their skills less positively than the observer.

7.6.2 Students' motivational intensity across grade levels

Classroom anxiety is a stronger demotivating factor for both vocational college student groups than high school student groups. Among both grades of the vocational college, most students stress that their performance on tests and exams is poorer than that of their peers. Only 10 per cent of the high school students refer to grades as a reason for considering their classmates as more proficient English speakers.

For vocational college students it seems that language anxiety has increased with the years of study. While results are consistent among high school students they differ considerably among vocational college students. Slightly less than twice as many advanced vocational college students as younger vocational college students regard their classmates as better English speakers. While the majority of them say that they ticked the 'does apply' box because of their poor language performance on tests and exams not all of them link class anxiety to course grades. Some students only claim that their mates are better English speakers without giving further explanation. It is probable to assume that those learners might have speech anxiety, might be afraid of negative evaluation, or might have negative attitudes towards their English course and classroom procedures. In addition advanced learners might have higher expectations on their own language skills than less experienced learners. Requirements for grade 9 and grade 11 students differ as well. The curriculum for grade 9 in vocational colleges mainly contains a repetition of previously learned tenses and vocabulary. Students might therefore consider their English lessons as less anxiety-provoking. Older learners, on the other hand, might be expected to brush up their grammar and spelling skills on their own as lessons deal with other issues such as preparing students for the school leaving exam. All those factors would explain why they feel less competent and comfortable in speaking English than their younger mates. This finding is consistent with other studies indicating (Saito & Samimy 1996 quoted in Wang 2005: 21ff) that older

experienced learners of a FL feel more language anxiety than learners who have just started studying it. Foreign language anxiety is a serious problem as it negatively influences students' learning process. Keeping this fact in mind teachers should aim at creating a welcoming, non-threatening atmosphere in the classroom. Moreover alternative assessment methods such as portfolios might be less anxiety-provoking as traditional test types. Finally teachers should familiarise their students with various effective learning strategies as they might help to reduce language anxiety.

7.6.3 Students' motivational intensity across sexes

Motivation clearly differs between the genders. The finding that girls are more ambitious and motivated English learners than boys is consistent throughout the study. While the majority of girls say that they invest a lot of effort into studying the language, the largest share of boys claim that they pass because they are intelligent or have luck. Besides the reason given (see section 7.1.3) the different opinions could also reflect prototypical self-image of boys' and girls' behaviour. In other words students' attitudes towards their learning effort might not correspond to their actual behaviour. Especially boys do not want to be associated with a 'go-getting attitude' which is incompatible with the 'cool' boys' peer culture. Probably they do not consider it very masculine to study a lot. Girls' gender-specific peer culture, on the other hand, promotes ambitiousness and good school performance. Other studies found that boys might not be fully accepted in a male peer community if they do extremely well in school, whereas girls can be both 'cool' and ambitious learners (cf. Warrington, Younger & Williams 2000).

Those findings clearly yield at different attitudes in peer cultures. To a certain degree girls' and boys' behaviour corresponds to societal stereotypes. Girls are preferably pictured as ambitious, nice and sociable pupils whereas boys tend to be seen as strong-willed, more aggressive and less motivated in achieving good grades. Teachers need to be very sensitive about such clichés and show respect to boys and girls.

One question tackled whether students would speak English outside school if the opportunity arises. Characteristically for gender differences, girls' motivation to speak English occasionally in their free time is much higher than that of boys. Most males stated that they only use English if they have no other alternative. A possible explanation for this difference refers to girls' and boys' varying degrees of language anxiety and their willingness to communicate. Developmental psychology found that adolescents' self-

consciousness rises at the beginning of puberty (cf. Sigelman 1999). On average, girls reach puberty at the age of 12 and 13 years whereas puberty for boys starts at between 13.5 and 14 years of age (MacIntyre et al. 2002: 557). Supposedly grade 9 girls in the present study have already lived through the peak of puberty including a high degree of anxiety and therefore they might be less anxious to communicate in English outside the classroom than their male peers.

When comparing attitudes of female high school and vocational college students interesting results have been obtained. Evidently female high school students have much more positive opinions towards communicating in English outside the classroom context than vocational college students. Probably female high school students feel more confident at speaking English since they have more time to practice it in the language classroom than vocational college students. Admittedly individual learner differences can also account for the varying findings.

7.7 Functions of English outside the language classroom

The previously described sociolinguistic profile (see chapter 4. Functions of English within a European context, p. 38) captures the main functions that English fulfils for non-native speakers in Europe and Asia. Apparently students' responses when they use English outside the school are in concordance with this profile.

The majority of the students speak English outside an institutional context when they are on vacation. Several students expressed that they use English for communicating with hotel employees, waiters, as well as with other tourists. The respondents believe that English is the global lingua franca and they stress that they consider it as impolite and inappropriate to assume that people working in foreign holiday destinations speak German. The finding that more vocational college students (50%) as high school students (30%) use English on vacation might yield at different socio-economic backgrounds (see chapter 6. results, p. 80).

English media plays an important role for the present student group. The results indicate that high school students use English media even more than vocational college students. It has been previously explained that high school students read more English books and watch more English movies at school compared to their vocational college mates. Probably this fact explicates why more high school students have more frequent contact with English media. Another possible explanation relates to greater amount of male high school students as male vocational college students and their preference for playing

computer games. Many high school boys claim that computer games which can be freely downloaded from the internet are mainly in English. Male vocational college students, on the other hand, did not state that they play English computer games.

Overall, students' extensive use of English media is a prominent finding in other studies as well (Erling 2007, Hyrkstedt & Kalaja 1998, Hilgendorf 2007). James (2000: 24) even claims that "the most impact that English makes on European life is undoubtedly via its presence in the public domains of the media, including the internet, advertising, many forms of popular youth culture and popular entertainment". Learners of English thus not only encounter English in the classroom, they are confronted with English on the radio, billboards, TV shows and while they are surfing the internet. Maïke Grau (2009) investigated German pupils' use of English outside school and additionally wanted to find out whether this contact had an impact on the learning process of the students. She concludes that although her participants had extensive contact with English outside the educational context this contact did not influence their way of studying English at school. Apparently students made a distinction between *Schulenglisch* (the English learned at school) and the English they used outside the classroom (Grau 2009: 171). In other words they did not relate their language performance at school to the exposure to English outside the classroom. It would, however, be very motivating and rewarding for the learners in their learning process if those two sources of learning English would be connected (ibid: 171).

The importance of English with reference to interpersonal communication with family members and friends is also stressed by the present participants. While some respondents have English speaking relatives or friends they have met when on holiday or on an exchange semester others enjoy speaking English to their Austrian friends. The data shows that slightly more high school students as vocational college students communicate in English with their friends (see chapter 6, results p. 79). The data reveals that it is more common for high school students to spend a semester or year in an English speaking county than for vocational college students. This might explain why they have more English speaking friends. Moreover high school students take greater pleasure in talking English with their Austrian non-native friends. They argue that English is part of their youth culture and they consider it as 'trendy' and 'cool' to converse in English outside the school context. Androutsopoulos (2004: 90f) investigated the use of English among German hip-hop fans. He concludes that those German teenagers embedded English words and phrases in their everyday communication with friends in order to articulate their

identity. Admittedly this group is very specific in their language use; nevertheless English is definitely regarded as the language of the youth in Europe and Asia.

As English has a great influence on the younger generation school curricula need to accommodate to those new developments and language teaching has to be more competence oriented (cf. Bausch *et al.* 2005). Ideally this way of studying will combine instructed language learning and out-of-school use of English. Present and future language planners and teachers need to be aware that “school is but one source of contact with English – and at least for some groups not the most important one” (Berns *et al.* 2007: 115).

8. Conclusion

The major incentive for carrying out the present project was to explore Austrian pupils’ attitudes towards English and their motivation to learn the language. The employed empirical study intended to compare perceptions of Lower Austrian high school and vocational college students. Responses of the participants of the study shed light on the reasons why learners have favourable or negative attitudes towards English. Moreover their willingness and motivation to succeed in English have been investigated. Those findings provide teachers with valuable feedback and help them to understand the perceptions of their learners and what factors can affect students’ motivation negatively and consequently their learning process.

Positive language attitudes and motivation are decisive factors as far as successful language learning is concerned. Many studies (Gardner 1985, 2001, Dörnyei 1990, Kormos & Cziser 2008, Heining-Boynton & Haitema 2007) have confirmed that those variables promote higher language learning achievement. In a rapidly changing globalizing world it is even more important for learners to be proficient FL speakers. It is the ultimate aim of language courses to educate learners who enjoy applying the language and who are not anxious to communicate with other non-native as well as native speakers. In order to help learners in their long lasting learning process, teachers need to be aware of their students’ attitudes towards English and promote motivated learning behaviour by adjusting teaching methods and materials to the target group. The present study analyses the findings from a questionnaire survey conducted in an Austrian high school and a vocational college.

As far as methodology was concerned, the concept of attitudes and language attitudes has been discussed in greater detail. Moreover theoretical frameworks that address language learning motivation were explored. Special emphasis was put on Gardner's 'Socio-Educational Model' which is the underlying approach for the employed AMTB questionnaire in the present study. This model stresses individual learner differences that are influenced by the learner's attitudes towards the language, language community as well as perceptions of the learning situation. The model has caused a lively debate among scholars who claim that it focuses exclusively on social factors affecting L2 motivation and not so much on influences on motivation in the language classroom (Liuliené & Metiuniené 2006: 94). Alternative approaches emphasise the learners' responsibilities and their autonomy in the learning process (cf. Ryan & Deci 1985) or correlate learners' outcomes with their previous learning experiences (cf. Dörnyei 2003, Molden & Dweck 2000). Recent theories claim that goal setting and goal orientation are crucial components that influence whether learners succeed in mastering the foreign language (cf. Dörnyei 2001, Pitnich & Schunk 2002). The 'Process-Period Approach' on the other hand describes the learning process as a dynamic development that can possibly account for varying degrees of motivational intensity (cf. Dörnyei & Ottó 1998).

In the present study a modified version of the AMTB was distributed to high school and vocational college students (N=240) aged fifteen (grade 9) and seventeen (grade 11). The data obtained was analysed according to school type, age and sex. Overall the population hold positive attitudes towards learning English. The results indicate that high school students have more frequent contact with English media and thus they have more favourable attitudes towards reading books, newspapers and magazines and watching TV in English than their vocational college peers. Older high school students have even more positive attitudes towards reading English printed media and watching English films and series than younger high school students. Different teaching methods might account for the varying findings.

It appeared that relatively more high school students have positive attitudes towards people from English speaking countries and are more interested in the culture and traditions of those communities than vocational college students. The most obvious explanation would be that high school students spend more time on language courses abroad, are regularly taught by an American native speaker and study the history and culture of English speaking countries in more depth than vocational college students.

Students' responses reveal that more vocational college students (43.3%) than high school students (24.2%) consider studying English as important for their future career. This finding is quite characteristic for the investigated school types. While vocational colleges educate their students for an immediate occupational career after the school leaving exam, high schools' education aims at preparing students for tertiary education.

It is interesting to note that more vocational college students (45.8%) than high school students (34.2%) say that they really attempt to learn English. Moreover slightly more vocational college students (61.7%) than high school students (59.2%) prefer English over other subjects.

The present study shows that girls are more enthusiastic and ambitious language learners as boys. They are more integratively oriented in a sense that they have more favourable attitudes towards people with a different mother tongue and are more willing to study or work abroad than boys. It is striking that almost three fourths (73%) of the girls strongly disagree with the statement "*Learning English is a waste of time*" whereas slightly more than half (54.5%) of the boys opt for the same response. In addition more than twice as many girls (47.4%) than boys (22.7%) have no intention of giving up studying English after they have left school. Furthermore 46.6 per cent of the girls say that they would occasionally speak English outside the classroom context whereas only 38.6 per cent of the males claim that they would do the same. The majority of the boys (47.7%) however stresses that they would only communicate in English if there was no alternative. The fact that we obtain different results for boys and girls might have several reasons. Similar studies (Worrall & Tsarna 1987, Freudenthaler *et al* 2008, MacIntyre 2002) focusing on gender related learner differences found that language teachers have a tendency to favour female learners over male learners and that they provide girls with more support, academic advice and career encouragement (MacIntyre 2002: 542). This remains a speculation since no teacher interviews have been obtained to connect the findings from other studies to the present context.

The three open-ended questions assessing instrumental orientation, attitudes towards learning English and English class anxiety revealed that the population hold very positive attitudes towards learning English. 77.1 per cent of all participants (N=240) claim that "*The English lessons are a good preparation for my future*". We obtain, however, different results when comparing the two age groups. While the overwhelming majority of the younger learners (N=120) amounting to 94.2 per cent agree with this statement only 59.3 per cent of the older learners do the same. The finding that positive attitudes and

motivation deteriorates as students' progress in their learning process is present in other studies as well (cf. Freudenthaler *et al* 2008). Especially language teachers need to be aware of this problematic trend. They are required to evaluate students' attitudes and motivation towards the target language and apply teaching techniques and device material that motivates and encourages the learner to successfully continue studying the language.

Fortunately, 87.2 per cent of the total population (N=240) argue that they want to study as much English as possible. As reasons for their choice students stress that being a proficient English speaker enables worldwide communication, better job opportunities and it eases travelling. Furthermore many students are fond of English and enjoy learning it. As for English classroom anxiety almost 30 per cent of the total population agrees with the statement that other classmates speak better English than they do. The largest share of both student groups attributes their language anxiety to poor grades. The finding that language class anxiety is correlated with course grades is consistent with other studies (Adia 1994, Horowitz *et al.* 1986). Again teachers are asked to provide their anxious learners with more assistance and support and they should encourage them to use the language as often as possible. Informal contexts such as communicating with peers might alleviate students' fear of committing errors and experiencing face-threatening situations. Teachers need to stress that making errors is part of the learning process and no learner should be ashamed of it.

Finally one factual question investigated where and when students used English outside the classroom context. The majority of the students (41%) speak English on vacation, followed by those who use English on vacation and for consuming media (15%) and those who read and watch English media (15%). Teenagers' extensive use of English media is a commonly found phenomenon (cf. Hyrkstedt & Kalaja 1998, Hilgendorf 2007). This finding shows that learning English might no longer take place exclusively in an educational institution but there might be other important sources for learning it (Berns *et al.* 2007: 115).

In the process of analysing and interpreting the data I have come across interesting thoughts for further investigation. Since Gardner (1985, 2001) asserts that language attitudes and motivation are correlated with language achievement it would have been valuable to collect students' grades and compare them with their perceptions of their English language course. Personal interviews with at least some of the participants would have offered even deeper insight into students' opinions and their way of evaluating

English. Similarly interviewing the teachers would have provided more information on teaching techniques, learning aims and teachers' attitudes towards English.

In conclusion the present study sheds light on students' language attitudes and motivation and this might help teachers to compile more effective teaching methods and learning material.

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10. Appendix

10.1 Abstract (English)

This paper focuses on Austrian teenagers' attitudes towards English and their motivation to learn this foreign language. In the present questionnaire survey students from two different school types, an academic high school and a vocational college, had participated. The main aim of the enquiry was to find out how teenagers perceive learning English and whether students' responses are correlated with their attended school type.

Previously conducted research has indicated that favourable language attitudes and motivation are decisive factors regarding language achievement. In other words highly motivated learners with positive perceptions of the target language will ultimately succeed in mastering it. The present study attempts to combine different theoretical approaches and adjusts them to this particular context.

The data was obtained from an analysis of responses specified in a questionnaire. The employed survey is a slight modification of Gardner's (1985) Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). Participants were pupils aged 15 (grade 9) and 17 (grade 11) from two schools in Lower Austria (N=240). The data was analysed according to school type, age and gender.

In general both investigated student groups hold very favourable attitudes towards English. However, three main findings emerge from the present study. First high school students tend to have more positive attitudes towards reading English books, magazines and newspapers and moreover watching English TV series or films than their vocational peers. Secondly vocational college students exhibit a much higher instrumental orientation than high school students indicating that the prospect occupational career is a strong motivating factor for them. Thirdly younger learners show more favourable attitudes towards English and are higher motivated than older learners. This finding of the present study reveals consistency with past research. Apparently students' positive attitudes and their motivation deteriorate as they progress in their language study. Further results suggest that girls are more integratively oriented, have more favourable attitudes towards learning English and are more ambitious students than their male counterparts.

The investigated group agrees that knowing English is an important means for intercultural communication. They use English most often on vacation, for reading and watching media, for maintaining friendships and conversing with family members.

10.2 Zusammenfassung (German)

Das Thema dieser Diplomarbeit lautet „Spracheinstellungen von niederösterreichischen AHS und BHS SchülerInnen gegenüber Englisch“. Darin wird erhoben welchen Einfluss Spracheinstellungen auf Menschen ausüben und ob Spracheinstellungen auch vom gewählten Schultyp/Ausbildungstyp abhängen. Darüber hinaus wird untersucht, ob die Motivation der SchülerInnen Englisch zu lernen in Zusammenhang mit dem jeweiligen Schultyp steht.

Zahlreiche Studien belegen, dass eine positive Einstellung der Fremdsprache gegenüber sowie Motivation den Sprachlernprozess fördern. Andere Faktoren, wie das Alter der Lernenden und das Geschlecht können die Meinung gegenüber der Fremdsprache ebenfalls beeinflussen.

Im Zuge dieser Arbeit wurde eine Studie in Form eines Fragebogens durchgeführt. Insgesamt nahmen 240 SchülerInnen einer Berufsbildenden Höheren Schule und einer Allgemein Bildenden Höheren Schule daran teil. Um herauszufinden ob altersspezifische Unterschiede vorliegen wurden SchülerInnen der 5. und der 7. Schulstufe befragt. Die Analyse der Daten zeigt, dass SchülerInnen beider Schultypen eine positive Einstellung gegenüber der Sprache Englisch und dessen Unterricht haben. Signifikante Unterschiede ergeben sich zwischen den Schultypen, den beiden Altersgruppen und den Geschlechtern.

Bezüglich der Schultypen weisen Gymnasiasten positivere Meinungen und häufigeren Kontakt mit englischen Medien (Literatur, Musik, Film, Internet) und positivere Einstellungen englischsprachigen Menschen und Ländern gegenüber auf. Im Gegensatz dazu messen SchülerInnen der BHS umfangreichen Englischkenntnissen für die spätere berufliche Laufbahn viel mehr Wert bei als Gymnasiasten.

Ein interessantes Ergebnis ist, dass jüngere SchülerInnen beider Schultypen positivere Meinungen gegenüber Englisch haben und darüber hinaus auch motivierter sind diese Sprache zu erlernen als ihre älteren Schulkollegen. Anhand des direkten Datenvergleichs kann ein Zusammenhang zwischen abnehmender Motivation und positiven Einstellungen gegenüber Englisch mit dem steigenden Alter der SchülerInnen hergestellt werden.

Aus der Studie geht hervor, dass Mädchen mehr Interesse am Englischunterricht zeigen und motivierter sind diese Sprache zu erlernen als Knaben. Zu diesem Ergebnis gelangten auch andere wissenschaftliche Studien.

Aus den Meinungen der Schülerinnen lässt sich ablesen, dass Englischkenntnisse in einer multikulturellen, global vernetzten Welt große Bedeutung erlangt haben. Außerhalb des Unterrichts verwenden SchülerInnen Englisch vor allem im Ausland, beim Lesen oder Fernsehen und um sich mit Familienmitgliedern beziehungsweise Freunden zu unterhalten.

10.3 Questionnaire (German)

Was ich über Englisch denke

Ich würde dich bitten die folgenden Fragen über deine persönliche Einstellung Englisch gegenüber zu beantworten. Diese Umfrage wird im Rahmen meiner Diplomarbeit über Spracheinstellungen von BHS und AHS SchülerInnen durchgeführt. Der Fragebogen ist anonym und demnach kannst du völlig ehrlich antworten.

Wie funktioniert das Ausfüllen?

Bei den meisten Fragen solltest du in eines der sechs Kästchen ein Kreuz (x) eintragen. (trifft völlig zu, trifft zu, trifft eher zu, trifft kaum zu, trifft weniger zu, trifft überhaupt nicht zu) Beispiel:

		trifft völlig zu	trifft zu	trifft eher zu	trifft weniger zu	trifft kaum zu	trifft überhaupt nicht zu
	Wien ist eine schöne Stadt.			x			

Die Aussage „trifft eher zu“ bedeutet, dass Wien eher eine schöne Stadt ist.

Zu manchen Aussagen gibt es auch eine offene Frage, wo ich dich bitte deine Entscheidung schriftlich zu begründen.

I. Bitte kreuze an!

		trifft völlig zu	trifft zu	trifft eher zu	trifft weniger zu	trifft kaum zu	trifft überhaupt nicht zu
1	Im europäischen Ausland möchte ich mich auf Englisch verständigen können.						
2	Ich möchte gerne fließend Englisch sprechen können.						
3	Ich möchte englischsprachige Bücher lieber in ihrer Originalsprache lesen als in einer Übersetzung.						
4	Ich möchte Zeitungen und Magazine auf Englisch lesen können.						
5	Ich lerne gerne Menschen kennen, die eine andere Sprache sprechen als ich.						
6	Das Angebot an Englischstunden in meiner Schule ist ausreichend.						
7	Englisch zu lernen ist super.						
8	Ich hätte gerne andere Fächer auch in der Unterrichtssprache Englisch.						

		trifft völlig zu	trifft zu	trifft eher zu	trifft weniger zu	trifft kaum zu	trifft überhaupt nicht zu
9	Mir macht der Englischunterricht Freude.						
10	Englisch ist ein wichtiger Teil des Unterrichts.						
11	Ich bin begeistert vom Englischlernen.						
12	Ich hasse die englische Sprache.						
13	Ich würde meine Zeit lieber für andere Unterrichtsfächer als Englisch investieren.						
14	Englischlernen ist nur eine Zeitverschwendung.						
15	Nach dem Schulabschluss werde ich nicht weiter Englisch lernen.						
16	Englisch zu lernen ist wichtig um mit fremdsprachigen Personen in Kontakt zu treten.						
17	Englisch ist für meine angestrebte Karriere wichtig.						
18	Meine Jobaussichten sind bei guten Englischkenntnissen besser.						
19	Meine Freunde/Familie schätzt mich mehr wegen meiner Englischsprachkenntnisse.						
20	Englisch ist wichtig da ich gerne im europäischen Ausland arbeiten/studieren möchte.						
21	Ich bin Menschen aus englischsprachigen Ländern gegenüber positiv eingestellt.						
22	Ich interessiere mich sehr für die Kultur und Traditionen in englischsprachigen Ländern.						
23	Ich möchte in die Großbritannien/USA reisen und mich dort auf Englisch verständigen können.						
24	Ich möchte in Großbritannien/USA arbeiten/studieren und brauche Englisch.						

II. Bitte kreuze an

- In Bezug auf den Arbeitsaufwand für den Englischunterricht
 - mache ich gerade genug um positive Noten zu erhalten.
 - schaffe ich Prüfungen nur durch Glück/Intelligenz – da ich sehr wenig lerne/übe.
 - versuche ich wirklich Englisch zu lernen.
 - investiere ich viel Zeit um gute Noten zu erhalten.

II. Bitte kreuze an

2. Verglichen mit anderen Unterrichtsfächern, mag ich Englisch
- am meisten.
 - eher mehr als andere Gegenstände.
 - eher weniger als andere Gegenstände.
 - am wenigsten.
3. Wenn ich auswählen könnte, ob ich Englischunterricht habe oder nicht, würde ich
- Englisch auf alle Fälle wählen.
 - Englisch eher wählen.
 - Englisch eher nicht wählen.
 - Englisch aufgeben.
4. Wenn ich die Möglichkeit habe außerhalb des Unterrichts Englisch zu sprechen dann
- würde ich nicht Englisch sprechen.
 - würde ich wenn es sein müsste Englisch sprechen.
 - würde ich häufig Englisch sprechen.
 - würde ich die meiste Zeit Englisch sprechen, nur in Ausnahmefällen Deutsch (Muttersprache).
5. Wenn Englisch sprechende Personen in meiner näheren Umgebung wohnten,
- würde ich nie Englisch mit ihnen sprechen.
 - würde ich fallweise mit ihnen sprechen.
 - würde ich häufig mit ihnen sprechen.
 - würde ich sooft als möglich Englisch sprechen.
6. Wenn ich die Möglichkeit habe auf Englisch Filme/Serien zu sehen würde ich
- nicht fernsehen.
 - gelegentlich diese Programme sehen.
 - häufig diese Programme sehen.
 - versuchen oft englische Programme/Filme zu sehen.

III. Bitte kreuze eine Antwort an und erkläre warum du dich so entschieden hast!

1. Der Englischunterricht bereitet mich gut auf meine Zukunft vor.

- trifft zu
- trifft nicht zu

Erkläre _____

2. Ich möchte so viel Englisch erlernen als möglich.

- trifft zu
- trifft nicht zu

Erkläre _____

III. Bitte kreuze eine Antwort an und erkläre warum du dich so entschieden hast!

3. Ich habe immer das Gefühl, dass meine MitschülerInnen besser in Englisch sind als ich.

trifft zu

trifft nicht zu

Erkläre _____

IV. Persönliche Information, zutreffendes bitte ankreuzen:

Meine Muttersprache ist _____

Andere Sprachen in denen ich mich verständigen kann: _____

Wo und wann verwendest du Englisch außerhalb des Unterrichts? _____

Ich besuche die

5. Klasse

7. Klasse

Geschlecht weiblich männlich

Vielen Dank für deine Mitarbeit! ☺

Christine Svara

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL DATA

Name: Christine Svara
 Date of Birth: 29. November 1983
 Place of Birth: Vienna
 Nationality: Austrian
 Email Address: ch_svara@gmx.at

EDUCATION

1999 – 2003 Höhere Lehranstalt für Wirtschaft, Biedermannsdorf, Lower Austria
 August 2003 – September 2004 Au pair in New York, United States of America
 Since October 2004 English and History-studies at the University of Vienna
 August 2007 – January 2008 Erasmus exchange semester in Copenhagen, Denmark

WORKING EXPERIENCE

06/2001 – 08/2001 Employment at “Terrazza Mare” Italian restaurant in Cavallino, Italy
 July 2002 Receptionist at the lawyer’s office Freshfields, Bruckhaus & Derringer, Vienna
 Since 2005 Assistant (office) at the “Vereinigte Ballettschulen”, Vienna
 August 2006 Employment at “Eispeter”, ice-cream parlour, Mödling, Lower Austria
 09/2006 – 06/2007 Instructors of gymnastics for children and teenagers, Union Mödling
 Since 2007 English teacher for two English courses (level A2, level B1) for adults at the VHS, Mödling Lower Austria
 08/2008 – 09/2008 Employment at “Lernstudio”, Mödling, Lower Austria
 Since 2007 Private tuition
 06/2009 English teacher for an intensive course for adults, VHS Mödling, Lower Austria

LANGUAGES

German mother tongue
 English excellent written and oral skills
 Italian good knowledge of the language
 Danish basic knowledge