STUDENTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH IN NARVA SCHOOLS

Bachelor’s thesis

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PREFACE

People in each country understand the necessity of learning foreign languages. The English language is one of them and the most spoken language in the world which makes it *Lingua Franca*. Attitude towards English in Europe, including Estonia and other post-Soviet countries have always been topical issues. For Narva it is even more thought-provoking as Narva is a unique place not only by its location, but also by its ethnic composition.

The research aims to analyse the difference in the views of the learning English between the students of different age groups and different ethnic backgrounds. The ultimate goal is to understand how Narva middle and upper-secondary school students are opened up to different languages, are ready to communicate with people all over the world and ready to integrate with them. This research aims to gather information about students’ attitudes and perceptions of English that educators can use to make suitable decisions and policy and teaching strategies.

The paper is divided into three parts. The first part is the introduction, which explains the choice of the topic and its importance, discusses the role and place of English language in the EU and the current situation with the English language in Estonia, specifically in Narva, and introduces the research aims and hypothesis. The second section, Chapter I, contains an overview on the definitions of attitude of several scholars and the methods by which it can be assessed. In the third section, Chapter II, the answers of the Narva school students are summarized and analysed. After that the secondary school and upper-secondary school students’ attitudes are compared. Following that is a comparison of Narva’s Estonian and Russian students’ attitudes towards English. Finally, the attitude of Narva’s students is compared with that of ethnic Estonian students across Estonia. The Conclusion is made on the basis of the received data.
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INTRODUCTION

The English language is the most important language in the world. It is spoken by a half of the world population and has an official status in 67 counties. At the same time English in the recent couple decades has gained an increasing popularity in European counties. This can be observed not only by the use of English on TV and other media, but also by the increasing implementation of language classes in schools. Braj Kachru, the world-renowned professor of linguistics, categorized the usage of English in different countries by “the type of spread and function attributed to the language” (Friedrich, 2000: 215) into inner circle countries, where everyone speaks English as a native language (Kachru, B. 1992), outer circle, where English is the official language or is used as one of them, and expanding circle where English is a foreign language. According to Kachru’s categorization, Estonia, like other non-Anglophone European countries, is situated in the area of the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1985: 13). As the use and status of English in the countries of Inner Circle is clear, there has always been some sort of misconception and misunderstanding between linguists in detecting how non-English speakers react to the increasing influence in their home countries not only in areas such as trade, cooperation and business, but also in use on a daily basis. There has been some research on the spread of English around the world (Jenkins, 2007; Kohn, 2011; Timmis, 2002, Crystal, 1997; Friedrich, 2000; Navarro-Villarroel, 2011) the use of English by Slavic speakers (Salakhyan, 2014, 2015) and people of Estonia (Fonzari, 1999; Laitin, 1996; Hogan-Brun, Ozolins, Ramoniene and Rannut, 2007; Ehala and Niglas, 2006), and, in one case, English learning motivation in Narva (Mihhailova, 2011); however, no substantive research has been produced to assess people’s perceptions about the role and usage of English in Narva. Although these writers have examined topics related to attitudes towards English in post-Soviet and Slavic states, language attitudes of Estonian students among Narva’s secondary students, the unique case of English learning in the Narva region remains underexplored, particularly in terms of students’ attitudes towards English. My research seeks to close this gap by analysing the difference in the attitudes towards learning English among students of different age groups and different ethnic backgrounds. The ultimate goal is to compare the attitude and confidence of Narva’s population and Estonia’s, Narva’s secondary and high school students, and Narva’s ethnic Estonian and ethnic Russian students. Such information would be invaluable to educators in Narva when making pedagogical and administrative choices.

To accomplish this, I conducted surveys of ninth and twelfth graders at the Estonian- and Russian-language schools in Narva, Narva Estonian Gymnasium and Narva Soldino Gymnasium, respectively.
The role and place of English in the EU

The importance of English as a language of a multicultural communication within Europe and other non-European countries has long motivated scholars around the world to research how English language influences local community perspectives and attitudes towards worldwide culture. The history of the prevalence of the English language began with the expansion of the British Empire’s borders, initiating a century of dominance of English over other languages.

The use of English in Europe differs depending on the region and the country, so its status is seen by researches as unquestioned. Truchot (2002) states that English was initially used in sectors such as the economy, technology and science. It has been expanding gradually. Slowly in the beginning and the end of the 1980s faster and faster. It happened due to creation of the European Union since which the borders between nations have become blurred, so English, on a par with German, French, has become the most convenient tool for communication.

English became predominant in the European Commission, where close to 80% of internal documents are printed in that language these days, a situation that maddens multilingualism defenders (Eurostat, 2013).

According to Doughty, “94 per cent of secondary school pupils and 83 per cent of primary age pupils across the EU are learning English as their first foreign language, more than four times as many as learn French, German or Spanish. Only in Britain and Ireland is French the top foreign language in schools” (2013: para. 7). Although English language is a second language in almost every country in Europe, according to Eurostat date (2013), the language situation is quite opposite in the three Baltic countries of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, where Russian is more widely spoken than English, as is German in Luxembourg and Czech in Slovakia.

Europe is becoming more multicultural with a freedom of movement within the European union and an increase in the number of migrants. Among other languages, English is chosen as a tool of the international communication. Wherever you go, everyone at least speaks a couple of phrases in English. This phenomenon is called *lingua franca*. According to Barbara Seidlhofer (2005), in recent years, the term ‘English as a *lingua franca*’ (ELF) has emerged as a way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages. Most ELF interactions take place between people whose first language is not English.

The role of English in Europe is undoubtedly immense, not to mention that English as a native language is spoken in six counties, two of them a part of Europe. There is no such other language used
so often in every sphere of life. That is why English should not be only taught for adornment but also as a means of interaction between people of different nationalities.

**English language in Estonia**

According to the prescriptions of the European Union “every citizen of the EU must know besides their mother tongue at least two other member countries languages” (Palk, 2002: 25). However, people from Britain and France are not included to this list, they are not required to learn other languages. This indicates that Estonian language is in a less favourable position than English, French or even German. Imagine going to the European parliament and speaking to someone in Estonian; you will be bestowed with a puzzled look. There is a small chance that you will be understood by some stranger passing by you in the building’s corridors.

Estonia is a small country whose history was full of conquests and resulting suffering. As time passed, the state language has changed in Estonia many times. Thereby Estonians got used to learning foreign languages as it happens naturally. At the moment, Kilgi notes that “according to census figures for 2000, there are 109 languages spoken in Estonia as mother tongues, the majority language being Estonian (67.3%) followed by Russian (29.7%)” (2005: para. 1).

In the survey conducted by Ehala and Niglas (2006) it was noted that “although Russian lost its official status, it is nevertheless quite widely used in larger cities. Due to globalization, English has become quite prominent in Estonia, especially among the younger generation” (Ehala and Niglas, 2006: 210).

When the USSR collapsed, Estonia turned from the East to the West. The small and independent country made its first steps on the trade and economic field by joining in November 1999 the World Trade Organization (WTO), and as a result of a fast developing economy, also joined the European Union in May 2004.

**English in a contemporary Estonia**

In the early years of Estonian of independence in the 1990’s, it pursued a clear pro-trade policy where the borders for foreign trade and investments were opened. This early openness to foreign rivalry and money allowed Estonia to transform itself very quickly from a weak to a full-grown marketplace economy where the life force of free trade prevails. As a result of this exposure, many of the biggest Estonian companies now are in hands of the foreign capital. However, subcontracting works in export in percentage is still growing.
English language in Estonia plays an important role. The number of those who are learning English, and also chose this language as a second foreign language, has increased significantly. According to the statistics from Special Eurobarometer, on the status of 2006, 46% of Estonians speak English and that is around 615000 of the whole population. Comparing to the people who lived most of their lives in the Soviet Union, the result of the integration into the global world may be seen as very positive.

With the new opportunities and a great amount of money, the need for English-speaking specialists appeared. It is especially seen when you apply for a job. That is why Estonian parents want their children to learn English as early as it is possible. Usually the first meeting and introduction into the English-speaking world happens in the kindergarten when a child learns the English alphabet and sounds. After kindergarten a child goes to school where English learning ranges from the first to the third grade. In Estonia, the students are obliged to learn at least three foreign languages, so they commonly make a start from the English language. When school finishes, the graduates have many varieties of the specialties where the whole learning process is going in English. That makes the language proficiency multifaceted and diversified.

Pursuant to Statistics Estonia, in February 2016, “183,000 domestic and foreign tourists stayed in accommodation establishments, which is 4% more than in February 2015. The number of both domestic and foreign tourists increased” (Laurmaa, 2016: para. 1). Tourism is one of the most profitable sectors of the economy and it also requires English and other foreign languages in order to please the overseas visitors. Many tourists get attracted by the proximity of Tallinn to other European capitals such as Stockholm, Oslo, Helsinki and Copenhagen. Many English-Speaking visitors are also fascinated by how well Estonians speak English, and they find no trouble in communication. We can conclude that Estonia has become a great tourist destination and a place for a smart investment for the foreign companies around the World.

English Language in Narva

Ida-Viru is an area in the North-East of Estonia which includes six industrial cities. Narva is one of them, and being a border city means Narva has always had a very interesting place in the history of the Baltic region and Russia. ‘The city has belonged to Denmark, the Teutonic Order, Sweden and Russia. Narva has been built up, burnt down, pillaged, bomed, and blown up. People have come to Narva and have been taken away from there’ (Maistre, Rodin and others, 2005: 7). As a result, Narva has lived through its ups and downs, times of prosperity and failure. The trade has always played an important
role in Narva life, as the city has linked the most important trade routes. There were Russian, Swedish, Danish, German and Prussian trade ships and even British. The first mention about British people in Narva was made in year 1560 when there settled two tradesmen whose names were William Bond and John Foxall, they led a group of British merchants in Narva. The second significant mention about Narva was made in the 1890s by professor Gerhart von Schulze-Gävernitz who went to Narva to see the mills and after this visit he stated that, ‘The whole place is a bit of England on Russian ground’. At that date the Krenholm Manufacturing Company, cotton spinning and manufacturing mills, was a very developed and prosperous company. The company experienced a lack of trained workers, so they brought to Narva people from England for transmitting the Modern British technologies. They lived in the special houses in good conditions, while the locals lived among diseases and poverty. The Krenholm Manufacturing Company strongly depended on business dealings with England, The United States and Germany, and the company’s founders have also borrowed some money to build their ’child’. This is how started the first contacts between people from Narva and English-speaking countries. After that, in the USSR was a period of stagnation when English was spoken rarely, reluctantly taught by the teachers in schools.

The usage of English in Narva

The English language nowadays is used almost everywhere starting from school and finishing with the shopping centres. Ida-Viru country, according to Statistics Estonia made in February 2016 was visited by 6,842 foreign people. It makes a good platform for the future investments and infrastructure development. People who work in this branch know that to make other people spend money, good service and no language barrier is needed, so there were no misunderstandings and resentments.

Usually people from Narva, who want to speak any other language beside Russian or Estonian go abroad or choose the English language program in Narva college of Tartu University. If you have good luck, you could participate in international projects and be an exchange student in any country you wish for. With the help of Erasmus, Tartu University is cooperating with 26 countries and more than 200 universities. Narva college of Tartu University is also a place where you can always hear people speaking in English; furthermore, there is no any other place in Narva that holds different international events. The students, who are particularly interested in improving their language skills, can test their strength in organizing such events within the college walls.

English has become an important tool for the interaction between the tourists and foreign owners of the companies whose branch offices are placed in Narva with the local people of Narva. Despite all
the changes what have occurred in the last 25 years, the knowledge of English is still poor and needs a significant improvement.
CHAPTER I ATTITUDE TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH

1.1 Attitudes in ELT

1.1.2. Defining attitude

The word ‘attitude’ has been derived from the Latin ‘aptitude’ and been considered an abstract mental concept less than a century ago (Navarro-villarroel; 2011: 8).

The study of attitudes has been researched by many behavioural scientists, there has been written many sociological and psychological literature that was usually dedicated to theoretical and methodological formulations about attitudes (Agheyisi and Fishman; 1970: 137).

Agheyisi and Fishman described the concept of ‘attitude’ as “variously defined and characterized by almost every theorist or research who has concerned himself with attitude studies” (1970: 137). They also note that “Some researches characterized this statement as ‘a mediating concept or ‘hypothetical construct’ (Doob: 1947; Chein: 1948; Green: 1954; etc.) which is directly related to the overt behaviours or verbal responses to any given set of stimuli” (1970: 137). The concept of ‘attitude’ has been changing over last decades for several times and been a topic of discussion for many scholars.

A traditional definition by Allport (1935) states that attitudes are “mental and neutral state of readiness”.

Bain (1928) posited the ‘extreme’ behaviourist explanation that places attitude in actual obvious behaviour or responses. Agheyisi and Fishman (1970) disagree, stating that “his approach confronts some or no problems at the level of analysis in terms of the observable data” (Agheyisi and Fishman; 1970: 138). Bain also argued that “the only way to determine attitudes is by observation and statistical treatment of behaviour in social situations” (ibid, p. 957). However, this approach also was criticized for its theoretical implications that have displayed attitude as a dependent variable.

With regard to attitude, there has been given another attitude definition by McGuire (1968), who distinguishes five main approaches which vary from “what he calls the extreme ‘positivistic’ to the extreme ‘mediationist’” (Agheyisi and Fishman; 1970: 138). Despite the distinctions that have been presented, research practices did not find any differences between measures of attitude as an independent or dependent variable, as in both cases they based their inferences on “the ‘consistency’ of the responses, or what Green called the ‘response covariation’ (Agheyisi and Fishman; 1970: 138).

Whether attitude has a unitary or multiple structure has always been a subject of disagreement, and it is in this regard that as Agheyisi and Fishman (1970: 138) stated in their study “there has been the greatest distance between mentalist and behaviourist viewpoints.” However, according to Osgood et al.
the multiple component explanation usually suggests the following kinds of components: cognitive, affective, and conative (or knowledge, evaluative, and action, respectively).

According to Rokeach (1968), “an attitude is composed primarily of a system of believes; each belief is in turn composed of cognitive, affective and behavioural components” (Agheyisi and Fishman (1970: 138). Many theorists believe that there is some correlation between attitude and behaviour, or action. However, Fishbein (1966) wrote about the difference between attitude and belief, claiming that the first contains an affective component, while the second both cognitive and conative components. Notably, barely any of these researchers who have described attitudes in their works as ‘organized’ went to the trouble to explain or even measure how this organization exists.

**ATTITUDE STRUCTURE: Four Views**

**1. MULTICOMPONENT**

(a) ATTITUDE

Cognitive Affective Conative
(Knowledge) (Evaluation) (Action)

e.g. Lambert and Lambert (1964)

(b) ATTITUDE

Belief₁ Belief₂ Belief₃ Beliefₙ

Cognitive Affective Behavioral

e.g. Rokeach (1968)

**2. UNICOMPONENT**

(a) ATTITUDE

Affective Component

e.g. Osgood (1957)

(b) OBJECT

Attitude Belief

Affective Cognitive Action

e.g. Fishbein (1966)

*Figure 1. Attitude structure: Four views.*
1.1.3 Studies of language attitude

According to Agheyisi and Fishman, the studies of language attitudes in sociolinguistic literature divide into three main categories:

1) Those that deal with language-oriented or language varieties;
2) Those that deal with community-wide stereotyped impressions towards particular languages or language varieties;
3) Those that are concerned with the implementation of different types language attitudes. (1970: 141)

Studies in the first category inform on estimation or rating of language or varieties of language as ‘rich’ or ‘poor’, ‘beautiful’ or ‘ugly’, ‘smooth and sweet sounding’. They are focused on perceptions and the feeling that a certain language evokes.

Studies in the second category are regarding with the social importance of languages of varieties of languages. In other words, it is exploring the attitude “towards speakers of different languages in multicultural settings, etc.” (Agheyisi and Fishman (1970: 141).

The third category deals with all types of language behaviour, or behaviour towards language, flowing out from specific attitudes or beliefs. Major topics of this study are “language choice and usage, language reinforcement and planning, language learning, expressed views about inter-dialect mutual intelligibility, etc.” (Agheyisi and Fishman,1970: 141).

The study of attitude is “an essential part of a world Englishes approach to language use” (Friedrich, 2000: 216). To understand the need of English in any country, the language should be observed not only in terms of the usage for intercultural communication, but also in terms of its status and how powerful this language is in that country.

Actually, Fishman and Rubal-Lopez have their own point of view on this study. They stated that “the spread of a language can be examined not only by measuring the extent of its use, but also by studying the attitudes of persons towards that use” (Fishman and Rubal-Lopez, 1992: 310). We cannot talk about attitudes without recalling an obvious but important detail of the aspects that directly influences the spread of English in the world. The one that drives people to master their language skills, with no doubt is a positive attitude. This attitude is usually formed by the stereotype of the speaker, or is directed towards the language or the speakers (Lieberson, 1982). This stereotypical thinking is peculiar to the people who chose to learn any foreign language. The choice of language could be spontaneous or caused by the need or the vast opportunities that the language provides. And it comes as no surprise that English is generally connected with status and modernity and even social mobility, as noted of China in Yong and Campbell (1995); Hungary in Petzold (1994); and Germany and Japan in Berns (1990).
The first study on second language acquisition was conducted and published in 1941 by Jordan. The author chose England as an area of his analysis and he questioned students between the ages of 11 and 15 years. The aim was to survey correlations between the school subject French language and "students ‘attitudes towards it was the strongest one observed” (Navarro-Villarroel, 2011: 5).

While the new assessment instruments were developing, a new area of research on students’ attitudes could be explored. The most influential explorations were made by Gardner and Lambert (1959) and Baker (1985). Gardner and Lambert (1959) conducted their research in Canada in order to find out are there the correlation between Canadian high school students’ perception towards learning French and their attitude to learn the language. The research concluded that the two were not connected with each other.

In 1985, Baker conducted his research to conclude that attitude towards language is connected simultaneously with the language students use at home and their ethnic background, as well as with the following factors such as gender, achievement, and type of school. The main focus was on Welsh secondary school students aged 11 and 18. The schools had varied characteristics. In this survey, Baker suggested “the input-output model to show the bi-directional (or causal) effect of more than one factor” (Navarro-Villarroel, 2011: 6). He chose three schools: one was over 70% Welsh-speaking, the second was predominantly with British, and the last school was located where less than one present of the population was Welsh-speaking and most of the students were British.

1.1.4 Instrumental and integrative attitudes

“In the realm of education, studies of attitudes were mostly concerned with student attitudes towards school, school subjects, teachers, and other students” (Navarro-Villarroel, 2011: 1) Baker (1992) and Gardner and Lambert (1972) were the first who started researching attitude towards second language learning. And they were the pioneers who first presented results about students’ attitudes towards second languages. Navarro-Villarroel (2011) claims it is they who created a battery of questions to measure students’ attitudes toward languages, and included two new concepts related to attitudes: instrumental attitudes and integrative attitudes.

The first one, that carries the name ‘Instrumental attitudes’, relates to “the desire to receive social-status recognition or profitable benefits” (Navarro-Villarroel, 2011: 3). Basically, it means to learn the language for useful, practical purposes. People who learn the language may want to find a job, have more employment opportunities, pass exam, or to enrol their children to a bilingual education program.
The second, ‘Integrative attitudes’, means that “the student is learning a language with the desire to be integrated into a specific community that speaks that language” (Navarro-Villarroel, 2011: 3). Basically, it is a wish to be identified with another language group. Usually that means that learners desire to identify with another language community or be a part of a target language group’s social activity. Some students may have a negative attitude towards language learning and may refuse the culture and people of the second language. If a student wants to be successful in learning any foreign language, he or she has to admire the second language’s culture and its people, and he or she also needs to like reading its literature, go on a trip or find employment that needs the knowledge of this language. Students that are learning a second language may report both kinds of attitude (Gardner, 1985).

Surveys conducted by researchers found that “integrative attitudes have a greater likelihood of aiding proficiency in the second language” (Baker and Jones, 1998: 176). They describe it in a way that personal relationships are longer lasting, so they influence perseverance in learning a language more. Whereas instrumental motivation could be short-dated and not reinforced. When a person has already found a job, or made enough money, the instrumental motivation could disappear.

Several studies have been conducted on integrative and instrumental attitudes. The most interesting were ones made by Sakuragi (2008), who explored how American college students were enrolled in Chinese, French, Japanese, or Spanish classes; Bialystok and Fröhlich (1977), who surveyed Canadian ninth and tenth grade students who joined French class; Oller, Hudson, and Liu (1977), who investigated how Chinese-speaking students reacted to English as a second language (ESL) in the American education system; Oller, Baca, and Vigil (1977), who studied Mexican-American women students joined English classes in the New Mexico education system; Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Gliksman (1976), who researched Canadian seventh and eighth grade students in French classes; and the last by Gardner and Lambert (1972), which studied attitudes of American high-school students joined French classes.

For students who are learning the second language, there is a delicate mix of instrumental and integrative attitudes. It would be too simple to consider if some students owned instrumental, but others integrative attitudes. Rather, students have different balances of instrumental and integrative attitudes. Over time the balances may change; they are not fixed and could develop.

1.2 Attitude Assessment Methods in Language Studies
According to Navarro-Villarroel (2011), the scholars started researching ‘attitudes’ less than a century ago. It used to describe a pose or a posture that a person adopted when he or she had their portrait painted
(Baker, 1992). During the second part of the twentieth century scholars realised that it rather relates to the mental state, not to the physical posture. At first, the Behaviourists assumed that an attitude could not be measured (Reid, 2006). However, Thurstone (1929), published an article in which he affirmed that an attitude, or several of them, could be measured. After that appeared a method suggested by Likert (1932). From that moment several researchers have started studying attitudes. According to Navarro-Villarroel (2011), originally, these studies were only limited to the disciplines of social psychology, but while the time passed, the idea spread to other disciplines, such as education.

There are two methods of assessing attitudes towards learning second language that were suggested by Garrett, Coupland, and Williams (2003). The scholars named them direct and indirect methods (they are also known as explicit and implicit). Direct approaches use interviews and questionnaires, but some people claimed that using these forms could cause a bias. The indirect approaches use observation and variants of the matched guise test (Lambert, Hodgson, Garner, & Fillenbaum, 1960). This way of assessing, as it is stated, is less biased, but ‘they allow only a general assessment of the language attitudes, whereas questionnaires and interviews can provide more detailed accounts’ (Ehala and Niglas; 2006).

Particularly for this study, we will be focused on two direct approaches to language: the subjective ethnolinguistic vitality tests (Allard & Landry, 1986; Bourhis, Yvon, & Rosenthal, 1981) and the model developed by Colin Baker (1992). Traditionally, ‘ethno-linguistic vitality is understood as a group’s ability to act as a distinctive collective entity in intergroup settings’ (Giles, Bourhis, and Taylor 1977: 308). The classic questionnaire is the Subjective Vitality Questionnaire for ethnolinguistic groups designed by Bourhis et al. (1981). “This questionnaire is based on the taxonomy of the structural variables affecting ethnolinguistic vitality proposed by Giles, Bourhis, and Taylor (1977). This questionnaire comprises questions relating to the status factors, demographic factors, and institutional support and control factors of the in-group and significant out-group language” (Ehala and Niglas 2006: 211).

According to Ehala and Niglas (2006), Allard and Landry (1986) developed a 24-item version of the Beliefs on Ethnolinguistic Vitality Questionnaire (BEVQ). This form as well as the previous one, was based on Giles et al. (1977), but it was adapted according to the typology of beliefs expounded by Kreitler and Kreitler (1976, 1982):

a) general beliefs about how things are,

b) normative beliefs concerning what should exist,

c) personal beliefs about one’s own behaviour, and

d) goal beliefs about one’s desire to behave in a particular way. (Ehala and Niglas 2006: 211)
Since that the BEVQ has been applied (with changes) in different settings (Allard & Landry, 1994; Evans, 1996; Kam, 2002). Scholars, however, concluded that the main weakness of this model is that the measures are made based only on respondents’ assessment of objective ethnolinguistic vitality, noting that one’s assessment of the vitality of second language need not fully match with his or her attitude towards this language. The language could be lacking in prestige, but the attitude still could be positive, or vice versa.
CHAPTER II ATTITUDE OF NARVA’S SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

2.1 Narva Students’ Attitudes towards Learning English

2.1.2 Methodology and Sample
Research on language attitude has a long history and a number of approaches were developed, but the biggest contribution was made by such scholars as Garrett, Coupland, and Williams (2003). They divided these approaches into direct and indirect methods. The direct approaches use questionnaires and interviews, but they have been criticized for their vulnerability to bias. According to Ehala and Niglas, “the indirect approaches use variants of the matched guise test (Lambert, Hodgson, Garner, & Fillenbaum, 1960) and observation” (Ehala & Niglas, 2006: 211). They are less biased, but still don’t allow us to provide highly detailed accounts. That’s why for this study two direct approaches to language attitudes were used: the subjective ethnolinguistic vitality tests (Allard & Landry, 1986; Bourhis, Yvon, & Rosenthal, 1981) and the model developed by Colin Baker (1992).

My study is based on a similar survey created by Ehala and Niglas (2006) in ‘Language Attitudes of Estonian Secondary School Students’. They questioned students aged 15 to 18. To make this study possible, they used the classic Subjective Vitality Questionnaire for ethnolinguistic groups designed by Bourhis et al. (1981). “This questionnaire consists of the questions relating to the status and demographic factors, as well as institutional support and control factors of the in-group and significant out-group language” (Ehala & Niglas, 2006: 211). Their model, in turn, was based on a simpler one developed by Baker (1992) to study Welsh subjects, but, as the authors state, it was generalizable to other settings as well (in this case, Estonia).

![Figure 2. General model of language attitude. Adapted by ’Attitudes and languages’ by C. Backer, 1992.](image-url)
Ehala and Niglas (2006) aimed to explore the language attitudes of all young people who consider Estonian their mother tongue. They collected data from 1,887 students from 45 secondary schools across different regions of Estonia and genders, assuming that these two demographic variables influence the language attitudes of young people the most. The counties of Estonia were used as strata. The clusters consisted of schools (at least one school from the centre of the local administrative unit and one from the countryside) chosen from every county. They chose one class of 10th graders and one class of 12th graders from every school. The researchers determined that the majority of the students who live in the capital and in rural areas have a positive attitude towards English but significantly low integrative attitudes towards Estonian language.

For this research I decided to conduct a survey based on the one made by Ehala and Niglas (2006) because the sample was representative and the topic they focused on was Estonia. This would enable me to trace how attitude towards English is different in the cities where the majority of people speak Estonian and are ethnically Estonian from in Narva, which is predominantly a Russian town.

My research aimed to analyse the difference in the views of learning English between the students of different age groups and different ethnic backgrounds. The ultimate goal was to understand how Narva’s middle and upper-secondary school students view different languages and whether they feel ready to communicate and integrate with people all over the world. This research aimed to gather information about students’ attitudes and perceptions of English.

Overall, I expected to find that Narva’s students’ attitudes become more positive during upper-secondary school as students become better able to understand English’s usefulness as an international language. I anticipated that students of Narva’s Estonian-language school would see English as more useful than students of its Russian-language schools because those of Russian ethnicity have access to a large body of Russian-language media, while ethnic Estonians, because of Estonia’s small population, tend towards international, English-language sources of culture and information.

The data was received in Narva, which is located in Ida-Viru county and which is known as an industrial undeveloped country in Estonia. For my study I decided to choose two typical Narva schools to cover the language situation in general. The first school was Narva Estonian School, where the majority of students speak Estonian on the level of a native speaker and the language used for education is Estonian as well. The second school was Narva Soldino School, which I chose because, as one of its graduates, I had access to the school through existing connections. The total number of participants was 50. The subjects of the study were chosen from 9th and 12th graders because these grades have the
most influence in students’ lives as they determine their future. In the 9th grade, the student decides whenever he or she wants to go after: gymnasium or vocational school. After the 12th grade, a student usually goes to the university. The grade levels also allow for a reasonable comparison to the subjects of Ehala and Niglas’s (2006) study, as those students were 10th and 12th graders.

Equal representation by gender could reasonably be expected based on the fact that in Estonia, schools and classrooms are usually mixed. In Narva Estonian School, there is only one 9th grade and one 12th grade. It is a small school, and classes are usually small, too. In Narva Soldino School there are three 9th grades: 9A, 9B and 9C. However, the teacher of 9A declined to participate in my study and few students from 9C elected to respond. The school has only one 12th grade. Due to a relatively small sample and bias inherent in the direct assessment strategy used, results should not be regarded as fully representative.

According to the demographic background variables, there was an approximately even number of 9th graders and 12th graders in the sample, and 44.9% of the respondents were boys. 20.4% of the respondents named their mother tongue Estonian. Family incomes were assessed to be above average for 10.2% and below average for 14.3% of students. 36% had one parent with higher education, 32% of respondents’ parents both had higher education, 26% had both parents with secondary school level education, and 6% reported some other educational level for their parents. Of the respondents, 72% considered both parents Russian, whereas 28% reported that neither of parents is Russian. It is interesting to compare these figures with the fact that 79.6% of respondents considered Russian their mother tongue. This contrasts with the study conducted by Ehala and Niglas (2006), in which only those with Estonian as a mother tongue were surveyed.

The measuring instrument the Subjective Vitality Questionnaire for ethnolinguistic groups designed by Bourhis et al. (1981) was use. It is an attitude questionnaire which is focused on the attitudes towards learning English. Additionally, it is targeted to find out the differences in the participants’ attitudes by their demographic information. The items in the questionnaire were partly adapted and some of the items were excluded. The items were put in a 5-point Likert scale of frequency: never, seldom, sometimes, often, and always; and 4-point Likert scale from Level 1: Definitely not, to Level 4: Definitely yes.

The main goal of the analysis was to test the hypothesis that 12th graders will have a more positive attitude towards English in contrast with the responses of 9th graders. In other words, I want to trace where the changes in attitude occur and which grade has a more positive attitude towards learning English.
Another main goal was to test whoever of the students of Russian and Estonian ethnic backgrounds have a more positive attitude towards learning English. It will reveal in which school students are more determined to learn and use English in their every-day life.

To accomplish this study, I followed the following procedures:

1. First of all, I created a questionnaire online and sent it to both schools. I wasn’t happy with a number of a received answers, so I decided to use a printed questionnaire in order to gather more responses. When I got as many answers as I could, the responses were coded from one to five, where five represents a more favourable attitude towards English, or from one to four, where four represents a more favourable attitude towards English.

2. I decided to divide the analysis into three types of comparison. Because the number of factors in the original questionnaire was beyond my resources to include, I selected five out of eleven.

3. Although both schools have the same school programs (though different teaching languages), the students’ responses by districts were analysed separately by the school where they study.

4. When I received the answers, I separated them into the tables where I put together the 12th and 9th grades from each school and compared them to each other.

5. In the last part I created the tables and on the basis of that, I analysed the data collected from Narva school students and Ethnic Estonian students across Estonia.

2.1.3 Summary of Results

I used the frequency table suggested by Ehala and Niglas (2006) to collect and analyse the results from the students. To simplify the scope of the data, and because from eleven factors represented in the table only five (F1, F2, F4, F7, and F11) are relevant to the model in Figure 2, I decided to reduce the factors to these five. The questionnaire included 30 items connected to the use of English in everyday life or in the workspace. I calculated the mean response for each question, and, to summarize each factor as a combination of multiple questions, took the mean of those means as indicative of the factor as a whole. This differs from the more sophisticated factor analysis performed by Ehala and Niglas, which is beyond the scope of this study.

Each factor in this study relates to the model presented in Figure 2: F1 indicates the association with the English-mediated culture, F2 and F7 express instrumental attitudes, and F4 and F11 express integrative attitude towards the respondents’ mother tongue.
TABLE 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>The intensity of English usage in daily life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>Preferring English for pragmatic reasons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>Voluntary language care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>English in work environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5</td>
<td>Estonian as a working language at the local office of a foreign company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6</td>
<td>Availability of education in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7</td>
<td>The prestige of education in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8</td>
<td>Increasing language instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F9</td>
<td>Ethnic openness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F10</td>
<td>Close contacts with non-Estonians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F11</td>
<td>Preference of Estonian/English in a mixed family</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. The table of factors influencing students’ attitudes

![Pie chart showing the frequency of English usage in daily life.]

Figure 3. Frequency of English Usage in Daily Life

Factor 1. (F1) measured how intensively English is used on a daily basis. According to the received results, about 22% of respondents use English intensively (see Table 1.). By sociodemographic factors, the general trend displayed that these, who are from wealthier and better educated families, use English more often than other students. Also, the students who study English in in-depth programs requested to use English more frequently. F1 expressed the usage of English by both Russian and Estonian ethnicities. There is no English minority in Estonia, so such a usage is rather instrumental than
Thereby, the intensity of English usage indirectly shows how strongly it is linked to the global English-speaking culture.

Figure 4. Preferring English for Pragmatic Reasons

Factor 2 (F2) showed that 60% of respondents would choose English if using their mother tongue in the offered situations would require extra exertion or a reason to pay more. By the sociodemographic factors the results are the same to F1: these students, whose parents are well educated and have an above average income, tend to prefer English over other languages. The same situation is with the students who are immersed in English language study, who tend to prefer English over other languages. Upper-secondary school students are more pragmatic than middle school students. Male students are more pragmatic than female students. The similarity in the results of F1 and F2 is caused by the fact that those who use English more often, tend to prefer English over other languages. However, there is one more possible explanation. The respondents chose their mother tongue due to lack of language skills, rather than due to positive instrumental attitude towards it.

Figure 4: English in Work Environment
Figure 5. English in Work Environment

Factor 4 (F4) showed a very interesting tendency. More than a half of respondents, 61%, would rather use English in given work situations (see Table 3.). As a contrast, the students whose parents’ income is below average and don’t have a high education have a higher acceptance percentage. These students who have parents with higher educational level tend to have a lower acceptance for English in a work environment. I suspect that happened because they have higher collective self-esteem than the rest of the students.

Figure 6. The Prestige of Education in English

Factor 7 (F7) is designed to exemplify how important is to the students to receive and give education in English to their children. The particular choice of a certain language is caused by the instrumental attitudes to English. The results showed that the students want the best for their future children, as 22% of them agreed to educate their children in English rather than in their native language. The biggest percentage (42%) of students stated that they would rather do so. In total we get 64% of participants who would likely favour the education in English rather than any other language. Most of the students who did so were studying in in-depth English programs and had families with above average incomes. This tendency shows that in the future people would probably prefer their children to learn English. The results of F7 greatly show how hugely important English language competence is for the students in the world of the future.
Figure 7. Usage of English in a Mixed Family

Factor 11 (F11) used the variables that measured the respondents’ readiness to use their mother tongues in the future if they get married to a foreigner. The results indicated that 22% of the respondents stated that using their mother tongue is not important in their future potential mixed family life. This factor definitely expresses the integrative attitudes of the respondents to Estonian/Russian. If we compare this result with a result of factors measuring instrumental attitudes from F2 and F7, it will look like only 40% (F2) and 36% (F7) have a positive instrumental attitude to their mother tongue, while 66% (F11) of them have a positive integrative attitude.

Figure 8. Summary of the effects on attitudes to English and Russian/Estonian
The analysis exposed that sociodemographic factors are strongly associated with language attitudes (F2, F4, F7, F11) and the type of culture shown in F1. In figure 8 we can see the summary of results from the previous graphics.

Based on the results, we can compose an average portrait of a respondent. It is a female. The first language of a typical member is Russian. Her parents have an average income, and she has one parent with a higher education. Her parents’ ethnicity is Russian. She studies at Narva Soldino gymnasium, is in 9th grade, and has a normal school program. She seldom uses English outside of school and experiences trouble expressing her emotions in English. She never thinks in English; however, she sometimes uses it on the Internet and reads some English literature. She is a pragmatic person, so she prefers English if in a given situation using her mother tongue would cost more. She reads Russian subtitles while watching movies and TV-series in English. But at the same time she has a strong need to learn English because it could be useful in the future for her job and for her future in general. Nevertheless, she would not enroll her child in an English school, but would rather put her child into an English-language kindergarten. She already worries about the future of her kids, so she thinks that they should acquire a higher education abroad. At the same time, she would rather get her higher education in her mother tongue. If she had a foreign husband, she would not make him study Russian, but she considers it very important that her child can speak Russian. The average respondent doesn’t speak English well, so for her is important that the common language in her mixed family would have to be Russian.

Secondary School and Upper-Secondary Students’ Attitudes

To compare the secondary school and upper-secondary school students I used Microsoft Excel to calculate the average from each of their responses and got the correlation between the same answers. The positive attitude was indicated by the highest numbers 5 or 4 (depending on the question), while the most negative attitude toward English was indicated by the number 1. The averages with the highest division, will be presented below.

The biggest division between the results was in the questions below:

1. Do you read English literature (books, magazines, comics) for relaxation?

This question was in the Factor 1 (F1) that measured how intensively English is used on a daily basis. From the whole comparison, I could state that 12th graders (the mean average is 2.2) use English more
often, and as a result, have a positive instrumental attitude towards it, which means that the older one is, the more clearly one understands the idea that the English language will be needed in the future. 9th graders (the average mean is 1.65) lack English skills, so they tend to read less (or not read at all) literature written in English. The difference in answers is 0.55.

2. **Would you agree to go to movies without subtitles, if getting rid of subtitles would make the tickets cheaper by 1,5 euros?**

This question was from Factor 2, which measured how many of the students would prefer English for pragmatic reasons. The results showed that most 12th graders (the average mean is 2.05) are more confident about their English language skills and are more pragmatic as well, so they would watch a movie in the English language. 9th graders (the average mean is 1.62) are less confident and less pragmatic, so they choose their mother tongue over other languages. The difference between the answers is 0.43.

3. **If you owned a small but successful firm with an Estonian/Russian staff who communicated daily with influential foreign customers, would you set English as the internal working language for your company?**

This question was from Factor 4 (F4), which showed that 12th graders (the average mean is 2.9) are already thinking about their future, so they consider themselves working for the international companies with the English language environment. They also understand the importance of the English language on the world-wide market, so for making the communicational process easier, they would hypothetically set English as the international working language for their company. The average mean for 9th graders is 2.62. The difference between the means is 0.28.

4. **Would you say that you will be needed English in the future?**

This question was from Factor 7 (F7), which considered the prestige of education in English. The correlation between the average means of 12th (3.3) and 9th (2.62) graders showed that 12th graders believe they will be needing English in the future more that 9th graders (the difference in means is 0.68). Upper-secondary school students have a positive instrumental attitude towards English and are keen on getting their higher education in English.

5. **If your future spouse were not Estonian/Russian, would she or he have to learn to speak Estonian/Russian?**
This question was from Factor 11 (F11), which considered the usage of English in a mixed family. Most 12\textsuperscript{th} graders (the mean average is 2.28) responded that their future spouse, being a foreigner, would not have to learn Estonian/Russian. 9\textsuperscript{th} graders (the mean average is 1.92) are less open-minded and less ready to integrate into a foreign society more easily that 9\textsuperscript{th} graders (the difference in means is 0.36). Maybe it is connected to the age of the respondents because the older one is, the better he/she understands that it’s not so easy to learn a completely new language.

Summarizing the results, I came to the conclusion that upper-secondary school students have a more positive attitude towards English that secondary school students. The hypothesis that claimed that your attitude towards a foreign language gets more positive while you are in the upper-secondary school is confirmed.

**Narva Soldino Gymnium and Narva Estonian Gymnasium Students’ Attitudes**

To conduct this analysis, I separated the students by the clusters that stand for the schools where they study: Narva Soldino gymnasium and Narva Estonian gymnasium. The first school is known to have Russian as a main teaching language; on the other hand, Estonian Gymnasium is the only school in town with Estonian as the language of instruction. These school are both very different by ethnic background and family incomes as well, so I wanted to trace how the attitudes towards English would be different in both cases.

The analysis itself was made by the same principle as the previous one. I used Microsoft Excel to calculate the average from each of their responses and got the correlation between the same answers. The biggest division between the results was in the following questions:

1) *Do you speak English with your friends?*

Results indicate that students from Narva Estonian school speak English outside of school more frequently (the average is 2.63) than the students of Narva Soldino school (the average is 2.13). The difference is in 0.5 in favour of Narva Estonian gymnasium. That could be caused by the fact that Estonians learn English as a second language, while in Russian-language schools the second language is Estonian.

2) *Do you use English on the Internet (in chat rooms, e-mails)?*
This question showed the same relation. The students of Narva Estonian gymnasium used English on the Internet more often (the average is 3.74) than the students from Narva Soldino gymnasium (the average is 3.35). The difference between the answers is 0.38.

3) Would you agree to go to movies without subtitles, if getting rid of subtitles would make the tickets cheaper by 1.5 euros?

The students from Narva Soldino gymnasium turned out to be more pragmatic (the average is 2.77), whereas Narva Estonian students would rather go to the movie with subtitles in their native language (the average for this question is 2.42). The difference in answers is -0.35).

4) Do you read Estonian/Russian subtitles when you are watching movies in English?

The students from Narva Estonian school read subtitles while watching movies in English more often (the average is 2.74) than the students from Narva Soldino gymnasium (the average is 1.94). Such a big difference (0.80) could be caused by the fact that they just got used to seeing subtitles on Estonian television, whereas Russian television usually doesn’t have them, so Russian people tend to watch the movies in the original language or with dialogue overdubbing.

5) If you knew that the foreign owner of the company you are working for called you shortly, would you answer the phone in English for his sake?

The students of Narva Soldino gymnasium (the average is 3.03) would be more likely to use English in the workplace than the students of Narva Estonian school (the average is 2.37), but in both cases the results are quite positive, so it means that the students from these two schools are equally ready to use their English (the difference is -0.66).

6) Do you have any interest in studying English in the future?

The students from Narva Soldino gymnasium have answered that they would be more likely to study English in the future (the average is 3.16) than the students from Narva Estonian school (the average is 2.68). This difference (0.48) could be explained by the desire of most Russians to go abroad and find their place there, while the students of Narva Estonian gymnasium feel more comfortable in their motherland because their Estonian language skills allow them to find a high-paid job more easily.

7) Would you enrol your child in an English school if it had the same high teaching standard and was as close to home as an Estonian/Russian school?
Narva Soldino gymnasium students would be more likely (the average is 2.87) to enrol their child in an English school than the students of Narva Estonian school (the average is 2.37). The difference in the answers is -0.50.

8) If your future spouse were not Estonian/Russian, would the common language in your family have to be Estonian/Russian?

The majority of the students from Narva Estonian gymnasium answered that the common language in their mixed family would have to be Estonian/Russian (the average is 2.84), whereas the students from Narva Soldino gymnasium would not care if the common language is Russian or any other language (the average is 2.29). The difference in the answers is 0.55. Presumably that happened because the Russian students would be more ready to integrate into a foreign society.

Generally speaking, Narva Estonian gymnasium students use English more often than the student of Narva Soldino gymnasium; however, those of Narva Soldino gymnasium acknowledge English as more useful. Both of these schools have the same average of results for the question pertaining to the use of English in the future. In conclusion, Narva students equally understand the significance of the English language on a global level.

Ethnic Estonian Students Throughout Estonia and Narva Students’ Attitudes

Although both studies have been conducted in Estonia, the results might be different. Ehala and Niglas’s (2006) research was focused on students whose mother tongue was Estonian and represents the attitudes of the school children all over Estonia; on the other hand, in my study I took Narva students of both ethnicities, Russian and Estonian, to get more detailed data. This analysis is made to better understand how the students of the same age groups perceive English in their lives and what the main differences between school children living in Narva and the students of the rest of Estonia are.

In the following paragraph I’ve done a common comparison analysing the summarized means from each of the factors below and used the data given in percentages, transforming it into a histogram. The grouped data histogram clearly shows the ratio of the results between Narva and Estonian students throughout Estonia.
Factor 1. (F1) measured the intensity of English usage on the daily basis. According to the results received in Narva, 22% of respondents use English intensively, it’s 4% more than the students across Estonia. Most of Narva’s students use English sometimes; on the other hand, the students of Estonia use English seldom. In general, both of the variables show that the students across Estonia including Narva, use English very rarely.

Factor 2. (F2) showed that 60% of respondents would choose English if using their mother tongue in the offered situations would need an extra exertion or a reason to pay more, but the students from across Estonia would choose English in 6% fewer cases. In general, we see that the results in both cases are almost equal.
In this histogram we see that the Factor 4. (F4) has the largest difference in the results. Less than a half of Ethnic Estonian students would rather use English in given work situations (see Table 3). This differs with a situation in Narva where students are more likely to communicate in English at work, than their Estonian peers.

Factor 7 (F7) is determined to exemplify how important is to the students to receive and give education in English to their children. The particular choice is caused by the instrumental attitudes to English. The results from both variables are the same, so it means that both Narva’s and Estonia in general’s students want the best for their future children and for themselves. At the same time, they
understand that the education in English would have a good impact on their future career and life itself.

![F11: USAGE OF ENGLISH IN A MIXED FAMILY](image)

*Figure 13. Usage of English in a Mixed Family*

The variables in the results of ethnic Estonian students showed that 14% don’t want to use their mother tongues in the future if they get married to a foreigner. In the same situation of Narva students’ results, it was indicated that 22% of the respondents stated that using their mother tongues (whether Russian or Estonian) is not important in their future mixed family life. That means that Narva students have a higher integrative attitude to their native language, than students across Estonia. Narva students want to save their mother tongue and convey their language to the children.

In general, the results from the both sides show that the students have a positive instrumental attitude towards English, but in some cases Narva students feel more positive about English language than the students of Estonia in general. Narva students also have a higher integrative attitude towards their mother tongue than the students of Estonian ethnicity.
CONCLUSION

The English language is the most important language in the world. It is spoken by half of the world’s population and has an official status in 67 counties. At the same time English in the last couple decades has gained an increasing popularity in European counties. This can be observed not only in the use of English on TV and other media, but also by the increasing implementation of language classes in schools.

My research aimed to analyse the difference in the views of learning English between the students of different age groups and different ethnic backgrounds. The ultimate goal was to understand how Narva’s middle and upper-secondary school students view different languages and whether they feel ready to communicate and integrate with people all over the world. This research aimed to gather information about students’ attitudes and perceptions of English.

This particular study discussed the results of a large-scale survey of the attitudes towards English of Narva secondary and upper-secondary school students, Narva Soldino Gymnium and Narva Estonian Gymnasium students, and Narva students and Estonian students in general.

The results revealed that Narva students overall have a positive instrumental attitude towards English. In some cases, Narva students feel more positive about English language than the students of Estonia in general. Narva students also have a higher integrative attitude towards their mother tongue than the students of Estonian ethnicity. The upper-secondary school students have a more positive attitude towards English that the secondary school students. The hypothesis that claimed that students’ attitudes towards a foreign language become more positive in upper-secondary school is confirmed.

Narva Estonian gymnasium students use English more often than the student of Narva Soldino gymnasium; however, those of Narva Soldino gymnasium acknowledge English as more useful. Both of these schools have the same average of results for the question pertaining to the use of English in the future, so the students of both schools are determined to learn and use English in their every-day lives. The hypothesis stated that students of Narva’s Estonian-language school would see English as more useful than students of its Russian-language schools because those of Russian ethnicity have access to a large body of Russian-language media, while ethnic Estonians, because of Estonia’s small population, tend towards international, English-language sources of culture and information, is not confirmed.
REFERENCES

12. Timmis, Ivor. 2002 Native speaker norms and international English. ELT Journal, 56(3).


SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Selle lõputöö teema on “Narva kooliõpilaste hoiakud inglise keele õppimise suhtes“. Selle uurimistöö eesmärgiks on analüüsida inglise keele õppimist erinevate õpilaste vahel, kes on erinevates vanuserühmades ning erinevate rahvuslike taustadega. Lõppeesmärk on mõista kuidas Narva põhi- ja keskkooli õpilased on avatud erinevate keelte õppimiseks, kas nad on valmis kõnelema inimestega üle maailma ja nendega integreeruma. See uurimistöö seab eesmärgiks koguda infot õpilaste suhtumisest inglise keele suhtes ning selle ettekujutusest, mida õpetajad saavad kasutada, et teha kõlblikke otsuseid, metodikaid ning õpetamisstrateegiaid.

Ma oletan, et Narva õpilaste hoiakud saavad positiivsemaks põhikooli jooksul, kui õpilased saavad paremini aru inglise keele kasulikkusest kui rahvusvahelise keelest.

Ma eeldan, et Narva eesti öppekeelega kooliõpilased peavad inglise keelel kasulikumaks kui õpilased vene öppekeelega koolidest, sest nelend, kes on venenõud, on suures hulgas juurdepääs venekeelsele meediale, kuigi eestlased, oma väikse rahvaarvu tõttu, eelistavad rahvusvahelisi inglise keele kultuuri ja informatsiooni allikaid.

Töö on jaotatud kolmeks osaks. Esimene osa on sissejuhatus, mis seletab teemavalikut ja selle tähtsust, arutab inglise keele rolli ja kohta Euroopa Liidus ning inglise keele hetkest olukorda Eestis, eriti Narvas ning tutvustab uurimistöö eesmärke ja hüpoteesi.


Keskkooli õpilastel on positiivsem suhtumine inglise keelel kui põhikoooli õpilastel. Hüpotes, mis väitis, et sinu suhtumine väärtusel muutub positiivsemaks samal ajal kui sa õpid keskkoolis, on kinnitatud.

Narva Eesti Gümnaasiumi õpilased kasutavad inglise keelt tihemini kui Narva Soldino Gümnaasiumi õpilased, kuigi nad tunnistavad inglise keelt kui kasulikumat keelt. Mõlemad koolis
näitavad samasugust keskimist tulemust küsimusele, mis puudutab inglise keele kasu tulevikus, seega mõlema kooli õpilased on kindlaks teinud, et õppida ja kasutada inglise keelt nende igapäevases elus. Hüpotees väitis, et õpilased eesti õppekeelega koolidest Narvas näevad inglise keelt kasulikumana kui õpilased vene õppekeelga koolidest, kuna need kes on rahvuselt venelased, nendel on suurel hulgal ligipääs vene meediale, samal ajal kui etnillised eestlased väikese rahvusliku koosseisust töötavad rahvusvahelise, inglisekeelsete kultuuri ja informatsiooni allikate poole, ei ole kinnitatud.
APPENDICES

Questionnaire

STUDENTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH IN NARVA SCHOOLS

Please answer the following questions. This questionnaire is anonymous, so your identity won't be revealed in any other sources or documents. Please put ✓ in the box.

1. Do you give your permission to use the answers for research purposes?
   ☐ YES  ☐ NO

2. What is your first language?
   ☐ Russian  ☐ English

3. What is your family income?
   ☐ Above average  ☐ average  ☐ Below average

4. What is your gender?
   ☐ Female  ☐ Male

5. What is your parents' education?
   ☐ both have higher education
   ☐ one parent with higher education
   ☐ both parents with secondary school level education
   ☐ both parents with some other educational level

6. What is your parents' ethnicity?
   ☐ Russian  ☐ Estonian

7. In which school do you study?
   Narva Soldino Gymnasium
   Narva Estonian Gymnasium

8. What is your education program?
   Normal
   Extended in English language teaching
   Extended in some other subject

9. In which grade do you study?
   ☐ 9  ☐ 12
Part 1. Frequency of English Usage in Daily Life

Please put ✓ in the box

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<th>Questions</th>
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<td>Do you speak in English with your friends?</td>
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<td>Is it easier for you to express emotions (surprise, love, anger) in English?</td>
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<td>Do you think in English?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you use English on the Internet (in chat rooms, e-mails)? *</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you read English literature (books, magazines, comics) for relaxation?</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part 2. Preferring English for Pragmatic Reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>definitely not</th>
<th>rather not</th>
<th>rather yes</th>
<th>definitely yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Would you agree to go to movies without subtitles, if getting rid of subtitles would make the tickets cheaper by 1,5 euros?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Would you buy a mobile phone with an English menu if it would cost 5% less than the same phone with an Estonian/Russian menu?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you read Estonian/Russian subtitles when you are watching movies in English?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Part 3. English in Work Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>definitely not</th>
<th>rather not</th>
<th>rather yes</th>
<th>definitely yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If you owned a small but successful firm with an Estonian/Russian staff who communicated daily with influential foreign customers, would you set English as the internal working language for your company?</td>
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<tr>
<td>If you knew that the foreign owner of the company you are working for called you shortly, would you answer the phone in English for his sake?</td>
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<tr>
<td>If your superiors required reports written in English, would you require the same from your subordinates?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Part 4. The Prestige of Education in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Definitely not</th>
<th>Rather not</th>
<th>Rather yes</th>
<th>Definitely yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you have any interest in studying English in the future?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Would you say that you will be needed English in the future?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Would you enroll your child in an English school if it had the same high teaching standard and was as close to home as an Estonian/Russian school?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Would you put your child into an English-language day care center?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Should your child acquire his/her higher education abroad?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you could acquire a university degree in your favorite specialty either in Estonian/Russian or in English, would you prefer English?</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Part 5. Usage of Russian/Estonian in a Mixed Family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Definitely not</th>
<th>Rather not</th>
<th>Rather yes</th>
<th>Definitely yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If your future spouse were not Estonian/Russian, would she or he have to learn to speak Estonian/Russian?</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>If your future spouse were not Estonian/Russian, would it be important for you to teach your child Estonian/Russian?</td>
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<tr>
<td>If your future spouse were not Estonian/Russian, would the common language in your family have to be Estonian/Russian?</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Supervised by Lect. Jesse Davey,

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*Tatjana Ašihmina 23.05.2016*

*Töö autori allkirja ja kuupäev*