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**LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE AS SCHOOLSCAPE AND PEDAGOGICAL TOOL IN  
LANGUAGE IMMERSION EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY FROM ESTONIAN  
LANGUAGE IMMERSION SCHOOL**

Bachelor's thesis

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Narva 2023

Kinnitus

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Damir Nuriev

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## INTRODUCTION

Language, as a sign system, has many different ways of expression and use. One of them is creating and reading of any sort of language elements in a physical environment to communicate meanings publicly in a social context. Such language use is generated and perceived in a form of *linguistic landscape*. Such a reflection in the visible material domain of language use has its own special characteristics, which can tell a lot not only about the language as such, but also more broadly, about the social context where any language is used. The linguistic landscape also has peculiar functions that affect both the way the language is used for various purposes, and its perception by readers. In this regard, studies of the linguistic landscape can reveal the actual language use from different perspectives. In the present work, the focus is on sociolinguistic and pedagogical aspects of the linguistic landscape in a concrete geographical, social and educational circumstances. More specifically, the author tried to describe and analyze the linguistic landscape in one Estonian language immersion school in northeastern Estonia and its use in pedagogical practices by the school teachers.

### **Description of the work theme**

Linguistic landscape refers to the visible display of languages in a given geographical area. It encompasses all the visible and audible languages that can be seen and even heard in public spaces, including street signs, billboards, advertisements, store signs, public transportation, and other forms of public communication. Landry and Bourhis (1997: 25) have defined the linguistic landscape as “the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration.”

By examining the linguistic landscape, many scholars have provided insights into the attitudes and values of the people who use these public spaces, and the ways in which language is used to construct identity, negotiate power, and express cultural and social norms (Ben-Rafael, et al., 2006; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009).

Even though linguistic landscape studies used to be associated mostly associated with research conducted in urban settings, nowadays many researchers have shifted their focus from macro to micro level analysis of a specific public places, where the interaction with visually displayed

language is more intense and closely connected with the social context (Gorter, 2013), such as libraries, shops, museums and educational institutions. Those visual language practices in educational settings is called *schoolscape*. It involves classroom materials, posters, artwork, school management rules, and the language used by students and teachers (Szabo, 2015: 24). By examining the schoolscape, it might be seen in what ways language and culture intersect with educational practices, and how these intersections shape the socialization and learning experiences of students (Brown, 2005). Schoolscape has been analyzed from linguistic anthropology and education research perspectives to understand how language and culture are constructed and transmitted in educational institutions. It can help researchers and educators understand the ways in which language policies and practices impact the educational experiences of students and contribute to the construction of social and cultural identities (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

In this regard, it is useful to take a look at schoolscales in different sociolinguistic and educational contexts to investigate how linguistic landscape functions in given circumstances, especially in what ways it could shape and contribute to the target language teaching and learning. As of the present work, linguistic environment in language immersion programmes is unique and complex educational approach intensively engaging students with the target language through different mediums and inputs, including visual one (Baker, 2001; Rannut, 2003). This second language education approach is designed to help students learn the target language in a natural and intuitive way, much like the way they learned their first language as children. Concerning this fact, language acquisition in a framework of language immersion requires authentic and contextually meaningful language input, that might be provided via visual and non-verbal aspects of the second language (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008: 268; Rannut, 2003).

In the present work, both ‘natural’ linguistic landscape of the Estonian language immersion school and specially designed and beforehand prepared teaching wall materials are both considered. They convey information in the target language (Estonian), being the language input, reflect regional sociolinguistic environment, transmit and reinforce social, cultural and educational practices. Concerning schoolscape as pedagogical tool in Estonian language immersion classes, beforehand designed visual and textual teaching materials are called ‘Talking Walls’ (*est. ‘Rääkivad Seinad’*). Pedagogical use of ‘Talking Walls’ is a common practice in language immersion classrooms, where labels and signs are placed on objects, walls, and other surfaces to reinforce the language being learned. For example, a classroom might have labels in

the target language for objects like pencils, books, and chairs, as well as signs for classroom routines and instructions (Muldma et al., 2010).

### **Research area and data sources**

The present case study was conducted in Sinimäe Basic School (hereinafter referred to as 'Sinimäe school'). The Sinimäe School is a basic school located in Sinimäe, Narva-Jõesuu municipality in the northeastern region of Estonia, Ida-Virumaa county. The school provides basic education from grades 1 to 9 (ages 6-15), having both Estonian and Russian as languages of instruction. This study year 2022/2023, the school has 110 students with 28 students in the Estonian department and 82 students in the language immersion department. The current number of teachers is 21. Almost all students speak Russian as mother tongue. Whereas, a half of the teaching staff are native Estonians (10), and another part is Russian-speaking (11).

Starting from the 2007/08 academic year, the school joined language immersion programme providing education on the basis of the one-way early language immersion instruction. Previous research on Estonian language immersion in the Ida-Virumaa region, specifically in Kohtla-Jarve (Zabrodskaja, 2004) and Narva (Dubovik, 2013), has highlighted several issues specific for the region. Despite an increase in Estonian language training quantity, additional activities, and language manuals, the level of language competence among Russian-speaking children remains unsatisfactory in Kohtla-Jarve. Parents in Kohtla-Jarve prefer sending their children to total early immersion classes as they believe it is necessary for their children's normal socialization, integration into Estonian society, higher education in Estonian language, and successful career prospects. Studies have shown that the best results in language acquisition have been achieved in language immersion schools, where early total immersion is implemented. In Narva, research has shown that late language immersion programs in schools are only partially implemented, mainly due to the lack of qualified teachers and teaching materials. Contrary to the hypothesis that Russian-speaking students cannot cope with the workload of language immersion programs, findings indicate that they are capable of handling the program and making progress in the learning process. The language environment plays a crucial role in facilitating language acquisition, but in Narva, where only 3.8% of the population are Estonians and 82.5% are Russians, it may not be as supportive. Russian-speaking parents in the region see the implementation of language immersion methodology in preschools as a way to ensure quality Estonian language acquisition for their children, believing it to be a successful preparation for both school and life in Estonia.

The region Ida-Virumaa and the municipality, where the school is located, most of the population speaks Russian as mother tongue, and Estonian is much less spoken (Statistic Estonia, 2021; see Table 3. and Table 4 in Appendix 6). In Ida-Virumaa, out of a total population of 132,325, only 15% have Estonian as their mother tongue, while 83% have Russian as their mother tongue (Statistics Estonia, 2023). In Sinimäe borough, out of a total population of 319, 69% have Russian as their mother tongue, while only 31% have Estonian as their mother tongue (Statistics Estonia, 2021). Therefore, the majority of the Sinimäe school students uses mainly Russian on daily basis as their mother tongue.

The data included photographs of the school linguistic landscape (N=260), interviews with primary school teachers (N = 4), one lesson observation (N=1) and student focus group discussion (N = 1). Photographs were taken with the personal smartphone camera inside the classrooms visited, but also in the corridors, other rooms (e.g. the library, canteen, sport hall) and the immediate surroundings (in particular the school front and the school yard). The focus of the present work is on primary school classes (1-4 grades) and teaching practices under early total language immersion instruction. The reason for a such narrow view is that the teaching model in early total language immersion primary grades requires a great exposure to the target language through different domains, so the language environment should be much richer and more versatile, comparing to higher grades (Rannut, 2005). Another words, various engagements with the language on primary level is very important, including visual and non-verbal ones, and need to be studied more precisely. The research participants were comprised of teachers and primary school level students. The photographs were taken during study year 2022/2023. The data collection happened various times during this study year.

**Research subject** – linguistic landscape of the Estonian language immersion school, the usage of linguistic and extra-linguistic tools in language immersion instructional practices in primary school.

**The main research questions:**

1. What is the linguistic landscape of the school in terms of the languages represented, their domains, function, and origin?
2. How are sociolinguistic context, educational and language policies reflected in the linguistic landscape?
3. In what ways do the elements of the schoolscape meet the pedagogical goals of the immersion program at the Sinimäe School?

4. How symbols and visual material transmit cultural norms of the languages presented on the schoolscape?
5. How is the linguistic landscape in the school perceived by primary level teachers and students?
6. In what ways is it used for teaching in Estonian language immersion settings on the primary school level?

**The research goal** is to characterize elements of the linguistic landscape, their functionality and primary level students' and teachers' perception and use in teaching practices in Estonian language immersion settings, providing detailed analysis.

To achieve the research goal, the following **research objectives** have been set:

1. To explore research subject-related theoretical and methodological approaches of analysis.
2. To collect qualitative (interview, lesson observations) and quantitative (photographs) data in Sinimäe school.
3. To analyze and interpret collected data considering local sociolinguistic context, language and educational policies both on state (macro) and school (micro) levels from ethnographic and pedagogical perspectives, conducting linguistic landscape analysis.
4. To characterize teachers' and students' attitudes towards language(s) used in the school space.
5. To describe and analyze teachers' (non)use of the schoolscape for teaching purposes under Estonian one-way language immersion pedagogical framework on primary school level.

#### **Research hypothesis:**

1. The use of schoolscape as a pedagogical tool in Estonian language immersion school can have a positive impact on students' Estonian language acquisition and cultural awareness.
2. Linguistic Landscape analysis of the school environment can reveal patterns in the use and visibility of different languages, language and educational policy.
3. The linguistic landscape of Estonian language immersion school can reflect the language ideologies and power dynamics of the local community, and can be used as a lens for examining issues of language hierarchies and linguistic diversity.

#### **Methodological approach**

The research was designed in a way of case study. According to Stake (2005: 2), ‘Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances’. In the present work the focus is on the research subject – linguistic landscape in Sinimäe school within the educational and sociolinguistic context of language immersion programme. The choice of methodological approach fell on ethnography, educational ethnography in particular. Educational ethnography can be a valuable research method for collecting data and analyzing the linguistic landscape in schools. This method involves immersing oneself in the school setting, often for an extended period of time, in order to observe and even participate in the daily activities of the school community. The goal of educational ethnography is to gain a deep understanding of the socio-cultural and educational practices that shape the experiences of students, teachers, and other members of the school community (Delamont & Atkinson, 1995). The key is to find out why, how and in what way schools act exactly the way they do. One of the benefits of using educational ethnography as a research method is that it allows researchers to collect rich, detailed data about the linguistic landscape of the school (Brown, 2012). This includes the languages and symbolic signs written texts and visual images that are present in the school environment. By observing and participating in the daily activities of the school, researchers can gain a nuanced understanding of how different elements of the linguistic landscape are used in different contexts and for different purposes.

In order to conduct educational ethnography, the author engaged in a variety of data collection techniques, including lesson observation, interviews, and photographic document analysis. Lesson observations involved observing activities of students and teachers during lesson time, their interaction with the schoolscape and their perception of it. Interviews were used to gather more in-depth information about the experiences and perspectives of teachers and students. Photographic document analysis involved analyzing written and visual texts that are present in the school environment, such as signs, posters, and student work.

Once data has been collected, a variety of analytical techniques to analyze the linguistic landscape of the school were applied. This may involve identifying patterns and themes in the data, using linguistic analysis to examine the use of different languages and symbolic elements, and examining the ways in which different linguistic practices were associated with socio-cultural and educational circumstances.

## **Research topicality and novelty**

Little research has been done on linguistic landscape in educational context in Estonia. Kara Brown (2005; 2012) was focused on studying regional identities and togetherness ('we feeling') in school environments in Southern Estonia, Võrumaa region. Another study in educational setting was conducted by Josep Soler (2018) from Stockholm University about how major universities in Baltic states, including University of Tartu, transmit state language policy of multilingualism but also provide space for intercultural dialogue being internationally recognized educational and scientific centers. The lack of studies of the linguistic landscape in schools and other educational institutions makes the present work relevant, contributing to the schoolscape research in general. Especially when looking at pedagogical perspective of linguistic landscape in educational settings, there is no research on it, only few language immersion teacher guidelines containing some information about 'Talking Walls' (Rannut 2003, 2005; Muldma et al., 2010). To make this teaching practice of using schoolscape more research and evidence-based, more studies, like the present one, are needed.

## **Thesis structure**

This thesis follows a standard structure with two main chapters, theoretical framework and empirical research, followed by a conclusion.

Chapter I, the theoretical framework, provides the reader with the necessary background knowledge to understand the empirical research. It consists of six sections, starting with an introduction to language immersion education as a teaching approach, and then goes on to discuss its different types, its relation to cultural awareness and social integration, and its history in Estonia. The chapter also includes an introduction to the linguistic landscape theory, its relevance to Estonia, and its use as a pedagogical tool in language immersion settings.

Chapter II, the empirical research, is focused on the case study of one a language immersion school, Sinimäe school. This chapter describes the research sample, methodology, data collection methods, and ethical considerations. The data collection methods include observation with photography, interviews and focus group discussions, and linguistic landscape analysis. The chapter concludes with data analysis and findings.

The conclusion chapter summarizes the main findings of the study and discusses their implications. It also highlights the limitations of the research and suggests directions for future research.

## **CHAPTER I THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **1.1 Language Immersion Education**

Language education landscape is very diverse, and educators have been using so many different language pedagogy strategies to teach either mother tongue or foreign language (first and second languages correspondingly). Traditional formal instruction focuses more on teaching the language as an end in itself. This conventional way of foreign language teaching considers foreign language as a subject, which is taught on the basis of mother tongue (Fortune, 2014). As an alternative to the formal language instruction, in some multicultural societies are widely spread bilinguistic language educational methods, corresponding with multilingual socio-cultural circumstances (Ibid.). One of them is named language immersion.

The term ‘language immersion’ emerged in the 1960s when French language immersion programmes for English-speaking children were introduced in the Canadian educational system, since there are two official languages – English and French. Parents of majority-language-speaking children in the bilingual town of St. Lambert were dissatisfied with the teaching methods of French. With the help of scholars from McGill University, the first French language immersion program was initiated in 1965 (Genesee, 1998). Although French language immersion is often considered as the first language immersion program, similar bilingual education has already existed in Europe before. Bilingual education with a focus on indigenous languages such as Irish and Welsh originated in the 1920s and 1930s. Nowadays the programme is in use in many countries and regions around the world, such as USA, Spain (Catalonia and Basque Country), Finland, Estonia, Belgium, Ireland etc. (Nissilä & Björklund, 2014.).

#### **1.1.1 Language Immersion as Language Teaching Approach**

As a second language teaching approach, language immersion programs are educational practices in which two (or more) languages are used for schooling. One of them is the students' mother tongue (L1) and the other is the second language or foreign language (L2). At least 50% of the curriculum is acquired through a second language (language of instruction), i.e. a foreign language, either within one or several years (Genesee 1987: 11). In the case of traditional foreign language learning, instruction takes place in language classes, where the main emphasis is on teaching vocabulary, grammar and sentence structure, and the practical use of the language remains an independent activity of the learner (Richards & Rogers, 2001). While immersion is

aimed at achieving bilingualism, and aims to give students equal proficiency in both languages (Genesee, 1987).

As it is seen from Table 1 (see Appendix 6), made by Colin Baker (2001: 194), language immersion as a form of bilingual education is aimed at both bilingual literacy development with emphasis on the second language and social integration with maintaining of students' cultural identity. Baker also drew attention of the distinction between foreign and second language. When focusing in which educational context second language acquisition takes place, it is important to consider that the target language can be either a second or foreign language. According to Kramsch (2007: 5), a foreign language "is a language that is learned in an instructional environment or during a temporary sojourn abroad as part of general education of for professional purposes". Whereas, a second language "is a language other than the mother tongue learned in an environment in which that language is the dominant language or where the language is an international language of commerce and industry". That is why, in language immersion settings the target language of teaching is named as a second language corresponding to the programmer's goals for language outcome and societal aim. The next important notion for discussing second language education, language immersion in particular, is whether to use the terms 'second language learning' or 'second language acquisition'. Conventionally among language immersion scholars (Baker, 2001; Genesee, 1999; Johnson & Swain, 1999), the term 'second language acquisition' is much more appropriate, since it describes the essence of this type of bilingual education. This is based mostly on Stephen Krashen's (1994) the 'Acquisition-Learning hypothesis'. The Acquisition-Learning distinction is the most fundamental of the five hypotheses in Krashen's theory of second language acquisition. Krashen contrasts the two terms. Acquisition is an unconscious process, while learning is a conscious one. Krashen's 'acquisition' is comparable to how children acquire their first language, when children do not pay attention to the language form, but acquire the language on a subconscious level. When people 'learn' second language, they pay attention to the form and language grammatical rules in a conscious way. As of language immersion, it is important that acquisition takes place in a communicative and meaningful context *with* and *through* the language.

To be precise, it should be noted that language immersion is not only about pedagogical bilingualism (or multilingualism). It is also about the use of language as a medium to teach any study content. This way of teaching is called Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). It is language learning where language is learned in a communicative situation (Johnson & Swain, 1999). CLIL is actually a broader 'umbrella' term that encompasses several models of

second language acquisition, such as immersion programs, partial foreign language learning and camps, international language learning projects, etc. (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2010). Thus, language immersion is actually one of the CLIL learning models.

It is also important to note two different CLIL language education paradigms: submersion and immersion. Submersion is a form of CLIL education, in which a child with different language background learns in another country in the prevailing language environment. Immersion is considered a more effective language learning method, but its disadvantage may be a poorer knowledge of the mother tongue/first language (L1) due to insufficient opportunities to use it, because the second (L2) language used on a daily basis becomes dominant (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). Whereas immersion is a form of CLIL, where the language is taught and learned simultaneously both as an object of teaching and learning, and also the medium of instruction (Johnson & Swain, 1999). The aim of this form of language learning is to acquire language skills in both languages on appropriate level (Genesee, 2004). In those educational settings, the content of the subject as well as the language are acquired simultaneously.

One of the guiding principles of language immersion programme is one language-one teacher (Fortune & Tedick, 2008). It means, that in language immersion schools or kindergartens there is a strict language separation by teachers or other staff, like language therapists, school psychologists and special education teachers. This approach is based on the theory of one language-one person, developed by the French linguist Maurice Grammont in 1902. He suggested, that by separating languages from the very beginning of cognitive and language development, parents could avoid confusion and code-mixing in their bilingual children's development. In language immersion context, one language-one teacher principle serves as enforcement for students to use the target language with teachers to communicate considering that these teachers could understand students only in the target language.

### **1.1.2 Language Immersion, Cultural Awareness and Social Integration**

In addition to acquiring the target language skills, students of language immersion programs also become aware of the target culture and acquire some extra-linguistic competencies. As it might be seen in Figure 1, language immersion programme implies socio-cultural enrichment and pluralism as an educational and societal aim among with acquiring second language, while maintaining the first one. This societal aim also gives importance to identity formation during educational process in language immersion settings. Therefore, cultural component of language

immersion programme is significant non-linguistic educational goals, like cultural awareness social integration (Baker, 2001: 194). However, it should be noted that the acquisition of language and culture are not strictly separate aspects of the second language education, but are simultaneous processes that complement and reinforce each other (Fenner, 2001; Kramsch, 1993). Language helps people learn the culture of any social and cultural community (nation, ethnicity, subculture) where the language is used and vice versa, culture helps to better understand how the language is used in the real communication of this culture and how language relates an identity of a community.

According to Shiarev and Levy (2004), culture is defined as “a set of symbolic systems that are learned by members of a society”. Those symbolic systems include habits, customs, beliefs, traditions knowledge, values, norms, art and language. The latter is not only tool for communication, but equally important, it is an expression of culture (Fenner, 2001: 144). Anne-Brit Fenner (ibid.) sees this dialectical nature of any language as resource for two pedagogical aspects in second language teaching:

- a) teaching *about* the target culture
- b) teaching and learning of socio-linguistic and socio-cultural behaviour within the framework of a communicative approach

Considering these pedagogical aspects, students can become more culturally aware about the target language and culture. According to Tomalin and Stempleski (2013) cultural awareness is “a development regarding the understanding of other people’s cultures and your own culture, a growing positive interest in how cultures can both differ and connect”. Cortazzi and Jin (1999) see cultural awareness as a competence in becoming aware of the members of other cultural groups, this includes their values, expectations, behaviors and perspectives. Anne-Brit Fenner (2001: 145) claims, that those aspects of the target language pedagogy enable teachers to develop the target cultural awareness among students leading them to acquire knowledge about the target language culture, socio-cultural competence and a positive attitude to the culture other from their own one. The second is especially important in multicultural education and communicative second language teaching settings promoting resilience, intercultural dialogue, seen as a set of skills which the target language learner has to be acquainted with in order to cope in the target culture. Worth noting, that strict distinction between knowledge, socio-cultural competence and attitude is difficult to implement in teaching and learning processes, as the three categories are interrelated. This notion is supported by Kramsh (1993) in her model of co-study of language and culture happening through the relationship of language and context. The context implies the

culture of the text, the position of students to the text and to the culture of a group of students in the learning process, which allows integrating aspects of the language and types of speech activity based on the meaningful cultural context, which is also an important feature of language immersion pedagogy.

Tending to be a meeting point of students with different sociocultural and linguistic background, bilingual enriching language immersion classroom becomes a great place for intercultural dialogue cultural variability. From the perspective of second language education, cultural variability involves exposure to variety and diversity of cultures, which should be found at all stages and levels of learning second language. One of the fundamental factors in a proper intercultural dialogue and introduction to the culture of the target language being studied should be the dominant socio-political factors, as well as factors of socialization and individual factors (Kramsch, 1993). The language immersion aims at additive bilingualism, which means that students acquire the second language, getting familiar with target language and culture without the development of the first language and cultural identity being negatively affected (Baker, 2011: 299; see Figure 1). It enables students to communicate effectively and socialize in the target language environment and society (Bergroth, 2016: 86). In this regard, one of the goals of language immersion is to foster acquisition of the norms and values of the second language and culture, resulting in socio-cultural competence in both cultures and languages (Baker 1995; Genesee 1984) and further social integration (Baker, 2001).

### **1.1.3 Types of Language Immersion Education**

Canadian language immersion programme is classified by Fred Genesee (1998) on the basis of the time of starting of language learning and the level of language input as follows: early, middle and late immersion, which are also divided into total and partial immersion.

Early immersion programs begin in kindergarten or first grade when students are about five years old, which is the most typical program in Canada. In an early total immersion program, all instruction from 1st to 3<sup>rd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> grades is conducted in the second language. In some schools, teaching in the first language is gradually started from the second grade, while in some, it is only from the fourth grade or even later. In the following grades, other subjects are also studied in the first language, starting with mathematics and natural sciences. No subject is taught in both languages during the same school year. In the last grades of the early immersion program (5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades), learning in the first language varies in different schools, from 20% to 60-70% of

the total teaching time. Quite often teachers can speak only one of the languages in order to force children to speak another language as much as possible. In early partial immersion program, about half of the primary school instruction (1<sup>st</sup>- 4<sup>th</sup> grades) is in the second language and half in the first language. From the very beginning, subjects are divided between both languages in such a way that no subject is taught in both languages during the same school year. Teachers never (or almost never) translate information presented in a second language into the first language to help students understand better.

In middle immersion programmes students from kindergarten to 4<sup>th</sup>-5<sup>th</sup> grade study in their first language. In preparation for immersion, students at this stage receive 30-60 minutes of direct instruction in the second language per day (Cummins, 1998). Subjects are taught in the second language only in the middle grades of primary school, usually in the 4<sup>th</sup> grade (when students are around nine or ten years old). From the 4<sup>th</sup> to the 6<sup>th</sup> grade (which is considered as the final grade of primary school in Quebec) on average, half of the teaching is conducted in the second language and half in the first language (Genesee, 1987: 21-22). In secondary school, part of the teaching takes place in the first language and part in the second language, the proportions are different in different schools and regions.

Late immersion usually starts from 12 years (5<sup>th</sup>- 6<sup>th</sup> grades). By this time, students have accumulated some experience of learning in another language. In most cases, they have had 45-60 minutes of study in the second language every day since the first grade. Prior exposure to a second language is necessary for students to be able to make a successful transition to learning that language in secondary school. Secondary school curriculum is taught by teachers who are native speakers of the second language or have an equal command of it, and all teaching is conducted in the second language for one or two years, except for literacy and literature lessons in the first language. In final grades (9<sup>th</sup> – 11<sup>th</sup>), elective subjects such as history, geography, and mathematics are taught in the second language. Thus, Canadian students who are English native speakers are able to study the same subjects in French as students whose first language is French.

Second language immersion programs are feasible and effective for those students who come to school and speak their first language well. Numerous researches have showed that students in immersion programs have an appropriate level of first language skills and general educational development, and they acquire comprehensively functional second language skills as well (Fortune, 2014; Genesee, 2004; Cummins, 1998). Even students with some degree of limitation in language immersion programs achieve the same results as comparable students in regular first

language programs, while achieving much better results in second language acquisition. Early total immersion programs are usually the most successful, but two-year late immersion programs are also relatively effective (Genesee, 1998).

## 1.2 Language Immersion in Estonia

### 1.2.1 Historical Context

In August 1991, Estonia declared itself independent for the second time, restoring its independence. After this one of the major problems was the lack of knowledge of the Estonian language among the non-Estonian population. The Estonian language skills of the majority of high school graduates with the Russian language of instruction were not sufficient to join the labor market or to continue their studies in higher education institutions (Mehisto et al., 2010: 12–13). It was acknowledged that the reason was that the national language was taught to Russian-speaking children in a way that did not lead to good language skills to be achieved, because the soviet state curriculum did not emphasize the importance of Estonian language teaching and learning for non-Estonians in Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic. It was based on the language policy of the Soviet Union, which assumed that soviet people have to be able to speak the only one main language of the state - Russian, and the knowledge of Estonian (like other national languages in other soviet republics) was not particularly important (Vare, 1999: 47). In other words, the Estonian language was taught as one of the foreign languages of the state curriculum (including German, English or French) in Russian-speaking educational institutions, and the amount of the lessons was insufficient for the students to be able to communicate and study in Estonian after graduation. This problem is especially serious in those regions (mostly in Tallinn and northwestern Estonia) where the prevailing majority of the inhabitants is Russian speakers who came from other parts of the Soviet Union to boost industrial development after the occupation in 1940. In this regard the issue of Estonian language teaching and learning has still not been fully resolved to this day and has multiple perspectives connected with social integration, national and cultural identity, educational policy and pedagogy. The last aspect is in the focus of the present work. Nevertheless, it is still crucial to take the broader socio-political context into consideration researching the teaching of the national language for non-Estonian population in Estonian educational settings.

Based on the 1991 "Population Census" data of the Statistics Estonia (*est. Statistikaamet*), it is seen that in 1991 the Republic of Estonia had 1,567,749 inhabitants, among them 966,255 were Estonians, leading to conclusion that the proportion of Russians and other nationalities was rather large (Statistikaamet, 1991). Sociological surveys from 1995 and 1997 show that only 12% (1995) and 14% (1997) of Russians aged 15-40 can speak Estonian. In the age group 15–74 only one-quarter of respondents indicated an appropriate level of Estonian language (1995), of

which the 24–32-year-olds have the lowest language skills (Vare, 1999: 46). Based on the data, it is seen that the integration process needed new solutions, as nearly a third of the population was separated from the national community due to the language barrier. They were not involved in the political, cultural and economic life in Estonia. Due to the lack of information it was difficult to get informed about civil obligations, opportunities and rights (ibid.). That is why, language skills have been playing a major role in social integrational of non-Estonian population. Apparently one of the ways of linguistic and cultural integration became education on each level (from preschool to university).

### **1.2.2 Estonian State Language Policy and Education**

In order to implement the new language education policy some changes were made in legislation of educational sphere. The first step was the Language Act of 1989 considered to be an urgent solution for preventing the loss of the status of the Estonian language as the state language and functionally significant in Estonia in a situation of monolingual territorial division on the territory of Estonia, where Russian language already prevailed over Estonian in almost all social spheres, especially in education. According to Mart Rannut (2004: 5), the Language Act of 1989 did not solve the situation substantially, but rather maintained the status quo by granting the right to receive education in one's native language (either Estonian or Russian). The Language Act of 1989 in force until April 1995, after which a new Language Act was adopted. The Act of 1995 was intended to reinforce Estonian as the official (national) language and a common language and the hierarchization and regulation for minority languages (Rannut, 2008: 10). For example, in Article 4 of the 1995 Language Act the right to communicate in the Estonian language on the whole territory of Estonia was emphasized in order to regulate and normalize Estonian language use in the society. However, language use regulations and normalization were slowed down and became a secondary for the state policy, as Estonian government prioritized the accession to international governmental organizations (e.g. European Union and NATO) (ibid.).

Nevertheless, later the legal status of Estonian in the educational sphere began to change gradually. In 1995 teaching Estonian as a second language to 5-6 year children in preschools was launched. In 2000 the obligation to teach Estonian was extended to kindergarten and grade one levels. As of now, on the basis of paragraph §21 'Language of instruction' subsection 4 of the Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act (2010) in new redaction 2022, in schools where the language of instruction is not Estonian, studying of Estonian language must be compulsory from the first grade onwards. Basic schools are obliged to provide Estonian language learning at

a level that would enable basic school graduates to continue their studies in an educational institution where the main language of instruction is Estonian. For this purpose, basic school graduates must have skills of Estonian language at level B-1 (satisfactory) according the foreign language proficiency level system of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) by Council of Europe (2001), which assumes that students can perceive (reading and listening) and produce (writing and speaking) basic information in ordinary speech on different topics: work, school, free time, etc. From the educational and pedagogical perspective, which is in the focus of the present work, the policy of Estonian language education was implemented in the form of language immersion.

### **1.2.3 Estonian Language Immersion as Educational Model**

In Estonia, the term *keelekümbelus* (*eng. language immersion*) was introduced in the 1990s, when the Language Protection Committee of the Presidium of the Supreme Council (*est. ülemnõukogu presiidiumi keelekaitsekomisjon*) approved the 1992 work plan of the Language Board (*est. keeleamet*). The term was used for the first time in the publications of the Language Board (Rannut, 2004).

The first language immersion schools were launched in Estonia at the end of the 1980s in Kohtla-Järve, Aseri, Valga and Tartu, where there was a large Russian-speaking community wanting children to study in Estonian language at schools. In Estonia, the language immersion programs were first implemented using the model from the United States. The US language immersion was used to teach English to non-English-speaking immigrants for one or two years, and after that they could then go to English-language mainstream schools (*ibid.*).

Language immersion educational planning was started in Estonia at the national level in 1998. The implementation of the program was supported by the Estonian Ministry of Education and Research, the Toronto School Board and the Finnish School Board. At the beginning of 2001, an early total Estonian language immersion was introduced in Estonia, which was already followed after the French immersion in Canada. Canadian model differs from the US one in a way that there was no longer the need the transfer students to a school with the Estonian language of instruction. New schools joined the Canadian language immersion model, where the first language (Russian in case of Estonia) was added in the curriculum and its proportion has been gradually increasing both as a subject and language of instruction. The first early total immersion classes with Canadian model were organized in Tallinn Läänemere gymnasium, Kohtla-Järve

and Narva secondary schools, covering 134 Russian-speaking schoolchildren (Asser, 2001; Võlli, 2018). During the academic year 2002/2003, this language immersion programme was launched in seven Russian-speaking schools in Kohtla-Järve, Maardu, Narva, Tallinn and Valga (Rannut, 2004). Every year, more and more schools have been joining the program, because the piloting had successfully implemented and ensured teachers and parents, who initially had doubts, that students being taught in a language other than their mother tongue could not achieve an appropriate level of academic success, as they could if studying in Russian.

The first early total immersion students graduated high school in the spring of 2012 in Tallinn Läänemere gymnasium. These young people were the first whose studies were conducted in both Estonian and Russian throughout primary and high school. By the end of 2021, the language immersion program has been implemented in 70 kindergartens and 38 schools, and approximately 10,000 children have been participated in the program. From 2013, the immersion program has been coordinated by the Innove Foundation. Since 2020, language immersion coordination was transferred to the Office of Multilingual Education of the Education and Youth Board (*est. Haridus- ja Noorteamet, HARNO*).

To get the exact data on the number of students attending educational institutions with language immersion programme, the author of the present study approached to Maire Kebbinau, chief specialist of the HARNO Office of Multilingual Education. In personal correspondence, she noted that she can provide data which are not presented as official data from Estonian Education Information System (*est. Eesti Hariduse Infosüsteem, EHIS*). In academic year 2022/2023, nearly 4,180 in early immersion, from a total of 32 schools. In addition, there are approximately 2,400 students in the immersion schools (a total of 36 schools of the language immersion network) in regular classes who study at least 40% in Estonian, but who do not follow the official model of the immersion program by HARNO.

Innove foundation research (2014) has shown that the students' academic results who studied in an immersion class are better in the Estonian language exam in primary school level than those who studied in a regular Russian speaking schools, where Estonian language is taught as a foreign language. It has also been found that studying in Estonian did not have a negative effect on STEM (science, technology, engineering, mathematics) competences. According to 2007/2008 report of Centre of Educational Research of Tallinn University (Sauk-Ek et al., 2008), 86-91% of immersion students and 82% of their parents were satisfied with their choice to study in language immersion schools.

As it mentioned above, there are also extra-linguistic benefits of early total language immersion. Vahar (1998: 7) has noted three reasons the choice of early language immersion as educational model:

- 1) political-economic: teaching one foreign language at primary level, the child is given the opportunity to learn Estonian, which also prepares him to learn other foreign languages in the following educational stages (secondary, upper-secondary, higher education); appropriate skills of the Estonian language guarantees children equal opportunities for hobby activities, profession and educational personal development etc.;
- 2) cultural-social: early teaching of the Estonian language has a positive effect on the formation of identity, helps to understand the differences between the cultures of different nations and teaches to respect other cultures;
- 3) psychological-pedagogical: teaching a foreign language at a younger school age is supported by students' age-appropriate pedagogical assumptions, children are given an additional opportunity to develop in all aspects, a positive attitude towards foreign languages is promoted, and all this contributes to the learning of other subjects as well.

#### **1.2.4 The Transition to Estonian-language Education and Language Immersion Programme**

It is also important to note, that Estonian language teaching and studying in Estonian in educational institutions have always been a debatable issue in contemporary Estonian politics and media sphere, as previously set goals for integration and the national language sufficiency among non-Estonians were not fully achieved, which required a revision of the current language policy. Therefore, the state adopted a well-elaborated plan for the transition to the Estonian-language education, which includes a phased changes of educational institutions to conduct teaching fully in Estonian. The transition to Estonian-language education starts in kindergartens and in the 1st and 4th grades in 2024. According to the coalition agreement, the transition to Estonian-language education will have been completed by 2030. The Ministry of Education and Research of Estonia (2022) states 'The main goal of the transition to Estonian-language education is to provide all children in Estonia, regardless of their mother tongue, the opportunity to acquire quality education in Estonian, which supports the shaping of Estonian national identity, increases social integration and reduces educational and socio-economic segregation.'

It should be emphasized that this transition is based not only on the goals of improving Estonian language skills among non-Estonian students. This measure, along with language and national policy, is aimed at improving the quality of school education. According to the analysis of

Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) results (Tire et al., 2019), there is still a huge gap in academic achievements between Estonian-language schools and schools with total or partly Russian language instruction (including some language immersion schools). For example, in reading the results of students in schools with the Estonian language of instruction continue to be higher than the results of schools with the Russian language of instruction. In the PISA 2018 study, the results of Estonian students were significantly better than the results of students with Russian language of instruction, 534 and 492 points, respectively. Compared to 2015, the gap has increased from 32 to 42 points. In math, there almost the same situation, that students who took the test in Estonian scored significantly higher than those who took it in Russian (531 and 502 points). In natural sciences, the average performance of students with Estonian language of instruction was 541 points and the performance of students of schools with Russian language of instruction was 499 points.

In this regard, the question arises as to whether previous educational policy has failed and Estonian language immersion programme has produced little effect. In answering the question, The Ministry of Education and Research of Estonia (2022) claims that all schools and students who have decided in favor of language immersion have already taken a long step towards learning in the Estonian language. Learning Estonian does not start from scratch, and this is thanks to parents who have entrusted their children with language immersion for 30 years. If by 2030 the transition to Estonian-language education will be successfully achieved, the language immersion program will have fulfilled its task in the transition to Estonian-language education and the good practices of teaching children, whose home language is different from Estonian, will be remained. Immersion principles will not disappear. They will support learning Estonian better at any time. The network of language immersion institutions and trainings will continue to play an important role in teaching practices.

### 1.3 Linguistic Landscape

The linguistic landscape is diverse, complex and rapidly developing phenomena and can be interpreted in different ways (Gorter, 2006). It gives researchers perspectives in the field of multilingualism, globalization, minority languages and language policy (Gorter 2013: 205). Herberts (2017) also describes linguistic landscape as sub-discipline at the intersection between sociolinguistics, sociology, social psychology, geography and mass communication. What has been seen over the years, that a number of studies have grown enormously. According to online bibliography of linguistic landscape, maintained by Rob Troyer (2013), there has been a great interest in the linguistic landscape research in recent years among scholars around the world, containing over 1100 academic works.

The history of the study of linguistic elements physically presented in some area originates in 50s of the previous century in the work of sociolinguists. Nevertheless, the idea of the linguistic landscape as a particular research object appeared relatively recently. Rodrigue Landry and Richard Y. Bourhis (1997: 24) were among the first linguistic landscape researchers who noticed the connection between territorial aspects and language use and introduced the term "linguistic landscape". According to them, the linguistic landscape is the language of road signs, advertisements, street signs, advertising signs, place name signs and other public signs located in a certain area. The definition of the language landscape has changed over time, alongside with technological development in the society, which has made the language landscape much more diverse, bringing with its new ways and means of expression and conveying of any information. Thus, Durk Gorter (2013: 191) complements the "definition" of Rodrigue Landry and Richard Y. Bourhis, because there has been technological progress, adding different types of signs, such as electronic flat screens, LED neon lights, electronic information spots, interactive touch screens, inflatable graphic images, roll-up slogans.

Peter Backhaus (2007: 1) has defined the linguistic landscape as an urban environment where a large number of written texts are public: office and shop signs, billboards and neon signs, traffic signs, topographical information and maps, emergency instructions and political campaign posters, graffiti. The language landscape is the first thing one looks at when arriving in a new country (e.g., advertisements or road signs). Every message that gives us information or guidance in written form is an element of the linguistic landscape (ibid.: 69).

Much broader view on linguistic landscape has been introduced by Jasone Cenoz and Durk Gorter from the University of the Basque Country. According to Jasone Cenoz and Durk Gorter (2008: 267), the linguistic landscape is multimodal because it is a combination of visual and printed texts, and multilingual because different languages are used. In the multimodal linguistic landscape, objects made of different materials are used - such as signs, billboards, stickers, posters, shop windows or vending machines. Texts and images combine the nature of the material (*ibid.*: 278). The characteristics of any materials in combination with the text and images displayed and the space where they are located provide different affordances that interact with the reader's resources in the process of re-making of the text. This text cannot be isolated from the colors, the logo, and the material object because all these elements are part of a multimodal reality.

In today's world of globalization and cultural diversity the linguistic landscape has also changed and is evolving with global trends around the world. The multilingual nature of the linguistic landscape, where language contacts take place, is currently one of main aspects of linguistic landscape research, because the language landscape embodies current multilingual reality. There are more multilingual countries and cities than monolingual ones, and countries may differ from each other in terms of cultural, socio-economic and political aspects, but the linguistic landscape as a symbolic and material implementation of multilingualism that is clearly visible everywhere in the world (Zabrodskaia 2007: 14).

As it was seen from definitions mentioned above, generally linguistic landscape is about how the signs and their mediums inform and reflect the actual language use in certain area or environment. Considering the perspective of multilingual aspect of the linguistic landscape, researchers (Shohamy & Waksman, 2009; Gorter, 2006) investigated how elements of the linguistic landscape convey messages to readers about the societal attitude towards different languages. That is why, it was needed to find out the purpose(s) that linguistic landscape serves in some social context or community. For example, necessity, language of prestige or dominance. These purposes can be examined analyzing the use of translation or placement of languages on the signs, type of font and the order of languages. The next aspect of investigating social attitude towards any language in linguistic landscape, is to determine the nature of the sign-making. Gorter (2006: 3) made a division between bottom-up signs, made in an unofficial way and posted by individuals, and top-down signs, that have official and formal origin created and introduced by government corresponding to policy regulations. Bottom-up signs tend to reflect the actual use of language(s) in a certain community being sort of 'mirror' of socio-

linguistic profile of a community. While top-down signs serve as a material implementation of state policy and ideology.

Linguistic landscape as a phenomenon has very close connections with a certain sociolinguistic context (Gorter & Cenoz, 2006: 67). The relationship between linguistic landscape and the sociolinguistic context is bidirectional. On the one hand, the linguistic landscape reflects the relative power and status of the different languages in a specific sociolinguistic context. In this sense it is the product of a specific situation and it can be considered as an additional source of information about the sociolinguistic context along with censuses, surveys or interviews. The majority language of a language community is more likely to be used more often in place names or commercial signs while the minority language or languages will not be as common. On the other hand, the linguistic landscape contributes to the construction of the sociolinguistic context because people process the visual information that comes to them, and the language in which signs are written can certainly influence their perception of the status of the different languages and even affect their own linguistic behavior. The linguistic landscape or parts of the linguistic landscape can have an influence on language use.

As it seen, the researchers have defined the term ‘linguistic landscape’ in different ways. Most commonly and conventionally accepted by academic community the definition describes signs in space are understood as a sociolinguistic landscape, because the design, production, presentation, and interpretation of signs is an human endeavor. Signages and signs do not appear or being change without people (Laitinen & Zabrodska, 2015: 12). This perspective on sociolinguistic interaction explains pragmatic nature of linguistic landscape and explains the functionality of the phenomena. According to R. Landry and R. Y. Bourhis (1997: 25–29), the linguistic landscape fulfills two basic functions: informative and symbolic. The purpose of the informative function is to convey information and inform, whereas the symbolic function is intended to influence as part of language discursive practices in the society.

To expand the range of language functions on signs, it may be useful to look at general language functions, developed by the British linguist Michael Halliday (1969). In his research of children language development, he suggested that children are motivated to develop language because it serves certain purposes or functions for them. From linguistic landscape perspective, language on signs serves almost the same functions. *Regulatory* signs direct the actions and behaviors of the social actors (e.g. ‘No Smoking’; ‘Reserved Parking Day & Night’). *Interactional* signs draw upon the relationship between the invisible sign maker and the reader, often eliciting a particular

behavior or conveying information through a sense of common purpose (e.g. ‘Save the World’; ‘We Have the Right to Choose Our Friends’). Some signs serve a *personal* function, emphasizing individuality by raising some individuals above others or promoting behavior that leads to success (e.g. ‘Read to Succeed’; ‘Good Readers...’). Other signs have an *imaginative* function. These can take the form of inspirational quotes (‘You are about to enter the learning zone’), travel posters or decorations. Still others are *representational*, providing location labels, even when those might be superfluous (‘Main Doors’; ‘In/Out’). None of the signs in this context fulfilled an *instrumental* or *heuristic* function (Dressler, 2015: 131). The distribution of these signs and the languages chosen to serve these functions shed light upon the sign makers’ purposes in creating and placing the signs.

In addition to various interpretations of the term, there are also different perspectives on distinguishing of linguistic elements presented in our environment and public spaces into different groups by different criteria, that are also related to the functions of the linguistic landscape. Pošeiko (2015: 18) divides language signs into subordinate groups: 1) authorship and management (official, commercial, and private signs); 2) placement location (outdoor, indoor); 3) material [long-term (metal, plastic) or temporary (static long-term, static temporary, mobile signs)]; 4) text genre (advertisement, memorial plaque, building name sign); 5) main function (language signs with historical, assuring or informative function, mute signs with indirect functionality), 6) number of languages (monolingual, bilingual, trilingual, multilingual signs) and 7) translations (homophonic, mixed, polyphonic, monophonic signs).

Whereas Blommaert (2016: 53) broadly divides signs into three categories: permanent signs (road signs, store signs, permanent advertising signs, landmarks and signs, graffiti), event-related signs (posters, temporary store signs advertising discounts or specific products, sales signs and smaller announcements that inform, for example, of a change of address) and so-called ‘noise’, which is defined as ‘inscriptions that landed in the neighborhood ‘by accident’: people leaving readable objects behind; cars and vans stationed for a brief while’.

## **1.4 Linguistic Landscape in Estonia**

The present work was conducted in Estonian context. Thus, it is important to provide a general information about the country and its linguistic landscape in particular. The linguistic landscape of Estonia reflects the country's complex sociolinguistic context, which is shaped by historical, political, and social factors. In this subchapter there are sections about sociolinguistic context and language policy in Estonia, considered as the main factors influencing the linguistic landscape in the country.

### **1.4.1 Estonian sociolinguistic context**

Estonia is a country located in Northern Europe, with a population of 1,331,824 people (Statistics Estonia, 2021a). The country has a rich and complex sociolinguistic context, which reflects its historical and political developments.

The official language of Estonia is Estonian, which is a Finno-Ugric language related to Finnish and Hungarian. Estonian is spoken by the majority of the population, with 895,493 native speakers in the country. However, Estonia has a significant Russian-speaking minority, which comprises approximately 25% of the population. Russian is the most widely spoken minority language in Estonia, with around 379,210 speakers (ibid.).

This region has a diverse past of interacting with various cultures and nations. From the 13th century, it has been part of different empires, kingdoms, and alliances, such as Denmark, Sweden, Poland-Lithuania, Russia, and notably Germany during World War II, as well as the Soviet Union during the occupations of 1940-41 and 1944-91, when it was known as the Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic. From 1920 to 1940, the nation experienced a relatively short period of independence. Despite various external influences on the ethnic makeup and populace, historical data indicates a relatively homogeneous population prior to World War II, where Estonians comprised 88.2% of the population in 1934 (Raag, 1999 in Mole, 2013: 7), primarily residing in rural regions. The dominant language was always Estonian or Estonian dialect, while German, Swedish, or Russian was used by the upper class.

During the Soviet occupation from 1944 to 1991, Soviet Russia pursued a policy of Baltic colonization and Russification, which had a profound impact on the demographic composition of the region. The influx of Russian settlers, often at the expense of the indigenous population, led to significant changes in the ethnic landscape of the area. Many natives were forcibly relocated,

expelled, or even subjected to violence. According to the 1989 Census, while the population of ethnic Estonians increased to 963,269, their overall percentage in the population decreased from 74.6% in 1959 to 61.5% (Raun, 2001: 233). Estonia regained independence in 1991, and since then, the relocation of many Russians has contributed to a rise in the proportion of Estonians, which reached 67.9% in 2000 (Statistics Estonia, 2011).

Although Estonia was under Soviet occupation for an extended period and subjected to multiple attempts at Russification, it rapidly shed its Soviet legacy after 1991. The country pivoted towards the West and established economic and political relationships, eventually joining the European Union and NATO in 2004. Estonia also became the first former Soviet republic to adopt the Euro currency in 2011.

The relationship between Estonian and Russian speakers has been a contentious issue in the country, particularly in the aftermath of the collapse of the Soviet Union. Following Estonia's independence in 1991, the government adopted a policy of Estonianization, which aimed to promote the use of Estonian and marginalize the use of Russian (Rannut, 2008). This policy included language laws that required public servants, including teachers, to be proficient in Estonian, and restricted the use of Russian in public spaces, such as street signs and advertising.

These language policies have had a significant impact on the sociolinguistic context of Estonia, particularly for Russian-speaking minorities. Russian speakers often experience linguistic discrimination and face barriers in accessing education and employment opportunities due to language requirements. At the same time, Estonian speakers may perceive the use of Russian as a threat to the national identity and the survival of the Estonian language.

Despite these challenges, there have been efforts to promote multilingualism and cultural diversity in Estonia. The government has implemented language policies that aim to support the use of minority languages, particularly in education, and there are programs that promote the learning of Estonian and Russian as second languages. Additionally, there are ongoing efforts to foster intercultural dialogue and understanding between Estonian and Russian speakers in the country.

#### **1.4.2 Language policy in Estonia**

Estonia has a complex history of language policies that have been influenced by various political and social factors. Estonia's language policy reflects the country's efforts to balance the promotion of its official language with the recognition of the language rights of its minority

populations. According to Siiner (2006), there are some key points about language policy in Estonia:

*Official Language:* The official language of Estonia is Estonian. This means that all government and public institutions are required to use Estonian in their official communication.

*Language Education:* Estonian is the primary language of instruction in schools, and children are required to learn Estonian as a second language from the first grade. However, there are also schools that offer education in Russian or other minority languages.

*Language Rights:* Estonia recognizes the language rights of its minorities and has laws in place to protect them. These laws ensure that minorities have the right to receive education in their native language, the right to use their language in public and private communication, and the right to have their language used in official documents and proceedings.

*Language Requirements for Citizenship:* In order to become a citizen of Estonia, applicants must pass an Estonian language exam to demonstrate their proficiency in the language.

*Russian Speakers:* Russian is the most widely spoken minority language in Estonia, and many ethnic Russians continue to face marginalization in Estonian society. However, in recent years, there have been efforts to improve the integration of Russian speakers into Estonian society, including through language education programs and other initiatives.

As of legislation of language use in public places in Estonia, the basic legal document is Language Act (Rannut, 2008). Therefore, since the official language of Estonia is Estonian, which is the dominant language in public spaces, including government buildings, street signs, and commercial signage. The act, in force from 01.02.2023, was introduced to regulate signs displayed in public.

#### *§ 16. Language of information*

*(1) Signs, signposts, business type names and outdoor advertisements, including outdoor advertising, installed to a public place with the purpose of political campaigning, and the notices of a legal person shall be in Estonian.*

*(2) The translation of the text into a foreign language may be added to public signs, signposts, business type name and outdoor advertisements; thereby the text in Estonian shall be in the forefront and shall not be less observable than the text in a foreign language.*

*(3) Upon using a brand as a sign of the place of business of a person or in outdoor advertising the part of a brand in a foreign language that includes essential information about the place of business and goods or service offered shall be presented also in Estonian, without damaging the distinctiveness of the brand and without applying subsection 2 of this section. The specified information may also be presented at the entrance to the place of business.*

*(4) If the agencies, companies, non-profit associations and foundations and sole proprietors which are registered in Estonia have a web page in a foreign language which is directed to the public, it shall include at least a summary in Estonian about its field of activity or the goods and services offered.*

*(5) At public events the organiser shall ensure the translation into Estonian of the essential information in a foreign language. (Riigi Teataja: §16)*

In the present work, the first point of the act is considered to be the most important since it relates to signage and how it affects the linguistic landscape in public places, including schools. The second point is also relevant as it allows for other languages to have a place in the linguistic landscape, because it regulates which language takes priority on a sign, that might be examined in schools, especially in multilingual region like Ida-Virumaa. Not following these language regulations may result in fines of up to 1,300 Euros.

#### **1.4.3 Previous research on Linguistic Landscape in Estonia**

As it was mentioned in above sections, the linguistic landscape of Estonia reflects the country's complex sociolinguistic context, which is shaped by historical, political, and social factors. Even if Estonian is the only state language and spoken by major part of the population, due to the country's history and demographics, there is also a significant presence of Russian in the linguistic landscape, particularly in urban areas. Russian can be seen in commercial signage, advertisements, and on public transportation. While Russian is not an official language in Estonia, it is recognized as a minority language, and some public services, such as hospitals and schools, provide services in Russian (Siiner, 2006).

There are also smaller linguistic communities in Estonia, including speakers of Finnish, English, and other languages. In some areas, particularly along the western coast, Swedish can also be seen in the linguistic landscape, reflecting the historical presence of Swedish-speaking communities in the region (McAlinden, 2007).

The linguistic landscape of Estonia has been shaped by the country's history of occupation, particularly under Soviet rule. Following Estonia's independence in 1991, the government

implemented policies aimed at promoting the use of Estonian and marginalizing the use of Russian. These policies have had an impact on the linguistic landscape, particularly in the use of signage and other public communications (Pošeiko, 2015; Marten, 2012).

Previous research on the linguistic landscape in Estonia has provided insights into the use of language in public spaces, the impact of language policy on the linguistic landscape, and the relationship between language and identity in Estonia.

Research conducted by Marleen Kedars (2018), Josep Soler-Carbonell (2015) and Anastassia Zabrodskaja (2007) analyzed multilingualism presented on the linguistic landscape of Tallinn, the capital city of Estonia. The study found that the majority of signs in Tallinn were in Estonian, but there were also signs in Russian, English, and other languages. The study also found that the use of Estonian increased in areas where there were more Estonian-speaking residents, and that the use of Russian decreased in these areas. What is more, the presence of English in Old Town district shows that this area is indented for foreign tourist marking the processes of globalization, in which Tallinn is involved as well.

Another study by Lorenz Dijckmans (2017) analyzed the use of Estonian and Russian in the linguistic landscape of Narva, a city with a large Russian-speaking population. In his master thesis he found that there was a high level of bilingualism in Narva, with both Estonian and Russian used in public spaces. However, the use of Estonian was less common in areas where the majority of residents were Russian-speaking. Since the issue of Russian language is relevant for all Baltic states, Solvita Burr Pošeiko (2015) studied in her dissertation the relationships between Baltic state languages (Lithuanian, Latvian, Estonian) and Russian language from comparative perspective. She also, like Dijckmans, considered Narva in her analysis and has come to similar conclusions.

A study by Maarja Siiner (2006) analyzed the relationship between language and identity in Estonia. The study found that language was an important factor in the construction of national identity in Estonia, and that there was a strong connection between the use of Estonian and a sense of national identity. The study also found that the use of Russian was often associated with a sense of marginalization among Russian-speaking residents.

Overall, these studies provide valuable insights into the linguistic landscape of Estonia and the complex relationship between language, identity, and policy in the country. Further research on the linguistic landscape of Estonia can provide additional insights into the changing dynamics of language use in the country.

As for linguistic landscape in educational settings, this has been little studied and only a few papers have explored this topic. Kara Brown (2005; 2012) was focused on studying regional identities and togetherness ('we feeling') in school environments in Southern Estonia, Võrumaa region. She found schools as one of the most important channels for retranslating, representing and revitalization of regional identity via signs in Võru language and cultural artifacts connected to Võru traditional patterns and crafts. Another study in educational setting was conducted by Josep Soler (2018) from Stockholm University. His findings indicate that the University of Tartu, the University of Latvia in Riga, and Vilnius University partially conform to the official language policy of monolingualism, particularly in physical settings. However, other spaces within these universities have more room for including other languages.

The lack of studies of the linguistic landscape in schools and other educational institutions makes the present work relevant, contributing to the schoolscape research in general.

## 1.5 Linguistic Landscape as Schoolscape

The linguistic landscape is conveyed by linguistic elements that are mostly presented in public places. Gorter (2013) narrows direction of linguistic landscape research, which is mostly concentrated on urban area, to the so called semipublic institutional contexts, such as libraries, museums and also schools. Schools as a linguistic landscape is quite new research object and provides multiple perspectives for studies of its impact on different aspects of our behavior and interaction with the environment, as a school is one of the public institutions which play a huge role in everybody's life. At least because a very large amount of time, especially in childhood, people spent at school.

The term schoolscape (*eng. school and landscape*) has been used among others by Szabó (2018) as a branch of linguistic landscape studies, focusing on investigating of the linguistic elements of the physical environment in educational institutions (incl. schools and kindergartens), consisting of texts, images and objects. What is more, the schoolscape, as a part of the whole linguistic landscape in certain area and community, tends to reflect the sociolinguistic context, state or municipal policies, conventional ideologies, but also local school-level policy and instructional practices, which is in the focus of the present work.

The visual communication in linguistic landscapes of schools can consist of different sorts of objects and artefacts. A large part of the studies in schoolscape research have been concentrating on (static) written texts. However, consideration of symbols, images and other types of multimodal texts or artefacts into linguistic landscape analysis has become increasingly common among scholars. Working in the realm of educational anthropology, Kara Brown was the first to propose the term *schoolscape* to cover school-based material environments where text, images and sociocultural artifacts “constitute, reproduce, and transform language ideologies” (Brown, 2012: 282). Furthermore, Brown states the following: ‘The schoolscape comprises the physical and social setting in which teaching and learning take place. It is the vital, symbolic context in which the curriculum unfolds and specific ideas and messages are officially sanctioned and socially supported in the school.’ (Brown, 2012: 282). Another words, the schoolscape reflects the ideas and attitudes that are socially accepted in the school, and the schoolscape, in a similar way to other cultural landscapes, reflects the prevailing social climate. What is more, schools also become agents of the language policy of the state. Schoolscape as a whole constitutes a mechanism makes schools' language policy visible via linguistic choices in the texts that have been placed in the school's space (Shohamy, 2006: 75–76). In addition to all, Brown (2005,

2008) was focused on studying regional identities and togetherness ('we feeling') in school environments in Southern Estonia, Võrumaa region. She found schoolscape in local schools as one of the most important channels for retranslating, representing and revitalization of regional identity via signs in Võru language and cultural artifacts connected to Võru traditional patterns and crafts.

In a line with numerous definitions of the linguistic landscape, different scholars have suggested their views on defining the schoolscape. While comprising the core of Brown's definition, Szabó (2015: 24) adds a new dimension since schoolscape are seen as "a reference to the visual and spatial organization of educational spaces, with special emphasis on inscriptions, images and the arrangement of the furniture". In the present work, the schoolscape is defined in accordance with Laihonen and Tódor (2018) as schools' visual communication consisting not only written linguistic elements but also images, symbols and cultural artefacts. The reason is that it describes briefly and concisely the phenomenon and meets the goals and objectives of the study.

According to Jasone Cenoz and Durk Gorter (2008: 267), one of the main features of the linguistic landscape is its multimodal nature. In schoolscape multimodality is seen in colors, fonts, shapes, symbols, pictures, materials, furniture and cultural artefacts standing near the textual elements. The latter is especially interesting regarding the focus of the present work, since mostly cultural artefacts contains linguistic elements, like literature, national hymn, and symbolically connected with the language(s) of instruction. At the same time, language is also considered as a medium of the target culture. Culturally relevant content can be conveyed meaningfully (inner content), like songs, greetings, national hymn and poetry, or formally (outer content). For example, text might be written of colors of a national flag. In most cases, linguistic and cultural component of schoolscape is incorporated in each other, which is also express the multimodality of linguistic landscape as such. Generally, artefacts are defined as "objects which "are made by someone somewhere, for a particular purpose, and are framed by social conventions and involve taken for granted ways of doing things" (Hearn & Thomson, 2014: 156). Within a school, it might be religious attributes, national symbols (national animals, coat of arms, flag and its colors, hymn), literature, decorations for different events, handicrafts, songs and music, cuisine, dresses (Szabó, 2015: 34).

Considering the multimodal aspect of schoolscape, inscriptions and cultural symbols and artefacts placed on the façade and the walls of the school building are tools for orienting the choice between various cultural and linguistic values and ideologies (Johnson 1980; Brown

2012). A dynamic and object-mediated negotiation of norms is detectable in the school buildings, controlled by the communities using the given space. Public spaces are discursively constructed, negotiated and contested (Shohamy 2012). That is, the visual and spatial organization of public spaces indexes the co-construction of ideologies in school settings. In fact, state funded public schools mostly play roles as agents of state educational policy, language and identity policy in particular. Tamás Péter Szabó (2015) has conducted an ethnographic research of schoolscapes in Hungarian state schools. He has concluded, that Hungarian national narratives such as the history of Hungarian revolutions provide key resources for national, institutional and personal identity construction, that is both implicitly and explicitly reflected in schoolscapes. All the institutions he visited have had specific policies on the arrangement of indoor surfaces in accordance with Hungarian nationalistic policy of homogeneity and monolingualism. Teachers tended to support a top-down hierarchic order, restricting the students' activity in rearrangement and redesign, regulating even the students' informal visual communication. In the state schools, the pervasive presence and combination of national symbols (e.g. coat of arms, tricolour), the visual re-narration of national history, the visibility of canonical texts and standardized literacies together with the award certificates can be interpreted in line with Johnson's (1980: 173) findings concerning "the symbolic integration of local schools and national culture". As he summarized (1980: 187), "classroom material culture functionally reinforces the integration [...] of heterogeneous local communities into national networks of society and culture".

Similarly to studies in linguistic landscape, many scholars from all around the world have also been conducted research of schoolscapes in different regions and contexts. Schoolscapes have been investigated in North America (Garvin & Eisenhower, 2016; Dressler, 2015), Western Europe (Gorter, 2013; Poveda, 2012), Post-Soviet states (Szabó, 2015; Brown, 2005, 2012; Laihonon & Tódor, 2017), and Asia (Garvin & Eisenhower, 2016). Schoolscapes have been also studied from different perspectives. From a minority language perspective, Biró (2016) has investigated the school landscape in Romania in schools with Hungarian as the language of instruction. In her studies, Brown (2005, 2012) studied school language policy displayed on schoolscapes and minority language revitalization in Estonia. There are also numerous studies of schoolscapes from educational perspective, especially in foreign language teaching. More detailed review on previous research in educational use of schoolscapes is in the next chapter.

When looking at schoolscapes in terms of its functions, it is worth mentioning Gorter and Cenoz's (2015) view on it. They have been studying linguistic landscapes in educational contexts for almost ten years in different countries and sociolinguistic settings. In addition to the functions of

language on signs by Michael Halliday (1969, see previous chapter), Gorter and Cenoz (2015: 9) has introduced nine functions of schoolscape that might be examined in multilingual schools (including language immersion schools) with students of different cultural and linguistic background. They did a study in seven primary schools in one bilingual region in Spain, the Basque country, which correlates closely with the present study. Those functions are: 1) the teaching of the language, as a visual print of linguistic school environment and pedagogically design language teaching material (e.g. ‘Word Walls’); 2) classroom management (what students are allowed to do and how to do); 4) the school management (where to park your bike etc.); 4) teaching values; 5) development of intercultural awareness (by means of exposure to the diverse cultural artefacts and symbols (flags of different countries) in connection with the diversity of languages visible on the walls of schools); 6) promotion of target language (in language immersion contexts, the promotion of the second language emphasized in the concrete language immersion programme); 7) announcing collective events; 8) provision of commercial information; 9) decoration.

Schoolscape in language immersion settings were touched upon in several studies. Sanna Pakarinen and Siv Björklund (2018) from Åbo Akademi examined to what extent three students in a Swedish immersion in Finland paid attention to multilingualism in their schoolscape and to how they reflected on multilingualism their multilingual identity. Already mentioned above Gorter and Cenoz (2015) investigated multilingualism in linguistic landscapes of bilingual (including language immersion) schools in relation to raising language awareness. Dressler (2015) did a case study of schoolscape in one Canadian bilingual German-English primary school from the perspective of promoting bilingualism and *de facto* school language policy. It would be expected that there was a lot of bilingual German/English signage, but actually the linguistic landscape of the school favored English and did not contribute to the promotion of bilingualism in that school, not reflecting *de jure* bilingual language policy on the school level.

The literature review shows that there is only Brown’s (2005, 2012) schoolscape studies in Southern Estonia in primarily Estonian-Võru schools and no research on schoolscape and visual and textual environment in Estonian language immersion context.

## **1.6 Schoolscape as Pedagogical Tool in Language Immersion Settings**

In addition to reflecting cultural norms and language policy, schoolsapes can also be used for educational purposes. Various studies have provided evidences that schoolsapes support both teaching and learning second language and other (meta)linguistic and cultural competences in and beyond the classroom (Shohamy & Waksman, 2009). As it might be seen in sections of the chapter below, the pedagogical approach of language immersion is no exception, being intended to promote the target language and cultural awareness, including through elements of the schoolscape. However, it should be noted that the acquisition of language and culture are not strictly separate aspects of the second language education, but are simultaneous processes that complement and reinforce each other (Fenner, 2001; Kramsch, 1993). There is also a section about using visual, textual and symbolic materials in Estonian language immersion settings, which is in the focus of the present study.

### **1.6.1 Schoolscape as Pedagogical Tool for Developing Second Language**

Numerous theoretical studies have explored the role that the linguistic landscape, schoolscape in particular, can have in second language acquisition (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Generally speaking, most of scholars have investigated potential effects of the schoolscape as one of sources of the target language input basing on Stephen Krashen's the 'Input hypothesis'. Krashen (1994) suggested, that it is necessary to have enough exposure to the target language at the level corresponded to the actual language level of learners for appropriate language acquisition. Krashen claims that through the context it is possible to acquire the language even if it contains grammatically unknown information. Another words, the more learners are exposed to the target language, the more vocabulary he or she acquires. In this regard, both quantitative and qualitative aspects are important. The amount of content should be as large as possible. Whereas, when looking from qualitative perspective, diversity and complexity of exposure with the target language in domains (visual, auditory, multimedia) and contexts determine quality second language acquisition. Nevertheless, it is also important to note, that Krashen's input hypothesis has been criticized because of its ambiguity of terms. It is not explicitly elaborated how to measure the language skills acquired via input and how much new information the language input should contain to lead to a proper second language acquisition (Gass & Selinker, 2008: 309–310).

In the language immersion settings, as it was mentioned in previous chapters, the instruction of the target language is conducted in a way of language acquisition, not learning. It means, that this process happens in a way of non-conscious assimilation of the target language through first-hand exposure in a natural and meaningful context (Bransford, Brown & Cocking 1999). From the linguistic landscape perspective, texts, symbols and cultural artifacts presented on the linguistic landscape, might be possible source of input in second language acquisition in a way of incidental learning. According to Hulstijn (2013: 3), incidental learning refers to learning without the conscious intention to acquire any skill or knowledge of something but can also refer to learning one stimulus while paying attention to a different stimulus. It is often a process of gaining new knowledge seemingly without effort while doing something which is not directly associated with the content of learning. For example, in case of second language acquisition learners may acquire new vocabulary while reading a book with the main focus of the activity of enjoying a story in a book. Hulstijn claims, that generally “incidental acquisition-through-reading is a slow and error-prone process with small vocabulary gains” (ibid.). It depends on different factors such as the relevance of the stimulus, the presence or absence of a cue and the frequency of occurrence of the stimulus. On an individual level, the effectiveness of incidental learning through texts presented around learners depends on learners’ inferencing skills to notice and pay attention to new words. There is also an important notion, that incidental second language acquisition is not necessarily more effective than intentional one and vice versa.

In fact, incidental second language acquisition is not limited only with vocabulary gains. When looking at the schoolscape as input for second language acquisition it is interesting to see what type of input it provides. In general, schoolscales do not provide much input for phonetic language development on its own. The syntax is also not elaborated because of limited textual content presented on schoolscales. However, new multimodal and multimedia technologies may change in the situation in the future (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Montero Perez (2022) has conducted a large-scale study, where she has investigated an impact of audio-visual and on-screen text language input of multimedia technologies for second language acquisition both in terms of incidental acquisition and guided teaching instruction. As of incidental acquisition, these multimedia and multimodal recourse of second language input is especially useful for developing of vocabulary, grammar, and listening.

Even though linguistic elements of schoolscales contains little text and thus there are limited possibilities for incidental second language acquisition of phonetic, lexical and syntactical aspects of the second language, the linguistic landscape in schools is definitely an authentic,

contextualized input which is part of the school social context (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). In this regard, the main interest of schoolscape as a source of input might be seen in developing pragmatic competences of the second language (ibid.). According to Celce-Murcia and her colleagues (1995: 17), pragmatic competence is “the competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech acts and speech act sets)”. Pragmatic competence is one of the parts of language communicative competence, and thus play a huge role in learners’ effective ability to (re)produce the target language in real communicative situations.

When looking at texts seen on schoolscales, it may be examined that these texts often include different speech acts and even use metaphors. Schoolscape include utterances and sometimes full sentences but mostly linguistic elements presented by single words or groups of words. In terms of pragmatics the important thing is that these words have a meaning related to the school social context. As it was mentioned before, multimodality is also one of the major characteristics of linguistic landscape in general. In schoolscape multimodal nature is seen in colors, fonts, shapes, symbols, pictures and cultural artefacts standing near the textual elements. In terms of pragmatics, all these aspects of multimodality show the actual and contextualized use linguistic elements. As an authentic language input, the linguistic landscape, schoolscape in particular, have thus a variety of functions by providing diverse speech acts in large quantities. Kelly-Holmes (2005: 8) points out: “Language [of linguistic landscape] can, of course, have various functions and may be used for a wide variety of purposes: for example, to express feelings and emotions (the expressive function); to offer advice and recommendations or to persuade (the directive or vocative function); to inform, to report, to describe or to assert (the informational function); to create, maintain and finish contact between addresser and addressee, for example small talk (the interactional or phatic function); to communicate meaning through a code which could not otherwise be communicated (the poetic function).” That is why, Cenoz and Gorter (2008) believe, that appropriate input for the development of pragmatic competence is grounded on diversity of functions and speech acts that schoolscape possibly can provide.

The above theoretical approaches describe second language acquisition in terms of the learner's mostly passive perception of input from the linguistic landscape. But there are also approaches to using the linguistic landscape by educators to promote second language acquisition in classroom settings through planned direct noticing practices with the use of beforehand designed visual and textual materials. These pedagogical practices follow non-verbal strategies for second language

teaching (Rannut, 2003: 24). As a theoretical background, Ülle Rannut has noticed developed by James J. Asher's theory of *Total Physical Response* (1997), based on theories of second language acquisition and brain research conducted by himself. *Total Physical Response* is a method based on activation of the right brain hemisphere through physical activity and visualization in stress-free contextual language and knowledge acquisition. James J. Asher studied the functions of the cerebral hemispheres, highlighting the disadvantages of verbal, not physically (inter)active grammar-based teaching that activates only the left hemisphere functionality. His most important discovery was the promotion of students' understanding and better acquisition of any study content by activating the right hemisphere of the brain at full capacity. In order for the right hemisphere to be activated, movement, physical activity and visualization of the topic are needed, which increases understanding and creates a motivating and safe environment. Asher finds that teachers often give in to the temptation to teach new words and grammar first and then form commands based on familiar vocabulary and grammatical forms in a bottom-up, traditionally synthetic method. Thus, Asher's views coincide with teaching based on the language as a whole and contextual approach, which is also the basis of language immersion education (Rannut, 2003: 25).

Generally speaking, *Total Physical Response*, as a non-verbal way of second language acquisition, provides linking language learning with context and physical space and objects contributing students' better understanding of speech in the target language, get used better to the target language environment and remember words and expressions on the primary school level (basic literacy skills and vocabulary), which is in focus of the present work. At the same time, physical activities help students to relax, avoid stress in language learning, and make the motor reaction to holophrases (commands, questions) that occur in any activities automatically. The aim of integrating non-verbal strategies is to develop comprehension, inquiry and memory strategies, thereby increasing students' language learning results and their adapting to the target language environment. However, this does not provide unlimited possibilities, as for getting much higher level of comprehension in second language it is needed to get familiar with more cognitively demanding vocabulary and concepts, which meaning cannot be conveyed simply by interactive engagement with objects and pictures.

In educational systems of English-speaking countries (the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia etc.) the use of specially design visual and textual materials is integrated into curriculums of many schools. This type of teaching materials is called *Word Walls*. As they usually to be put on the walls of the classrooms. According to Jasmine and Schiesl (2009), a

word wall is “a collection of high-frequency sight words that are age appropriate, classified into groups or categories, and is located on the wall of a classroom for children to easily see and learn”. Another words, it is a specially prepared and reasonably arranged in the classroom visual and textual material in regards to a curriculum unit the class is learning. In order to get the best learning outcomes of using word walls, this pedagogical material should be utilized through the active and intentional interaction of the teacher or students with it under a structured teaching approach (Curtis, 2018: 9). For the present paper, it is important to note that word walls are considered as elements of the schoolscape and fit into a continuum of research both as the schoolscape itself and as the pedagogical tool.

In addition to Asher’s theory of *Total Physical Response* (1997), from a theoretical point of view of the effectiveness of the pedagogical use of visual and textual material of the classroom, Jessica Curtis (2018: 4) indicates the importance of Vygotsky’s (1978) Theory of Social Constructivism. This theoretical perspective empathizes the importance of *More Knowledgeable Other* as an agent of learning process that can help to bridge the gap between a learner’s prior knowledge and content being learned. This process of learning More Knowledgeable Other is called *scaffolding* (Wood, 1976). When used effectively, scaffolding can help a student learn content they would not have been able to process on their own. In addition to the theoretical concept of More Knowledgeable Other, Vygotsky (1986) also considered the language as the most crucial medium in the development of cognitive thought. Thus, to fully engage in cognitive thought learner needs to have highly developed language skills. Curtis (2018) suggests that teachers act as More Knowledgeable Others encouraging interaction with word walls. Whereas, teachers’ intentional guidance and interaction between word walls and teacher or students might be considered as scaffolding. Teachers and word walls simultaneously will help to bridge learning gaps related to any curriculum unit, especially language related content. Thus, the use of word wall activities targeting language learning contribute to bridging the gap between prior knowledge and new content, finally resulting in academic success.

Multiple studies have been conducted that provide evidence of the effectiveness of the use of word walls for educational purposes (Jasmine & Schiesl, 2009). In terms of second language teaching and learning, well-reasoned and structured use of word walls is useful both in case of incidental second language acquisition and in guided intentional teaching practices. As of primary school curriculum, word walls and word wall activities are factors that might help to develop:

- high-frequency word vocabulary and its retention (ibid.);

- connection between words (Callella, 2001);
- general reading skills, not including functional reading (Chard & Pikulski, 2005);
- spelling and awareness of spelling patterns (Ehri, 2005);
- skill of letter and word recognition (ibid.);
- skill of decoding letter and sound connections made by visual cues (ibid.);
- pronunciation (ibid.);
- handwriting both in cursive and print styles (Callella, 2001).

Along with the enforcement of language development, word walls as a visual aid are also useful for their pedagogical use in other different subjects like mathematics and natural sciences (ibid.). Within the framework of language immersion, visual aids in the classroom space can also be considered as both a contextual language input and a pedagogical tool for second language teaching. Each subject lesson is also a language lesson at the same time, but in most cases it is little realized, rather only from the point of view of acquiring new subject-related concepts (Soll & Palginõmm, 2011: 71). This also applies to posters and lists of different rules and regulations written in the target language aimed at maintaining discipline and behavior in the classroom, from the point of view of general pedagogical goals and teaching values (Gorter, et al., 2021: 166).

Additionally, it is important to note that pedagogical using of on-site textual and visual materials is changing rapidly with the development of new multimedia technologies, especially in educational sphere. As it was mentioned in the section about incidental second language acquisition, new multimedia technologies, including audio-visual and interactive textual teaching materials, have a great potential for effective second language pedagogical instruction. Empirical research in this area confirms the positive educational impact of these materials, as they provide visibility, communicative activity, interdisciplinary connections, interactivity, instant feedback, combinations of group and individual forms of learning, as well as student-centered approach (Montero Perez, 2022).

### **1.6.2 Schoolscape as Pedagogical Tool for Developing Cultural Awareness**

As it was mentioned in previous chapters, language immersion classroom is considered as a meeting point for different cultures and languages. Thus, it has great potential for fostering development of cultural awareness among students needed to gain knowledge about the target culture, socio-cultural competence and positive attitude (Fenner, 2001). In the present work the

focus is more on language acquisition and factors supporting it. That is why the cultural component of the schoolscape in language immersion settings is considered as an additional language aid, even though it is important topic raising the significance of identity issue in language immersion teaching and learning in multilingual and multicultural environment (Pakarinen & Björklund, 2017; Pakarinen, 2020, Gorter, et al., 2021). – Translanguaging p 169

Cultural component is presented in schoolsapes both by cultural artefacts (Szabó, 2015) and language as expression of culture (Fenner, 2001). Within a school, cultural artefacts are objects reflecting culture of a certain community. Within a school, it might be religious attributes, national symbols (national animals, coat of arms, flag and its colors, hymn), literature, decorations for different events, handicrafts, songs and music, cuisine, dresses (Szabó, 2015: 34).

Taking into consideration only second language teaching related aspects, using cultural component of the schoolscape as a pedagogical tool provides several opportunities supporting effective second language teaching in language immersion settings. Firstly, cultural component of the schoolscape can be one factors providing meaningful and authentic context in which second language acquisition might take place (Gorter, et al., 2021). Secondly, the schoolscape might be a visual and material resource for introducing the second language culture, especially in content and language integrated instructional practices. And this applies both to the use of specially pedagogically designed materials made (or printed) by teachers, as well as handicrafts made by the students, for example, during crafts and art lessons, that are to be put on classroom walls. Yukiko Ito's research (2018) about integrating Japanese traditional crafts into Japanese language immersion classes, art activities aimed at creating traditional national artefacts are effective in introducing the target language culture in a way of active learning strategies, which also reflects James J. Asher's approach of Total Physical Response (1997).

To sum up this section, using cultural component of the schoolscape has a great potential form second language teaching perspective, since it makes the target language learning interesting and raise language and cultural awareness, developing cultural, symbolic and pragmatic (socio-linguistic) competence.

### **Schoolscape as Pedagogical Tool in Estonian language immersion context**

In Estonian language immersion contexts, many immersion class teachers' guidelines and methodological materials attach great importance to the well-planned arrangements of visual language material and usage of them in instructional practices in language immersion classroom.

On a state level, in the teachers' materials of the state curriculum for the first educational stage (grades 1-3), the Education and Youth Board (2023) provides a huge collection of visual materials for classes with language immersion program.

According to guidelines by Muldma et al. (2010), classroom environment with rich visible language content plays a big role in Estonian language acquisition for children whose first language is not Estonian. Pictures and visual elements should be self-explanatory even if textual caption of descriptions in Estonian is also presented with these pictures. Traditionally, immersion students have their own home classroom. This allows teacher and students to put up visual material and vocabulary related to primary school curriculum units on the walls, which is called 'Talking Walls' (*est. Rääkivad seined*), as an analogue of word walls. The wall is divided between different substances. Authors claims, that frequent use of the support material on the wall helps to remember any study content and ensures to articulate and systematize the material. In language immersion programme, as a kind of Content and Language Integrated Learning, the ability to show and see the connections between subjects is especially important. This notion is substantial, because an integration of content and language learning means that language is acquired mostly via contextual subject content. The walls of the home classroom are divided into parts based on subject or topic, while the subject cabinets are also divided by larger topics or classes. Students are surrounded by words and sentences, names and designations, phrases and expressions. They are always in front of the eyes and especially support learners with a visual learning style. On the walls and shelves there are 'Talking Walls' supporting learning of the subject, including material prepared by the students themselves – holophrases (“May I go out?”, “Please help!”, “Give me a pen, please!”), signs, pictures, topic centers, daily plans, weather maps, concept maps, grammar tables, student works, etc. Subject content is versatile and linked to relevant context and prior knowledge. The systematicity of the material presented on the walls helps the students themselves to visualize and acquire systematically both the subject content and language simultaneously. The materials are placed on the wall also during learning process with the students for the planned time to cover the topic and related vocabulary. Materials can be printed by teacher or hand-made by students. Teacher can always point to the wall, and the student can get the necessary language support from 'Talking Walls' to remind some information.

Ülle Rannut (2003: 48) in her guidelines about non-verbal strategies in second language teaching argues, that structured use of visual materials with language elements is an integral part of language immersion pedagogy. Basing on Asher's theory of Total Physical Response, she

suggests that active interaction with these wall materials is essential for a proper Estonian language acquisition. For example, visualizing the tasks and using language examples on the wall contribute significantly to retention of both subject content and different language aspects (reading, writing, spelling, grammar rules) in a communicative way. In this interaction learning process becomes more interesting and meaningful for students.

## CHAPTER II EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

### 2.1 Research sample

#### 2.1.1 Sinimäe Basic School

The present work's empirical research was conducted in Sinimäe Basic School (hereinafter referred to as 'Sinimäe school'). The Sinimäe School is a basic school located in Sinimäe, Narva-Jõesuu municipality in the northeastern part of Estonia. The school provides basic education from grades 1 to 9 (ages 6-15). Sinimäe School is a municipal educational institution as part of the municipality of Narva-Jõesuu. Originally, Vaivara Parish School was founded in 1869. During the Tsar period of Russification that followed the rise of Estonian national consciousness, the school tried to provide education for local people in their native language, Estonian. In 1931, a new spacious school building was built, which was destroyed in World War II in 1944. After soviet occupation, the mass deportation of the Estonian population to Siberia began, and people from all over the Soviet Union were brought in their place to expand the manufacturing sector throughout Estonia, including this region, where the Soviet authorities wanted to develop oil shale and light industry. Therefore, the demographic and sociolinguistic landscape was changed dramatically. The new school in Sinimäe was intended to provide basic education in both Estonian and Russian languages, until the political direction of the 1970s declared the area strict monolingualism and the Estonian-language school was disbanded. In the 1990s after Estonian restoration of independence, the new state educational policy was introduced. The school reorganized the Estonian-language department, becoming a bilingual educational institution. Starting from the 2005/2006 academic year, the school joined language immersion programme providing education on the basis of the one-way early language immersion instruction. In the language immersion program, the volume of learning in Estonian is at least 60%. The distribution of subjects taught whether in Estonian, Russian or foreign language according to grade levels is seen in Table 2 (see Appendix 6).

At the moment, the school charter establishes that Sinimäe School has Estonian, Russian and language immersion departments. The school's languages of instruction are Estonian and Russian. In language immersion classes, teaching takes place on the basis of a curriculum in which subjects taught in Estonian and Russian are separately determined (Riigi Teataja, 2015). However due to upcoming transition to Estonian-language education from 2024, the Sinimäe school is planning to change languages of instruction, and provide basic education fully in Estonian. This study year 2022/2023, the school has 110 students with 28 students in the

Estonian department and 82 students in the language immersion department. The current number of teachers is 21. Almost all students speak Russian as mother tongue. Whereas, a half of the teaching staff are native Estonians, and another part is Russian-speaking.

### **2.1.2 Participants**

The participants in the present study were 4 teachers and 2 students (focus-group discussion with 2 students). Teachers and students' parents agreed on being investigated consequently. The total number of participants was 10. The characteristics of the teachers were asked at the beginning of the interview. For personal data security reasons, students' personal information and characteristics were not described. The teachers were asked about their educational level, period of work (work experience in language immersion classes in particular), subjects they teach, their students' age group and their language skills. These characteristics are described in Table 3 (see Appendix 6).

All the teachers are working full-time primary school teachers in Sinimäe School. The grade range is from first to fourth grades, which are in focus of the present study. For the sake of personal data protection, concrete grades and classes of each teacher are not listed in Table 3. According to Estonian Occupational Qualification Standards (2023), primary school teacher a teacher whose education allows teaching several subjects in educational stages I and II. The primary school teacher is a basic education pedagogue who has completed teacher training in the integrated curricula of bachelor's and master's studies on the basis of the framework requirements for teacher training. The primary school teacher teaches in primary classes (1<sup>st</sup> – 4<sup>th</sup>), usually Estonian language and mathematics, as well as science and art subjects.

Albeit Teacher 1 and Teacher 3 did not have a master's degree at the moment of conducting the study, they were finishing master's programme. One of them were current final year student of master programme in Estonian language teaching as second language, having a bachelor degree in early childhood education. Another teacher was finishing integrated master degree programme in primary school teaching. It shows the teachers appropriate level of competences in teaching, especially in primary level in Estonian language immersion programme.

Taking a glance at the period of work, most of the teachers have worked in the investigated school for 1-5 years. The longest period of work in the school was more than 10 years. 4 out of all the teachers had worked in language immersion classes for 3-5 years. The shortest period of

work was 3. When looking at the language skills of the teachers, 3 out of 4 teachers speak Estonian as a mother tongue. One of them is bilingual, meaning this teacher has grown in bilingual family and has the same level of proficiency in both Estonian and Russian languages. Only one of them speaks Russian as a mother tongue. The teachers, whose mother tongue is Estonian, have upper-intermediate level of proficiency in Russian.

### **2.1.3 Socio-linguistic context**

As it was mentioned in previous sections, the linguistic landscape is versatile and multifaceted phenomena functioning at the intersection of language policy, cultural ideology, social norms and sociolinguistic context in a certain geographic area (Gorter, 2006). The latter one is of special importance, as it might say a lot about actual use through linguistic landscape. That is why it is important to describe the local sociolinguistic context in which the target school is operating and where its students and teachers live.

The school is located in Sinimäe borough in Narva-Jõesuu municipality, Ida-Virumaa county. At the 2021 Census, the settlement's population was 319, of which the Estonians were 100 (31.3%). The percentage of population by mother tongue in Narva-Jõesuu municipality is seen in Table 4 (see Appendix 6). Since most of the staff and students of the school live either in Sillamäe or in Narva, a broader geographic description of the sociolinguistic context of the entire Ida-Virumaa region is required.

Ida-Virumaa is a county located in northeastern Estonia with a population of approximately 132,000 people (Statistics Estonia, 2023). The region is known for its rich linguistic diversity, with Estonian, Russian, and other minority languages spoken throughout the county.

Russian is the most widely spoken minority language in Ida-Virumaa, with a significant portion of the population using Russian as their primary language of communication. In addition to Russian, other minority languages spoken in the region include also Ukrainian. The statistical data on population by different mother tongues in Ida-Virumaa might be seen in Table 5 (Statistics Estonia, 2021).

The sociolinguistic situation in Ida-Virumaa is complex, with the use and status of different languages influenced by historical, political, and social factors. The Soviet-era policy of promoting Russian as the lingua franca of the USSR has left a lasting impact on the linguistic landscape of the region, with Russian remaining an important language of communication, particularly among the older generation (Hogan-Brun et al., 2008).

In recent years, there have been efforts to promote the use of Estonian in the region, including through language education programs and other initiatives. However, the sociolinguistic situation in Ida-Virumaa remains a complex and ongoing issue, as the region continues to navigate the challenges of promoting Estonian language while also maintaining a sense of social cohesion (Siiner, 2006).

## **2.2 Methodology**

### **2.2.1 Case study**

To conduct the research for the present work, a qualitative approach was chosen as a principle for research design, because the schoolscape has been studied mostly qualitatively (Gorter & Cenoz, 2006; 2015; Szabo, 2017; Pakarinen & Bjoklund, 2018; Dressler, 2015). The research approach of present work is designed in a way of case study. According to Stake (2005: 2), "Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances'. The case study design is not a method as such, but it determines the selection of research objectives to be studied (ibid.). Qualitative case study researchers exploit document review, observations, interview as data gathering tools. Stake (ibid.: 445) has divided case studies into three types:

- 1) an intrinsic type based on the context of one specific entity. An entity can be a person, a group of people, an event, a project, an institution, etc.;
- 2) an instrumental case study is focused on the contexts beyond the case to understand a broader phenomenon;
- 3) a collective type. It is multiple case version of instrumental where the focus is on learning about a phenomenon.

The present work is design in a way of an intrinsic case study. The case in the present work is the schoolscape in its two dimensions (schoolscape as such and its use in language immersion pedagogy) in one concrete school on a concrete context. In this regard, the case study design provides an opportunity to investigate the schoolscape from different perspectives constructing a holistic view on it in given educational, linguistic and socio-cultural circumstances in a certain time frame and location.

### **2.2.2 Ethnography as Research Method**

Ethnography is a qualitative research method to study a particular cultural and social group to gain holistic understanding from insider's view through active participation (Kramer & Adams, 2018). Active participation requires not only documenting the visual outer 'surface' of a community (in the case of the present work – the school), but also active engagement with it and interaction with members if this community of institution. Direct observations, discussions and interviews are the most important data collection methods. The researcher participates either openly or covertly in the daily life of people for a long period of time and collects all kinds of available material for dealing with the topic under investigation, which is usually transformed

into a text for analysis (observation diary, transcripts of interviews, photographs and their descriptions) and interprets and analyzes it all in a certain manner by different domains. In ethnographical perspective, research objects become meaningful only in their relation with community members' attitudes towards them, their interpretation and their actual use in different practices (Pink, 2007). As of the present work, the objective is schoolscape in its relations with the school community and use in teaching and learning.

### **2.2.3 An ethnographical approach in linguistic landscape studies**

As it was mentioned in previous chapters, linguistic landscape is a complex phenomenon. Thus, a variety of research approaches has been used to study it from multiple corners and scientific fields, like linguistics, sociology, sociolinguistic, psychology and geography (Gorter, 2006: 4). Christoffer Stroud and Sibonile Mpendukana (2009) have studied the linguistic landscape in a South African suburb using ethnography. They looked at the texts in public places as the material of sociolinguistic mobility. Hanni Salo (2012) investigated the status and role of the Sámi language in the linguistic landscape of tourist destinations in Lapland using ethnography. Kara D. Brown (2012) approached the visibility of the Võru language in the linguistic landscape of educational institutions using ethnography as well.

Although schoolscape research has been mostly investigated with the qualitative approach, schoolscape research has been conducted both with quantitative and qualitative approaches (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006: 25–26). In terms of ethnographical approach, written texts, symbols and cultural artefacts of the linguistic landscape are essential, because those things have a meaningful in their contexts, being interpreted by community members and can be a mirror of implicit social relationships and cultural norms. The language landscape is studied with photographs, interviews and observations (Brown, 2012; 287). Several studies of the linguistic landscape have been combined with interview studies, the analysis of the oral use of the language or the study of language policy and legislation (Marten, Van Mensel & Gorter, 2012: 4).

Ethnographic linguistic landscape research examines both institutions and autonomous individual actors who together shape the language use in public space. Those actors' interaction with/through linguistic landscape may seem chaotic at first, as ideological hegemony and implicit language politics can be hard to discern (Shohamy, 2006: 50.) Ethnographic research can indeed make implicit relationships explicit (Brown, 2012; 2005).

#### **2.2.4 Educational ethnography**

Ethnography is also used in educational settings and is called educational ethnography.

Educational ethnography is research carried out *in* and *about* educational institutions. The ethnographic study of education combines richly descriptive genre of writing and participatory research methodologies to depict the daily life complexities of learning and teaching in all its forms (Delamont & Atkinson, 1995). For a researcher, an educational institution is a research field with precise boundaries, which work is framed by social and cultural norms, curricula, and instructional practices (Brown, 2012).

Ethnographers go to schools or any other educational institutions to investigate what happens there (Delamont & Atkinson, 1995). The key is to find out why, how and in what way schools act exactly the way they do. In school settings, it is needed be familiar with everyday life of a community. That is why, long participatory fieldwork is crucial in educational ethnography studies. As of the present work, the data have been collecting since October 2023 and active participation is determined by the author's status as a worker in the school being studied. The data from educational institutions is unique and context-bound. In this regard, ethnographic educational research might be implemented in a form of case study. Also, educational ethnography in a concrete educational institution tends to highlight problems that might otherwise go unnoticed or unacknowledged. Practically oriented use of any ethnographic educational research can provide useful information for the development of the school in relation to curriculum and effective teaching practices. Laihonen and Szabó (2017) mentions that schoolscape research with ethnographical approach involving members of a school community enables to uncover individual participants' language ideologies and pedagogical awareness. Ethnographical approach is thus suitable for the present study so that the participants' perspectives would be evoked in the collaborative data generation.

## **2.3 Ethnographic data collection methods**

### **2.3.1 Observation with photography**

Observation is a core or ethnographic method in general. Observation data can be collected by means of photography, filming, video recording, or researchers can record their observations in a diary (Delamont & Atkinson 1995). Researchers can choose whether to participate in the activity they observe or just remain as a passive observer. The effect of the presence of researchers or, for example, the camera used, on the research process is considered. In ethnography, it is acknowledged that it is impossible to obtain "pure" material completely under the influence of the researcher and might be affected by researchers' interpretations.

The object of the present work is the school's linguistic landscape, schoolscape. Taking pictures in a certain limited area is usually used as a *linguistic landscape analysis* (Gorter, 2006: 4). Researcher can use the photograph as an additional "eye" in their work. A photograph documents the linguistic reality in a certain place and time, and photography reproduce and comment on linguistic practices.

Digital cameras can take large amounts of pictures and processing the pictures is quite easy. Photographing the linguistic landscape with a digital camera and transferring the images to a file on the computer is simple. However, linguistic landscape analysis involves also commenting about some metadata, which is contextual and not visual such as the area to be photographed and the number of images. The images and the area must be chosen according to the research question. Still, it can be problematic to choose what to include in the linguistic landscape and how to delimit the images. When planning the research, a representative area must be selected to be photographed. It is also important to consider what is being described and what is the unit of analysis, whether the text to be analyzed should be limited to separate text sheets or, for example, a notice board or a display window. What is more, the research data can also include moving text, i.e. moving objects or people with text. It can be cars, people with textual elements on their clothes or changing text on screens and digital displays or (Gorter, 2006: 4). When describing the texts of the linguistic landscape (signages, announcements, signs), the picture should also include the environment in which the text occurs and the location of the text in it.

### **2.3.2 Interview and focus group discussion**

Photographs as visual data can be supplemented with interviews (ibid.). Qualitative research tends to be diverse in data sources to construct a multidimensional view on the research object.

Interviews with the target community members provide their attitudes towards research objects that are used and being interpreted in the community. Furthermore, observation and photographing can open up new questions for the interview. (Delamont & Atkinson 1995)

As a research method, interview is a structured conversation where interviewer asks questions, and interviewee provides answers. The interviewer strives for the interviewee to speak as openly as possible about their own perceptions. The interview is usually recorded. However, recording is not always possible. Then researchers can use written notes either during the interview meeting or afterwards. Interviews are mostly planned and agreed upon in advance. On the other hand, interviews may arise spontaneously in a fieldwork situation, when the informant may approach the researcher (Delamont & Atkinson 1995). Nevertheless, the structure of any interview is based on beforehand planned question lists, which are composed in relation to the status of interviewees and intended for investigation of the research objectives.

The selection of interviewees plays a central role in the interview method. In ethnographic research, it is not necessary to have a representative group of interviewees, but to reach out to those informants whose view is relevant to the research objectives (ibid.: 159). At the same time, as of vitality and reliability of any research, interview as part of qualitative methodology has so called 'human factor' affecting negatively on the research quality. The data from interview depends on many factors, such as time, place, emotional states at the time of the interview, and the relationship between the interviewee and the interviewer. (ibid.: 167–169) What is more, the interviewer's personal characteristics (age, gender, educational background) can affect the interview content and conducting process.

In the present study, the view on the research object, schoolscape, is investigated from perspectives of different community members, including young students (10-11 years old). These age group has its own features participating in any research process. In addition to specific ethical considerations, children are not fully capable to give a comprehensive view and perception of some phenomena being studied by researchers. The whole interview situation can be unfamiliar to young children, as they have no previous similar experiences. Graue and Walsh (1995) claim that one of the main mistakes that interviewers make is to assume that a child understands the interview process in the same way as an adult. Moreover, children are dare to discuss some topic openly only if they know well the interviewer, who should have positive attitude as well. These circumstances create a safe space for the conversation (Hughes & McCrum 1998). Sometimes a group interview can be safer for the interviewees and create a

more open and conversational atmosphere (Delamont & Atkinson, 1995: 170.) Taking into consideration these features of making interviews with young age group, it was decided to organize interview in a form of focus group discussion. In terms of reliability and validity, study from Pakarinen and Bjöklund (2018) was taken as a sample for focus group discussion of the present work.

### **2.3.3 Linguistic landscape analysis**

Linguistic landscape analysis is a multi-disciplinary approach to linguistic landscape's 'what, how and why' combining different fields of social sciences and humanities. That is why both quantitative and qualitative methods have been used. The present work, as the small-scale case study, is carried out mostly qualitatively with little quantitative data analysis.

Early linguistic landscape studies used a quantitative approach and extensive visual material. For example, the number of occurrences of each language are calculated from a large number of photographs (Backhaus, 2007; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006). For analysis, the texts of the language landscape can be distributed into tables according to the language used and the author of the text. Those tables highlight the percentages of the occurrence of each language in a certain area or the share of the texts of certain actors. (Backhaus, 2006; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Cenoz & Gorter, 2006).

Recently, qualitative research of linguistic landscape has increased in numbers (Gorter & Troyer, 2023), where the linguistic properties of texts have been in the focus of research interest. Multimodality of the linguistic landscape and its placement in their environment has become popular among scholars (Gorter & Cenoz, 2006; 2021). Linguistic landscape analysis has also been applied to studying the interaction between texts in public places and people in everyday life (Blommaert 2012; Malinowski 2009).

In the present work, the place of linguistic elements (including symbols and cultural artefacts) in the different spaces of the school and relative weight of different language is in focus. The analysis also includes the physical properties of the language landscape, i.e. the material, size and color of the texts. Contemporary approach to the linguistic landscape analysis sees the linguistic landscape as contextually meaningful interpreted through its environment. The location of different elements of the linguistic landscape in the physical space and readers' perception is essential for the interpretation. Another words, the linguistic landscape cannot be interpreted by

looking at the texts as such and alone, but the placement of the texts in different social contexts must be considered (Brown, 2005; 2012). In the educational institution context, this means placing the linguistic landscape in different spaces in a school building.

The author of the work also has investigated the origin of the linguistic landscape of the school and what linguistic solutions and choices have been made when creating and placing any elements of the linguistic landscape. In this regard, the linguistic landscape analysis involves analysis of interviews to get data about perception and perspectives on its use and attitudes from different actors, teachers and students in particular. In linguistic landscape research, the word "actor" is used to people or institutions involved in the processes of creation, implementation and engagement with the linguistic landscape. Actor have their own role. They make elements into a language landscape, prepare them or read them (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006: 27.) That is why it is important to discover the motives and background assumptions of these actors. As active creators, actors follow some linguistic choice principles that are reflected in what language(s), words, phrases and sentences are used in the linguistic landscape. These choices, on the other hand, are related to a larger phenomenon, such as language identity, language policy, language ideology, globalization or writing skills. (Shohamy, 2006: 111.)

At the same time, passive readers are also actors in the linguistic landscape. Active actors, creators, make elements of the linguistic landscape to attract the attention of a certain group of readers. The purpose is to get the attention of the relevant participants (Scollon & Scollon 2003) The linguistic landscape becomes meaningful only through perception leading to interpretation and making some decisions upon. Although in fairness it should be noted that elements of linguistic landscape remain unnoticed quite often, as mostly people passing by without any attention.

When looking at multilingual linguistic landscape, gathered data is analyzed in relation to the occurrence, status or function of languages. The analysis focuses on symbolic practices to find out how and for what purposes people use language(s) (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006: 25–26). Different emphasis given to different languages has been explained by the motives of different actors and the status of languages in the community. Thus, different languages can serve several functions in the linguistic landscape. Using different languages can have informative and symbolic purposes. The linguistic landscape can therefore be interpreted as a competitive stage of ethnolinguistic groups, where they fight for a central position in the public space. Appearance

in the linguistic landscape is influenced by the degree of political, social and economic power of the group in a certain community (Brown, 2012).

The linguistic landscape analysis was based on the division of its elements into groups by to author(s) or creators that might reflect language policy in the interpretation of the linguistic landscape. Even though the structure of the linguistic landscape may seem chaotic, but it always mediates the symbolic construction of public space. The data was also divided into top-down official (public institutions, public announcements, street signs) and bottom-up unofficial dimensions (store signs, private business signs, private announcements and advertisements). This division has been used to analyze the difference between the official language policy and the language choice of private entities and in the analysis of implementation of language policy (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Gorter, 2006: 4).

In terms of the functions of the school linguistic landscape, study by Durk Gorter and Jasone Cenoz (2015: 9) was taken as a sample, excluding the ninth function of 'Promoting Basque language'. Their analysis reveals the different communicative intentions conveyed by the texts in a specific multilingual educational environment. Here is the list of those functions: 1) Talking Walls; 2) Active Learning; 3) Cultural Artefacts; 4) Decorations; 5) Informative messages; 6) Outer signs; 7) Room signs; 8) Regulations.

'Talking Walls' serve one of the most obvious functions of the language used in the signs on the wall is to use them as a teaching aid. The use of the language in the linguistic landscape inside a classroom can be part of a lesson plan and will be used as such by the teacher. Some signs are produced as learning materials and others are an extension of other materials. 'Active learning' wall materials inside and outside the classroom that are designed for active interaction of students with this educational material. Many of them are a resource for such an active learning method as inquiry learning. 'Cultural artifacts' are any texts, things and objects that are associated with the traditions, symbols of any nation or ethnic group (flag, national symbols, national costumes, folk craft, poetry). The purpose of 'Decorations' is perhaps more aesthetic than informational or symbolic. Of course, the choice of these decorative signs can also provide some insight into the messages that are implied and they are an indirect pedagogical device through which learning can be activated. Sometimes they are reproductions of famous paintings or announcements of museums, but quite often also the materials produced by the students. 'Informative messages' can be both commercial or non-commercial. On announcement boards for example we found signs about events that would take place in the town, such as a theatre play

or a musical performance. Commercial information is produced by outside organizations or businesses. Those signs are examples of advertising similar to what one can find in public space. 'Outer sign' is any signage that is installed outside on the exterior of the school building or nearby located billboards and hoardings. 'Room signs' in schools are typically signs that display the room number or name outside of each classroom or other designated space within the school. They help students, teachers, and visitors navigate the school building and find the appropriate room for their class, meeting, or activity. Room signs can be made from various materials, such as metal, plastic, or wood, and can include additional information such as the teacher's name or subject taught. They are an important part of a school's overall wayfinding and communication system. Finally, 'Regulations' both for classroom and school management. Inside classrooms, an informative function is also carried out by signs that inform the students about how to behave towards their fellow students. These signs are intended to inform and reinforce the children about the do's and don'ts at school. They establish rules of etiquette. School management signs are of a more general nature. There are signs that inform their readers, students, teachers or visitors about general school rules, hygiene, schedules, evacuation etc.

According to them, each sign is actually multifunctional, having, as a rule, the main and additional functions. Therefore, it is difficult to make a strict division by function, to bring to the fore only the main function of the schoolscape element. All the elements of the schoolscape by origin and functions were also distributed by language in which those elements presented.

## **2.4 Data Collection Procedure**

The present work was done in methodological framework of educational ethnography. The data included photographs of the school linguistic landscape (N=260), interviews with primary school teachers (N = 4), lesson observations (N=2) and student focus group discussions (N = 2). The primary school that was the target of this work is located in northeastern Estonian region Ida-Virumaa where Russian language is spoken as a majority language comparing to Estonian. The research participants were comprised of teachers and primary school level students. The photographs were taken during study year 2022/2023. The data collection happened various times during this study year, since the author of the present thesis work there full-time as after-care teacher.

The study was conducted to investigate what is the linguistic landscape of the Estonian language immersion school like. For the research purpose firstly was done observation with photographic documenting of the schoolscape elements (see [Sinimäe Põhikool Schoolscape Photographs, Google Drive](#)). Secondly, questions for interview with teachers (see Appendix 1) and student focus-group discussion (see Appendix 2) were composed based on the analysis of data from photographic documentation and the schoolscape observation. Then, primary school teachers were interviewed (see Appendix 3). After that, there was two lessons observation in grade 3 of the primary school level focusing on teachers' (non)use of visual and textual pedagogical materials on walls or whiteboards, so called 'Talking Walls'(see Appendix 4). Finally, students from grade 3 participated in focus-group discussion right after the lesson being observed. Ethical issues were considered and described in final section of this chapter.

### **2.4.1 Schoolscape Observation with Photographing**

The author the thesis took photographs in Sinimäe School located in Sinimäe borough in Narva-Jõesuu municipality, Ida-Viru County in northeastern Estonia. As a worker of the school, the author tried to obtain a reasonably complete and comprehensive overview of the schoolscape elements of the school during the study year 2022/2023. In addition to signs, posters and signages containing only textual information, pictures, symbols and other visual elements were also photographed, which are either located next to textual elements (self-explanatory pictures of what is written in text), or are symbolically significant as such. Pictures were taken with personal smartphone camera inside the classrooms visited, but also in the corridors, other rooms (e.g. the library, canteen, sport hall) and the immediate surroundings (in particular the school front and

the school yard). Since the focus of the study on primary school language immersion classes, most of photographs were taken on the first floor, where all grades of primary school level are located.

The total number of photographs is 260. In many cases more than one picture of the same text or sign or combination of signs was taken. Then all photographs were uploaded in cloud-service 'Google Drive' and sorted into folders for ease of further analysis<sup>1</sup>. The folders with gathered photographs represent different units of linguistic landscape analysis by eight functions of schoolscape (Gorter & Cenoz, 2015: 9). The principle of collecting and managing the collected data is consistent with the research objectives of this work:

- How many and what languages are presented on signs in the school?
- Are the signs monolingual, bilingual, multilingual and what is their relative weight?
- Are different languages used for serving different functions with different contents and in different domains?
- What is the origin and creators of the elements of the schoolscape: top-down or bottom-up?
- In what modalities and forms is linguistic landscape presented in school?
- What symbols and visual material accompanies linguistic elements?

#### **2.4.2 Lesson Observation**

Lesson observation was intended to provide some insights of how actually happens the use of schoolscape elements for language immersion pedagogical purposes, and about the students' perceptions of it. Lesson observation was conducted in 3<sup>rd</sup> grade classroom during the lessons of Estonian as second language. The observation was conducted in spring 2023. The author was not involved into the lesson process being a passive observer. The classroom is located on the first floor of the school building. The observations was conducted using the observation tool for effective L2 pedagogy in Content and Language Integrated Learning (De Graaff et al., 2007), as it corresponds to the study of the pedagogy of language immersion, which is in focus of the present work. This observation tool emphasizes following principles from second language pedagogy to observe instructional practices in CLIL classroom: (1) exposure to input; (2) content-oriented processing; (3) form-oriented processing; (4) (pushed) output; and (5) strategic language use. For this study, I have narrowed down the range of pedagogical practices to be observed, focusing on the use and interaction with the classroom language landscape, especially

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<sup>1</sup> Sinimäe Põhikool Schoolscape Photographs, Google Drive: <https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1-2P7atLSzNwMvpZEFEKQviAzPmpvSODX?usp=sharing>

pedagogically designed ‘Talking Walls’. Thus, the lesson observation protocol was adapted precisely to analyze the teachers’ use of the linguistic landscape. For this purpose, the adaptation was made corresponding to the sample study of instructional practices in early total immersion in Finland by Harju-Luukkainen (2019):

- Were there interactions between the student/teacher and the ‘Talking Walls’?
- In what way was the interaction with the elements of the linguistic landscape (special intonation or voice tone, kinematic component, body language etc.)?
- How long did the interaction last (approximately)?
- Does joint attention take place in the interaction with ‘Talking Walls’?

The full version of lesson observation protocol see Appendix 4.

In addition to observing the lesson, it was also important to document and analyze the language and visual environment in the classroom in which the observed lessons took place. Besides pedagogically designed wall study-materials, other elements of the classroom linguistic landscape were taken into consideration (study plans, classroom management rules, decorations, hygiene rules etc.). In this case, the description of the linguistic landscape of the classroom was the background for the lesson observations. The basis of this description are the collected photographic data and the prior analysis of the physical and visual environment of the classroom, according the definition of the schoolscape (Szabó, 2015: 24): ‘a reference to the visual and spatial organization of educational spaces, with special emphasis on inscriptions, images and the arrangement of the furniture’:

- How rich and diverse is the language environment of the classroom (how many posters/pictures, what languages are represented, what subject posters/pictures, incolor or black and white, etc.)?
- What are the school subject areas in the classroom, if any?
- What are the principles for the arrangement of ‘Talking Walls’, if any?
- Are there signs, information, pictures, posters or objects related to (Estonian) culture in the classroom in addition to the visual educational material (i.e. ‘Talking Walls’)?
- Are there seen student works in the classroom (for example, done during arts and crafts classes) that may contain linguistic elements, inscriptions or culturally symbolic meaning?

### **2.4.3 Interviews and Focus-Group Discussions**

On the strength of qualitative interviews, data on the perception and use of schoolscape were collected with reference to educators’ awareness about linguistic landscape, in general, and

schoolscape, in particular, and the pedagogical value of 'Talking Walls' and schoolscape. Therefore, one of the major data sources for the present study were interviews with primary school teachers (N=4) and focus-group discussions (N=1). Primary school teachers participated in semi-structured interviews in spring 2023. The teacher's attitude towards the author was open and positive, since they are the author's colleagues, and there were no interpersonal conflicts. The interviews lasted about 15-30 minutes. All those interviews were recorded with the author's personal smartphone. The interviews took place in teachers' classrooms in Estonian. After that, recorded interviews were transcribed into texts. The transcriptions are available in Appendix 3 and list of interview questions in Appendix 2.

As it was mentioned before, the study also involved students' views on the schoolscape and its use during lessons. The discussions with the focus group of three students was conducted in spring 2023 right after lessons that were observed, so their impression from lessons were fresh and they were able to recall something answering the questions. The discussion was carried out in students' first language (Russian) and took place in a free music classroom in a quiet and peaceful environment. All of them know the author and were open for the discussion.

Three immersion students in 3<sup>rd</sup> grade were chosen as potential respondents by their primary school class teacher. Even if the number of participants in those focus-groups was relatively small, it still fulfils criteria for a mini-focus group (Krueger, 1994). According to the teacher, all three respondents were not shy of researchers and fairly talkative and would therefore participate in the discussion actively. The respondent had similar linguistic backgrounds. Their first language was Russian, the second one was Estonian in relation to their age group was at a good level.

The semi-structured focus-group discussions were also recorded. During the discussion the author presented a series of questions about the direct pedagogical use of schoolscape elements by their teacher during the lesson and the linguistic landscape in their school, and also often prompted students to expand their responses (see Appendix 4). The length of the discussions were about 15 minutes and comprised both questions and prompts by the author and students' responses. The discussions were transcribed afterwards (see Appendix 5).

#### **2.4.4 Ethical Considerations**

Conducting research in an educational institution requires a special approach to ethical aspects (BERA, 2018). This means that researchers must constantly consider whether the participants are affected by the research. Psychological damage must be avoided, meaning that the informants should not be exposed to stress or traumatic experience. The researcher is thus expected to be open and clear about what he or she is going to do. The researcher can, for example, provide a short summary of the research, which clearly states the purpose, data collection method and how the results are used further. The time framework of the study should also be clarified. The researcher should also inform participants that they have the right to withdraw from participating in the research process at any stage without providing any reasons for doing so.

As of the present work, for ethical reasons, informed consents were requested and given by all the participants (school principal, teachers and parents). All parties approved their participation and gave the permission for collecting data. Personal details such as names concrete job position were not added in the transcription, and persons are not identifiable in the photographs. In this paper I refer to the teachers and students with pseudonyms.

In this study, the focus was on the teachers and students. Therefore, the audio recording was conducted in the school so that no children or teacher were visible. Also, no personal information about the children was gathered. The children were informed of why the adult person, the author, was in their classroom and it was discussed with the students.

## 2.5 Data analysis and finding

### 2.5.1 Linguistic landscape analysis

Based on the collected photographic data, the quantitative linguistic landscape analysis was conducted by three criteria, including eight distribution units. All photographs cited in the analysis can be viewed as examples in the Appendix 7.

*Mono-multilingual:* The majority of the schoolscape is monolingual in Estonian, with 227 (90%) instances (from the total of N=260) found across various categories such as ‘Talking Walls’, ‘Active Learning’, ‘Cultural Artefacts’, ‘Decorations’, ‘Informative Messages’, ‘Out-of-school Signs’, ‘Room Signs’, and ‘Regulations and Management’. There are very few instances of monolingual Russian, with only 5 (2%) instances found in the categories of ‘Decorations’, ‘Informative Messages’, and ‘Regulations’. Bilingual and multilingual instances were not found, except for 5 (2%) instances of bilingual Estonian-Russian in the category of ‘Informative Messages’, and 9 (4%) instances of monolingual other languages (precisely one in German and the rest in English) in the categories of ‘Talking Walls’, ‘Decorations’, and ‘Informative Messages’. The linguistic landscape of the school is predominantly Estonian (see Photo 4.), with some English and Russian signage. The main language of instruction is Estonian, and most of the school's signs and notices are in Estonian. Some signs indicating emergency exits and first aid stations are also only in Estonian, even if those signages might be important for extraordinary situation, requiring understandable information as wide a range of people's language skills as possible. However, there are some multilingual signs in English, Russian and Ukrainian (see Photo 3.), particularly those related to IT equipment, COVID-19, war in Ukraine and Sinimäe library (see Photo 1., Photo 2.). All the distribution in numbers (absolute and percentage) may be seen in Table 6 and Table 8.

*Top-down and bottom-up relationships:* The minor part of the schoolscape is top-down (N=59, 24%), with 90% of the instances originating from Estonian sources, such as school management in the category of ‘Regulations and Management’, or external sources in the category of ‘Out-of-school Signs’. The majority of the schoolscape is bottom-up relationships, with 89 instances (76%) of ‘Talking Walls’ and 32 instances of ‘Active Learning’ originating from the students and teachers themselves. Additionally, categories such as ‘Decorations’, ‘Cultural Artefacts’, and ‘Informative Messages’ have a mix of top-down and bottom-up origins. Interestingly but not

surprisingly, that no instances of bottom-up origin were found in the category of 'Room Signs' or the subcategory of classroom management in 'Regulations and Management'.

The linguistic landscape of the school reflects both top-down and bottom-up relationships. Top-down language use is evident in the school's official signs and notices, which are produced and regulated by the school administration. For example, there are signs at the entrance of the school with the school's name and logo, indicating the authority and branding of the school. The official notices in the school are also regulated by the administration and include announcements about school events and rules. However, there are also bottom-up elements of the linguistic landscape, which are produced by the students and staff. For example, there are posters on the walls of the school promoting student clubs and extracurricular activities, which reflect the interests and priorities of the students. There are also notes and messages written by students and staff on whiteboards and bulletin boards, which show the everyday interactions and communication within the school community.

*Functions of different elements of the schoolscape:* The different elements of the schoolscape serve various functions in the linguistic landscape of the school. As noted in the previous section, the folders with gathered photographs represent different units of linguistic landscape analysis by eight functions of schoolscape by Durk Gorter and Jasone Cenoz (2015: 9), excluding the ninth function of 'Promoting Basque language'. According to them, each sign is actually multifunctional, having, as a rule, the main and additional functions. Therefore, it is difficult to make a strict division by function, to bring to the fore only the main function of the schoolscape element. The official signs and notices serve informational and regulatory functions, providing information about the school's policies and procedures. The branding and logos on signs, diplomas and certificates serve a marketing function, promoting the school's image and identity. The largest part of the elements has educational purposes.

'Talking Walls' and 'Active Learning' both serve as platforms for student and teacher expression and creativity, with a majority of bottom-up origin. 'Decorations' and 'Cultural Artefacts' serve aesthetic and cultural purposes, with a mix of top-down and bottom-up origin. 'Informative Messages', 'Out-of-school Signs', and 'Room Signs' serve functional and informational purposes, with a mix of top-down and bottom-up origin. 'Regulations and Management' primarily serve functional and disciplinary purposes, with a majority of top-down origin from school management, except for the subcategory of classroom management, which has a mix of top-down and bottom-up origin.

*Multimodality:* The multimodality of the linguistic landscape of Sinimäe School can contribute significantly to the development of pragmatic (symbolic) language competences in general and, in particular, in the Estonian language. The use of different signs and symbols with their own strict size, font, color, and material, along with the pictorial or textual representation, can provide a multi-sensory experience that enhances the learners' understanding of the signs and symbols they encounter (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

The use of pictorial or symbolic elements in the schoolscape, especially in bottom-up signs, can also help in developing the pragmatic language competences of the students. Such signs not only convey information but also provide additional meaning through the use of images or symbols. For example, signs with pictures of school materials or activities can help students associate the written word with the corresponding object or activity (see Picture 5). This can be particularly helpful in a one-way Estonian language immersion setting, where students are not exposed to their native language as frequently.

Moreover, the use of Estonian language in almost all the schoolscape elements can help to promote the acquisition and development of Estonian language skills among the students. The school's commitment to using Estonian language in its signs and symbols reinforces the idea that Estonian is the dominant language of the school environment. This, in turn, can create an atmosphere that fosters the development of Estonian language skills in the students.

*Cultural artefacts:* The presence of cultural artefacts on the linguistic landscape of the school with one-way Estonian language immersion indicates a strong emphasis on Estonian cultural dominance and the transmission of Estonian cultural awareness. The artefacts include the Estonian flag, excerpts from Lydia Koidula's poetry, national symbols, Estonian presidents, country map, Estonian sightseeing, decoration for some cultural events (Christmas, Easter). These artefacts are mostly bottom-up, which means they are created and displayed by teachers and students, rather than being imposed from above by the authorities.

The fact that there are more bottom-up artefacts indicates that the school is actively promoting Estonian culture and language to its students. The presence of cultural artefacts, especially those with text such as excerpts from Lydia Koidula's poetry (see Photo 6), can help students acquire the Estonian language by exposing them to the language in a natural and engaging way. These

artefacts also can help students develop a deeper understanding and appreciation of Estonian culture, which is an important aspect of language learning (Fenner, 2001; Kramersch, 1993).

However, the dominance of Estonian cultural artefacts on the linguistic landscape can also be seen as a reflection of the wider sociolinguistic context in Ida-Virumaa, where the majority of students speak Russian as their mother tongue. The prevalence of Estonian cultural artefacts in the school could be seen as an attempt to counteract the dominance of Russian language and culture in the region and promote a sense of Estonian national unity and identity (Brown, 2012).

The linguistic landscape analysis of the schoolscape has shown that the majority of the schoolscape elements are in Estonian, which reflects the top-down language policy in Estonia (Siiner, 2006). However, it is worth noting that the majority of the students in this school are Russian speakers, which suggests that the school is trying to create Estonian language environment and promote massive exposure to Estonian language and culture.

The schoolscape elements in Estonian consist of talking walls, active learning materials, cultural artefacts, decorations, informative messages, out-of-school signs, room signs, and regulations. These elements are primarily top-down and reflect both state and school language policy (Szabo, 2015). The decorations and cultural artefacts serve as a means of promoting Estonian culture and heritage to the students.

On the other hand, there are a few schoolscape elements in Russian, such as decorations and informative messages. These elements are relatively minimal compared to the ones in Estonian, which suggests that the school may not be intentionally interested in promoting the Russian language and culture. It is also worth noting that there are a few schoolscape elements in other languages, such as English, which may be intended to promote internationalization and multiculturalism (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021).

### **2.5.2 Linguistic landscape as pedagogical tool**

The investigation of the pedagogical function and efficacy of the schoolscape for Estonian language acquisition can be broadly approached through two distinct perspectives: the linguistic landscape outside of the classroom and the pedagogically structured wall materials within the

classroom, both of which are interrelated components of the overall linguistic landscape. Nonetheless, these perspectives do not have rigid boundaries, and their integration contributes to the overall linguistic landscape.

The linguistic landscape of Sinimäe School, with its multimodality and cultural artefacts, can also act as an additional source for Estonian language acquisition in language immersion settings on a pragmatic and extra-linguistic level. The use of different signs, fonts, colors, and materials can help students develop pragmatic competence, which involves the ability to understand and use language in its cultural and social context. By exposing students to different types of signs, the school is providing them with an opportunity to develop their skills in interpreting and using visual cues, as well as understanding the different ways in which language is used in different contexts.

The cultural artefacts in the school's linguistic landscape can also be helpful for Estonian language acquisition. The presence of Estonian flags, symbols, and pictures of Estonian sightseeing places can create a sense of cultural immersion, allowing students to experience the language in a more authentic way. This exposure to the Estonian culture can help students to connect with the language on a deeper level, which may make language learning more enjoyable and effective.

The linguistic landscape can also be helpful for incidental language acquisition, which occurs when learners are exposed to language in real-life situations without explicit language instruction. By seeing and interacting with different signs and cultural artefacts in their school environment, students may be more likely to encounter new words and expressions that they may not have otherwise encountered. This exposure to the language can help students to develop their vocabulary, grammar, and overall language proficiency. However, it is difficult to say precisely how useful this language landscape is for language acquisition in the context of incidental learning. As it was mentioned in previous chapter, the process of second language acquisition through not-deliberate interaction with schoolscape elements depends on different factors such as the relevance of the stimulus, the presence or absence of a cue and the frequency of occurrence of the stimulus. On an individual level, the effectiveness of incidental learning through texts presented around learners depends on learners' inferencing skills to notice and pay attention to new words (Hulstijn 2013: 3).

In this regard, this study examined the linguistic landscape of school environments and its potential impact on language acquisition in terms of language structure and subject content and meaning. The linguistic landscape of the school environment is characterized by two main language-related aspects by Cummins (2000): the use of basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and the development of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). BICS is informal social language that is used for daily communication. On the other hand, CALP is a more complex academic language that is used in the classroom and requires abstract thinking and high cognitive demands.

In terms of lexicon and style, the linguistic landscape of the school environment contains various types of signs, posters, and decorations. For BICS, the language used is basic and includes stickers with holophrases ("Good morning!", "See you later!", "May I go out?", "Please help!", "Give me a pen, please!") and the names of things or elements in the classroom interior, such as "mirror", "window", "right-left", or some other names of rooms and special things presented in physical environment "Music class", "Library", "Emergency exit", "Sinimäe School", "Schedule". For CALP, the language is more abstract and includes subject-related posters, maps, and cards with terminology in mathematics ("Meters, decimeters, millimeters", "Geometrical forms", "Addition, subtraction, multiplication"), natural science ("Insect species", "Weather conditions and meteorology", "Spring plants"), and Estonian ("Explosives and non-explosives consonants", "Comma rules", "Lengths of sounds").

Regarding language structure, the schoolscape is dominated by nominal sentences, mostly in the form of signs and name tags for objects and spaces. For example, "Sport hall", "Auxiliary room", "Fire extinguisher". Complete sentences with a subject and a predicate are rare, mostly observed on signs with regulations and classroom management, announcements, decorations, or some informational stands ("This toilet is for teachers only!", "I have to raise my hand if I want to answer in class"). Compound sentences with complex clauses are also infrequent, while four types of sentences (declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory) are used for different purposes, with declarative sentences being the most common.

The orthographic aspect of the written text on the elements of the linguistic landscape is divided into two styles: handwritten (derived from cursive) and block letters (imitating book writing). Handwritten texts are mostly used for bottom-up elements and are written by either teachers or students, with spelling mistakes often made by students. This applies to both Latin and Cyrillic scripts.

From pedagogical perspectives, including both incidental learning and intentional teaching, the linguistic landscape of the school environment is characterized by a rich and diverse lexicon, but a relatively simple language structure dominated by nominal sentences. The orthographic aspect of the written text is divided into two styles: handwritten and block letters. The language structure of the wall materials focuses on sentence patterns, vocabulary, terminology, academic language, and orthography. For example, the stickers with holophrases and names of classroom elements focus on basic vocabulary for interpersonal communication, while the posters with subject-related vocabulary and terminology provide academic language for specific subject areas such as mathematics, natural science, and Estonian.

This rich and diverse language environment can contribute to the students' Estonian language acquisition in language immersion settings by providing a context for students to see and be engaged with it. The wall materials allow students to interact with the language in a visual and kinesthetic manner, providing a more embedded and natural language acquisition process. Furthermore, the use of academic language in subject-related posters, maps, and cards can help students develop a more advanced level of language proficiency that is necessary for academic success.

As of intentional and direct use of the out-of-classroom schooscape for teaching purposes, there were examined various ways of a such schooscape usage as pedagogical tool. The out-of-classroom linguistic landscape in Sinimäe School is utilized as a pedagogical tool to facilitate active and inquiry-based learning, as well as to promote cultural awareness connected with the Estonian language.

One example of the use of the linguistic landscape for active learning is the second grade teacher's initiative to hang pictures of different animals on the first floor of the school building, where the primary school classrooms are located. The students were given worksheets and tasked with finding these animals on the first floor and writing their names in Estonian on the worksheets (see Photo 8). This activity encourages students to actively engage with their environment, develop their observational skills, and learn Estonian vocabulary related to animals.

Another example is the temporary exhibition that came to the school, which featured posters on the theme of the relationship between space and man, related to physics, astronomy, biology, and

chemistry (see Photo 9). The 4th grade students were given worksheets associated with this exhibition, and they had to find answers to questions by interacting with the posters (see Photo 10). This activity is intended to promote inquiry-based learning, where students are encouraged to explore and discover information from the linguistic landscape, and also reinforces their understanding of scientific concepts in Estonian.

The engagement with cultural events and cultural awareness through the schoolscape is also evident in Sinimäe School. On the day of the native language, a poster with the word "EMAKEEL" (mother tongue) was hung out, and students were invited to add their favorite word in their native language under each letter. Despite the fact that Russian is the mother tongue of most students in Sinimäe School, all students wrote their favorite words in Estonian on the poster (see Photo 11). This activity tends to promote cultural awareness and appreciation of the Estonian language, even among students whose mother tongue is different, and fosters interactive interaction and joint creativity in the linguistic landscape.

The description of the Estonian language immersion classrooms, based on classroom observations and collected photographic data, highlights several key elements that contribute to the immersive language learning environment. First, the classrooms are described as having a rich and diverse linguistic landscape, with signs, pictures, topic centers, daily plans, weather maps, grammar tables, days of the week, seasons, and other subject-related materials displayed on the walls. The content of these materials is versatile and linked to relevant context and prior knowledge, indicating that teachers are intentional in creating a visually stimulating environment that supports both subject content and language acquisition. The systematicity of the material presented on the walls also helps students visualize and acquire subject content and language simultaneously, suggesting an integrated approach to teaching and learning.

The Estonian alphabet is prominently displayed in the classrooms in the form of printed letters, and in the lower grades (second and first grades), both cursive and printed letters are used, while in higher grades (third and fourth grades), only cursive letters are used. This reflects a progression in the students' language learning, starting with printed letters and gradually transitioning to cursive letters as they advance in their language skills. This suggests a systematic approach to teaching the Estonian language, with consideration of age-appropriate instructional materials.

Student art-works and handmade crafts are mentioned to be displayed only in two classes that are a bit bigger than others, indicating that student involvement in the creation of the linguistic landscape may vary across classrooms. However, the presence of student-generated materials in the classrooms can contribute to a sense of ownership and pride among students, as their own creations are displayed in the learning environment. In addition, the linguistic landscape of Estonian language immersion classrooms also includes diplomas, certificates from different competitions, letters of thanks, and joint photos of the class and school family. These indicate that students' achievements and contributions to the learning environment are recognized and celebrated.

Classroom regulations and behavior rules are displayed in all classrooms, indicating that teachers place importance on creating a conducive learning environment that includes clear expectations for student behavior. Stickers with holophrases in Estonian, such as "Good morning!", "See you later!", "May I go out?", "Please help!", "Give me a pen, please!" are present, which may serve as useful language prompts for students to use in daily interactions. This indicates that teachers are intentional in promoting language use and providing language support through visual aids.

Stickers with the names of things or elements of the classroom interior, such as "mirror", "window", "right-left" are also mentioned. This suggests an emphasis on building students' vocabulary and language skills related to the physical environment, which can be beneficial for language immersion learners to develop practical language skills for everyday situations.

The walls of the classrooms also display grammatical rules in Estonian, indicating that teachers incorporate explicit language instruction in the classroom environment. This reflects a focus on language accuracy and grammar. Furthermore, the walls of the classrooms also display various rules for mathematics, including addition, subtraction, division, multiplication, geometric shapes, and measures of weight and length. This indicates an integrated approach to language and subject learning, where the linguistic landscape is utilized to support learning across different subjects, such as mathematics.

The in-classroom linguistic landscape in Sinimäe School can also serve as an inquiry learning environment, specifically from the perspective of Estonian one-way language immersion. The classroom of the 2nd grade in particular was observed to have educational materials containing text assignments related to natural science, specifically the topic of spring, which was contextually relevant as it was March during the documentation of the photos. These materials

were small posters created by the teacher, displaying various tasks related to spring plants and vocabulary related to the topic (see Photo 12 and Photo 13).

The students were tasked with working in groups and moving around the classroom to solve these assignments presented on the posters/sheets. This activity encourages active engagement with the linguistic landscape, as students are required to read and interpret the tasks in Estonian, the target language of the immersion program. This aligns with the principles of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and language immersion, where students are exposed to authentic language use in meaningful contexts.

After the nature science lesson, the teacher removed these assignments from the walls of the classroom to make room for a collaborative arts and crafts project. The students made a large decoration on the back wall of the classroom by painting the letters of the word "KEVAD" (spring) on paper, and hanging them on the wall (see Photo 14). This activity not only tends to reinforce vocabulary related to the topic of spring, but also promotes a sense of ownership and creativity among the students as they actively participate in creating the classroom linguistic landscape.

### **2.5.3 Teacher's perspectives**

The data from interviews with primary school teachers of Sinimäe School provides insights into how teachers view and utilize the linguistic landscape, particularly the practice of 'Talking Walls' in their classrooms.

The teachers are well aware of the concept of linguistic landscape, but their perspective is mainly focused on the educational aspects of it (Excerpt 1). They see 'Talking Walls' as a common teaching practice that they use frequently during almost all classes, including mathematics, Estonian, natural science, and arts & crafts.

#### **Excerpt 1.**

*Teacher 1: Keelemaastik on see, milline keel meid ümbritseb, mida me räägime, mida näeme kirjapildis.*

*Teacher 2: See kui me tegeleme keelega ja õpime keelt füüsilises ruumis.*

*Teacher 4: Keelemaastik on see mida õpilane kasutab vaadates mis on seinatel.*

Teachers use 'Talking Walls' as a way to promote active inquiry learning, where students can visually engage with the material to be learned. They view it as an important way to facilitate the learning process, particularly for visual learners (Excerpt 2). Teachers also involve students in the process of creating elements of the linguistic landscape, such as decorations for events or posters related to study topics, which promotes student engagement with the learning environment.

### **Excerpt 2.**

*Teacher 4: ... Kui õpilane teeb, siis paned tähele ja jääb meelde. Nendele väga meeldib panna tähele enda tehtud materjale. <...> Visuaalne nägemine toetab 40 protsenti info tajumist.*

*Teacher 1: Rääkivad seinad annavad võimaluse visualiseerida õpitavat teemat.*

*Teacher 2: ... laps näeb ju seda. (shows pictures 'purjekas', 'helikopter'), pilt on siin. Jalgratas on siin. Ta näeb seda ja mõnel lapsel on nägemismälu. Ja siis tal jääb meelde.*

Teachers carefully organize the materials on 'Talking Walls' based on various criteria, such as the current topic of the week and learning objectives, grade and study year, and different study areas in the classroom. They also consider students' special needs, the visibility and self-explanatory nature of the materials, and the variety of possibilities for different pedagogical uses (Excerpt 3).

### **Excerpt 3.**

*Teacher 3: See [keelemaastik ja rääkivad seinad] on hea õppevahend, eriti algklassides. Aga samal ajal see peab olema doseeriv, et poleks infomüra. Ma kasutan neid rääkivaid seinu, mis on seotud konkreetse teemaga või õpieesmärgidega. Kui me õpime kirjatahte ja ongi põhieesmärk õppida kirjatahtega kirjutamist. Siis silma eest on ainult need tahted. Trükitähed võtsin ara, sest enne oli mõlemad. Sõltub ka sellest, kas klassis on HEV lapsed. Sellega on vaja arvestada, kui valid õppematerjali seinale ja jällegi mis eesmärgiga. Siis on need seinamaterjalid peavad olema omapärased, nagu tähed oleks kirjutatud rahulike värvidega*

Teachers believe that a rich and diverse linguistic landscape in and out of the classroom contributes to Estonian language acquisition in early total language immersion, as students are constantly exposed to the language in a visual and meaningful way (Excerpt 4).

#### **Excerpt 4.**

*Teacher 2: Ikka toetab. Võib olla laps loeb mingit silte, näeb poes midagi, bussipeatus igasugused sildid.*

*Teacher 1: Kõige olulisem keelekümbluses on näitlikustamine. Seega võin öelda, et rääkivad seinad on hea võimalus teemade kaupa näitlikustada ja rikastada õpilaste sõnavara, samuti toetab keeleõppimist ümbritsev keskkond. Kui õpilane näeb enda ümber eesti keelseid sõnu koos piltidega, mis aitavad aru saada, millega tegemist.*

Teachers highlight the importance of digital media technology, such as projectors and interactive whiteboards, as part of their teaching practices and the linguistic landscape. They see these technologies as a digital form of linguistic landscape that can enhance student engagement and interest in learning, particularly for children who enjoy interactive media technologies.

#### **Excerpt 5.**

*Teacher 1: Ja, kasutan oma tundides päris tihti multimeedia vahendeid, sest see on jälle see, et õpilane näeb ja kuuleb õpitavat keelt, mis aitab tal seda keelt kiiremini ja tõhusamalt omandada.*

Teachers emphasize the importance of integrating Estonian culture into the linguistic landscape to promote a positive attitude towards Estonia, its language, and sense of unity and patriotism among students. This underscores the holistic approach to language acquisition, where cultural aspects are integrated into the linguistic environment to create a meaningful and authentic language learning experience (Excerpt 6).

#### **Excerpt 6.**

*Teacher 2: ... Tutvumine toimub, kus me elame mis on meie sümbolid. Toetab hoiakute ehitamist. Lapsed peavad teadma kus nad elevad, selle maa ajaloost, kus nad koolis käivad.*

*Teacher 3: ... meie klassis toimub eesti kultuuriga tutvumine, samuti rahvariided, tähtpäevaga tutvumine, Eesti lipp. Tutvumine ja suhtumine muutub, ja seejärel õpilased hindavad kus nad elavad, eesti keelt.*

Based on the teachers' answers from the interviews, it can be observed that they are effectively using the in-classroom linguistic landscape to support language immersion in Estonian language teaching. The teachers' responses indicate that they are utilizing various strategies and materials on the walls to facilitate different aspects of language learning, including high-frequency word vocabulary, connection between words, general reading skills, spelling and awareness of spelling

patterns, letter and word recognition, decoding letter and sound connections, pronunciation, and handwriting.

Teacher 4 mentions using phonetic development through holding words with long sounds for three seconds, drawing students' attention to the corresponding words and pictures on the walls. For example, the signage "KOOL" (school). This suggests a focus on developing pronunciation skills and sound-letter recognition.

Teacher 3 talks about using rules on the wall related to commas and sentence structure to guide students in their writing. This indicates a focus on functional reading skills and awareness of punctuation rules in Estonian language.

Teacher 2 mentions putting rules related to plurals and compound words on the wall. As for example, the teacher used a picture of a bear and two-piece cardboard poster ("MESI" and "KÄPP") for teaching the compound word "MESIKÄPP" (honey paw), associating it meaningful and contextual image. Using stories and small verses is also in the teacher's practice to develop memory and pronunciation. This indicates a focus on vocabulary development, memory recall, and pronunciation skills.

Teacher 1 emphasizes the importance of "acting out" and mentions that talking walls are a way to exemplify and enrich vocabulary by topic, and support language learning through the visual cues of words and pictures on the walls. This suggests that the teacher is using the in-classroom linguistic landscape to create an immersive environment that aids in vocabulary development and comprehension.

#### **2.5.4 Analysis of lesson observation**

An essential aspect of the analysis pertains to the data obtained from the observation of a single lesson, as documented in the observation protocol. The observed lesson, which took place on 04.04.2023 at 9:25, was conducted in the 3KK grade of the language immersion department, with the subject being Estonian as a second language. The lesson topic was "Kaashäälikute tüübid (sulghäälikud ja suluta) ja nende pikkuse tüübid (lühike, pikk, üle pikk)", which translates to "Types of consonants (explosive and non-explosive) and their length types (short, long, overlong)" in English. The lesson goals were twofold: to revise non-explosive consonants and their lengths (suluta kaashäälikud) and to introduce a new topic of explosives (sulghäälikud) and

their lengths. Based on the observation protocol, the linguistic landscape in the observed classroom appears to be primarily focused on supporting language learning and revision. The visual educational material, also known as "Talking Walls," is arranged in a way that facilitates repetition and mastery of the material. The material to be repeated is placed on the back wall, while the current material being learned is displayed in the front. This arrangement reflects the pedagogical approach of reinforcing previously learned content and gradually introducing new material for students to acquire.

The linguistic elements in the classroom are primarily related to the subject areas of Estonian and mathematics, as mentioned in the protocol. There are no signs, information, pictures, posters or objects related to Estonian culture, except for decorations during Independence Day. This may indicate that the focus of the classroom linguistic landscape is more on supporting language acquisition rather than cultural elements.

Additionally, there are no student works observed in the classroom that contain linguistic elements or culturally symbolic meaning, except for works related to different continents displayed on the wall in the hall outside the classroom. These works are written in Estonian, which aligns with the language immersion approach of creating an immersive environment where the target language is used for various purposes.

The analysis of the documented data revealed several instances of pedagogical use of the 'Talking Walls' approach during the observed lesson. Firstly, as part of a warming-up activity, the teacher distributed picture cards depicting various natural landscapes to the students at the beginning of the lesson. The students were then instructed to go to the board with their pictures and describe the natural landscapes in the pictures using compound sentences in Estonian. One student, who had a picture of a forest with a lake where trees were reflected on the surface of the water, encountered difficulty in expressing the verb 'reflect' in Estonian, and asked, "Как сказать 'отражает' по эстонски?" (How do you say 'reflect' in Estonian?). In response, the teacher pointed to a sticker with the signage ('Talking Wall') by the mirror in the classroom, which had the Estonian word for mirror, "PEEGEL", written on it (see Photo 15). She then explained that the word 'отражать' could be derived from the noun 'peegel' (mirror), as evidenced by the signage by the mirror in the classroom: peegel (noun) - peegeldab (verb). This interaction facilitated the student's acquisition of both the target word (an increase in vocabulary) and the morphological features of word formation from noun to verb, through active engagement with the linguistic landscape of the classroom.

Secondly, during the revision of the topic on explosive consonants (sulghäälükud), the teacher engaged the students by asking them to identify these consonants among the alphabetized letters displayed above the board. The letters-sounds were color-coded, with vowels in red, explosive consonants in green, non-explosive consonants in blue, and foreign letters-sounds in black. The teacher guided the class in pronouncing the letters several times, while pointing to the different types of consonants. The students were familiar with this system of color-coded letters and their corresponding sounds, as they were frequently used during Estonian language lessons (see Photo 16).

Finally, the teacher then asked a student to find the rule about explosive consonants from the printed cardboard posters shaped like nuts that were hung on the back wall of the classroom (see Photo 17 and Photo 18). These posters displayed various rules of the Estonian language in a visual format. The students were accustomed to using these "nuts" as a resource for revision and reinforcing their learning. The student successfully located the "nut" with the rule about explosive consonants, read it aloud, and identified the corresponding letters under the rule. The lesson then continued with further instruction on non-explosive consonants and accompanying worksheets.

These moments of pedagogical use of the classroom linguistic landscape align with James J. Asher's theory of Total Physical Response (1997) in second language learning, particularly in a language immersion classroom. In the observed lesson, the teacher used visual cues, color-coded letters, and physical actions such as pointing to engage the students and reinforce their learning of Estonian language rules. This approach is particularly beneficial for kinaesthetic learners who respond well to physical activities and need to move and manipulate objects to learn effectively. The teacher's use of "Talking Walls" allowed students to actively engage with the language, providing a multisensory experience. Visual learners, on the other hand, learn best with visual cues and the teacher's use of color-coded letters and other visual aids provided a clear and structured representation of the language rules that the students could easily understand. The use of TPR theory in conjunction with the "Talking Walls" approach is particularly important during this critical period of Estonian language acquisition for Russian-speaking primary school students. By using motor activities and visual aids, the teacher was able to create an immersive and engaging learning environment that supported the needs of all learners in the classroom.

Furthermore, the instructional practice observed in the lesson aligns with the aspects of effective second language teaching as outlined in the observational tool for Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) classrooms by De Graaf et al. (2007). These aspects include exposure to input, content-oriented processing, form-oriented processing, (pushed) output, and strategic language use. The use of the classroom linguistic landscape, such as the 'Talking Walls' approach, provided exposure to authentic language input, facilitated content-oriented and form-oriented processing through visual cues and color-coded letters, encouraged output through student participation and reading aloud, and promoted strategic language use by providing resources for language reinforcement.

However, in addition to the points mentioned earlier, it is important to note that the “nuts” or printed cardboard posters containing language rules were observed to be located in large numbers in close proximity to each other on the back wall of the classroom. This arrangement may result in visual clutter or information noise, which could potentially impact students' ability to distinguish and perceive individual rules clearly. Based on James J. Asher's theory of Total Physical Response (1997), excessive visual stimuli in the form of numerous 'nuts' in close proximity may potentially overwhelm students' visual processing capacity, leading to reduced attention and comprehension. According to the theory, providing clear and unambiguous visual cues is crucial for facilitating language learning, as it allows students to associate meaning with the corresponding visual representation. In the observed instructional practice, the close proximity of the “nuts” may present a challenge for students to effectively locate and identify the specific rule they need, which could impact their ability to reinforce their learning as intended.

Furthermore, in terms of the observational tool for CLIL classrooms by De Graaf et al. (2007), the arrangement of the “nuts” in close proximity to each other may affect content-oriented processing and form-oriented processing. Content-oriented processing refers to students' ability to engage with the subject matter and extract meaning from it, while form-oriented processing involves focusing on the linguistic form and structure of the language. The close proximity of the “nuts” may increase cognitive load and create information noise, potentially impacting students' ability to effectively process the content and form of the rules.

Considering the potential impact of information noise on students' perception and processing of the rules, it may be beneficial for the instructional practice to consider optimizing the placement or arrangement of the 'nuts' to ensure clear visibility and ease of distinction. This could include

spacing them out, using clear labels or headings, or incorporating visual cues such as color-coding or icons to aid in students' perception and comprehension of the rules.

It is noteworthy that the pedagogical aspects like additional questions, special tone of voice used by the teacher, slow and intelligible pronunciation for students, and repetition of the question several times were employed during the interaction with the classroom linguistic landscape. The duration of the interactions, considering joint attention of the student and teacher towards the signage, lasted approximately from 30 seconds to one minute.

To sum-up, the observed classroom's linguistic landscape is aligned with the lesson goals of revising non-explosive consonants and learning a new topic of explosives in Estonian language. The arrangement of the visual educational material on the "Talking Walls" reflects the pedagogical approach of repetition and gradual introduction of new content. However, the limited presence of cultural elements in the classroom may be an area for further exploration and incorporation to promote cultural awareness among students.

#### **2.5.4 Students' perspective**

Based on the responses of the third-grade students, the analysis was conducted in relation with general research goals in terms of primary school students' perspectives. Overall, the focus-group discussion with 3rd grade students revealed that they are aware of the system of 'Talking Walls' and the linguistic landscape in their classroom, particularly related to learning Estonian as a second language. They are familiar with “the nuts”, posters in the form of nuts with various Estonian grammar rules, and their role in learning new topics and consolidating learned material. They have a good memory of the topic of the observed lesson. The fact that students correctly identified the lesson topic ("sulghäälikud" and "suluta häälikud") after the lesson shows that the use of "Talking Walls" is effective in helping students learn new information and retain it. They also correctly pointed out the color-coding of letters and sounds on the whiteboard (Excerpt 7). However, the students did not remember the 'Talking Walls' in mathematics, indicating that they may not be actively encouraged to interact with these materials.

#### **Excerpt 7.**

*Interviewer: Какие были правила?*

*Student 1: Sulghäälikud.*

*Student 2: P, K вот это вот.*

*Student 1: Sulghäälitud, suluta*

In terms of the linguistic landscape of the school, the students saw more Estonian on the walls, followed by English and then Russian. Russian dominated in the level of communication and auditory, which is natural given the majority of students have Russian as their native language (Excerpt 8).

### **Excerpt 8.**

*Student 1: Ну английские и русские бывают.*

*Student 1: Русский это вообще уж.*

*Interviewer: Мало?*

*Student 1: Да, очень.*

*Interviewer: А английский?*

*Student 1: Английский побольше чем русский.*

*Interviewer: Побольше, но большинство какой язык?*

*Student 1: Эстонский.*

*Interviewer: Эстонский, а слышите?*

*Student 2: Русский.*

*Student 1: Русский.*

The students saw various pictures and posters related to different subjects inside the classrooms, including Estonian, Russian, English, natural science, and music. Outside the classrooms, they saw posters with activities, school schedules, and decorations.

The students expressed a liking for digital displays to interact during the lesson, particularly in natural science and Estonian. This highlights a potential area for the development of the 'Talking Walls' methodology in the digital age, especially in language immersion classrooms.

From the focus-group discussion with 3rd grade students, it is clear that they are aware of the "Talking Walls" pedagogical practice in their classroom, and that it plays an important role in their learning experience, especially in learning the Estonian language in a language immersion school setting. The students were able to recall the use of "nuts" and the color-coding of letters and sounds, indicating that they pay attention to the visual learning materials in their classroom. However, the students did not remember the use of "Talking Walls" in mathematics, suggesting

that there is room for further development and research in this area. Overall, the "Talking Walls" methodology has great pedagogical potential and should be further developed and researched to enhance the learning experience of language immersion school students.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the linguistic landscape analysis of Sinimäe School shows that it is predominantly monolingual in Estonian (N=227, 90%), having elements in Russian with only 5 (2%) instances, 5 (2%) instances of bilingual Estonian-Russian, and 9 (4%) instances of monolingual other languages, precisely one in German and the rest English. Schoolscape is also diverse in its multifunctional and multimodal elements. In terms of functions, most of the elements are related to educational purposes (N=121, 49%), namely with categories 'Talking Walls' (N=89, 36%) and 'Active learning' (N=32, 13%). It corresponds to such a type of public institution as a school. When looking at origin of the elements of the schoolscape, a major proportion (N=188, 76%) of them are bottom-up produced and put on the walls by teachers or students, while top-down elements are much less (N=59, 24%) being produced by municipality, school administration or government agencies.

The dominant presence of cultural artefacts connected to Estonian traditions and national symbols on the linguistic landscape reflects a strong emphasis on Estonian cultural awareness and language acquisition, which can significantly contribute to promoting language learning and cultural understanding in language immersion settings. The multimodality of the linguistic landscape can enhance learners' understanding of the signs and symbols they encounter, contributing to the development of pragmatic language competences. Additionally, the rich and diverse language environment, with a focus on language structure, vocabulary, terminology, academic language, and orthography, can support students' basic and academic language acquisition and proficiency for academic success in language immersion settings.

Regarding policy and power relationships issue, the linguistic landscape of Sinimäe School reflects Estonia's state language policy that prioritizes the Estonian language and culture, which is the national language of Estonia. The school's instructional policy is designed to promote and enhance the acquisition of the Estonian language skills among its students. Moreover, the language structure of the school's environment can contribute significantly to the basic and academic language acquisition of the students. While the linguistic landscape does not reflect the actual language use at the regional level, it aligns with the language normalization and hierarchy in Estonia. The schoolscape of Sinimäe School is an attempt to promote and maintain the Estonian language and culture in a region with a significant Russian-speaking population. Therefore, the linguistic landscape in Sinimäe School reflects Estonia's state and school-level language policies aimed at promoting and preserving the Estonian language and culture.

As of pedagogical use of the schoolscape, the linguistic landscape of Sinimäe School serves as a pedagogical tool for promoting Estonian language acquisition and cultural awareness in an immersive setting. Both the out-of-classroom and in-classroom linguistic landscape, including "Talking Walls," meet the pedagogical goals of the Estonian language immersion program by providing authentic language use opportunities, contextually relevant tasks, and collaborative activities that promote active engagement with the target language. Teachers actively and versatilely use the linguistic landscape as a pedagogical tool for subject teaching and Estonian language teaching within the framework of CLIL and one-way Estonian language immersion in particular. By integrating visual aids, active learning, student involvement, and learning strategies for learning about Estonian culture, the rich linguistic landscape tends to support language acquisition, fosters engagement with the environment, and promotes cultural appreciation among students in a language immersion setting. The use of the in-classroom linguistic landscape as an inquiry learning and group work environment facilitates language acquisition and cultural awareness by exposing students to Estonian language and culture in meaningful and interactive ways within the classroom setting.

Interviews with the primary school teachers at Sinimäe School revealed, that they recognize the value of the linguistic landscape as a pedagogical tool for language acquisition in the Estonian language immersion program. The teachers use the schoolscape as a visual and active learning tool, considering the week's topic, learning objectives, academic year, different subjects, special needs of students, and visibility and self-understanding of the materials. The teachers view the school as having a rich and diverse linguistic landscape that supports the acquisition of the Estonian language in language immersion settings. They emphasize that the school environment full of cultural symbols also supports cultural awareness in language immersion and positively contribute to students' attitude to Estonian language and Estonia in general. Moreover, our observations of the teachers' use of the schoolscape in the classroom revealed a diverse and multifunctional approach. Teachers use the schoolscape to facilitate various aspects of language learning, including vocabulary development, pronunciation, spelling, reading skills, and memory recall. They use rules, stories, verses, and visual cues on the walls to support students' language acquisition in Estonian.

While the analysis of the focus-group discussion with the primary school students leads to the conclusion, that the primary school students at Sinimäe School have a positive perception of the linguistic landscape and "Talking Walls" methodology used in their classrooms. The students are aware of the pedagogical approach and view it as a helpful tool in their language learning, but only in case it is used regularly and systematically during the lessons. They appreciate the visual

and interactive elements of the linguistic landscape, such as the color-coding of letters and sounds, and enjoy the digital language landscape, which could be further developed in the context of the 21st century digital transformation of education.

In general, the author has explored the concept of schoolscape in a concrete Estonian language immersion school from multiple perspectives, in order to provide a holistic view on what it means, how it is reflected, and how it is used in instructional practices. By analyzing the perceptions of different members of the school community, including teachers and students, the author has gained a comprehensive understanding of the various aspects that make up the language environment of the school in a concrete political, educational and sociolinguistic circumstances.

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of the study, including the fact that it was conducted in only one school, and the researcher's potential bias as a worker of the school. Additionally, the study relied on only one lesson observation and one discussion with students, which may not capture the full extent of the impact of schoolscape and 'Talking Walls' in different contexts.

The present work contributes to raising the question about the importance of integrating research-based pedagogical approaches, such as 'Talking Walls', into language immersion education to create meaningful and engaging learning experiences for students. It provides a foundation for further research and encourages teachers to consider the physical environment of the school as an essential element in language learning pedagogy. The work also revealed the need for systematic use of the "Talking Walls" methodology and further exploration of its potential use. Therefore, scholars should continue to develop and research the effectiveness of the "Talking Walls" methodology to ensure it continues to support the learning experience of students in Estonian language immersion program.

Future research in the area of schoolscape and language immersion could explore diverse school environments, involve multiple observations and discussions with students, and incorporate other qualitative and quantitative research methods to further validate the findings. Future research in the field of linguistic landscape studies in educational settings may focus on examining relationships between different languages in multilingual schools. Specifically, there is a need to explore how power relations and various functions are constructed among different languages presented on the schoolscape from perspectives of members of school community, including administration, teachers, and students. Such investigations may help to better understand the complex nature of language use and its role in shaping social hierarchies within educational

environments. Additionally, research may also investigate the impact of language policies and practices on the linguistic landscape of schools and their effects on students' linguistic and cultural identities. Long-term studies could also investigate the sustained impact of schoolscape and 'Talking Walls' on students' language development and academic achievement over time. This can help to strengthen the evidence base for the use of these pedagogical approaches in Estonian language immersion schools and contribute to the development of evidence-based pedagogical approaches in language education in general. As Estonia continues to transition to Estonian-language education, there are several future developments that could be considered based on the findings of this research, as there is a need for intensive Estonian language acquisition to successfully complete the reform.

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## SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Käesoleva lõputöö “Keelemaastik kui kooli keelemaastik ja pedagoogiline vahend keelekümbelse raames: juhtumiuuring keelekümbelse koolis” raames analüüsitakse keelemaastikku erinevatest nurkadest ühe Ida-Virumaa keelekümbelse kooli näitel, Sinimäe põhikoolis. Nimelt, milline on kooli keelemaastik, arvestades esindatud keeli, funktsiooni ja päritolu, kuidas kajastuvad sotsiolingvistiline kontekst, haridus- ja keelepoliitika kooli keelemaastikul, kuidas vastavad koolimaastiku elemendid kooli keelekümbelseprogrammi pedagoogilistele eesmärkidele, kuidas edastavad keelemärgid ja visuaalne materjal keelte kultuurinorme, kuidas hindavad algkooli õpetajad ja õpilased kooli keelemaastikku ja kuidas kasutatakse keelemaastikku (sh “Rääkivad seinad”) eesti keele keelekümbelseõpetuses algkooli tasemel.

Eestis on keelemaastiku hariduslik kontekst seni vähe uuritud (Brown, 2005; Soler, 2018). Eriti pedagoogilisest perspektiivist vaadates on keelemaastiku kasutamise kohta koolides tehtud vähe uurimusi. Siiani on käsiraamatuna kasutusel vaid mõned keelekümbelseõpetajate juhendid "Rääkivate seinte" kohta (Rannut, 2003, 2005; Muldma jt, 2010). Seetõttu on oluline uurida ja arendada teadus- ja tõenduspõhist pedagoogilist praktikat koolide keelemaastiku kasutamisel keelekümbelse raames.

Uurimistöökäigus koguti fotomaterjali, kokku 260 pilti, kooli keelemaastiku kohta. Lisaks teostati 4 intervjuud algklasside õpetajatega, et saada täiendavat teavet keelemaastiku funktsioonide ja päritolu kohta. Järgnevalt teostati tunnivaatlus kolmandas klassis, et uurida, kuidas keelemaastik kasutuses on. Lõpuks toimus fokus-grupi arutelu kahe kolmanda klassi õpilasega, et koguda nende arvamusi keelemaastiku kohta.

Uurimistöökäitused näitavad, et kooli keelemaastik on ükskeelne, kuid samas mitmekesine ning vastab keelekümbelseprogrammi pedagoogilistele eesmärkidele. Riigi- ja koolitasandi keelepoliitika toetab eesti keele ja kultuuri edendamist, kuid ei kajasta piirkondlikku keelekasutust, vaid pigem keelte hierarhiat. Õpetajad kasutavad keelemaastikku aktiivselt ja mitmekülgsest pedagoogilisest vahendina ning õpilased tunnevad selle kasutamist hästi tajutud pedagoogilisest lähenemisena, eriti kui seda kasutatakse regulaarselt.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1. Interview questions with teachers

1. Kuidas sa arvad, mis on keelemaastik?
2. Kas sa paned ise tähelepanu keelemaatikule (Nii sees kui väljas)?
3. Kuidas sa arvad, kui rikas ja mitmekesine on keelemaastik Sinimäe Põhikoolis? Millised keeled on kooli keelemaastikul esindatud?
4. Mida sa tead rääkiva seinade kohta õpetamise vahendina?
5. Kas sina kasutad oma klassi keelemaatikku (ehk Rääkivad seinad) tunniajal? Kas seletad selle abil klassi käitumisreegleid (suhtluse hea tavad, distsipliin, tundide plaan ja tegevused päevaks/nädalaks) või kasutad õppematerjalina?
6. Kui jah, siis kuidas? Millistel ainetel kasutad seda?
7. Kas sina lood neid ise või võtad interneti ressurssidest? Kui jah, kas on nende materjalide valiku põhimõte? Millega sa arvestad valikul?
8. Kas õpilased kaasatud nende seinade õppematerjalide loomisel? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see meeldib ja on oluline nendele?
9. Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) klassi keelemaastiku (ehk rääkivate seinade) kasutamine ja olemine aineteadmiste tajumist?
10. Keelekümbel ja keelemaastik: Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) keelemaastiku kasutamine eesti keele omandamist keelekümbeluse klassis? Kui jah, siis mis eesti keele aspekte/oskusi arendatakse kasutades tunniajal klassi keelemaatikku (grammatika reegleid, sõnavara, kirjaoskusi (lugemine, hääldamine, kirjutamine, õigekiri jne))?
11. Kuidas sa arvad, kas keelemaastik võib väljaspool klassiruumi (kooli sees) ja kooli (õues, tänaval) toetada eesti keele omandamist?
12. Kas sinu klassiruumi seinamaterjali paigalduses on põhimõte (ealised aspektid, ainete kaupa, erinevad alad klassiruumis jne)? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub õppeaasta jooksul? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub klassi uuele õppeaastale üleminekul? Kui jah, siis mismoodi?
13. Kultuurilised ja keelekümbel: Kuidas saavad rahvuskultuurilised esemed (käsitöö eesti lipu värvides, dekoratsioon adventiks, vabariigi aastapäevaks jne) toetada eesti keele omandamisele? Kas selle kaudu toimub koolis/klassis eesti kultuuridega tutvumine?
14. Aktiiv- ja interaktiivõppe ja multimeedia: Kui sageli kasutad oma õpetamispraktikas multimeedia vahendeid (nt näitab videot tahvel, õpilased kasutavad interaktiiv tahvlit mingi ülesanne lahendamiseks)? Mis keeles või keeltes on heli ja tekst multimeedia pildis? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see on tõhus vahend eesti keele õpetamisel?

## **Appendix 2. Focus-group discussion questions with students**

### **ЧАСТЬ ВОПРОСОВ СРАЗУ ПОСЛЕ УРОКА:**

1. Только что у вас был урок X с вашим классным руководителем. Заметили ли вы, что она использовала картинки, плакаты и надписи со стен в вашем кабинете? Если да, то про что были те постеры и картинки, на которые обращала ваше внимание ваша учительница? Связано ил это было с темой урока?
2. Вам помогают эти постеры и картинки запоминать информацию по уроку?
3. Обращали ли вы когда-нибудь внимание на эти постеры и картинки до того, как ваш учитель указал на них?
4. На каких языках картинки и постеры в вашем кабинете?
5. Тебе понятно, а чем эти картинки и постеры, так как они же ведь почти все на эстонском?
6. Тебе помогают эти постеры и картинки для твоего эстонского? Обращаешь ли ты внимание на эти постеры если ты что-то не знаешь как сказать на эстонском?
7. Эти картинки и плакаты на разные темы и по разным предметам. По каким предметам в вашем классе эти плакаты и картинки?

### **ЧАСТЬ ВОПРОСОВ ПРО ШКОЛЬНЫЙ ЯЗЫКОВОЙ ЛАНДШАФТ И ЕГО ВОСПРИТИЕ УЧЕНИКАМИ**

8. Давайте поговорим о языке в вашей школе, который вы можете видеть на стенах (вывески, плакаты, украшения). Скажите, где в школе вы видели это? На каких этажах, коридорах?
9. Что ты видел? Украшения, расписание, название классных комнат?
10. На каком языке всё это написано?
11. Какой язык вы чаще всего видите в школе?
12. Где вы видели русский (если вообще он есть в школе) или английский в школе?

### **ЧАСТЬ ВОПРОСОВ ПРО МУЛЬТИМЕДИЯ И ЯЗЫК(АХ) НА ЭКРАНАХ И ДИСПЛЕЯХ**

13. Вернемся в ваш класс. Как часто ваш учитель использует интерактивную доску или проектор на уроках?
14. Какие языки вы видели на этой доске и экране?
15. Вы решаете задания на этой доске, пишете на ней или учитель показывает видео во время уроков? Если да, то нравится ли вам это?

### Appendix 3. Teachers' interview transcriptions

#### Teacher 1

**1. Kuidas sa arvad, mis on keelemaastik?**

Keelemaastik on see, milline keel meid ümbritseb, mida me räägime, mida näeme kirja pildis.

**2. Kas sa paned ise tähelepanu keelemaastikule (Nii sees kui väljas)?**

Jah, eriti panen tähele vigaseid reklaame ja kuulutusi.

**3. Kuidas sa arvad, kui rikas ja mitmekesine on keelemaastik Sinimäe Põhikoolis? Millised keeled on kooli keelemaastikul esindatud?**

Põhiliselt ikka eesti keel, kuid suhtlustasandil ka vene keel.

**4. Mida sa tead rääkiva seinade kohta õpetamise vahendina?**

Rääkivad seinad annavad võimaluse visualiseerida õpitavat teemat.

**5. Kas sina kasutad oma klassi keelemaastikku (ehk Rääkivad seinad) tunniajal? Kas seletad selle abil klassi käitumisreegleid (suhtluse hea tavad, distsipliin, tundide plaan ja tegevused päevaks/nädalaks) või kasutad õppematerjalina?**

Minu klassis on rääkivad seinad, sõnasedelid ja pildid vastavalt teemale.

**6. Kui jah, siis kuidas? Millistel ainetel kasutad seda?**

Esindatud on kõik ained eesti keel, matemaatika, loodusõpetus ja klassireeglid. Õpitava teema kohta teen teemaseina, kus vajadusel saab õpilane nõ spikerdada, kui ta oskab neid kasutada.

**7. Kas sina lood neid ise või võtad interneti ressurssidest? Kui jah, kas on nende materjalide valiku põhimõte? Millega sa arvestad valikul?**

Olen loonud ise, kuid see on väga ajamahukas, mistõttu olen otsinud internetist juba valmis materjali. Materjali valikul arevstan õpilaste tedarimise ja õpitava teemaga.

**8. Kas õpilased kaasatud nende seina õppematerjalide loomisel? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see meeldib ja on oluline nendele?**

Kahjuks ei ole kaasanud õpilasi õppematerjali loomisel, kuid tean, et see on oluline nii saavad õpilased ise valida ja olla protsessis sees, mis aitab neil saada aru, milleks need materjalid seintel on.

**9. Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) klassi keelemaastiku (ehk rääkivate seinade) kasutamine ja olemine aineteadmiste tajumist?**

Kuna kõik ei saa meelde jääda ning vajab meelde tuletamist siis on rääkivad seinad hea võimalus selleks.

**10. Keelekümblus ja keelemaastik: Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) keelemaastiku kasutamine eesti keele omandamist keelekümbluse klassis? Kui jah, siis mis eesti keele aspekte/oskusi arendatakse kasutades tunniajal klassi keelemaastikku (grammatika reegleid, sõnavara, kirjaoskusi (lugemine, hääldamine, kirjutamine, õigekiri jne))?**

Kõige olulisem keelekümbluses on näitlikustamine. Seega võin öelda, et rääkivad seinad on hea võimalus teemade kaupa näitlikustada ja rikastada õpilaste sõnavara, samuti toetab keeleõppimist ümbritsev keskkond. Kui õpilane näeb enda ümber eesti keelseid sõnu koos piltidega, mis aitavad aru saada, millega tegemist. Samuti õigekirja reeglid, õpilane saab vajadusel kontrollida, kas kirjutab õigesti.

**11. Kuidas sa arvad, kas keelemaastik võib väljaspool klassiruumi (kooli sees) ja kooli (õues, tänaval) toetada eesti keele omandamist?**

Kindlasti, õpime ju sealt, kus me, midagi näeme, kuuleme, loeme.

**12. Kas sinu klassiruumi seinamaterjali paigalduses on põhimõtte (ealised aspektid, ainete kaupa, erinevad alad klassiruumis jne)? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub õppeaasta jooksul? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub klassi uuele õppeaastale üleminekul? Kui jah, siis mismoodi?**

Olen üritanud luua süsteemi ainete kaupa, ühes seinas eesti keel, siis teises matemaatika ja kolmandas loodusõpetus. Võib öelda küll, et klassis olevad rääkivad seinad on ainete kaupa ära jaotatud. Ja igal aastal alustan uuesti, sest nii tekib õpilastel seos.

**13. Kultuurilised esemed ja keelekümblus: Kuidas saavad rahvuskultuurilised esemed (käsitöö eesti lipu värvides, dekoratsioon adventiks, vabariigi aastapäevaks jne) toetada eesti keele omandamisele? Kas selle kaudu toimub koolis/klassis eesti kultuuridega tutvumine?**

Eesti kultuuri ja üleüldse ka teiste kultuuride tutvustamine toimub samuti koos rääkivate seinetega. Käsitledes erinevaid kultuure näitlikustamiseks kasutan pilte ( riik, pealinn, kaart, lipp, rahvus, rahvustoit, rahvussümbolid jne).

**14. Aktiiv- ja interaktiivõppe ja multimeedia: Kui sageli kasutad oma õpetamispraktikas multimeedia vahendeid (nt näitab videot tahvel, õpilased kasutavad interaktiiv tahvlit mingi ülesanne lahendamiseks)? Mis keeles või keeltes on heli ja tekst multimeedia pildis? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see on tõhus vahend eesti keele õpetamisel?**

Ja, kasutan oma tundides päris tihti multimeedia vahendeid, sest see on jälle see, et õpilane näeb ja kuuleb õpitavat keelt, mis aitab tal seda keelt kiiremini ja tõhusamalt omandada.  
Teemakohased videod, multikad, interaktiivsed mängud ja töölehed.

## Teacher 2

### 1. Kuidas sa arvad, mis on keelemaastik?

See kui me tegeleme keelega ja õpime keelt füüsilises ruumis.

### 2. Kas sa paned ise tähelepanu keelemaatikule (Nii sees kui väljas)?

Ei pööra tähelepanu. Aga Ida-Virumaal ma panen, sest olen leidnud palju vigu. Saaremaal ei olnud.

### 3. Kuidas sa arvad, kui rikas ja mitmekesine on keelemaastik Sinimäe Põhikoolis? Millised keeled on kooli keelemaastikul esindatud?

Inglise keel, vene keel ja eesti keel. Vene keel on ülekaalus, eesti keelt on vähem kuulda. Kuid on näha vist ainult eestikeelseid silte.

### 4. Mida sa tead rääkivate seinte kohta õpetamise vahendina?

Olen õpetanud keelekümbluse klassides, ja olen rääkivate seintega kursis. Selles mõttes, selline metoodika puhul on rääkivad seinad olulised. Selle pärast et lapsed saavad sealt teadmisi: numbrid, sõnad, värvid jne.

### 5. Kas sina kasutad oma klassi keelemaatikku (ehk Rääkivad seinad) tunniajal? Kas seletad selle abil klassi käitumisreegleid (suhtluse hea tavad, distsipliin, tundide plaan ja tegevused päevaks/nädalaks) või kasutad õppematerjalina?

Olen kasutanud. Mul ei ole palju ruumi praegu. Näiteks täna oli meil paarisarvud ja paaritu arvud, kohe sain kasutada seinal olevat materjali. Või tähestik või häälikutega. Kuude nimetused, nädala päevad, arvud, eesti kaart mida iganes. Rahva riided olid kasutusel (*näitab pilte*)

### 6. Kui jah, siis kuidas? Millistel ainetel kasutad seda?

Kõikides ainetes, aga sellel aastal mul on ainult eesti keel ja matemaatika. Mul on olnud kunst, mul on olnud loodusõpetus, inimeseõpetus. Rääkivad seinad olid kindlasti kasuks ka nendes ainetes.

### 7. Kas sina lood neid ise või võtad interneti ressurssidest? Kui jah, kas on nende materjalide valiku põhimõte? Millega sa arvestad valikul?

Nii ja nah. Loon ise ja võtan ka internetist, ostan ka. Paarisarvud on kirjutatud käsikirjas, näiteks sõnade need mis asjad sildid, sõnade sildid (liiklusvahendite nimetused; motoratas, jalgratas jne), loomade nimetus. Metssiga, jänes, rebane jne.

**8. Kas õpilased kaasatud nende seina õppematerjalide loomisel? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see meeldib ja on oluline nendele?**

Üldiselt vähe. Vähe praktiseeritud.

**9. Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) klassi keelemaastiku (ehk rääkivate seinade) kasutamine ja olemine aineteadmiste tajumist?**

Ikka toetab, laps näeb ju seda. (näitab silte 'Purjekas', 'helikopter'), pilt on siin. Jalgratas on siin. Ta näeb seda ja mõnel lapsel on nägemismälu. Ja siis tal jääb meelde.

**10. Keelekümblus ja keelemaastik: Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) keelemaastiku kasutamine eesti keele omandamist keelekümbluse klassis? Kui jah, siis mis eesti keele aspekte/oskusi arendatakse kasutades tunniajal klassi keelemaastikku (grammatika reegleid, sõnavara, kirjaoskusi (lugemine, hääldamine, kirjutamine, õigekiri jne))?**

Ma panen reeglid seina peale. Teeme mingid harjutus, seal on näiteks komade kasutamine, õpime sõnad kus on komad, mille ette tuleb koma. Koma pannakse, noh, kuhu koma pannakse. Näiteks mitmus, kohe reegel. Paneme üles reegli. Kui ära ununeb, saab vaadata: mitmesuse tunnus eesti keeles. Liitsõna on 'Mesikäpp'. Loeme mingit lugu kolm karu. Räägime karudest ja oleks tore, kui oleks mingi pilt 'Mesikäpp'. Hääldamise peale mälu arendamiseks. Õpime väiksed salmikesed mis on väga toredad. Siin on kõik kuidas kirjutada (näitab ühele materjalile seinal). Mis järjekorras ma kirjutun pähe jne.

**11. Kuidas sa arvad, kas keelemaastik võib väljaspool klassiruumi (kooli sees) ja kooli (õues, tänaval) toetada eesti keele omandamist?**

Ikka toetab. Võib olla laps loeb mingit silte, näeb poes midagi, bussipeatus igasugused sildid. Võib olla sööklas loeb läbi midagi.

**12. Kas sinu klassiruumi seinamaterjali paigalduses on põhimõtte (ealised aspektid, ainete kaupa, erinevad alad klassiruumis jne)? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub õppeaasta jooksul? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub klassi uuele õppeaastale üleminekul? Kui jah, siis mismoodi?**

Kõik kahjuks ei mahu neid siia, aga tahaks küll kuidagi korraldada. On olemas väike matemaatika ala, üles on eesti keel ja tähestik, siin on loodusnurk. Aga tegelikult kõik ainetunnid on ka keeletunnid keelekümblus klassis, nii et kõik räägib eesti keelest eesti keeles.

**13. Kultuurilised ja keelekümblus: Kuidas saavad rahvuskultuurilised esemed (käsitöö eesti lipu värvides, dekoratsioon adventiks, vabariigi aastapäevaks jne) toetada eesti keele omandamisele? Kas selle kaudu toimub koolis/klassis eesti kultuuridega tutvumine?**

Tutvumine toimub, kus me elame mis on meie sümbolid. Toetab hoiakute ehitamist. Lapsed peavad teadma kus nad elevad, selle maa ajaloost, kus nad koolis käivad. Ma pean sisendama positiivsus, head suhtumist eesti kultuurisse ja Eesti maasse. Ma pean eeskujuks positiivne. Positiivsus eelkõige.

**14. Aktiiv- ja interaktiivõppe ja multimeedia: Kui sageli kasutad oma õpetamispraktikas multimeedia vahendeid (nt näitab videot tahvel, õpilased kasutavad interaktiiv tahvlit mingi ülesanne lahendamiseks)? Mis keeles või keeltes on heli ja tekst multimeedia pildis? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see on tõhus vahend eesti keele õpetamisel?**

Iga päev. Eesti keeles. On küll tõhus, sest huvi multimeedia vastu on väga suur. Nad ise kirjutavad sõnu ja laused tahvlil, teevad matemaatika ülesandeid.

### **Teacher 3**

#### **1. Kuidas sa arvad, mis on keelemaastik?**

Keelmaastik on keskkond mis sinu ümber, mõeldes keeleline keskkond, mida sa näed ja mida sa kuulad.

#### **2. Kas sa paned ise tähelepanu keelemaastikule (Nii sees kui väljas)?**

Ikkagi panen tähele. Meie ümber inglisekeelne keelemaastik, mitte ainult eesti keelne, lisaks ka vene keelne. Hiljuti lugesin ühte artikli, kus räägiti eesti keele tähtsusest, et äristruktuurides on tähtsam tähelepanu pöörata turistidele et nad märkaksid silte, seega on esikohal inglise keelne nime, ja ainult siis eesti keelne. See on vist ebaseaduslik. Et kaubandus ja kogu turundussüsteem tahab pigem rohkem kuidagi neid turiste endale saada, aga ongi vaja mõelda sellele et saaks säilitada keelt.

#### **3. Kuidas sa arvad, kui rikas ja mitmekesine on keelemaastik Sinimäe Põhikoolis? Millised keeled on kooli keelemaastikul esindatud?**

See on nagu võib olla rohkem rikastatud meie koolis, mitte ainult klassides, kuid ka väljaspool klassidest. Näiteks ka meie aatriumis, kus on söökla, et lapsed näeks rohkem eesti sõnu, mida nad näevad ja jätavad meelde. Praegu on eesti keel kõige rohkem esindatud. Inglise keele klassis on vist inglise keel, kuid pole veel seal käinud. Ainealane keel on ka esindatud kuskil näiteks keemia klassis või füüsika klassis vanemate õpilastele.

#### **4. Mida sa tead rääkiva seinade kohta õpetamise vahendina?**

See on hea õppevahend, eriti algklassides. Aga samal ajal see peab olema doseeriv, et poleks infomüra. Ma kasutan neid rääkivaid seinu, mis on seotud konkreetse teemaga või õpieesmärkidega. Kui me õpime kirjatahte ja ongi põhieesmärk õppida kirjatahtega kirjutamist. Siis silma eest on ainult need tahted. Trükitähed võtsin ara, sest enne oli mõlemad. Sõltub ka sellest, kas klassis on HEV lapsed. Sellega on vaja arvestada, kui valid õppematerjali seinale ja jällegi mis eesmärgiga. Siis on need seinamaterjalid peavad olema omapärased, nagu tähed oleks kirjutatud rahulike värvidega

#### **5. Kas sina kasutad oma klassi keelemaastikku (ehk Rääkivad seinad) tunniajal? Kas seletad selle abil klassi käitumisreegleid (suhtluse hea tavad, distsipliin, tundide plaan ja tegevused päevaks/nädalaks) või kasutad õppematerjalina?**

Nagu ma juba ütlesin, ma kasutan ainult neid, mis on teemaga seotud. Näiteks kui me õppimise meeled, siis ma paningi sildid, kus on kõik neid ilusti kenasti illustreeritud märksõnadega. Just täna oli meil 'Maitsmine' ja panin keele sildi. Aga kui liiga palju silte seinal, siis ma võtsin

eelmistele teemadega seotud materjali. Õppemänguna ka saab kasutada, et kinnistada sõnavara. Lisaks, meil on küll käitumisreeglid, mis on tahvli peal. Võib olla need pole hästi nähtavad lastele, aga ma loen neid mõnikord kõva häälega ja lapsed kordavad õpetaja järgi neid reegleid. Ja siis on ka VEPA reeglid. VEPA visioon, VEPA märgid. Vaadake, kuidas on, mis tähendab mingi VEPA elementi, žestid. Aga kui nad ei jälgi seda, siis pole vajadust seinamaterjalist. Jätsin ainult seda, mida nad jälgivad ja oskavad.

### **6. Kui jah, siis kuidas? Millistel ainetel kasutate seda?**

Mul oli matemaatikas numbrid. Praegu ma tunned, et nad oskavad hästi kirjutada neid ja need sildid numbritega pole enam abiks nendele. Jätsin ainult 'Suurem ja väiksem' ja võrdsuse märgid, ja siis sõnaline sild 'võrdus' ja 'võrratus'. 'Paarisarvud' ja 'paaritud'. Lisasin veel ka 'liidetav + liidetav võrdub summa', sest kasutame igas tunnis. 'Vahendatav – vahendaja võrdub vahe'. Loodusõpetusega seotud oli meeled, oli üleval. Kunstiga ma tavaliselt ma panen tahvlile mida me meisterdame, mingi kuvand. Eesti keel on meil liitsõnad, näiteks pooleks lõigatud sild, kus nad panid liitsõna kokku. Näiteks, kooli + maja. Tegelikult, me õpimegi eesti keelt igas ainetunnis, nii et meil on kõik sildikesed eesti keeles eesti keelest, isegi kui see on temaatiliselt seotud loodusõpetusega. nagu aastaajad, kuupäevad. Ka 'täna on 04.04', et neljas kuu on aprill ja kuidas seda kirjutatakse.. Kunstitööd paneme lihtsalt seinale, nendele see väga meeldib. Lastele on tähtis, et nende tööd on seinte peal, eriti kui see töö õnnestus, siis tunnevad uhkust.

### **7. Kas sina lood neid ise või võtad interneti ressurssidest? Kui jah, kas on nende materjalide valiku põhimõte? Millega sa arvestad valikul?**

Kõige rohkem ise teen. Mõnikord prindin mingi fail internetist ja kiletan. Nädalapäevad ma tegin ise. Valin materjale arvestades õpilaste tasemega. Mis on seotud kas tunni või nädala teemaga või õpieesmärgidega, mida me arendame ja õpime konkreetse ajavahemiku jooksul. Sõltub sellest kui kiiresti nad õppivad midagi. Kui teema või oskus on läbi, siis vahetan ja läheme edasi teisele teemale.

### **8. Kas õpilased kaasatud nende seina õppematerjalide loomisel? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see meeldib ja on oluline nendele?**

Mõnikord küll. Näiteks tegime sõna 'KEVAD' tähed. See oli rühmatöö, et toimus eesti keele lõimimine kunstis. Nad tegid hea meelega, eriti rühmatööna. Nendele see on tähtis, et seinamaterjal on relevantne ja teemakohane, nagu praegu kevad ja kõik õppetöö on kuidagi seotud sellega. Näiteks oli see tegime EV aastapäevaks kaunistusi, sinine, must ja valge. Nii et need kaunistused jäid järgmiseks nädalaks ka. Ja siis nad hakkasid küsima miks on veel seal need kaunistused, kuna EV aastapäev on juba läbi, oli vaja juba teema vahetus.

**9. Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) klassi keelemaastiku (ehk rääkivate seinade) kasutamine ja olemine aineteadmiste tajumist?**

Ikka toetab. Ma juba rääkisin, et matemaatikas oli kasulik et me ei pea otsima kaua aega, sest on need kordamiseks juba olemas. Ma panen tähele, mis on juba õpitud. Esiteks see oli uus materjal, tutvustan ja siis kordame ja kinnastame. Sest see on kohe kättesaadav, ja kergesti õpilaste tähelepanu pöörata sellele. Kordamiseks on need rääkivad seinad päris efektiivne.

**10. Keelekümblus ja keelemaastik: Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) keelemaastiku kasutamine eesti keele omandamist keelekümbluse klassis? Kui jah, siis mis eesti keele aspekte/oskusi arendatakse kasutades tunniajal klassi keelemaastikku (grammatika reegleid, sõnavara, kirjaoskusi (lugemine, hääldamine, kirjutamine, õigekiri jne))?**

Toetab ja see on eesti keelega seoses, kõik need sildid eesti keeles. Praegu me võtame kõige lihtsamaid reegleid. Ma tahtsin reegleid panna, aga tase on nii madal, et ma pragu ei pane raskeid, näiteks kuhu on vaja koma panna. Meil on praegu selline reegel seinal. Lausad algavad suure tahtega ja ma pööran nende tähelepanu selle peale. Kirjatähtede kirjutamist õpime ka selle abil. Ja loomulikult sõnavara mis iganes teemas ja aines.

**11. Kuidas sa arvad, kas keelemaastik võib väljaspool klassiruumi (kooli sees) ja kooli (õues, tänaval) toetada eesti keele omandamist?**

Ikkagi, kindlasti peab toetama. Eriti kui tark lapsevanem, et ta oma lapse tähelepanu pöörab mänguliselt nende sildade peale. Vigadest saab ka õppida, kui on need sildi peal, eriti meil siin Ida-Virumaal.

**12. Kas sinu klassiruumi seinamaterjali paigalduses on põhimõtte (ealised aspektid, ainete kaupa, erinevad alad klassiruumis jne)? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub õppeaasta jooksul? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub klassi uuele õppeaastale üleminekul? Kui jah, siis mismoodi?**

Mu klassis on juba keeleline maastik väljakujunenud. Taga sein on kunsti jaoks. VEPAga seotud ikkagi klassi ees. Tähtis info on paremal pool, see mis vahetub kogu aeg. Ja siis vasakul matemaatika. Kahjuks pole ruumi et kuidagi detailselt kujuneda ainete kaupa. Kui õpime midagi uut, siis see on esile tuleb klassiruumis.

**13. Kultuurilised ja keelekümblus: Kuidas saavad rahvuskultuurilised esemed (käsitöö eesti lipu värvides, dekoratsioon adventiks, vabariigi aastapäevaks jne) toetada eesti keele omandamisele? Kas selle kaudu toimub koolis/klassis eesti kultuuridega tutvumine?**

Kindlasti toetavad, samuti mõõdukalt meie õpilastele. Sõltub kodukeskonnast, et mu kultuurilised hoiakud poleks vastu. Võib tekitada rohkem protesti õppimise vastu, kui mingi kultuuriline esemed ei vasta kodu hoiakutega. Niikuinii, meie klassis toimub eesti kultuuriga tutvumine, samuti rahvariided, tähtpäevaga tutvumine, Eesti lipp. Tutvumine ja suhtumine muutub, ja seejärel õpilased hindavad kus nad elavad, eesti keelt.

**14. Aktiiv- ja interaktiivõppe ja multimeedia: Kui sageli kasutate oma õpetamispraktikas multimeedia vahendeid (nt näitab videot tahvel, õpilased kasutavad interaktiiv tahvlit mingi ülesanne lahendamiseks)? Mis keeles või keeltes on heli ja tekst multimeedia pildis? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see on tõhus vahend eesti keele õpetamisel?**

Ma ei kasuta pragu, aga mõned ülesanded nt matemaatikas kus saab liigutada. Aga aja reesus on see asi, mis ei võimalda seda regulaarselt kasutada, sest multimeedia materjali loomise protsess on päris pikk. Kui kasutan, siis kõik tahavad, aga mitte kõik jõuavad seda kasutada tunni ajal. Ikka kõik eesti keeles. LearningApps on inglise keeles, kuid nad eriti ei pane tähele sellele. Ma püüan just eesti keeles materjali võtta. Muidu see on tõhus vahend. lisaks internet klassis ei ole eriti hea, aga see on kaasaegne ja praegused lapsed armastavad seda multimeedia kull.

## Teacher 4

### 1. Kuidas sa arvad, mis on keelemaastik?

Keelemaastik on see mida õpilane kasutab vaadates mis on seinatel.

### 2. Kas sa paned ise tähelepanu keelemaatikule (Nii sees kui väljas)?

Jah, panen eriti sõnavormid mida sa tava elus ei kasuta, liitsõnad, fraseologismid, mida tava elus sa tavaliselt ei kasuta. Näiteks võõrsõna kirjutamine, et vene sõna eesti tähtedega. Koodivahetus on ka huvitav näha.

### 3. Kuidas sa arvad, kui rikas ja mitmekesine on keelemaastik Sinimäe Põhikoolis? Millised keeled on kooli keelemaastikul esindatud?

Eesti keel ja inglise keel pigem, aga rohkem on illustreeritud pildimaastik. Kas mitmekesine? Ei oska eriti kommenteerida, ma arvan et haruldane on keelemaastik koolis.

### 4. Mida sa tead rääkivate seinte kohta õpetamise vahendina?

Mina tean, et keelemaastik on 40 protsendi mis annab tulemust keeleõppimise suhtes. See mida me näeme silmaga lisandub meie mälu juurde. Sellest sain teada keelekümbluse metoodika koolitustel.

### 5. Kas sina kasutad oma klassi keelemaatikku (ehk Rääkivad seinad) tunniajal? Kas seletad selle abil klassi käitumisreegleid (suhtluse hea tavad, distsipliin, tundide plaan ja tegevused päevaks/nädalaks) või kasutad õppematerjalina?

Reeglite kehtestamine ja õppematerjalina kasutamine. Õpitud kordamiseks.

### 6. Kui jah, siis kuidas? Millistel ainetel kasutad seda?

Kõikides ainetes, nagu eesti keel, kunst, matemaatika, tööõpetus, loodus. Võtame käärid, liimi, lõikame et need baasisõnad mida me tööõpetus ajal kasutame, paneme seinale ja kui me ütleme 'liimime' siis näitame sõnale kus on kirjutatud ja illustreeritud tegevus.

### 7. Kas sina lood neid ise või võtad interneti ressurssidest? Kui jah, kas on nende materjalide valiku põhimõte? Millega sa arvestad valikul?

Tavaliselt teen neid ise. Ei tohi olla liiga kirju, et silmad ei väsiks. Peab olema arusaadav et tekst peab oleme selge ja tähtede suurus, rahulik värv.

**8. Kas õpilased kaasatud nende seina õppematerjalide loomisel? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see meeldib ja on oluline nendele?**

Jah, kaasatud. Kui õpilane teeb, siis paned tähele ja jääb meelde. Nendele väga meeldib panna tähele enda tehtud materjale.

**9. Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) klassi keelemaastiku (ehk rääkivate seinade) kasutamine ja olemine aineteadmiste tajumist?**

Jah, toetab kindlasti. Visuaalne nägemine toetab 40 protsenti info tajumist.

**10. Keelekümblus ja keelemaastik: Kuidas sinu arvetes toetab (või mitte) keelemaastiku kasutamine eesti keele omandamist keelekümbluse klassis? Kui jah, siis mis eesti keele aspekte/oskusi arendatakse kasutades tunniajal klassi keelemaastikku (grammatika reegleid, sõnavara, kirjaoskusi (lugemine, hääldamine, kirjutamine, õigekiri jne))?**

Keelemaastik on keelekümbluse metoodika ja see toetab keeleomandamist keelekümbluse raames. Kõik keeleõpe aspektid on ka meie klassi seinatel. Käitumise reeglid on ainult kui on kokkulepitud reeglid. Näiteks madala häälega, pikad häälikud hoiad kolm sekundid 'kool' ja see on pildil. Foneetiline areng selles mõttes.

**11. Kuidas sa arvad, kas keelemaastik võib väljaspool klassiruumi (kooli sees) ja kooli (õues, tänaval) toetada eesti keele omandamist?**

Kõik need sõnad mida reklaamis on päris kasutuse keel ja kusagil kasutatakse et läbi neid sõnu sa õpid keelt. Kõik sõnavara laiendamine. Igapäevased ja alati tähtsamad kasutamisel.

**12. Kas sinu klassiruumi seinamaterjali paigalduses on põhimõtte (ealised aspektid, ainete kaupa, erinevad alad klassiruumis jne)? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub õppeaasta jooksul? Kas seinamaterjali paigaldus muutub klassi uuele õppeaastale üleminekul? Kui jah, siis mismoodi?**

See materjal mida on kordumiseks on taga seinal, ja mis hetkel me õpime on eespool, mis ei ole veel hästi omandatud. Kui näeme et laps on juba omandanud, siis me paigutame eespool materjali tagaseinale. Kui sa ei oska siis sa saab keerata. Ainealad ei ole, sest klass ei ole nii suur, ei võimelda. Muutus nende materjalide paigalduses toimub regulaarselt. Näiteks oli suured tähed, siis teises klassis nad muutuvad kirjatäheks. Teises klassis lisandub ka korrutamiseiga seotud plakatid.

**13. Kultuurilised ja keelekümbus: Kuidas saavad rahvuskultuurilised esemed (käsitöö eesti lipu värvides, dekoratsioon adventiks, vabariigi aastapäevaks jne) toetada eesti keele omandamisele? Kas selle kaudu toimub koolis/klassis eesti kultuuridega tutvumine?**

Jah, läbi dekoratsiooni jätab meelde tähtpäevi, kui on näiteks iseseisvuse päev, siis on rohkem patriootilisi eesti päraseid kaunistusi, kui on sõbrapäeva siis rohkem seotud südametega jne. Eesti kultuuridega tutvumine toetab küll keele omandamist. Näiteks kui ma ilma kaunistuseta räägib et 'täna on iseseiv päev', siis laps ei tunne seda päeva pidulikuks ega tähtsaks. See näiteks loetakse emakeele päeval eesti luuletajaid, väärtustatakse eesti keelt rohkem.

**14. Aktiiv- ja interaktiivõppe ja multimeedia: Kui sageli kasutate oma õpetamispraktikas multimeedia vahendeid (nt näitab videot tahvel, õpilased kasutavad interaktiiv tahvli mingi ülesanne lahendamiseks)? Mis keeles või keeltes on heli ja tekst multimeedia pildis? Kuidas sa arvad, kas see on tõhus vahend eesti keele õpetamisel?**

Iga päev. Igas tunnis ja igas aines. Ainult eesti keeles, ma ei kasuta neid inglise keelseid keskkonnad. Lastele väga meeldib see. Läbi selle see on visualiseerimine, häälduse kuulmine, üldse nagu digiajal õpilane peab kasutama neid rakendusi mida ta igapäeval kasutab. Näiteks läbi multikat omandab kirmeni materjale sest need on neile harjumuspärane.

## Appendix 4. Protocol for lesson observation

### 1. General information

School: \_\_\_\_\_ Lesson topic: \_\_\_\_\_  
Classroom and number of students: \_\_\_\_\_ Lesson goals (ask the teacher before or after  
Subjects: \_\_\_\_\_ the lesson): \_\_\_\_\_  
Date and time: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Protocol (write down the activities of the students and the teacher and the methods used. In the Observer Notes box, add any thoughts you had during the observation)

### Description of linguistic landscape in the classroom:

- What are the school subject areas in the classroom, if any?
- What are the principles for the arrangement of 'Talking Walls', if any?
- Are there signs, information, pictures, posters or objects related to (Estonian) culture in the classroom in addition to the visual educational material (i.e. 'Talking Walls')?
- Are there seen student works in the classroom (for example, done during arts and crafts classes) that may contain linguistic elements, inscriptions or culturally symbolic meaning?

### Special attention on:

- Were there interactions between the student/teacher and the 'Talking Walls'?
- In what way was the interaction with the elements of the linguistic landscape (special intonation or voice tone, kinematic component, body language etc.)?
- How long did the interaction last (approximately)?
- Does joint attention take place in the interaction with 'Talking Walls'?

Time	Teacher's activity	Students' activity	Notes

## **Appendix 5. Focus-group discussion transcriptions**

**Interviewer:** Ребята, сейчас я вас буду спрашивать по вопросам, которые я заготовил специально для своего исследования. Оно связано с тем, что мы проходили на этом уроке, который вот был только что сейчас, и вы можете отвечать оба, то есть, например, сначала **Student 2**, а потом **Student 1** или, как, например, если **Student 1** захочет первая отвечать, то может **Student 1** первая начать. И только что у вас был урок эстонского и заметили ли вы, что учитель использовал картинки, плакаты и надписи со стен в вашем кабинете?

**Student 1:** Да.

**Interviewer:** Что было именно, **Student 1**?

**Student 1:** Когда она спрашивала, какая сейчас погода, она как бы показывала на окно, и сказала, посмотрите туда.

**Interviewer:** Ага, это на окно, а именно вот на постеры, картинки вот то, что вот как вот тут висит на стенах.

**Student 1:** Она, а да да да да да на орешки и буквы.

**Interviewer:** Да, да, а про что эти были орешки?

**Student 2:** Про правила.

**Student 1:** Про правила.

**Interviewer:** Какие были правила?

**Student 1:** Sulghäälükud.

**Student 2:** П, К вот это вот.

**Interviewer:** Sulghäälükud. Какая была общая тема урока, как вы поняли?

**Student 1:** Sulghäälikud, suluta ...

**Interviewer:** Sulghäälikud ja suluta häälikud - правильно. Помогает ли вам вот эти вот картинки, постеры? Вот эти же самые орешки, которые это уникальная, вообще вещи, но только в вашем классе существуют эти орешки волшебные. Помогают ли они вам запоминать информацию эти орешки?

**Student 2:** Да.

**Interviewer:** Помогают, да, а как, то есть только тогда, когда учитель обращает на них внимание или вы сами, например, обращаете внимание? Или вы, как я понял, у вас есть даже такое правило в классе, что вы сначала сами думаете, а потом, если, например, вы не можете вспомнить, какое-то правило вам разрешают посмотреть на эти орешки? Так или как или как действуют эти орешки, расскажите.

**Student 1:** Но бывает что, когда нам как бы говорят какую-то тему и нам бывают, говорят, найдите вот это правило на нашем орешке.

**Interviewer:** Обращали ли вы когда-нибудь на эти орешки или не только на орешки? Потому что у вас же есть ещё другой келе мастик в кабинете. Вот например, те же самые как вот картинки к ним подписи. Обращали ли вы внимание на них сами? Например, даже не во время урока когда у вас продленка или...

**Student 1:** Ну да, на белку.

**Interviewer:** А на белочку, да? А именно на какие-то там тоже постеры, связанные по каким то разным предметам, быть может.

**Student 1:** Расписание.

**Student 2:** Расписание.

**Interviewer:** То же самое расписание, да это точно. А на каких языках эти картинки и постеры?

**Student 1:** На эстонском.

**Student 2:** На эстонском.

**Interviewer:** Только на эстонском?

**Student 2:** Да.

**Interviewer:** Угу, а и вам понятно, что написано на этих картинках так как это же все на эстонском?

**Student 1:** Ну бывает понятно, если нам объяснят, тогда понятно.

**Student 2:** Ну расписание мы поймём.

**Interviewer:** А вам всё всем понятно, а например, про те же самые орешки. Вам например, всё понятно, что там написано.

**Student 1:** Там половина, ну там 40 орешков. Ну 50 на 50.

**Interviewer:** 50 на 50.

**Student 2:** 20 на 20.

**Interviewer:** а как вы думаете, вам эти постеры картинки, включая те же самые орешки они как то вам помогают для изучения эстонского?

**Student 1:** Ну да, они помогают, чтоб мы знали какие правила.

**Interviewer:** А обращаешь ли ты внимание на эти постеры, если ты что-то не знаешь, как сказать на эстонском? Если ты, например, что-то не знаешь, а ты точно знаешь что Ну вот в классе у тебя есть какой-то...

**Student 1:** Да, такое было.

**Interviewer:** у тебя **Student 2**, ты что-то не знаешь и ты смотришь на стену и там написано и такой ах точно и так вот надо сказать.

**Student 2:** Да и учителя спрашиваю.

**Interviewer:** И как вы можете знать или вы не знали, но эти картинки и постеры они абсолютно на разные темы и по разным предметам, даже не только по эстонскому. По каким предметам в вашем классе эти плакаты и картинки?

**Student 1:** По музыке. По эстонскому по русскому.

**Interviewer:** По русскому?

**Student 2:** Да.

**Student 1:** Да.

**Student 2:** Да, по английскому.

**Student 1:** По английскому.

**Interviewer:** Именно в вашем кабинете?

**Student 1:** А в нашем? Нет.

**Interviewer:** Только в вашем, только в вашем.

**Student 1:** А в нашем только?

**Student 2:** А в музыке тоже постеры.

**Interviewer:** Нет, ну мы говорим именно вот про ваш кабинет. Да вот именно вот в вашем кабинете, где мы сейчас сидели? А по каким предметам там есть постере картинки?

**Student 2:** По эстонскому точно есть.

**Student 1:** По английскому.

**Student 2:** По английскому тоже есть.

**Student 1:** По математике.

**Student 2:** А по русски был алфавит.

**Interviewer:** Раньше, сейчас уже нет?

**Student 2:** Сейчас нет.

**Interviewer:** Давайте тогда поговорим о языке в нашей школе, который можно видеть на стенах. Всякие вывески плакаты выходим, как представляем, что мы выходим из нашего класси рум и смотрим, что у нас в школе какие плакаты, картинки или украшения. Скажите, где вы в школе видели эти все подобные плакаты, картинки, украшения.

**Student 2:** Тут.

**Interviewer:** На музыке, где ещё?

**Student 1:** На музыке, на английском где на первом и на втором этаже в коридоре. Постоянно везде.

**Interviewer:** Что вы увидели?

**Student 2:** Картинки.

**Interviewer:** Картинки?

**Student 1:** Картинки кынекель.

**Interviewer:** Так ну а что там было может написано про что?

**Student 2:** Koool, eesti keel. Больше не помню.

**Student 1:** Всякие олимпиады бывают.

**Interviewer:** A tunniplaan видели?

**Student 1:** Да видели.

**Student 2:** Да.

**Interviewer:** А какие-нибудь, например, мероприятия объявлений там висит плакат. Что будет такое мероприятие?

**Student 1:** Да такое тоже.

**Student 2:** Ещё на улице, там, когда заходишь, там видно этот...

**Interviewer:** Мы еще можем задержаться. На каком языке все эти были объявления, картинки, постеры.

**Student 1:** Эстонский.

**Interviewer:** Только эстонский?

**Student 2:** Эстонский.

**Student 1:** Ну английские и русские бывают.

**Interviewer:** Бывают, угу.

**Student 1:** Русский это вообще уж.

**Interviewer:** Мало?

**Student 1:** Да, очень.

**Interviewer:** А английский?

**Student 1:** Английский побольше чем русский.

**Interviewer:** Побольше, но большинство какой язык?

**Student 1:** Эстонский.

**Student 2:** Эстонский.

**Interviewer:** А как получается, какой язык вы чаще всего видите в нашей школе?

**Student 1:** Эстонский.

**Student 2:** Эстонский.

**Interviewer:** Эстонский, а слышите?

**Student 2:** Русский.

**Student 1:** Русский.

**Interviewer:** Русский. А где вы могли видеть, вот если мы говорим, что вы видели русский или английский, где вы его видели в нашей школе?

**Student 2:** Ну английский на втором этаже.

**Student 1:** Английский на втором этаже.

**Student 2:** Эстонский тоже и на первом и на втором.

**Interviewer:** А вот именно английский и русский, если эстонский у нас вообще везде есть, а русский и английский где вы могли видеть?

**Student 1:** Английский на первом в кабинете русского у второго класса.

**Interviewer:** Это было раньше или сейчас?

**Student 1:** И сейчас. И у второго класса тоже бывает там на русском что-то есть. Там даже переведено.

**Interviewer:** А, ничего себе. Хорошо ну тогда мысленно возвращаемся в наш класс обратно и вспомним про то как часто õретаја Х или õртаја Y используют интерактивную доску или проектор на уроках.

**Student 2:** На если по лоодусу тогда...

**Interviewer:** Часто?

**Student 2:** Угу.

**Interviewer:** Часто. А по эстонскому?

**Student 2:** По эстонскому тоже иногда.

**Interviewer:** Ну не всегда?

**Student 2:** Да.

**Interviewer:** Иногда, угу. А какие языки вы видите на этом экране, как правило?

**Student 1:** Эстонский.

**Student 2:** Эстонский.

**Interviewer:** Только эстонский?

**Student 2:** Да.

**Student 1:** Да.

**Interviewer:** Если вы, например, решаете примеры какие-то на доске... Вы решаете примеры на доске?

**Student 1:** Да.

**Student 2:** Да.

**Interviewer:** А вот на интерактивной тоже доске когда вам разрешают там, например, двигать или у вас такого нет?

**Student 2:** У нас есть такое только мы не включаем там мы говорим просто, а учитель пишет там на клавиатуре.

**Student 1:** Ну двигает...

**Interviewer:** А показывает ли вам учитель какие-то видео на этой доске?

**Student 2:** Если по лодусу, то да.

**Student 1:** Да, по лодусу да.

**Interviewer:** И как вам нравится использование, например, когда вот учитель использует вот эту вот интерактивную доску, показывает какие-то видео на проекторе может быть какие-то игры?

**Student 2:** Ну да.

**Interviewer:** И на каком языке все это?

**Student 1:** Эстонский.

**Interviewer:** Только на эстонском? Хорошо. Еще коротенький вопрос про вот эти самые орешки. Учитель вам также показывал, помимо того, что у вас есть на орешках эти правила, у вас есть также эти все буквы *sulghäälükud* или *kaashäälükud*. Они у вас есть наверху доски. Вы помните это?

**Student 1:** Да.

**Student 2:** Да.

**Interviewer:** И вы помните, что у вас там есть распределение по цветам, можете мне сейчас назвать, что у нас *kaashäälük* какого цвета, что у нас *sulghäälük* какого цвета?

**Student 2:** Ну *kaashäälük* это красный же или синий?

**Student 1:** Это синий и зеленый *kaashäälük*.

**Student 2:** B, D.

**Student 1:** B, G, D.

**Student 1:** B, G, D это *sulghäälük*. Ой...

**Interviewer:** *Sulghäälükud*.

**Student 1:** P, T, P...

**Student 2:** K.

**Student 1:** P, T, P.

**Student 2:** P, T, P.

**Student 1:** P, T, K.

**Student 2:** P, T, K.

**Interviewer:** И какого они цвета, там же есть распределение по цветам?

**Student 2:** Это этот синий.

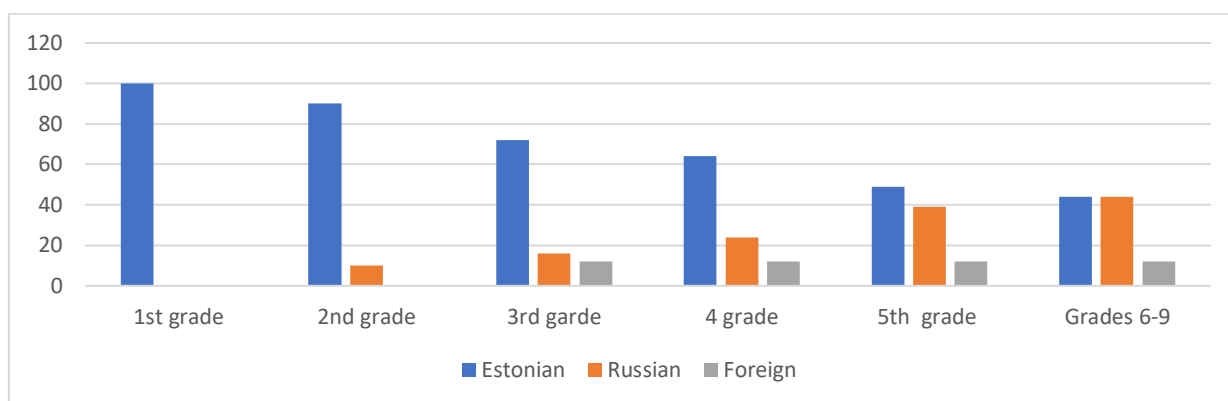
**Interviewer:** Хорошо! Все спасибо большое, ребята.

## Appendix 6. Tables

**Table 1.** Forms of Bilingual Education, source: Baker, 2001

<b>WEAK FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM</b>				
<b>Type of Program</b>	<b>Typical Type of Child</b>	<b>Language of the Classroom</b>	<b>Societal and Educational Aim</b>	<b>Aim in Language Outcome</b>
SUBMERSION (Structured Immersion)	Language Minority	Majority Language	Assimilation	Monolingualism
SUBMERSION with Withdrawal Classes / Sheltered English)	Language Minority	Majority Language with 'Pull-out' L2 Lessons	Assimilation	Monolingualism
SEGREGATIONIST	Language Minority	Minority Language (forced, no choice)	Apartheid	Monolingualism
TRANSITIONAL	Language Minority	Moves from Minority to Majority Language	Assimilation	Relative Monolingualism
MAINSTREAM with Foreign Language Teaching	Language Majority	Majority Language with L2/FL Lessons	Limited Enrichment	Limited Bilingualism
SEPARATIST	Language Minority	Minority Language (out of choice)	Detachment/ Autonomy	Limited Bilingualism
<b>STRONG FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM AND BILITERACY</b>				
<b>Type of Program</b>	<b>Typical Type of Child</b>	<b>Language of the Classroom</b>	<b>Societal and Educational Aim</b>	<b>Aim in Language Outcome</b>
<i>IMMERSION</i>	<i>Language Majority</i>	<i>Bilingual with Initial Emphasis on L2</i>	<i>Pluralism and Enrichment</i>	<i>Bilingualism &amp; Biliteracy</i>
MAINTENANCE/ HERITAGE LANGUAGE	Language Minority	Bilingual with Emphasis on L1	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
TWO-WAY/DUAL LANGUAGE	Mixed Language Minority & Majority	Minority and Majority	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINSTREAM BILINGUAL	Language Majority	Two Majority Languages	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
Notes: L2 = Second Language; L1 = First Language; FL = Foreign Language.				

**Table 2.** Teaching language distribution in Sinimäe School in language immersion department, source: Sinimäe Põhikooli Õppekava (2015)



**Table 3.** Primary school teachers' profiles

Teacher	Education level	PST degree	Languages	Teaching subjects	Students' age	Work experience*	Work experience in LI*
<b>Teacher 1.</b>	BA	No	Bilingual (Estonian & Russian)	Mathematic, EstL2, Natural sciences, Crafts and Arts	6-7 10-11	3	3
<b>Teacher 2.</b>	MA	Yes	L1 – Estonian; L2 – Russian	Mathematic, EstL2	6-11	15	5
<b>Teacher 3.</b>	BA	No	L1 – Russian; L2 - Estonian	Mathematics, EstL2, Natural sciences, Crafts and Arts, RusL1	7-8 8-9 (RusL1)	4	3
<b>Teacher 4.</b>	MA	Yes	L1 – Estonian; L2 – Russian	Mathematic, EstL2, Natural sciences, Crafts and Arts,	8-9	5	5

Notes: L1 – first language; L2 – second language; LI – Language immersion; Estonian Language Instruction – ELI; BA – bachelor's degree; MA – master's degree; PST – Primary School Teacher; EstL2 – teaching Estonian as Second Language; RusL1 – teaching Russian as First Language; \*Work experience in years

**Table 4.** Population by Mother Tongue in Narva-Jõesuu (Source: Statistics Estonia)

L1	Number	Percent
<b>Estonian</b>	480	12%
<b>Russian</b>	3590	86%
<b>Ukrainian</b>	24	1%
<b>Finnish</b>	8	0%
<b>English</b>	5	0%
<b>Latvian</b>	5	0%
<b>German</b>	7	0%
<b>Belarusian</b>	11	0%
<b>Other mother tongue</b>	30	1%
<b>Mother tongue unknown</b>	10	0%
<b>Total</b>	4170	100%

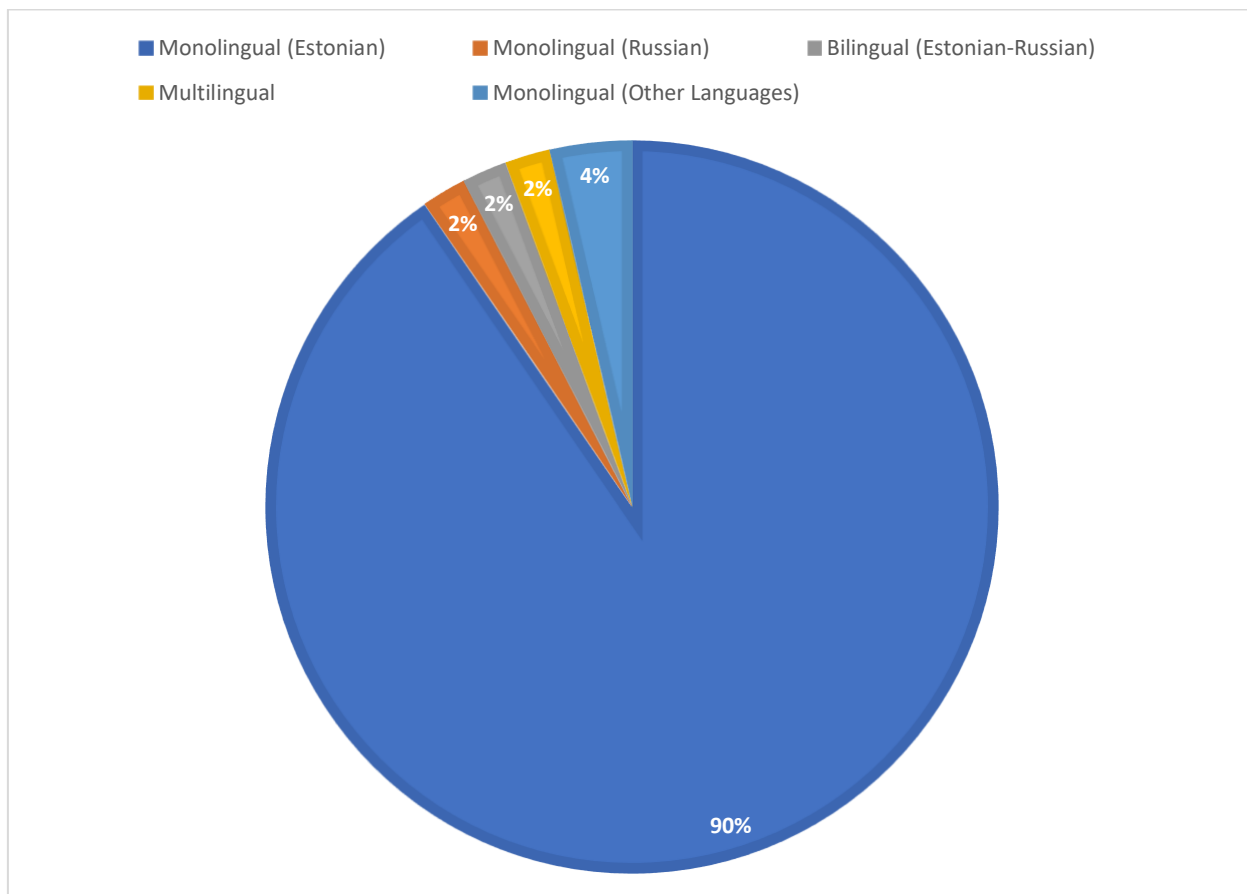


**Table 5.** Population by Mother Tongue in Ida-Virumaa (Source: Statistics Estonia)

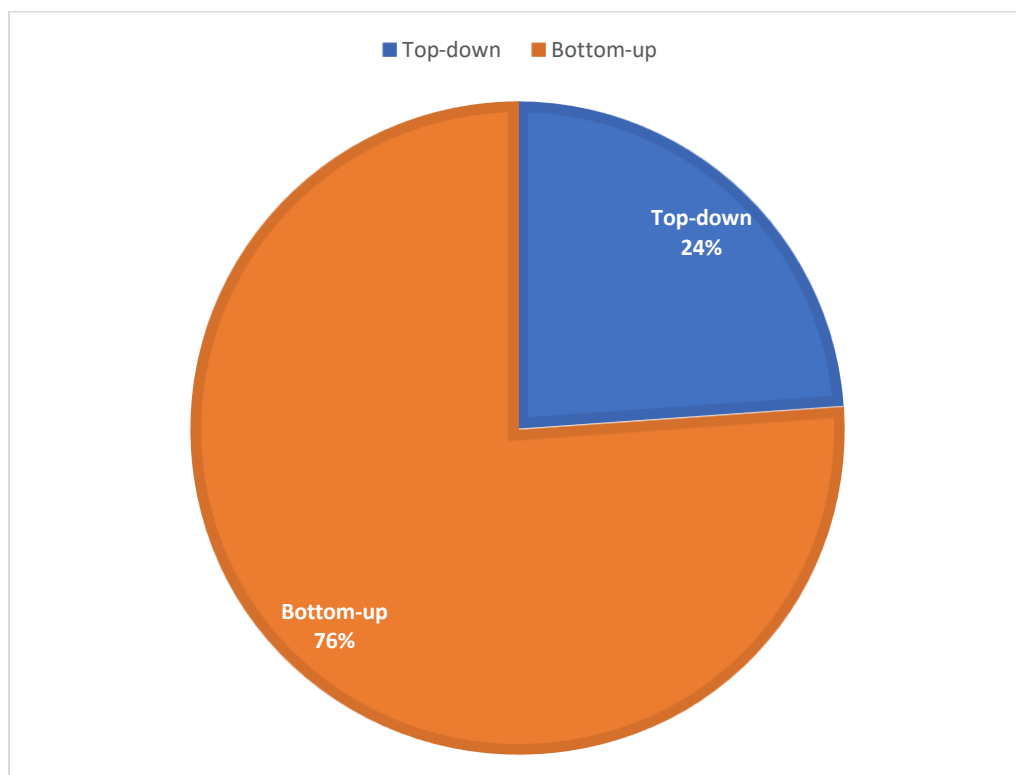
L1	Number	Percent
<b>Estonian</b>	19276	15%
<b>Russian</b>	110255	83%
<b>Ukrainian</b>	1045	1%
<b>Finnish</b>	105	0%
<b>English</b>	83	0%
<b>Latvian</b>	118	0%
<b>German</b>	74	0%
<b>Belarusian</b>	311	0%
<b>Other mother tongue</b>	797	1%
<b>Mother tongue unknown</b>	261	0%
<b>Total</b>	132325	100%



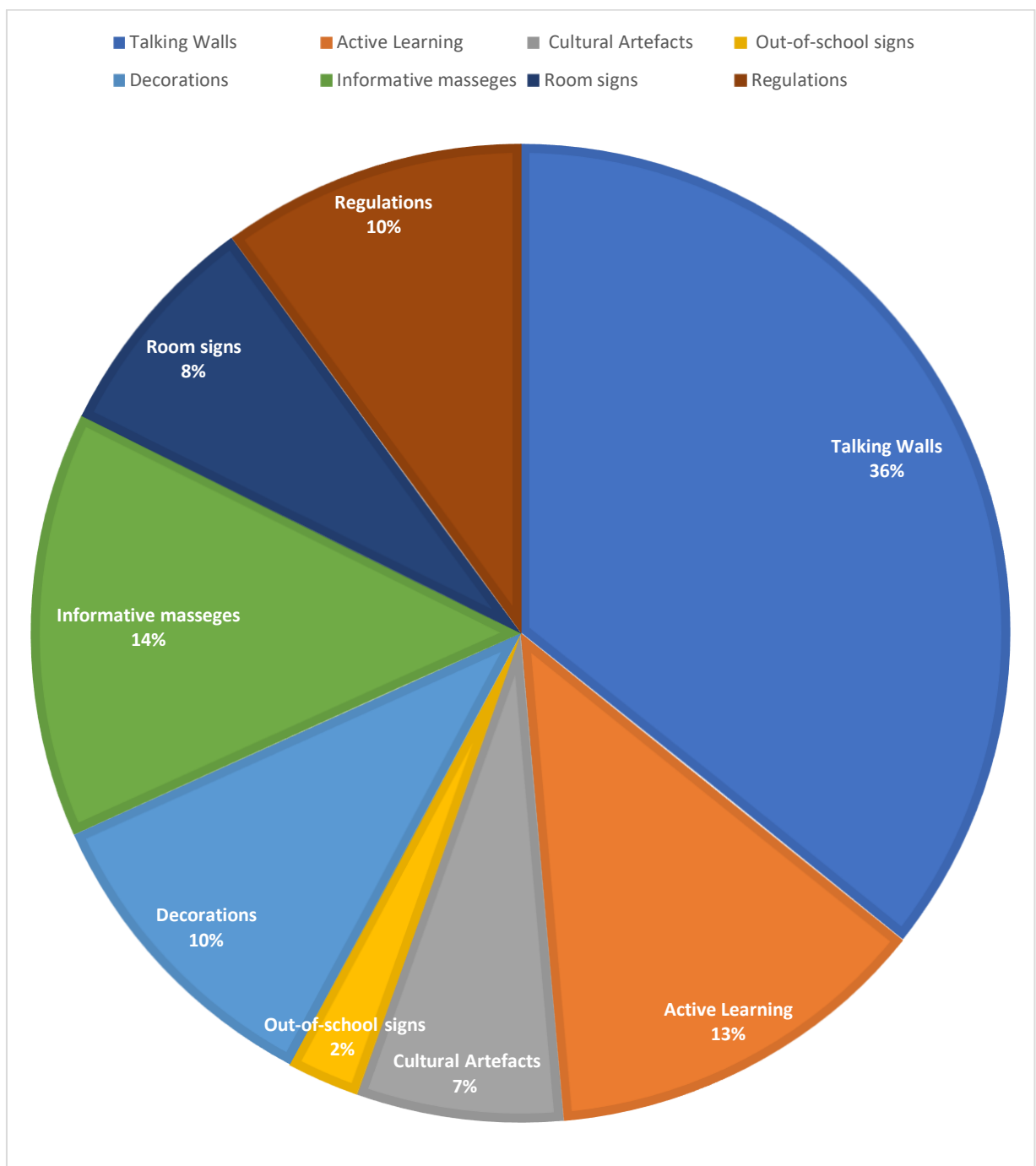
**Table 6.** Distribution of the linguistic landscape elements by languages



**Table 7.** Top-down and bottom-up distribution of the linguistic landscape elements



**Table 8.** Distribution of the linguistic landscape by functions



## Appendix 7. Photographs

Photo 1.

**Tasuta koolipsühholoogide nõuandeliin**  
Helistama on oodatud haridustöötajad, lapsevanemad, lapsed ja noored. Kõnelele vastavad kvalifitseeritud koolipsühholoogid

**Бесплатная горячая линия психологической помощи**  
Помогаем педагогам, родителям, детям и подросткам. На звонки отвечают квалифицированные школьные психологи.

**Безкоштовна консультативна лінія шкільних психологів**  
Україномовні шкільні психологи готові консультувати дітей дошкільного віку і молодь, а також дорослих – батьків і вихователів.

**Eesti keeles**  
☎ **1226**  
E-R 16-20

**На русском языке**  
☎ **1227**  
Вт 16:00-20:00

**На українській мові**  
☎ **1227**  
Срд 16:00-20:00

SA Koolipsühholoogide Ühing  
Association of School Psychologists

Photo 2.

Kallid naised!  
**03.03. reedel**  
**KELL 12.00**

Sinimäe raamatukogus toimub  
Mary Kay firmaga kohtumine

Sinimäe Põhikooli kallid naised,  
ootame teid!

Kavas on:

- kosmeetikaga tutvumine,
- näohooldus
- meik

Дорогие женщины!  
Ждем вас **03.03.**, в пятницу, к **12.00**  
в библиотеке Синимяэ на встречу с фирмой **Mary Kay**.

В программе:

- основной уход, макияж, знакомство с косметикой Mary Kay!

Photo 3.



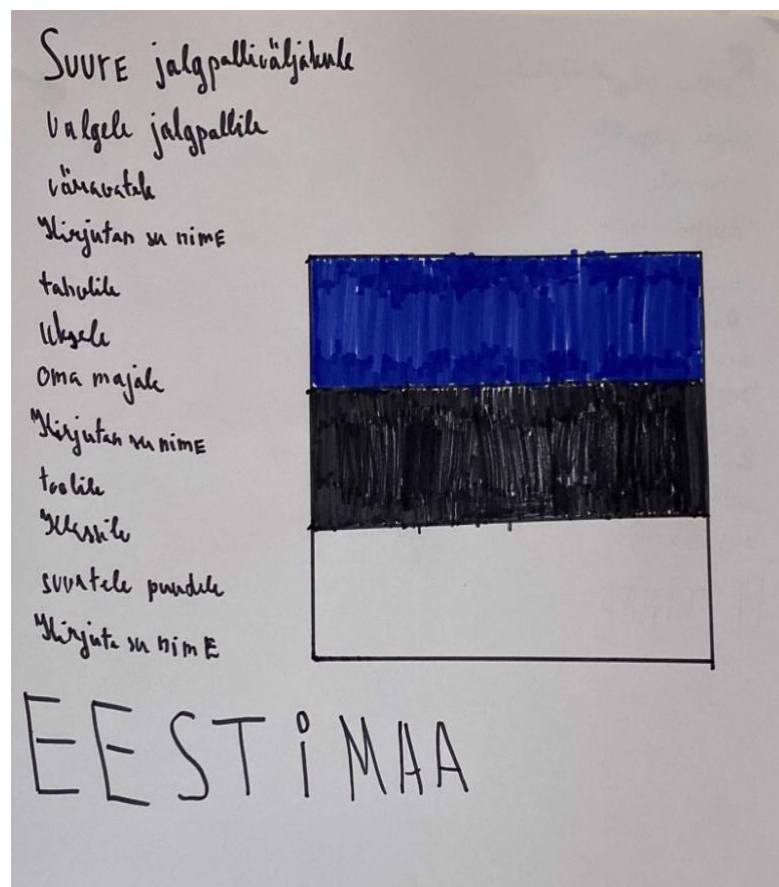
Photo 4.



Photo 5.



Photo 6.



**Photo 7.**



**Photo 8.**



Photo 9.



Photo 10.



Photo 11.

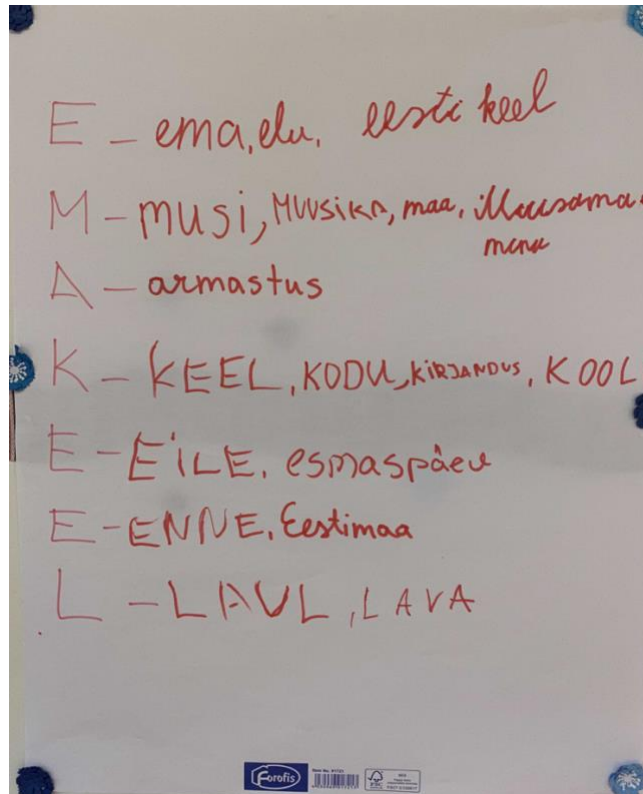


Photo 12.



Photo 13.

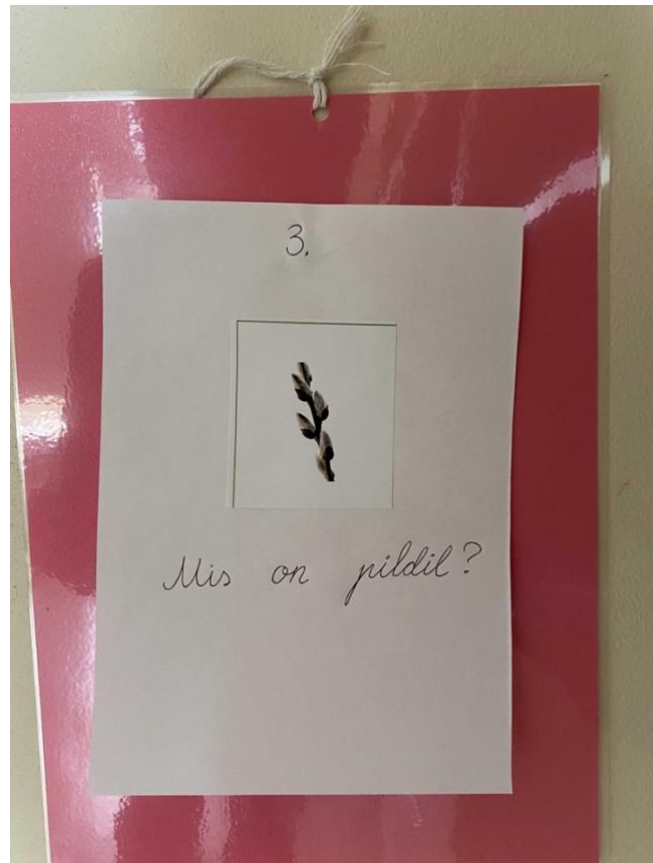


Photo 14.





Photo 18.



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LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE AS SCHOOLSCAPE AND PEDAGOGICAL TOOL IN LANGUAGE IMMERSION EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY FROM ESTONIAN LANGUAGE IMMERSION SCHOOL,

mille juhendaja on \_\_\_\_\_ Mart Rannut \_\_\_\_\_,

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*Damir Nuriev*  
**08.05.2023**