The Relationship Between Motivation and Exposure to EFL outside the Classroom

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Summary: Language learning is a complex process that is constantly changing and being influenced by numerous factors, including cognitive, affective and social. Studies on motivation have found their roots in different theories and methodologies that introduced a number of variables. The present study examines the relationship between motivation and EFL outside the classroom. Motivation is thus defined as another complex system that has different stems, while English outside the classroom belongs to one of many contextual factors influencing motivation itself. Motivation has been conceptualized as having three types of motivational orientation (pragmatic-communicative motivation, affective motivation and integrative motivation) and two demotivators (classroom environment and learning difficulties). EFL outside the classroom was based on former experiences (the length of studying English, visit to a foreign country, valuation of language skills) and frequency of English usage outside the class in any form. The study showed and proved a positive relationship between motivation and engaging in EFL activities outside the classroom, because different English related activities can increase motivation to learn the language.

Key words: motivation; L2; FL; English outside the classroom; research.

Sažetak: Učenje jezika složen je proces koji se neprestano mijenja pod utjecajem brojnih faktora, uključujući kognitivne, afektivne i društvene čimbenike. Istraživanja motivacije pronašla su svoja uporišta u različitim teorijama i metodologijama koje su donijele brojne varijable. Naše istraživanje ispituje odnos motivacije i izloženosti engleskom kao stranom jeziku izvan škole. Motivacija je definirana kao složena pojava s brojnim izvorima, dok engleski jezik izvan učionice pripada brojnim kontekstualnim čimbenicima koji utječu na samu motivaciju. U radu motivaciju predstavljamo kao pojav koja se sastoji od triju motivacijskih usmjerenja (uporabno-komunikacijska motivacija, afektivna motivacija i integrativna motivacija) i dva demotivatora (nastavna situacija i poteškoće s učenjem). Engleski kao strani jezik izvan škole operacionaliziran je kao prijašnje iskustvo (duljina učenja Engleskog jezik, posjet stranoj zemlji, procjena vlastitih jezičnih sposobnosti) i učestalosti uporabe jezika izvan škole u bilo kojem obliku. Istraživanje je pokazalo kako motivacija i aktivnosti povezane s engleskim jezikom izvan učionice imaju pozitivan odnos, jer različite aktivnosti mogu povećati motivaciju za učenje jezika.

Ključne riječi: motivacija; drugi jezik; strani jezik; Engleski jezik izvan škole; istraživanje.

1. Introduction

Motivation has always been a concept that seized human attention. Numerous studies tried to define it and its effects on human actions, which resulted in a number of studies. In 1943, Abraham Maslow introduced his "Hierarchy of needs" (https://www.simplypsychology.org/maslow.html). He claimed that people are motivated to fulfill a variety of needs, starting at the basic 'vital' ones and going up to the highest need of all, self-actualization. Following that, psychologists massively began a systematic investigation of this phenomenon, which resulted in numerous definitions and divisions.

Both educators and researchers agreed that motivation was one of the key factors in language learning, so 1990s finally brought a new interest in motivation – from an educational viewpoint. And this is where our interest into the subject of motivation in language learning starts. One of the pioneers in this area was definitely Robert C. Gardner (1982, 1985) who developed a much praised (and questioned) socio-educational model. Over the years, many scholars tried to make a contribution to this body of research, which resulted in numerous empirical studies and theories of motivation. As expected, all of them had a different view on the matter. Among these, we found the works of Zoltán Dörnyei and his associates most notable and relevant for this paper.

We also describe the difference between foreign and second language, and present the notion of English language outside the classroom because these belong to important contextual factors that influence motivation. Our overview of relevant theoretical framework summarizes Stephen Krashen (1981) and Tracy Terrell's (1984) Natural Approach as well as some scholars' views on benefits and possible downsides of practicing English outside the classroom. After that, we review studies carried out in the Croatian context (Mihaljević Djigunović, 1998; Mihaljević Djigunović & Bagarić, 2007; Martinović, 2013; Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014; Pavičić Takač & Bagarić Medve, 2015). Following that, two surveys (Macleod & Larsson, 2011; Sandquist, 2009) that portray the relationship between conventional learning environment and learning English outside the classroom are presented. Finally, the present research that deals with the relationship between motivation and learning English outside the classroom in Croatia is described. As stated above, in spite of considerable research already done in this area, interest in motivation and different aspects of it is still very much present and current. That is why our attention to this matter should come as no surprise.

2. Motivation

We present our theoretical framework by discussing the complexity of the concept, which is followed by a review of relevant motivational theories in SLA. After that, we define contextual factors influencing motivation and present relevant research on motivation in the Croatian context.

2.1. The Complexity of Motivation

There is an old Chinese folktale about three blind men who encountered an elephant which goes like this. One day, three blind men met up and talked about different things. One of them mentioned that he heard an elephant was a queer animal, while the other two replied they would like to meet or at least touch it. It happened so that there was a merchant who overheard their conversation while passing by with a herd of elephants. He offered these three men to show them one of his elephants. The men happily agreed to it and followed the merchant. Once they got close to an animal, merchant took them one by one and let them feel it. The first man touched both animal's forelegs from top to the bottom, the second man felt the elephant's tail wagging around, and the third man felt its trunk twisting back and forth. Once they thanked the merchant for this opportunity, an outburst of excited comments began. Each claimed a different thing about this strange animal, blaming the other two to be wrong. "How they argued! Each one insisted that he alone was correct. Of course, there was no conclusion for not one had thoroughly examined the whole elephant. How can anyone describe the whole until he has learned the total of the parts" (Kuo & Kuo, 1976: 85). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:4) explain that this is similar to understanding motivation, or the potential range of influences on human behaviour', because researchers tend to focus on only one part of an entity due to difficulty of capturing the whole picture. Thus it comes as no surprise that there is still no theory of motivation theory that has managed to unite and capture all main types of possible motives, and it is hard to believe that there ever will be one. Still, there is something that most researchers have agreed upon, and it concerns the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, which include (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:4):

- the *choice* of a particular action,
- the *persistence* with it, (and)
- the *effort* expended on it.

In other words, motivation is responsible for

- *why* people decide to do something,

• *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, [and]

• *how hard* they are going to pursue it.

2.2. Defining Motivation

When trying to define motivation, most authors begin with a simple etymology of the word itself. The word motivation derives from the Latin verb *movere* meaning 'to move'. The online *Oxford dictionary* (http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/motivation) defines motivation as "a reason or reasons for acting or behaving in a particular way" and "desire or willingness to do something; enthusiasm". Also, it seems that people 'intuitively' know its meaning and the matter thus seems quite clear and simple. Still, the concept is scientifically not easy to define and operationalize. The phenomenon has nevertheless generated a great number of theories and studies over the last four decades, resulting in debates and disagreements among scholars, but providing no unique definition (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:3). The following section addresses this question.

2.3. Theories of Motivation in SLA

First theories of motivation based their understanding on the work of Freud and thus focused mainly on the "unconscious drives, emotions and instincts" that shape human behaviour. Following that, second half of the 20th century brought a shift of focus to "conscious cognitive processes" that shape our actions and behaviour. Today, the attention is still on the cognitive perspective although there is a constant rise of interest in the emotional dimension (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:5). The following section brings a historical overview with relevant theories concerning motivation to learn foreign/second language.

2.3.1. The social psychological period (1959-1990)

Dörnyei (2003) states that social psychologists were the first ones to initiate a serious research on motivation in language learning because of their awareness of the social and cultural effects on learning of a second language (L2). Keblawi (http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf) adds that there were others who also showed interest in language learning motivation (LLM) long before that but without systematic and focused research. That is why we begin our overview with psychological theories.

Keblawi (http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf) claims that **socio-educational model** was the most influential model of LLM from early sixties to eighties of the past century. In his model, Gardner (1982) identified a number of factors which are interrelated while learning a second language. Norris-Holt (2001) claims that "unlike other research carried out in the area, Gardner's model looks specifically at second language acquisition (SLA) in a structured classroom setting rather than a natural environment. His work focuses on the foreign language classroom." This model combines four features of second language acquisition: *social and cultural milieu*, *individual learner differences*, *the setting or context in which learning takes place* and *linguistic outcomes* (see Figure 1).Within the model, motivation is perceived to be composed of three elements. These include effort, desire and affect. Effort refers to the time spent studying the language and the drive of the learner. Desire indicates how much the learner wants to become proficient in the language, and affect illustrates the learner's emotional reactions with regard to language study (Gardner, 1982). Gardner (1985:10) thus defines **motivation** as "combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language". Within his model, Gardner distinguished motivation from **orientation**, or the reason why someone is learning second language, which he claimed to be misunderstood for motivation by most explorers. He also distinguished two types of orientation: **integrative** and **instrumental**. The prior one refers to learners' desire to communicate, admire the culture and integrate with the members of the target language. Quite opposite of that, instrumental motivation is "generally characterized by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language" (Hudson, 2000, as cited in Norris-Holt, 2001). This type of motivation was characterized as characteristic of SLA, due to monocultural societies and restricted opportunities to use target language on a daily basis. However, Gardner (1985) stressed out integrative motivation as the backbone of his model. Moreover, he divided it into three different components: *integrative orientation*, *integrativeness*, and *integrative motivation* (see Figure 1). And this is where criticism of the model began. Keblawi reports that "most criticism was raised against the concept of integrative motivation and its definition [since] the notion of integrative motivation ha(s)[d] no parallel in mainstream motivational psychology." (http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf).

Another example mentioned were reasons to study target language, such as "having friends who speak English" or "knowing more about English culture", which could be classified as either integrative or instrumental, depending on the intention of a learner himself. Keblawi also pointed at some further problems that he found insufficiently elaborated on by other

researchers. He states that "there has not been direct reference to the striking contradiction in the model as it makes motivation part of the integrative motivation. (…) This means [Gardner] perceive(ing)[ed] (the) part as a subgroup of the whole which is an apparent logical contradiction." (http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf).
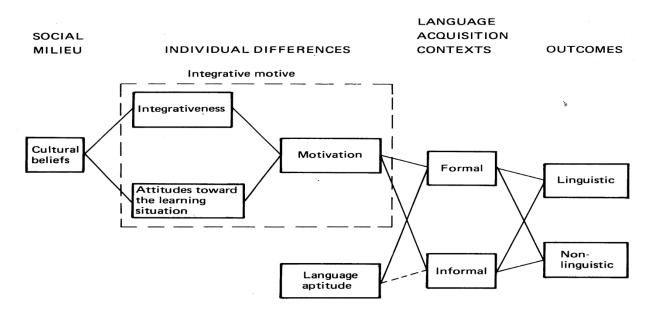

Figure 1. Operational formulation of the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985:153)

Despite all the criticism, some components of Gardner's model are still praised. One such is his **Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)** which measures type and intensity of motivation. There are three scales that measure integrativeness: attitudes towards the target language group, interest in foreign languages, and integrative orientation. Motivation is also measured by three scales: motivational intensity (effort invested in learning), attitudes toward learning the target language (individual's reactions to anything associated with the immediate learning context which divides to attitudes toward the teacher and course) and the desire to learn the target language (Keblawi, http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf).

2.3.2. The cognitive situated period (during 1990s)

Advances in cognitive theories in educational psychology led to the birth of a new period in L2 motivation research – cognitive-situated period. Pavičić Takač & Berka (2014) explain that a shift of focus occurred towards exploring a specific cognitive as well as situation-specific motives and its potential impact on learner's motivation. All of new L2 motivation models had the same view of motivation: the crucial aspect was "how" one thought about his/her abilities,

possibilities, limitations, past performances and "how" one thinks about numerous aspects of a task set to achieve or goals to attain. Some of these newly proposed constructs included the attribution theory, the self-determination theory and task motivation.

The attribution theory was based on the work of Bernard Weiner and it was the dominant model of student motivation research in 1980s. The uniqueness of the theory stems from its ability to link individuals' achievements to past experiences through the establishment of *causal attributions* as the mediating link (Dörnyei, 2003). It means that if the learner ascribes some past failure to the insufficient effort or unsuitable learning strategies rather than his lack of ability, one is more likely to give it another try. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) identified *ability*, *effort*, *task difficulty*, *luck*, *mood*, *family background* and *help or hindrance from others* as most common attribution in school environments. Keblawi (http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf) states that identification of these (as internal causes over which learners do have control) in time, would result in increase of motivation, given they doubled their efforts. Beliefs about achievement or mastering the material will thus influence the actual studying (e.g. learners who believe a particular task is very hard to achieve will not put as much effort to complete it and the opposite) (Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014:82).

Dörnyei (2003) claims Deci and Ryan's **self-determination theory** is one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology. Deci and his associates define being self-determining as "experiencing a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions" (Keblawi, http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf:32). This choice is also referred to as *autonomy*. The model consists of two types of motivation: *intrinsic*, *extrinsic* and *amotivation*. Intrinsic motivation is defined as performing an activity for its own sake and internal rewards such as joy or satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation is described as performing of some activity for the sake of extrinsic reward, such as good grade or even avoiding punishment. Finally, the state of lacking any kind of motivation (positive or negative) is defined as amotivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Dörnyei and Ushioda report on some attempts to unite these types of motivation by integrating multidimensional perspectives from literature in this area, which resulted in forming another model that also had three levels:

- *the global level* (representing a general orientation to interact with the environment in an intrinsic, extrinsic or amotivated fashion);
- *the contextual level* (representing engagement in particular spheres of human activity such as education, leisure, interpersonal relations);

• *the situational level* (representing engagement in specific activities at a particular time) (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:23). The model also pointed out three subtypes of intrinsic motivation, which highlighted activities of *learning*, *achievement* and *experience of stimulation* as well as rewards these activities resulted in. Despite traditional belief in negative relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, recent research has shown that intrinsic motivation can co-exist with four types of extrinsic motivation: external regulation (the least self-determined form, coming entirely from external sources), introjected regulation (externally imposed rules students follow to avoid feeling of guilty), identified regulation (engaging in an activity one values and finds useful) and integrated regulation (behaving in a way that is fully in accordance with individual's values, needs and identity) (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The focus on situation-specific aspects opened up another new path of enquiry: **task-related motivation**. Julkunen (2001) thus brings definitions of *state motivation* as a situation specific motivation and *trait motivation*, as a general motivation. Dörnyei (2002) finds this dichotomy too static and offers a more elaborate conceptualization. He describes task motivation as a result of numerous contextual influences and learner-internal factors that interact with intrinsic properties of the task, while its constant variation depends on stages of task engagement, learner's evaluation and effort invested in controlling the entire process.

This period was also characterized by taking into account different contextual influences on motivation. One such attempt is Dörnyei's (1994) three level framework of L2 motivation. It consists of language level (culture, community, pragmatic values and benefits of L2), learner level (each learner's individual characteristics) and learning situation level (situation specific motives connected with classroom settings). Learning situation further may include course-specific motivational components (i.e. syllabus, materials and tasks), teacher-specific motivational components (i.e. teacher's influence on learner's motivation) and group-specific motivational components (i.e. norm and reward system, classroom goal structure and group cohesiveness). Any change of parameters at one level may affect the overall motivation, independently of the other two. For example, depending on the learning situation, different learners learning the same language may show different levels of motivation (Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014).

Williams and Burden (1997) offer another framework of L2 motivation that concludes how every individual's motivation is different and influenced by both social and external factors. Their internal (self-concept attitudes, anxiety) and external factors (significant others i.e. parents, teachers, peers; the nature of interaction with significant others; learning environment i.e. class and school ethos; broader context i.e. local education system, social expectations) thus provide a

list of factors potentially influencing motivation in an L2 classroom (Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014:82-83).

The **goal-setting theory** was developed by Locke and Latham in 1990s, while trying to explain "differences in performance among individuals in terms of differences in goal attributes" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:20). Locke has summarized their main findings under five theses that highlight the importance of difficulty, specification, commitment and belief to success, which will lead to high performance and achievement. Although this theory was developed in the context of work setting, it was successfully applied to educational setting too (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Unlike the first one, *goal-orientation theory* was developed in a classroom context in order to explain children's learning and performance in a school setting. According to this theory, an individual's performance is closely related to his or her accepted goals. "An important contribution of the theory resides in its distinction between two types of goals: *performance* vs. *mastery (or learning) orientation*" (Ames & Archer, 1988; Ames, 1992 as cited in Keblawi[1]). The first one focuses on learning of the content while the other one has its focus on demonstrating some ability or getting good grades (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Final, *goal content and multiplicity theory* is again different from the previous two, in a way that it deals with motivation which is not shaped by goals focused on academic achievement and performance. Based on Ford's 1992 work, Wentzel (as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) conducted a research that tried to examine the content of student's non-academic goals (making friends, pleasing the teacher, avoiding punishment etc.) in a classroom situation. Results showed that pursuit of non-academic forms of competence may interact positively with development of academic competence.

2.3.3. *The process-oriented period (the turn of the century)*

An observation that none of the existing models of L2 motivation incorporated a temporal dimension and phases within this process brought another change of focus towards the process-oriented approach. According to Pavičić Takač & Berka (2014) Williams and Burden were the first ones to argue that motivation is a continuum involving different stages, from initial arousal of interest to its sustention, which implied investing time, energy and effort.

This view was taken up by many, but only Dörnyei & Ottó (1998) offered a more elaborate description of a constantly changing motivational process within a **process model of L2 motivation**. They defined motivation as "dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a

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[1] http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf

person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out" (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998:64). Their model consists of two dimensions, action sequence (three phases) and motivational influences (which fuels the whole process with energy sources and motivational forces). Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005) explained the three phases of an action sequence very well. They claim that every learner goes through three different stages of motivation while learning a language (see Figure 2).

Preactional stage	Actional stage	Postactional stage
CHOICE MOTIVATION	**EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION**	**MOTIVATIONAL RETROSPECTION**
Motivational functions:	*Motivational functions:*	*Motivational functions:*
• Setting goals • Forming intentions • Launching action	′ Generating and carrying out subtasks • Ongoing appraisal (of one's performance) • Action control (self-regulation)	• Forming causal attributions • Elaborating standards and strategies • Dismissing intention and further planning
Main motivational influences:	*Main motivational influences:*	*Main motivational influences:*
• Various goal properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity) • Values associated with the learning process itself, as well as with its outcomes and consequences • Attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers • Expectancy of success and perceived coping potential • Learner beliefs and strategies • Environmental support or hindrance	• Quality of the learning experience (pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image) • Sense of autonomy • Teachers' and parents' influence • Classroom reward and goal structure (e.g., competitive or cooperative) • Influence of the learner group • Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning and self-motivating strategies)	′ Attributional factors (e.g., attributional styles and biases) • Self-concept beliefs (e.g., self-confidence and self-worth) • Received feedback, praise, grade

Figure 2. A process model of learning motivation in the L2 classroom (Dörnyei & Shoaib, 2005:26

Authors thus explain that the first or *preactional* stage consists of generating motivation itself, which then leads to selection of a goal the individual is going to pursue. Next, in *actional* stage one needs to maintain and protect their motivation during certain actions, from different distractions such as off-task thoughts, anxiety or even adverse physical conditions. Finally,

postactional stage comes after completion of an action. Here students make a retrospective evaluation of how things went and determine activities they will pursue in the future. The figure shown above also summarizes main motives that influence learner's behaviour and thinking during each of the three stages (Dörnyei & Shoaib, 2005:25). The value of this model lies in the fact that it can describe motivational changes occurring both within a specific learning task and a longer period of time. Still, one of its shortcomings is that it does not succeed in capturing motivation as a non-linear cause-effect relation (Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014:84). When it comes to cause-effect relation, there was a debate on whether motivation acted as 'cause' or an 'effect' of learning, which resulted in a consensus that it functions as a "cycle" (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011:5). High motivation will result in high achievement, which will then lead to high motivation. Also, low motivation will result in low achievement, which will again lead to low motivation. However, real life experiences of motivation are not as simple as these cause-effect-cause cycles. Thus Dörnyei (2001:198) expresses some sort of alert because there cannot be assumed direct cause-effect relationship. At best, this relationship can be indirect since motivation first precedes action, which is then followed by achievement.

To round up the aspect of time, Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011) state that its neglecting has often resulted in situations where there were two equally valid theories, but referring to different phases of a motivational process, which made them contradict. Furthermore, when it comes to learning and especially learning a foreign language, certain level of motivation cannot remain the same throughout different periods of time. It is perfectly normal for the level of motivation to vary in different stages of some action because it simply cannot "remain constant during the course of months, years or even during a single lesson" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:6).

2.3.4. The socio-dynamic period

When Dörnyei, as one of the leading L2 motivation researchers embraced the input from a different perspective that is a complex dynamic systems perspective, a move into the new theoretical phase occurred. Among all the new conceptual approaches Dörnyei and Ushioda brought most notable L2 motivational theories. In her **person-in-context relational view of motivation** Ushioda (2009) focused on evolving mutual relationship between motivation, self and context. *Self* describes a complex individuality of a person (e.g. one's occupation, nationality, being a member of desired community).

Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) **L2 Motivational Self System** unifies psychological theories of the self-system. He claims that motivation to learn L2 comes from three different sources. The

Ideal L2 Self is learner's vision of oneself as an effective L2 speaker and thus acts as a strong motivator in trying to reduce the discrepancy between the actual and ideal self. The *Ought-to L2 Self* represents social pressure coming from the learner's environment and refers to characteristics that one should possess in order to control and avoid negative outcomes, obligations and responsibilities. The *L2 Learning Experience* is derived from the immediate learning environment and learner's perceptions of previous learning successes and failures. Motivation is thus defined as a dynamic subsystem entering continuous and complex interactions with other subsystem such as cognition and affect (Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014:85).

Pavičić Takač & Berka (2014: 85-86) conclude that the complex dynamic systems approach and its impact on L2 motivation research and understanding, shows a lot of promising potential in terms of capturing the complexity of L2 motivation and taking into consideration both the context as part of the system and learners as developing individuals.

All of the different approaches presented above show that motivational construct has been conceptualized in many ways, but none of the theories was wrong nor contradicting the other. They simply have different focal points, and "the problem is that we are dealing with abstract constructs and conceptualizations and therefore the number of possible formulations of the phenomena is potentially infinite" (Schumann, 2015: xvi-xvii, as cited in Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014:86).

2.4. Contextual Factors influencing Motivation

When it comes to contextual influences on learning motivation, Dörnyei and Ushioda differentiate two large groups: "*instructional context* (e.g. task and materials design, evaluation practices, grouping structures) [and] *social and cultural influences* (e.g. teachers, peer group, school, family, culture and society)" (2011:26). The first group of contextual factors is more likely to have a short-term influence because their effect will decrease as they fulfill certain learning goals. Second group encompasses social factors and figures that have larger impact on a learner and can have both positive and negative influence on motivation. To sum up, "individual motivation is not simply 'influenced by' sociocultural factors in the surrounding context, but the sociocultural context becomes attuned to the goals, standards and values of the collective participants who define that context and shape its practices" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:34).

Further research of the matter identified social context as one more growing aspect that has influence on motivation. This meant that motivation was actually a dynamic interaction between individual and social factors. 'Individual' perspective thus viewed rest of the world

through the individual's eyes while 'societal' perspective focused on broad social processes and macro-contextual factors where individual acts as a 'pawn'. These perspectives initiated reshaping of current motivation theories in both psychology and learning of a second language (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:7-8). To this, Keblawi (http://www.qsm.ac.il/mrakez/asdarat/jamiea/12/eng-2-faris%20keblawi.pdf) adds another contextual difference, the one between learning a language as *second language* or a *foreign language*, which will be elaborated on later in the paper. Similar to Dörnyei and Ushioda's societal perspective, he distinguishes immediate learning context, which includes factors such as teachers, school climate and materials, and *language learning demotivation* that refers to numerous contextual factors that are also external to learners.

2.4.1. Second language (L2) vs. Foreign language (FL)

As shown above, motivation to learn a language is quite a complex phenomenon. "A theory of student motivation (…) [has] to include many concepts and their interrelationships. Any theory based on a single concept, whether that concept is reinforcement, self-worth, optimal motivation, or something else, will be insufficient to deal with the complexity of classroom activities" (Weiner, 1984: 18 as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:9).

This is why we present differences between FL and L2 as each of them offers a different learning context. Ringbom (http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED269973.pdf) states that both **second-language acquisition (SLA)** and **foreign-language learning (FLL)** refer to the learning process which takes place inside the learner, signifying thus the degree of consciousness with which one learns. The distinction between SLA and FLL is mainly focused on the learning situation. In a second-language acquisition situation, the learner has good opportunities to use the language by participating in natural communication situations since the language is spoken in the immediate environment. The foreign-language learning situation includes mass media providing opportunities for practicing receptive skills, although the learner has little or no opportunities to use the language in a natural communication situation. This type of learning may also be supplemented by classroom teaching. But beside the learning situation, there are a few other variables that need to be taken into account (see Table 1).

Table 1. Situational differences between SLA and FLL by Ringbom (https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED269973)

Variable	SLA	FLL
1. Time	More time is spent on acquisition.	Less time can be spent on learning.
2. Input	Compared to FLL, the input is rich and varied. The learner is exposed to samples of language which are little organized.	The learner is exposed to highly structured, selected and sequenced input.
3. Teacher's role	Mainly unguided discovery: acquisition from peers, possibly supplemented by classroom teaching.	Guided discovery: the learning mainly takes place in artificial classroom situations and/or by study at home. Little or hardly any learning from peers.
4. Skills	A genuine need for oral communication exists: the oral skills are all-important. Comprehension of natural speech is particularly important from the very beginning.	The dependence on written material in an average classroom situation and the absence of a genuine need for communication make oral skills less important. The sequencing of skills depends on the aims and the methods of the course.

As shown above, **second language (L2)** and **foreign language (FL)** differ in the amount of time necessary for mastering the language, the input or spoken language/written materials used in the process, none or some of the teacher's intervention, and usage of individuals' speaking and reading/writing skills. Still, when applied to a real life situation things are slightly different. Gardner thus explains that much of his research was done in Canada and described as involving only second language learning: "This is because most of our research involves Canadians learning either French or English, and both French and English are official languages in Canada" (2001:2). However, Gardner himself admits, that it was not the case that French or English were readily available in individuals' environments. He points out the importance of distinction between the two types, because "if we were to use the defining characteristics of availability to distinguish between second and foreign language learning, much of the research I [Gardner] have done would have to be characterized as involving a foreign language" (Gardner, 2001:2). Despite that, Gardner decided to use the term "second language acquisition, not meaning to imply that the other language is necessarily dominant or readily available to the student, but

rather that it is another language" (2001:2-3). Dörnyei (2001, 2003, 2005) too has done a number of research involving foreign language learning (Hungarian setting, where English is a foreign language), but continued using term second language in his works. With respect to those linguists and taking into account the Croatian context, which will be further elaborated in this work, we will be using term FL throughout the rest of this work.

2.4.2. English as an FL outside the classroom

Languages are not learned only inside the classroom so we introduce term **English outside the classroom** as all aspects of the English language that students are exposed to outside of school – another context influencing acquisition of a language. As we are being influenced by a number of learning sources and materials (that may not seem to be educational at first) from outside the classroom, the Natural Approach shows how beneficial these can be. *The Natural Approach* was based on Stephen Krashen's theory about SLA. It was developed by Krashen and Tracy Terell in the early 1980s, consisting of five key pedagogical hypotheses. In short, the *Acquisition – Learning Hypothesis* defines learning and acquisition. While learning is explicit, done on purpose and relates to some rules, acquisition refers to accidental development of knowledge that one is not aware of – much like learning new words while listening to music or practicing speaking while trying to answer to someone who asked for directions, outside the classroom. Based on first language research where Krashen and Terell (1984) found similarities in the order, in which children learned grammatical structures, the *Natural Order Hypothesis* states that grammar is learned in one predictable order. Third, the *Monitor Hypothesis* defines the role of conscious learning: Krashen and Terell (1984) say that learned knowledge is based on rules and certain structures that 'monitor' our language output and thus prevent a natural, spontaneous conversation. The *Input Theory* states that we do not learn but acquire the language by understanding information or data that is just beyond our current level of knowledge (input or current knowledge + something just above that level = i + 1). Finally, the *Affective Filter Hypothesis* denotes that a learner first has to have an integrative motivation (wants to be like, or fit in to a certain culture). In case it is not so, an 'affective filter' restricts ones desire to learn. Krashen (1984) also claims that this particular 'filter' is at highest peak in puberty. To our specific subject of learning English outside the classroom, three particular hypotheses are of great importance: the Acquisition – Learning hypothesis (according to which accidental learning can happen from any source outside the classroom), the Monitor hypothesis (even when using new learned structures i.e. picking up phrases from native speakers, the previously learned rules

still monitor our production of language) and the Input hypothesis (which is actually not limited to just that one level above our current level of knowledge, because theoretically any exposure to a FL can lead to acquiring certain areas of a language).

In his essay, Mark A. Pegrum (2000) claims that exposing students to the outside world, which he symbolically finds as an extension to the EFL classroom, has an important function as preview of a realistic language input that can establish a meaningful learning context and even increase students' motivation. In this way, we construct an 'associative bridge between the classroom and the world'. Pegrum also states that the 'outside world tasks' might be more appropriate for intermediate or advanced students, but there are still 'compelling reasons' for one to - 'embark on such activities from a very early stage in the learning process'. Still, there are problems that might arouse from such activities. Since they are not teacher supervised, there is a chance students will not understand potential learning situation and thus will learn little or even nothing. Moreover, students' lack of competence could lead to no confidence when one is supposed to act and thus result in a failed attempt or even worse, demotivation. To sum up, everything outside the classroom that is related to English language in some way, when evaluated appropriate by the learner himself, can and let us add should, be used as a learning source. Some of these sources include books, music, TV, interacting with people/native speakers outside the classroom etc. English learners in Croatia have considerable contact with the English language and culture through media, so that this context may be described as having many features of L2 learning context (Pavičić Takač & Bagarić Medve, 2015).

2.5. Research on Motivation in the Croatian Context

Jelena Mihaljević Djigunović is probably one of the most important researchers of language learning motivation in Croatia. In her research from 1998 she identified three types of motivation and two demotivators. **Pragmatic-communicative motivation** refers to the usage of the language for the sake of communication. **Affective motivation** refers to students' aesthetic and emotional view of the language. **Integrative motivation** implies that a student has a desire to assimilate into groups whose members use English as a native language. The first demotivator, **classroom environment** is based on a negative evaluation of a specific classroom situation (teacher, materials or lectures) while **learning difficulties** denote personal difficulties and impairments while learning a language. Her research shows that successful learning is closely related to only pragmatic-communicative motivation.

As introductions to their own study Mihaljević Djigunović & Bagarić (2007) report about an FL longitudinal research among young learners of English, French, German and Italian. It is stated that initial highly positive attitudes can remain so under favorable conditions. The aim of their study was to see how learners of two different FLs feel about respective FL, language learning and themselves as language learners. The sample consisted of 220 participants aged 14 and 18 (107 of them attended last year of primary school while the other 113 attended final year of secondary school) from eastern Croatia (the Osijek region). The instrument used was a 3 part questionnaire consisting of demographic info, 14 statements eliciting participants' attitudes and motivation to learn English/German, and two open ended questions about students' likes/dislikes about their classes. Results showed that learners differed in their attitudes and motivation in that it changed over time. Motivation among German students in particular decreased, due to low linguistic self-confidence. Mihaljević Djigunović explains that English and German simply have different immediate learning environments and out of school language learning contexts. The results thus picture a consequence of the English language and its increasing presence in the media (TV, radio, press, internet etc.). Out of class exposure to English thus enables learners of English, in contrast to learners of German, to acquire the language unconsciously. Exposure to a language also stimulates automatic language production which again helps learners to acquire a language. Results show that the teaching process did not motivate either group of the learners to use the language. Still, learners expressed a wish for more opportunities where they could elaborate their own opinion, which goes to show that they are aware of the language output which enables a purposeful language use.

Pavičić Takač & Berka (2014) conducted a research that tried to determine and compare types and intensity of motivation among learners attending grammar and vocational secondary school in Osijek, Croatia. They used Mihaljević Djigunović's (1998) theoretical framework and her *Types and Intensity of Motivation for learning EFL Questionnaire*. The sample comprised of 541 students (207 students attending vocational school and 334 students attending grammar school) aged between 15 and 19. Their total average English grade was 3.68 (3.77 among grammar school students and 3.53 among vocational school students). The results showed to be in line with the previous research. Grammar school learners thus showed to have a higher level of motivation then their peers from vocational school. Regardless of the school type they attended, students with higher grades showed a higher level of motivation. Pragmatic-communicative communication showed highest values and the researchers attributed that to the fact that learners perceive English as the language of international community from which they can benefit in the future. Students with high grades also showed a high level of affective

motivation. Less proficient students reported on classroom environment as being more demotivating than learning difficulties. Also, in comparison to vocational school learners, more grammar school students found classroom environment very demotivating.

Next, Anna Martinović (2013) conducted a research aiming at exploring why non-English majors lacked interest and motivation in English courses. Since there was still no adequate questionnaire, she adapted Taguchi et al.'s (2009) motivation questionnaire which consisted of items measuring L2 motivational self-system (L2MSS), interest in English language and L2 anxiety among students. She also wanted to validate the seven scales (intended effort, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, instrumentality – promotion, instrumentality – prevention, interest in English and L2 anxiety) on a Croatian sample. The theoretical framework was based on Dörnyei's (2009) motivational L2 self-system. The sample comprised of total 110 first year students, non-English majors attending the University of Zadar. Results showed that all items used in each subscale were homogenous and that items for each scale measured the same component. Also, each subscales showed satisfactory internal consistency. As a result of these findings, one can conclude that Croatian version of the questionnaire used in this study had good psychometric properties and can be considered a useful instrument in future research concerning L2MSS and L2 motivation.

Pavičić Takač & Bagarić Medve (2015) did a research that tried to find out which L2 motivation concept (Mihaljević Djigunović's (1998) social-psychological theory and Dörnyei's (2009) motivational self-system) is more suitable for the Croatian socio-educational context. The sample was comprised of 468 learners attending Croatian secondary schools (236 students learned English, whereas 232 students learned German). Their age ranged between 15 and 19. Their average foreign language grade was 3.62 (average English grade was 3.63, and average German grade was 3.61). The measuring instruments used in this study included Mihaljević Djigunović's (1998) *Types and Intensity of Motivation for learning EFL Questionnaire* and previously explained L2MSS by Taguchi et al. (2009). The results showed that both instruments measured the same concepts, but each of instruments also measured an additional dimension that the other one could not measure. Both instruments showed to have a predictive validity although L2MSS provided a higher percentage of new information that may be crucial in understanding particular dimensions of L2 motivation. The Types and Intensity Questionnaire on the other hand offers an insight to particular aspects of pragmatic-communicative motives. The researchers concluded that both instruments can be used in empirical research in Croatian context, depending on one's research aims.

3. Motivation, English outside the Classroom and SLA

The following section brings an overview of research we found relevant to our subject of investigation.

MacLeod and Larsson (2011) conducted a research on the effect of exposure to English outside the classroom on Swedish students. They used Krashen and Terell's Natural Approach, as their theoretical basis because "these hypotheses give weight to our inference that materials from the outside world, within popular culture, can be of benefit to the development of student L2 language skills" (MacLeod and Larsson, 2011:9). Such materials included most aspects from media and culture domain. Their research outlines the exposure to English among students between the ages of 14 and 16 in Swedish schools. They used detailed interviews on a total number of eight students. Their aim was first to establish the nature of English influence on teenagers and then to examine whether this kind of acquisition of knowledge is being used in a formal language learning environment i.e. classroom. Their research shows that English has a great influence on Swedish children, though not to great extent as they expected. Students' receptive acquisition is high, but chances to actively produce the language remain low. Although there are different types of media that are being used in the classroom, students do not find it relevant or interesting.

In her research, Sandquist (2009) examined possible effects of extramural English (English outside the classroom) on oral proficiency and vocabulary. The study was based on data collected over a period of one year, on a total number of 80 Swedish learners of ESL aged between 15 and 16 years. Extramural English was measured with the help of a questionnaire and two language diaries where students recorded how much time they spent on specific activities. Speech data were collected with the help of five interactional speaking tests resulting in an overall grade for oral proficiency. Students' vocabulary was measured with scores based on two written vocabulary tests. Results showed that the total amount of time spent on EE correlated positively and significantly with both learners' level of oral proficiency and size of their vocabulary. Still, there was a stronger correlation between English related activities and vocabulary. Results also showed that three particular activities (video games, the Internet, reading) i.e. productive activities, had greater impact on oral proficiency and vocabulary than other activities where students could stay more passive (music, TV, film). Sandquist also identified an important gender difference: boys spent significantly more time using top three activities. She concludes that extramural English is 'an independent variable and a possible path

to progress in English for any learner, regardless of his or her socioeconomic background' (2009: i).

4. Exploring the Relationship between Motivation and Exposure to EFL outside the Classroom

The following section reports on the study investigating the relationship between motivational orientations and exposure to EFL outside the classroom in the Croatian context.

4.1. Aim

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between motivation and English language used outside the classroom among high school students. The following are the research questions:

I. What is the predominant type of motivational orientation among participants?
II. Which is the strongest demotivator?
III. Do participants evaluate communication with NS beneficial to their motivation?
IV. What is the relationship between participants' English mark and their level of motivation?
V. What is the difference in motivation among learners attending different grades of high school?
VI. What is the relationship between the level of motivation and the amount of English language activities participants engaged in?
VII. What is the relationship between participants' self-evaluation of language skills and the amount of English language activities they participate in?
VIII. Do students who have visited English speaking countries have higher levels of motivation?

4.2. Methodology

4.2.1. Defining the context

The context in which our study was situated was a secondary grammar school in the Croatian socio-educational setting. Students can enroll such school upon finishing an eight year long primary school that has English as a mandatory subject throughout the final four years. Grammar

schools provide students with general education by offering a balanced ratio of science, humanities and languages, where English is a mandatory school subject throughout all four years. Depending on the Programme students enroll(math oriented, general, or language oriented) the number of their English classes range from 2 to 5 a week (i.e. 70 to 175 classes a year) in this particular grammar school. When it comes to being exposed to English outside the school, most students who learn English in Croatia have little or no direct contact with native speakers, but do interact considerably with non-native speakers of English. Also, students as young people have frequent contact with English and the culture of various English speaking communities through the media. In fact, the context of learning English in Croatia displays many features of an L2 learning context in terms of the amount and quality of input readily available outside classroom. (Pavičić Takač & Bagarić Medve, 2015).

4.2.2. Sample

The sample comprised a total of 403 high-school students attending *Gimnazija Petar Preradović* in Virovitica. Participants' age ranged between 14 and 18 (M=16.24, SD=1.20). Of the 403 participants, 258 (64%) were female and 145 (36%) were male. The ratio between male and female students was thus 1 : 2, meaning that there was almost twice more female students, compared to male students. As shown in Table 2, students participating in the study were attending the first, second, third and fourth grade of high school, with almost identical distribution among groups. The average English language mark students had acquired at the end of the previous academic year was very good (M = 4.34, SD = .83). In the Croatian educational system, 5 is the highest possible mark, 2 lowest passing mark and 1 a failing mark.

Table 2. Participants by grade they attended

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1st	100	24.8	24.8	24.8
	2nd	103	25.6	25.6	50.4
Valid	3rd	103	25.6	25.6	75.9
	4th	97	24.1	24.1	100.0
	Total	403	100	100	

4.2.3. Instruments

A battery of instruments was used in the study: *Types and Intensity of Motivation for learning EFL Questionnaire* by Mihaljević Djigunović (1998), which is an adapted Croatian version of Robert C. Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (see Appendix 1), Croatian version of the Language Contact Profile (Freed et al., 2004) (see Appendix 2) and the Background Demographic Form. All of the questionnaires were given in Croatian in order to avoid any misunderstanding and time loss. Also, all of the questionnaires but the Background Demographic Form had Likert-type scales that asses the degree to which participants agree or disagree with the statement given.

The *Types and Intensity of Motivation for learning EFL Questionnaire* is a 38-item questionnaire measuring motivation type and intensity level when learning English language. Negatively stated variables in the questionnaire (items 4, 14, 27 and 31) were first key-reversed and then grouped with other variables as following: **pragmatic-communicative type of motivation** (items 1, 6, 9, 13, 19, 23, 26, 29, 33, 35, 37 and 38), **affective type of motivation** (items 2, 7, 11, 16, 21 and 27), **integrative type of motivation** (items 5,12, 25 and 30), **classroom environment** – demotivator 1 (items 4,8, 14, 17, 20, 28, 31, 34 and 36) and **learning difficulties** – demotivator 2 (items 3, 10, 13, 18, 22, 24 and 32). These were used as variables in the study. The internal reliability coefficient for results acquired with this questionnaire was .783 as measured by Cronbach's alpha.

The Croatian version of the Language Contact Profile was adapted for the purposes of the present study. The questionnaire consists of two parts. In part one, students had to list their former experiences with English language (how long they studied the language in pre-school, primary school, high school and outside the school; list English speaking countries they had been to as well as countries where people use it but is not an official language) and had to evaluate their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Part two consisted of five questions (25 items) that examined the frequency of students' usage of English (in any form) outside the classroom and two questions that examined their willingness to communicate with native speakers and its effect on their motivation. The internal reliability coefficient for results acquired with this questionnaire was .867 as measured by Cronbach's alpha.

In the Background Demographic form, participants were asked to write down class they were in (1st, 2nd, 3rd or 4th), their gender, age and their English grade at the end of the previous school year.

4.2.4. Procedure

In order to do the research, we contacted the Gimnazija Petar Preradović's headmistress and asked for permission to conduct the study. Upon granted permission and following the previous arrangement, we attended regular class lectures. Students were first informed about the purpose of the research, assured that it was completely anonymous and asked if they were willing to participate. Upon agreement, they were given thorough instructions in Croatian before having been administered the surveys. It took them approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaires. The research was conducted in the period between 16th and 22nd of December 2014. Once the data was collected, we entered it into the IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Statistics. For this research we used descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and t-tests.

4.3. Results and Discussion

The first research question was What is the predominant type of motivational orientation among the participants? Table 3 shows three types of motivation and two demotivators that are specific for the Croatian setting, according to Mihaljević-Djigunović (1998). As presented below, all three types of motivation had quite high values, which mean that participants displayed positive attitudes towards English as a language, its usage as a means of communication, and towards the fact that it might be useful in assimilating in that culture at some point in their life. Pragmatic-communicative motivation had the highest mean value (M = 4.22, SD = .62) due to the context, where English is usually used in order to communicate and in different personal errands. Students are exposed to and interact with the English language on a daily basis, whether it is watching TV, listening to music, browsing internet, chatting with foreign friends and family or simply reading news, books and instructions on products.

What comes as a slight but pleasant surprise is the fact how affective motivation closely follows. With a mean value of 4.11 (SD = .86) it signifies that besides being useful in everyday situations, students simply really like English as a language. As researchers and future English teachers, this fact makes us very proud and content. Integrative motivation's mean value (M = 3.12, SD = 1.01) reads that students 'neither agree nor disagree' with the fact that they might need the language in order to adopt English culture lifestyle at some point in the future. The results thus show that pragmatic-communicative motivation has the highest values, which only confirms the previous research (Mihaljević Djigunović, 1998; Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014).

The second research question was Which is the strongest demotivator? *The* results show that neither of the demotivators had values too high. Still, classroom environment (Mean = 2.59, SD = .95) seems to be more of an issue than learning difficulties (Mean = 1.88, SD = .81). It means that students had fewer problems with their personal lack of pre-knowledge, studying after a bad grade, anxiety, liking another language better or bad general opinion, when it comes to putting them off of studying English. Their teacher, bad lectures, teaching methods, grading system and materials thus become the main obstacle in learning.

Table 3. Motivation and demotivators

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Pragmatic-communicative motivation	1	5	4.22	.62
Affective motivation	1	5	4.11	.86
Integrative motivation	1	5	3.12	1.01
Classroom environment	1	5	2.59	.95
Learning difficulties	1	5	1.88	.81

The third research question was Do participants evaluate communication with NS beneficial to their motivation? Being familiar with benefits of communicating with native speakers we were curious on students' view of the matter. When asked if they would be interested in such encounters, 366 students answered affirmatively, which accounts for an impressive 90.8% of participants. Out of a total of 403, only 37 individuals (9.2%) answered that they would not like to communicate with native speakers. Further on, when asked if they found frequent conversations with native speakers would be beneficial to their motivation to learn English, the positive response even increased. Now 375 students (93.1%) answered positively, while 28 students (6.9%) still denied its positive effect to increasing their motivation.

The following results represent background information that help answer further research questions. According to students' reports, their average exposure to English activities outside the classroom was 3.98 (SD = 1.31) which is equivalent to saying 'few hours in several days a week'. This is understandable even though one might expect an everyday interaction with English considering the context. The fact is that everyone, without exception is exposed to everyday presence of mass media reporting news from English speaking countries and one global phenomenon – music. Table 4 shows a list of fifteen English activities students could engage in outside the classroom. Most frequent activity is 'Listening to English songs' (M =

4.64, SD = .82), followed by 'Watching movies in English' (M = 4.10, SD = .86) and 'Watching foreign channels in English' (M = 4.10, SD = 1.14). These values are equivalent to answers 'several times a week' for value 4 and 'every day' for value 5, showing thus a huge impact of English culture and media on everyday life. It is interesting that all top three activities are receptive, meaning that students receive the language passively and (hopefully) understand it. Quite the opposite, students report using English in writing only 'several times a year' to 'several times a month' on average (answers equivalent to values 2 and 3) which we find understandable considering the given context.

Table 4. Practicing English activities outside the classroom

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Watching foreign TV channels in English	1	5	4.10	1.14
Watching English speaking shows on a national television	1	5	3.65	1.32
Watching movies in English	1	5	4.10	.86
Reading newspapers/magazines in English	1	5	2.36	1.24
Reading English language learning magazines	1	5	1.69	1.02
Reading books in English	1	5	1.97	1.08
Reading notes, ads, commercials etc. in English	1	5	3.32	1.34
Reading e-mails or web pages in English	1	5	3.89	1.21
Listening to English songs	1	5	4.64	.82
Listening to radio stations in English	1	5	1.82	1.16
Listening to other people speak English	1	5	2.98	1.30
Writing English language homework	1	5	3.14	1.02
Writing personal messages or letters in English	1	5	2.65	1.27
Writing e-mails in English	1	5	2.27	1.23
Filling in different forms or questionnaires in English	1	5	1.83	.96

Notes. Min =Minimum. Max = Maximum. SD = Standard Deviation. Numeral values stand for following answers: 1 = never, 2 = several times in a year, 3 = several times in a month, 4 = several times in a week, 5 = every day.

When it comes to active use of English in speaking, students' average use is even poorer than in writing. Table 6 shows nine hypothetical everyday situations in which students could use their knowledge of language in a productive skill. Values mostly vary between 1 (equivalent to

'never') and 2 (equivalent to 'several times a year'), which is both striking and expected. Situations listed are exactly described, so it is understandable that some of them do not occur that often. But when reading the results as a whole, it strikes that someone, especially a high school student and considering the fact that English truly is omnipresent, uses English in speaking only several times in a year. What comes as a positive surprise is that students actually very often used material they learned in school outside the classroom and on purpose (M = 3.11, SD = 1.12). The following two activities with highest values are speaking with classmates (M = 3.03, SD = 1.30) and speaking with friends that are really good at English (M = 2.61, SD = 1.35), which was expected.

Table 5. Practicing English language outside the classroom with people

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Speaking English with a native speaker	1	5	1.80	.95
Speaking English with a teacher outside the school	1	5	1.50	.98
Speaking English with friends that are very fluent	1	5	2.61	1.35
Speaking English with classmates	1	5	3.03	1.30
Speaking English with foreigners	1	5	2.10	.87
Speaking English with family members, in case one lived in an English speaking country	1	5	1.24	.64
Speaking English in random situations (bank, train station etc.)	1	5	1.43	.57
Using what is learned (words, grammar, phrases etc.) outside the school intentionally	1	5	3.11	1.12
Asking English teacher for clarification in class about something one learned outside the school	1	5	2.24	1.05

Notes. Min =Minimum. Max = Maximum. SD = Standard Deviation. Numeral values stand for following answers: 1 = never, 2 = several times in a year, 3 = several times in a month, 4 = several times in a week, 5 = every day.

Table 6 shows the results of combining all activities from Tables 5 and 6 into three new variables. The third variable is simply a sum of new variables divided by two. This way we get variables that measure all English related activities, and a value that measures total use of English outside the classroom. According to this, students practice English outside the classroom

with other people only several times in a year, on average (M =1.96, SD = .56). When it comes to using English outside the classroom by themselves, it happens several times in a month (M = 2.96, SD = .62). The results show that students' average use of English outside the classroom ranges to somewhere between several times in a year and several times in a month (M = 2.46, SD = .51, which we find not enough in order to learn a language.

Table 6. Total use of English language outside the classroom

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Practicing English language outside the classroom with people	1.00	3.86	1.96	.56
Practicing English activities outside the classroom	1.47	4.87	2.96	.62
Practicing English language & activities outside the classroom (total)	1.23	4.09	2.46	.51

Notes. Min =Minimum. Max = Maximum. SD = Standard Deviation. Numeral values stand for following answers: 1 = never, 2 = several times in a year, 3 = several times in a month, 4 = several times in a week, 5 = every day.

To sum up the results on English related activities shown above, and specifically the poor use of English outside of school, we find it could be justified and explained with a fact that English is not an official language in the country so there is no direct need for its use.

What we find interesting is the fact that despite practicing English very little, students report on having a high level (equivalent to average value of 4) of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Of the four, reading skill is rated highest (M = 4.40, SD = .83) while writing is lowest (M = 3.91, SD = .98). Table 8 shows their self-assessment that will later be used in further analysis.

Table 7. Students' evaluation of their skills

	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Self-assessment of English listening skills	1	5	4.10	.97
Self-assessment of English speaking skills	1	5	3.97	.97
Self-assessment of English reading skills	1	5	4.40	.83
Self-assessment of English writing skills	1	5	3.91	.98

Notes. Min =Minimum. Max = Maximum. SD = Standard Deviation. Numeral values stand for 1 as very low to 5 as very high.

To cover all possibilities where students could have used their English outside of school, we also asked them if they ever went to a country that had English as an official language, or a country where they had a chance to use it although it was not an official one. Of 403 students, only 30 (7.4%) of them had a chance to visit a country that had English as an official language, as opposed to 373 (92.6%) that never went to such countries. When asked if they ever used English in a country where it was not an official language, 245 (60.8%) reported that they had at least one such experience, while 157 (39%) never went abroad at all (one participant failed to fill in this section). Of those who had a chance to use English while abroad, most of them (104 individuals, 25.8%) characterized such encounters as a simple 'conversation with a tourist/foreigner' while usually staying there for a few (3-6) days (70 individuals, 17.4%).

The fourth research question probed the relationship between learners' English mark and their level of motivation. Table 8 shows correlation results between students' marks and motivation (demotivators). A Pearson Correlation coefficient was computed for all variables to assess the importance of those relationships. There was a positive correlation between students' marks and pragmatic-communicative motivation, $r = .354$, $n = 403$, $p = .000$. These two variables had a statistically significant linear relationship, $p < .01$. Direction of this relationship is positive, meaning that variables tend to increase together (higher mark is associated with higher level of pragmatic-communicative motivation). We also found a positive correlation between students' marks and affective motivation, $r = .440$, $n = 403$, $p = .000$. These two variables also have a statistically significant linear relationship, $p < .01$. Direction of this relationship is positive too, meaning that variables tend to increase together (higher mark is associated with higher level of affective motivation). Correlation between students' marks and integrative motivation was also positive, $r = .304$, $n = 403$, $p = .000$. Same as the previous pairs, these two variables have a statistically significant linear relationship, $p < .01$. Direction of the relationship is positive, meaning that variables tend to increase together (higher mark is associated with higher level of integrative motivation). Overall, results showed there was a strong, positive correlation between English language marks students acquired in a previous academic year and the level of their motivation (all three types of motivation). Reasonably, students with higher proficiency had higher levels of motivation to study the language.

Table 8. Correlation between students' marks and motivation

		English mark at the end of academic year	Pragmatic-communicative motivation	Affective motivation	Integrative motivation	Classroom environment
Pragmatic-communicative motivation	Pearson Correlation	.354**				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
Affective motivation	Pearson Correlation	.440**	.681**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
Integrative motivation	Pearson Correlation	.304**	.581**	.488**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
Classroom environment	Pearson Correlation	-.134**	-.147**	-.207**	.022	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.003	.000	.664	
Learning difficulties	Pearson Correlation	-.461**	-.476**	-.656**	-.233**	.392**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

When it comes to demotivators, we also computed the Pearson Correlation coefficient to measure its relationship with students' marks. Table 9 also shows a negative correlation between students' marks and both demotivators, classroom environment ($r = -.134$, $n = 403$, $p = .007$) and learning difficulties ($r = -.461$, $n = 403$, $p = .000$). Both pairs of variables have a statistically significant linear relationship; $p < .01$ is valid for both pairs. Direction of this relationship is negative, meaning that as one variable increases the other one decrease. Higher marks thus mean lower level of demotivation, while students with poor marks have a higher level of demotivation expressed.

The fifth research question asked about the relationship between the grade learners attended and their level of motivation.

Table 9. Correlation between students' grade and motivation

		Grade	Pragmatic-comm. motivation	Affective motivation	Integrative motivation	Classroom environment
Pragmatic-	Pears. Corr.	-.251[**]				
comm. mot.	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
Affective	Pears. Corr.	-.280[**]	.681[**]			
motivation	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
Integrative	Pears. Corr.	-.313[**]	.581[**]	.488[**]		
motivation	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
Classroom	Pears. Corr.	-.069	-.147[**]	-.207[**]	.022	
environment	Sig. (2-tailed)	.168	.003	.000	.664	
Learning	Pears. Corr.	.172[**]	-.476[**]	-.656[**]	-.233[**]	.392[**]
difficulties	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In order to check whether there was any connection between the level of motivation and different grades students attended, we used correlation analysis as shown in table 9. A Pearson Correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between students' grade and motivation. There was a negative correlation between grades students attended and all types of motivation, pragmatic-communicative motivation ($r = -.251$, $n = 403$, $p = .000$), affective motivation ($r = -.280$, $n = 403$, $p = .000$) and integrative motivation ($r = -.313$, $n = 403$, $p = .000$). All three pairs of variables have a statistically significant linear relationship, $p < .01$. Direction of all

relationships is negative, meaning that as one variable increases the other one decrease. From this, we can read the results saying that the level of motivation decreases as students progress to higher grade i.e. students in lower grades that just started their high school education have a higher level of motivation, as compared to those in higher grades who have lower level of motivation probably due to the fact that they do not find any challenges to test their knowledge.

We also used correlation to check demotivators' effect on students' progression through grades. There was a negative correlation between students' grade and classroom environment, r = -.069, n = 403, p = .168. Still, these two variables do not have a statistically significant relationship, p > .01. Meaning that grades students are attending have no effect to the level of demotivation one might have in a classroom. However, grades correlated with learning difficulties show a positive relationship, r = .172, n =403, p = .001. These variables do have a statistically positive linear relationship, p < .01. Results show that direction of the relationship is negative, meaning that as students progress to higher grades, their learning difficulties reduce i.e. contrary to motivation – students in lower grades that just started their high school education have most problems with learning difficulties. This is quite understandable, given the fact that they are being introduced to a completely new and different school environment, new teachers, tasks etc.

The results of this precise question seem to outline Dörnyei & Ottó's (1998) process model of L2 motivation. To be precise, students through their high school education go through different phases (probably within a shorter time periods too) of a motivational process, and the one we witnessed in our results unfortunately had low motivational influences. Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011) also state that it is perfectly normal for the level of motivation to change through a single task, and where not during four years.

The sixth research question asked about the relationship between the level of motivation and English language activities. Table 10 shows the relationship between motivational orientation and two demotivators, students' activities outside the classroom and their self-assessment of language skills. We will be commenting only the relationship between motivation/demotivators and variable denoting total value of English outside the classroom since the previous two variables (practicing English outside the school and English activities outside the school) show the same results. Pearson Correlation coefficient between English activities and all three types of motivation show a positive relationship; pragmatic-communicative motivation (r = .518, n = 403, p = .000), affective motivation (r = .397, n = 403, p = .000), integrative motivation (r = .391, n = 403, p = .000). All pairs of variables have a positive statistically significant relationship, p < .01.

Results thus show that higher level of motivation means that those students practiced English outside the classroom more often. Also, lower level of motivation led to less practice of English outside the school.

The results from this question seem to picture (Dörnyei, 2001) a cause-effect relation. Namely, at first, it does not seem clear what the cause is and what the effect here is: is the level of motivation cause for the amount of practice, which now becomes effect or is the amount of practice as a cause so beneficial that it results in the effect of high motivation. Dörnyei explains that low motivation can only result in low achievement and high motivation in high achievement, so motivation turns to be a cause of practice – effect.

Table 10. Correlation between motivation, English related activities and students' self-assessment of language skills

		Pragm - comm. Mot.	Aff. Mot.	Integ. Mot.	Class. Env.	Learn. Diff.
Practicing English outside the school	P. Corr.	.360**	.229**	.298**	-.066	-.186**
	Sig. (2-tail)	.000	.000	.000	.186	.000
English activities outside the school	P. Corr.	.529**	.448**	.375**	-.099*	-.336**
	Sig. (2-tail)	.000	.000	.000	.048	.000
English outside the school (total)	P. Corr.	.518**	.397**	.391**	-.096	-.306**
	Sig. (2-tail)	.000	.000	.000	.054	.000
Self-assessment of English listening skills	P. Corr.	.524**	.445**	.259**	-.200**	-.542**
	Sig. (2-tail)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Self-assessment of English speaking skills	P. Corr.	.466**	.498**	.266**	-.081	-.518**
	Sig. (2-tail)	.000	.000	.000	.105	.000
Self-assessment of English reading skills	P. Corr.	.382**	.441**	.140**	-.153**	-.479**
	Sig. (2-tail)	.000	.000	.005	.002	.000
Self-assessment of English writing skills	P. Corr.	.347**	.382**	.155**	-.095	-.431**
	Sig. (2-tail)	.000	.000	.002	.058	.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The first demotivator, classroom situation, shows no statistically significant relationship with English activities (r = -.096, n = 403, p = .054), p > .01. It means that different classroom situations, like materials or teacher, do not affect the frequency of students' use of English outside the classroom. It also means that no matter how often students practiced English outside the classroom it will not improve nor aggravate students' attitude towards classroom environment. When it comes to personal learning difficulties and its relationship to practicing English outside the classroom, there is a negative statistically significant correlation, r = -.306, n = 403, p = .000. This means that the more learning difficulties students have, the less they practice English outside the school. Or, the less they practice English outside the school, the more learning difficulties they have.

The seventh research question was: What is the relationship between participants' self-evaluation of language skills and the amount of English language activities they participate in? Pearson Correlation coefficients show a positive statistically significant correlation between activities and all language skills; self-assessment of listening skills (r = .395, n = 403, p = .000), self-assessment of speaking skills (r = .421, n = 403, p = .000), self-assessment of reading skills (r = .328, n = 403, p = .000) and self-assessment of writing skills (r = .241, n = 403, p = .000). It goes to say that more activities result in higher self-assessment of language skills or vice versa. Also, less practice results in low self-assessment of language skills and reverse.

Finally, the eighth research question asked whether students who had visited English speaking countries had higher level of motivation. An Independent Samples t-Test was used to compare groups of participants that are not related in any way i.e. students that had a chance to use English in a country where it was an official language and students that never visited such countries.

Table 11. Students' visit to English speaking countries and its effect to motivation (Group statistics)

	Visited an English-speaking country	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pragmatic-communicative motivation	no	373	4.19	.62768	.03250
	yes	30	4.52	.41288	.07538
Affective motivation	no	373	4.10	.86053	.04456
	yes	30	4.34	.82407	.15045
Integrative motivation	no	373	3.10	1.01675	.05265
	yes	30	3.37	.95080	.17359
Classroom situation	no	373	2.56	.92724	.04801
	yes	30	2.95	1.12774	.20590
Learning difficulties	no	373	1.87	.80049	.04145
	yes	30	2.04	.92365	.16863

Notes. SD = Standard Deviation. Numeral values stand for following answers: 1 = never, 2 = several times in a year, 3 = several times in a month, 4 = several times in a week, 5 = every day.

Table 11 shows the average level of each motivational orientation and two demotivators among students, which we discussed previously. As previously stated, only 30 students had a chance to visit a country where English was an official language, as opposed to 373 students who never visited such countries.

Table 12. Students' visit to English speaking countries and its effect to motivation (Independent Samples Test)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pragmatic-comm. motivation	Equal var. assumed	5.620	.018	-2.841	401	.005	-.33143	.11665	-.56075	-.10211
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.037	40.674	.000	-.33143	.08209	-.49725	-.16561
Affective motivation	Equal var. assumed	.092	.762	-1.489	401	.137	-.24237	.16282	-.56245	.07771
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.545	34.289	.132	-.24237	.15691	-.56116	.07641
Integrative motivation	Equal var. assumed	.889	.346	-1.396	401	.163	-.26814	.19208	-.64574	.10946
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.478	34.557	.148	-.26814	.18140	-.63657	.10029
Classroom situation	Equal var. assumed	3.509	.062	-2.153	401	.032	-.38544	.17899	-.73732	-.03357
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.823	32.232	.078	-.38544	.21142	-.81597	.04508
Learning difficulties	Equal var. assumed	1.321	.251	-1.126	401	.261	-.17308	.15372	-.47528	.12912
	Equal variances not assumed			-.997	32.600	.326	-.17308	.17365	-.52654	.18039

Pragmatic-communicative motivation is the only variable where Levene's test for equality of variance is significant, which means that the result from the bottom row should be interpreted. There is a significant difference in the level of pragmatic-communicative motivation between students who had visited English countries and those who had not. The differences in the levels of other motivational orientation and one of the demotivators (learning conditions) between the two groups of learners were not significant (Table 12).

However, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in the level of classroom situation as a demotivator. Thus, students who had visited English-speaking countries report on having fewer problems with classroom environment (teacher, lectures, tests) as opposed to those who had not.

5. Conclusions

As shown throughout this work, language learning is a complex process that is constantly influenced by numerous factors (cognitive, affective and social). This paper explored the relationship between motivation and EFL outside the classroom. Motivation was conceptualised as consisting of three types of motivation (pragmatic-communicative motivation, affective motivation and integrative motivation) and two demotivators (classroom environment and learning difficulties). EFL outside the classroom was based on participants' former experiences (the length of studying of English, visit to a foreign country, valuation of language skills) and frequency of English usage outside the class in any form.

The results showed that pragmatic-communicative motivation had highest values, being followed by affective motivation. Further on, classroom environment proved to be the strongest demotivator. An impressive 93.1% of students (or 375 individuals) stated that they do think that frequent interaction with native speakers would be beneficial to their motivation. Although it can be discussed what comes first, the fact is that higher motivation results in more English activities. Still, no matter how much learners engage in practicing English outside the classroom, it will not change their attitude towards classroom environment. However, more learning difficulties will result in less practice and vice versa. Next, more English activities result in higher self-assessment while less practice then has to result in low self-assessment of language skills. Finally, visit to an English speaking country resulted in higher level of just pragmatic-communicative motivation, and less problems with classroom environment.

To sum up, we find that this study showed and proved a positive relationship between motivation and engaging in EFL activities outside the classroom, because different English related activities can increase motivation to learn the language. And let us conclude our work with this quote: "In the global world we live in, the English language is present in almost every domain of human life and knowledge of English has become a necessity, not a luxury" (Pavičić Takač & Berka, 2014: 78). With that in mind and knowing what we know about both concepts, it is safe to say that "research on L2 motivation goes on" (Dörnyei, 2005).

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Appendix 1.

UPITNIK O MOTIVACIJI ZA UČENJE ENGLESKOG JEZIKA

Draga učenice/dragi učeniče!

Pred tobom se nalazi upitnik za mjerenje tipa i intenziteta motivacije za učenje engleskoga kao stranog jezika. Upitnik je anoniman pa te molim da budeš potpuno iskren/iskrena. Dobiveni rezultati će se koristiti isključivo za potrebe pisanja diplomskog rada.

Zaokruži ili dopuni odgovor.

1. Škola: _____ **2.**

Razred:_____

3. Spol: M   Ž   (zaokružite)   **4.** Dob: _____

godina

5. Upiši ocjenu iz engleskog jezika koju si imao/imala na kraju prošle školske godine: _____

Sada te molim te da pažljivo pročitaš sve stavke u ovom upitniku i ocijeniš (od 1 do 5) KOLIKO se sa svakom tvrdnjom ti osobno slažeš. Molim te da ne preskočiš niti jednu stavku. Sve se tvrdnje odnose na ENGLESKI jezik.

Pritom brojevi imaju ova značenja: 1 = uopće se ne slažem

2 = djelomično se slažem

3 = niti se slažem niti se ne slažem

4 = prilično se slažem

5 = potpuno se slažem

1.	Engleski mi omogućava da komuniciram s mnogo stranaca.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	Engleski je vrlo zanimljiv jezik.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	Na satu engleskoga stalno sam u panici jer znam da ništa neću razumjeti kad me nastavnik/ca pita.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	Nastavnik/ca engleskoga motivira me na učenje.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	Želim postati sličan/slična Englezima, Amerikancima itd.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	Engleski mi omogućava da čitam strane časopise.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	Engleski je vrlo lijep jezik.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	Ne sviđaju mi se metode predavanja naše(g) nastavnika/ce.	1 2 3 4 5
9.	Engleski će mi pomoći u daljnjem školovanju.	1 2 3 4 5
10.	Moje je predznanje tako malo da bih nešto mogao/mogla naučiti jedino da počnem od početka (a to, dakako, ne mogu).	1 2 3 4 5
11.	Volim izgovarati engleske riječi.	1 2 3 4 5
12.	Želim se oženiti osobom iz SAD-a, Velike Britanije itd.	1 2 3 4 5

13.	Dobio/dobila sam lošu ocjenu pa nemam volje učiti.	1 2 3 4 5
14.	Engleski često koristim za razgovor sa strancima.	1 2 3 4 5
15.	Engleski često koristim za razgovor sa strancima.	1 2 3 4 5
16.	Sviđaju mi se engleske riječi.	1 2 3 4 5
17.	Naš/a nastavnik/ca nepravedno ocjenjuje.	1 2 3 4 5
18.	Radije učim nešto korisnije od engleskog jezika.	1 2 3 4 5
19.	Engleski će mi pomoći u budućem zanimanju.	1 2 3 4 5
20.	Da je nastava zanimljivija, imao/imala bih volju učiti.	1 2 3 4 5
21.	Engleski jezik vrlo lijepo zvuči.	1 2 3 4 5
22.	Radije bih učio/učila neki drugi strani jezik.	1 2 3 4 5
23.	Engleski nam pomaže da postanemo dio svijeta.	1 2 3 4 5
24.	Engleski je pretežak za mene.	1 2 3 4 5
25.	Želim znati engleski da bih mogao/mogla živjeti u SAD, Velikoj Britaniji itd.	1 2 3 4 5
26.	Engleski mi koristi u svakodnevnom životu za razumijevanje pop glazbe, filmova i sl.	1 2 3 4 5
27.	Engleski je glup jezik.	1 2 3 4 5
28.	Naš/a nastavnik/ca nije motiviran/a za rad s nama.	1 2 3 4 5
29.	S engleskim mogu proširiti svoju opću kulturu.	1 2 3 4 5
30.	Želim jednog dana posjetiti rođake/prijatelje u SAD-u, Australiji itd. pa će mi engleski dobro doći.	1 2 3 4 5
31.	Nastavni materijali potiču me na učenje.	1 2 3 4 5
32.	Roditelji me tjeraju da učim engleski.	1 2 3 4 5
33.	S engleskim mogu putovati po cijelom svijetu.	1 2 3 4 5
34.	Ne učim engleski jer imam lošeg/u nastavnika/cu.	1 2 3 4 5
35.	Sa znanjem engleskoga mogao/mogla bih čitati književna djela u originalu.	1 2 3 4 5
36.	Naš/a nastavnik/ca previše pozornosti daje dobrim učenicima.	1 2 3 4 5
37.	Engleski mi katkad koristi da prevedem upute dobivene uz aparate (npr. kućanske).	1 2 3 4 5
38.	Želim znati engleski da bih više saznao/saznala o životu Engleza, Amerikanaca, Australaca itd.	1 2 3 4 5

1 = uopće se ne slažem

2 = djelomično se slažem

3 = niti se slažem niti se ne slažem

4 = prilično se slažem

5 = potpuno se slažem

Hvala ti na sudjelovanju!

Appendix 2.

UPITNIK O NAČINU USVAJANJA ENGLESKOG JEZIKA

Draga učenice/dragi učeniče!

Informacije koje ćeš dati u ovom upitniku bit će mi dragocjena pomoć u istraživanju načina usvajanja engleskoga jezika kod srednjoškolskih učenika. Upitnik je anoniman pa te molim za iskrene i detaljne odgovore. Pitanja su kombiniranog tipa. U većini pitanja potrebno je odabrati jedan ili više ponuđenih odgovora. U nekim je pitanjima potrebno dopuniti, obrazložiti ili dati opširniji odgovor. Ako ti nešto nije jasno, podizanjem ruke pozovi ispitivača. Dobiveni rezultati će se koristiti isključivo za potrebe pisanja diplomskog rada.

1. DIO

1. Koliko godina učiš ili si učio/la engleski jezik (u školi ili izvan nje) i koliko intenzivno se njime baviš ili si se bavio/la (otprilike koliko sati tjedno)?

Vrtić		Osnovna škola		Srednja škola		Izvan škole	
Broj godina	Sati tjedno	Broj godina	Sati tjedno	Broj godina	Sati tjedno	Broj godina	Sati tjedno

2a. Jesi li ikada bio/la u zemlji u kojoj se engleski govori kao službeni?   □ da   □ ne
2b. Ako da, gdje točno? _____
2c. Kada? _____ **2d.** Koliko
dugo?_____

3. Jesi li ikada bio/la u zemlji u kojoj se engleski jezik <u>ne govori</u>, ali si mu ipak bio/la izložen/a (npr. na odmoru, u posjeti obitelji s čijim članovima ste komunicirali na tom jeziku i sl.)?

□ da   □ ne

3a. Ako da, molim te popuni donju tablicu:

	Jezično iskustvo 1	Jezično iskustvo 2	Jezično iskustvo 3
Zemlja			
Svrha			
Od kada do kada			

4. U donjoj tablici, upisivanjem ocjene <u>od 1 (vrlo niska razina) do 5 (vrlo visoka razina)</u> procijeni razinu svojih jezičnih znanja i sposobnosti u engleskom jeziku.

Slušanje	Govorenje	Čitanje	Pisanje

2. DIO

5. Koliko si često, u prosjeku, <u>izvan škole</u> izložen/a engleskom jeziku? Upiši znak x uz odabrani odgovor.

Nikada	Nekoliko sati mjesečno	Nekoliko sati tjedno	Nekoliko dana po nekoliko sati	Svaki dan po nekoliko sati

6. S kim si do sada i koliko često govorio/la engleskim jezikom? U tablici upiši znak x uz odabrani odgovor prema ljestvici.

OSOBA:	1 nikada	2 nekoliko puta godišnje	3 nekoliko puta mjesečno	4 nekoliko puta tjedno	5 svaki dan
Izvorni govornik					
Profesor engleskog izvan škole					
Prijatelji koji tečno govore engleski					
Učenici (prijatelji) iz razreda					
Stranci koji govore engleski					
Članovi obitelji, ukoliko ste živjeli u zemlji u kojoj se govori engleski					
Osoblje (npr. u banci, na kolodvoru)					

7. Procijeni koliko često, u prosjeku, provodiš vremena <u>izvan škole</u> baveći se sljedećim aktivnostima na engleskom jeziku? U tablici upiši znak x uz odabrani odgovor prema ljestvici:

AKTIVNOST:	1 nikada	2 nekoliko puta godišnje	3 nekoliko puta mjesečno	4 nekoliko puta tjedno	5 svaki dan
a. Gledanje stranih televizijskih programa na engleskom					
b. Gledanje emisija na engleskom na hrvatskoj televiziji					
c. Gledanje filmova na engleskom					
d. Čitanje novina/časopisa na engleskom					
e. Čitanje časopisa za učenje engleskom					
f. Čitanje knjiga na engleskom					
g. Čitanje obavijesti, rasporeda, reklama i sl. na engleskom					
h. Čitanje elektronske pošte ili Internet					

	1 nikada	2 nekoliko puta godišnje	3 nekoliko puta mjesečno	4 nekoliko puta tjedno	5 svaki dan
stranica na engleskom					
i. Slušanje pjesama na engleskom					
j. Slušanje radio emisija na engleskom					
k. Slušanje razgovora drugih ljudi na engleskom					
l. Pisanje domaćih zadaća na engleskom					
	1 nikada	**2** nekoliko puta godišnje	**3** nekoliko puta mjesečn o	**4** nekoliko puta tjedno	**5** svaki dan
m. Pisanje osobnih poruka ili pisama					
n. Pisanje elektronske pošte					
o. Ispunjavanje obrazaca, upitnika i sl.					

8. Koliko često ono što si naučio/la u školi (npr. riječi, gramatiku, izraze i sl.) namjerno rabiš u razgovoru izvan škole? Zaokruži odgovarajući broj na ljestvici.
1 - nikada
2 - nekoliko puta godišnje
3 - nekoliko puta mjesečno
4 - nekoliko puta tjedno
5 - svaki dan

9. Koliko si često o onome što si naučio/la izvan škole postavio/la pitanje ili potaknuo/la razgovor na nastavi engleskog jezika? Zaokruži odgovarajući broj na ljestvici.
1 - nikada
2 - nekoliko puta godišnje
3 - nekoliko puta mjesečno
4 - nekoliko puta tjedno
5 – svaki dan

10. Bi li volio/voljela češće komunicirati s izvornim govornicima?
□ da   □ ne

11. Smatraš li da bi češći kontakt s izvornim govornicima pozitivno utjecao na tvoju motivaciju za učenje engleskog jezika?
□ da   □ ne

Hvala ti na sudjelovanju!