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## **EXTRA-CURRICULAR EXPOSURE: SOURCES, TYPES AND IMPACTS**

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**Abstract:**

The present thesis discusses sources, types and impacts of extra-curricular exposure, focusing primarily on formal ways of learning English outside of a classroom, private lessons and private language schools.

The first part of the thesis provides us with a theoretical background of major research areas directly or indirectly connected to the thesis, such as motivation, shadow education, globalization and englishization, informal exposure, lifelong learning and equality of educational opportunities.

The second part of the thesis is the description of the study on formal and informal exposure to English outside of school.

*Keywords:* extra-curricular exposure, private lessons, private language schools, shadow education, rural and urban contexts

# 1 INTRODUCTION

In this diploma paper, we will discuss some of the sources of extracurricular exposure to learning English as a foreign language. We will in more detail define some of its types and its impact on the learners' attitudes and opinions about the English language. We will pay special attention to the ways of formal learning of English outside of school: namely, private lessons and lessons in specialized schools for learning foreign languages, which we will, further on in this paper, refer to as private language schools.

We will start by defining and explaining the main factor that affects foreign language learners in general: motivation. Moreover, we will explore the terms of shadow education and lifelong learning which are tightly connected to education, and are an important factor in the topics researched in our thesis. In connection with the various types of extra-curricular exposure, we will first focus on informal exposure. However, we will pay special attention to formal extra-curricular exposure, namely private lessons and private language schools. We will try to discover the percentage of pupils consuming these formal extra-curricular types of learning English, and how the two formal types differ concerning the teachers, the materials used, and the frequency and continuity of extra-curricular exposure. Furthermore, we will explore the motivation behind taking private lessons or going to language schools. We will also investigate the impacts of formal extracurricular exposure on the feeling of improvement, as well as on school grades.

We will, moreover, focus on another important issue examined in the research concerning the difference between the urban and the rural environment: that of class affiliation. Class affiliation is an important factor not only in alternative ways of language learning, but also one of the main factors of success in education in general.

The topic of formal ways of extracurricular exposure, especially the field of private language schools, is still underresearched, especially if we take into consideration the fact that English is becoming a *lingua franca*, and that the use and knowledge of English is becoming essential, for young people as well as for people who have already finished their formal education.

In our research we paid special attention to the abovementioned factors. In this diploma paper we will connect these factors to extracurricular ways of language learning and present our results.

In our thesis we would like to prove that class affiliation influences the pupils' grades in English, their attitude towards it, and their inclination to use formal extracurricular ways of learning English. Also, we hypothesise that pupils who decide to take private lessons are motivated mainly by raising their grade, and that pupils who decide to enrol into a language school do it primarily because they want to learn English regardless of their grade. In connection to this, we think that the length of attending private lessons will on average be shorter than that of attending private language schools. Furthermore, we believe that teachers in private language schools will in a certain number of cases be more highly qualified than private tutors.

## **2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **2.1 Motivation**

Motivation has been defined in many different ways: Robert Gardner (2010) mentions a categorized list comprising 102 motivational definitions. Therefore, we can see that this is not an easy concept to delineate. However, in this chapter we will examine some of the various facets, aspects, and types of motivation related to second language acquisition.

Gardner bases his discussions of motivation on the socio-educational model of second language acquisition, which posits that the learning of a second language involves taking on features of another cultural community. This model also takes into account the fact that the individual's openness or ability to take on features of another community necessarily is an important part of the second language learning process. This openness on the part of the learner is reflected in the concept of integrativeness and is related to the aspect of second language learning called the cultural component. As we can see, such an approach places great emphasis on the highly significant connection between language and culture, as well as the consequences that this connection has on the process of learning a second language. The socio-educational model, therefore, also makes a distinction between language learning, as the development of knowledge and skill that permits varying degrees of communication with others, and language acquisition, which involves making the language part of the self (Gardner, 2010).

It was under the influence of the socio-educational model, then, that Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert identified two determining factors of motivation – learners' communicative needs and their attitudes towards the second language community (Skehan, 1989) – and coined the terms designating two types of motivation: instrumental motivation



and integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation refers to language learning for more immediate or practical goals, whereas integrative motivation is related to language learning for personal growth and cultural enrichment.

Gardner also mentions other important elements of language learning motivation that form part of the socio-educational model. For instance, in researching motivation, there are three main components that are usually assessed: the desire to learn the language, attitudes toward learning the language, and motivational intensity (i.e., the effort extended to learn the language) (Gardner, 2010). He, moreover, distinguishes between two aspects of motivation: language learning motivation and language classroom motivation.

Gardner's term of integrativeness had been very influential and perhaps the most researched and most talked about notion in L2 motivational studies. However, for the last 20 years the concept has been questioned. A growing dissatisfaction has developed among scholars who started raising questions concerning its validity and relevance. The concept cannot be applied in situations where a foreign language is taught in a classroom without any direct contact with its speakers. Also, in the new globalised world in which people develop bicultural identity, a part being rooted in their local culture and another part being associated with a global identity that links them to the international mainstream whose language is English, there is a lack of a specific target community for English learners which undermines Gardner's concept of integrativeness.

Dörnyei called for a general rethinking of the concept of integrativeness and recognized integration into an L2 community as one of the basic identification processes within the individual's self-concept (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). He decided to follow his idea that the secret of successful learners was their possession of a superordinate vision that kept them on track and, combining the L2 field and mainstream psychology, in 2005 he proposed a

new model, „The L2 Motivational Self System“. It was made up of the following three components: Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self and L2 Learning Experience. We will now shortly describe each of the components.

Ideal L2 Self has a definite guiding function in setting to-be-reached standards: if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. The dream or image of a desired future is the core content of the ideal self.

Ought-to L2 Self concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes. It is closely related to peer group norms and other normative pressures.

Lastly, L2 Learning Experience is related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). For some learners the initial motivation to learn a language does not come from internally or externally generated self images but rather from successful engagement with the actual learning process.

There have also been other attempts to identify key aspects of motivation in second language learning. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) thus examine motivation in terms of seven motivational constituents which are among the most common dimensions investigated in past L2 motivational research – Integrativeness, Instrumentality, Vitality of the L2 Community, Attitudes toward the L2 Speakers/Community, Cultural Interest, Linguistic Self-Confidence, and Milieu. We will now briefly outline each of these concepts.

Integrativeness (which we have already mentioned) denotes a positive outlook on the L2 and its culture, which is connected to the willingness of the learners to integrate

themselves into the L2 culture and become similar to the L2 speakers (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005).

Instrumentality, on the other hand, refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency. This concept is important because it reflects the fact that for many language learners it is the usefulness of L2 proficiency that provides the greatest driving force (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). This usefulness might be manifested, for instance, in allowing one to find a better job, but L2 proficiency might also be useful in a wider sense, such as for travelling or making new friends.

The third key aspect of motivation, according to Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), is the Vitality of the L2 Community, which reflects the perceived importance and wealth of the L2 communities in question, i.e. its distinctiveness and dominance in relation to other language communities. This vitality is defined, for example, by the group's economic or political importance (status factors), its size and distribution (demographic factors), as well as by the way that it is represented in education or the media (institutional support factors).

The Attitudes toward the L2 Speakers/Community that a language learner exhibits are key constituents of the L2 motivation construct, and this aspect has been an important part of past L2 motivation research, as well as a central component in Gardner's motivation theory.

Cultural Interest is the aspect of motivation that refers to the appreciation of cultural products associated with the particular L2 and conveyed by the media (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), most often pertaining to popular culture (films, TV, music, books, etc.). This aspect reflects the fact that, although foreign language learners often have no direct contact with native L2 speakers, they may become well-acquainted with the L2 community indirectly, through the consumption of cultural products. The interest in these products can, therefore, influence the learners' motivation.

Linguistic Self-Confidence denotes a confident, anxiety-free belief that the mastery of a L2 is well within the learner's means (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). This can refer to either the learning of a particular language or to the learning of foreign languages in general.

Lastly, Milieu, as an aspect of L2 motivation, denotes the social influences stemming from the immediate environment, i.e. the influence of the learner's family, friends, etc.

We should also mention another interesting conception of motivation in second language learning: Dörnyei and Otto's process-oriented model, which consists of three phases.

The first phase is called choice motivation, and refers to getting started and to setting goals; the second phase is executive motivation, which denotes carrying out the necessary tasks to maintain motivation; and the third phase is motivation retrospection, which refers to pupils' appraisal of and reaction to their performance (Skehan, 1989). This model reflects a more contemporary approach to researching motivation, and emphasizes the dynamic nature of motivation and tries to account for the changes that take place over time.

## **2.2 Shadow education**

Research on shadow education has considerably increased in volume and has helped to improve understanding of the scale, nature, and implications of the phenomenon. However, the field is still in its infancy. In the research literature, the term shadow education dates from the early 1990s, as Bray (2010) informs us. Bray also brings us the first use of the term in a study by Marimuthu et al. in 1991 in which it is explained that the study found that a considerable percentage of youths attended private tuition in order to prepare themselves for the selective national examinations and that experience showed that the practice of private

tuition was so prevalent that it could be considered as a 'shadow educational system' (Bray, 2010). Private tutoring is a phenomenon that has escaped the attention of researchers, educational planners and decision-makers. Very little is known about its scope, scale and effects on pupil's achievement and equality of opportunities. Since private tutoring is a private service oriented at improving academic performance, it has important implications for the educational system as a whole that cannot be ignored by education policies (Bray, 1999).

Shadow education is a set of educational activities that occur outside formal schooling and are designed to enhance the pupil's formal school career. (Stevenson & Baker, 1992) It is referred to as shadow education since it mimics the real one. Bray explains the term in the way that shadow education shadows the mainstream education: it exists only if the mainstream one exists, it changes as the size and shape of the mainstream system do, and unlike mainstream education, it is not in the focus of public attention. (Bray, 1999)

Bray (1999) also defined the parameters of private tutoring: supplementation, privateness and academic subjects.

Supplementation implies tutoring that addresses subjects already covered in school and excludes, for example, language classes for minority children whose families are anxious that new generations should retain competence in languages not taught in mainstream schools.

Privateness implies tutoring provided in exchange for a fee, as opposed to unpaid tutoring provided by families or community members, or extra tutoring provided by teachers as part of their professional commitments and responsibilities.

Academic subjects are particularly languages, and other examinable subjects. Musical, artistic or sporting skills are excluded, since these are learned primarily for pleasure and/or for a more rounded form of personal development.

Shadow education has its positive and its negative aspects. According to Bray (1999), the positive aspects would be providing additional resources to numerous (often underpaid) teachers and university students, as well as seeing private tutoring as a mechanism through which pupils extend their learning and gain additional human capital, which benefits not only themselves but also the wider society of which they are part. On the other hand, cramming is often to the detriment of creative learning and does not lead to the expected increase in human capital. Moreover, not everyone can afford private tuition, and in that sense, private tuition is exacerbating social inequalities.

Stevenson and Baker (1992), authors of a longitudinal study of high school seniors in Japan, indicate that pupils from higher economic backgrounds are more likely to participate in shadow education, and that pupils who participate in certain forms of shadow education are more likely to attend university. Buchmann (2010) agrees, saying that ‘shadow education’—educational activities outside of formal schooling—tends to confer advantages on already privileged pupils.

Buchmann tackles the question of equality of educational opportunities. Bray and Lykins (2012) are worried because, in the long run, shadow education could seriously undermine the efforts to expand equitable access and strengthen inclusiveness in education system. Also, the quality of education is questionable if pupils need that amount of extracurricular lessons. If it provides less than is needed, shadow education might not be the best option. Formal education should undergo a change instead. Shadow education can undermine efforts to improve the quality, relevance, and cost efficiency of education. Some other scholars also see the cause of the blooming of private tuition in poor education. Kim (2004) brings the experience from Korea, where private tutoring is extremely popular and present. The mushrooming of private tutoring is a natural market response to underprovided and overregulated formal schooling in Korea.

Bray (1999) elaborates on another very important factor, the process of globalization, which brought vast changes into the educational system as a whole. In the present increasingly knowledge-based and globalized societies, where countries and firms compete on the basis of the quality of their workforce, higher and higher levels of education are necessary in order to be considered for a full-time job. It is not enough to be good anymore. Children are pressured to be the best. Private tutoring aims at improving their grades and it delivers results. Thus, the development of private tuition has to be interpreted having in mind the gradual privatization and marketization of education.

According to Bray (1999), supplementary tutoring is found in many parts of the world, especially in Asia, Africa, Eastern Europe and Latin America. Areas where private tutoring is not quite as prominent (though still is evident) are Western Europe, North America, and Australasia. Unlike Western Europe, however, Eastern Europe underwent a partial collapse of public education systems during the 1990s. The transition which followed the collapse of communism in 1991 required families to invest in tutoring on a scale not previously evident. (*Education for All?*, 1998) However, it is very difficult to obtain reliable data concerning the matter. The mainstream education system is much easier to observe and monitor. Private supplementary tutoring is beyond the reach of most government data-collection systems.

The subjects given most attention in private tutoring are the ones most needed for educational and therefore socio-economic advancement. Commonly, this implies languages, mathematics and science (Bray, 1999).

Languages in supplementary education are very important in Singapore, where 55% of pupils in primary school receive tutoring in English. This trend is also present in Malta, where almost half of all pupils take private lessons in English. However, in Kuwait, only 15% of pupils take private lessons in the English language (Bray, 1999).

Most researchers foresee a growth of shadow education since it aims at improving grades, which is what success implies. Knowledge is not measureable. Thus, grades are what matters. Mori and Baker (2010) predict that because of its focus on learning and achievement which are central to formal education, shadow education will be increasingly incorporated into the broader culture of education.

## **2.3 Globalization**

The meaning of the concept of globalization, a term used widely in many different contexts and with many different meanings, is on the one hand self-evident, and on the other it is vague and obscure, as its reaches are constantly shifting. Al-Rodhan (2006) argues that the definition of globalization has changed over the past 50 years, and that the fluidity of the concept will not provide the path to a simpler or more refined means of arriving at a clearer conceptualization of the process in the future. Robertson (1992) defines globalization as both the comprehension of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole. Globalization can also be defined as a process that encompasses the causes, course, and consequences of transnational and transcultural integration of human and non-human activities.

However, for the needs of our thesis, we will focus more on the influence that globalization has on the education process. Jarvis (2010) draws attention to the emergence of three phenomena: information society, the knowledge economy and the learning society. We will now take a brief look at all three.

The information society is a product of advanced technology and information technology, which led to the development of capitalism, claims Jarvis (2010). For Daniel Bell



(1973), knowledge and information are the strategic resource and transforming agent of the post-industrial society. In an information society, knowledge becomes the crucial factor of success. As Webster (2006) puts it, we live in a world where the preponderance of occupations are to be found in knowledge work. Senge (1990) makes a significant point that for the first time in history, humankind now produces more knowledge than people can absorb, and the knowledge economy divides knowledge into useful knowledge and the remainder, which is regarded as much less useful. This has affected the way people think about knowledge, since it is the “useful knowledge” which is included in curricula and funded by the government.

The learning society is, as Jarvis (2010) puts it, the inevitable outcome of societies focusing on both information and knowledge. Traditional societies are premised on non-learning because they expect things to remain the same, whereas modern societies change rapidly, resulting in learning societies. Learning and knowledge are necessary for success, and if formal education cannot meet these needs, people are forced to look for knowledge elsewhere. The fact that we are being forced to learn all the time is actually the very basis of a learning society. Society is changing so rapidly that many of the traditional educative organizations are not able to keep up with the new demands, and so individuals are forced to look for knowledge outside of the education system.

### **2.3.1 Englishization**

The process of globalization increased the need for communication between speakers of different languages. Dor (2004) explains that the spread of English as the lingua franca of the information age is viewed as the linguistic counterpart to the process of economic globalization. Crystal (2003) elaborates on why English emerged as a global language: by the

beginning of the nineteenth century, Britain has become the world's leading industrial and trading country. By the end of the century, the population of the USA (then approaching 100 million) was larger than that of any of the countries of Western Europe, and its economy was the most productive and the fastest growing in the world. British political imperialism had sent English around the globe. Scholars are divided into those who see the spread of English as natural, neutral, market driven, and even beneficial and those who view it as linguistic imperialism, aimed at maintaining and reproducing economic and political inequalities between nations (Dor, 2004). Phillipson (2009) is probably one of the loudest from the second group. He argues that the invisibilisation of the rest of the relevant languages is a re-run of much colonial and post-colonial language-in-education policy, which, as is well known, has served European languages well and other languages much less well. This reflects investment being put into English. Phillipson (2009) also uses the term linguistic imperialism which he sees as a subcategory of cultural imperialism, along with media, educational and scientific imperialism. Crystal (2003), a representative of the first group, agrees to a certain degree, although with less hostility, saying that a language does not become a global language because of its vocabulary, or because it has been a vehicle of a great literature in the past, or because it was once associated with a great culture or religion, but because of the political and military power of its people. In whatever way we look at it, the fact is that English has become the language of business, science, the Internet, and popular culture and entertainment. English is now the language most widely taught as a foreign language and in most of these countries it is emerging as the chief foreign language to be encountered in schools, often displacing another language in the process (Crystal, 2003). Indeed, our need to communicate, travel, and consume the products of popular culture has never been bigger. Thus, being a part of a global world, in business, industry, and government, workers are increasingly expected to develop proficiency in English (Nunan, 2001). Governments around the world introduce

English as a compulsory subject at younger ages and as a consequence, both parents and children are more aware of the importance of English in the “global village” we live in. If parents assume that schools cannot provide the education in English they feel is needed, they search for alternative ways. English constitutes an essential component of the national curriculum in many countries, and thus holds a major position in the private tutoring market (Hamid, Sussex & Khan, 2009).

## **2.4 Informal exposure**

Language development is a process that starts early in human life. Language, being a means of communication, is one of the most important aspects of human beings. Quite a lot of research work has been done on how language is acquired or learned. A major point of agreement between most theories of language acquisition is the need for exposure before language can be acquired. Moreover, the role of input is considered to be essential in early language learning (Lopriore & Mihaljević Djigunović, 2010).

Krashen (1976) found out that meaningful exposure to the target language is a necessary, if not a sufficient condition for language acquisition. He presents evidence to support the hypothesis that informal and formal environments contribute to different aspects of second language competence, the former affecting acquired competence and the latter affecting learned competence. Gülmez and Shresta’s study (1993) also suggests that formal and informal language learning environments contribute to second language development in different ways, with the former promoting accuracy and the latter fluency.

Informal exposure is a necessity if a learner has any ambitions to acquire near-native competence. Second language acquisition specialists all over the world are familiar with

generations of pupils who, despite having spent many years in classes learning a second language, emerge as non-functioning adults in second language performance, especially with respect to oral performance (Gülmez & Shresta, 1993).

English is a lingua franca of the global world we live in. Popular culture, the internet, business and education require the knowledge of English, but also represent a significant informal exposure on FL learners, necessary for attaining near-native competence. With English becoming an international language in all areas of functioning, the informal exposure is becoming an extremely important factor in second language acquisition. Many scholars argue that formal language input in schools is too far away from the real language. Many language textbooks contain poorly motivated and illogically sequenced texts and dialogues that do not reflect real-world language or situations, although they usually contain multiple examples of the grammar being presented (Hwang, 2005).

In our study we focused on the informal exposure in a native language setting while, as Lopriore and Mihaljević Djigunović (2010) inform us, informal, unsheltered language exposure has mostly been of interest in studies where learners were acquiring a second language in the target language setting.

Lopriore and Mihaljević Djigunović (2010) conducted one of few research studies on informal language exposure young foreign language (FL) learners may be exposed to. Study looks into the relationship between out of school exposure to English of young English as a foreign language (EFL) learners and their linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes in Italy and Croatia. They conclude that it is possible that through watching programmes that they find interesting and appealing children get useful exposure because they focus on content and acquire language forms implicitly. Also, seeing English used in films and cartoons probably raises motivation of young learners because they can see that they are learning something that

exists as a part of their everyday lives (Lopriore & Mihaljević Djigunović, 2010). They report that Croatian pupils, who were more exposed to television programmes in English are more confident when using English than Italian learners. A combination of higher exposure, higher linguistic achievements, higher motivation and perceiving English as easy to learn logically resulted in higher linguistic self-confidence (Lopriore & Mihaljević Djigunović, 2010).

## **2.5 Lifelong learning**

Jarvis (2010) defines lifelong learning as the combination of processes throughout a lifetime whereby the whole person – body and mind – experiences social situations, the perceived content of which is then transformed cognitively, emotively or practically and integrated into the individual person's biography resulting in a continually changing (or more experienced) person.

The reasons why lifelong learning came into focus can also be found in the processes of globalization which have, for the past several decades, been changing the traditional concepts of the world. As Jarvis (2007) explains, since society is fluid and always changing, learning itself is changing and needs to become lifelong rather than recurrent at times of status change. Lifelong learning is an individual necessity for all people, so that they can each play their roles in this rapidly changing society and feel part of it.

However, a question arises of what lifelong learning exactly is since traditionally learning has been institutionalized and structured in the form of formal education. Moreover, the ways in which the knowledge acquired later on in life should be assessed seem unclear. The responsibility to find a form of lifelong learning and undertake it is obviously upon the individual, and not the state. Also, lifelong learning is recognition of the significance of practical knowledge, as well as an acknowledgement that learning which is acquired outside

of educational institutions is valid and should be accredited in the same way as knowledge gained and tested within these institutions. Lifelong learning is a recognition that society, or parts of it, are changing rapidly, and so it is necessary for individuals to learn how to cope with the precarious conditions of their daily lives. It is also a recognition that the educational institution has to change rapidly to cope with this new world.

The pressure to keep lifelong learning in mind is present even from childhood. The role of lifelong learning is to become a part of life, serving an individual and the society as a whole. As Jarvis (2007) informs us, in 1929, Yeaxlee wrote the first book in the English language on lifelong education, where he explains that the case for lifelong education rests ultimately upon the nature and needs of the human personality since every individual feels both social and personal reasons to develop even further.

## **2.6 Equality of educational opportunities**

The term equality of educational opportunities came into focus, in a theoretical and practical sense, along with the emerging meritocratic principle in explaining the structure of society. Knowledge and competence, according to Vujčić (1990), became the main criteria in explaining social stratification and class differences. However, the term “equality of educational opportunity” has occasioned enormous confusion in recent years. The confusion centres around a particular issue that was defined by Coleman (1975): the question whether such equality implies equality of input school resources or results of schooling. Coleman’s “The Equality of Educational Opportunity Study” (EEOS) from 1966, also known as the Coleman Study, is still very influential. Despite the time that has passed since the study was conducted, many reviewers still agree on its most important points. As Gamoran and Long

(2007) explain, higher levels of resources are associated with higher achievements. Also, the most controversial finding of the Coleman report was that school resources had surprisingly little effect on educational outcomes once family background was controlled.

However, we must keep in mind the fact that problems of inequality are different in America and Croatia. One of the issues we are trying to address in this thesis is whether class influences educational achievements. According to Vujčić (1990), class inequality was for a long time explained as the result of biological inequality among people, when it is actually class inequality influencing the opportunities for educational achievements. Vujčić warns that intelligence is not the only condition for educational success, and that education is not the only criterion for professional advancement. Children from upper-middle-class families will have a better starting point than children from working class families. Vujčić gives us the results of Kariger's study, which prove that pupils' socio-economic background undoubtedly influences their academic achievements and is an important factor when enrolling into higher levels of education. Another important factor in educational achievements that he mentions is the social mobility factor. We will focus on the intergenerational social factor, seeing it as the most important one for our thesis.

Intergenerational social mobility refers to the relationship between the socio-economic status of parents and the status their children will attain as adults. Put differently, mobility reflects the extent to which individuals move up (or down) the social ladder compared with their parents (A Family Affair: Intergenerational Social Mobility, 2010) From this we can conclude that, in a relatively immobile society, an individual's wage, education or occupation tend to be strongly related to those of his or her parents. However, societies differ when it comes to social mobility. Mobility in earnings, wages and education across generations is relatively low in France, southern European countries, the United Kingdom and the United

States. By contrast, such mobility tends to be higher in Australia, Canada and the Nordic countries (A Family Affair: Intergenerational Social Mobility, 2010).

Evetts (1970) explains the phenomenon related to intergenerational social mobility: a self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon which was noticed in educational processes. It implies that if parents and teachers expect a lot from their children, they seem to fulfil those expectations. This can be applied to low parental expectations as well.

Although today's system of education enables every individual to perform in accordance with their abilities, the opportunities and circumstances condition an individual's level of education. Cifrić (1990) explains that in its realization the right to educate really does exist, but the conditions and chances of an individual in using that right differ greatly across different social classes. An individual can succeed, but it does not imply that the position of the whole social class can change. This is because educational success depends on several factors: individual success, membership of a particular social class, and the level of education of the previous generation. The latter, which is the most relevant to our research, is explained by claiming that not only do children from more educated families have bigger foreknowledge, but they also grow up developing a wider cultural and verbal structure of opinion and expression (Cifrić, 2010). In more educated families, children are instructed to follow their parents' example; they are encouraged to study more, to have better grades; they are explained the importance of education and are aware of high expectations their parents put on them. Thus, they are more likely to fulfil them.



### **3 THE STUDY**

#### **3.1 Aims**

The purpose of the study was to address the following questions: What is the percentage of pupils taking formal extracurricular forms of learning English, namely private tutoring and private language schools? In what way is the pupils' decision to take private lessons or go to language schools connected to the economic status of the pupils' families, their educational success and their motivation for learning English? What is the level of the pupils' informal exposure to English in the form of media, internet and similar contents? What is the difference between private tutoring and private language schools in terms of the reasons for choosing those extracurricular ways of learning English, the length and frequency of attending them, teachers and materials they used, and the impact on their feeling of improvement, their grades and their motivation?

#### **3.2 Sample**

Our research was conducted in May and June, 2013, in two primary schools: "Dragutin Domjanić" in Sveti Ivan Zelina, a small town near Zagreb, and "Vrbani" in Zagreb. We decided to choose one 5<sup>th</sup> and one 8<sup>th</sup> grade from both Zelina and Zagreb to see whether there are any differences between an urban and a rural environment, as well as between pupils of different ages. In the 5<sup>th</sup> grade in Croatia, the educational demands become higher in all subjects, including English. Although pupils have four years of experience in learning

English, they are then faced with more demanding tasks. This led us to believe that it would be useful to include 5<sup>th</sup> graders into our research, since they would, as we assumed, be prone to engage in extracurricular forms of learning English. Furthermore, the other half of participants was chosen having in mind the fact that the grades from 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> grade are the main criterion when enrolling into high school, and pupils are under a lot of pressure to obtain good grades during that time. They would also, we assumed, be prone to turn to extracurricular forms of learning English, in an attempt to obtain better grades in English, which is considered to be one of the most important subjects. The initial sample consisted of 100 pupils altogether, but 6 of them did not complete the questionnaire correctly so they were dismissed. The remaining 94 participants were chosen from one 5<sup>th</sup> and one 8<sup>th</sup> grade, both from Zagreb and Zelina, of which 23 were from a 5<sup>th</sup> grade in Zelina, 21 from a 5<sup>th</sup> grade in Zagreb, 26 from an 8<sup>th</sup> grade in Zelina, and the remaining 24 were from an 8<sup>th</sup> grade in Zagreb.

### **3.3 Instruments**

#### **3.3.1 Pilot**

Piloting was used in order to make sure the questionnaire was clear enough and it was conducted in primary school in Zelina. The pilot questionnaire was given to 5<sup>th</sup> graders who were not participants in the study. We decided to conduct the piloting on 5<sup>th</sup> graders since we thought that if any problems occurred in understanding the questions, it would be with younger pupils rather than with 8<sup>th</sup> graders.

All but one pupil understood all the questions in a questionnaire and had no difficulties filling out in questionnaire. He did not fill in the obligational part of the questionnaire. When asked what he did not understand, he said he did not fill in the questionnaire because he did not feel like it. His teacher informed us that he had problems with concentrating in class. In

our opinion, lack of motivation or concentration was also the main reason why 6 questionnaires that were dismissed from the study were not filled in properly.

### **3.3.2 Questionnaire**

Prior to commencing the study, a parental approval was obtained from all parents. The research was carried out by means of a questionnaire. The questionnaire (see appendix 5.1.) consisted of three major parts. All participants were asked to fill in the first part. Questions in that part tried to elicit general information about pupils: their parents' job, grade they were attending, their GPA and English grade for both the previous and that year. Furthermore, the first part of the questionnaire also tried to elicit information about the pupils' confidence in English class, where pupils answered opinion-scale question, estimating how they felt in English class (on a scale from "very uncomfortable" to "very good and comfortable") and multiple choice question, estimating the frequency of participating in English class (circling what is true for them on a scale from "I hope the teacher does not ask me a question" to "I often participate in English class"). Their motivation for learning English was estimated through true/false questions. Also, their attitude towards the importance of English was questioned on an opinion-scale from "It is completely unimportant" to "It is very important." Finally, pupils were asked to mark how many hours a week they spent doing certain activities, such as watching TV in English, playing computer games in English, listening to music in English and so on. This part aimed at eliciting information about informal exposure. We also included an open-ended question to elicit possible additional sources of informal exposure.

The second and the third part of the questionnaire were filled in only by pupils who either took or were taking private lessons or attended or were attending private language schools. The questions were the same in both the second and the third part, for private lessons and private language schools respectively. They aimed at eliciting information about the length and frequency of attending, teachers and materials used and reasons for taking up either private lessons or private language schools, mostly in a form of multiple choice questions. Questions considering the feeling of progress and improvement in the four skills and its reflection on the English grade were yes/no questions. The last question, also a yes/no question, referred to motivation in private lessons and private language schools.

### **3.4 Procedure**

Pupils were shortly introduced with the topic of the study and explained all three parts of the questionnaire. After the instruction stage which lasted approximately 5 minutes, pupils were given questionnaires. They were asked to fill them in. They were also instructed to ask for an explanation in case of unclear parts of the questionnaire. The administration of the questionnaire lasted approximately from 10 to 15 minutes, depending whether pupils were also filling in the second and/or the third part of the questionnaire. The researcher thanked pupils for their cooperation.

### **3.5 Results of the study**

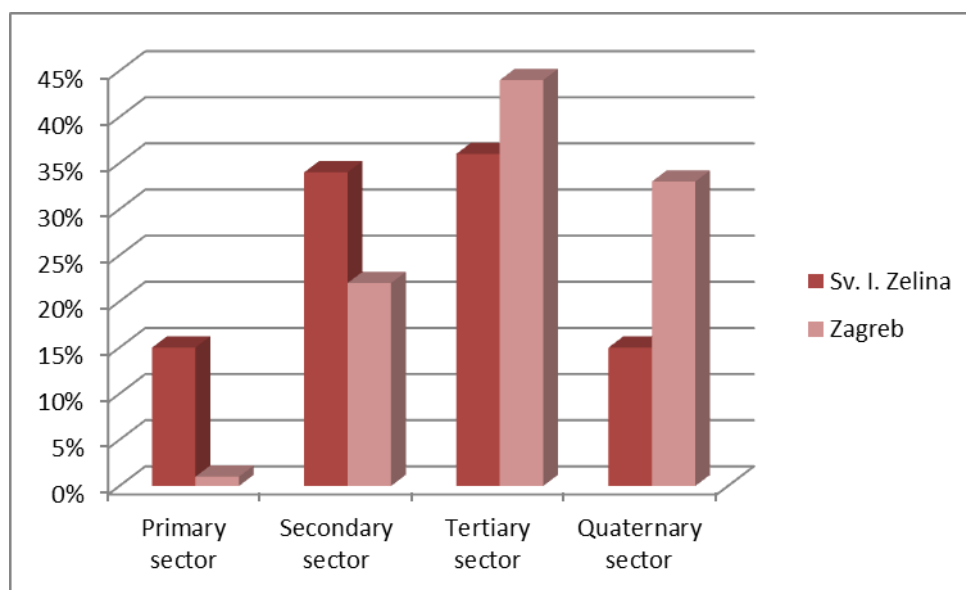
In this chapter, we will present the results of the study. First, we will cover the differences in educational opportunities as a result of urban and rural context that the

participants lived in. Furthermore, we will provide results referring to private lessons alone, then private language schools alone, and finally, we will make a comparison of the two.

### **3.5.1 The differences between urban and rural contexts**

The first question in the questionnaire given to the children concerned their parents' jobs. The goal of this question was to see whether the parents' occupations are connected to their children's success at school, and moreover, whether there is a difference between the rural and the urban environment. The question concerning their parents' level of education would probably give more reliable data; however, the questionnaire was given to children as young as ten, and they most likely would not have been able to answer such a question. Data was then analysed according to the four economic sectors: the primary sector, which includes the retrieval and production of raw materials; the secondary sector, which involves the transformation of raw materials into goods; the tertiary sector, which includes the supplying of services to customers and businesses; and the quaternary sector, which includes more intellectual activities such as government, education, health care, and media. The latter evolves in well developed countries and requires a highly educated workforce. Taking all this into consideration, we can conclude that an area in which more people work in the tertiary and quaternary sectors is more developed, and includes more educated people.

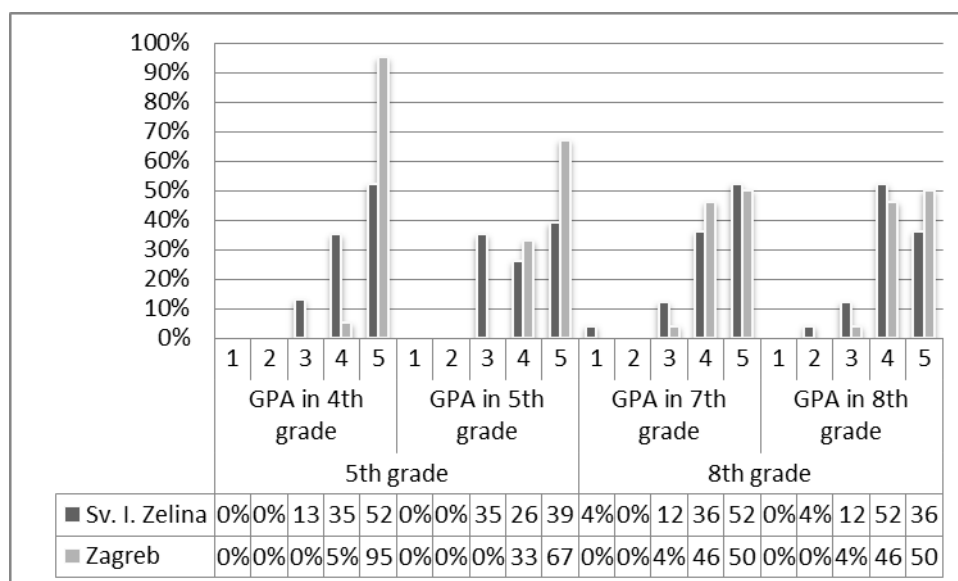
Since the research included two classes from Zagreb, the capital of Croatia, and two from Sv. I. Zelina, a small town, it was very interesting to compare the distribution of occupations through the sectors in the urban and the rural contexts and the Grade Point Average (GPA) of pupils in those environments, and to see whether what their parents did was related to the pupils' GPA.



**Figure 1: The distribution of occupations through the economic sectors in Sv. I. Zelina and Zagreb**

Figure 1 shows that in Sv. I. Zelina 15% of parents worked in the primary sector, 34% worked in the secondary sector, 36% of parents belonged to the third economic sector, and only 15% were a part of the quaternary sector. Zagreb showed a different distribution. Only 1% of parents belonged to the primary sector, 22% were a part of the secondary sector, 44% worked in the tertiary sector, and 33% worked in the quaternary sector.

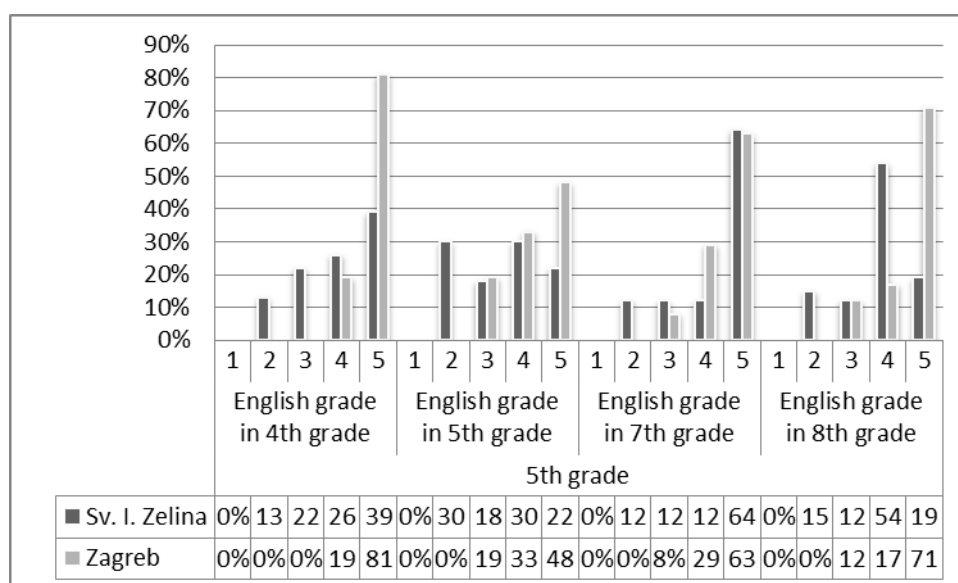
We should now take a look at Figure 2 showing GPA. Pupils were asked to write what their GPA was in the previous grade (for the 4<sup>th</sup> with 5<sup>th</sup> graders and for the 7<sup>th</sup> grade with 8<sup>th</sup> graders) and what they thought their GPA would be for that grade (the questionnaire was given to them in the last week of the school year and they were able to estimate their GPA).



**Figure 2: Breakdown of Grade Point Average by grades and context**

As we can see in Figure 2, there were some differences between the GPA in the rural and the urban contexts. Generally, pupils from Zagreb had an altogether higher GPA in all grades. The differences were greater in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades and they declined in the 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> grades. The reason why grades declined both in Zagreb and in Zelina is probably the fact that the volume of materials that pupils are expected to master in those last two years of primary school increases because GPA is one of the main criteria to enrol into high school.

Pupils were also asked to say what grade they had in English the previous year and what grade they would have that year. The differences between Zagreb and Zelina were more obvious now, as can be seen in Figure 3.

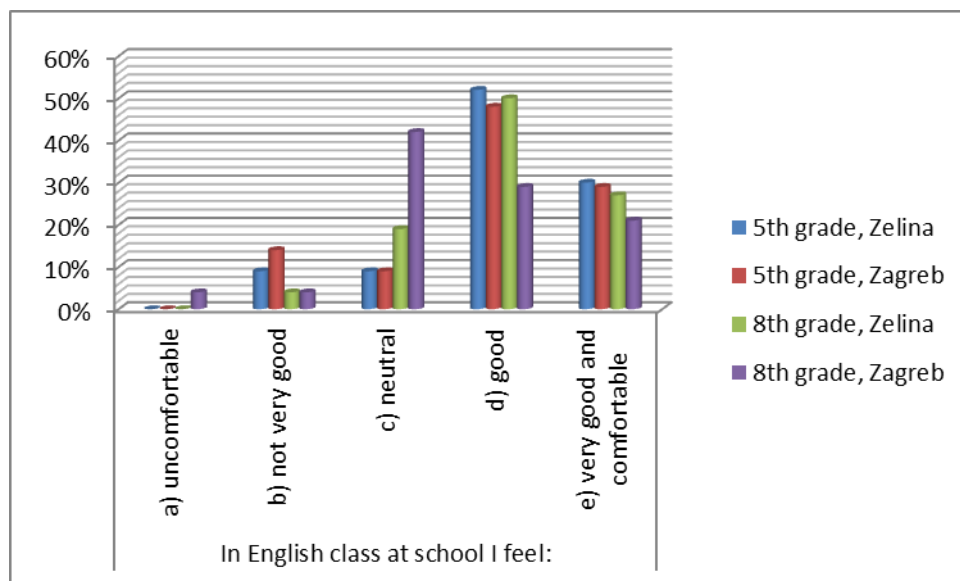


**Figure 3: Breakdown of English grades by grades and context**

Figure 3 shows the comparison between the English grades from pupils in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup>, and in the 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> grades in Sv. I. Zelina and Zagreb. The differences between the urban and rural environment are more obvious here. Even in the 4<sup>th</sup> grade, pupils in Zagreb had much better grades in English than their peers in Sv. I. Zelina. Although the grades declined altogether as they moved to 5<sup>th</sup> grade, Zagreb pupils still had almost 50% of As, 22% in case of Zelina. Just like in case of GPA, 7<sup>th</sup> grade was an exception because more As were found in Zelina than in Zagreb, although the average grade in English was still higher in Zagreb than in Zelina. Moving from the 7<sup>th</sup> to the 8<sup>th</sup> grade, pupils in Zagreb remained equally successful or got better, while pupils in Zelina lowered their grades.

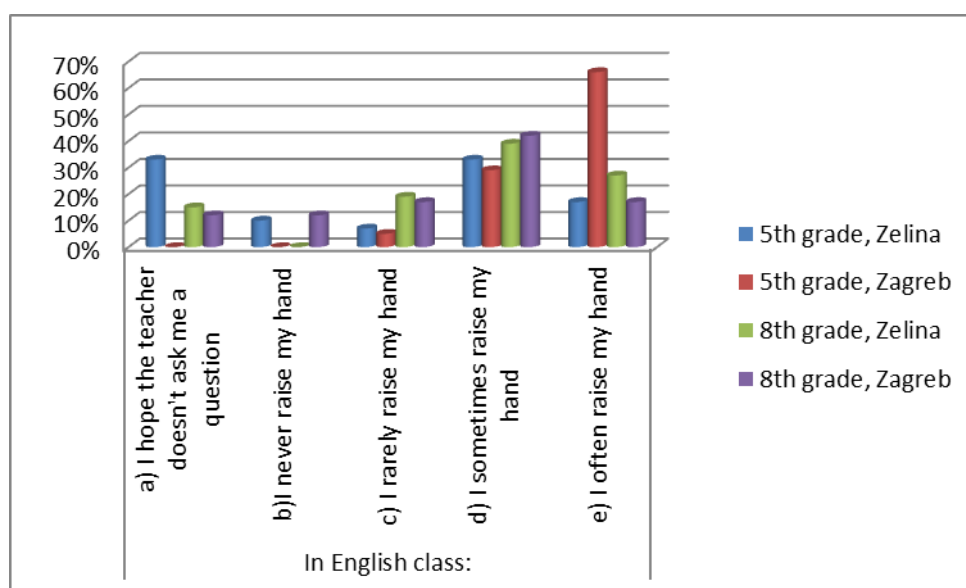


### 3.5.2 Motivation



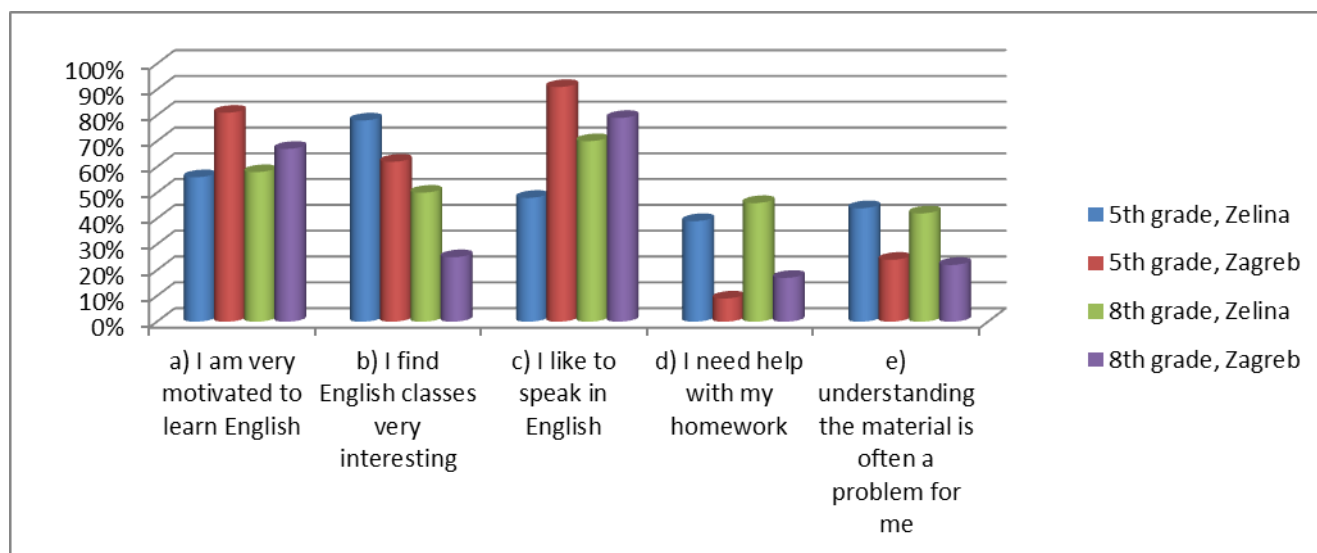
**Figure 4: Motivation in English class at school**

Figure 4 shows how different classes given the questionnaire felt in English class at school. Most of them felt good and they were not overstressed, but not too relaxed either. The number of pupils feeling uncomfortable in class was very low, only 1 per cent. We can see that 5<sup>th</sup> graders felt better than 8<sup>th</sup> graders.



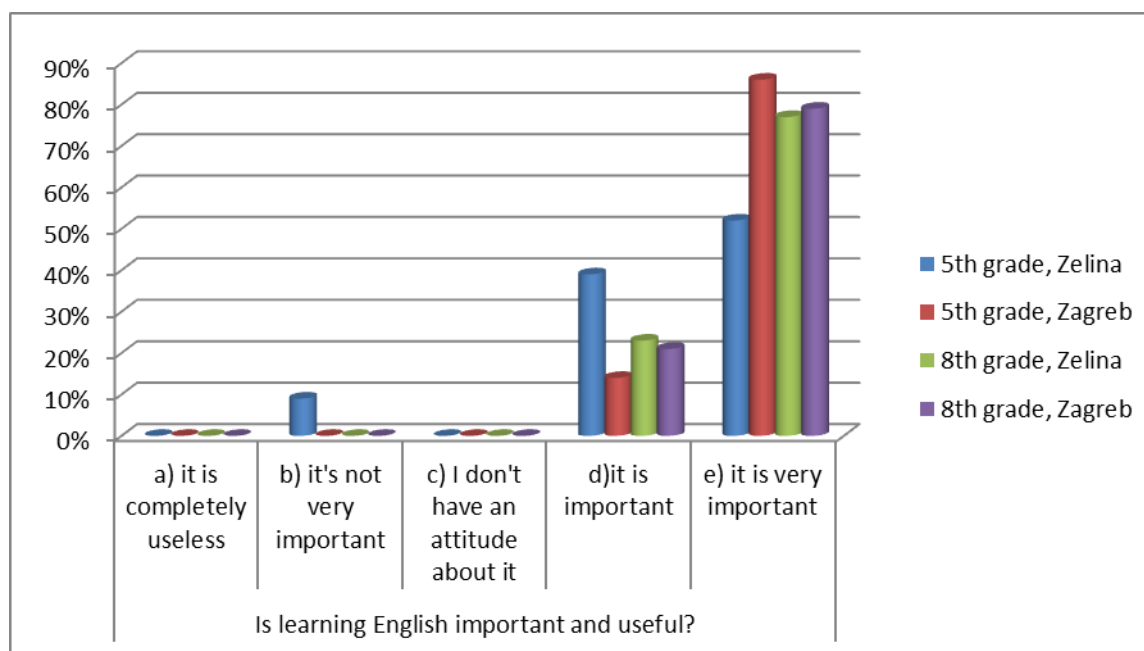
**Figure 5: Involvement in English class at school**

Figure 5 shows involvement in English class at school. Around 35 % of pupils sometimes participated in English class, and 30 % of them participated often. We see that 5<sup>th</sup> graders from Zelina were a bit more anxious than the other pupils, and that 5<sup>th</sup> graders from Zagreb felt a bit more confident and motivated than the other classes questioned.



**Figure 6: Motivation for learning English and comprehension**

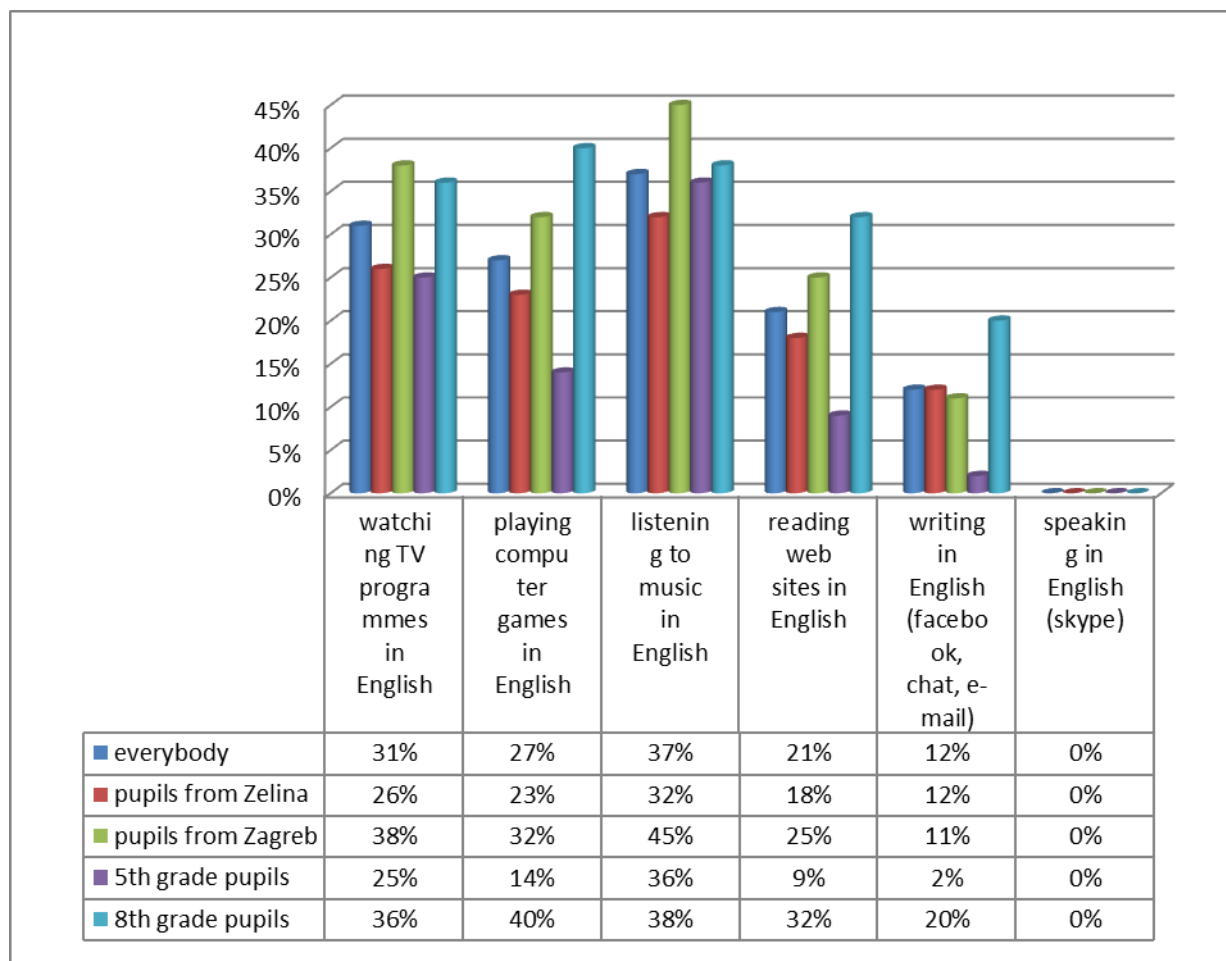
Figure 6 shows that most of the pupils were very motivated to learn English, and found English interesting – 5<sup>th</sup> graders more than 8<sup>th</sup> graders, probably due to a less stressful process of education and fewer obligations. As Figure 6 shows, pupils from Zelina felt less relaxed and free to speak in English than their peers from Zagreb. They also needed help with the homework more often and had problems with comprehension in class.



**Figure 7: The importance of English**

Despite the differences in motivation and participation in class, most of the pupils found English a very important subject, as Figure 7 shows. They realize that knowledge of the English language is needed in every area of functioning in life and for every occupation. Only 5<sup>th</sup> graders from Zelina did not consider learning English to be important.

### 3.5.3 Informal exposure



**Figure 8: Exposure to different informal media contents for more than 5 hours per week**

In order to find out to what extent participants were exposed to informal media contents in English, the question was put in a way that the participants had to estimate how many hours they were weekly engaged in each of the following activities: watching TV programmes in English, playing computer games in English, listening to music in English, reading English web sites, writing in English (e.g. on Facebook, chat or e-mail) and speaking English (e.g. on Skype). Results are presented in Figure 8 comparing exposure to each activity for more than 5 hours for all participants, and separately for participants from Zelina and Zagreb, and participants from 5<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> grades.

Exposure was dominant in all groups through watching TV programmes and listening to music in English. These were followed by playing computer games and reading web sites.

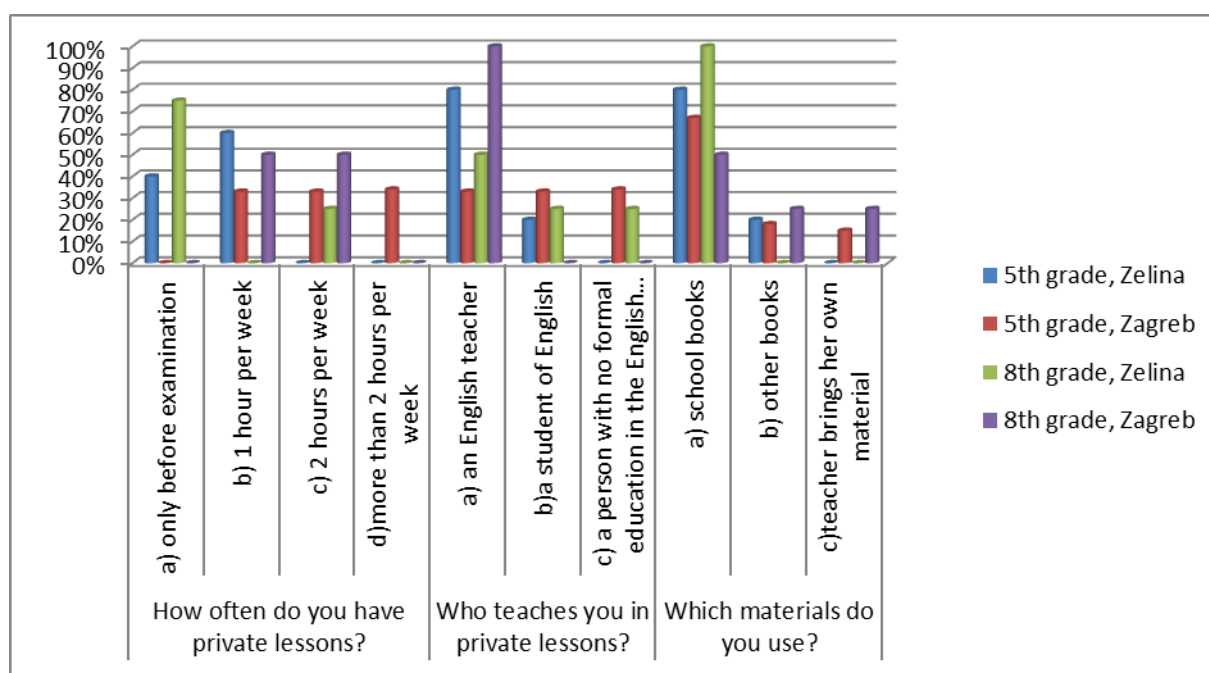
Writing in English was present, but not significantly. All the participants said they did not use Skype as a means of communication in English. In a questionnaire, participants were asked to write down any other way of being exposed to English outside of classroom, if there was any. A certain number of participants reported using English with foreigners on holidays. That communication was mostly informative, short and rare and thus, we do not find it relevant for this research.

When it comes to comparing informal exposure of participants from Zelina and Zagreb, our findings show that pupils from Zagreb were more exposed to English through all the listed activities. This is most obvious in exposure to TV programmes in English and in listening to music in English.

Also, the results show that 8<sup>th</sup> graders were much more exposed to media contents than 5<sup>th</sup> graders. The reason for that is probably parental restriction on 5<sup>th</sup> graders.

#### **3.5.4 Private lessons**

In all four classes, the duration of taking private lessons varied from only once to three years. This depended on and was primarily connected to the reasons why somebody took private lessons in the first place, and we will deal with that later in this chapter.

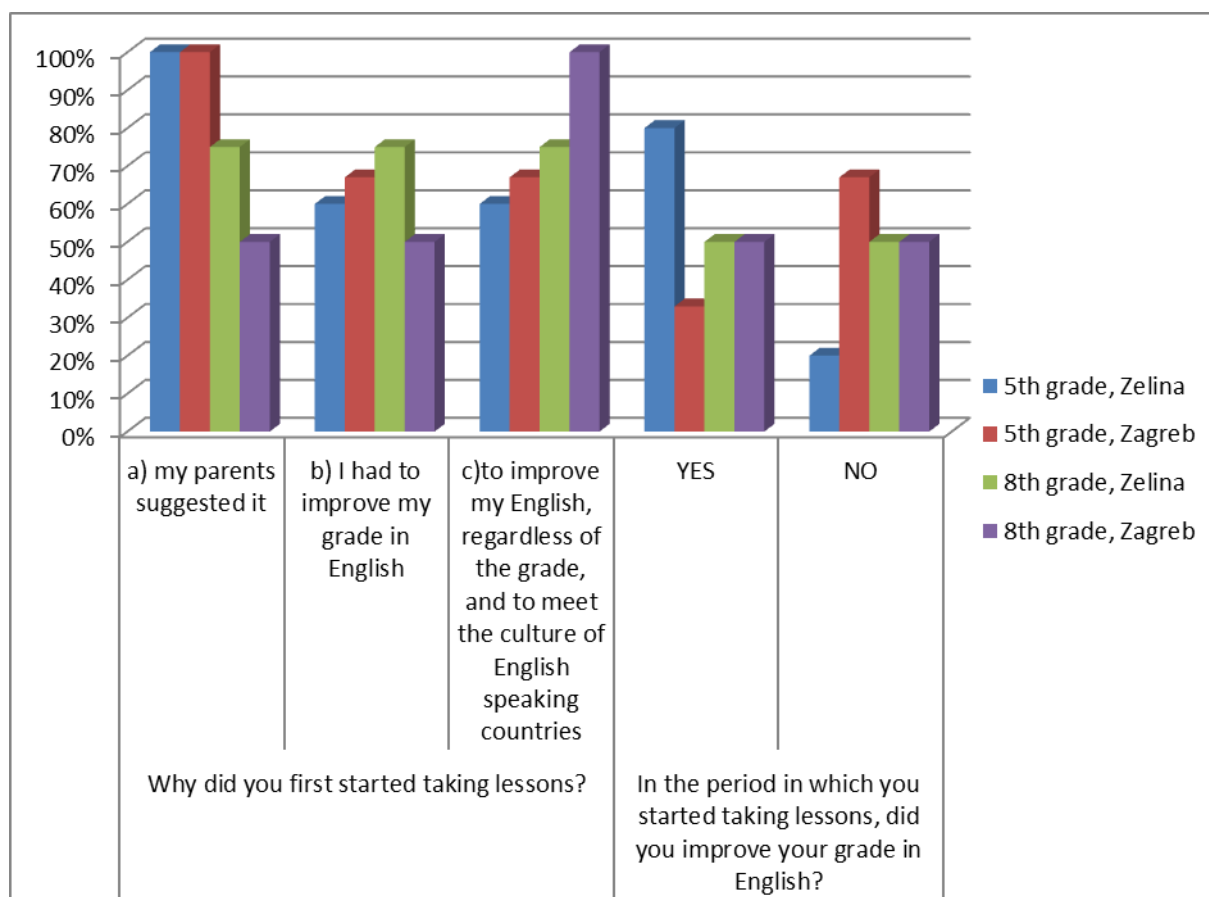


**Figure 9: Frequency of attending private lessons, teachers and materials in private lessons**

Figure 9 shows the frequency of attending private lessons, the level of education of teachers, and the materials used in private lessons. Private lessons only before an examination or a test were taken by pupils from Zelina, especially 8<sup>th</sup> graders. Pupils from Zagreb were much more constant, and in most cases had their private lessons once or twice a week.

Teachers in private tutoring were mostly English teachers, but there was also a number of students of English who provided private lessons. There were not many of those who did not have a formal education in English, and these included people who had lived abroad, or those who were just “good at English”, as pupils said.

Most of the pupils reported using school books in private lessons.

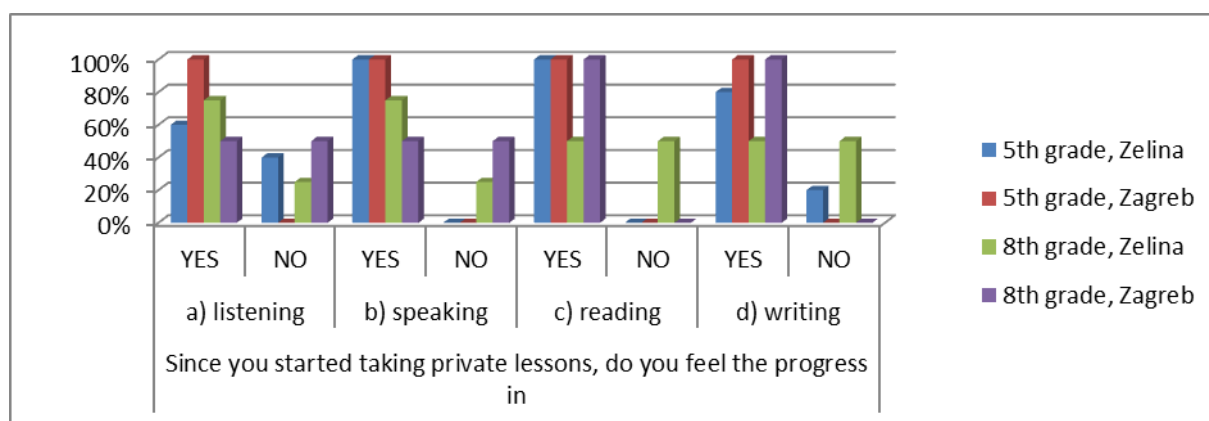


**Figure 10: The reasons for taking private lessons and the influence of private lessons on the grade**

Figure 10 provides us with the reasons for taking private lessons and the influence of private lessons on the grade. One of the reasons why pupils took private lessons was their parents' advice or pressure to do so. With 5<sup>th</sup> graders this was the rule, which is logical because the responsibility concerning education still lay very much with their parents. In the 5<sup>th</sup> grade, English at school becomes more demanding. In order to keep their children's grade as it was in the 4<sup>th</sup> grade or to raise it, they decided to pay for private tutoring. Improving an English grade was the case only in the 5<sup>th</sup> grade. Improving an English grade seemed to be the reason for taking private tutoring for more than 50% of pupils in all classes, with the highest percentage of 75% in the 8<sup>th</sup> grade in Zelina. The grade that stood out was the 8<sup>th</sup> grade in Zagreb. Although other pupils also named culture of the English speaking countries as an important reason for taking private tutoring, 100% of pupils in the 8<sup>th</sup> grade in Zagreb said

that was one of their main reasons. Figure 10 also shows that they had the lowest percentage in the previous two reasons.

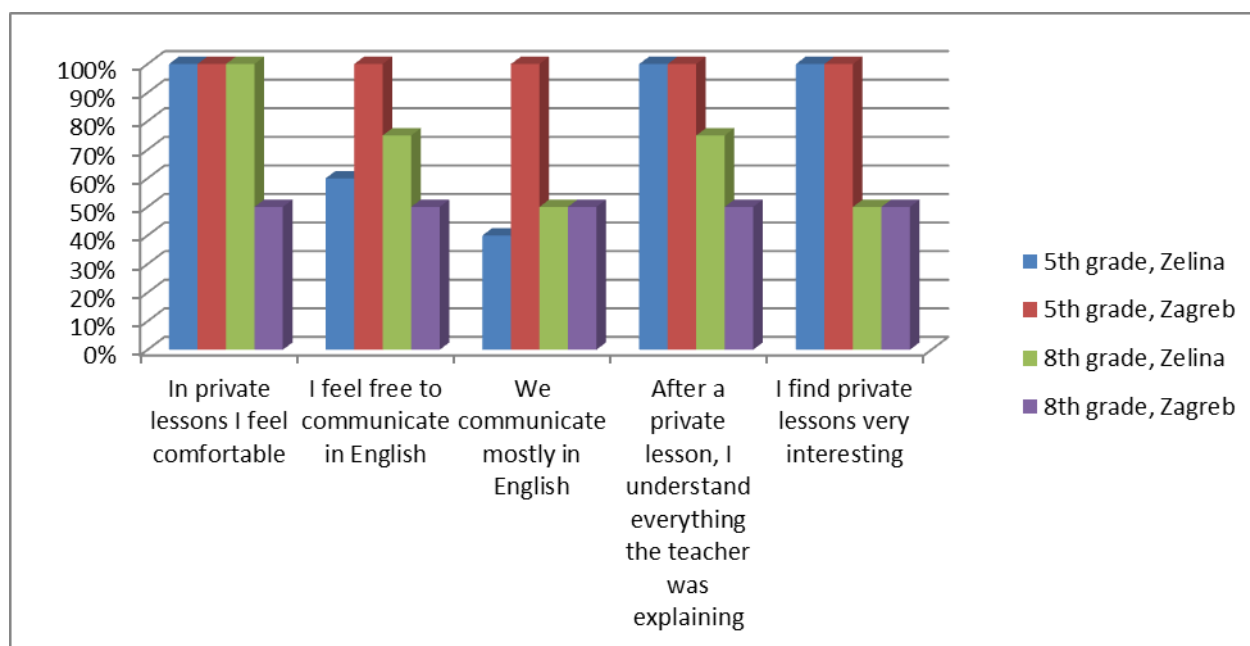
The question of improving a grade is a problematic one and we needed data about participants' grades in English as well. The highest percentage of improving an English grade was reported by 5<sup>th</sup> graders from Zelina, but since their average grade in English was 3.6, it seemed logical. If we take a look at 5<sup>th</sup> graders from Zagreb, we can see that they did not improve their grades, but they did not need to, since their average grade in English was 4.7. There was no surprise with 8<sup>th</sup> graders, either: half of them in both Zagreb group with an average grade 4.0 and in Zelina group with an average grade 4.2 improved their grades, and half did not.



**Figure 11: The perception of improvement in the four skills as a result of taking private lessons**

Figure 11 deals with the pupils' perception of improvement in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Generally, they all shared the perception of achievement in the four skills as a result of taking private lessons. Classes from Zelina, especially 8<sup>th</sup> grade, reported reaching less improvement





**Figure 12: Atmosphere, comprehension and communication in private lessons**

Figure 12 displays the pupils' feelings and communication in private lessons. As we can see, they mostly felt comfortable; they also showed a high percentage of understanding the material explained to them in private lessons. However, they did not feel as free to communicate and to express their thoughts in English. The communication between a tutor and a tutee took place in same proportions both in Croatian and in English. An interesting fact is that 5<sup>th</sup> graders found private lessons far more interesting than 8<sup>th</sup> graders.

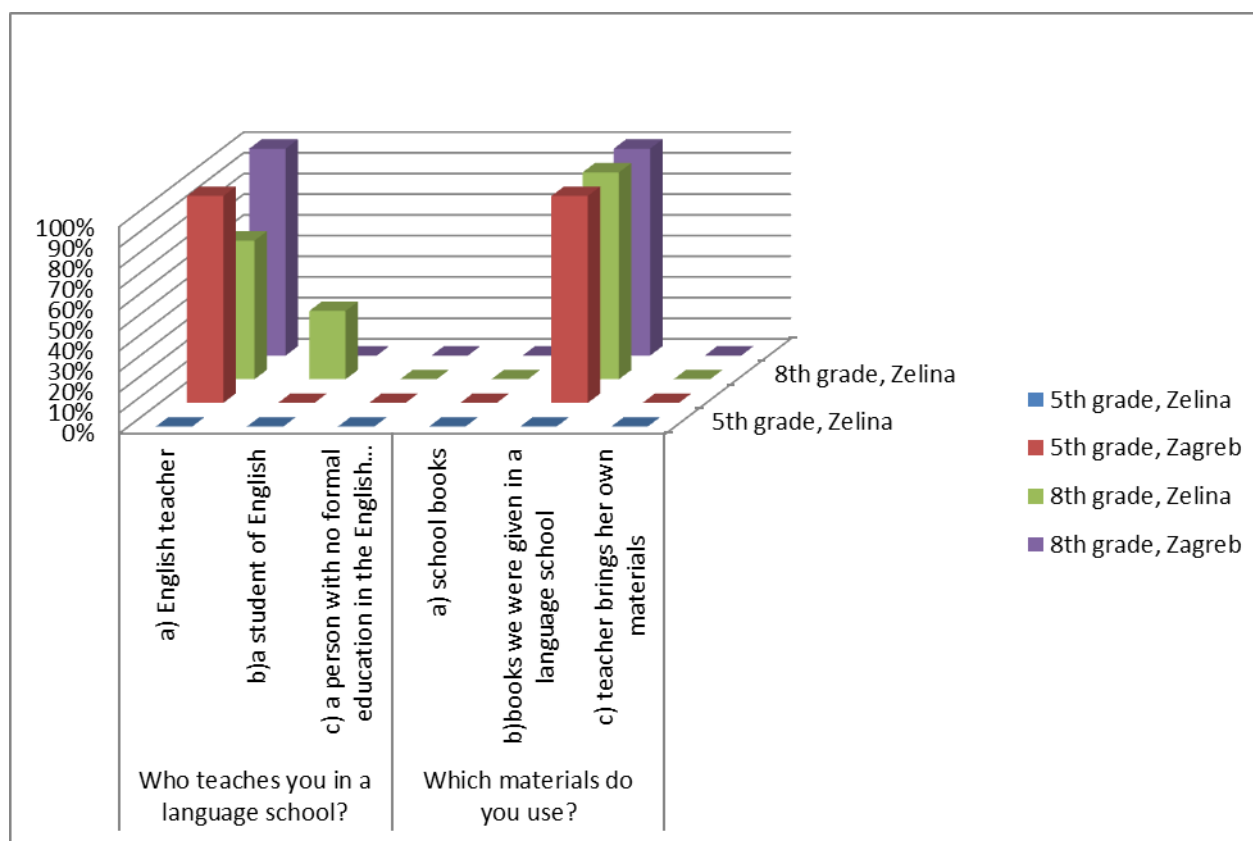
### 3.5.5 Private language schools

The Western culture influences the rising demand for English in business and cultural contexts. Over one billion people are said to be learning English in a second language or a foreign language context (Hasman, 2004). In a globalized world, the number of English learners around the world is only expected to grow even further.

Most language schools are private and for-profit. They are either independent entities or corporate franchises. Courses can be organized in groups or for individuals. Pupils vary widely by age, educational background, work experience, and language proficiency.

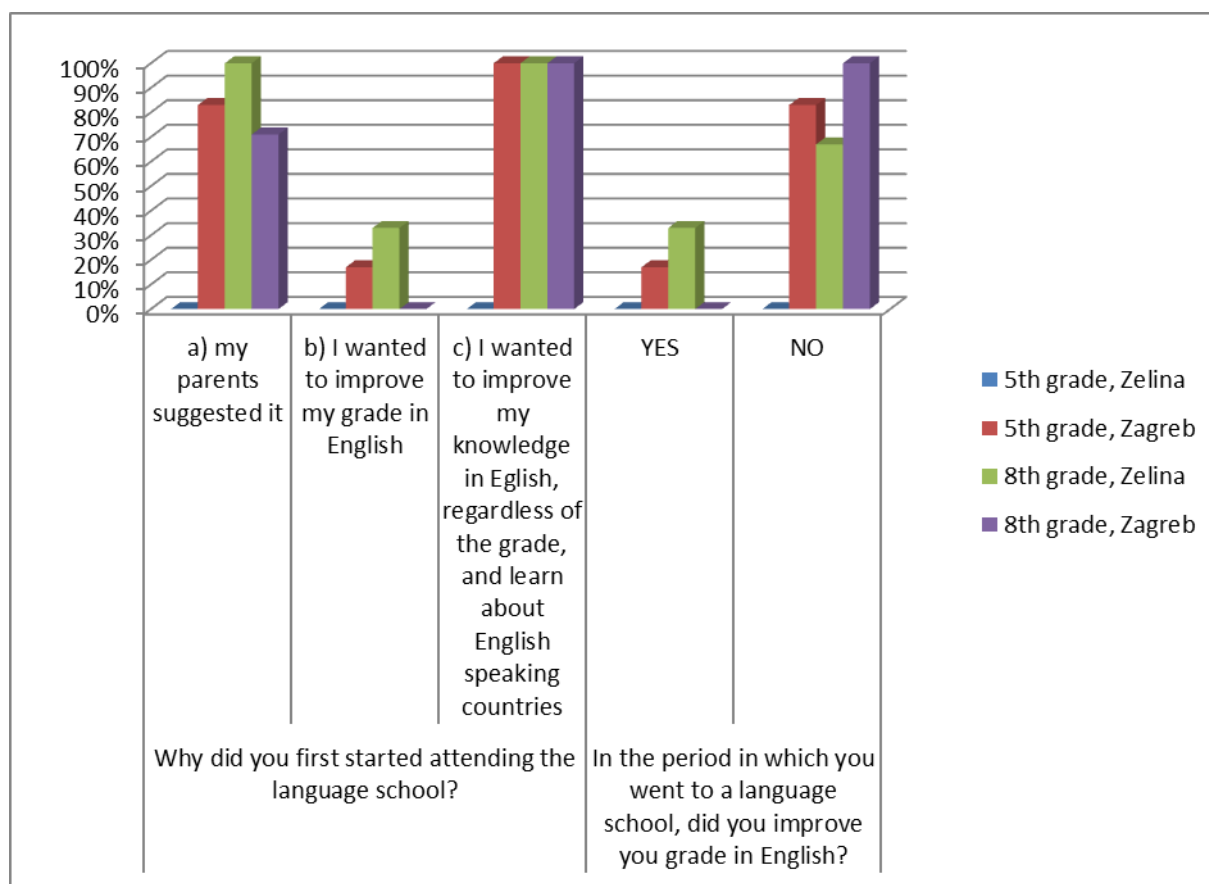
A very important thing to mention before presenting our research results related to language schools is that the 5<sup>th</sup> grade from Zelina would not be included in this result subsection since there was not one pupil who had attended or was attending a private language school. It is most certainly due to the fact that Zelina is a very small town and hence did not have a private language school. Language schools from Zagreb organized classes in Zelina, but if the number of pupils interested in taking classes in a language school was too low, it was not profitable for them to organize them.

The period of attending a language school ranged from 1 year to 8 years, which means that some 8<sup>th</sup> graders had been attending a private language school since they started formal school. The average period of attending a language school was 4.9 years. Pupils from Zagreb were more constant in attending, and on average attended language schools longer than pupils from Zelina. There were also more pupils from Zagreb who attended private language schools.



**Figure 13: Teacher and materials used in private language schools**

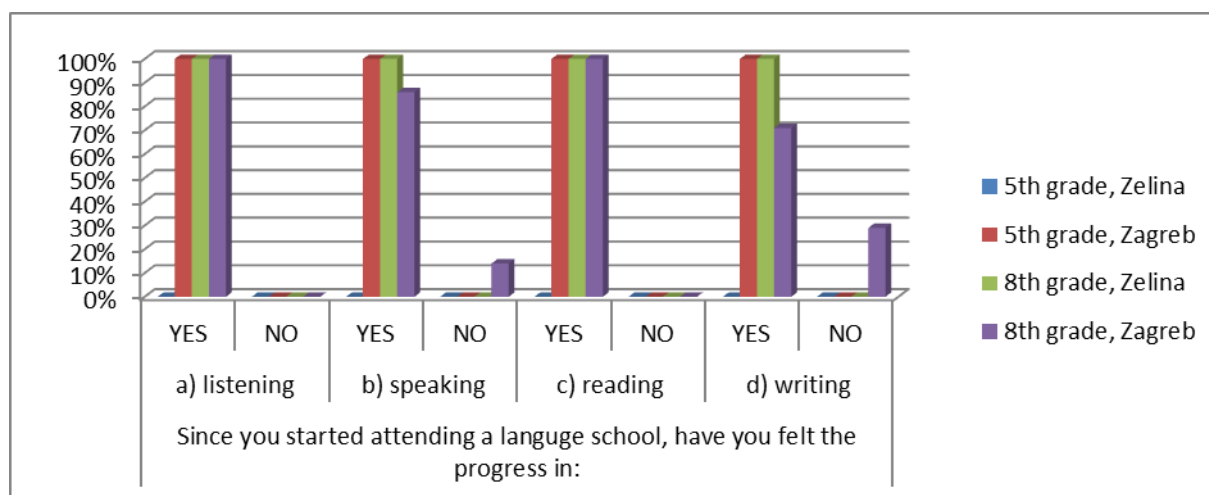
As Figure 13 shows, unlike pupils from Zagreb, who reported that only qualified English teachers taught them, 8<sup>th</sup> graders from Zelina also report a certain percentage of students of English teaching them. All pupils reported using books and materials given to them by the school, which was expected.



**Figure 14: The reasons for attending private language schools and its influence on the English grade**

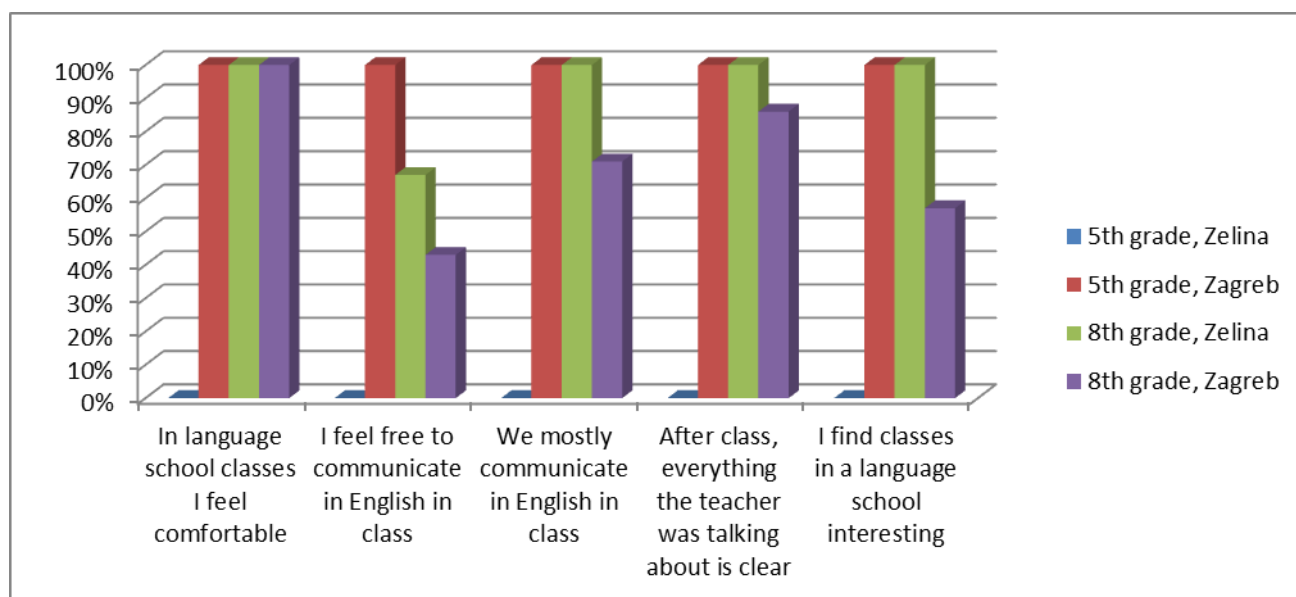
If we take a look at Figure 14, we can see that when it comes to the reasons for starting attending private language schools, it is obvious that participants were very much under their parents' influence. However, parents exerted the most influence on 8<sup>th</sup> graders from Zelina. They were also a group in which we found the highest motivation to improve their grade in English by attending a language school. Improving the grade was an important factor for 5<sup>th</sup> graders from Zagreb when deciding to enrol into private language schools. The most frequent reason for attending a language school was, without a doubt, that concerning the culture of English-speaking territories.

Most of the participants reported not having improved their grade in English at school. However, a small amount of 8<sup>th</sup> graders in Zelina, as well as an even smaller number of 5<sup>th</sup> graders in Zagreb, had improved their grade since they started attending language schools.



**Figure 15: The feeling of improvement in the four skills as a result of attending private language schools**

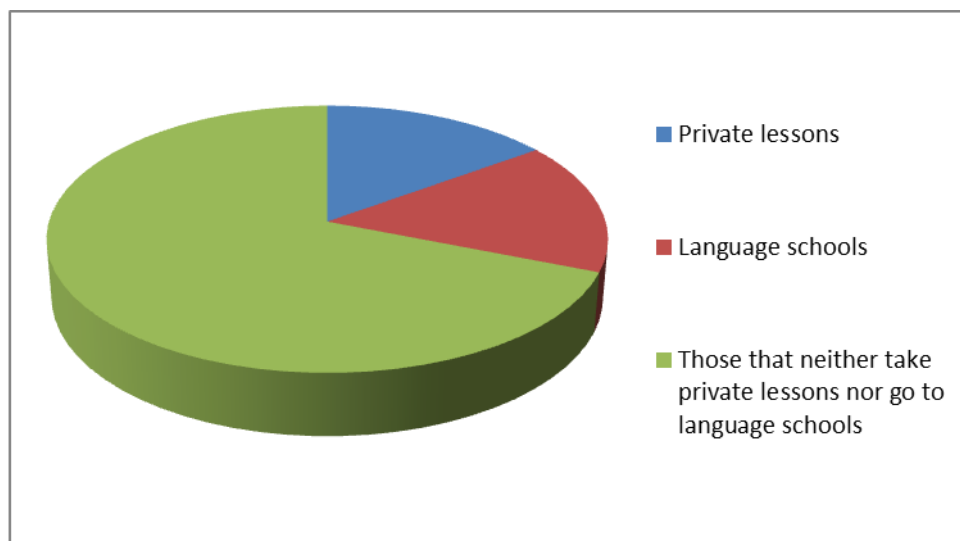
As Figure 15 shows, all of the pupils attending private language schools reported a maximum feeling of improvement in the four skills, with the exception of 8<sup>th</sup> graders from Zagreb who were still not quite satisfied with their speaking and writing.



**Figure 16: Atmosphere, comprehension and communication in private language schools**

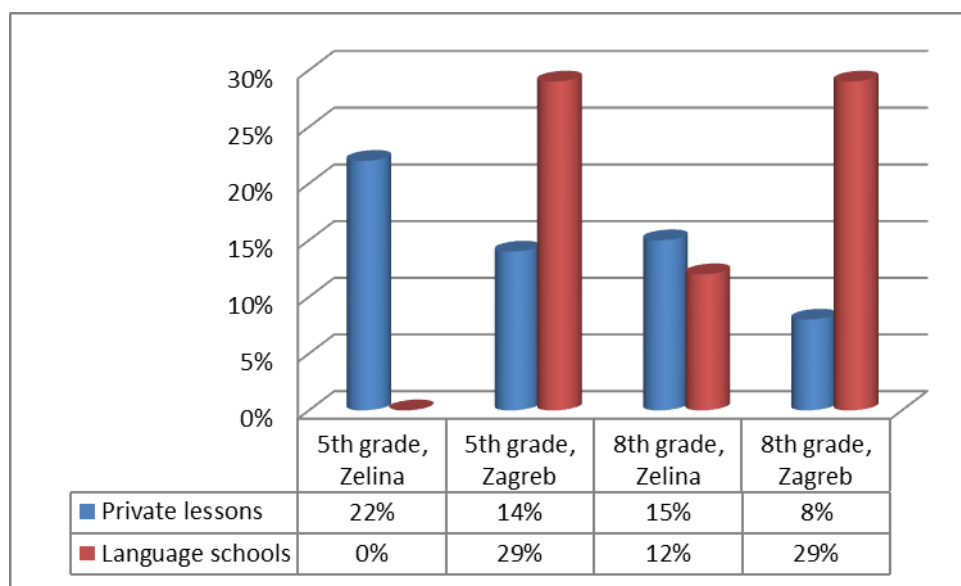
The class atmosphere seemed to be on a very high level for everyone attending language schools, as we can see in Figure 16. All the pupils felt comfortable and relaxed and they understood everything the teacher was trying to explain. They mostly spoke in English, but 8<sup>th</sup> graders did not feel free to express themselves in English in front of a group in class. Most of the pupils found classes in language schools interesting, with the exception of 8<sup>th</sup> graders from Zagreb.

### 3.5.6 Comparison of private lessons and private language schools



**Figure 17: The percentage of pupils who take private lessons and attend language schools**

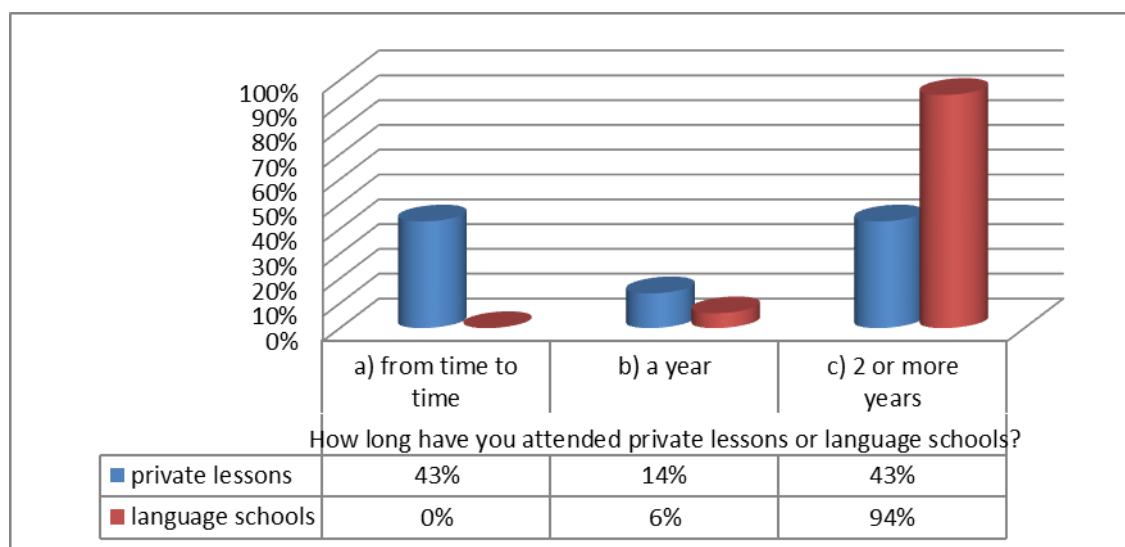
Figure 17 shows the percentage of pupils who took private lessons and attended language schools. In this research, which included participants from four grades, 94 pupils altogether, we discovered that 14 pupils were taking or had taken private lessons, and that 16 pupils were attending or had attended language schools. In percentage, 15 % of pupils take private lessons in English, and 16 % of pupils attend English classes in language schools.



**Figure 18: Attendants of private lessons and language schools, a more detailed overview**

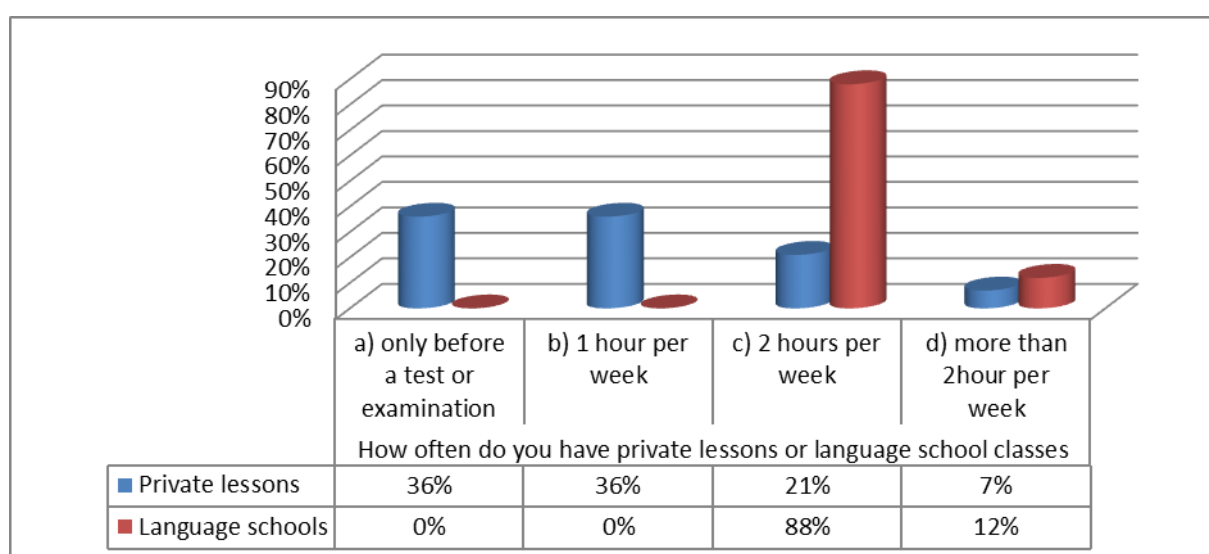
If we take a look at Figure 18, we can see that the percentage varies according to the grade and the urban / rural environment. A significant difference can be seen in 5<sup>th</sup> graders from Zelina and from Zagreb. There is not one 5<sup>th</sup> grader that attended language schools in Zelina, while 29% of their peers in Zagreb went to language schools. The reason for that is probably the lack of language schools in a small town like Zelina, or an insufficient number of pupils interested in language schools which makes it impossible to organize classes. Formal extracurricular English classes were taken by 5<sup>th</sup> graders in Zelina, but they were oriented towards private tutoring: 22 % of them took private lessons. Figure 18 also provides us with information that 8<sup>th</sup> graders in Zagreb preferred language schools over private tutoring, unlike their peers in Zelina, where private lessons and language schools were approximately equally represented.





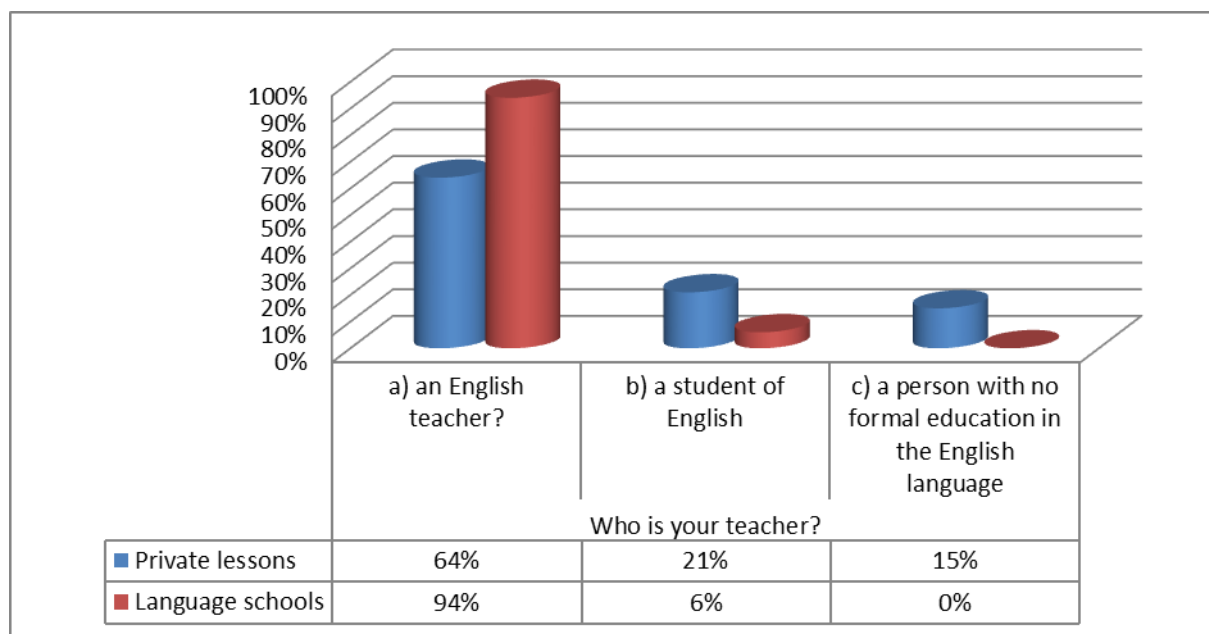
**Figure 19: The length of attending private lessons and language schools**

Another difference between private tutoring and language schools can be seen in the length of attending either private lessons or language schools, presented in Figure 19. While 43% of pupils attending private lessons did it from time to time, and an equal percentage do it for 2 years and longer, 94% of pupils attending language school classes did it for 2 years or more.



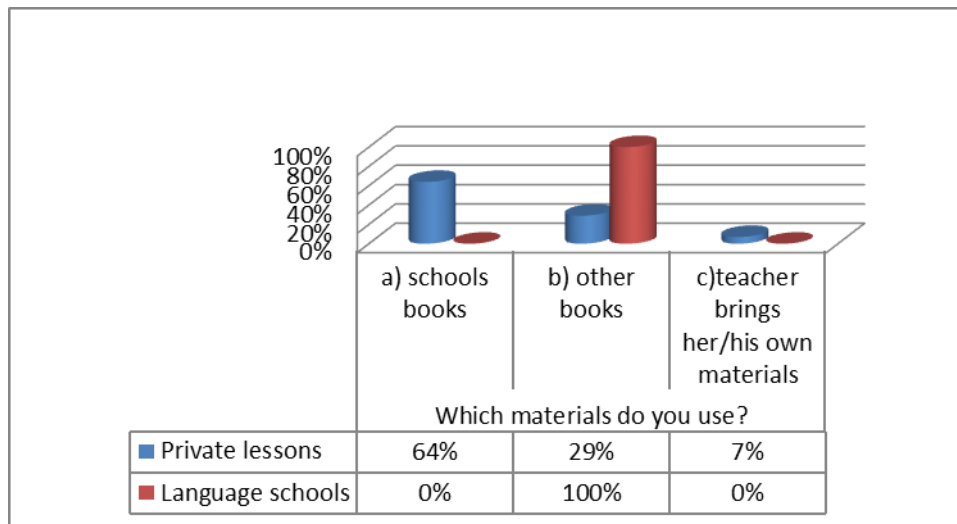
**Figure 20: Frequency of attending private lessons and language schools**

While nobody used language schools to get a better grade in a test or an oral examination, 36% of pupils taking private lessons did so. More than 30% of those taking private lessons had lessons once a week and around 20% had them twice a week. Language schools were mostly attended for 2 hours a week.



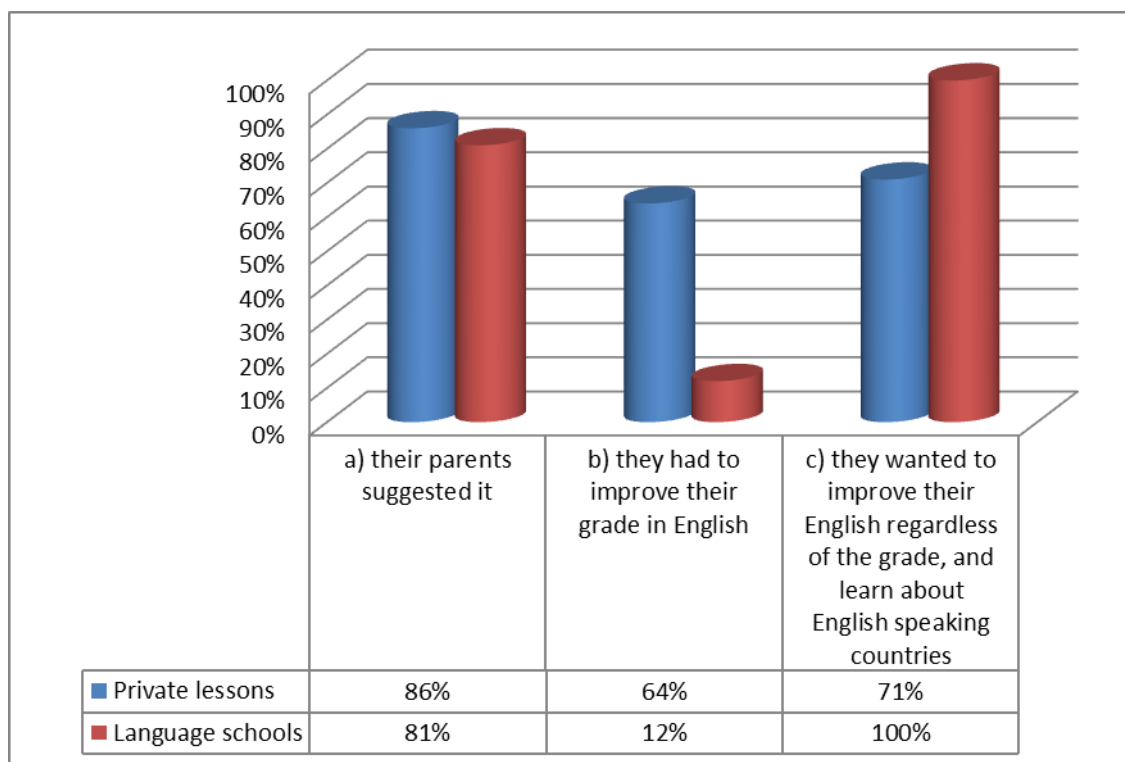
**Figure 21: Level of education of teachers in private lessons and language schools**

Figure 21 shows that although pupils reported a relatively high percentage (64%) of qualified English teachers teaching them in private lessons, the percentage of qualified English teachers in language schools went up to 94%. Private tutors who were still students of English made 21% of teachers in private lessons, while only 6% of teachers in language schools were students of English. There was not one case of a teacher at a language school without any education in the English language, while there were a few cases of unqualified private tutors. They could be either a person who had lived abroad for a while, a native speaker, or simply a person who used English in everyday life for business purposes.



**Figure 22: Materials used in private lessons and language schools**

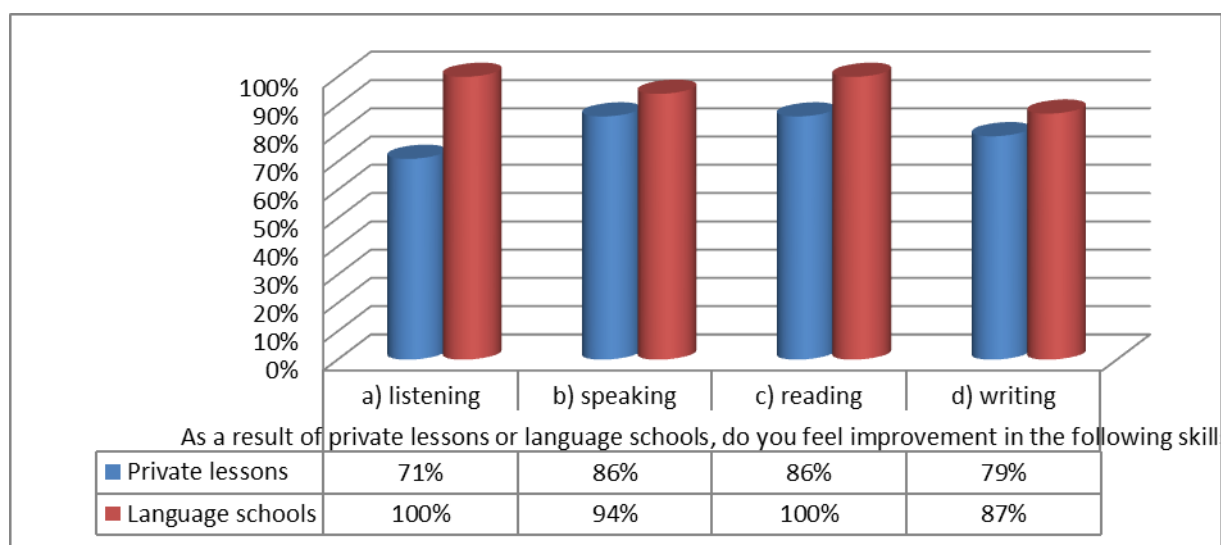
Figure 22 shows which materials were used in private lessons and in private language school. While 64% of tutees used school books, and the remaining 36% used other books and materials, children attending language schools used exclusively the books given to them by the language school.



**Figure 23: Motivation behind attending private lessons or language schools**

Parents exert a strong influence on their children when it comes to taking either private lessons or enrolling into a language school. However, there is a big difference between private lessons and language schools when it comes to improving a grade as a motivating factor.

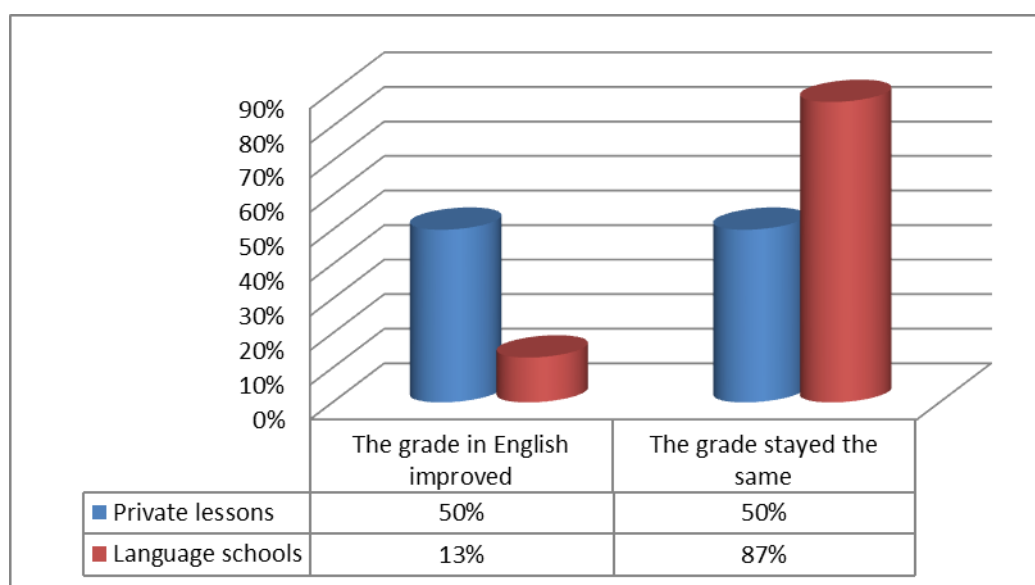
Figure 23 shows motives for taking up either private lessons or private language schools. We can see that 64% of tutees expected to improve their grade, while only 12% of attendants of language schools had the same motive. The strongest motive for attending a language school was getting better at English, regardless of the school grade, and learning about the cultures of English-speaking countries. The same motive was quite lower in tutees, probably because the motive to improve their grade was quite high.



**Figure 24: The feeling of improvement in the four skills as a result of attending private lessons and language schools**

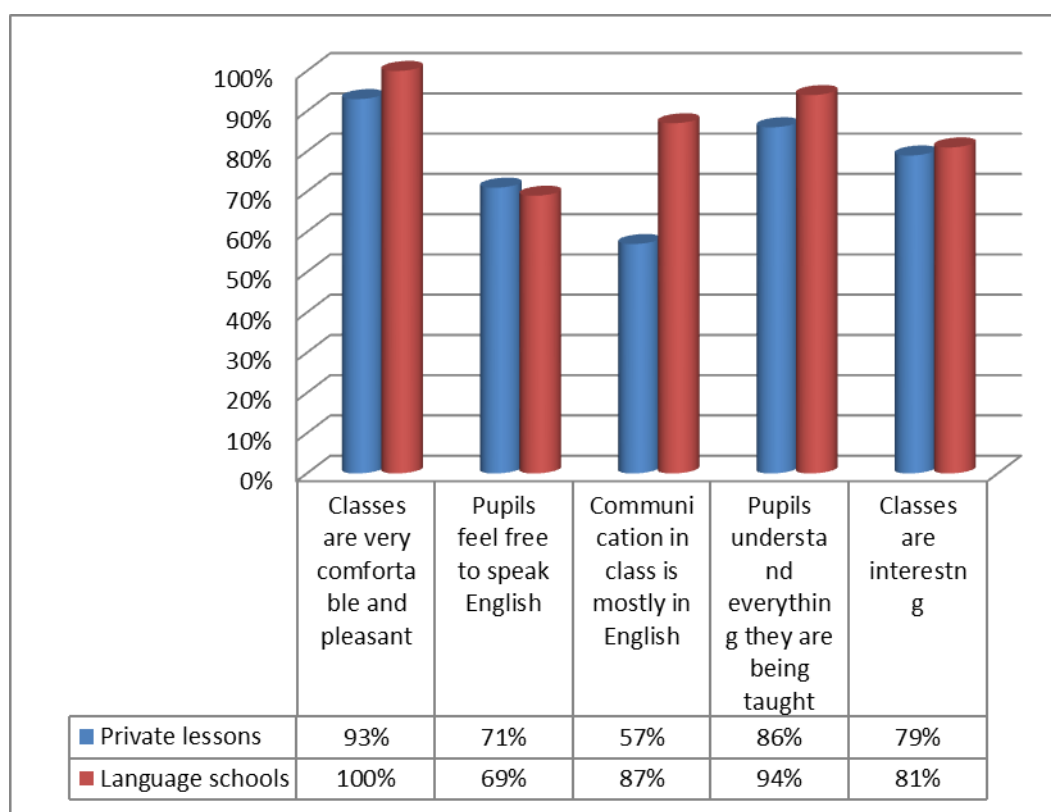
When it comes to the feeling of improvement in listening, speaking, reading and writing, attendants of private language schools felt more improvement in all four skills. Writing was the hardest skill, and it was followed by speaking. Listening and reading were the easier skills, and pupils therefore felt more confident in those.

Private lessons were different from language schools in this respect. Pupils taking private lessons felt the greatest improvement in speaking and reading, and less in listening and writing.



**Figure 25: The influence of private lessons and language schools on English grade**

Figure 25 shows the influence of private lessons and language schools on English grade. The main motive for 64% of tutees who started taking lessons was improving their school grade; 50% of tutees managed to improve their grade. The main motive for 12% of attendants of private language schools had the same motive, and 13% of them improved their grade.



**Figure 26: Atmosphere, comprehension and communication in private lessons and language schools**

Both in private lessons and in language schools, pupils felt very comfortable in class, their comprehension in class was very good, and both groups found classes quite interesting, as we can see in Figure 26. However, they did not feel as free when it came to speaking English in class.

The only significant difference between private lessons and language schools we can see in Figure 26 concerns the amount of communication in English. While 87% of language school attendants reported communication in class being held mostly in English, only 57% of tutees said the same about private lessons.

### 3.6 Discussion

We will now discuss the results obtained, in that way answering the questions formulated at the beginning of the study.

Considering the difference between urban and rural areas, the distribution of parents' occupations did not differ greatly in Zagreb and Sv. I. Zelina if we look at the secondary and the tertiary sector. However, it is obvious that Zagreb was dominant in the quaternary economic sector, while Sv. I. Zelina had more employees in the primary sector. Zagreb was a more developed area with more highly educated people. Also, pupils from Zagreb had a higher GPA and better English grades than their peers from Sv. I. Zelina. Pupils from Zagreb reported being more motivated than pupils from Zelina. Also, they were more willing to speak English than their peers from Zelina, who felt less relaxed in English class and needed help with their homework more often. Furthermore, pupils from Zagreb were more exposed to informal media contents than participants from Zelina. According to Lopriore and Mihaljević Djigunović (2010), higher exposure, higher linguistic achievements, higher motivation, and perceiving English as easy to learn result in higher linguistic self-confidence.

Furthermore, pupils from Zagreb were more prone to attend language schools than to take private lessons, their main goal being the improvement of knowledge, not the grade. Pupils from Zelina took private lessons only before an oral or written examination, and their motivation was less driven by the will to improve their knowledge of English, regardless of their grade. Moreover, pupils from Zelina attended private lessons more often than they decided to attend private language schools, since private lessons had a more immediate influence on the grade. However, they were less constant, and that is why pupils from Zelina felt less successful in the four skills.

In this study, an equal number of pupils attended private lessons and private language schools. However, the number of pupils taking private lessons was higher in the rural area, and the number of pupils attending private language schools was higher in the urban area. The pupils in the rural area were more interested in improving their grade and less in improving their knowledge of the language. However, this might be a consequence of the difference between a large urban centre and a small town which did not have its own language school. Unlike pupils from Zagreb, pupils from Zelina could not choose between different language schools.

Private lessons were less constant and were more often taken with the goal to improve the grade. They were more often attended from time to time, and in shorter periods than private language schools. Unlike private lessons, private language schools were, on average, attended for a longer period of time and more regularly. Obviously, those who decided to enrol into private language schools saw it as a constant and continuous obligation. Private lessons, on the other hand – at least to the somewhat less than half of the pupils taking them – served only to temporarily “fix” something in a language, connected primarily to improving a grade.

The results of this study show that private language schools’ staff was more qualified than teachers providing private lessons. Unlike private language schools, which employed mostly qualified English teachers and, in a small number, students of English, teachers in private lessons were sometimes people without any education in the English language. However, it would be unadvisable to conclude that teachers in private tutoring were less qualified. Taking into consideration that the questionnaire was given to children as old as 11 and 14, it is more probable that they considered teachers at private language schools to be professors of English simply because of their role there. Most of pupils were probably not familiar with the level of education of their teachers. It is important to add that private tutors,



being in a much closer relationship with their tutees, are more often asked what level of education they have. Working with a private tutor often implied coming into a family's home, talking and getting to know each other more closely, and so children were more familiar with the tutor's personal life and his or her level of education than they were with the life of a teacher at a language school. Still, we may conclude that the level of qualified teachers in language schools was higher than that of qualified tutors, because there was not one case of a teacher at a language school without any education in the English language, while there were a few cases of unqualified private tutors. They could be either a person who had lived abroad for a while, a native speaker, or simply a person who used English in everyday life for business purposes.

Private language schools dealt with the language independently of the school curriculum. While they provided their own teaching materials, most private lessons usually focused on schoolbooks. Obviously, the primary goal of private tutoring was to explain the material covered at school more thoroughly and slowly, in more detail and by taking care of the pupils' individual characteristics. The comprehension was better and pupils got better grades at school, which was often the reason why pupils took private tutors in the first place, leading us to the next issue at matter.

Motivation for attending both private lessons and language schools was often the consequence of parental pressure. However, private lessons were mostly taken with the goal of improving the grade. As Bray (1999) states, the reason for taking supplementary tutoring – by far the greatest proportion indicated that it was because their academic performance was not very good. On the other hand, private language schools were attended with the aim of improving the knowledge of the language. Pupils wanted to get better at English, regardless of their grade, and they wanted to get to know the traditions and heritage of the West, as well as the modern Western culture they were surrounded by in their everyday lives, through learning

about English-speaking countries. Traditional integrative and internalized instrumental motives would typically explain this component. A more recent and broader conceptualization of motivation sees this wish to know more as being a part of the learner's self-system, with the motivation to learn an L2 being closely associated with the learner's ideal L2 self.

Pupils reported a higher feeling of improvement in listening, speaking, reading and writing when attending language schools than as a result of attending private lessons. This could be due to the frequency and length of attending language schools, unlike private lessons which were more often taken periodically and before a test or an examination. Classes that reported reaching less improvement in the four skills had the highest percentage of taking private lessons only before an examination or a test, and this targeted short-term studying often did not bring long-term results and the perception of improvement.

When it comes to the question of the influence of both private lessons and language schools on the school grade, we may conclude that improving an English grade was more often the case with pupils taking private lessons. The main motive for 64% of tutees who started taking lessons was improving their school grade; 50% of tutees managed to improve their grade. The same motive for 12% of attendants of private language schools resulted in 13% of them improved their grade. However, it is important to emphasize that those who decided to take private lessons had a lower average English grade than those who decided to attend private language schools: 4.07 and 4.93, respectively. There was less need for the latter to improve their grades in the first place. And although the difference between average English grades was not that big, casual observers sometimes assume that the dominant groups of pupils receiving tutoring comprise pupils whose academic performance is weak and who therefore need remedial assistance. In fact, the opposite is the case: the dominant group is of pupils whose performance is already good and who want to maintain their competitive edge (Bray, 1999).

Also, an important thing to mention is that communication in language schools is held mostly in English. English as a means of communication is more present in language schools than it is in private lessons.

### 3.7 Conclusion

In this thesis, we tried to answer the questions concerning extra-curricular exposure, focusing primarily on the formal extra-curricular exposure, namely private lessons and private language schools. In order to do that, we conducted a study which enlightened this poorly researched area. The main issues we tried to address regarded the potential differences between urban and rural contexts, motivation and its connection to the extra-curricular exposure, formal and informal. However, we primarily focused on the differences between private lessons and private language schools in terms of teachers, materials used, motivation for choosing one type over the other, and the influence of formal extra-curricular types of exposure on the grade.

Our findings suggest that there was a difference between pupils from urban and rural contexts. Families from rural context had a lower socioeconomic status which implies a lower level of education. Pupils from urban contexts had better grades, they reported being more motivated for learning English, and they were more exposed to informal media contents in comparison to their peers from rural contexts. They were more prone to attend private language schools, with the aim of improving the knowledge of language, not the grade. On the other hand, pupils from rural contexts preferred private lessons over private language schools, since they aimed more at improving the grade.

Comparing private lessons and private language schools, our study showed that private lessons were more often taken with the aim to improve the school grade, which they managed to do, while private language schools were more often attended with the aim of improving the knowledge of language by pupils with mostly excellent grades. Consequently, private language schools were attended for a longer period of time and more regularly. Teachers in

private lessons were in some cases less qualified than their colleagues in private language schools and the percentage of communication in English was lower in private lessons.

All in all, it should be noted that we tried to make a sound study covering a vast, and in terms of research, mostly unexplored area. Further, more detailed research based on the guidelines we have laid out could bring more exciting findings.

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## 5 APPENDIX

### 5.1 Questionnaire

#### UPITNIK

Dragi učenici,

Ijubazno vas molim da ispunite ovaj upitnik koji se odnosi na vaš stav prema nastavi engleskog jezika te ispituje pohađate li, osim obvezne nastave engleskog jezika u školi, privatne satove engleskog (instrukcije) i/ili školu stranih jezika. Vaši podaci su povjerljivi i koristit će se isključivo u svrhu istraživanja za moj diplomski rad.

Hvala što ste odvojili vrijeme da mi pomognete.

#### Prvi dio

I.

1. Što su ti po zanimanju roditelji:

otac: \_\_\_\_\_ majka: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Koji razred pohađaš: \_\_\_\_\_

3. S koliko si prošao prošlu godinu? \_\_\_\_\_

4. Što misliš, s koliko ćeš proći ovu školsku godinu? \_\_\_\_\_

5. Koju si ocjenu imao zaključenu iz engleskog jezika na kraju prošle školske godine? \_\_\_\_\_

6. Što misliš, koja će ti ocjena biti zaključena iz engleskog ove godine? \_\_\_\_\_

II.

Na sljedeća pitanja odgovori zaokruživanjem onog odgovora koji se odnosi na tebe:

1. Na nastavi engleskog jezika osjećam se:

a) neugodno      b) ne baš dobro      c) neutralno      d) dobro      e) vrlo dobro

2. Na satu engleskog jezika:

- a) nadam se da me profesorica neće prozvati
- b) nikad se ne javljam na satu
- c) rijetko se javljam za sudjelovanje na satu

- d) ponekad se javljam za sudjelovanje na satu  
e) često se javljam za sudjelovanje na satu

3. Ako su sljedeće tvrdnje točne za tebe, zaokruži DA, a ako se ne odnose na tebe, zaokruži NE.

Imam veliku volju za učenje engleskog jezika. DA / NE

Engleski mi nije jedan od dražih predmeta u školi. DA / NE

Satovi engleskog jako su mi zanimljivi. DA / NE

Često trebam pomoć pri rješavanju zadaće iz engleskog. DA / NE

Volim govoriti na engleskom. DA / NE

Svladavanje gradiva iz engleskog mi često predstavlja problem. DA / NE

Nije mi ugodno govoriti na engleskom. DA / NE

4. Smatraš li da je važno i korisno učiti engleski jezik?

- a) Uopće nije važno. b) Nije jako važno. c) Nemam stav o tome. d) Važno je. e) Vrlo je važno.

III. Molim vas da zacrnite odgovarajući kružić s obzirom na to koliko vremena tjedno potrošite na odgovarajuću aktivnost:

	0h	1h	2h	3h	4h	5h	više
Gledanje filmova, crtića i/ili serija na engleskom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Igranje igrica na kompjutoru na engleskom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Slušanje glazbe na engleskom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Čitanje web stranica na engleskom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pisanje na engleskom (facebook, chatu, e-mail)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Razgovaranje na engleskom (skype)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Napiši u kojim još sve situacijama koristiš engleski, a nisu do sada nabrojane! Slobodno navedi konkretan primjer.

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**Drugi dio**

1. Ideš li na privatne satove engleskog jezika (instrukcije)? \_\_\_\_\_
2. Jesi li ikada išao na instrukcije iz engleskog jezika? \_\_\_\_\_

Ukoliko su oba tvoja odgovora negativna, napiši koji su razlozi zbog kojih ne ideš i nisi nikada išao na instrukcije!

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**Ukoliko si na barem jedno od gore postavljena dva pitanja odgovorio s „DA“, ljubazno te molim da nastaviš rješavati upitnik. Ukoliko su oba tvoja odgovorna negativna, možeš prijeći na treći dio ovog upitnika.**

Koliko dugo si išao/išla ili ideš na instrukcije?

---

Koliko često imaš instrukcije?

- a) samo prije testa ili ispitivanja
- b) 1 h tjedno
- c) 2 h tjedno
- d) više od 2 h tjedno

Tko ti drži instrukcije iz engleskog?

- a) profesor/ica engleskog jezika
- b) student/ica engleskog jezika
- c) osoba koja nema obrazovanje u engleskom jeziku

Koje materijale koristite na instrukcijama?

- a) školske knjige i bilježnicu

- b) neke druge knjige ( ako znaš koje, navedi ih) \_\_\_\_\_
- c) profesor/ica donosi vlastite materijale

Zašto si krenuo/la na instrukcije?

- roditelji su to predložili      DA / NE
- morao/la sam podići ocjenu iz engleskog      DA / NE
- da poboljšam svoj engleski neovisno o ocjeni koju imam u školi, upoznam kulturu engleskog govornog područja      DA / NE

Otkad ideš na instrukcije, osjećaš li napredak u:

- slušanju/razumijevanju engleskog jezika      DA / NE
- govorenju engleskog jezika      DA / NE
- čitanju engleskog jezika      DA / NE
- pisanju engleskog jezika      DA / NE

U periodu u kojem si išao/ideš na instrukcije, jesi li povisio svoju ocjenu iz engleskog jezika u školi?

- DA, s \_\_\_\_ na \_\_\_\_
- NE

Ukoliko smatraš da je tvrdnja točna za tebe, zaokruži DA, a ukoliko se tvrdnja ne odnosi na tebe, zaokruži NE.

- Na instrukcijama se osjećam dobro i ugodno.      DA / NE
- Na satu rado komuniciram na engleskom jeziku.      DA / NE
- Veći dio sata pričamo na hrvatskom.      DA / NE
- Nakon instrukcija, gradivo mi ostaje nejasno.      DA / NE
- Na satu jako puno pričamo na engleskom.      DA / NE
- Na satovima mi je jako dosadno.      DA / NE
- Gradivo mi je jasno nakon instrukcija.      DA / NE
- Na instrukcijama se ne osjećam ugodno.      DA / NE
- Na satu nerado komuniciram na engleskom jeziku.      DA / NE
- Satovi su mi jako zanimljivi.      DA / NE

**Treći dio**

1. Pohađaš li satove engleskog jezika u školi stranih jezika? \_\_\_\_\_
2. Jesi li ikada pohađao satove engleskog jezika u školi stranih jezika? \_\_\_\_\_

Ukoliko su oba tvoja odgovora negativna, napiši koji su razlozi zbog kojih ne pohađaš i nikada nisi pohađao engleski u školi stranih jezika!

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**Ukoliko si na barem jedno od ova dva pitanja odgovorio s „DA“, ljubazno te molim da nastaviš rješavati upitnik. Ukoliko su oba tvoja odgovorna negativna, tvoje ispunjavanje ovog upitnika je završeno. Puno hvala!**

Koliko dugo si išao/išla ili ideš u školu stranih jezika?

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Koliko često imaš satove engleskog jezika u školi stranih jezika? \_\_\_\_\_ sata tjedno.

Tko ti predaje engleski u školi stranih jezika?

- d) profesor/ica engleskog jezika
- e) student/ica engleskog jezika
- f) osoba koja nema obrazovanje u engleskom jeziku

Koje materijale koristite na satovima engleskog jezika u školi stranih jezika?

1. školske knjige i bilježnicu
2. neke druge knjige ( ako znaš koje, navedi ih) \_\_\_\_\_
3. profesor/ica donosi vlastite materijale

Zašto si krenuo/la u školu stranih jezika?

- roditelji su to predložili      DA / NE
- morao/la sam podići ocjenu iz engleskog      DA / NE
- da poboljšam svoj engleski neovisno o ocjeni koju imam u školi, upoznam kulturu engleskog govornog područja      DA / NE

Otkad ideš u školu stranih jezika, osjećaš li napredak u:

- slušanju/razumijevanju engleskog jezika      DA / NE
- govorenju engleskog jezika      DA / NE
- čitanju engleskog jezika      DA / NE
- pisanju engleskog jezika      DA / NE

U periodu u kojem si išao/ideš u školu stranih jezika, jesi li povišio svoju ocjenu iz engleskog jezika u školi?

- DA, s \_\_\_\_ na \_\_\_\_
- NE

Ukoliko smatraš da je tvrdnja točna za tebe, zaokruži DA, a ukoliko se tvrdnja ne odnosi na tebe, zaokruži NE.

- Na satovima engleskog u školi stranih jezika osjećam se dobro i ugodno.      DA / NE
- Na satu rado komuniciram na engleskom jeziku.      DA / NE
- Veći dio sata pričamo na hrvatskom.      DA / NE
- Nakon sata, gradivo mi ostaje nejasno.      DA / NE
- Na satu jako puno pričamo na engleskom.      DA / NE
- Na satovima mi je jako dosadno.      DA / NE
- Gradivo mi je jasno nakon sata.      DA / NE
- Na satovima engleskog u školi stranih jezika ne osjećam se ugodno.      DA / NE
- Na satu nerado komuniciram na engleskom jeziku.      DA / NE
- Satovi su mi jako zanimljivi.      DA / NE