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Elisabeth Schauer

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1. Introduction

In the context of the global world of the 21st century, it is crucial to be able to communicate with people from different cultures who speak different languages. Apart from allowing intercultural communication and tolerance, speaking (a) common language(s) permits working, travelling and studying across national borders (cf. European Commission 2006a:1). For this reason, being able to communicate in at least one language which is not one's mother tongue seems to be vital. A study carried out by the European Commission (2006) proved that among citizens of the European Union there is a consensus about this fact:

83% of citizens of the Member States consider that knowing foreign languages is or could be useful for them personally, over half (53%) appreciating language skills as very useful.
(European Commission 2006a:7)

English is the most widely known language apart from the mother tongue in the majority of countries (19 out of 29). For this reason, it is undoubtedly the most widely known language apart from the mother tongue; there seems to be general agreement that the English language is *the* lingua franca used for international communication in many fields. 51% of participants in the 'Eurobarometer' study state that they speak English either as their mother tongue or as a foreign language (cf. European Commission 2006a:5). This fact leads to the conclusion that English is of vital importance for communication in the European Union (and, of course, outside the E.U. as well). Although they agree that speaking at least one foreign language is crucial, citizens of the European Union, though, do not have comparable skills when it comes to speaking English. It is a fact that knowledge of foreign languages is not equal in all member countries of the European Union (cf. European Commission 2006a:3ff.). The fundamental questions are: Why is this the case and what can be done to achieve a similar level of foreign language competence in all E.U. citizens?

Assuming that motivation to learn and speak a foreign language is a determining factor when it comes to language learning and that such motivation can have a decisive impact on whether a person will succeed in the target language or not, this topic was chosen as a central issue of the present paper. According to Gardner (2001), language achievement and persistence in the language study are closely linked to motivation in language learning (cf. Gardner 2001:12). Based on the facts elaborated by the study 'Eurobarometer' (2006) which reveal that there are

considerable differences concerning skills in foreign languages between member states of the European Union, it was assumed that people in different countries also have different types of motivation to learn (or not to learn) the target language.

In order to illuminate peoples' perceptions about the English language and its use as a foreign language, a field study was conducted in two specific countries: Austria and Spain. In the study, secondary school pupils of Lower Austria and Galicia ($N=192$) were asked for their opinions about the English language and to explain in which situations they make use of it outside the classroom. In the questionnaire designed for this purpose, special focus was placed on how cultural differences influence motivation to speak the foreign language, whether there is a general trend of attitudes towards the English language and whether these attitudes differ in the two countries.

The first part of this paper intends to confront the reader with a variety of theories connected to the widely used term 'Motivation'. The most important research findings of this field are presented and compared. Furthermore, the close connection of language and identity, which naturally has a crucial impact on students' attitudes towards the target language, will be analysed. Also, in the first part, possible types of students' motivation, are explained and compared. A central concept underlying the analysis of students' opinions is the construct of 'Willingness to Communicate', which was developed by MacIntyre et al. (1998) concerning second and foreign language use (cf. MacIntyre 1994:138f.). This model tries to explain causes that influence the initiation or avoidance of communication in the target language. 'Willingness to Communicate' (WTC) is related to frequency and quality of L2 contact, identification with the target cultures ('Integrative motivation'), perceived linguistic competence and communication apprehension (cf. Clément et al. 2003:192; Hashimoto 2002:47; MacIntyre et al. 2002:540). In other words, positive experiences using the target language and confidence in the foreign language lead to an increase in WTC, whereas WTC declines, if the person feels anxious or perceives his/her linguistic competence to be too low to communicate successfully (cf. MacIntyre 1994:138f.). Assuming that 'Willingness to Communicate' is decisive when it comes to success or failure in the process of learning a foreign language, all these contributing factors will be analysed in considerable detail.

The theoretical research findings were the basis for the preparation of the questionnaire, which was given to Austrian and Spanish secondary school students.

A range of the items included are related to participants' experiences with the English language: questions concerning students' use of English in their leisure time and use of 'English Media' intend to find out more about how these experiences influence learners' perception of the target language and the importance they attach to learning the language.

To analyse perceived linguistic competence, items relating to self-perception were included in the questionnaire. An analysis of the responses gives insights into how far these findings coincide with the outcomes of the 'Eurobarometer' (2006), in which E.U. citizens of different countries were confronted with statements about foreign language learning. According to this study, 56% of Austrian participants agree with the statement 'In my country, people are good at speaking other languages', whereas only 39% of Spanish participants agree (cf. European Commission 2006b:58). Whether these findings are true for the participants in this study will be analysed. Linguistic self-assessment is closely connected to issues of communication apprehension. Language learners who feel competent in the target language will not be afraid of committing errors, whereas those who feel incapable of communicating successfully will suffer from a higher grade of anxiety. Due to the strong link of WTC to Language Anxiety, this issue is given considerable importance both in the theoretical part and in the analysis of responses given by the students.

1.1. Research questions

Based on an analysis of the statistical data obtained in Austria and Spain, the present project intends to answer the following research questions connected to the field of language learning motivation:

- What motivates learners of English to use the language outside the classroom?
- Which factors affect them negatively and result in a reluctance to speak?
- How do learners in Austria and Spain perceive their linguistic competence?
- Do Austrian and Spanish learners have the same types of motivation to speak English in their leisure time?

1.2. Aims of the project

The use of the target language outside the classroom is a goal of every language course. Researchers have found that its use plays a crucial role in SLA (Seliger,

1977; Swain 1995, 1998 quoted in: Hashimoto 2002:29). For this reason, successful language teaching should provide students with linguistic and non-linguistic tools to actively use the target language in informal conversation. Personality factors and cultural attitudes as well as external factors such as the atmosphere of the language classroom or parental encouragement have an influence on motivation. Teachers of English should, for this reason, be aware of their students' perception of the target language. It is crucial to know about their attitudes towards English, in what situations they use the language outside the classroom and what kind of motivation they need in order to speak with confidence. When having all possible factors influencing motivation to learn in mind, teachers will be able to focus their lessons more effectively on their learners' needs and, thus, make the teaching and learning process more successful. The aim of this paper is to give insights into possible types of motivation of secondary school pupils in Lower Austria and Galicia, helping teachers to understand why their students want to learn English, for what reasons they use it in their leisure time and why it is sometimes so hard for them to actually speak in a language that is not their own.

2. Motivation: attempting a definition

Today, there is no doubt about the crucial role of motivation in second and foreign language learning. Along with language aptitude it is a central element determining success in learning another language. Not only does it influence achievement, but also persistence in language study, participation in bicultural excursions and language retention (cf. Gardner 2001:12). Although researchers, teachers and students seem to agree that motivation is a central element in language learning, difficulties arise when it comes to defining the concept of 'motivation'.

Since 1959, when Gardner & Lambert discovered "that second language (L2) achievement was related not only to language aptitude but also to motivation" (Gardner & Tremblay 1994:366 quoted in Dörnyei 1994:516), several models have been established which try to capture the essence of the motivation construct. Motivational variables have been investigated in various contexts and language learning motivation has become a central element in theories about second and foreign language acquisition and learning (see for example Clément, 1980; Gardner, 1985; Krashen 1981; Spolsky 1985).

Reeve (1992) defines motivation as something that “[...] gives behaviour its energy and direction.” (Reeve 1992 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:46) This definition implies that (1) all human behaviour is driven by some kind of motivation, (2) behaviour has to have a ‘direction’ and (3) the amount of ‘energy’ which underlies certain behaviour differs with different people and in different situations. In the context of second language learning, Gardner (1985) defines motivation as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity”. (Gardner 1985:10 quoted in Gardner & Tremblay 1995:506).

This definition includes three components: (a) effort expended to achieve a goal, (b) a desire to learn the language, and (c) satisfaction with the task of learning the language.
(Gardner & Tremblay 1995:506)

In other words, when talking about second and foreign language learning motivation, we have to ask ourselves: What determines the intensity of effort to achieve the goal and why does it differ with different people? What advantages do students see in learning the target language (cf. MacIntyre 2002:46) and why is their behaviour directed towards this goal of learning the language?

Many researchers have been concerned with the task of defining the concept of motivation more clearly in order to better understand this important aspect of language learning. Even though there are many models providing explanations of what variables influence the individual’s motivation, it is nearly impossible to give a single definition of the term. The issue is even more complicated concerning second and foreign language learning. According to Dörnyei (1996), language learning motivation does not only contain a social, but also an educational and a personal, dimension. Thus, when analysing the individual’s motivation to learn a language, all of these aspects have to be borne in mind. Gardner, who has spent a great part of his research on the topic of second language learning motivation, claims that “[it] really isn’t possible to give a simple definition of motivation” (Gardner 2007:9), but he refers to cognitive, affective and behavioural characteristics to describe ‘the motivated individual’. He opines that a motivated language learner has a clear goal, for example, having a good pronunciation of the target language. In order to reach this goal, s/he “[...] expends effort, is persistent [and] attentive [...]” (Gardner 2007:9). Furthermore, s/he has clear motives to learn the language (for example,

gaining a better understanding of the target culture or getting a good grade in the English course). Also, the motivated individual “has expectancies [and] demonstrates self-confidence (‘self-efficacy’)” (Gardner 2007:9). According to Gardner, having favourable attitudes towards the task of learning the language is an indispensable characteristic of the motivated individual (cf. Gardner 2007:9).

When talking about the concept of motivation itself, Gardner distinguishes three characteristics which are important to consider, namely “[...] attitudes toward learning the language, desire to learn the language and motivation intensity” (Gardner 1985:54). This statement implies that “motivation involves an attitudinal component” (Gardner 1985:53). When analysing motivation in the language learning context, we distinguish between ‘attitudes towards the learning situation’ (such as the language teacher, the course materials etc.) and ‘attitudes towards the target culture’. These attitudes might, in turn, have a direct influence on the desire to learn the language. The influences of attitudes on motivation will be discussed in the next section. Motivation is directly linked to behaviour, such as communicating in a specific situation. Behaviour, in turn, has a strong effect on learning outcomes and achievement in the second/foreign language (cf. Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:20). Success in second and foreign language learning is, therefore, strongly linked to motivation.

3. Motivation theories

In this section, different approaches of explaining motivation in second and foreign language learning processes will be introduced and compared. The study of motivation consists of a vast field of theoretical and empirical research. Presenting conceptual frameworks, thus, implies “slicing off a small piece of the theoretical pie.” (MacIntyre 2002:55). It is nearly impossible to present every existing theory concerning motivation; in fact “it is not the lack but rather the abundance of theory of motivation theories that confuses the scene” (Dörnyei 1996). It is also impossible to present all variables affecting motivated behaviour in a single theory, because different perspectives on the topic imply different explanations of the concept of motivation. For these reasons, only a selection of existing approaches will be examined in this paper. The theoretical frameworks presented here are intended to give an overview of one of the most influential models, Gardner’s ‘Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition’, and compare it to some propositions made by researchers for the improvement of this model.

3.1. The Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition

Until 1972, when Gardner and Lambert published their findings of an empirical research which demonstrated the importance of motivation in second language acquisition, the only factors taken into account as being influential in the success of language learning were aptitude and intelligence. In other words, motivation in the context of second and foreign language learning has only been judged as important for just over three decades. Nonetheless, there has been a lot of research done in this area since the 1970s and a huge amount of models have emerged.

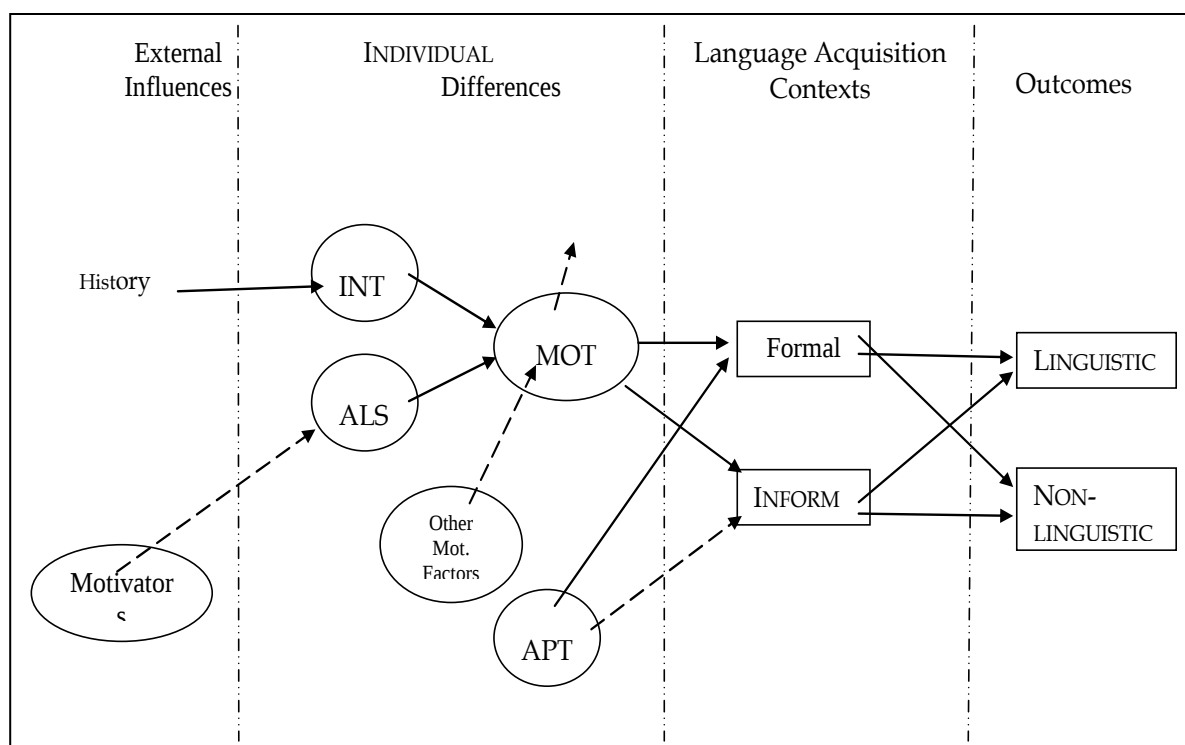
One of the most influential theories about second language acquisition is a social psychological theory which was created and elaborated by Gardner et al., the so-called 'Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition', which has undoubtedly dominated the research in this field (cf. Oxford 1996). Although this framework has been widely accepted, it has been criticised by various researchers, who argue that its dominance has prevented the exploration of other motivational models (cf. MacIntyre 2002:45).

According to Gardner, the decisive contributors to language learning motivation are the student, his/her personal background and external factors (e.g. the teacher, the classmates etc.) (cf. Gardner 2001:17). More specifically, 'The Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition', which was developed in a second language learning environment, consists of four general sections. These sections are further divided into individual variables. The model intends to point at a number of factors which influence an individual's motivation to learn a second language. The first section, 'External Influences', describes how background variables have an influence on what Gardner calls 'Integrativeness (INT)' and 'Attitudes toward the Learning Situation (ALS)', which in succession, directly influence motivation. The section 'External Influences' consists of two factors, 'History' and 'Motivators'. By establishing the parameter 'History', Gardner demonstrates that social and personal variables have an important influence on the individual's motivation to learn a language (cf. Gardner 2001:4). In other words, the socio-cultural milieu such as the personal family background, or the cultural background are considered important factors influencing second language learning motivation. Individual differences summed up by the term 'Motivators' are also mentioned in Gardner's model. He highlights the personal conflict, which is implied by learning a second or foreign language:

[...] learning another language involves making something foreign a part of one's self. As such, one's conception of the "self" and their willingness to open it up to change, as well as their attitudes toward the other community, or out-groups in general, will influence how well they can make this material part of their behavioural repertoires [...] learning a second language involves taking on the behavioural characteristics of another cultural group of people, and that this has implications for the individual.
(Gardner 2001:6)

Although these implications might not be any form of barrier for some language learners, they constitute an immense conflict for others. Thus, these personal variables have a significant effect both on 'Integrativeness' and 'Attitudes toward the Learning Situation'- two concepts that will now be explained in detail.

The term 'Integrativeness', which has been cause for an intense theoretical debate among researchers, describes a desire to identify with another cultural group. It "[...] reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer psychologically to the other language community" (Gardner 2001:7). If an individual emotionally identifies with the speakers of the target language, it will have a direct implication on his/ her motivation to learn this language. A learner who is integratively motivated wants to learn the language in order to communicate with members of the target culture and has positive attitudes towards the language learning situation (cf. Gardner 2007:18). An 'emotional identification' with the target group plus 'general foreign language interest' and 'attitudes toward the target community' form what Gardner calls 'Integrativeness'. The other variable, which has a direct influence on motivation is 'Attitudes toward the Learning Situation'. It involves attitudes towards factors influencing the immediate learning environment, such as the teacher, the course materials or the course in general (cf. Gardner 2001:8).

Figure1: Revised Socio-Educational Model

Source: Gardner 2001:5.

The model illustrated in Figure 1 shows that motivation is influenced by many factors, which cannot be grasped in detail and vary between the individual situations. Instrumental factors, for example, can have an important role in motivation. According to Gardner (1985), an instrumentally oriented learner sees the learning of the target language as a possible advantage, as for example when passing exams, for economic reasons (such as, for example, getting a better job) or for social advancement (i.e. prestige) (cf. Gardner 1985, 1989 quoted in Oxford 1996).

For discussing motivation that is connected specifically to the school context, Gardner proposes to analyse its influences from two perspectives: the 'Educational Context' and the 'Cultural Context'. Both contexts have to be taken into consideration, because they "do not operate in isolation of one another" (Gardner 2007:15). 'Educational context' is concerned with the immediate educational situation, such as the teacher, the atmosphere during the lessons, the classroom, used materials, the curriculum etc. (cf. Gardner 2007:14). Concerning the student's 'Cultural Context' we have to ask the following questions: What is his or her cultural

background? What ideals, beliefs and attitudes does s/he have? What personality characteristics does s/he have? According to Gardner, “[a]ll of these characteristics originate and develop in the overall cultural context as well as in the immediate family” (Gardner 2007:13). Characteristics that derive from this ‘Cultural Context’ have a direct influence on what Gardner calls ‘Integrativeness’ (e.g. interest in learning the language in order to interact with member of the target culture), whereas variables linked to the ‘Educational context’ are directly linked to ‘Attitudes toward the learning situation’ (cf. Gardner 2007:14).

Though ‘Integrativeness’ and ‘Attitudes toward the Learning situation’ are central components of Gardner et al.’s model, they also label “[...] Motivation, [...] Language Anxiety, Instrumental Orientation, and Parental Encouragement” (Gardner 2007:16) as depicting characteristics of the student.

Research has clearly shown that motivation highly correlates with achievement, i.e. the higher the motivation of the individual learner, the better his/her grade in the language course (cf. e.g. Gardner 2007:16, MacIntyre 2002:50). Also, ‘Integrativeness’ has a significant influence on achievement. Gardner claims that students who have positive attitudes towards the target culture and will be more willing to take on characteristics of the respective group and increase motivation (cf. Gardner 2007:16). According to him, ‘Instrumental motivation’ correlates with success, but does not have such a great influence on the grade as ‘Integrative motivation’ does. The model also indicates that Language Anxiety has a negative influence on English Grades (cf. Gardner 2007:16). Gardner argues that ‘Integrativeness’ and ‘Attitudes toward the Learning Situation’ have a significant impact on language learning motivation. He claims that both educational and cultural context have an effect on motivation and, in turn, on success in the learning process (cf. Gardner 2007:18).

With ‘The Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition’, Gardner clearly states that motivation is a driving force in achievement in a second language and has a direct influence on the outcomes.

3.1.1. ‘Integrativeness’- an obsolete concept in the 21st century?

Although Gardner has profoundly shaped the field of L2 motivational research, his model has been repeatedly challenged for various reasons. The Socio-Educational Model was mainly criticised for its dominance in the research field, impeding the

development of new theories (cf. MacIntyre 2002:51). One of the most scrutinised aspects of his work is the fact that a great part of his research was conducted in the bilingual part of Canada, where English has a different status than it has in countries where this language is taught as a school subject, but not spoken as an official language. This implies that the Socio-Educational Model might only be applicable to specific cultural contexts (cf. Noels et al. 2000:60 quoted in Ryan 2009:123).

This finding calls into question the metaphor 'Integrativeness', which has been given considerable importance in Gardner's model. The term was initially coined by Lambert (1972) who used it to refer to "[...] a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other [language] group" (Lambert 1972 quoted in Gardner, 1985:133). The notion of 'Integrativeness' thus, labels learners' belief systems and their attitudes toward a specific cultural group (i.e. the community where the target language is spoken). Researchers argue that in foreign language contexts, 'Integrativeness' might not be applicable due to the fact that learners are not in direct contact with native speakers and therefore have no need to 'integrate' (cf. Dörnyei 2009:24). In his research, Dörnyei stresses the importance of a distinction between a second and a foreign language learning context. In the field of language learning, a foreign language is defined as one that is learnt in a place where that language is not typically used as the medium of ordinary communication (for example, English as it is usually learnt in Spain). In other words, foreign language learners are typically in contact with the target language only in the classroom, but do not usually use it in natural conversation. In contrast, second language settings imply constant contact with the language that has to be learnt (such as English or French in Canada). Contact with the target culture and the language will, therefore, be more natural. For this reason, the integrative factor might be more relevant to second language learners, such as for the participants in Gardner's research. In other words, 'Integrativeness', which has been the centre of research for many years, needs a specific 'target culture' to which one aims to adapt. In the context of the 21st century, in which the English language has a special status as an international language for communication across borders, this specific group of reference no longer exists. Today, there is no single culture that 'owns' the English language, meaning that there is also no one group to which one might wish to integrate. The fundamental question is: How can we apply the concept of 'Integrativeness' if there is no specific target group of speakers (cf. Ushioda & Dörnyei 2009: 3)?

In the context of the 21st century, the notion 'Integrativeness' either becomes obsolete or is in need of a redefinition. Today, researchers agree that integrative reasons to learn a language are not necessarily connected to a specific target group, but rather to a new concept of developing language skills for communication with members of different cultures.

Yashima (2002), who performs research in the Japanese context, proposes a new definition of the term. She uses the notion of 'Integrativeness' to

[...] refer to a generalised international outlook or 'international posture' [such as] 'interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners and [...] openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures.
(Yashima 2002:57 quoted in Ushioda & Dörnyei 2009: 3)

Bearing this new definition in mind, 'Integrativeness' might still be an important motivational factor that influences learners of English as a foreign language. Gardner's model, thus, has not necessarily become obsolete, but simply needs redefinition and adaptation to the context of a global world, in which English has a different status than it had in second language settings. The importance of 'English as a World Language' and its implications for learners' motivation will be discussed in detail in the section about 'Types of Motivation'.

3.2. Focus on learners' autonomy: Self-Determination Theory (1985)

Among emerging theories trying to capture the concept of language learning motivation, Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci 1985) has received particular attention. Self-Determination Theory conceptualises two general types of motivation, which are applied in many studies: Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (see for example Brown, 1994; Dickinson, 1995; Dörnyei, 1994a; Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997). This theory, which emphasises learners' autonomy and responsibility, allows for a reorganisation of the concept of motivation (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 73; Noels 1990:37). Ryan & Deci (1985) assume that "[...] humans have an inclination toward activity and integration, but also have a vulnerability to passivity" (Ryan & Deci 2000: 76). As already mentioned, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) distinguishes two general types of motivation: "[...] one based on intrinsic interest in the activity per se and the other based on rewards extrinsic to the activity itself" (Noels 1990:87).

Intrinsic Motivation describes an “[...] inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn” (Ryan & Deci 2000: 69). The basis of Intrinsic Motivation (IM) is an innate interest and pleasure in performing a challenging activity, which is perceived as a rewarding experience in itself. Ryan & Deci distinguish between three types of Intrinsic Motivation. The first type, which they denominate ‘IM-Knowledge’, is concerned with positive feelings connected to the development of knowledge or exploration of new ideas. ‘IM- Accomplishment’ is strongly related to motivations concerned with the accomplishment of a specific task or the achievement of a goal. The third type, ‘IM-Stimulation’ relates to positive feelings aroused by the performance of the task, such as fun or aesthetic appreciation (cf. Noels 1990:38). Ryan & Deci hypothesise that when individuals are confronted with an interesting and challenging task, they will probably choose to perform it. Their theory is concerned with how Intrinsic Motivation can be elicited and sustained (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 69).

Extrinsic Motivation (EM) is related to behaviour that is displayed in order to achieve an instrumental goal, such as getting a good grade or avoiding punishment (cf. Noels 1990:39). Ryan & Deci argue that EM varies significantly in autonomy. For this reason they propose a continuum of relative autonomy (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 71). According to them, ‘External Regulation’ depicts the least autonomous behaviour, followed by ‘Introjected Regulation’, which describes a controlled form of regulation in which actions are performed due to some sort of pressure such as avoidance of punishment (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 72).

Although the source of the pressure is internal, it is not self-determined because the people are reacting to a pressure, not acting on the basis of personal choice. An example of this type of regulation are the students who practice an L2 because they would feel ashamed if they could not speak the L2. Learning would only take place as long as they felt the need to reduce guilt.

(Noels 1990:39f.)

‘Regulation through Identification’ is a more self-determined form of Extrinsic Motivation, reflecting a conscious valuation of the behavioural goal (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000:72). Ryan & Deci label the most autonomous form of EM ‘Integrated Regulation’ which describes behaviour that is exhibited in order to attain specific outcomes and achieve goals. These outcomes are congruent with one’s values and needs, but are still considered as extrinsic because the action is performed not purely

for the mere enjoyment of the task (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 72f.). In their theory, Ryan & Deci also establish the concept of 'Amotivation' which contrasts with all types of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation and refers to situations in which people do not see a relation between their actions and the consequences, meaning that individuals have no reason to perform a specific behaviour.

Amotivation results from not valuing an activity (Ryan, 1995), not feeling competent to do it (Bandura, 1986), or not expecting it to yield a desired outcome (Seligman, 1975).
(Ryan & Deci 2000: 72)

Ryan & Deci (1985) found out that if students are intrinsically motivated, they show interest, intensify effort to achieve a goal and assume responsibilities for their actions. The more externally regulated students are, the less they assume responsibilities and the more they tend to blame others (such as teachers) (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 73). These findings were proved and extended by other researchers (see for example Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992; Miserandino, 1996; Hayamizu, 1997) who claim that the more autonomous the student is the higher their engagement and the better their language performance (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 73).

3.3. Focus on the educational context: Crookes and Schmidt (1991)

Crookes & Schmidt (1991) offer one of the harshest critiques of Gardner's model, stating that its dominance in the research area has prevented the establishment of other motivational theories (cf. MacIntyre 2002:51). They demand a stronger orientation of research on the educational context and a clear relation to language learning classrooms. Also, they repeat criticism of the concept 'Integrativeness', stating that "[...] empirical evidence is not clear enough to support the notion that integrative motivation is a cause and second language achievement the effect" (Crookes & Schmidt 1991 quoted in Liuolienė 2006: 95). Crookes & Schmidt draw attention to the fact that research has focused mainly on social aspects of motivation but disregarded cognitive influences. They argue that the neglect of these factors stems from a view that language learning is mainly an unconscious process, that is

[...] therefore difficult to reconcile with the concept of motivation, which is associated primarily with effort, choice, voluntary behavior, and other phenomena associated with consciousness.
(Crookes & Schmidt, 1991: 483 quoted in Graham 2003, online)

For their own model (1991), they adapted Keller's (1983) education-oriented theory that distinguishes between four factors to consider when talking about motivation. According to Keller, interest (in an activity or a topic), relevance (for the student), expectancy (of success) and outcomes (satisfaction with the achievement) are the major determinants of motivation (cf. MacIntyre 2002:51; Liuolienė 2006: 95). Each of Keller's four conditions reflects a value placed on a specific task.

Adopting Keller's determinants, Crookes & Schmidt identify four levels of language learning motivation: (a) the Micro Level, which is concerned with language input on a cognitive level; (b) the Classroom Level, which regards the student's immediate learning environment and considers activities and approaches applied in the classroom; (c) the Syllabus Level, which concerns choice of content, and (d) factors from outside the classroom, which include interaction in the second language outside school. Crookes & Schmidt argue that motivation can be influenced by various factors, such as the expectancy of success in a challenging activity ('Classroom Level'). Considering the Micro-Level, for example, motivation can be measured by the amount of attention paid to the input of the L2. On the Syllabus Level, curiosity and aroused interest can be important determinants of motivation (Crookes & Schmidt 1991 quoted in Liuolienė 2006: 95f.).

3.4. Dimensions of language learning motivation: social, personal and educational factors

In Gardner's Socio-Educational Model, motivation is determined by three motivational dimensions, 'Integrativeness', 'Instrumentality', and 'Attitudes towards the Learning Situation' (cf. Dörnyei 2009:30). Dörnyei (1994, 2005) proposes different models of L2 learning motivation, claiming that Gardner's framework does not include all influential parameters when talking about language learning motivation.

In his model presented in 1994, he agrees with the distinction of 'Instrumentality' and 'Integrativeness', but elaborates a framework which includes additional components of L2 motivation, which, according to him, have not been considered in earlier research (cf. MacIntyre 2002:52). Basing his findings on Clément et al. (1994), Dörnyei proposes three levels of motivation, which coincide with "[...] the three basic constituents of the second language learning process" (Dörnyei 1996) and also reflect the general dimensions of language. In what he calls

'Social dimension', integrative and instrumental types of motivation which concern the target language are included. Concerning the language learner ('Personal dimension'), issues such as self-confidence, need for achievement, perceived L2 competence or Language Anxiety are taken into consideration (cf. Dörnyei 1994:280). In his framework, Dörnyei devotes considerable attention to a dimension which is concerned with 'Educational subjects' ('Educational Subject matter dimension'). According to him, the immediate language learning environment (such as the teacher, the classmates or the curriculum) has considerable importance when talking about motivation to learn a foreign language (cf. MacIntyre 2002:53). Dörnyei also introduces new categories to the concept of motivation by adding dimensions to the learner level. Personality factors, such as need for achievement, self-confidence and language use anxiety, are important aspects of language learning motivation. Also, self-evaluation of the skills in the foreign language, Dörnyei calls it 'Perceived Competence', plays a significant role.

3.5. Dörnyei's 'L2 Motivational Self System' (2005)

A new model proposed by Dörnyei (2005) which contains findings from second/foreign language research and psychology tries to adapt research findings of the past decades to the setting of the 21st century, in which language learning has added a new dimension. The strength of this model lies in its focus on the individual learner's characteristics instead of fixed attitudes of a target language group (cf. MacIntyre 2009:51). Dörnyei's theory is based on the assumption that learning a language is a different process from learning any other subject, as it is linked "[...] to the individual's personal 'core', forming an important part of one's identity" (Dörnyei 2009:9).

His framework is predicated on a concept related to a person's view of him/herself at present and in the future. Dörnyei applies Markus & Nurius' (1986) distinction of three possible types of selves that co-exist in every person and show how individuals "[...] conceptualise their as-yet unrealised potential [...]: 'ideal selves that we would very much like to become', (2) 'selves that we could become', and (3) 'selves we are afraid of becoming'" (Markus & Nurius 1986 quoted in Dörnyei 2009:11f.). Markus & Nurius' framework has inspired various researchers who have adapted and expanded their concept.

Higgins (1987), for example, makes a similar distinction of 'possible future selves' and calls them (1) the 'ideal self', which "[...] refers to the representation of the attributes that one would ideally like to possess [...]" (Higgins 1987 quoted in Dörnyei 2009:13) and (2) the 'ought self', which "[...] refers to the representation of attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e. representation of someone else's sense of duties, obligations or moral responsibilities)" (Higgins 1987 quoted in Dörnyei 2009:13). With this distinction Higgins emphasises that there are probably differences between an individual's vision of him/herself in the future ('ideal self') and someone else's vision for the individual ('ought self'), implying that there might be a contradiction between how a person sees him/herself in the future and how the society wants him/her to be (cf. Dörnyei 2009:14). Dörnyei (2009) points to the special case of adolescent learners, whose 'ideal selves' very likely contradict with their 'ought selves', which will probably be strongly related to their peer group norms (e.g. low-achieving academic expectations of the peers). In other words, an individual's personal identity and his/her social identity might be different and contradictory (cf. Dörnyei 2009:20).

Dörnyei further elaborates Markus & Nurius' and Higgins' notions of the selves. In his 'L2 Motivational Self System', he applies a 'self' framework which is made up of three components. These motivational components correspond with those proposed in Gardner's motivation construct, being 'Integrativeness', 'Instrumentality' and 'Attitudes toward the Learning Situation', showing that Dörnyei does not contradict Gardner's Socio-Educational Model, but simply adapts his notion to a different context (cf. Dörnyei 2009 in Ushioda & Dörnyei 2009: 30). If a person wants to speak a foreign language in the future, his/her 'ideal self' is able to speak the target language. The learner, thus, seeks to decrease discrepancy between this 'ideal self' and the actual self, turning the 'Ideal L2-self' into a strong motivator to learn the target language. The second 'self' Dörnyei introduces is the 'Ought-to L2 Self', which is concerned with the avoidance of negative outcomes and the fulfilment of expectations. The 'Ought-To L2 Self' is closely connected to extrinsic types of Instrumental Motivation, which again shows a close relation to Gardner's approach. The third component in Dörnyei's construct is 'L2 learning experience', which is concerned with factors influencing the immediate learning environment, such as the language teacher, the classmates, the curriculum etc. (cf. Dörnyei 2009:29). Dörnyei also reacts to the extensive discussion of the term 'Integrativeness' and proposes a

re-think of the concept incorporating the theory of the 'L2 Motivational Self System'. He proves that Integrativeness is an important factor in L2 learning motivation: results of a longitudinal survey among 13,000 teenage learners of five different target languages, in which he applied a questionnaire containing questions concerning Integrativeness, Instrumentality, Cultural Interest, Vitality of L2 community and Linguistic self-confidence, clearly show that Integrativeness does indeed play a key role in L2 motivation (cf. Dörnyei 2009:33). Dörnyei claims that

[...] the term may not so much be related to any cultural or metaphorical integration into a L2 community as to some more basic identification process within the individual's self concept.

(Dörnyei & Csizér 2002:456 quoted in Dörnyei 2009:25)

'Integrativeness' represents, from the perspective of 'possible selves', an 'ideal self' that masters the second/foreign language. In other words, if the person we would ideally like to become is proficient in the L2, we have an integrative disposition towards the target language (cf. Dörnyei 2009:33).

The concept of the 'L2 Motivational Self System' is one of the most recent frameworks in the context of language learning motivation and certainly has to be further investigated. The clear shift of focus from rather stable attitudes or external contexts of the language learner to the notion that possible selves are not fixed but can change with time certainly has implications for teachers and educators and addresses concerns of researchers who demanded an emphasis on the educational context (cf. MacIntyre 2009:51).

3.6. Comments

The choice of models presented in these sections is by no means complete or representative of the research that has been done in the field. Rather, it intends to illustrate some approaches to the concept of motivation in the field of second and foreign language learning that are considered important.

Since 1959, when Gardner and Lambert found out that success in learning a foreign language was closely connected to motivation, this component has been afforded considerable prominence in the research area. A vast number of models trying to grasp factors influencing language learning motivation have been proposed and discussed. Each framework has its own, valid, explanation for the choice of variables included; making it impossible to decide which models are 'correct' and

which are 'incorrect'. The selection of models for this paper has been deliberate: the intention being to provide an overview of just a small part of the research conducted in this reasonably new field of study.

The model that has dominated the field, Gardner's 'Socio-Educational Model', supports the existence of individual differences, which are strongly influenced by external factors such as personality traits, family background and acquisition context. The most important components of his theoretical framework are 'Integrativeness', which is concerned with a genuine interest in the target culture(s) and a wish to adapt to them; 'Instrumentality', which is related to pragmatic matters such as obtaining a higher job position or gaining prestige in society; and 'Attitudes towards the Learning Situation', which regards factors influencing the immediate learning environment, such as the language teacher, the classroom or the course book. Gardner's main argument is that language learning motivation depends first and foremost on the student, but is strongly influenced by social and personal variables. By introducing variables that are connected to the socio-cultural milieu, he shows that the learner's cultural background has a significant impact on motivation to learn a language (cf. Gardner 2001:4).

In the 1990s, an intense theoretical debate emerged which criticised the dominance of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model. Researchers claimed that it had inhibited the emergence of other frameworks and could not be applied to all socio-cultural contexts. The straightforward distinction of 'Integrativeness' and 'Instrumentality' was called into question and the need for establishing new categories was highlighted. Also, the necessity to adapt motivational frameworks to an educational context was emphasised. An intense discussion about the term 'Integrativeness' was initiated due to the argument that the English language is no longer connected to a specific target culture, but has a new dimension as an international 'Lingua Franca'. Whereas some researchers argue that 'Integrativeness' is "[...] untenable for world Englishes learners" (Coetzee Van-Rooy 2006:437), others try to redefine the concept and adapt it to today's needs (see for example Yashima, 2002). One of the theories that has received considerable attention is Ryan & Deci's 'Self-Determination Theory' (1985), which introduces the distinction of two types of motivation: Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation. According to them, intrinsically motivated learners show a genuine interest and pleasure in performing a task, which is perceived as a rewarding experience in itself. In contrast, Extrinsic Motivation is

concerned with behaviour that is motivated by external forces and serves to achieve an instrumental goal such as getting a good grade or avoiding negative outcomes (cf. Ryan & Deci 2000: 76; Noels 1990:39). By claiming that the higher the engagement in the learning process, the better the outcome, they shift the focus onto the learner's autonomy and responsibility.

Crookes & Schmidt's conclusion (1991) that research in L2 learning motivation needs an increased focus on educational matters initiated a paradigm shift in the research field. Their work draws attention to the fact that research has focused mainly on social aspects of motivation but disregarded cognitive influences and they demand new concepts which bear this factor in mind. Crookes & Schmidt argue that motivation can be influenced by various factors, and establish a framework consisting of four levels of language learning motivation focusing on cognitive factors and those concerning the immediate learning environment (cf. MacIntyre 2002:51; Liuolienė 2006: 95).

Dörnyei (1994) agrees with the notion that Gardner's model does not include all components considering L2 learning motivation. By establishing a social, a personal and an educational layer, he tries to include dimensions of the target language, the language learner and the educational environment. Agreeing with Crookes & Schmidt, he states that the immediate language learning environment has considerable importance when talking about motivation to learn a foreign language; but also factors such as a need for achievement, self-confidence and language use anxiety have a significant impact on the learning outcomes (cf. MacIntyre 2002:53).

One of the most recent models of second/foreign language learning motivation is Dörnyei's 'L2 Motivational Self System' (2005), which tries to merge past findings with more recent approaches. In his theory, Dörnyei explains motivation by using a 'Self-system', assuming that every learner has various 'selves' that influence the learning process. The 'Ideal Self', which is an important motivator in language learning, is concerned with how the person sees him/herself in the future. The second 'self', the 'Ought Self' is concerned with a person's social identity and refers to expectations the individual has to meet in order to avoid negative outcomes. The third important factor Dörnyei considers is 'L2 learning experience', which is closely related to Crookes & Schmidt's 'Classroom- and Syllabus Levels', including factors concerning the immediate learning environment (cf. Dörnyei 2009:29).

This comparison of different theories in the field of second/foreign language learning motivation is intended to give an insight into the related debates of the last decades and reflects the paradigm shift taking place in the field of L2 learning motivation: no theory is 'correct' or 'incorrect', but each simply offers a different view of the same phenomenon. The presentation of different models illustrates that there is a vast number of existing theories trying to explain a phenomenon in language learning. Probably the most influential theory, Gardner's 'Socio-Educational Model' has been harshly criticised in the 1990s. The research agenda was re-opened (cf. Crookes & Schmidt 1991) and various new theories emerged. Considerable importance was put on the learner's responsibility and autonomy in learning a language (see for example Ryan and Deci's 'Self-Determination Theory', 1985). Thus, the student was put at the centre of the research. Also, researchers put increasing emphasis on the educational context and claimed that the immediate learning environment has a significant impact on learners' motivation (see for example Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). Furthermore, social, personal and educational factors were integrated into the emerging frameworks (see for example Dörnyei, 1994). One of the most recent theories is Dörnyei's 'L2 Motivational Self System' (2005), which adopts pre-existing terms such as Integrativeness or Instrumentality and adapts them to a system of 'selves', putting the learner at the core of his framework. This shows that, without a doubt, the language learner has now been placed at the centre of this area of research.

4. Motivated behaviour: 'Willingness to Communicate'

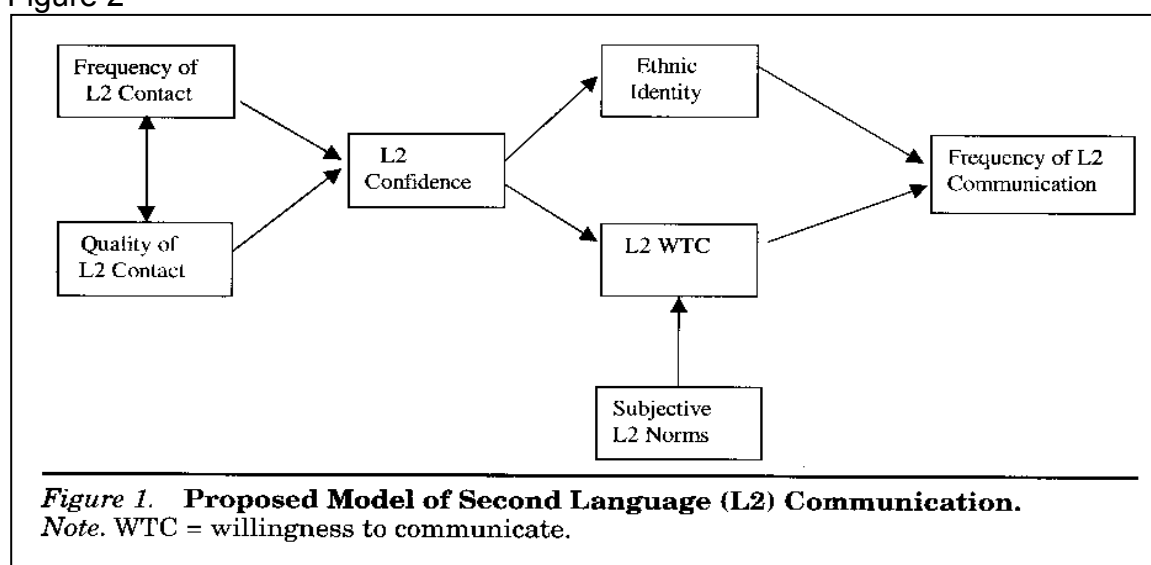
In the previous sections, important factors affecting achievement in second and foreign language learning were discussed. Undoubtedly, motivation and attitudes have a significant impact on outcomes of the learning process, they can even be seen as requirements for successful learning.

Studies (see for example Clément & Kruidener, 1983, Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Giles, Garrett, & Coupland, 1989), though, have primarily focused on L2 acquisition and learning and less on the actual use of the target language in everyday communication situations. Undoubtedly, the actual use of the target language plays a crucial role in SLA (cf. Hashimoto 2002:29), yet it is "[...] one of the main purposes in learning second languages for many L2 learners [...]" (Hashimoto

2002:29) and is indispensable for the development of productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing) (cf. Swain 1998 quoted in Hashimoto 2002:35).

In order to measure why some individuals seek contact, whereas others try to avoid speaking in the foreign language, a 'Willingness to Communicate' construct (WTC) was developed, which seeks to explain the reasons for learners' behaviour. The aim of identifying factors that influence 'Willingness to Communicate' in a second or foreign language has inspired a number of researchers to work with this construct (see for example Baker & MacIntyre, 2003; Cao & Philip, 2006; Kang, 2005; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al, 2004; Ryan, 2009). The model was developed by McCroskey and Baer (1985) concerning the use of the native language and was adapted by MacIntyre et al. (1998) to second and foreign language use. According to the framework, which tries to explain causes that influence the initiation or avoidance of communication, WTC is "[...] the most immediate determinant of L2 use" (Clément et al. 2003:191), i.e. it decides, whether the possibility to speak in the target language is taken up or not. Figure 2 illustrates that 'Willingness to Communicate' is related to frequency and quality of L2 contact, implying that positive experiences in communication in the target language lead to an increase of WTC. Also, confidence directly relates to the concept of WTC and to identification with the target cultures. This shows that 'Integrative motivation' does indeed play a role in the frequency of L2 communication (cf. Hashimoto 2002:37). According to Clément et al. (2003) "the extent of L2 identification and WTC will ultimately determine actual L2 usage" (Clément et al. 2003:192).

Figure 2



Source: Clément et al. 2003:194.

Research has proved that communication apprehension and perceived competence are most directly related to Willingness to Communicate. In other words, if a person feels competent and self-confident, it is more probable that he/she will initiate communication. WTC declines, if the person feels anxious or perceives his/her linguistic competence to be too low (cf. MacIntyre 1994:138f.). Baker and MacIntyre (2000) argue that a person's perception of competence will affect WTC, i.e. if the person perceives a lack of communication skills, s/he will be less willing to initiate communication in the target language (cf. MacIntyre et al. 2002:540). Due to the considerable importance ascribed to communication apprehension and perceived linguistic competence in the 'Willingness to Communicate' construct, the phenomenon of 'Language Anxiety' and its close connection to self-perception will be analysed in considerable detail in the following sections.

5. Emotion as motivation

Motivation and 'Willingness to Communicate' are closely related to the concept of 'emotion'. Emotions are probably the fundamental motivator of behaviour and have an impact on everything we do. According to Tomkins (1970), we are always experiencing emotions, which in turn are responsible for our actions. For this reason, personality traits are not only inherited, but also strongly influenced by the intensity of emotions, which influence our cognitive and physiological processes (cf. Tomkins 1970 quoted in: MacIntyre 2002:61). Emotions are subconscious and change with the immediate environment. They are, therefore, not necessarily related to conscious decisions we take, but form a key part of motivated behaviour (cf. Buck 1984 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:62f.). The so-called 'primary emotions' "joy, interest, sadness, disgust, anger, and fear" (Reeve 1997 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:63) are independent from culture and are strongly influenced by external events (Ekman & Davidson 1994 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:63). Anxiety, for example, which is a variant of the primary emotion 'fear', has a huge influence on second and foreign language learning (cf. MacIntyre 2002:62). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) suggest that motivation and anxiety are strongly related, they "[...] have a reciprocal relationship", that is that "anxiety affects motivation and motivation affects anxiety" (Gardner & MacIntyre 1993 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:64f.). To explain why anxiety plays such a big role in language learning, MacIntyre states that

[...] emotions often carry with them impulses to act in a particular way appropriate to the emotion. [...] For example, feeling embarrassed usually produces the urge to withdraw and hide oneself, regardless of the source of the embarrassment.
(MacIntyre 2002:62)

In the process of learning a language which is not one's own, one necessarily feels embarrassed in some situations. The intensity of the emotion of anxiety will determine behaviour: if the embarrassment is so strong that the only reaction is 'flight' (i.e. avoidance of communication), the learner will withdraw from the speaking situation.

How an individual reacts will be governed in large measure by the intensity of the emotional reaction. It might be in the learner's best academic, financial, cultural, and social interest to keep talking, but if the emotion is too strong, the person will try to withdraw. It stands to reason that L2 students should talk in order to learn, but reason and emotion are separate issues.
(MacIntyre 2002:62)

5.1. Language anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) define foreign language anxiety as "[...] a distinct complex of self perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986 quoted in Woodrow 2006:311). Speaking a language that is not one's mother tongue can cause nervousness, feelings of shame and shyness. Anxiety experienced when communicating in a foreign language can hinder success and oral achievement. Research has shown that language anxiety has a direct influence on performance and, for this reason, achievements in the second/foreign language. Also, it affects learning in the language classroom (cf. Woodrow 2006:308).

[Researchers] estimate the levels of FL anxiety as being very high. Campbell and Ortiz (1991) consider it "alarming" and Horwitz and Young (1991) have found that half of the students registered in FL classes experience some degree of debilitating anxiety.
(Young Alexander 2001:305)

But anxiety is more than a simple feeling of uneasiness: it can have extensive effects on cognitive, emotional and physiological levels. Typical physiological reactions connected to the concept include sweating, racing heart and blushing (cf. Woodrow 2006:319); behavioural reactions are, for example, talking too much, stammering or fidgeting. A typical consequence of anxiety is worrying, which includes "self-

deprecating thoughts or task irrelevant thoughts” (Zeidner 1998; Naveh-Benjamin 1991 quoted in Woodrow 2006:310). All these reactions have a tremendous effect on language learning: on the level of Input, anxiety heightens the affective filter, “making the learner unreceptive to language input” (Young Alexander 2001:306). Furthermore, anxious students are prone to avoid possible situations of communication in the foreign language. If the situation cannot be avoided, students will be so aware of their own anxiety that it will probably occupy “cognitive capacity that otherwise would be devoted to the task in hand, for example, speaking a foreign language” (Tobias 1985 quoted in Woodrow 2006:310). In other words, anxiety is so present that the student cannot focus entirely on the communication which is taking place, which will, inevitably, have effects on the outcomes (cf. Young Alexander 2001:306).

Literature shows that language anxiety is a specific type of anxiety, which has to be investigated with different research methods than other forms of anxiety (cf. MacIntyre & Gardner 1989, 1991; Woodrow 2006:308). Horwitz et al. (1986) argue that language learning anxiety is so common because learning another language is an act connected to a range of emotions linking language, culture and identity. Learning another language can be experienced as a threat to one’s own identity: new concepts and different points of views are learnt. Furthermore, Horwitz et. al. (1986) state that language learning may be anxiety provoking because

[...] learners may have the sophisticated thoughts and emotions of an adult, but the language of a child in which to express them.
(Horwitz 1986 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:67)

It is important to search for the root of this widespread phenomenon and look for methods to alleviate it in order to help students to overcome this barrier. In order to understand the reasons of anxiety in language learning, one has to distinguish between ‘trait anxiety’, ‘state anxiety’ and ‘situation specific anxiety’. The term ‘trait anxiety’ was coined by Scovel (1978), who described this type of anxiety “[...]as an inherent, long-term personality characteristic” (Scovel 1978 quoted in Woodrow 2006:310f.). Whereas ‘trait anxiety’ is a relatively stable personal trait, “state anxiety [...] is a temporary condition experienced at a particular moment” (Woodrow 2006:310). The third type, defined by Spielberger, Anton & Bedell (1976), nominates a form of anxiety which recurs in specific situations, such as communicating in a foreign language. Language learning anxiety is a variety of this type; this kind of

anxiety “[...] recurs in language learning situations, namely classrooms” (Woodrow 2006:310).

There are further terms which describe the types of anxiety more specifically. Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986), for example, talk about ‘Foreign Language Anxiety’ when students have to perform tasks in a language which is not their own; Bailey (1983) and Gardner & Symthe (1975) coined the term ‘Foreign language classroom anxiety’ to refer to an anxiety within the foreign language classroom, which is closely connected to Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope’s (1986) concept of ‘Test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation’, which manifests in “[...] students’ insecurity, passivity, and performance deficits” (Woodrow 2006:311).

Various models have been developed to try and classify, and explain, language anxiety:

MacIntyre (1999) summarizes research on the effects of language anxiety in four areas: academic, cognitive, social and personal.
(MacIntyre 2002:66)

Academic and cognitive levels consider the effects anxiety has on achievement on all levels of language acquisition and learning. Various studies have shown that there is a negative correlation between achievement, measured by course grade, and language anxiety. A study performed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) showed, for example, that “anxiety arousal can lead to poor L2 performance” (MacIntyre & Gardner 1994 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:65). They tested students at various stages of language processing: the input stage, where new material was presented, the processing stage, where connections between existing information and new material was established, and the output stage, when the new information was produced. When testing the students of the sample group, a video camera was installed to increase feelings of anxiety; the control group was tested without any technical equipment. Results showed a clear increase of anxiety at all stages of cognitive processing in the sample group, which evoked poorer results in the individual tasks. Performance suffered most immediately after the installation of the camera, which supports “the idea that anxiety creates disruption in cognitive activity at each of the stages” (MacIntyre 2002:65). Avoiding strategies, which might be caused by fear of communication in the foreign language, produce negative social perceptions (cf. Daly & McCroskey, 1984). The reluctance to communicate, thus, has a great impact on the social level (cf. MacIntyre & Gardner 1991 quoted in MacIntyre 2002:66). The

effects of anxiety on the personal level are extensive: studies have shown that students learning a foreign language feel “[...] like an idiot, a babbling baby, and a total dingbat” (MacIntyre 2002:67).

Two models of anxiety emerged from Tobias’ research: an ‘interference model of anxiety’ and an ‘interference retrieval model’. The ‘interference retrieval model’ relates to anxiety as inhibiting the recall of previously learned material at the output stage, whereas the ‘skills deficit model’ relates to problems at the input and processing stages of learning, as a result of poor study habits, or a lack of skills. This results in anxiety at the output stage due to the realisation of this lack of knowledge (Woodrow 2006:310). Various studies (see for example Lucas 1984; Phillips 1992; Price 1991, Gardner & MacIntyre 1994, MacIntyre 1999) have shown that anxiety has a strong impact on oral performance in the foreign language. Research has shown that anxiety is negatively related to the skill of speaking in a foreign/ second language: “The major stressor identified by the participants was interacting with native speakers” (Woodrow 2006:314). Not only does anxiety influence communication itself, but also the willingness to communicate in the foreign language (cf. MacIntyre, Baker Clément & Conrod 2001). Due to the fact that anxiety has such a strong influence on the oral production of language learners, teachers should be “[...] sensitive to this in the classroom interactions and provide help to minimize second language anxiety” (Woodrow 2006:323). Feelings of anxiety also have a strong effect on students’ self-perception:

MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément (1996) demonstrated that anxious language learners tend to underestimate their level of proficiency, and relaxed students overestimate it.
(MacIntyre 2002:67)

This implies the creation of a self-fulfilling prophecy for anxious students: the withdrawal from possible speaking situations in order to avoid communication does not change the level of proficiency. If anxiety decreases, proficiency immediately increases – as demonstrated by Gardner & MacIntyre (1994) (cf. Young Alexander 2001:307). Although language anxiety is a widespread phenomenon and seems to be an inseparable companion of language learning for some students, there are various techniques to cope with this emotion. In a study, Woodrow (2006) asked students to report their methods of coping with second language speaking anxiety. The most frequently mentioned techniques mentioned were perseverance, which is

not giving up, and developing language skills. This clearly shows that students who are competent and able to cope with the situation are less anxious. This is one of the most important aspects to keep in mind as a teacher. Providing a variety of tasks that prepare students for the communication outside the classroom can help considerably to improve students' skills and practice for everyday communication, and therefore, decrease the level of language anxiety. Other strategies mentioned by the students participating in the study were 'positive thinking' and compensation strategies " [...]such as deep breathing and conscious efforts to calm oneself" (Woodrow 2006:319f.). As a matter of fact, language anxiety can also be decreased by simply talking about it. For these reasons, there should be room in a language course to talk about students' doubts and feelings of uneasiness when learning the language. By "[...] establishing a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere [...] and [by increasing] our students' tolerance for error and ambiguity and their willingness to take risks [...]" (Young Alexander 2001:313) we help them to cope with their anxiety.

6. Types of motivation: 'Integrativeness', 'Instrumentality' and 'English as a Lingua Franca'

When researching language learning motivation and attitudes, one has to find methods of capturing the different connotations of the terms. By categorising motivation and attitudes into distinctive types, their origin should be easier to grasp. One of these distinctions is the differentiation of 'Integrative motivation' and 'Instrumental motivation'- motivational components, which are closely connected to the concept of attitude. These terms have already been presented in detail (see: Gardner's 'Socio-Educational Model'). In short, 'Integrativeness' defines 'cultural-affective' factors influencing language learning, such as integration into the target community, whereas 'Instrumentality' covers 'pragmatic-instrumental' dimensions, such as the prospect of getting a better job because of knowledge of the target language. 'Integrative motivation' and 'Instrumental motivation' are by no means opposing counterparts; rather they are closely related and influence each other. Although the concepts have been the basis of an intense discussion, their distinction has made research more comprehensible and facilitated an understanding of complex and very abstract constructs (cf. Dörnyei 1994: 520).

'Integrativeness', which has already been introduced in the previous section of this paper, mirrors positive attitudes towards the target language and its speakers

and has been labelled as “[...] one of the most important attitudinal factors” (Spolsky 1969:274 quoted in Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:21; see also Gardner & Lambert 1959, 1972, Gardner 1985, Lambert, 1980). Adopting Csizér & Dörnyei’s (2005) definition of ‘Integrativeness’, we understand by this term “[...] a positive outlook on the L2 and its culture, to the extent that learners scoring high on this factor may want to integrate themselves into the L2 culture and become similar to the L2 speakers” (Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:20). The integratively motivated learner has positive attitudes towards this group and intends to broaden his/ her understanding in order to adapt to local customs and ways of life. It is, therefore, a very abstract term that can be measured, for example, with questions relating to beliefs about the target cultures, experiences with native speakers and a desire to get a better understanding of the target culture in order to adapt to it.

One of the other important influential variables mentioned in research literature is called ‘Instrumentality’ or ‘Instrumental motivation’ (see also: Belmechri & Hummel, 1998, Dörnyei, 1990. Gardner 1985, Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, Kraemer, 1993, Lukmani, 1972, Shaaban & Ghaith, 2000, Tremblay & Gardner 1995, Warden & Lin, 2000, Wen 1997).

It refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency and reflects the recognition that for many language learners it is the usefulness of L2 proficiency that provides the greatest driving force.
(Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:21)

Learning the target language in order to benefit one’s professional career, for example, or to increase prestige in one’s own community are the main goals of an instrumentally motivated learner. ‘Instrumentality’ covers more than just short-term utilitarian prospects, though. This type of motivation might be of great importance for learners of English as an international language of communication. As already mentioned, integration into a specific cultural group might be less important for them; rather than feeling a strong emotional bond to native speakers of English, they need to use English as a lingua franca across borders.

Due to the fact that we live in “[...] an era [in which] international holidays are becoming increasingly accessible and cross-cultural communication is a standard part of our existence in the ‘global village’” (Dörnyei 2009 in Ushioda & Dörnyei 2009: 34), another type of motivation has to be taken into consideration. In this paper, the concept of ‘English as a Lingua Franca’ is included as a ‘type of motivation’ learners

can have, meaning that rather than being integratively or instrumentally motivated, their main interest of learning English is communicating with non-native speakers of different countries.

In order to clarify what is meant by this ‘type of motivation’, the terms ‘English as a World Language’, ‘Global English’ and ‘English as a Lingua Franca’ will be explained in more detail. According to Bolton (2004), there are various interpretations of the commonly used term ‘World English(es)’, which is also referred to as ‘International English(es)’ or ‘Global English(es)’. One of the possible definitions is as an inclusive term for all the varieties of English in the world. It might also be used for describing the so-called ‘New Englishes’ spoken in Africa, Asia and the Caribbean (cf. Jenkins 2006:159). Jenkins (2006) claims that the term ‘International English’ is used “[...] to refer to the use of English as a means of international communication across national and linguistic boundaries [...]” (Jenkins 2006:160). In this context, Seidlhofer (2001) uses the term ‘Lingua Franca’ which she understands as an “[...] additionally acquired language system that serves as a means of communication between speakers of different first languages [...]” (Seidlhofer 2001:146). In the context of ‘World English’, language gets the status of a medium which facilitates communication with a variety of people whose native language is other than English (cf. Coetzee Van-Rooy 2006:443; see also Nickels, 2005:234; Smith 1983:2; Cohen, 2005:209; Dogancay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe, 2005:259). Research in the area of ELF only began around 1990 (cf. Jenkins 2006:164) and there is a need to expand knowledge of this area (cf. Seidlhofer 2001:141). Still, recent findings have an impact: Lamb (2004) and Coetzee Van-Rooy (2006) claim that the finding that ELF speakers constitute the largest group of speakers should have a direct influence on the teaching in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). According to them, the goal for teaching English is “[...] to extend the ability of [...] students to communicate their ideas and their culture” (Smith, 1983a:5 cited in Coetzee Van-Rooy 2006:441), and not necessarily to learn about ‘English culture’. Keeping these fairly new applications of English in a global world in mind, the relatively straightforward distinction between ‘Integrativeness’ and ‘Instrumentality’ has to be amplified and adapted to the needs of the 21st century. As previously mentioned, the notion of ‘Integrativeness’ loses its special prominence in the context of ‘World English’, due to the fact that the notion of target cultures that ‘own’ the language has to be called into question (cf. Widdowson 1994 quoted in Seidlhofer 2001:134). In an

era of worldwide use of English as a language for international communication, there no longer exists a target culture to which one might wish to adapt. For these reasons, 'English as a Lingua Franca' has been adopted as a kind of 'motivation' which provides a reason to study the English language.

7. The relationship between motivation and attitude

Although today's learners of English might not learn the language for only integrative or instrumental reasons, it is a fact that countries in which English is spoken as an official language constitute points of reference for them. Cultural products of Anglophone countries, such as music or films, or 'ways of life' associated with countries such as the United States, Great Britain or Australia, have a strong influence on language learners. Contiguous with the finding that motivation plays an important role in the context of second and foreign language learning, Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) first recognised that the learners' attitudes towards the target language and the cultures in which this language is spoken have a significant impact on the learning outcome (cf. Dörnyei 1994: 519). When talking about language learning motivation, one certainly has to devote considerable attention to attitudinal factors influencing the learning process. For this reason, a definition of the term 'attitude' will be attempted in this section, although it has to be clearly stated that the definitions offered here are by no means complete or representative of the extensive research done in this field. Due to the fact that 'attitude' is a complex and very abstract term, various models try to explain the concept. For reasons of space, not all these models can be presented here; but still, the reader shall be presented with a brief overview of research findings.

Ryan & Giles (1982) define language attitudes as "any affective, cognitive or behavioural index of evaluative reactions towards different language varieties or their speakers" (Ryan et al. 1982:7 quoted in Soukup 2007:144). This definition addresses all components of attitude: the affective (i.e. specific feelings and emotions), the cognitive (i.e. specific beliefs and thoughts about, for example, the community where the target language is spoken) and the behavioural (i.e. observable actions which are justified by attitudes) components. All these elements form part of the term 'language attitudes', which, by nature, is a complex term that covers both very abstract ideas (such as beliefs) and concrete actions (cf. Soukup 2007:144; see also Baker 1992, Cargile et al. 1994, Garrett et al. 2003; Smit 1996).

When talking about attitudes in the context of second language learning, two different types have been distinguished, namely “attitudes toward learning the language and attitudes toward the other-language community [...]” (Gardner 1985:40). As with motivation, it is hard to find a single definition for the term attitude. Having Gardner’s distinction in mind, one could define attitudes towards the learning of the language as “[...] educationally relevant factors as attitude towards the teacher [...]” (Gardner 1985:40); when talking about attitudes toward the other-language community, attitudes refer to “[...] socially relevant factors as the group that speaks the language” (Gardner 1985:40). Also, students might have attitudes towards the language in itself, for example, the sound of English etc.

Empirical research (see for example Todd 1995) has shown that the cultural context has a significant influence on the individual’s perceptions of a foreign language. In other words, a person’s upbringing, the influence of his/her parents, the country he/she lives in and the experiences he/she has had with the target language have a significant impact on attitudes. For this reason, it is of great importance to bear in mind that language learners come from different cultural backgrounds, which might have a significant influence on their readiness and motivation to learn and speak the language. The term ‘Cultural context’ depicts a conglomeration of external influences that mark the student’s view of the world. The most immediate cultural influence a person will probably be exposed to is the immediate environment surrounding him/her, such as the family or close friends. It has been proved, for example, that parents’ attitudes towards a language or a language community have a direct effect on their children, i.e. opinions about a specific cultural group prevailing among the parents will influence the child consciously or subconsciously (cf. Gardner 1985:110).

7.1. Language and identity

In Dörnyei’s theory (‘L2 Motivational Self System’, 2005), as previously mentioned, language is closely linked to a person’s view of him/herself and therefore constitutes an integral part of identity (cf. Dörnyei 2009:9). Researchers agree that language is a key constituent in the process of establishing and negotiating identity: it even determines how we see the world (cf. Coperías Aguilar 2001:41; see also Coetzee Van-Rooy 2006). Due to the fact that one’s vision of the world is created by the existence of a language that describes it, the mother tongue we acquire plays a

decisive role when it comes to defining our identity. Learning a second language would, according to this theory, imply that it provides us with a new, different view of the world (cf. Coperías Aguilar 2001:41). For many learners, this insight will be a decisive factor when talking about language learning motivation because it implies not only an augmentation of knowledge, but also of a possible change of perception which enables them to see their surroundings from a different point of view. For other learners, though, “[...] learning a new language may [...] be felt as a threat to [their] own identity and ethnicity” (Coperías Aguilar 2001:42). The fear of having to give up one’s own culture, one’s customs and perception of the world might have a negative influence on language learning motivation possibly even circumvent success in the learning process. This fear will probably increase when the target language is a majority language, such as English. The term ‘linguistic and cultural imperialism’ describes this feeling of loss of one’s own language, culture and customs due to the superiority of another language (cf. Coperías Aguilar 2001:42).

Especially in the context of EFL and language learning motivation, it is important to bear this factor in mind in order to gain insights into students’ possible doubts and fears when learning English. Creating a feeling of empathy towards the target cultures might help the learners to overcome their doubts and help them to see the great chances learning a foreign language implies. Also, the important role of English as a language that enables communication around the world should be stressed in order to “[...] make students want to learn a second language for the sake of communicating with people who speak that language [and also] to increase their awareness of their own culture [...]” (Coperías Aguilar 2001:44).

8. Implications for teachers

These research findings have direct implications for the teaching of foreign languages. For educators in this field it is important to bear in mind that learning a language is a different process from learning any other subject, due to the fact that is closely linked to an individual’s identity (cf. Dörnyei 2009:9). Some language learners might have problems opening up to new cultures and customs because of the deep fear of losing their own ethnicity. For these learners it is important that their teacher communicates that there is no need to adapt to target cultures, but that the English language simply serves as a means for communication in a vast number of situations. A positive, encouraging classroom atmosphere as well as the teaching of

ways to communicate one's own culture and ideas will certainly help these students to actively engage in the language learning process.

In order to communicate successfully, students need to be taught basic communication skills in the classroom, which they can then adapt for communication in various situations. According to Hall (1999), students' interactional competence should be guided in meta-pragmatic exercises in which they "mindfully abstract, reflect upon, and speculate upon patterns of use" (Hall 1999:140 quoted in Kasper & Rose 2002:57). If learners are engaged in challenging and meaningful activities in the classroom, they will develop their abilities in the foreign language and be able to use it in natural conversation in their leisure time. Assuming that linguistic self-perception is a decisive factor when it comes to initiating communication in the foreign language, augmentation of skills in the L2 would increase perceived competence. This, in turn, would positively influence 'Willingness to Communicate', meaning that learners would engage in speaking situations more willingly. Communicating more frequently in the target language, in turn, would help students to improve their language skills and lose their speaking anxiety (cf. Hashimoto 2002:57). In short, linguistic competences have to be sufficient for informal conversations outside the classroom. This will then enhance use of the target language and lead to a decrease of anxiety.

Kasper & Rose (2002) criticise the fact that foreign language classrooms often lag behind in providing "[...] contexts for developing pragmatic, discourse, and sociolinguistic ability, especially in informal spoken interaction" (Kasper & Rose 2002:220), claiming that the focus of teaching lies too much on grammar and literacy. This speculation has been proved to be true: Palacios (1994) discovered that the majority of Spanish teachers put more emphasis on the writing skill than on oral communication in the classroom (cf. Palacios 1994:90). Statements from Austrian participants show that the same seems to be true for Austrian classrooms.

In order to improve the situation, Kasper & Rose propose adequate access to the target language, in and out of the classroom, with possibilities for students to increase their communication skills (cf. Kasper & Rose 2002:191ff.). In order to shift the focus onto students' needs, it is crucial for language teachers to be aware of the different situations during which their learners use the target language in their leisure time and what motivates them to speak this language. These insights will help them

to centre their teaching on the learners and make the teaching and learning process a more rewarding and useful experience for both parties.

9. Methodology

The data examined in this paper was obtained from two main sources. Firstly, secondary school students from Austria and Spain were asked to fill in a questionnaire concerning their experiences with the English language, their attitudes towards the target cultures and their main types of motivation to use it in their leisure time. The structure of the questionnaire, consisting of three parts (Part A: 'Information about the participants'; Part B: 'Speaking situations'; Part C: 'Cultural context'), will be described in detail in the following section. Secondly, the participants' English teachers were asked a number of questions about their impressions of their students. Above all, these short interviews were intended to provide a better picture of the educational context in the countries under consideration and to find out which techniques the teachers used when teaching speaking. The focus of these interviews will be presented in Part D 'Educational context'.

Relevant research findings on the topic were taken into consideration when the questionnaire and interview questions were being compiled. The intention was to combine components of various motivation theories and these are analysed and compared in the first part of this paper (see for example Gardner et al. 1972; Ryan & Deci 1985; Crookes & Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei 1994; Dörnyei 2005). Although it has been criticised for its dominance, Gardner et al.'s 'Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition' (1972) has been the most prominent theory for decades and, therefore, is referenced. The research instrument applied in this model, the 'Attitude/Motivation Test Battery' (1985) intends to assess factors involved in the process of second language learning (cf. Gardner 1985). Various items of this instrument were adapted for the present study and integrated into the questionnaire.

Another key framework which served as a basis for the compilation of items is MacIntyre et al.'s model of 'Willingness to Communicate' (1998) (WTC) which concerns the actual use of the second/ foreign language in possible speaking situations. According to MacIntyre, WTC is related to frequency and quality of L2 contact. In other words, positive experiences in communication in the target language lead to an increase in WTC. Identification with the target cultures and confidence are also strongly related to this concept. Research has proven that self-confident people

who feel linguistically competent are more likely to initiate communication than those who are anxious or perceive their competence as too low (cf. MacIntyre 1998 quoted in Hashimoto 2002:37). Many of the factors mentioned by MacIntyre (1998) and Hashimoto (2002) were used to inform questions related to 'Willingness to Communicate' in the questionnaire. The purpose was to discover whether WTC differed in the two countries.

Among other factors, researchers put considerable importance on parameters concerned with the immediate language learning environment such as the teacher, the classmates or the curriculum (see for example Crookes & Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei 1994; Gardner 2007). According to them, these factors have a significant impact on the learner's motivation to learn and on the learner's use of the foreign language (cf. Dörnyei 1994, MacIntyre 2002:53). Assuming that the educational context can be decisive when it comes to language learning motivation, more information had to be obtained concerning the educational context of the participants of this study. This was done mainly in the interviews with local teachers, which will be presented in detail in Part D.

9.1. Structure of the questionnaire

The compiled questionnaire consists of 44 questions, the majority of them being closed questions with additional answer sections which require the participant's further explanation. These closed items make use of Likert-scale ranging with 4 scales (strong agreement - strong disagreement). Two of the questions are multiple-choice questions, which provide exhaustive answer-categories including a catch-all option ("other"). The questions were formulated in a simple and clear way in order to prevent confusion of the participants.

An important part of the initial planning of the project was to think about the language(s) in which the questionnaire would be developed. Although it was assumed that all the participants would have an intermediate level of English and would certainly be able to fill in a questionnaire in this language, it was decided to administer the scales in the participants' native languages. Students should be able to focus on the content of the questions rather than concentrating on or worrying about the language. In order to prevent misunderstandings or a dread of answering an open question, the questionnaires were compiled in German and Spanish; each

version consisting of exactly the same questions. The Spanish version of the questionnaire was checked by native speakers in order to avoid translation mistakes.

The questionnaire that was designed for this study consists of four major parts that are intended to cover the main topics that possibly influence a student's motivation to use English outside the classroom. The choice of questions was made deliberately, taking into consideration relevant literature on the topic. As previously mentioned, the choice of questions was based on findings by various researchers whose theories have been presented in the first part of the paper. The two frameworks given most importance are Gardner et al.'s 'Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition' (1972) (and the research instrument applied in this model, the 'Attitude/Motivation Test Battery' (1985)) and MacIntyre et al.'s model of 'Willingness to Communicate' (1998).

In the following section, the individual parts of the questionnaire will be presented, explaining the choice of the questions and their formulation. After a general description of the individual parts, the respective questions will be presented in tables in order to help the reader understand the structure of the questionnaire.

9.1.1. Part A: Information about the participants

An important aim of the questionnaire was to gain insights into the participants' use of English in their free time. It is scientifically proven that positive experiences of communication in the target language boost confidence and identification with the target cultures. In their framework 'Willingness to Communicate', which attempts to explain why some individuals seek contact while others try to avoid speaking in the foreign language, MacIntyre et al. (1998) include factors such as frequency and quality of L2 contact. Various studies (see for example Hashimoto 2002) have proved that persons indeed communicate more willingly if they have had positive experiences in the foreign language (cf. MacIntyre et al. 1998; Hashimoto 2002:37). For these reasons, participants were asked to what extent they use English in their leisure time and whether they applied what they had learnt in school. Also, they were asked about previous experiences they have had in English-speaking countries and whether they had planned a journey to an anglophone country in the near future. These questions aimed, on the one hand, to find out whether the participants had actually been in touch with the target culture and, on the other hand, to discover whether the motivation of travelling to an English-speaking country might have an

influence on a student's desire to use and practise English. By asking questions 41-44, I wanted to find out in what ways the participants use English in their free- time and if this has an influence on their motivation to improve their English.

Table1: Part A: Information about the participants

Issue	Question focus	Question number(s)
To what extent do students use English in their free time?	How often do the participants use English outside school?	6
What kind of experience do the participants have of English-speaking countries?	a) Do the participants have previous experiences in English speaking countries? b) Do the participants plan journeys to English-speaking countries in the near future?	32, 33
In what ways do the participants use English in their free time?	a) Do the participants read English books? b) Do the participants watch films in the English original version? c) Do the participants listen to English radio programmes in their free time? d) Do the participants listen to English music?	41, 42, 43, 44

9.1.2. Part B: Speaking situations

The majority of items in the questionnaire aim to find out more about the actual usage of English in the participants' leisure time. At the very beginning of the questionnaire, students are confronted with four different speaking situations. The first two situations are possible occasions for students to speak English in their own country. Some students might have already come across one of these typical "tourist-asking-for-the-way" situations and should be familiar with it. In situation 1, non-native speakers of English ask for help, in situation 2, the tourists are native speakers of English:

Situation 1.) I see that some tourists are looking at a map, appearing very confused. They speak a language I don't understand. A person from the group comes up to me and asks in broken English, whether I can help.

Situation 2.) I see that some tourists are looking at a map, appearing very confused. They speak English to each other. A person from the group comes up to me and asks in English, whether I can help.

The participants are asked to decide on one of the given options and then explain their answer. The options were chosen deliberately in order to cover a wide range of possible reactions:

- a) I shake my head and keep walking.*
- b) I show the way in the map, but I don't speak English.*
- c) I try to help in English to the best of my ability.*
- d) other reaction:.....*

In order to clarify their answer to this question, the students are asked (in the following step) to explain this answer. The purpose of insisting on an explanation was twofold: on the one hand, students should reflect upon their answer and, on the other hand, more detailed explanations should allow a more in-depth analysis of possible reactions. The aim of choosing two situations which the students could be familiar with at the beginning of the questionnaire was to enhance participation and to raise interest.

Situations 3 and 4 are possible opportunities to use English in a foreign country. Here, again, a distinction was made between non-native and native speakers of English:

Situation 3.) I am on holiday with my family in Italy. None of my family speaks Italian and I am the only person who speaks English. We need information about the train.

Situation 4.) I am on holiday with my family in London. I am the only person who speaks English. We need information about the train.

As in situations 1 and 2, participants are asked to choose one of the possible reactions and then explain their choice:

- a) We try to find out the information from the timetable and don't ask anybody.*
- b) We try to gesticulate in order to make ourselves understood. I don't speak English.*
- c) I walk up to the counter and ask for the information in English.*
- d) other reaction:*

These situations placed at the beginning of the questionnaire should help to find out how far students feel ready to apply what they have learned in their English classes. The explanations they give will help to illustrate their decisions.

In a later analysis of the data, these explanations will be interpreted and summarised in answer categories, which will help to summarise students' reasons and motivation for speaking or avoiding speaking English.

In various questions, the participants are asked to give statements about previous experiences they have had when speaking English. Questions 29 and 31, for example, aim to find out in which situations the participants have already used English. In the following questions, they are asked to describe the feelings they had in these situations.

Did they feel confident?

Did they think their linguistic level was sufficient to deal with everyday situations?

Did they get feedback?

The aim of asking all these questions is to find out whether previous experiences have an influence on students' readiness to use English in their free time. Also, in a later analysis of the data, a connection will be made between the desire to speak "correctly" and the motivation to speak: Do students who focus on linguistic correctness speak with greater anxiety?

Finding out more about the actual usage of English in the participants' free time not only gives insights into how far they feel capable of applying what they have learned at school, but also gives significant hints about what students need this language for outside the school environment. Analysing the data obtained from the questionnaires could help teachers to find out more about their students' requirements and might motivate them to adapt their teaching towards these needs.

Table2: Part B: Speaking situations

Issue	Question focus	Question number(s)
When do students have to communicate in English outside the classroom?	What situations have the participants come across where they made use of English?	1, 2, 3, 4
In what kind of situations do they speak?	What are the most common situations in which the participants make use of English? Is the majority of the students... a) communicating with native speakers of English? b) communicating with non- native speakers of English? c) communicating with their acquaintances from the internet (chat)? d) helping tourists who visit their country (e.g. giving directions)? e) using English during their vacation in a foreign country? f) using English in different situations?	29, 31
To what kind of people do they speak?	1.) Is the majority of students speaking to a) native speakers of English? b) non- native speakers of English? 2.) Is the majority of students speaking to a) friends? b) family (parents, relatives etc.)? c) private tutors? d) tourists who visit their country? e) hotel employees/ shop assistants (on their vacation)? f) acquaintances from the internet (chat)? g) other persons?	8, 9, 30
Do they see a need to speak English outside the classroom?	a) Are the participants happy to have English as a subject in school because it has helped them in a situation in their free time? b) Do they consider speaking English a “basic skill” of any European citizen? c) Do participants consider it important to practise English outside the classroom? Why /why not?	7, 22, 28

In a speaking situation: how do students feel?	a) Do participants feel confident when they use English in a conversation? b) Do they experience anxiety? Why/ why not?	34a, 35a, 36a
What factors are influencing these feelings?	a) Is there a relationship between their feelings and experiences they have had in the past when speaking English? b) Is there a relationship between their feelings and the feedback they get (e.g. being understood)? c) Is there a relationship between their feelings and their attitudes towards the language/ target culture?	
Do these feelings have an influence on their willingness to communicate?	If a student does not feel confident, does he/ she speak less often?	
Do they get feedback?	a) Was communication possible? b) What kind of feedback do they get in these speaking situations and how does this feedback influence them?	38
In a speaking situation, how much do students care about linguistic correctness?	a) Do students focus on linguistic correctness or rather on being understood? b) If they focus on linguistic correctness, do they hesitate more before talking in English, i.e. do they avoid speaking situations?	26, 27
Do Ss feel prepared for speaking situations outside the classroom?		37, 39, 40

9.1.3. Part C: Cultural context

The third question-pool is intended to find out more about the participants' motivation to learn and practise English. Attitudes towards the language itself, towards the target culture(s) and the target countries should be discovered through an interpretation of the given answers. In Gardner et al.'s 'Socio-Educational Model of second language acquisition' (1972), which is one of the most influential theories of second language acquisition, the parameter 'Integrativeness' plays a crucial role. The notion of 'Integrativeness' describes a desire to identify with another cultural group (i.e. the community where the target language is spoken) and can be a decisive

factor when it comes to students' motivation to learn and speak the foreign language (cf. Gardner 2001:7f., 2007:18f.; Oxford 1996).

For this reason, questions dealing with this so-called "Integrative Motivation" were adapted from Gardner's "Attitude/Motivation Test Battery" (1985), which was designed for "use with secondary school students studying English as a foreign language". (Gardner:1985)

The Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery is a research instrument which has been developed to assess the major affective components shown to be involved in second language learning. [...] [It] is comprised of scales assessing the individual's affective reactions toward various groups, individuals and concepts associated with second language acquisition [...]. (Gardner:1985)

Some of these scales have been adapted for the questionnaire used in this study. Also, questions that should investigate the so-called "Instrumental Motivation" to learn and speak English were adapted from "The Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery" (ATMB). This part of the questionnaire aims to find out what motivation students have to use English outside the classroom. Questions in this part are closed-questions, using Likert-scales to assess participants' opinions about the importance to know and practise English. The parental influence, which is also dealt with in the ATMB, was adapted for the present questionnaire as well. An important purpose of this part of the questionnaire is to find out whether the participants consider the role of English as a world language an important one.

Table 3: Part C: Cultural context

Issue	Question focus	Question number(s)
What attitudes do the participants have towards the target language?		5
What attitudes do the participants have towards the target community? (Integrative motivation)	a) What attitudes do students have towards the target community? b) What factors influence these perceptions? (e.g. travelling; countries visited) c) What is the main motivation to speak English (e.g. job, holiday)?	14, 15, 19
What is the status of English in society? (Instrumental motivation)	a) Do the participants consider that speaking English will give them advantages in their future job? b) Do the participants consider that English makes them more qualified? c) Do the participants think that they will be more respected in society if they speak English?	10, 11, 12, 13
How does the family influence the participants' speaking motivation?	Does the parent's opinion about English influence the participants?	23, 24, 25

English as a world language	a) Do the participants see the importance of English in order to communicate with people from different cultures? b) Do they consider English a "world language"?	16, 17, 18
Fear of the English language	Do the participants have negative feelings towards the English language because it is "too powerful" and could endanger their native language?	20, 21

9.1.4. Part D: Educational context

There is no doubt that the immediate learning environment has a considerable influence on language learning motivation. In order to find out more about how the educational context of Austria and Spain differs, local English teachers were asked to respond to a number of questions in a short interview. The fourth subject area of the investigation consists of questions concerning the participants' educational environment: the number of English lessons per week, the availability of native speakers at their schools and the possibility of student exchanges. According to Crookes & Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994) and Gardner (2007) all of these might have an influence on students' motivation to use the English language (cf. Crookes & Schmidt 1991 quoted in Liuolienė 2006:95f.; Dörnyei 1994 quoted in cf. MacIntyre 2002:52; Gardner 2007:18f.).

Also, the readiness to use English outside class is very likely to be connected to the motivation the participants have to speak in their lessons at school. Are the students encouraged to take part in speaking activities during the lessons? What feedback do they get from their teacher and fellow students? And how important is it for them to actually participate in class? All these questions were asked in an interview with the participants' English teachers. In a short conversation, the teachers were asked about the subjective impressions they have about their students and how they perceive the status of the English language in their respective school. The purpose of conducting brief interviews with the teachers was to get an insight into their point of view and to compare their impression with those of the students.

Table 4: Part D: Educational context

Issue	Interview with teachers: Question focus
How well are students prepared for speaking situations and what is their motivation to use English?	a) What do teachers think their students need English for? b) Do teachers think that their students can communicate successfully in English outside the classroom? c) What do teachers think is the main motivation for students to speak English outside the classroom?
What are the primary goals of the language classes for teachers?	a) What are teachers' principles in teaching speaking? b) What methods do they use?
How do students feel in the language classroom: is there a positive "speaking atmosphere"?	a) How do teachers classify the classroom atmosphere during a speaking activity? b) Do they think this atmosphere has an influence on students' motivation to speak? c) Do teachers think the speaking activities they use in class prepare their students for communication outside the classroom?
What factors influence this atmosphere?	a) What kind of feedback do teachers give students (considering speaking)? b) How are errors and mistakes treated?
Is speaking considered important in the classroom?	a) Do the teachers use communicative activities in their teaching? b) How do teachers grade speaking? c) Are students encouraged to speak in class?
What is the status of English at school?	In their specific school, ... a) ... are student exchanges and language weeks promoted? b) ... are there native speakers who join the teachers? c) ... how many English lessons do students have?

9.2. Piloting phase

Once the questionnaire was compiled, it was piloted in a Viennese school. Students from an elective English class, who were between 16 and 18 years old, were asked to fill in a draft version of the questionnaire and talk about their reactions to the questions. The 12 students participated eagerly and gave a lot of useful feedback concerning the questions. First of all, I introduced myself and told them about the planned project. Then the questionnaires were handed out and the participants were

asked to answer the questions; it took them on average 20 minutes. After collecting the completed questionnaires, the students were invited to share their opinions about the individual items and comment on them critically.

After the students' critical analysis of the questionnaire, the sequence of the items was changed: open questions were put nearer the end, whereas the situations were kept at the beginning to activate participants' previous experiences with the English language. Some phrasing was changed (such as item no. 23: "Immer mehr deutsche Wörter werden durch englische ersetzt (z.B. in Zeitungen). Ich hasse das." → „Immer mehr deutsche Wörter werden durch englische ersetzt (z.B. in Zeitungen). Ich mag das nicht.“) Questions 26- 28 were considered unimportant for the students participating in the piloting: they said that their parents' opinion does not influence them at all. After careful consideration, these questions were retained for the simple reason that even the answer: "The parents' opinion about English does not influence the participants at all" would be a valid and important conclusion. In questions 29 and 30, the category "Chat/internet" was added, because most of the students participating in the piloting added this answer to the categories already given. The format of the questions 34-36 was changed completely in order to make a distinction between confidence and self-evaluation of language skills. Furthermore, question 31, which deals with plans to visit an anglophone country in the near future, was added because a planned journey might also have an influence on students' speaking motivation.

In general, the pilot was very useful because the students participating were not only critical, but also ready to share their opinions in order to improve the questionnaire.

9.3. Procedure

After the initial planning phase of the project in summer 2008, schools in Krems and Santiago de Compostela were contacted. This was done because the basic requirement for this research was the participation of approximately 200 learners of English. They should preferably come from different schools, which required cooperation with a great number of headteachers, teachers and students. The survey was conducted in Austria and in Spain, more precisely in Krems an der Donau and in Santiago de Compostela. Both towns are located in rural regions, in Lower Austria

and in Galicia respectively. Krems is a city of approximately 24,000 inhabitants, whereas Santiago has about 93,000 inhabitants.

To make sure that the data could be collected, headteachers of schools were contacted in October 2008 and asked for their cooperation in the research project. Meetings were arranged in the different schools in Krems in order to introduce myself and the planned project. In general, the headteachers were very cooperative and helped to arrange contact with the language teachers. Interestingly, some teachers were happy to help me and interested in the results of the questionnaire, while others seemed to be annoyed by the fact that I would “steal” teaching time. I tried to be as unobtrusive as possible and only arranged dates with teachers who volunteered to cooperate.

Also, the education authority of Lower Austria (Landesschulrat für Niederösterreich) had to be contacted for permission to carry out the study in schools in Krems. The authorities in Galicia (Xunta de Galicia) told me I would have to find teachers to volunteer their classes; additional permission was not necessary. The Galician teachers, whom I contacted via e-mail and telephone, were very cooperative and happy to help me with my study. We agreed to make contact at the beginning of March.

The data collection itself was carried out in February and March 2009. After agreeing on a date with the respective English teachers, I joined them in one of their English classes in order to hand out the questionnaire. After a short introduction and description of the research project, students were asked to fill in the questionnaire anonymously. I highlighted the importance of answering honestly and of responding to every single item. As anticipated, it took the students about 20 minutes to complete the questionnaires. They were collected, consecutively numbered and the data was inserted into the programme SPSS version 15.0.

In order to find out more about the educational context, the English teachers were asked if they were ready to answer some questions in a short interview. All of them agreed and kindly shared their experiences with me.

10. Results and discussion

10.1. Description of the participants

The sample consisted of 192 students (72 males and 120 females) from various schools in Krems and Santiago de Compostela. All the participants ranged in age from 16 to 18 years at the time of testing. 88.5% of Galician participants named Spain as their home country, the remaining 11.5% immigrated to Spain, mostly from Latin America and Switzerland. In Austria, only 3.1% of the participants named a country other than Austria as their mother country.

Classes were chosen depending on the availability of teachers and students. The schools in Krems are located within the vicinity of the town; their catchment areas include the town of Krems and neighbouring rural areas. Thus, pupils come from varied socio-economic backgrounds.

Table 5: Schools under consideration¹

KREMS			SANTIAGO		
School	Class	Number of pupils	School	Class	Number of pupils
School A	6 R- (6th grade)	16	School A	2° BC Bachill.- (8th grade)	13
School B	7A- (7th grade)	25		4° B ESO- (6th grade)	19
	7B- (7th grade)	16		1° A Bachill.- (7th grade)	23
	8B- (8th grade)	12		4° T ESO- (6th grade)	24
School C	6B- (6th grade)	17		4° U ESO- (6th grade)	17
	8A- (8th grade)	10			

¹ The unequal number of schools in Austria/Spain is explained by the simple fact that in Austria, it was harder to find teachers giving access to their classes. According to them, a lot of research projects are conducted with their students, taking away valuable teaching time. For this reason, they were more sceptical: a number of schools had to be contacted in order to find teachers and obtain the intended number of participants. In the Galician school, a number of teachers willingly facilitated their classes. Also, this school is larger than the Austrian ones, making the choice of classes easier.

The Spanish school selected for the study is located in an outlying district of Santiago de Compostela called “Conxo”. It was chosen for the simple reason that it has a similar catchment area to the selected schools in Austria. Pupils attending this school come from the town of Santiago and from rural neighbouring villages, providing a sample consisting of students from similar academic and economic backgrounds as those from Krems. The fact that students attending this institution mainly come from a deprived socio-economic background was discovered during the interviews with the teachers. Bearing in mind that some of the Austrian schools chosen are fairly prestigious institutions, this fact might have had a significant influence on the outcomes.

10.2. Mother tongue(s) of the participants

Whereas all schools in Krems are located in a monolingual German-speaking community, a significant number of participating pupils in Galicia (22.9%) were brought up bilingually (Galician and Spanish); both languages are obligatory subjects for all students both in primary and secondary education.² Consequently, English has a different status in Galicia: for the students who are brought up in a monolingual context (77.1%) and who have to consciously learn Galician or Spanish as a second language, English is the third language, which has implications for its status. It seems that many Galician students feel that learning English is an obligation imposed by an authority (being the parents, the teachers, or the society as a whole); many of them do not seem to feel the need to acquire this language³. This attitude towards English is reflected in the following two statements, in which the learners emphasise the important role of their mother tongues and their rejection of the English language:

² See: Law of Linguistic Standardisation, Artículo 14.1: “La lengua gallega es materia de estudio obligatorio en todos los niveles educativos no universitarios” (Ley de la Normalización Lingüística 1983 quoted in Dobarro 2007:226).) (The Galician language is an obligatory subject at all levels of non-university education.)

³This statement might be a broad generalisation and thus not applicable in all cases, although it stems from a general impression gained from various statements made by Gallegos and an analysis of the teacher interviews conducted in Santiago.

In general, I want to strongly emphasise that all hypotheses included in this paper are speculative and subjective. Although interpretations are based on informed opinions from experts, it must be remembered that they are just interpretations of a small-scale study. Therefore, results cannot necessarily be extrapolated to other countries, or even different areas within the same countries. Due to the low number of participants ($N=96$), empirical data obtained in this study is *not* representative for Galicia. Also, when talking about ‘Spain’, differences among autonomous regions have to be borne in mind. Outcomes from Galicia might differ considerably from those of other regions (see Palacios 1994 who conducted a study concerning the status of English in different Spanish regions).

[No.]. Porque aquí tenemos dos lenguas más y no hace falta. (No.25; answer to the question if s/he thinks that speaking English outside the classroom is important.)

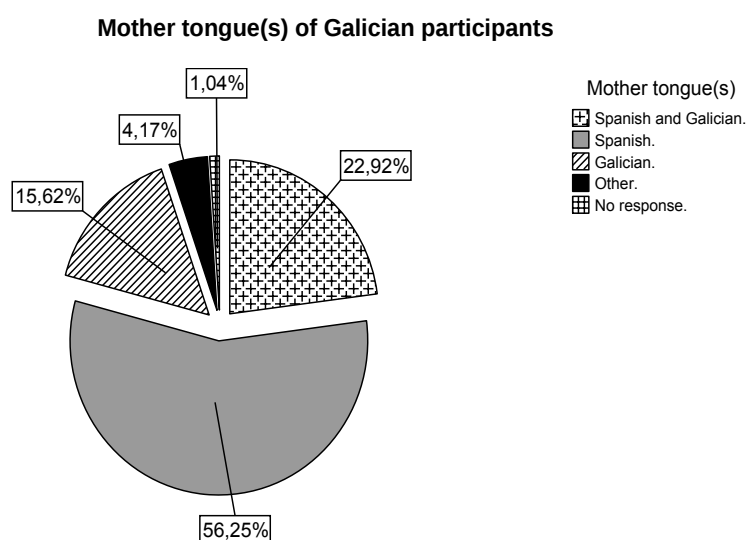
([No.] *Because we speak two languages here and we don't need it.*)

[No.]. Porque en Galicia se habla Castellano y Gallego y esas deben ser las lenguas que debemos usar para comunicarnos. (No.41; answer to the question if s/he thinks that speaking English outside the classroom is important.)

([No.] *Because Spanish and Galician are spoken in Galicia and these should be the languages we should use for communication.*)

The pie chart illustrates the different linguistic backgrounds of the Galician participants.

Figure 3: Mother tongue of the participants

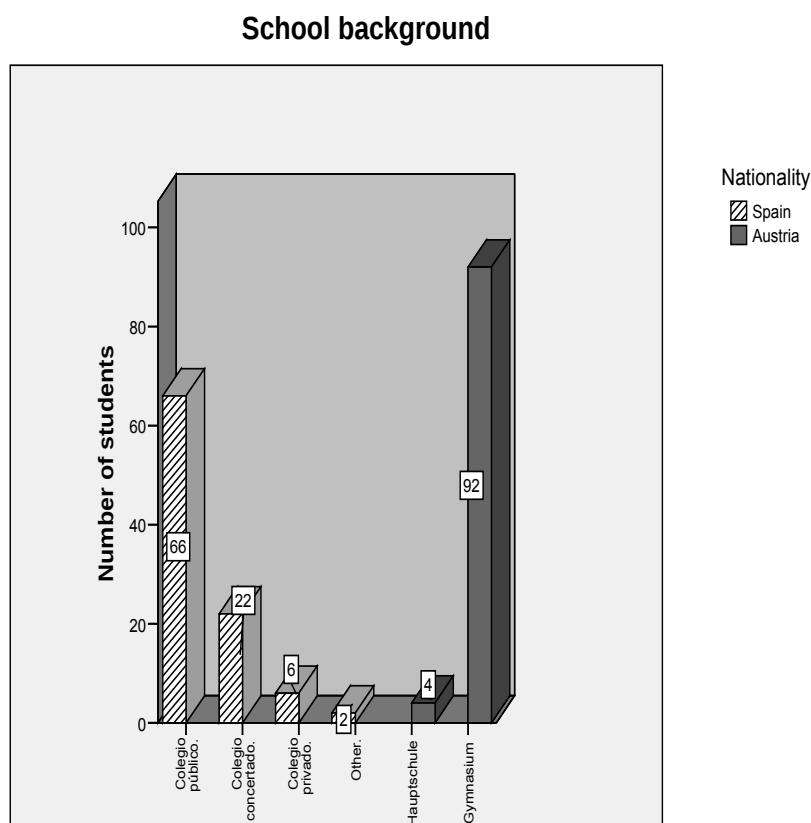


10.3. Academic background

As already mentioned, participants come from different personal backgrounds, which must have a significant impact on attitudes and motivation towards learning and speaking English. Academic background was measured by asking the students to name the institution they attended before moving to their current school. The majority of Galician students who participated in the study (68.8%) attended a public school

before coming to the IES Eduardo Pondal. 22.9% went to a ‘Colegio Concertado’ and 6.2% attended a private school.⁴ In Austria, the main distinction is between ‘Gymnasium’ and ‘Hauptschule’. The vast majority (95.8%) of Austrian participants went to a ‘Gymnasium’, whereas only 4.2% attended ‘Hauptschule’.

Figure 4: School background

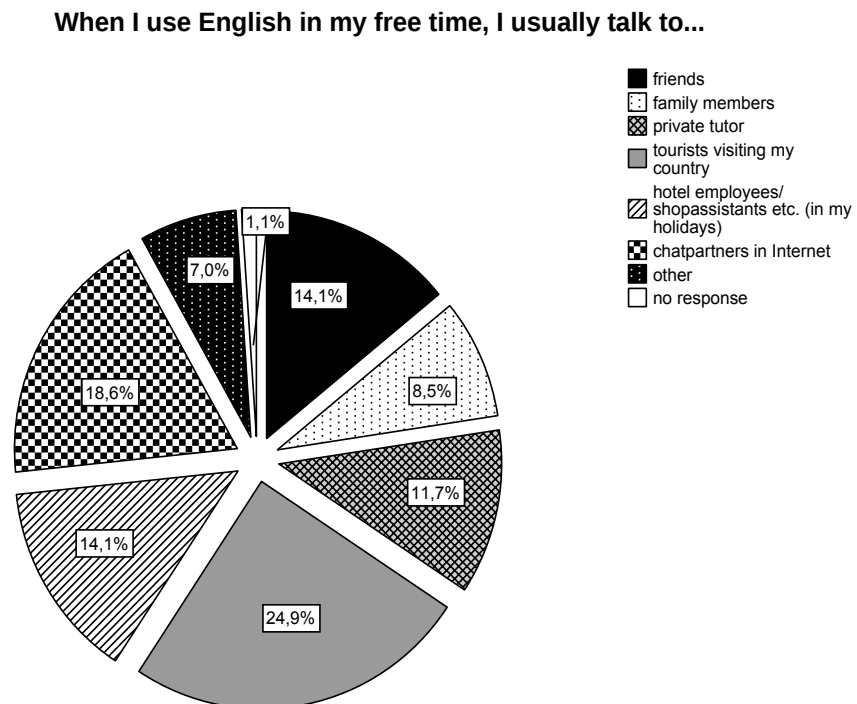


10.4. Students' use of English in their leisure time

In order to get a better picture of the learners participating in the study, they were asked to label the situations where they most often use English in their leisure time. The pie charts in Figures 5 and 6 give an overview of responses from Austrian and Spanish students.

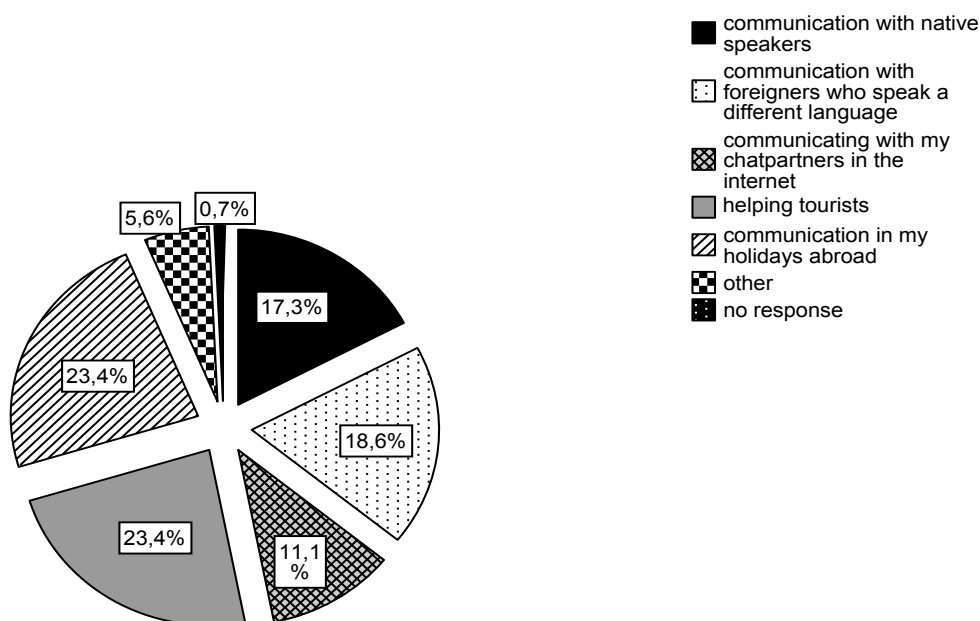
⁴ Education at public schools is free of charge; students from ‘colegios concertados’ receive economic aid from the state, although the parents have to contribute as well; private schools have to be paid for entirely by the parents.

Figure 5: Question 30, all answers (Austrian and Galician participants)



According to the data obtained, learners mostly talk to tourists visiting their countries (who, for example, ask for the way). 24.9% of all the participants make use of English for this purpose. 18.6% of the respondents use English for chatting on the Internet. 23.4% of the students participating in the study stated that they also use English for communication during their holidays abroad.

Figure 6: Question 31. all answers (Austrian and Galician participants)

Outside the classroom, I use English mostly for...

After forming an initial impression of students' actual use of the language on a general level across national borders, it is important to make a clear distinction between the two countries under consideration.

Interestingly, Austrian and Galician participants use English for different purposes. They also approach the learning of the language in different ways. For example, one of the most striking differences is the use of private tutors, 19.3% of the Spanish learners have private lessons, which is a relatively high number especially when compared to the Austrian learners (4.7%). The results obtained from this questionnaire are concordant with the statements given in the interviews with local English teachers and those given by many Galician friends with whom I discussed this issue: according to them, Galician pupils devote considerable effort to the study of the English language, including taking additional classes and using private tutors.

This is surprising considering how little they use a language which they take so much time and effort to learn.

Only a very small number of Spanish learners communicate with native speakers (15.1%) compared to more than twice as many of the Austrians taking part in the study (31.3%). Also, when communicating with non-native speakers, Austrian participants do better: 37.0% of them make use of English in speaking situations with speakers whose first language is other than English compared to only 13.5% of the Galician learners. According to Martínez (2009) (Palacios Martínez 2009, personal communication), there are various reasons that might explain Galician participants' avoidance of English in their leisure time. The most obvious explanation is that they simply do not get the possibility to do so: students from the Spanish school under consideration live mostly in neighbouring villages and only come to Santiago in order to attend classes. As the school is situated in a district that tourists generally do not visit, they have probably not had the opportunity to speak to foreigners who come to their country. Taking into consideration the fact that the participants under consideration come from deprived socio-economic backgrounds, one could hypothesise that many of them probably have not been to anglophone countries as their parents cannot afford holidays abroad.

Also, it has to be mentioned that Galicia is considered to be a fairly isolated autonomous region, due to its geographical situation in the north-west of Spain. When analysing the data obtained from the questionnaires, results concerning speaking English in foreign countries differ significantly: 43.8% of Austrian participants state that they use English for '*Communication during their holidays abroad*', whereas only 21.9% of Galician participants ticked this option. This answer is supported by the results obtained by analysing answers to question 30, in which students were asked specifically to whom they speak: 27.1% of Austrian students speak to hotel employees or shop assistants (to name just two examples) during their holidays compared to only 6.8% of Spanish learners.

Table 5: Question 30

Question 30: When I use English in my free time, I usually talk to... Percentage of students who ticked the option			
	Austria (100%= all Austrian questionnaires)	Spain (100%= all Spanish questionnaires)	TOTAL (all questionnaires)
Friends	23.96	10.94	14.1
Family members	8.9	7.33	8.5
Private tutor	4.69	19.27	11.7
Tourists visiting my country	34.90	21.88	24.9
Hotel employees/shop assistants etc.(holidays)	27.08	6.77	14.1
Chat partners on internet	26.04	17.71	18.6
Other	10.42	5.21	7.0

Table 6: Question 31

Question 31: Outside the classroom, I use English mostly for... Percentage of students who ticked the option			
	Austria (100%= all Austrian questionnaires)	Spain (100%= all Spanish questionnaires)	TOTAL (all questionnaires)
Communication with native speakers	31.25	15.10	17.3
Communication with foreigners who speak a different language	36.98	13.54	18.6
Communicating with my chat partners on the internet	20.31	9.9	11.1
Helping tourists	36.98	26.56	23.4
Communication during my holidays abroad	43.75	21.88	23.4
Other	9.38	6.25	5.6

Galician learners, compared to their Austrian peers, use the English language in fewer situations for communication in their free time. The inclusion of the option “other” as a possible answer to this question rules out the possibility that they are using the English language in their free time but in a different situation. Only a small percentage used the “other” option (5.2% and 6.3% of Spanish students in questions 30 and 31 respectively), hence, it has to be concluded that in many situations, speaking English is not considered to be an option by Galician learners - unless they simply do not have as many opportunities for using English as the pupils in Austria. If, for example, students have never been to an anglophone country, it will be hard for them to tick the option ‘communication with native speakers’. Bearing in mind the above mentioned explanations, it is possible that Galician students attending the school under consideration simply do not have the opportunities to speak English rather than avoiding the language in potential speaking situations.

Table 7: Test statistics of t-test for independent samples

Question 30	
Friends	$t(190) = -3.914, p < 0.000$
Family members	$t(189) = -1.198, p < 0.233$
Private tutor	$t(190) = -1.807, p < 0.072$
Tourists visiting my country	$t(190) = -3.204, p < 0.002$
Hotel employees/shop assistants etc.(holidays)	$t(190) = -6.717, p < 0.000$
Chat partners on internet	$t(190) = -2.629, p < 0.009$
Other	$t(190) = -2.270, p < 0.024$

For all possible answer options, a t-test for independent samples was carried out. The output summarised in table 7 including degrees of freedom and associated P values clearly shows that there is a significant difference between the two groups (Austrian and Galician students).

Table 8: Test statistics of t-test for independent samples

Test statistics of t-test for independent samples Question 31	
Communication with native speakers	$t(190) = -4.757, p \leq 0.000$
Communication with foreigners who speak a different language	$t(190) = -7.375, p \leq 0.000$
Communicating with my chat partners on the internet	$t(190) = -3.429, p \leq 0.001$
Helping tourists	$t(190) = -3.301, p \leq 0.001$
Communication during my holidays abroad	$t(190) = -7.152, p \leq 0.000$
Other	$t(190) = -1.191, p \leq 0.235$

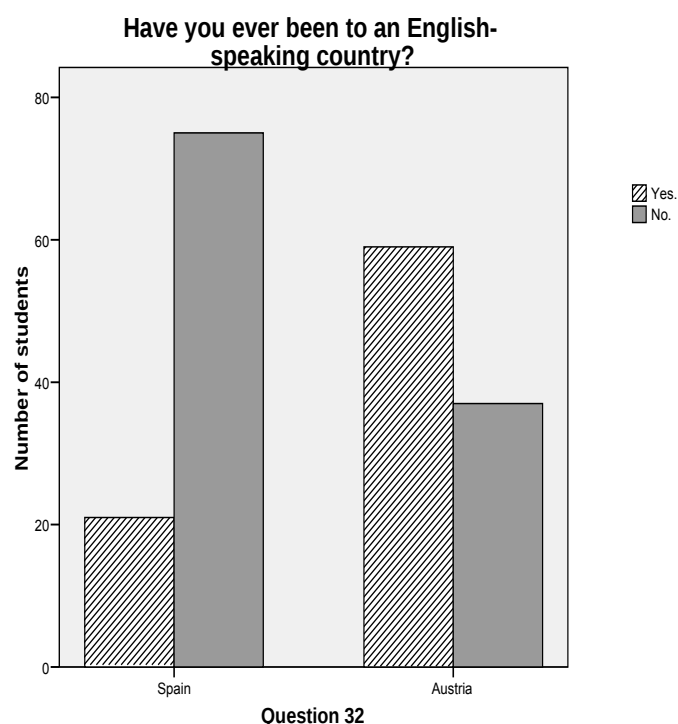
Table 8, which shows the test statistics of a t-test for independent samples carried out for question 31, reveals that there are also significant differences between Austrian and Galician participants in this question.

Analysing the numbers, we get striking insights into students' actual use of the language they study at school. The majority of the teachers might not be aware of, for example, the high number of students using English in chat rooms on the internet – although this is only speculation. The results obtained from the questionnaire might help teachers to get an insight into their students' needs and might inspire them to rethink their teaching focuses.

10.4.1. Experiences with the English language

This hypothesis is supported by the data obtained from the questionnaire, which clearly reveals that Galician students do not have as many possibilities to speak English as their Austrian peers. In order to get further information about participants' experiences with the English language, a number of items concerning this issue were included in the questionnaire. Students were asked about situations when they used the target language in their free time. They were also asked about how they felt at the time and whether they believed that the practice they gained helped them to improve their language skills.

Figure 7: Question 32



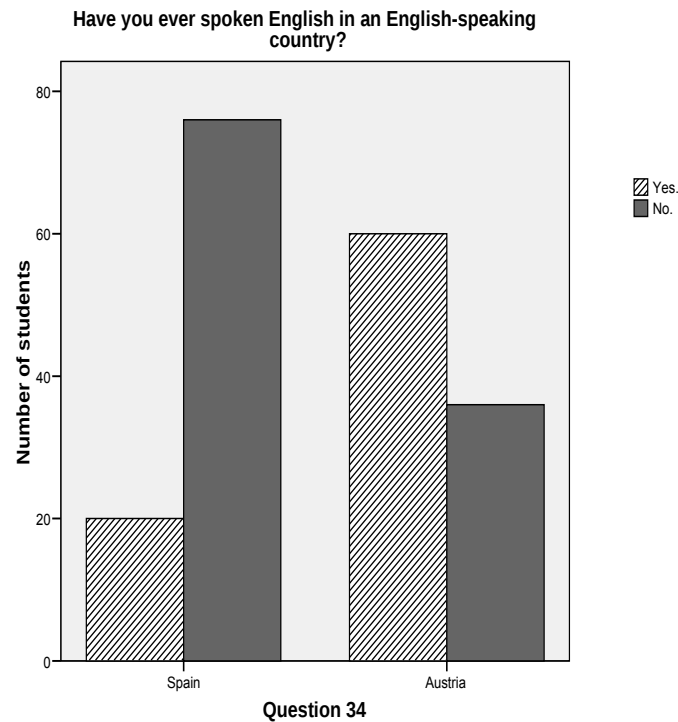
As shown previously, results prove a clear difference between Spain and Austria. Question 32, for example, in which students are asked whether they have ever been to an English-speaking country, is answered positively only by 21.9% of Galician participants. In other words, 78.1% of them have never been to an anglophone country. In contrast, a clear majority of 61.7% of Austrian learners participating in the study confirms that they have visited an English-speaking country.

Galician teachers stated in the interviews that language weeks are not promoted at their school. Although learners might have the chance to visit anglophone countries when on their holidays, they certainly do not get the possibility to go there with their fellow students. In Austria, by contrast, language weeks are promoted in all schools under consideration. This might be an important difference not only concerning experiences with the English language and the target cultures, but also concerning motivation to learn and speak.

Those who ticked 'yes' were asked to specify which anglophone country(ies) they had visited. In total, 58.9% of participants from both countries did not respond to that question, 28.6% of all participants stated that they had visited Great Britain or Ireland for a period of 1-3 weeks; 6.8% said that they had been to the U.S. or Canada for the same period of time. Question 34 (*'Have you ever spoken English in an English-speaking country?'*) is closely connected to question 32. Students were

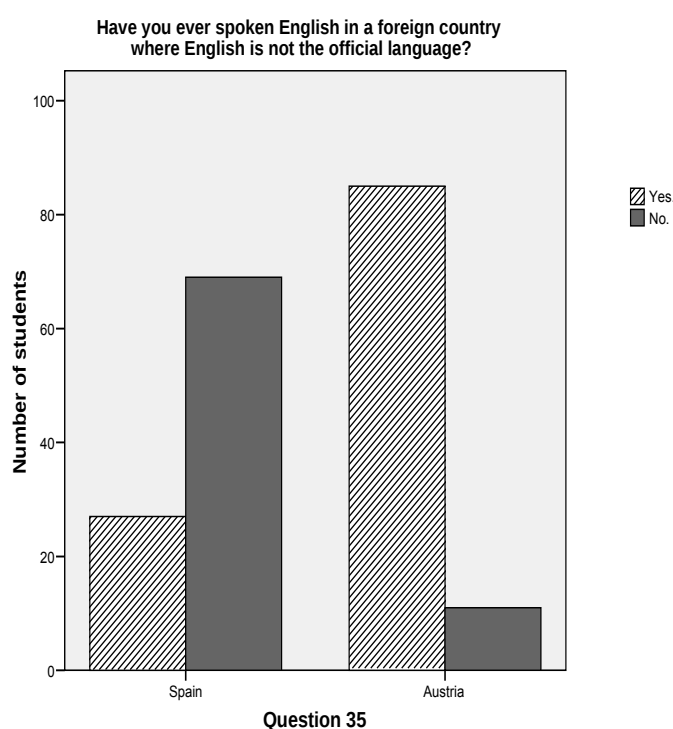
asked if they had made use of the language they had learnt at school during their visit in question 34.

Figure 8: Question 34



Bearing in mind the results from question 32, it is not surprising to see that the majority of Galician participants (79.1%) did not make use of English (assuming that this is because they simply have not been to anglophone countries), compared to 62.5% of Austrian students who answered this question with a positive response.

Figure 9: Question 35



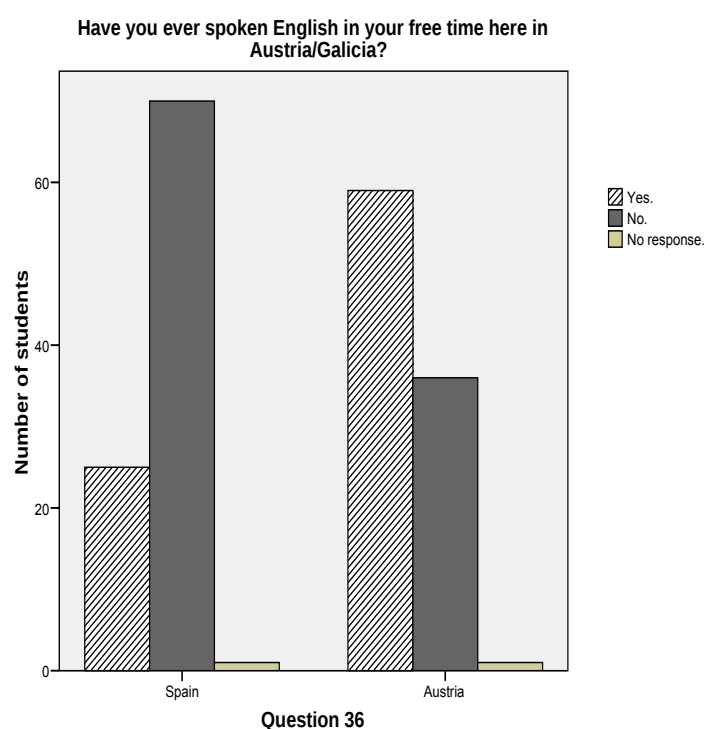
Responses to question 35 (*'Have you ever spoken English in a country where English is not the official language?'*) are similar. 79.8% of Spanish students stated that they had not spoken English in this context, whereas 88.5% of Austrian participants indicated that they had made use of English during their stay abroad. Here, the lack of language weeks etc. cannot be the reason for not using English. The question arises whether Galician students simply have not been abroad that much or whether they consciously choose not to speak English in possible speaking situations. Without further research, a definite answer to this question cannot be given, but it is possible to theorise that, bearing the socio-economic background of Galician participants in mind, many of them simply have not had the chance to visit foreign countries.

Considering English spoken in one's own country: the majority of Austrian learners participating in the study (61.5%) has spoken English in Austria; the majority of Spanish learners (72.9%) has not done so in Spain. Given the considerable differences between the two countries, the following questions arise: Do Spanish students avoid speaking English? Or are they simply not confronted with situations in which this language would be needed?

As Santiago de Compostela is a town famous for its tourist sights and visited by people from all over the world, Galician students are probably confronted with a

considerable number of foreign people, with whom they would have to speak English. Students participating in the study, though, might not frequently visit town areas which are attractive to visitors. For this reason it is hard to measure the frequency of possible speaking situations - results allow only speculation about students' reactions and their avoidance of speaking English. From personal experience and feedback from other foreigners visiting Santiago, it can be said that Galician people generally seem to prefer to avoid speaking English rather than entering into a conversation in a language that is not their own; or, when forced to make use of this language, feel very uncomfortable with the situation.

Figure 10: Question 36



Students were given the opportunity to provide written explanations to support their answers to questions 34, 35, 36. In these open questions, to which the majority of the participants did not respond, the students were asked how they felt during these speaking situations and whether they believed that using the English that they had learnt at school improved their overall language ability.

Results from questions 34-36 are closely connected to question 29: *'I have been able to make use of my knowledge of English in a situation'*.

Table 9: T-test for independent variables: Question 29

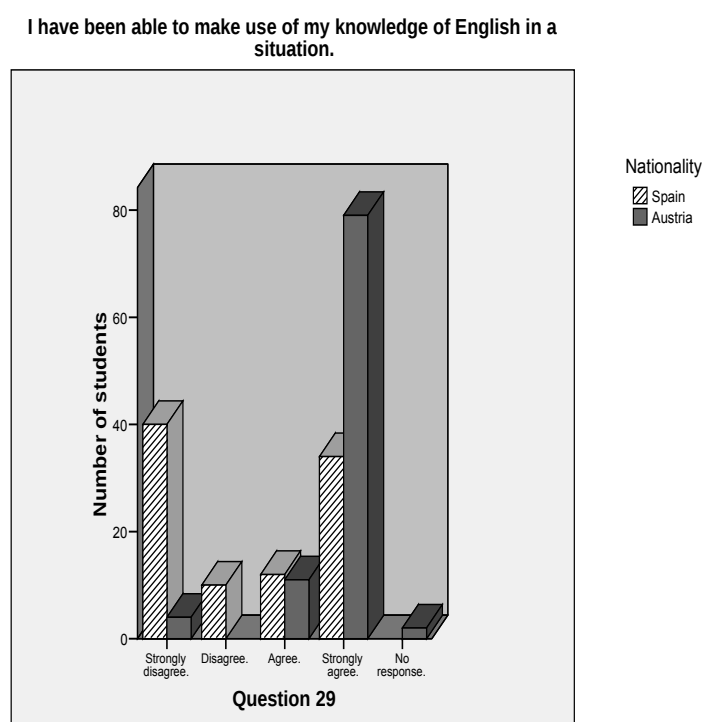
Nationality		N	Mean	Square deviation	Square deviation of mean
Qu. 29	Spain	96	2.42	1.343	.137
	Austria	96	3.86	1.001	.102

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Qu 29	Variances are equal	66.880	.000	-8.469	190	.000	-1.448	.171	-1.785	-1.111
	Variances are not equal			-8.469	175.685	.000	-1.448	.171	-1.785	-1.111

The t-test for independent samples for question 29 shows a highly significant difference between Austrian and Galician students. The test statistic is $t = -8.469$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p = 0.000$; $t(190) = -8.469$, $p \leq 0.000$.

A relatively high percentage of Galician participants (41.6%) '*strongly disagree(s)*' with this statement compared to only 4.2% of Austrian learners. In contrast, a vast majority of Austrian participants (82.4%) '*strongly agree(s)*' (compared to 25.4% of Galician students). In other words, Galician students either have not used English or if they have used it, their competence in English was insufficient to be useful in the situation(s). Analysis of the questions concerning frequency of use and those concerning linguistic self-assessment allow the hypothesis that both reasons are plausible.

Figure 11: Question 29

Participants' responses show that the majority of students from both countries ($n=95$) profited from their knowledge of English during holidays, language weeks with their school or visits from abroad. A considerable number ($n=31$) have also made use of the language when providing information for tourists.

Table 10: Question 29a

		Please specify in which situation(s) you have made use of the English language.						Total
		Holidays/ language weeks with school/ visits from abroad.	Providing tourist information.	Job- related matters (applica- tion etc.)	Leisure (computer games, films etc.).	Other.	No response.	Holidays/ language weeks with school/ visits from abroad.
Nationality	Spain	23	21	0	2	7	43	96
	Austria	72	10	2	2	6	4	96
	Total	95	31	2	4	13	47	192

Three statements were chosen to illustrate the responses given by students. Two learners state that knowledge of English enables them to make contact with people from different cultures, even to make friends across national borders:

Ich habe in der Schule Englisch gelernt und kann mich verständigen. Außerdem bin ich an anderen Kulturen interessiert. (No. 53)

[Ich verwende Englisch] schon öfters! Bsp. In Rumänien: ich habe jemanden kennen gelernt und konnte mich mit ihm recht gut unterhalten- wir stehen noch immer per MSN in Kontakt- auf Englisch ;-) (No. 60)

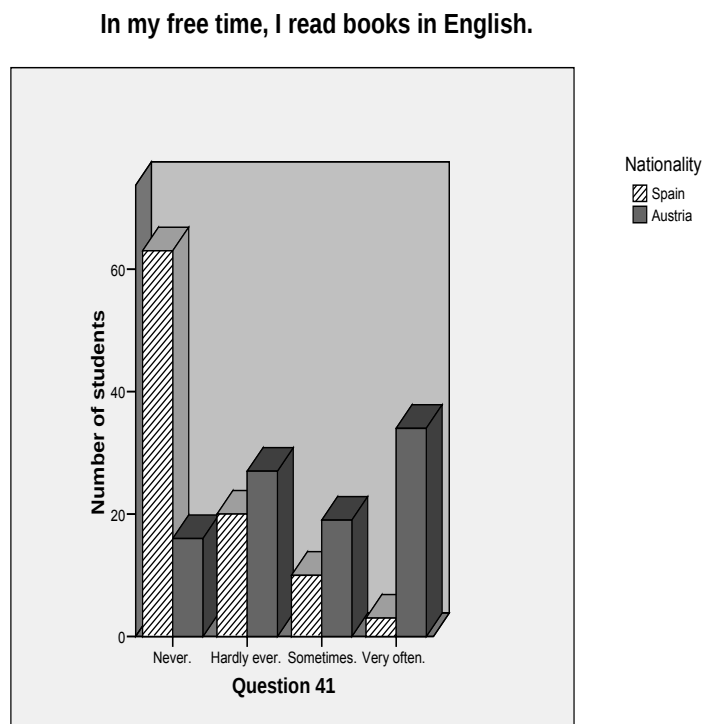
A Spanish learner claims that knowledge of English was useful in a situation in which a foreigner needed help. Having a language in common, enabled the participant to provide the required information and, at the same time, convey a positive image of a cooperative and helpful Spanish citizen.

Para ayudar a las turistas para que no duden en volver. (No. 64)
(*To help tourists so they won't hesitate to visit Spain again.*)

10.4.2. Use of 'English Media'

Apart from previous experiences with the English language, another important aspect affecting motivation to learn and speak the target language is the influence of what is called 'English media' (cf. Clément et al. 1994 quoted in Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:21). When investigating different motivational orientation, they "[...] identified [this] component [...] that concerned English cultural products" (Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:21). Such cultural products can be, for example, anglophone music, literature or films. According to Clément (1994) these media products play a central role "[...] in familiarizing learners with the L2 community and thus shaping their L2 attitudes" (Clément 1994 quoted in Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:21). Therefore, items concerning students' media use were included in the questionnaire in order to find out if the learners make use of them and to draw possible conclusions about how they might influence their view on the target cultures. The purpose of questions 41 - 44 was to discover how often the participants have contact with books, music and films in English. In order to get a general impression of adolescents' usage of English Media, students' responses were at first analysed without making a distinction between the countries.

Figure 12: Question 41

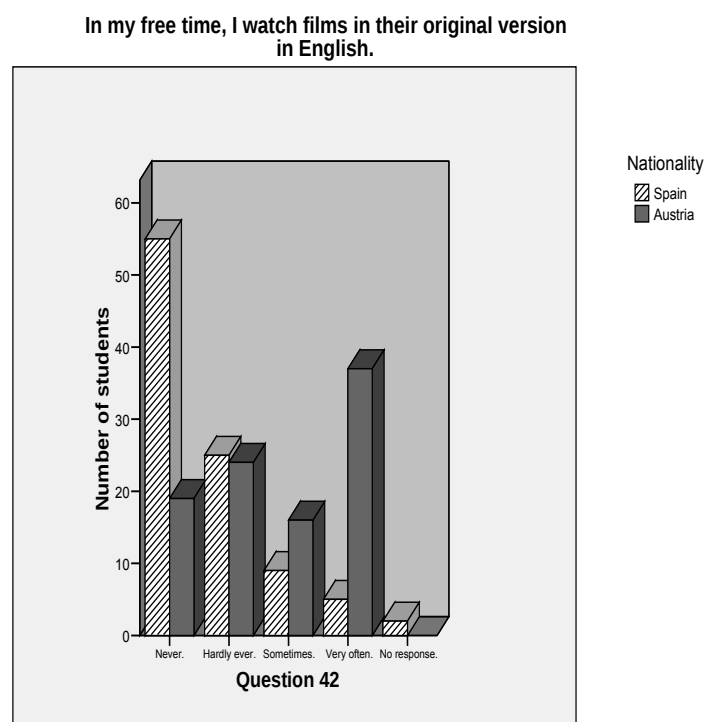


Results from all the questionnaires clearly show that listening to English music is the most frequent method of contact. A total of 82.3 % of all participants listen '*very often*' to songs in English, which is quite a high number. In comparison, 21.9% watch films in their original English version and 19.3% read English books. Only 8.9% of the participants listen to English radio programmes.

Once again, surprising conclusions can be drawn from the comparison of the results from the two countries under consideration. Comparing the responses given to items concerning the use of 'English Media', the t-test for independent samples shows that there are significant differences between the two groups (Austrian and Spanish students). The test statistics for question 41 are $t = -8.738$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p = 0.000$; $t(190) = -8.738$, $p < 0.000$.

More than a third of Austrian learners taking part in the study (35.4%) say that they read books in English '*very often*' in their free time compared to only 3.12% of Galician participants. A relatively high number of 65.6% of Spanish learners state that they '*never*' do so.

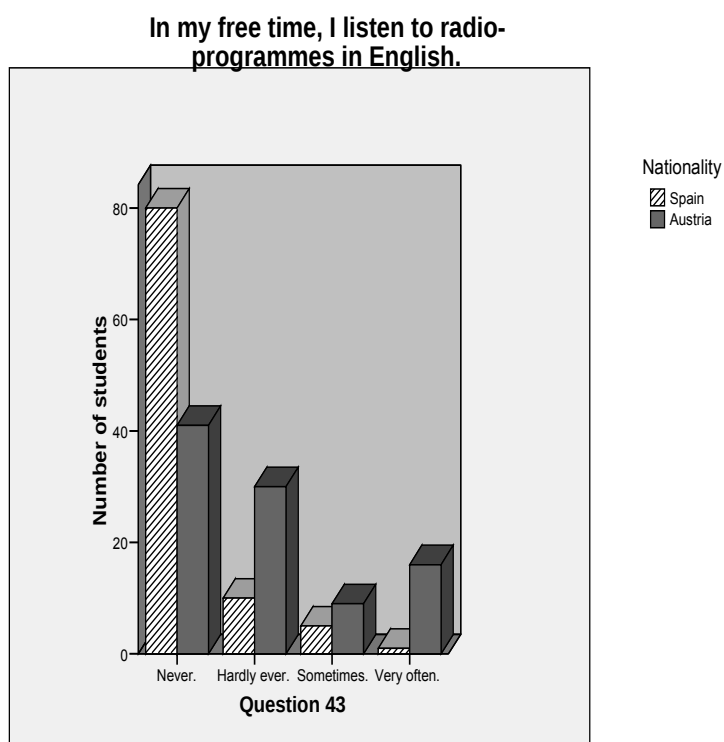
Figure 13: Question 42



Similar results can be seen in the answers given to question 42, which was concerned with the use of films in their original version. Only 5.2% of Galician students under consideration ticked '*very often*'; more than half of them (57.3%) never make use of this method of having contact with the target language compared to 38.4% of Austrian learners who watch films in English '*very often*', which is quite a high percentage. As nearly all of the films on Austrian TV are translated, this means that students either watch films in English in cinemas or choose this language when watching DVDs or they might make use of illegal downloads of films, which are normally only available in the original language. The t-test carried out for question 42 reveals that there is a significant difference between Austrian and Spanish students concerning this question: $t(190) = -5.276$, $p \leq 0.000$.

Again, responses to question 43, how often students listen to English radio-programmes in their free time, are similar.

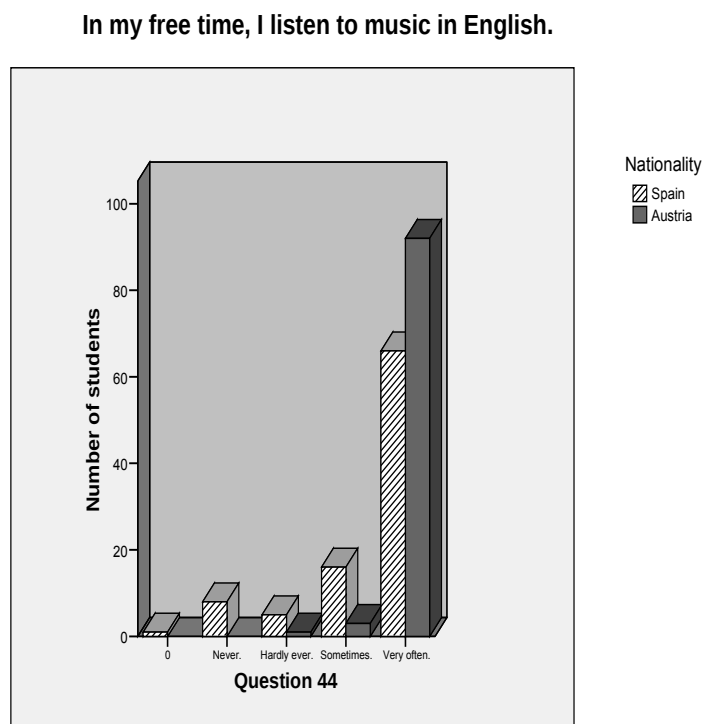
Figure 14: Question 43



For participants of both nations, this way of making use of their knowledge of English does not seem to be favoured: 83.3% of Spanish and 42.7% of Austrian participants '*never*' do so.

Listening to music in English, though, seems to be very popular for all of the participants, although there is still a clear difference between the responses from the two countries. A high number of 95.8% of Austrians do so '*very often*'; 68.8% of their Galician peers also ticked this option.

Figure 15: Question 44



Results from this study clearly show that Austrian participants interact more often with the English language than their Spanish counterparts. The t-test statistic for question 43 is $t = -5.980$, with 190 degrees of freedom and a P value of $p = -0.760$; indicating that this difference is significant by a separate variances t-test. The same is true for question 44. Again, the t-test reveals that there is a significant difference between Spanish and Austrian participants: $t(190) = -4.866$, $p \leq 0.000$. These significant differences could be due to various reasons. The most obvious explanation would be that the Austrian participants have more opportunities to interact with 'English media' than the Spanish students.

Concerning music in English, for example, one has to bear in mind that listening to songs in English is normal in Austria. Pop-culture is strongly influenced by British and American culture and listening to songs in English is very common. In Austria most popular music played on the radio is English language. The same is true of most of the music sold in Austria. Only a small percentage of music listened to by teenagers and young adults is in the German language. When considering radio programmes, one has to mention "FM4", which is a very popular Austrian radio programme in English among adolescents and young adults. In contrast, there are a lot of popular songs in Spanish, which young people listen to in Galicia. As well as

having a lot of well-known Spanish groups, Latin-American influence on Spanish media products is considerable. Consequently, although music in English also exists, Spanish songs are very frequently heard by, and popular with, adolescents. The differing results concerning English literature and films cannot be explained in the same way. In both Spain and Austria, books in English are available in bookshops, libraries and online-shops. Although there is no significant difference concerning price, one might argue that the low number of Galician students reading books in this language can be explained by the fact that only a few bookshops in Santiago de Compostela offer literature in English. Against this argument, is the fact that books can easily be purchased over the internet but, in this situation, where according to the teachers and university professors interviewed, the Galician participants come from a deprived socio-economic background, access to the internet might be limited.

Students from Krems and Santiago have the same access to films in English: most DVDs, in Austria and in Spain, have an option for choosing the original version. Concerning cinemas, the situation is similar in the two towns under consideration: neither Krems nor Santiago show films in the original versions (in English) in cinemas (with the exception of special annual events, such as 'Kulturwoche'). Students from both countries, therefore, have limited access to films in the original language at the cinema. There has to be another reason why only 5.2% of Galician students watch films in their original version on a regular basis, while 38.4% of Austrian participants do this 'very often'. Assuming that the majority of Austrian participants has internet access at home, one could argue that they might make use of illegal downloads from the internet, which mostly come in the original language English. The lack of internet access might be a possible explanation for the considerable difference concerning responses in the two countries.

10.4.3. Importance of speaking English in leisure time

Answers to open questions in the questionnaire affirm that students from both countries are aware of the fact that they need further contact with the target language outside the classroom in order to improve their language skills. They state that using English is important to consolidate and expand knowledge of the language, build self-confidence, learn more about the target cultures and, above all, can be an inspiring and motivating experience. Participants state that using English is important because there is insufficient time in the lessons to practise, or they are not entirely convinced

of the methods used in school to teach speaking skills. Also, they state that using English outside the classroom helps them to gain self-confidence and to experience real communication:

[Englisch in der Freizeit zu sprechen ist wichtig] da man in drei Stunden pro Woche in der Schule zwar etwas lernt, aber man muss sich auch außerhalb des Unterrichts damit beschäftigen, um mehr erreichen zu können. (No.45)

Im Unterricht ist alles so „steif“. Wenn man Englisch außerhalb des Unterrichts spricht, macht es auch mehr Spaß (kein Notendruck). (No. 61)

Weil im Unterricht of sehr formal gesprochen wird und leider auch viel zu wenig. Der Unterricht konzentriert sich auf Grammatikfehler und nicht auf sprachliche Fertigkeiten. (No. 64)

Erst diese Möglichkeit festigt und gibt das nötige Selbstvertrauen. (No. 65)

Man lernt durch den direkten Kontakt die Sprache besser kennen und kann sie öfter anwenden. (No. 68)

Porque el aprendizaje no acaba en el aula. Fuera de ella se puede aprender mucho. (No. 48)

(Because learning doesn't end in the classroom. Outside school, you can learn a lot.)

10.5. Types of students' motivation

The data obtained from the questionnaires was analysed according to the types of motivation students have towards the English language. In the analysis, three main types of motivation were taken into account: 'Integrative Motivation', which labels "[...] a positive outlook on the L2 and its culture [...]" (Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:20); 'Instrumental Motivation', which "[...] refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of L2 proficiency" (Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:21) and a third type of motivation, which is connected to the notion of English as a world language.

The results obtained from the questionnaires handed out in Krems and Santiago de Compostela support the view that students "[...] are not learning English so that they can change themselves and become more like native speakers" (Shaw 1983: 24 quoted in Coetzee Van-Rooy 2006:442) but in order to use English as a medium for cross-cultural communication.

10.5.1. Integrative Motivation

'Integrative motivation' was the issue for questions 14, 15 and 19. To gain a general idea about participants' integrative motivations, the mean scores of responses given to these items were compared.

Table 11: Integrative Motivation

T-Test for Independent variables: Integrative motivation

Nationality		N	Mean	Square deviation	Square deviation of mean
Qu. 14	Spain	96	3.78	.566	.058
	Austria	96	3.77	.533	.054
Qu. 15	Spain	96	2.66	1.055	.108
	Austria	96	2.60	.978	.100
Qu. 19	Spain	96	2.22	1.007	.103
	Austria	96	2.61	1.050	.107

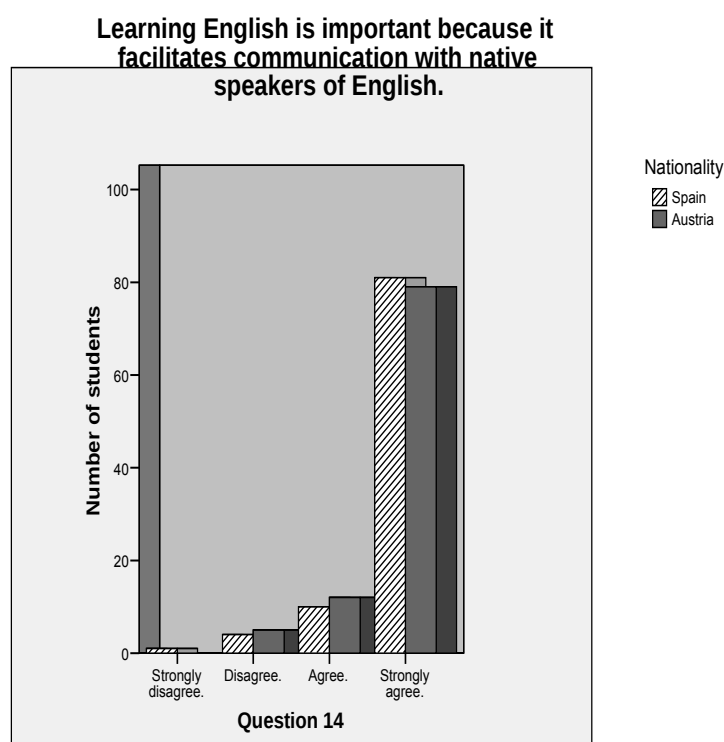
Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Qu. 14	Variances are equal	.019	.890	.131	190	.896	.010	.079	-.146	.167
	Variances are not equal			.131	189.316	.896	.010	.079	-.146	.167
Qu. 15	Variances are equal	.562	.454	.355	190	.723	.052	.147	-.238	.342
	Variances are not equal			.355	188.944	.723	.052	.147	-.238	.342
Qu. 19	Variances are equal	.774	.380	-2.665	190	.008	-.396	.149	-.689	-.103
	Variances are not equal			-2.665	189.674	.008	-.396	.149	-.689	-.103

Both Austrian and Spanish students seem to have an average interest in better understanding the target cultures. In question 14 (*'Learning English is important because it facilitates communication with native speakers of English'*), the average

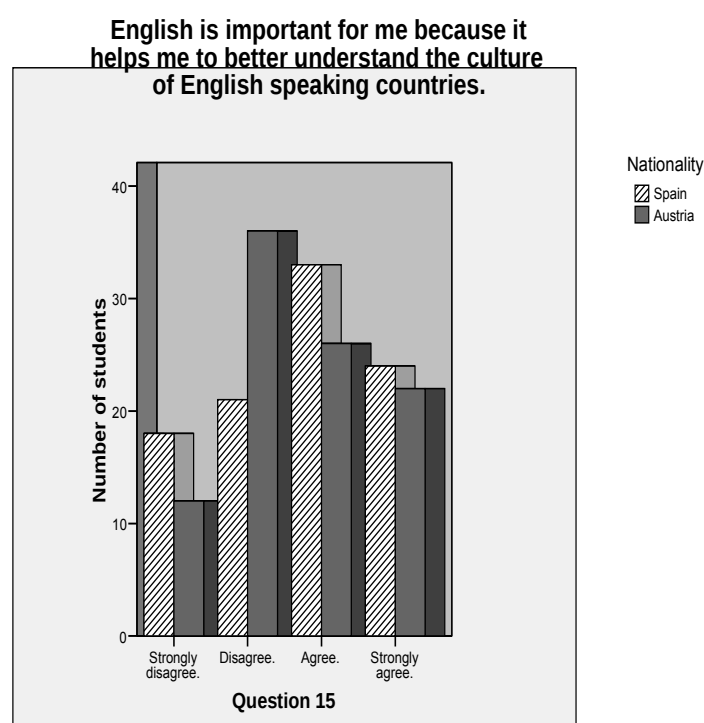
Austrian learner responds 3.77 on a score from 1 to 4 (1=*strongly disagree*, 2=*disagree*, 3=*agree*, 4=*strongly agree*), which is very close to the answer of the average Spanish learner (3.78). The t-test for independent samples shows that there is no significant difference in the results between Austrian and Spanish students in question 14, meaning that nationality does not have an influence on answer choice. The t-test statistic is $t=0.131$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p=0.896$; $t(190)=0.131$ $p<=0.896$.

Figure 16: Question 14



The mean response to question 15 (*'English is important for me because it helps me to better understand the culture of English speaking countries'*) is 2.60 and 2.66 for Austrian and Spanish learners respectively, signalling their neutral position towards the understanding of the culture of the 'Inner Circle'. Statistically, the differences in responses between the two groups (Austria and Spain) are not significant by a separate variances t-test; $t(190)=0.355$ $p<=0.723$.

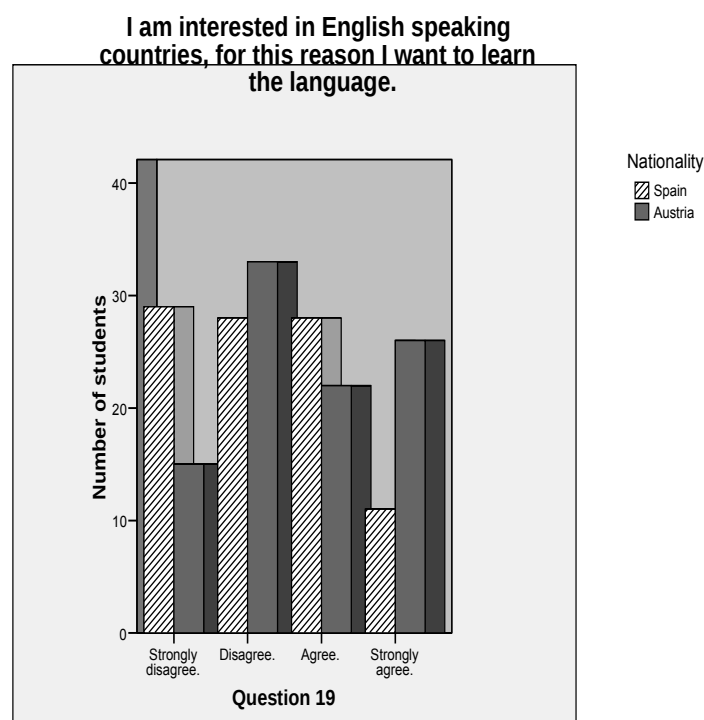
Figure 17: Question 15



34.4% of Galician students state that they 'agree', whereas only 20% 'disagree' with the statement. In Austria, only 27% state that they agree with question 15, whereas 37.6% disagree. Here results differ by country: it seems that Spanish learners are more interested in using the English language as a means to understanding the culture of anglophone countries than their Austrian peers.

Mean scores of responses to question 19 '*I am interested in English speaking countries and for this reason I want to learn the language*' show that Austrian learners are more interested, although the average answer of 2.61 is not considerably higher than the mean score for Spanish learners: 2.22. Although the t-test for independent samples shows that there is no significant difference between the means of Austrian and Spanish learners' responses, it can be seen that there is a clear tendency towards statistical significance. The t-test statistic is $t=-2.665$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p=0.008$; $t(190)=-2.665$ $p<=0.008$.

Figure 18: Question 19



It cannot be concluded from the data obtained, whether Austrian or Spanish students have a higher 'Integrative motivation'. What seems to be certain is that this type of motivation is not decisive when it comes to speaking the target language voluntarily in the learners' free time. This conclusion is confirmed by Lamb's (1994) finding, in which he states that "[...] English loses its association with particular anglophone cultures and [...] the desire to 'integrate' loses its explanatory power in many EFL contexts" (Lamb 2004 quoted in Coetzee Van-Rooy 2006:443). This does not necessarily mean, though, that the motivation for speaking English loses its force; but rather implies that today's learners might be more motivated by reasons other than 'Integrativeness'. The types of motivation that apply to the participants of this study will be analysed in the following sections.

10.5.2. Instrumental Motivation

Table 12 illustrates the mean scores of answers given to questions 10-13, which were concerned with students' Instrumental Motivation.

Table 12: Instrumental motivation

T-Test for Independent variables: Instrumental motivation					
Nationality		N	Mean	Square deviation	Square deviation of mean
Qu. 10	Spain	96	3.56	.856	.087
	Austria	96	3.86	.690	.070
Qu. 11	Spain	96	3.58	.706	.072
	Austria	96	3.53	.648	.066
Qu. 12	Spain	96	3.39	.851	.087
	Austria	96	3.70	.505	.052
Qu. 13	Spain	96	2.59	1.042	.106
	Austria	96	2.77	1.100	.112

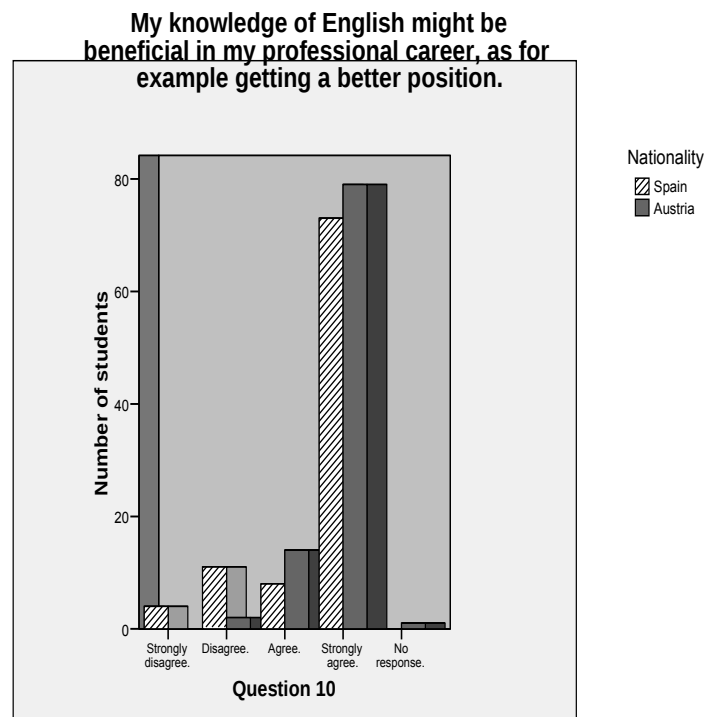
Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Qu. 10	Variances are equal	16.579	.000	-2.692	190	.008	-.302	.112	-.523	-.081
	Variances are not equal			-2.692	181.806	.008	-.302	.112	-.524	-.081
Qu. 11	Variances are equal	.052	.819	.533	190	.595	.052	.098	-.141	.245
	Variances are not equal			.533	188.633	.595	.052	.098	-.141	.245
Qu. 12	Variances are equal	20.809	.000	-3.095	190	.002	-.313	.101	-.512	-.113
	Variances are not equal			-3.095	154.590	.002	-.313	.101	-.512	-.113
Qu. 13	Variances are equal	1,283	.259	-1.145	190	.254	-.177	.155	-.482	.128
	Variances are not equal			-1.145	189.445	.254	-.177	.155	-.482	.128

Austrian students consider that their knowledge of English might help them in their professional career. In questions 10 and 12 the average Austrian learner's answer is 3.86 (compared to the Spanish learner's 3.56) and 3,70 (compared to the Spanish

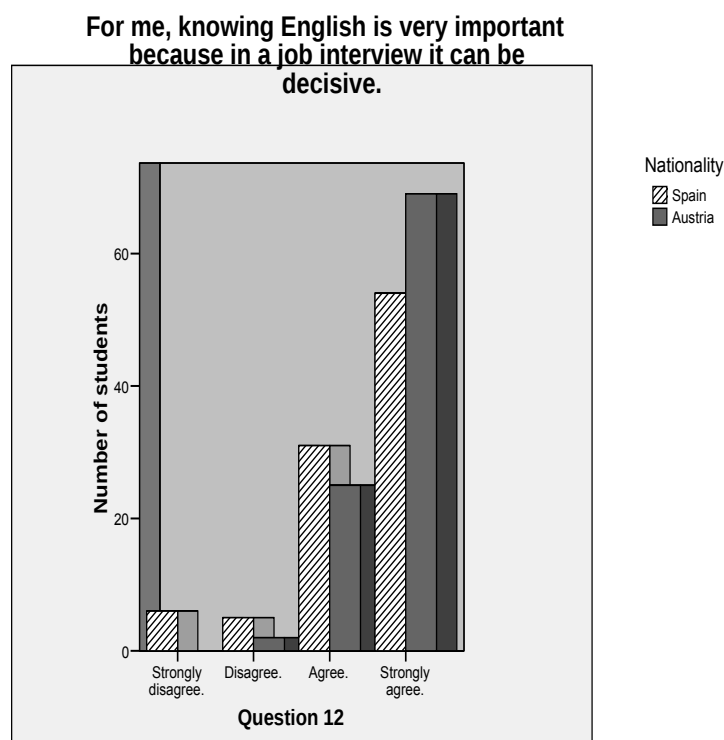
mean of 3.39) respectively. The t-test for independent samples shows that nationality has a significant influence on the choice of responses in questions 10 and 12. The t-test statistics for question 10 '*The knowledge of English might be beneficial in my professional career, for example getting a better job*' is $t = -2.692$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p = 0.008$; $t(190) = -2.692$ $p < 0.008$. The output for question 12 '*For me, knowing English is very important because in a job interview it can be decisive*' shows that the difference between Austrian and Spanish students' responses is significant; $t(190) = -3.095$ $p < 0.002$.

Figure 19: Question 10



82.2% of Austrian participants '*strongly agree*' with question 10: '*The knowledge of English might be beneficial in my professional career, for example getting a better job*' and 71.8% of them '*strongly agree*' with question 12: '*For me, knowing English is very important because in a job interview it can be decisive.*'

Figure 20: Question 12



In both questions, the majority of Spanish students also ‘*strongly agree*’ although it has to be mentioned that a considerable percentage ‘*disagree(s)*’ with the statements. In other words, learners of both countries consider that the knowledge of English is important for their professional lives, although a number of Galician participants is not convinced that this is the case.

Questions 11 and 13 deal with English as a ‘personal plus factor’ for individuals:

Question 11: Knowing English makes me a better-qualified person.

Question 13: Learning English is important for me because people will respect me more if I speak a foreign language.

The majority of students (64.6%) ‘*strongly agree(s)*’ that the knowledge of English is a decisive factor because it makes them better-qualified (Question 11). Concerning the increase of respect due to the knowledge of English (Question 13), 37.5% ‘*agree*’ that this might be the case, however the responses to this question do not clearly

show whether the participants think that the knowledge of English is connected to respect or social prestige.

It is possible to conclude, from the mean scores of responses given to the questions concerning 'Instrumentality' that this type of motivation is important for the participants, but the results do not show a very strong trend. The mean results lie between 2.59 (Spanish learners answering question 13) and 3.86 (Austrian learners answering question 10), indicating a moderate to strong agreement with the given statements. The t-test for independent variables confirms that there is no significant difference between Austrian and Spanish participants' responses in questions 11 and 13. The t-test statistic for question 11 '*Knowing English makes me a better-qualified person*' is $t=0.533$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p=0.008$; $t(190)=0.533$ $p\leq 0.008$. Means of the two groups also do not differ significantly in question 13 '*Learning English is important for me because people will respect me more if I speak a foreign language*'; $t(190)=-1.145$ $p\leq 0.254$.

10.5.3. English as a Lingua Franca

Analysing the results obtained from the questionnaires, Austrian and Spanish learners undoubtedly belong to the "[...] largest group of users of 'English': those to whom 'English' serves on a daily basis as a lingua franca for conducting their affairs [...]" (Seidlhofer 2001:141).⁵ Jenkins (2006) argues that

Speakers of European Englishes are typically also speakers of ELF, to the extent that they learn and use English more for interlinguacultural communication than to communicate with speakers who share their first linguaculture (or, for that matter, with native English speakers).
(Jenkins 2006:164)

Results from this study prove Jenkins' (2006) and Seidlhofer's (2001) findings that European students mostly use this language in situations where they cannot use their mother tongues rather than for integrative purposes.⁶ According to Seidlhofer, the "[...] majority of uses of English occur in contexts where it serves as lingua

⁵ In this paper, the term 'Lingua Franca' is used according to Jenkins' (2006) definition: "[...] a contact language used only among non-mother tongue speakers" (Jenkins 2006:160).

⁶ The term 'integrative' is understood here in connection with a specific target group such as 'U.S.-citizens' or 'the British'. 'Integrativeness' can be understood differently in a multilingual context, in which the lingua franca would serve integrative purposes, as English is *the* language of international communication.

franca, far removed from its native speakers' linguacultural norms and identities" (Seidlhofer 2001:134). They seem to mostly use English as a language for intercultural communication⁷. According to Seidlhofer, they would ideally "[...] be making use of ELF in a largely unselfconscious, instrumental (as opposed to identificatory) way" (Seidlhofer 2001:146). However, analysing the results concerning 'Language anxiety', which will be done in the following section, it becomes obvious that when students use English for intercultural communication, they are by no means free of speaking anxiety.

Still, there is no doubt that rather than identifying with the target cultures, participants use the English language to communicate primarily with people other than native speakers. This implies that for them, English is a "means to communicate to the rest of the world their identity, culture, politics, religion, and 'way of life'", meaning that "there is no attempt for the user to be like a native speaker of English" (Smith 1983 quoted in Coetzee Van-Rooy 2006:442).

Responses to questions 16, 17 and 18, which concern the use of English as a lingua franca, clearly show that this type of language usage is very important for the participants. The mean scores of responses, all of them having a value above 3, show that the average student '*strongly agree(s)*' or '*agree(s)*' with the statements affirming the importance of English as a language for international communication.

Table 13: English as a Lingua Franca

T-Test of independent variables: English as a Lingua Franca

Nationality		N	Mean score	Square deviation	Square deviation of mean
Qu. 16	Spain	96	3.50	1.056	.108
	Austria	96	3.77	.552	.056
Qu. 17	Spain	96	3.26	1.049	.107
	Austria	96	3.42	.735	.075
Qu. 18	Spain	96	3.39	.910	.093
	Austria	96	3.59	.573	.058

⁷ "[...] compare Hüllen's (1992) distinction between Identifikationssprache ('language of identification') and Kommunikationssprache" (Hüllen 1992 quoted in Seidlhofer 2001:146).

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Qu .16	Variances are equal	20.360	.000	-2.226	190	.027	-.271	.122	-.511	-.031
	Variances are not equal			-2.226	143.302	.028	-.271	.122	-.511	-.030
Qu .17	Variances are equal	3.033	.083	-1.195	190	.233	-.156	.131	-.414	.102
	Variances are not equal			-1.195	170.194	.234	-.156	.131	-.414	.102
Qu .18	Variances are equal	14.897	.000	-1.898	190	.059	-.208	.110	-.425	.008
	Variances are not equal			-1.898	160.003	.060	-.208	.110	-.425	.008

The t-test for independent samples shows that there are significant differences in answers to questions concerning 'English as a Lingua Franca' between the means of the two groups (Austria and Spain). The t-test statistic for question 16 '*I want to know English because it is an international language and a lot of people speak it*' is $t = -2.226$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p = 0.027$; $t(190) = -2.226$, $p < 0.027$. The output of question 17 '*English allows me to get in contact with different cultures*' is $t(190) = -1.195$, $p < 0.233$; showing a significant difference. Also, responses to question 18 '*Knowing English, I can communicate in all foreign countries. For this reason I want to learn it*' differ significantly; $t(190) = -0.898$, $p < 0.059$.

A vast majority of 73.5% of all learners taking part in the study '*strongly agree*' with the statement '*I want to know English because it is an international language and a lot of people speak it*', whereas only 3.2% of them '*strongly disagree*'. Two examples of students' responses chosen from the questionnaire illustrate this idea:

Englisch ist heutzutage wahrscheinlich die wichtigste Sprache der Welt und die meisten Leute beherrschen Englisch. (No. 10)

Porque es el idioma más internacional. (No. 22)
(*Because it is the most international language.*)

A total of 78.8% of Spanish students 'agree' or 'strongly agree' with the statement that 'English allows [...] to get into contact with different cultures'; 87.6% of their Austrian peers gave similar responses. A Spanish student says that due to the fact that English is a 'world language', s/he will be able to get any kind of information in any part of the world using this language: "Es una lengua mundial y facilita la obtención de información en cualquier medio" (No. 36).

90.7% of all students 'agree' or 'strongly agree' that they learn English in order to communicate in foreign countries (question 18).

Man nimmt an, dass jeder ein paar Worte auf Englisch versteht, um sich so zu verständigen. (No. 51)

In jedem Urlaub ist es von Vorteil Englisch zu können, weil Weltsprache und von vielen gesprochen. (No. 90)

Porque el inglés es un idioma que deben saber la mayor parte de las personas, sobre todo si trabaja hacia el público. (No. 4)
(*Because English is a language most of the people should know, above all if they are working directly with the public.*)

Figure 21: Question 16

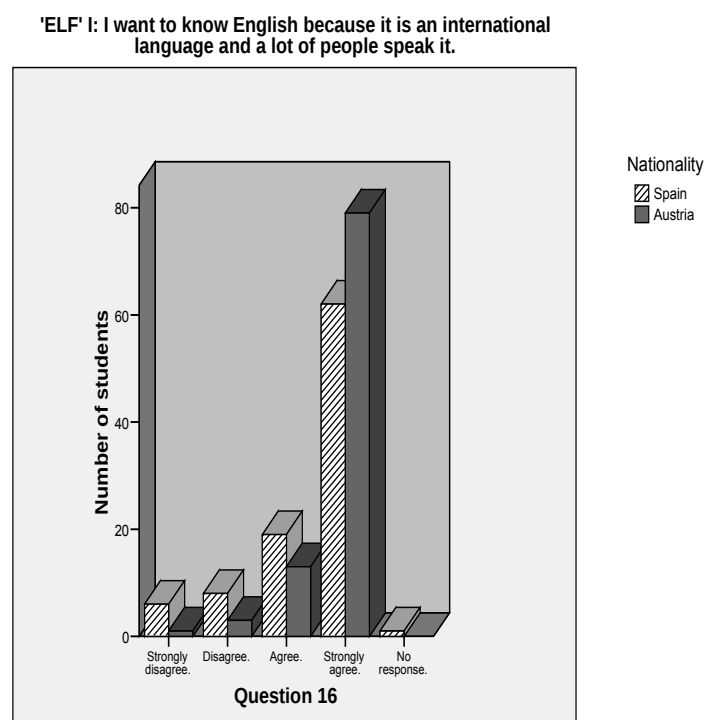


Figure 22: Question 17

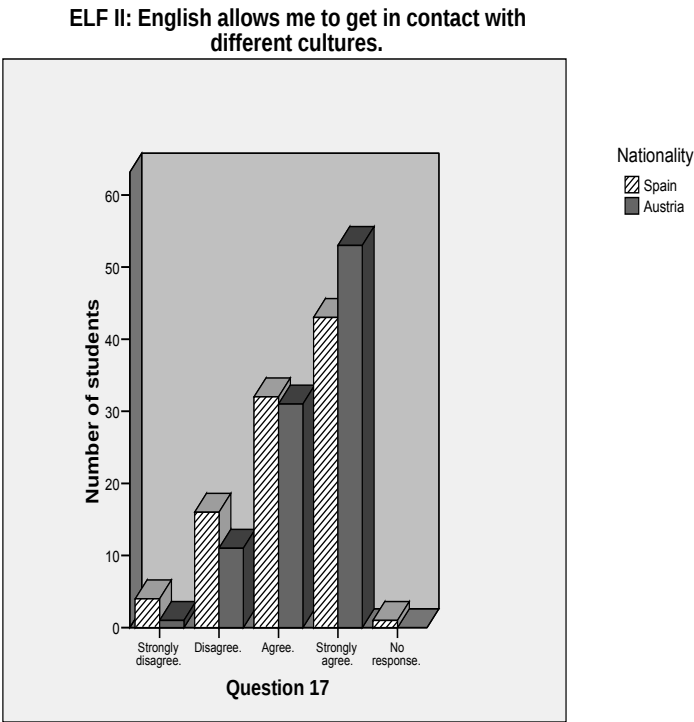
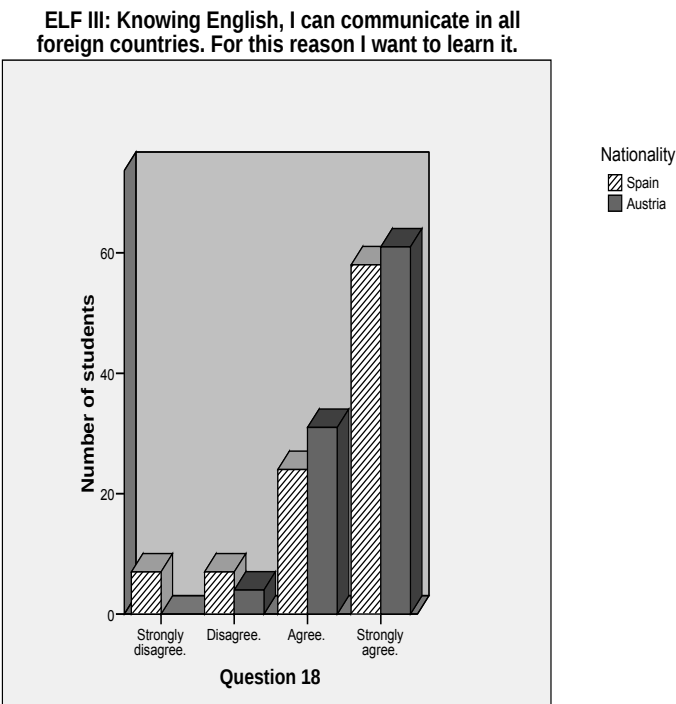


Figure 23: Question 18



The graphs illustrate the clear result that a vast majority of students from both countries acknowledges the fundamental importance of English as a language for international communication. This conclusion affirms Jenkins' (2006) and Seidlhofer's (2001) findings that most European learners use English for this purpose (cf. Seidlhofer 2001:145f.; Jenkins 2006:164f.). The Austrian and Spanish students participating in the study thus belong to the group of learners who use English mainly in communication with non-native speakers. Also, results clearly show that they are aware of this fact and know about their linguistic needs.

The findings coincide with the opinions English teachers have about the types of motivation of their students. Teachers interviewed stated that they have the impression that learners are mainly motivated to learn the target language so that they can use it in foreign countries (e.g. during language weeks or on holidays). Austrian students also use this language in order to make contact with international exchange students when going out at night. Austrian teachers say that their learners acknowledge the importance of English as a 'World Language' and think it is 'cool' to know this language.

10.6. Willingness to communicate

There are a lot of factors which permit or inhibit successful communication in the target language. Many personal traits such as introversion or extroversion, degree of motivation and personal goals influence whether communication takes place or not. However, apart from these personal traits, 'Willingness to Communicate' (WTC) is a crucial factor which might be decisive. According to a model proposed by McCroskey (1982), "[...] WTC is seen as a behavioural intention to initiate communication when free to choose to do so" (McCroskey 1982 quoted in MacIntyre 1994:137). WTC is influenced by a variety of factors and depends crucially on the actual situation.

Results from a study by Hashimoto (2001) show that the frequency of communication in the foreign language is also strongly related to language learning motivation:

[...] students who have greater motivation for language learning report using the language more frequently and students who are more willing to communicate are more likely to do so.
(Hashimoto 2002:40)

Hashimoto states that WTC is strongly related to three factors: motivation, language anxiety and perceived competence.

Concerning WTC, the aim of this study was to discover similarities and differences between Spanish and Austrian students. Various questions in the questionnaire aimed to find out more about the actual use of English by learners. Responses to question 6, for example, indicate how often participants use English in their free time.

Figure 24: Question 6

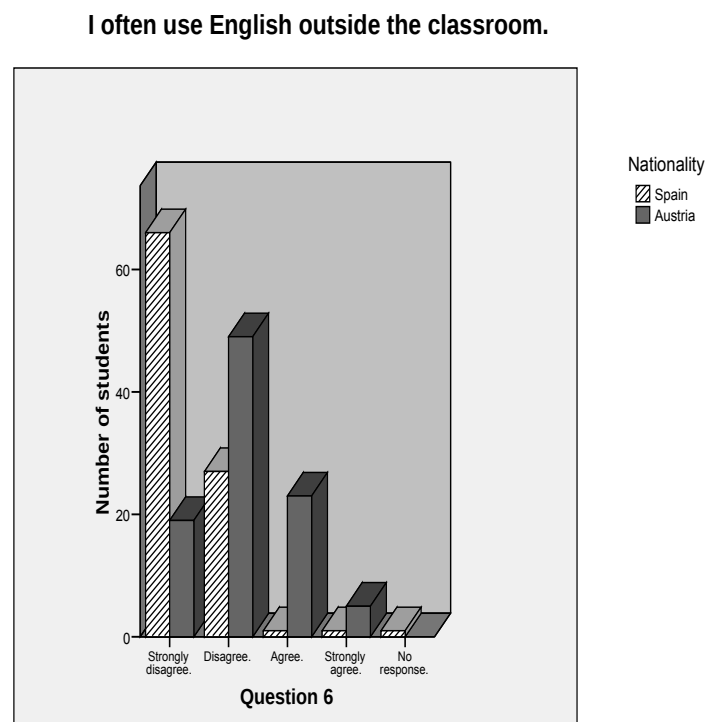


Table 14: Question 6

Question 6: I often use English outside the classroom.

Number of students

		Nationality		Total
		Spain	Austria	
Qu. 6	Strongly disagree.	66	19	85
	Disagree.	27	49	76
	Agree.	1	23	24
	Strongly agree.	1	5	6
	No response.	1	0	1
	Total	96	96	192

Independent Samples Test

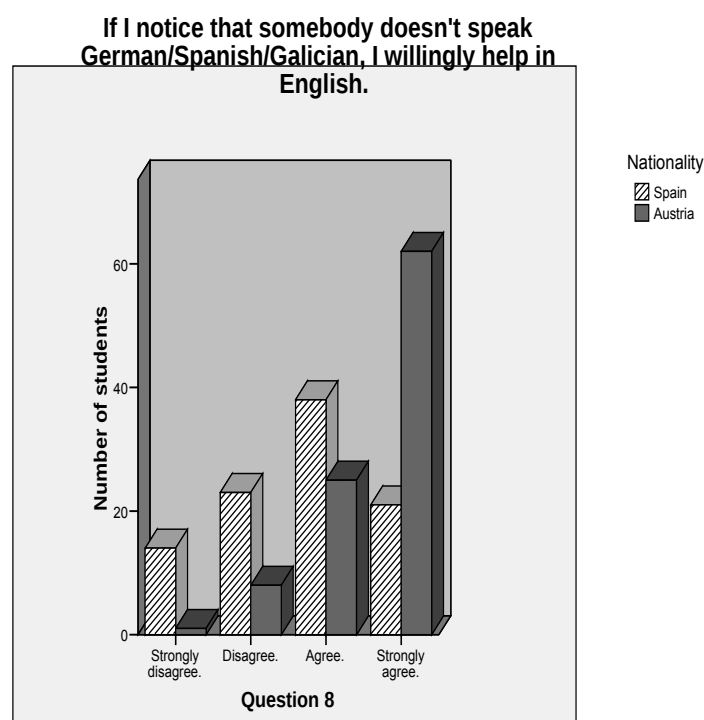
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
									Upper	Lower
Qu. 6	Variances are equal	.098	.754	-5.738	190	.000	-.729	.127	.980	-.478
	Variances are not equal			-5.738	183.656	.000	-.729	.127	.980	-.478

Concerning frequency of communication in the target language, the vast majority of Galician students (96.9%) indicates that they '*strongly disagree*' or '*disagree*' with the statement '*I often use English outside the classroom*'. Only 3.1% of them often use it ('*agree*' or '*strongly agree*'). 29.2% of their Austrian peers '*agree*' or '*strongly agree*' that they often use English in their free time, which is a significantly higher number. Still, the majority of Austrian participants (70.8%) indicates that they do not make use of English very often in their free time ('*disagree*' or '*strongly disagree*'). The t-test for independent samples shows that there is a significant difference between Austrian and Spanish learners' responses to question 6 '*I often use English outside the classroom*', the test statistic is $t = -5.738$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p = 0.000$; $t(190) = -5.738$, $p < 0.000$.

These results might have various causes. One reason that Spanish students seem to use English less frequently could be that they simply do not have the opportunities to do so. Another possible conclusion could be that their 'Willingness to communicate' in possible speaking situations is not as high as those of Austrian participants. This, again, could be due to various reasons, among them the level of Language Anxiety and their perceived competence in the target language. In the following sections, these possible indicators of WTC will be analysed in detail.

Question 8 of the questionnaire is strongly connected to the notion of 'Willingness to communicate' as well. Participants were asked: *'If I notice that somebody doesn't speak German/ Spanish/ Galician⁸, I willingly help in English.'*

Figure 25: Question 8



The t-test for independent samples indicated that there is a significant difference between the responses of Austrian and Spanish students; $t(190) = -6.983$, $p < 0.000$.

Nearly two thirds of Austrian students (64.6%) taking part in the study '*strongly agree*' and 26.4% '*agree*' with the statement, i.e. they willingly help in the foreign language. In comparison, 21.9% and 39.6% respectively of their Spanish peers are prepared to help in English. 14.6% of Galician participants state that they '*strongly disagree*', whereas only 1% of Austrian students ticked this option. Here, results

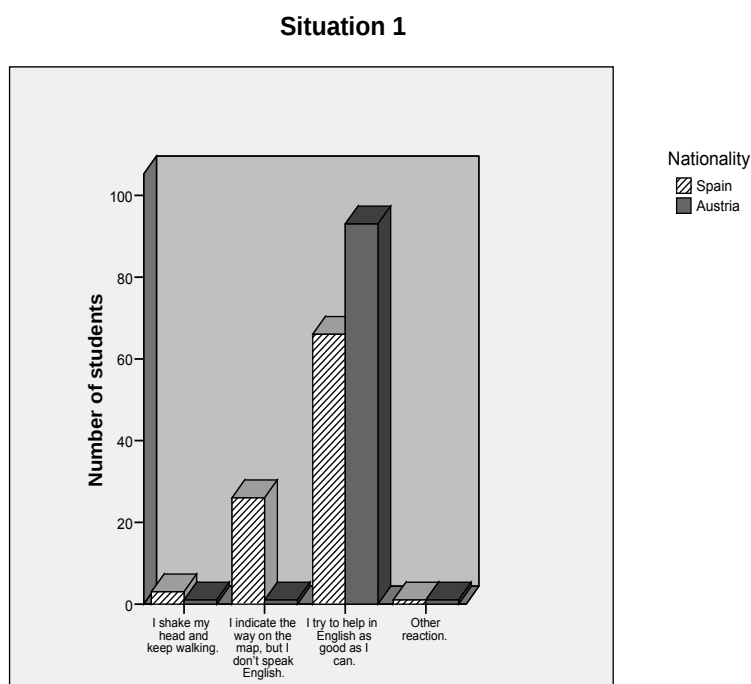
⁸ The options were adapted according to the country.

show that Galician students do not seem to have a strong 'Willingness to communicate'. Analysing the two graphs under consideration, the question arises why this is the case.

According to Philips & McCroskey (1982) and Clément et al. (2003), the strongest predictors of WTC are communication apprehension, i.e. a feeling of unease or even anxiety regarding communication in the foreign language, and perceived competence (cf. Philips & McCroskey 1982 quoted in MacIntyre 1994:137f.; Clément et al. 2003:191). From these research findings, one has to assume that the Spanish pupils experience greater Language Anxiety and/ or do not perceive their competence in the target language as sufficient to communicate. Questions concerned with Language Anxiety and perceived competence were included in the questionnaire and will be analysed in the course of this paper in order to draw possible conclusions about 'Willingness to communicate'. Before turning to possible factors influencing WTC, the reader will be presented with students' responses to four communication situations. In the questionnaire, participants were confronted with four different speaking situations and were asked to classify and explain their reactions. The first two situations were classic settings of tourists who ask for help in English. In the first situation, the student has to imagine the following situation:

Situation 1: I see some tourists who study the map, looking confused. They speak a language I don't understand. One of them comes up to me and asks me in English with a strong foreign accent if I can help them.

Figure 26: Situation 1



Participants were asked to choose one of the following options and then explain their choices:

- o I shake my head and keep walking.*
- o I indicate the way on the map, but I don't speak English.*
- o I try to help in English to the best of my ability.*
- o other reaction:*

The majority of students of both countries (68.8 % and 96.9%, Spain and Austria respectively) opted for the third option '*I try to help in English to the best of my ability*'. It has to be mentioned, though, that a considerable percentage (27.1%) of Spanish students ticked the answer '*I indicate the way on the map, but I don't speak English*', which is, especially when compared to the Austrian students (1%), a relatively high proportion.

As already mentioned, participants were asked to explain their choices by giving answers in their own words. The responses given to these open questions were categorised into six classes of answer-types; these classifications were established after analysing some of the questionnaires and categorising the main responses given by students. Most of the answers could be allocated to one of the following categories:

- o Helpfulness/ obligation ("[...] because I know English.")*
- o Possibility for improvement/ practice.*
- o Simplest medium for communication.*
- o Pleasure/ pride in speaking English.*
- o Language anxiety.*
- o Other.*

Table 15: Explanation for Situation 1

Explanation for Situation 1	SPAIN	AUSTRIA
Percentage of students		
Helpfulness/ obligation to help („[...] because I know the language.“)	30.2	70.8
Possibility for improvement/ practice	13.6	7.4
Simplest medium for communication	17.8	13.6
Pleasure/ pride to speak English	2.0	1.0
Language anxiety	26.0	4.0
Other	8.4	3.0
No response	2.0	0.2

30.2% of Galician and 70.8% of Austrian participants would help the tourists because of a feeling of obligation or simple helpfulness, stating that they would expect the same kind of help if they were in a similar situation. The example given from an Austrian questionnaire illustrates this idea:

Ich helfe ihm weiter, weil dies ein Akt der Höflichkeit ist und mir nicht viel Mühe bereitet. [...] (No.43)

The example chosen from the Spanish questionnaire illustrates the feeling of obligation to help, in this case an obligation to the participant's country and a desire to confirm the good impression tourists might have of Spain:

Hay que ser amable con todo el mundo. Además así los extranjeros llevan una buena experiencia sobre el comportamiento de los españoles. (No. 10)
(We have to be friendly to everybody. Also, in this way the foreigners will have a good impression about the behaviour of the Spanish.)

A total of 20.8% opted for the second category, stating that helping tourists could be an opportunity for practising what they have learnt at school. For 31.2% of all the participants, speaking English is the simplest medium for communication: before gesticulating or looking for a different way for giving directions, they opt for using the common language, English.

Bevor ich ewig herum tue frage ich trotzdem, auch wenn mein Englisch nicht so gut ist. (No. 47)

Only a very small percentage speaks English because of pleasure or pride. Concerning language anxiety, it is eye-opening to compare results from both countries: 26% of Galician participants say that they do not speak English, although they have learnt it at school, because of Language Anxiety. In comparison, only 4.2% of Austrian learners reported to avoid communication in the target language for this reason. Examples chosen from Galician questionnaires illustrate the anxiety of Spanish students. Although they would like to help, they think their English language skills are not good enough to help the tourists and for this reason, reported to choose a different medium for communication:

Porque no hablo muy bien en inglés y me entenderán mejor si le indico el camino en el mapa. (No.13)
(Because I don't speak English very well and they will understand me better if I show them the way on the map.)

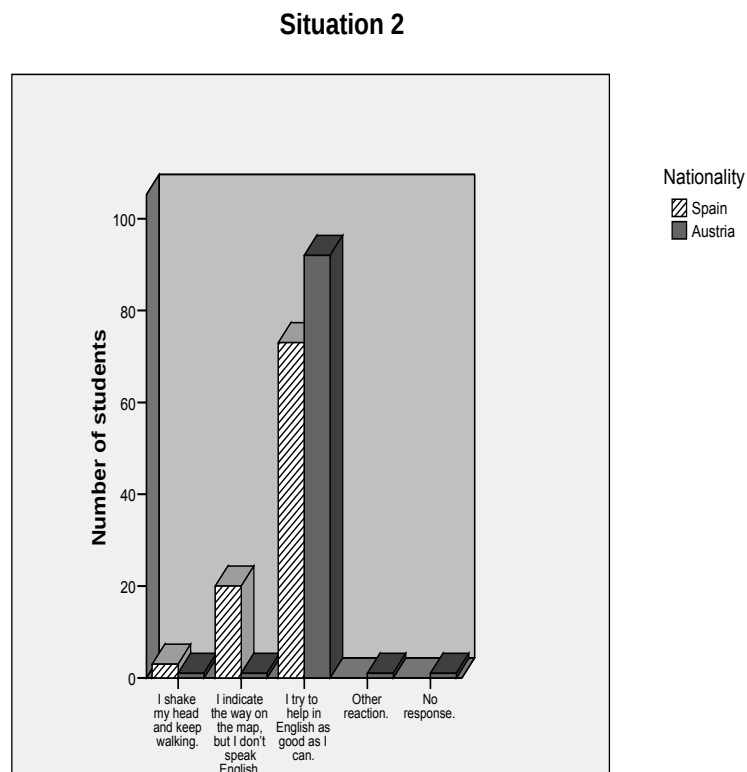
Porque mi inglés no es muy bueno pero me gustaría responderles en inglés.
(No. 14)
(Because I am not very good at English, although I would like to answer in English.)

Le indico el sitio porque les no les hablaría inglés porque no tengo muchos conocimientos del inglés. (No. 2)
(I show him/her the place, but I wouldn't talk to them in English because I don't have a good level of English.)

When analysing the reactions to Situation 2, similar results are obtained. Situation 2 was included in the questionnaire to find out whether the language level of the communication partner influenced the participants' 'Willingness to communicate' in this situation.

Situation 2: I see some tourists who study the map, looking confused. They speak English. One of them comes up to me and asks in English if I can help them.

Figure 27: Situation 2



Students had the same answer options as in Situation 1. Here, again, the majority opted for the option *'I try to help in English to the best of my ability'* (76% of Spanish students and 95.8% of Austrian participants). As in Situation 1, the number of Spanish learners who say that they would not speak in English (answer option 2) is higher than that of Austrian students (20.8% and 1% respectively).

Explanations for reactions to Situation 2 are similar to those given to Situation 1, indicating that there is not a big difference for the students whether their speaking partner is a native speaker or not.

Table 16: Explanation for Situation 1

Explanation for Situation 2 Percentage of students	SPAIN	AUSTRIA
Helpfulness/ obligation to help („[...] because I know the language.“)	25.0	48.0
Possibility for improvement/ practice	15.6	19.8
Simplest medium for communication	27.0	19.8
Pleasure/ pride to speak English	1.0	5.2
Language anxiety	18.8	2.0
Other	8.4	4.2
No response	4.2	1.0

Again, the majority (25% of Spanish and 47.9% of Austrian learners) simply wants to help or feels obliged to do so. Results do not differ much; here, again, the number of students naming Language Anxiety as a reason to avoid communication is significantly higher in Galicia (20.2%) than in Austria (2.1%).

Although belonging to a minority, some learners state that there is indeed a difference for them when they speak to native speakers. The following statements are by no means representative, but still some of them shall be presented to the reader to illustrate the point. One Austrian learner, for example, states that the communication with native speakers is more appealing because s/he can find out more about his/her actual language skills:

Es würde mich interessieren, inwiefern ich mich wirklich mit Englischsprachigen unterhalten kann, also für mich steckt ein gewisser Reiz dahinter. (No. 62)

The two Galician learners' statements chosen for illustration show that for them, speaking to native speakers is not an exciting and interesting challenge, but a situation full of anxiety. The participants know that their language level will not be the same as native speakers of English. For this reason they are afraid of speaking to them:

Porque es su idioma natural y posiblemente no entiendan el mío. (No. 50)
(Because it's their mother tongue and they probably don't understand me.)

Porque no se hablar inglés a su nivel. (No. 55)
(Because I don't speak English at their level.)

Some students seem to be less anxious when they speak to non-native speakers of English. As, in these cases, their communication partners are prone to commit errors themselves, their feeling of being ridiculous decreases. The following statements emphasise this conclusion:

In einem nicht-englischsprachigen Land habe ich keine Angst, Fehler zu machen [...] (No. 44)

In einem nicht-englischsprachigen Land sind die Ansprüche an einen nicht so hoch, weil der Gesprächspartner wahrscheinlich auch nicht so gut spricht. (No. 90)

Another learner even chooses not to respond in English to native speakers for reasons of dignity. S/he states that s/he does not see the point of switching to the foreign language, if the opposite has not made the least effort to speak Spanish:

Porque ellos tampoco han hecho el esfuerzo de hablar en castellano. (No. 58)
(Because they haven't made an effort to speak in Castilian yet.)

Situations 3 and 4 concern examples in which the students have to imagine that they need help in a foreign country. The premise, thus, is different: now they have to ask for some kind of information and have to decide whether speaking English is an option for them.

Situation 3.) I am on holiday with my family in Italy. None of my family speaks Italian and I am the only person who speaks English. We need information about the train.

Situation 4.) I am on holiday with my family in London. I am the only person who speaks English. We need information about the train.

Again, students were given four answer options that they had to explain:

- o *We try to find out the information from the timetable and don't ask anybody.*
- o *We try to gesticulate in order to make ourselves understood. I don't speak English.*
- o *I walk up to the counter and ask for the information in English.*
- o *other reaction:*

The answers students gave were classified into the same categories as in Situations 1 and 2. The analysis of responses given by the students shows very similar results in both countries.

Figure 28: Situation 3

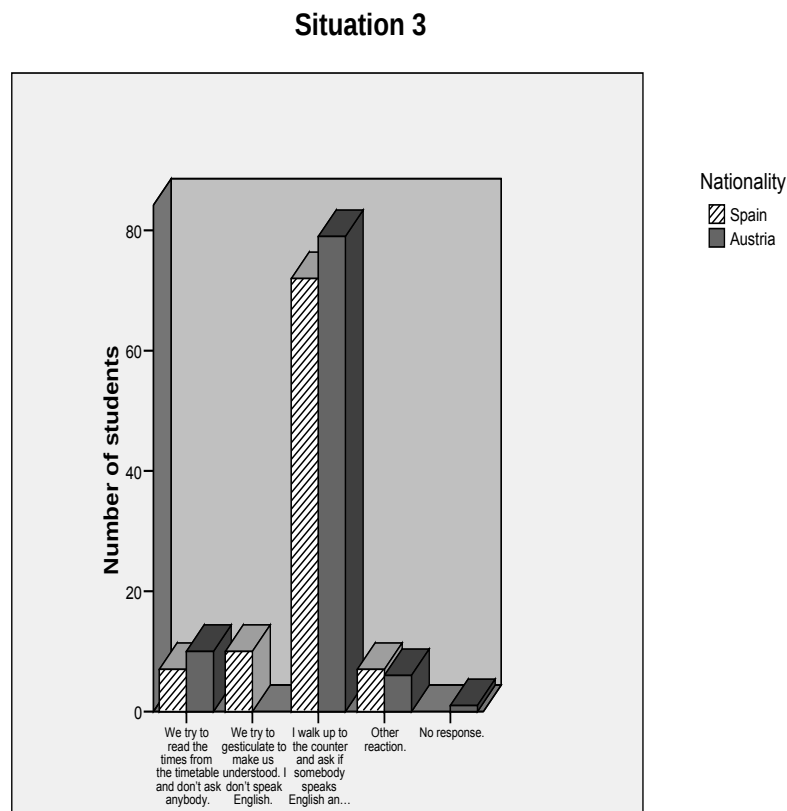
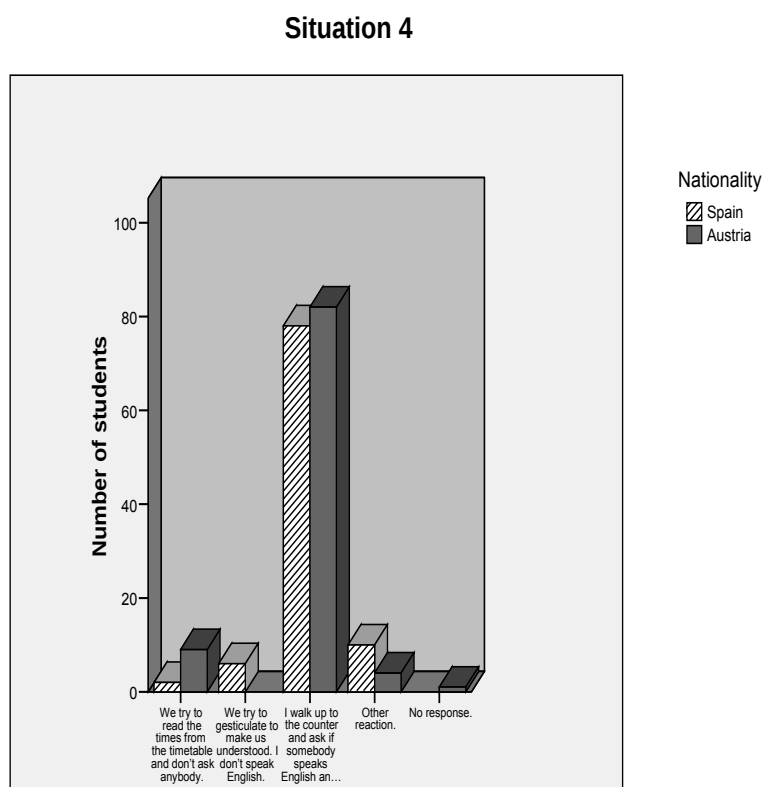


Figure 29: Situation 4



In both situations, the vast majority of students (78.6% in Situation 3 and 83.3% in Situation 4) of both countries opted for answer 3: *'I walk up to the counter and ask if somebody speaks English and is able to help me.'*

Table 17: Explanation for Situation 3

Explanation for Situation 3	TOTAL
Percentage of students	(all questionnaires taken together)
Helpfulness/ obligation to help („[...] because I know the language.“)	2.6
Possibility for improvement/ practice	5.2
Simplest medium for communication	68.2
Pleasure/ pride to speak English	1.6
Language anxiety	6.2
Other	14.1
No response	2.1

Table 18: Explanation for Situation 4

Explanation for Situation 4 Percentage of students	TOTAL (all questionnaires taken together)
Helpfulness/ obligation to help („[...] because I know the language.“)	3.6
Possibility for improvement/ practice	10.4
Simplest medium for communication	66.7
Pleasure/ pride to speak English	1.6
Language anxiety	3.6
Other	9.4
No response	4.7

Concerning the explanations for the answers: 66.2% and 66.7% in Situation 3 and Situation 4 respectively stated that speaking in English is simply the best medium for communication in these situations:

[English zu sprechen] Macht mich einerseits stolz; ich bekomme so am einfachsten die Information. (No. 63)

Porque el inglés lo sabe hablar bastante gente. (No. 32)
(*Because a lot of people speak English.*)

A total of 5.2% and 10.4% of all participants (in explanations for Situations 3 and 4 respectively) state that using English in these situations might be beneficial to their own language competence (*‘Possibility for improvement/ practice’*):

Es ist egal, ob die [Leute] gut oder schlecht Englisch sprechen, so kann ich meine Kenntnisse testen. (No. 48)

Es ist für mich eine Möglichkeit, mein Englisch auszuprobieren. (No. 63)

Table 19: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Sit. 1	Variances are equal	115.802	.000	-4.880	190	.000	-.302	.062	-.424	-.180
	Variances are not equal			-4.880	132.469	.000	-.302	.062	-.425	-.180
Sit. 2	Variances are equal	13.482	.000	-3.652	190	.000	-.313	.086	-.481	-.144
	Variances are not equal			-3.652	178.600	.000	-.313	.086	-.481	-.144
Sit. 3	Variances are equal	.147	.702	-.806	190	.421	-.094	.116	-.323	.136
	Variances are not equal			-.806	172.448	.421	-.094	.116	-.323	.136
Sit. 4	Variances are equal	2.514	.115	.798	190	.426	.083	.104	-.123	.289
	Variances are not equal			.798	149.953	.426	.083	.104	-.123	.290

The t-test for independent samples reveals that the difference between the two groups (Austrian and Spanish participants) is significant in Situations 1, 2 and 3, indicated by the following test statistics: Situation1: $t(190) = -4.880$, $p \leq 0.000$; Situation 2: $t(190) = -3.653$, $p \leq 0.000$; Situation 3: $t(190) = -0.806$, $p \leq 0.421$. The t-test statistic for Situation 4 is $t = 0.798$, with 190 degrees of freedom and a P value of $p = 0.426$; indicating that this difference is not significant by a separate variances t-test.

10.7. Attitudes

How an individual reacts in a specific communicative situation, strongly depends on his/her attitudes towards various factors concerning language. Although attitude is not “a necessary or sufficient cause of behaviour” (Triandis 1971:25), it can be argued that it contributes significantly to choices made in a possible speaking situation. According to MacIntyre (2002), attitudes are likely to be correlated to the Willingness to communicate in the second/foreign language. Furthermore, he argues that individuals who have positive attitudes towards the target language “[...] have higher perceived competence, communicate more frequently in the L2, and have

lower communication apprehension” (MacIntyre et al. 2002:555). Todd (1995) claims that attitudes are not only dependent on individual traits, but strongly influenced by cultural values (Todd 1995 quoted in Oxford 1996). For this reason, the cultural background⁹ of learners has to be borne in mind when analysing language attitudes and their readiness to speak the target language outside the classroom.

In the questionnaire, students were asked to assess their own English ability. They were also asked to give their opinions about the English language in general. Questions 7, 22 and 28 deal with participants’ opinions about whether they think it is important to know and speak English and why they think/don’t think so. When comparing the mean responses to these questions, differentiating between the two countries under consideration, striking results are obtained: Austrian participants score higher, meaning that they are more convinced that English is important for them.

Table 20: Need to speak outside the classroom

T-Test for Independent variables: Need to speak outside the classroom					
Nationality		N	Mean	Square deviation	Square deviation of mean
Qu. 7	Spain	96	2.64	1.097	.112
	Austria	96	3.44	.708	.072
Qu. 22	Spain	96	3.43	.992	.101
	Austria	96	3.70	.564	.058
Qu. 28	Spain	96	2.79	1.055	.108
	Austria	96	3.28	.791	.081

⁹ “[...] ‘culture’ may be defined simply as the learned system of rules which governs the behaviour of the members of a society” (Smith 1973:99).

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Qu.7	Variances are equal	28.627	.000	-6.021	190	.000	-.802	.133	-1.065	-.539
	Variances are not equal			-6.021	162.481	.000	-.802	.133	-1.065	-.539
Qu.22	Variances are equal	11.575	.001	-2.325	190	.021	-.271	.116	-.501	-.041
	Variances are not equal			-2.325	150.636	.021	-.271	.116	-.501	-.041
Qu.28	Variances are equal	6.732	.010	-3.637	190	.000	-.490	.135	-.755	-.224
	Variances are not equal			-3.637	176.098	.000	-.490	.135	-.755	-.224

The t-test for independent samples shows that there is a significant difference in responses to question 7 *'I'm happy that we have English as a subject at school because I often need this language'*; the test statistic is $t = -6.021$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p = 0.000$; $t(190) = -6.021$, $p \leq 0.000$. The test also confirms a significant difference between Austrian and Spanish students in responses to question 22 *'I think it is important that E.U. citizens know and speak English'*: $t(190) = -2.325$, $p \leq 0.021$. Concerning question 28 *'I think it is important to use English outside the classroom'*, the score is $t = -3.637$; $t(190) = -3.637$, $p \leq 0.000$, indicating that there is a significant difference between the means of the two groups.

46.9% of Austrian participants *'strongly agree'* with the statement *'I think it is important to use English outside the classroom'*, explaining their choice in various ways (29.2% of Spanish students gave the same response). Some of the students claim that using the target language outside the classroom enables them to practise the language, deepens their knowledge and consolidates what they have already learnt at school. Also, putting into practice what they have learnt in class, is, according to them, a means to feel more secure and self-confident. For these reasons they take advantage of every possible speaking situation.

Wenn man nicht übt, kommt man nie auf ein höheres Level, und nur die Übung im Unterricht ist nicht gut genug. (No.97)

Erst diese Möglichkeit [das Sprechen in der Freizeit] festigt und gibt das nötige Selbstvertrauen. (No. 65)

Here their opinions coincide with those of their Spanish peers, who also state that they need to practise their English outside class in order to improve. Various statements from Spanish participants agree that speaking English helps to increase knowledge and that it is advantageous to practise the language outside of school.

Porque es la forma de practicarlo, sólo hablándolo en clase nunca la aprenderás bien. (No. 12)

(Because it's the better way of practising it; you'll never learn well if you only speak in class.)

One student even claims that when talking in his/her free time, s/he feels that she learns vocabulary in a better way:

Porque las horas de clase no son suficientes y hablando con la gente se aprende más vocabulario y no "se suelta". (No. 1)

(Because language lessons at schools are not enough. When you get in touch with people you learn more vocabulary and you gain in confidence.)

Also, students say that speaking in their free time is more relaxed and 'communication-oriented' than in school. Some of the participants' statements are critical of the language teaching at their school:

[Ich denke, es ist wichtig, Englisch außerhalb der Schule zu verwenden,] weil im Unterricht oft sehr formal gesprochen wird und leider auch viel zu wenig. Der Unterricht konzentriert sich auf Grammatikfehler und nicht auf sprachliche Fertigkeiten. (No. 64)

[Das Sprechen in der Freizeit ist] komplett anders als in der Schule [...] und [man konzentriert] sich sehr darauf [...] verstanden zu werden. (No. 20)

Übung ist wichtig, Englisch ist „anders“, ungezwungen etc., wenn kein Lehrer dabei ist. (No. 22)

Some students state that speaking English in their free time is a great possibility to experience 'real communication' and 'have fun'. They use English as a medium to communicate with people from different parts of the world:

Weil es die Kommunikation mit Menschen aus anderen Ländern ermöglicht [...] (No. 91)

[...] Interesse, wie es in fremden Ländern so zugeht. (No. 46)

Da lernt man es irgendwie am besten/ man merkt sich Dinge leichter und es macht auch viel mehr Spaß. (No. 37)

Some participants even enjoy the challenge of communicating in English and testing their knowledge in 'real' situations':

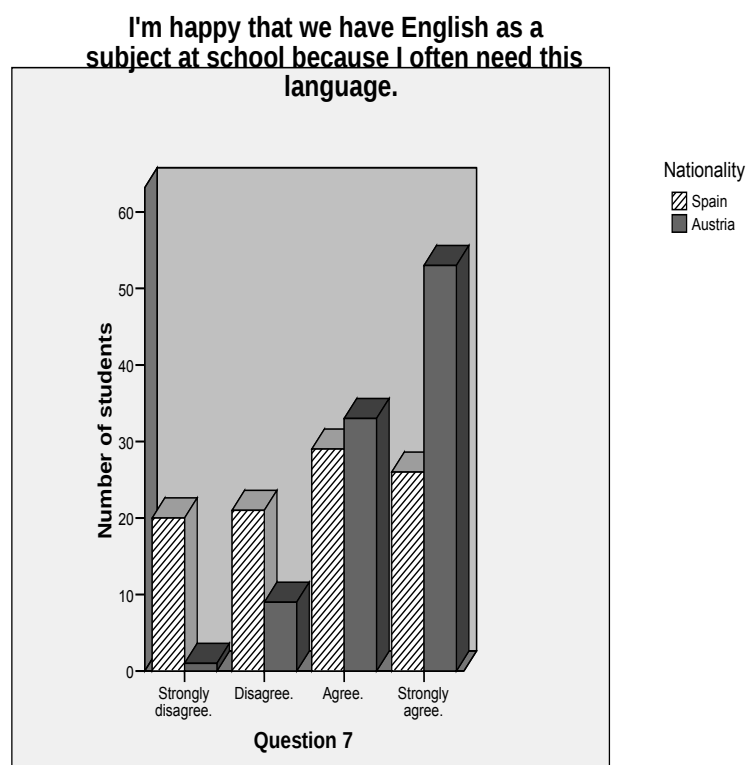
[...] quiero saber si soy capaz de hablar inglés con una persona inglesa y que me entienda. (No. 21)

(I want to know whether I'm able to speak English with an English person and if s/he understands me.)

Although the majority of Spanish students either 'agree(s)' or 'strongly agree(s)' with statement 28 (67.8%), a relatively high number of 17.7% says that they 'strongly disagree' that it is important to use English outside the classroom.

Question 7, 'I'm happy that we have English as a subject at school because I often need this language' has a direct influence on how important students perceive the target language.

Figure 30: Question 7



89.6% of Austrian students either ticked the option 'agree' or 'strongly agree' compared to 57.2% of Spanish participants. A fairly high number of 42.7% of Galician students 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree' with the statement (in comparison with 10.4% of Austrian students), meaning that they are either unhappy with the subject of English at school or that they do not make use of this language very often. An important aspect which might influence language attitudes is the participants'

perception of 'linguistic and cultural imperialism', which describes a feeling of loss of one's own language, culture and customs due to the superiority of another language. According to Coperías Aguilar (2001), learning a foreign language can be perceived as a threat to one's own identity and therefore cause negative feelings (cf. Coperías Aguilar 2001:42). These feelings, it could be argued, would be more likely to emerge in the case of English, which is without doubt a 'majority language' that might be considered to be superior. By looking more closely at Galicia and its linguistic norms, it becomes understandable that Galician students might be afraid that their language could be suppressed by other languages, such as Castilian (which is certainly 'stronger' than Gallego in Spain) or English (which is *the* majority language in the world). The preservation of 'Gallego' is fundamental to the Galician culture because of the fact that the language defines a crucial role for the maintenance of this culture. In the Spanish Law of Linguistic Standardisation (1983), the Galician language is described as one of the fundamental factors and a core element of Galician identity. It is described as a "spiritual force" and something that enables an "inner unity" of the community which will "unify the Galician people in the future" (cf. Preámbulo de la Ley de la Normalización Lingüística 1983 quoted in Dobarro 2007:233).

Results from the questionnaire show that none of the participants feel particularly threatened by the English language, although a considerable percentage of the participants believes that English is too dominant. 76% of Spanish learners taking part in the study either '*disagree*' or '*strongly disagree*' with statement 21: '*I think the English language has too much dominance and will oppress other languages like German/Spanish/Gallego.*'; 83.3% of Austrian participants ticked one of these options. In both countries, a minority of students (24% and 16.7% in Spain and Austria respectively) '*agree*' or '*strongly agree*'. Similar results are found when analysing responses to statement 20: '*An increasing number of German/Spanish/Galician words are replaced by English words (e.g. in newspapers). I don't like this very much*'. A clear majority of 66.7% of all students '*disagree*' or '*strongly disagree*', whereas one third (33.3%) '*agree(s)*' or '*strongly agree(s)*' with the statement. There is no significant difference of results between the countries which is confirmed by the t-test for independent samples. The test statistic for question 20 is $t(190)=1.272$, $p\leq 0.205$; for question 21 the following results were obtained: $t(190)=0.081$, $p\leq 0.935$.

In other words (and the results were similar in both countries), one third of all participants dislike the use of English expressions used, for example, in newspapers. Although it seems that only a small number of the participants feel threatened by the English language, some students' responses attract attention. A few learners explicitly emphasise the importance of their mother tongue(s). The statement

[...] no hay que dejar de hablar el castellano o el gallego. (No. 62)
(We should not stop to speak Castillian or Galician.)

implies that this student fears that speaking English could threaten his/her mother tongue(s). Others even state that they consciously refuse to use English in their free time because they "prefer their own language" (No.34) or think there is no need for having another means of communication (No.85):

[...] para eso [la comunicación] tenemos nuestra lengua (el gallego o castellano). (No. 85)
([...] For this [communication] we have our own language (Galician or Castillian).)

[...] prefiero mia lingua nacional. (No.34, answered in Galician)
([...] I prefer my national language.)

These statements show that learners are influenced significantly by their culture and society.

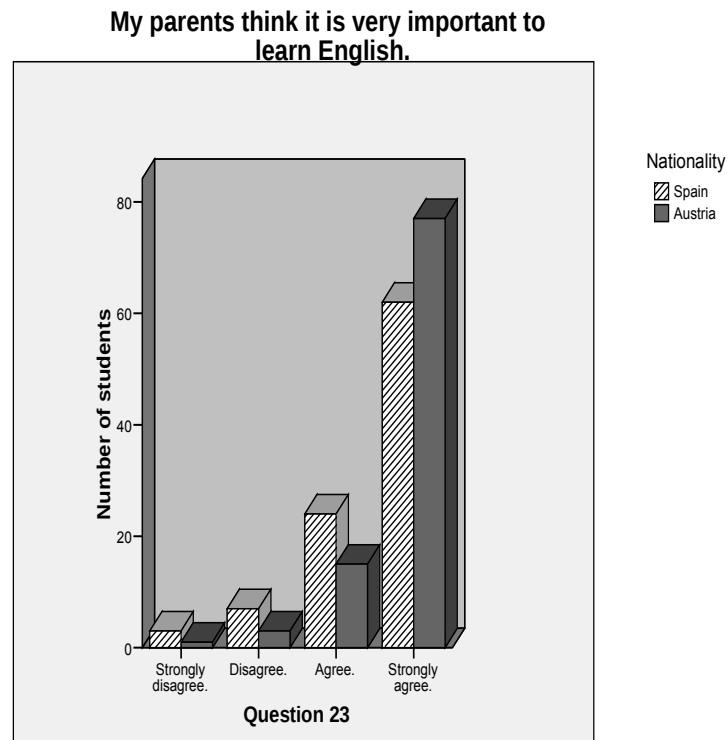
10.7.1. Parental influence

A number of researchers (see for example: Colletta, Clément & Edwards, 1983, Gardner 1985, Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay 1999) have focused their research on the influence that the immediate environment, family and peer group have on the language learner (cf. Spolsky 2000 quoted in Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:22). There is general consensus that parents play a major role in attitude development (cf. Gardner 1985:110). According to Gardner (1985), the support of the parents is strongly related to the learners' "willingness to continue language study and in the learner's own assessment of how hard they work to learn the second language" (Gardner 1985:122 quoted in Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:22). According to Gardner (1985), parents have two different roles. What he calls the active role is encouraging the child to learn the language and monitoring the learning process. The passive role, which undoubtedly is more subtle than the active role, concerns the parents' attitudes toward the second language community, which might be expressed in opinions or

statements about the culture. According to Gardner (1968), these attitudes of the parents might arouse similar ones in the children (cf. Gardner 1985:110).

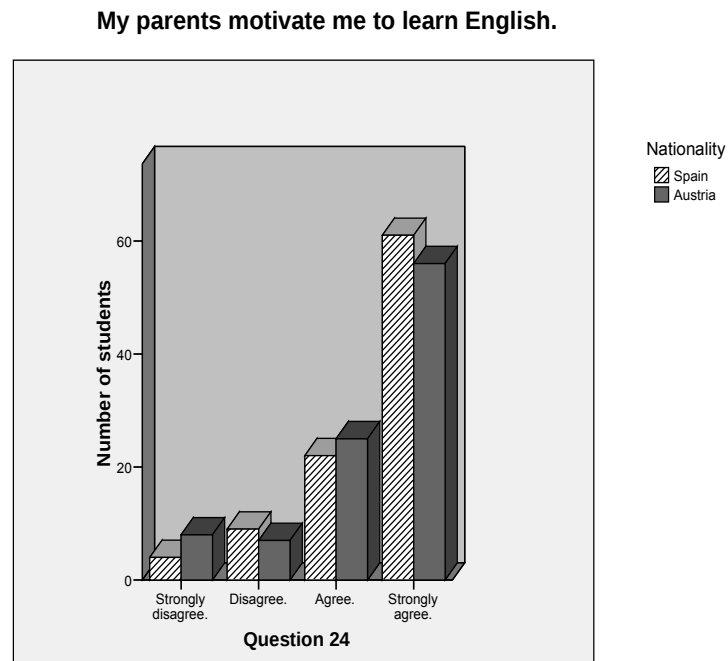
The results obtained from the answers chosen in the questionnaire clearly show that participants' parents in both countries have positive attitudes toward learning English.

Figure 31: Question 23



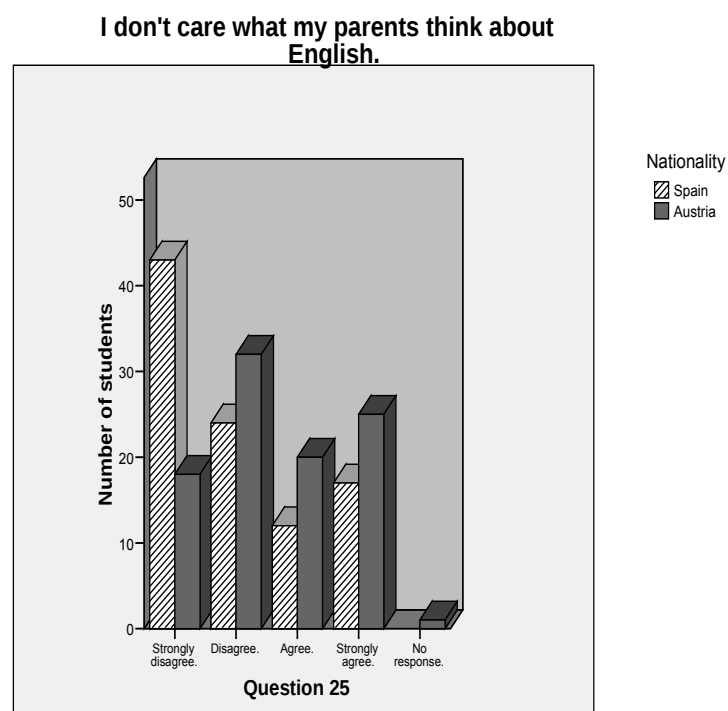
The vast majority of all participants, 72.4%, 'strongly agree' with statement 23: 'My parents think it is very important to learn English', whereas only 2% 'strongly disagree'. Similar results can be seen from responses to statement 24: 'My parents motivate me to learn English'.

Figure 32: Question 24



60.9% of participants from both countries '*strongly agree*', whereas only 6.25% '*strongly disagree*'. Comparing the responses given to items concerning parental influence, the t-test for independent samples shows that there is a significant difference in question 23 ($t(190) = -2.467$, $p \leq 0.014$) and question 25 ($t(190) = -3.368$, $p \leq 0.001$) between Austrian and Spanish students. In question 24, results do not differ significantly between the two groups ($t(190) = 0.895$, $p \leq 0.372$).

Figure 33: Question 25



Nearly half of Spanish participants (44.8%) '*strongly disagree*' with the statement '*I don't care what my parents think about English*', meaning that they give considerable importance to what their parents think about the target language. In comparison, only 18.8% of Austrian participants chose this option. 26% of Austrian students '*strongly agree*' with the statement, thus claiming that they think that their parents' opinions do not have much impact on their own motivation to learn the language. In other words, Galician students place more importance on what their parents say about the importance of English than Austrian learners.

10.7.2. Importance of linguistic correctness

Concerning the importance of speaking "correctly", both teachers and learners were asked for their opinion. Two teachers stated in the interviews that in the Spanish curriculum, only 10% of the teaching of the subject is dedicated to speaking. Schoolbooks focus on grammar rather than on the improvement of communication skills. Teachers have to follow the curriculum and they stated that they do not have enough time to improve students' speaking skills. This also implies that in Spain there is more focus on linguistic correctness than in Austria.

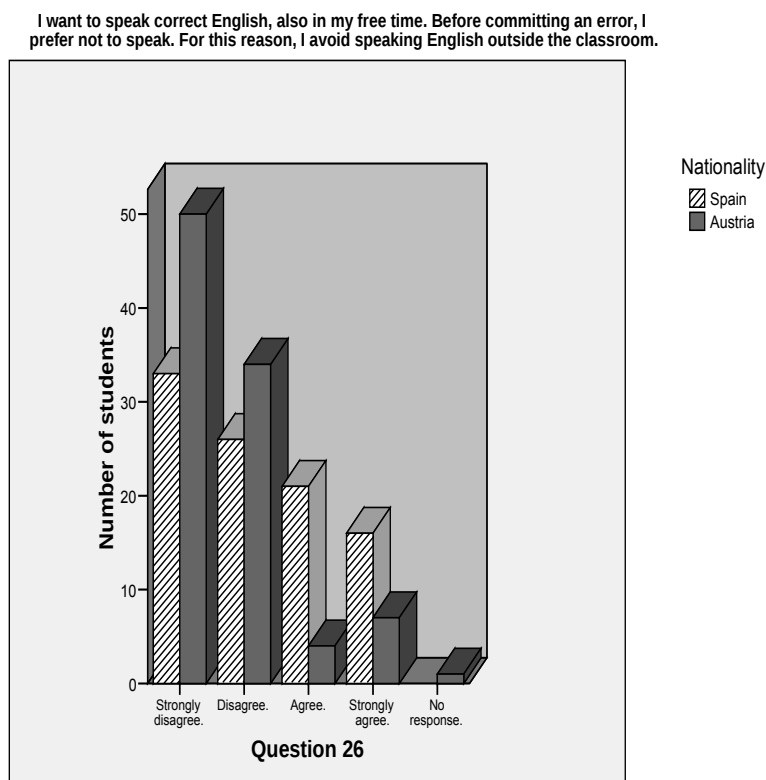
Students were asked for their opinion about two statements:

Question 26: I want to speak correct English in my free time as well. Before committing an error, I prefer not to speak. For this reason, I avoid speaking English outside the classroom.

Question 27: When I speak English outside the classroom, it is not so important for me if I speak 'correct' English. The most important factor for me is to make myself understood.

While responses to question 27 did not differ significantly in the two countries (the majority of both Spain and Austria '*strongly agree(s)*' with the statement), the analysis of responses to question 26 showed significant differences when comparing the two countries.

Figure 34: Question 26



Only 11.5 % of Austrian students ticked the options '*strongly agree*' or '*agree*'; the vast majority of 87.5% '*strongly disagree(s)*' or '*disagree(s)*' with the statement, meaning that they do not avoid using English because of fear of committing errors. Although the majority of Spanish students (61.5%) does not do so either, the percentage here is not as convincing. In Galicia, 38.5% of students participating in the study ticked the options '*agree*' or '*strongly agree*'.

In other words, more than a third of Spanish learners avoid English because they are apprehensive about speaking incorrectly. This fear of committing an error is closely related to the question of how competent students feel in the foreign language. A learner who feels capable of coping linguistically with a speaking situation will probably not be afraid of committing errors and will not feel such a high level of anxiety.

10.8. Self-perception and language anxiety

According to Clément et al. (2003) and MacIntyre (1994), perceived communication competence in the target language is one of "[...] the strongest predictor[s] of WTC [...]" (Clément et al. 2003:191; cf. MacIntyre 1994:136). In other words, if learners

believe themselves to be capable of coping with a communication situation, they are more likely to initiate it and actually speak in the target language.

The concept of Linguistic Self-confidence was first introduced into research in second and foreign language learning by Clément (1980) who described it as a “[...] confident, anxiety-free belief that the mastery of a L2 is well within the learner’s means.” (Clément 1980 quoted in Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:22) He claims that quality and quantity of social contact are fundamental for gaining self-confidence in the foreign language (cf. Csizér & Dörnyei 2005:22). Clément (1980), thus, implies that the experience of success when communicating in the foreign language will lead to more self-confidence, which, in turn, will increase Willingness to Communicate. He links frequency and quality of contact in the second/foreign language with self-perception, proposing that they have a reciprocal relationship.

Analysing the questionnaires concerning the issue of perceived competence in the target language yielded surprising results: Galician participants are very doubtful about their linguistic competence in English. An amazing number of 34 ($n=34$; total number of Spanish participants: $n=96$) students expressed doubt about the sufficiency of their English to communicate successfully at some point in the questionnaires. This figure was calculated by highlighting and counting all responses in the questionnaires where students indicated that their linguistic competence is too low to communicate in English. 34 Spanish students did so on at least one occasion in the respective questionnaires. In comparison, only one Austrian student said that s/he thinks his/her English level is too low to communicate successfully. A lack of positive experiences in the target language could explain Galician students’ low assessment of their linguistic competences. An increase in positive experiences, through language weeks, family holidays or other intercultural events, resulting in supportive feedback could increase their confidence in the target language. Another possible explanation for these alarming results could be a considerably high grade of language anxiety felt by Galician students. In order to find out why they are so afraid of committing errors, factors such as teaching methods or classroom atmosphere would have to be investigated in more detail. Additionally, the curriculum could be a factor in the lack of linguistic confidence in a large number of learners from Santiago de Compostela.

As previously mentioned, only a small percentage of teaching in Galician classrooms is dedicated to the improvement of speaking skills. A new curriculum or a shift of

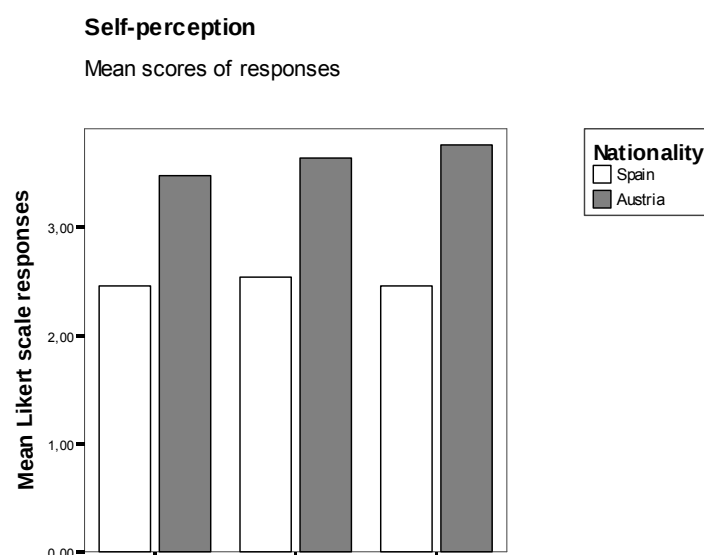
focus in teaching might be necessary to negate the language anxiety felt by Galician students. Further research in this area is necessary.

Interpreting the mean scores of responses given to the questions related to self-assessment in the target language leads to a similar conclusion: Galician students are fairly uncertain about their language competence in English.

Table 21: Self-perception

T-Test for Independent Variables: Self-Perception					
Nationality		N	Mean	Square deviation	Square deviation of mean
Qu. 37	Spain	96	2.45	1.014	.104
	Austria	96	3.47	.615	.063
Qu. 38	Spain	96	2.54	1.065	.109
	Austria	96	3.63	.528	.054
Qu. 40	Spain	96	2.45	1.230	.126
	Austria	96	3.75	.481	.049

Figure 35: Self perception



All mean scores of Likert scale responses concerning answers from Spanish students are below 3 (on a scale from 1 to 4; '1' expressing strong disagreement and '4' expressing strong agreement), meaning that they tend to *'disagree'* or *'strongly disagree'* with the statements given. Austrian students, in comparison, are much more confident. The average Austrian participant chose answer option 3 (*'agree'*) or

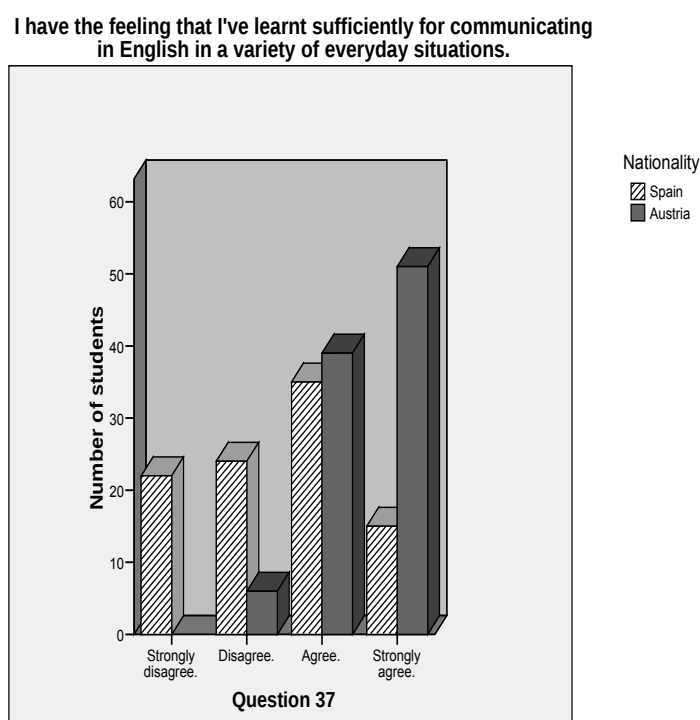
4 (*‘strongly agree’*), showing that they think their linguistic level is good enough to communicate in English successfully.

Table 22: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Standard Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Qu. 37	Variances are equal	34.717	.000	-8.433	190	.000	-1.021	.121	-1.260	-.782
	Variances are not equal			-8.433	156.500	.000	-1.021	.121	-1.260	-.782
Qu.38	Variances are equal	14.489	.000	-8.926	190	.000	-1.083	.121	-1.323	-.844
	Variances are not equal			-8.926	139.033	.000	-1.083	.121	-1.323	-.843
Qu.40	Variances are equal	49.160	.000	-9.659	190	.000	-1.302	.135	-1.568	-1.036
	Variances are not equal			-9.659	123.415	.000	-1.302	.135	-1.569	-1.035

The t-test for independent samples shows a highly significant difference between Austrian and Galician students. The test statistic for question 37 *‘I have the feeling that I’ve learnt enough for communicating in English in a variety of everyday situations’* is $t = -8.433$, with 190 degrees of freedom and an associated P value of $p = 0.000$; $t(190) = -8.433$, $p \leq 0.000$. The score of question 38 *‘If I speak English, people normally understand me’* is $t(190) = -8.929$, $p \leq 0.000$; this indicates a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The t-test statistic for question 40 *‘I think that my knowledge of English is sufficient for communicating in English if necessary’* confirms a considerable significance as well: $t(190) = -9.659$, $p \leq 0.000$.

Figure 36: Question 37

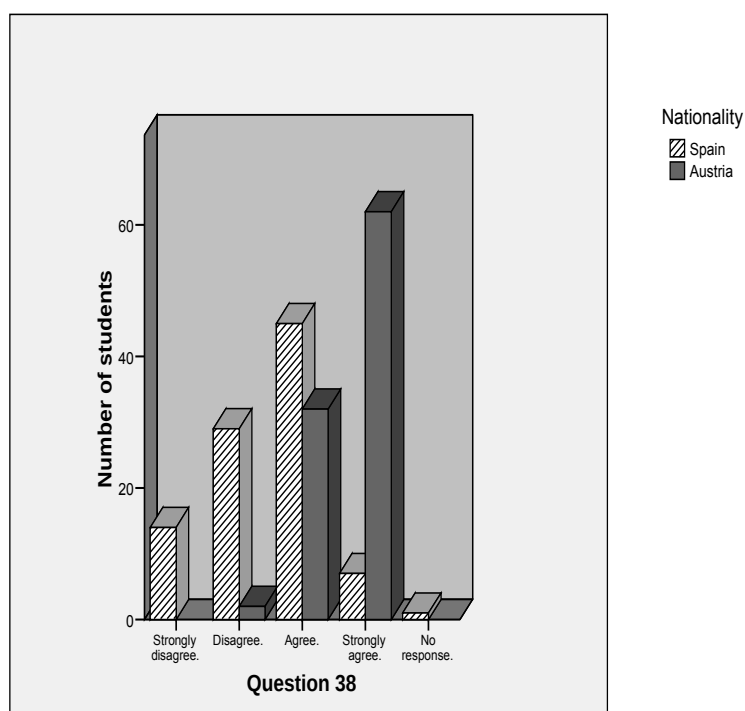


Nearly half of Spanish learners taking part in the study (47.9%) state that they 'strongly disagree' or 'disagree' with the statement '*I have the feeling that I've learnt enough for communicating in English in a variety of everyday situations.*' (question 37), which is a comparatively high number. In comparison, 93.8% of Austrian students 'agree' or 'strongly agree' with this statement with only 6.2% stating that they 'strongly disagree' or 'disagree'.

More than a third of Galician participants (44.8%) state that they are not understood when speaking English! Only 7.3% say that they 'strongly agree' with question 38 ('*If I speak English, people normally understand me.*').

Figure 37: Question 38

If I speak English, people normally understand me.



Quotations chosen from the Spanish questionnaires illustrate the empirical findings: Galician students are afraid of not being understood and being involved in disagreeable and embarrassing situations. They claim that they do not speak English for the following reasons:

Porque tengo miedo de que no me entiendan [...] . (No. 16)
(Because I'm afraid that they don't understand me.)

Porque no sé hablar bien inglés y me da vergüenza sí meto la pata. (No. 25)
(Because I don't know English very well and it is embarrassing to be at fault.)

Porque no tendría el mismo nivel de inglés y me daría vergüenza. (No. 87)
(Because I don't speak English very well and I would be embarrassed if I made a mistake.)

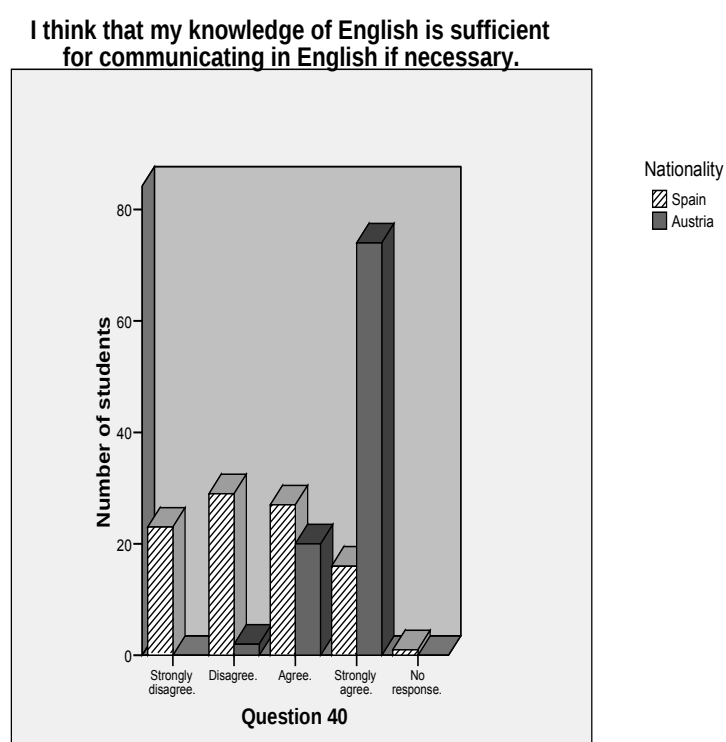
One of the few students who tried to overcome her fear and used English despite of his/her speaking anxiety, stated that it seems that she was not understood - a disappointing experience, which will probably make her think twice before using English again in the future:

[M]e parecía que el resto no me entendía. (No. 18)
(I had the feeling that the rest didn't understand me.)

In contrast, the majority of Austrian participants is absolutely sure that they would be understood if they spoke in English (64.4% '*strongly agree*'; only 1% of them '*disagree*').

Responses to question 40 ('*I think that my knowledge of English is sufficient for communicating in English if necessary.*') are similar.

Figure 38: Question 40



The majority of Spanish students does not think so (23.8% '*strongly disagree*' and 30.2% '*disagree*'), whereas nearly all of the Austrian participants confirm that they feel sufficiently competent (20.8% '*agree*' and 77% '*strongly agree*').

In other words, only 19.5% (!) of Galician participants see themselves as capable of communicating in English if necessary, compared to 97.8% of Austrian participants.

Austrian students seem to enjoy speaking in English and are ready to overcome shyness or anxiety in order to communicate:

Anfangs ist man etwas unsicher, aber je mehr man sich unterhält umso besser wird es und man wird auch trotz Grammatik- oder Vokabelfehler verstanden. (No. 89)

Manchmal muss man einfach den Mut haben, über seinen Schatten zu springen und was ist schon dabei, einfach zu fragen. (No. 53)

Obviously, many of them received positive feedback in speaking situations, which increased their self-confidence and will probably encourage them to use English again in the future:

Ich habe erkannt, dass ich keine großen Verständigungsprobleme habe. (No. 92)

[...] Ich habe so geredet wie immer und mich hat niemand beim Sprechen ausgebessert. (No.45)

10.8.1. Language Anxiety

As already mentioned briefly, linguistic self-perception is closely connected to Language Anxiety. Researchers found that anxious students “[...] tend to underestimate their ability and less anxious students tend to overestimate their ability” (see for example Macintyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997 quoted in Hashimoto 2002:37). Also, studies (MacIntyre 1994; MacIntyre & Charos 1996; Hashimoto 2002) have proved that L2 anxiety has a direct influence on perceived competence (cf. Hashimoto 2002:57). This proves that perceived competence and Language Anxiety have a reciprocal relationship.

Speaking anxiety is a phenomenon that exists among all language learners, no matter in what culture they have grown up or how good their language skills are. The fundamental question is whether they are capable of overcoming this anxiety or not.

According to Young (2001) “Spanish students [...] excel in grammar and vocabulary, yet are often deficient in speaking skills” (Young 2001:301). Spanish learners of English seem to associate an “[...] ingrained fear of looking ridiculous [...]” (Young Alexander 2001:301) with foreign language learning.

Galician teachers interviewed in this study agreed that their students have a very strong ‘sentido del ridículo’, meaning that they avoid speaking English due to the fact that they feel silly or stupid. This fear is common among all language learners, a fact affirmed by the results obtained from the questionnaire. As shown in the preceding section Austrian learners rate their linguistic competence as sufficient for

speaking in a variety of situations. Still, speaking in a language that is not your own, will cause unpleasant feelings such as shame, dread or:

[Ich habe mich beim Sprechen unwohl gefühlt] weil ich oft nicht gewusst habe, wie ich mich genau ausdrücken soll [...] (No. 77)

Ich spreche nicht so viel, weil ich Angst habe, mich zu versprechen und mich zu blamieren bzw. dass mich die Person nicht versteht[...]. (No. 16)

The statement of the Galician student shows that speaking anxiety does not only cause unpleasant feelings but might even inhibit communication:

[...] por mucho inglés que sepa no sería capaz de preguntar por miedo al que pensarán. (No.15)
(Although I know English, I wouldn't feel able to ask for fear of what they will think of me.)

Clément (1997) found a correlation between Language Anxiety and perceived competence. According to him, “[...] individuals who are highly anxious about communicating tend to perceive their communication competence to be lower than it is rated by a neutral observer” (Gardner 1997 quoted MacIntyre et al. 2002:540). This finding would explain why Spanish learners avoid possible speaking situations because of fear of committing errors. As shown in the previous section, they simply do not feel competent enough to cope with every day communication situations.

Elaborating the research findings further, it can be concluded that strategies in reducing Language Anxiety would increase perceived competence, or, an increase of linguistic skills would lead to a disappearance of Language Anxiety and, thus, to an increase of communication in the foreign language (cf. MacIntyre et al. 2002:556).

This, in turn, would provide the students with more opportunities to practise and to gain self-confidence, which would motivate them to speak more in the future.

11. Concluding remarks

The major aims of this project were to gain insights into why students use English in their leisure time, what motivates them to use English and compare perceptions of Lower Austrian and Galician learners. The findings should help teachers to understand why their students want to learn English, when they use it outside the classroom and which factors affect them negatively and result in a reluctance to speak.

There is no doubt that motivation to learn and speak the target language is a decisive factor when it comes to achieving success in the language learning process. Results of various studies (see for example Hashimoto 2002) confirm that students who have greater motivation for language learning report using the language more frequently (cf. Hashimoto 2002:40). As everyday use of the language is an aim of every language course, increasing motivation to communicate should be a fundamental aim of language teachers. In order to achieve this, teachers have to know about their students' attitudes towards the English language, how and when the students wish to use the language and their experience to date with English. This paper analyses the results from a survey conducted in Krems and Santiago de Compostela which aimed to investigate these issues.

In the first part of the paper, a number of theoretical frameworks which attempt to understand factors influencing language learning motivation were discussed. The model that has dominated the field, Gardner's 'Socio-Educational Model', supports the existence of individual differences, which are strongly influenced by external factors such as personality traits, family background and acquisition context. Gardner introduces the distinction of 'Integrativeness' and 'Instrumentality', which has contributed to an extensive debate among researchers. More recent research in this field, has increased the emphasis put on the immediate learning environment (see for example Crookes & Schmidt, 1991) as well as on social, personal and educational factors (see Dörnyei, 1994). Also, increasing importance has been placed on the learner's responsibility and autonomy in learning a language (see Ryan and Deci, 1985). One of the most recent theories, Dörnyei's 'L2 Motivational Self System' (2005), places the language learner at the centre of this area of research.

The study conducted in Galicia and Lower Austria consisted of an analysis of students' responses (n=192) to a questionnaire designed for this purpose and interviews conducted with local English teachers. Results showed that learners mostly talk to tourists visiting their countries (24.9% of all respondents) in their leisure time. Galician and Austrian learners also use English to chat on the internet and communicate in foreign countries. When comparing the two countries under consideration, it was found out that the participants use English for different purposes. A key finding of this study is the conclusion that Galician learners, compared to their Austrian peers, use the English language in fewer situations for communication in their free time. Nearly one third of Austrian participants uses

English for communication with native speakers, whereas only 15.1% of Galician learners. Also, when communicating with non-native speakers, Austrian participants do better: 37% of them make use of English in speaking situations with speakers whose first language is other than English compared to only 13.5% of the Galician learners. 78.1% of Galician participants have never been to an anglophone country compared to only 38.3% of Austrian students who have not made such a visit. A vast majority (79.8%) of Spanish students have never used English in a country where English is not the official language (In comparison: only 11.5% of Austrian students have not done so). A possible explanation of these facts is that Galician learners who participated in the study might come from a deprived socio-economic background and simply do not get the opportunity to visit foreign countries. Also, the fact that Galicia is considered a fairly isolated autonomous region might explain why contact with foreigners is less frequent.

Concerning the use of 'English media', results clearly show that participants from Krems have more frequent contact with the English language in this context. This could be due to various reasons. The most obvious explanation would be that Spanish learners do not have the same access to 'English media' as the Austrian participants.

It was also found that Galician participants do not often use the English language in their leisure time (96.9% of them '*strongly disagree*' or '*disagree*' with the statement '*I often use English outside the classroom*'). In comparison, 29.2% of their Austrian peers state that they often use English in their free time. As argued previously, it might be possible that the Spanish participants under consideration do not have as many opportunities to use the English language outside the classroom. It is also possible that in potential speaking situations the Spanish learners avoid to use English. This avoidance is closely connected to one of the theoretical frameworks on which the choice of questions was based: MacIntyre's (1998) construct of 'Willingness to Communicate' (WTC). This construct seeks to evaluate why some individuals seek contact, whereas others try to avoid speaking in the target language. According to MacIntyre, WTC is influenced by various factors such as language anxiety or linguistic self-perception (cf. MacIntyre et al. 1998, Hashimoto 2002). Assuming that these factors might have a considerable influence on students' willingness to initiate a conversation in the target language, careful attention was paid to these parameters. The analysis of various items concerning Language Anxiety and

Linguistic Self-perception showed that Galician participants generally do not feel capable of coping with speaking situations in English. They are very doubtful about their linguistic competence: 34 ($n=34$; total number of Spanish participants: $n=96$) students indicated in the questionnaires that they are not convinced of their ability to communicate successfully in English. Nearly half of Spanish learners taking part in the study (47.9%) state that they '*strongly disagree*' or '*disagree*' with the statement '*I have the feeling that I've learnt enough for communicating in English in a variety of everyday situations.*' Their doubts might come from negative experiences they have had when using the target language: 44.8% of Galician participants state that they are not understood when speaking English!

In comparison, their Austrian peers feel much more confident when using this language: the average Austrian student '*agrees*' or '*strongly agrees*' with the statement '*I have the feeling that I've learnt enough for communicating in English in a variety of everyday situations.*'

Studies clearly show that anxiety has a "[...] strong and direct negative influence on perceived competence [...]" (Hashimoto 2002:57). In other words, if a student feels very anxious, it is probable that s/he will underestimate his/her ability in the foreign language (cf. Macintyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997 quoted in Hashimoto 2002:37). The fear of committing errors is prevalent among language learners. The analysis of responses given in the questionnaires show that more than a third of the Galician participants avoid English because they are apprehensive about speaking incorrectly. A vast majority of Austrian participants (87.5%) '*strongly disagree(s)*' or '*disagree(s)*' with the statement '*When I speak English outside the classroom, it is not so important for me if I speak 'correct' English. The most important factor for me is to make myself understood*', meaning that the majority of them does not avoid using English because of fear of committing errors.

Concerning students' types of motivation this investigation clearly shows that the participants mostly use English as a lingua franca in situations where they cannot make use of their mother tongue. Austrian and Spanish students mostly use English in communication with non-native speakers and acknowledge the importance English has as a language for international communication.

The findings obtained from this study are intended to help teachers to understand why their students want to learn English, for what reasons they use it outside the classroom and which factors affect them negatively and result in a

reluctance to speak. Knowledge of the factors influencing motivation to learn will enable teachers to focus their lessons more effectively on their learners' needs and, thus, make the teaching and learning process more successful. By increasing 'Willingness to Communicate' (cf. MacIntyre 1998) students will initiate communication in the target language and in this way test their linguistic competence, expand their knowledge and further increase their motivation to learn. For these reasons it is crucial to know in what situations learners use English in their leisure time in order to prepare them for these speaking situations in the classroom.

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13. Appendix

13.1. Appendix 1: Abstract (English)

This study examines the types of motivation shown by students when using English in their leisure time and compares perceptions of Lower Austrian and Galician learners. The aim of this paper is to find out what motivates learners of English to use the language outside the classroom, which factors affect them negatively and result in a reluctance to speak, how learners in Lower Austria and Galicia perceive their linguistic competence and whether they have the same types of motivation to speak English in their leisure time.

Previous research has shown that motivation to learn a second/foreign language is a decisive factor when it comes to success and achievement. Also, it has been proven that positive experiences in the target language increase 'Willingness to communicate' and encourage learners to actually use what they have learnt at school. The present study tries to combine different theoretical approaches and apply them to a specific context.

Data was primarily obtained from an analysis of responses given in a questionnaire designed for this purpose. Participants were students aged between 16 and 18 from Lower Austria and from Galicia ($n=192$). Furthermore, local English teachers were briefly interviewed to give an understanding of the specific educational circumstances of the students.

The data analysis clearly shows that participants from both countries mainly use English as a lingua franca in situations where they cannot make use of their mother tongue. Austrian and Spanish students mostly use English in communication with non-native speakers and acknowledge the importance English has as a language for international communication. Also, it was found that communication with tourists who visit their countries and chatting on the Internet and communication in foreign countries are the most frequent uses of the target language. A key finding of this study is that Galician learners, compared to their Austrian peers, use the English language in fewer situations for communication in their free time. Galician participants have fewer experiences of anglophone countries and do not use English as frequently as Austrian learners. Concerning the use of 'English media', results clearly show that participants from Krems have more frequent contact with English literature, films and music. An important finding is that Galician participants are very unsure about their linguistic competence. 47.9% of them state that they do not know

enough to communicate successfully in their leisure time and 44.8% say that they are not understood when speaking English. In comparison, their Austrian peers feel much more confident when using this language: the average student feels capable of coping with ordinary speaking situations.

Galician students' low assessment of their linguistic competence could be explained by a lack of positive experiences in the target language, a considerably high grade of language anxiety and teaching methods and curriculum. In order to prove these presumptions, further research is necessary.

13.2. Appendix 2: Zusammenfassung (German)

Das Ziel dieser Diplomarbeit ist es herauszufinden, inwieweit niederösterreichische und galizische SchülerInnen motiviert sind, Englisch in ihrer Freizeit zu verwenden.

Diese Arbeit soll zeigen, in welchen Situationen die TeilnehmerInnen die englische Sprache außerhalb der Schule benutzen, welche Faktoren sie negativ beeinflussen und mögliche Kommunikation in der Fremdsprache verhindern, wie österreichische und spanische SchülerInnen ihre sprachlichen Kompetenzen einschätzen und ob sie die gleichen Motivationen haben, in ihrer Freizeit Englisch zu sprechen.

Zahlreiche Studien belegen, dass Motivation einen entscheidenden Einfluss auf den Sprachlernprozess in einer Zweit- oder Fremdsprache hat. Positive Erlebnisse in der Zielsprache erhöhen die Sprechbereitschaft und ermutigen die Lernenden, das in der Schule Gelernte aktiv in der Freizeit anzuwenden. Die gegenwärtige Studie versucht, verschiedene wissenschaftliche Ansätze zu verknüpfen und sie auf einen speziellen Kontext zu übertragen.

Die Ergebnisse basieren auf der Datenanalyse eines eigens dafür erstellten Fragebogens. 192 SchülerInnen zwischen 16 und 18 Jahren aus Niederösterreich und Galizien nahmen an der Studie teil. Außerdem wurden kurze Gespräche mit den EnglischlehrerInnen geführt, um mehr über die spezifische Schulsituation herauszufinden. Der Datenvergleich zeigt deutlich, dass TeilnehmerInnen beider Länder Englisch vordergründig in Situationen verwenden, in denen sie nicht von ihrer Muttersprache Gebrauch machen können. Österreichische und spanische SchülerInnen verwenden Englisch hauptsächlich in der internationalen Kommunikation und sind sich der Wichtigkeit dieser Sprache bewusst. Am häufigsten verwenden die SchülerInnen die englische Sprache, um mit Touristen, die das eigene Land besuchen, zu sprechen, um im Internet zu chatten oder um sich in fremden Ländern verständlich zu machen. Ein zentrales Ergebnis der Untersuchung ist, dass galizische Lernende, verglichen mit ihren österreichischen KollegInnen, die englische Sprache weniger häufig benutzen. TeilnehmerInnen aus Niederösterreich kommen häufiger in Kontakt mit englischen Medien (Literatur, Film, Musik) und haben mehr Erfahrungen in englischsprachigen Ländern gesammelt.

Ein bemerkenswertes Ergebnis ist, dass galizische Schüler sehr an ihrer sprachlichen Kompetenz zweifeln: 47,9% sind überzeugt, dass sie nicht genug gelernt hätten, um erfolgreich in der Fremdsprache zu kommunizieren; 44,8% meinen, sie würden nicht verstanden werden, wenn sie auf Englisch sprechen.

Im Vergleich dazu fühlen sich österreichische SchülerInnen deutlich sicherer: Der/die durchschnittliche österreichische TeilnehmerIn fühlt sich dazu im Stande, mit normalen Alltagssituationen in der Fremdsprache zurecht zu kommen.

Die niedrige Einschätzung der eigenen sprachlichen Kompetenz bei diesen SchülerInnen könnte durch fehlende positive Erlebnisse in der Zielsprache, einen hohen Grad von Sprechangst, mögliche antiquierte Lehrmethoden oder andere schulische Rahmenbedingungen erklärt werden. Um diese Vermutungen wissenschaftlich zu belegen, sind weitere Studien nötig.

10.3. Appendix 3: Questionnaire Spanish

Cuestionario

¿Cuál sería tu reacción en las situaciones siguientes? Por favor, elige una opción.

1. Situación 1: *Observo unos turistas que miran el mapa confundidos. Hablan un idioma que no entiendo. Una persona del grupo habla no inglesa se acerca y me pregunta en inglés con marcado acento extranjero si puedo ayudarles.*

- ☐ Muevo la cabeza negando, y sigo mi camino.
- ☐ Indico el camino en la mapa, pero no les hablo en inglés.
- ☐ Intento ayudarle en inglés.
- ☐ Otra reacción:.....

→ ¿Por qué? Por favor, explica tu respuesta.

.....

.....

2. Situación 2: *Observo unos turistas que miran el mapa confundidos. Hablan inglés. Una persona de la grupa se acerca y me pregunta en inglés si puedo ayudarles.*

- ☐ Muevo la cabeza negando, y sigo mi camino.
- ☐ Indico el camino en la mapa, pero no les hablo en inglés.
- ☐ Intento ayudarle en inglés.
- ☐ Otra reacción:.....

→ ¿Por qué? Por favor, explica tu respuesta.

.....

.....

3. Situación 3: *Estoy de vacaciones con mi familia en Italia. Nadie de nosotros habla italiano y yo soy la unica persona que habla inglés. Necesitamos una información sobre los trenes y los trayectos.*

- ☐ Intentamos averiguar el horario de los trenes y no preguntamos a nadie.
- ☐ Intentamos gesticular para que la gente entienda que queremos. No hablo en inglés
- ☐ Me acerco al mostrador y pregunto si alguien habla inglés y me puede ayudar.
- ☐ Otra reacción:.....

→ ¿Por qué? Por favor, explica tu respuesta.

.....

.....

4. Situación 4: *Estoy de vacaciones en Londres con mi familia. Soy la unica persona que habla inglés. Necesitamos una información sobre los trenes y los trayectos.*

- ☐ Intentamos averiguar el horario de los trenes y no preguntamos a nadie.
- ☐ Intentamos gesticular para que la gente entienda que queremos. No hablo en inglés
- ☐ Me acerco al mostrador y pregunto si alguien habla inglés y me puede ayudar.
- ☐ Otra reacción:.....

→ ¿Por qué? Por favor, explica tu respuesta.

.....					Si	No		
Por favor, haga un circulo en <u>una cifra</u> correspondiente.								
5.	Me gusta hablar en inglés con gente.	4	3	2	1			
6.	Fuera del aula, hablo inglés frecuentemente.	4	3	2	1			
7.	Estoy contento/a que el inglés es una asignatura en el colegio, porque necesito este idioma frecuentemente.	4	3	2	1			
8.	Si me doy cuenta de que alguien es del extranjero y de que no habla castellano/gallego, le ayudo en inglés con mucho gusto.	4	3	2	1			
9.	Si me doy cuenta de que alguien no habla castellano o gallego, evito ponerme en contacto.	4	3	2	1			
10.	Mi conocimiento del inglés me puede ayudar en mi vida profesional, como por ejemplo que podría recibir un puesto de trabajo más alto.	4	3	2	1			
11.	El poder hablar inglés me hace una persona más cualificada.	4	3	2	1			
12.	Para mí, el conocimiento del inglés es muy importante porque los jefes en una entrevista de trabajo lo consideran algo prioritario.	4	3	2	1			
13.	Aprender el inglés es importante para mí, porque en el futuro la gente me respetará más si sé hablar una lengua extranjera.	4	3	2	1			
14.	Aprender el ingles es importante porque así puedo comunicarme con gente de países donde se habla el inglés.	4	3	2	1			
15.	El inglés es importante para mi porque quiero entender mejor la cultura de países anglófonos.	4	3	2	1			
16.	Quiero saber el inglés porque es un „idioma mundial“ y hay mucha gente que lo saben hablar.	4	3	2	1			
17.	El inglés me permite ponerme en contacto con otras culturas.	4	3	2	1			
18.	Con el conocimiento del inglés puedo comunicarme en todos los países extranjeros, por eso quiero aprenderlo.	4	3	2	1			
19.	Me intereso por países anglófonos por eso quiero aprender el idioma.	4	3	2	1			
20.	Cada vez más palabras españolas/gallegas estan substituidas por palabras inglesas (en periódicos, por ejemplo). Eso no me gusta nada	4	3	2	1			
21.	Creo que el inglés tendrá demasiado poder y así reprimirá el castellano/gallego.	4	3	2	1			
22.	Creo que es importante que los europeos entiendan y sepan hablar inglés.	4	3	2	1			
23.	Mis padres creen que es muy importante aprender inglés.	4	3	2	1			
24.	Mis padres me animan a aprender el inglés.	4	3	2	1			
25.	Me da igual lo que dicen mis padres sobre el inglés.	4	3	2	1			

26. Quiero hablar un inglés correcto también en mi tiempo libre.
Antes de cometer un error, prefiero no hablar nada y por eso evito el inglés fuera del aula.
- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|

Por favor, haga un círculo en una cifra correspondiente. **Si** **No**

28. Creo que es importante usar el inglés también fuera del aula.
- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|

→ ¿Por qué/ Por qué no?

.....

29. En una situación ya había podido aprovechar mi conocimiento del inglés.
- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|

→ Si había una situación así, por favor descríbela.

.....

Por favor marca tu(s) respuesta(s), también puedes marcar varias respuestas.

30. Si utilizo el inglés en mi tiempo libre, hablo sobre todo con...
- o amigos
 - o mi familia (padres/ hermanos/ parientes)
 - o mi profesor/a particular
 - o turistas que visitan mi país
 - o empleados de hoteles/ vendedores etc. (durante vacaciones)
 - o en el chat en internet
 - o otros:.....

31. Utilizo el inglés fuera del aula sobre todo...
- o para conversar con gente de países anglófonos
 - o para conversar con gente del extranjero que hablan otro idioma
 - o para conversar con mis conocidos del chat (Internet)
 - o para ayudar turistas (dar razón de algo etc.)
 - o en mis vacaciones en el extranjero
 - o otros:

32. ¿Ya has estado una vez en un país anglófono? (Grande Bretagna, E.E.U.U., Irlanda etc.)

o si o no

→ Sí has marcado si, dónde y por cuánto tiempo? ¿Con quién estuviste?

.....

33. ¿Tienes planes para ir a un país anglófono en el futuro próximo?

o si o no

→ Sí has marcado si, dónde y por cuánto tiempo? ¿Con quién viajarás?

.....

34. ¿Has hablado alguna vez inglés en un país anglófono?

o si o no

→ Si respondes no, por favor, responde directamente la pregunta 35.

→ Sí respondes si, por favor marca una de las posibilidades:

a) Me he sentido muy seguro/a hablando el inglés. 4 3 2 1

b) He podido mejorar mucho mi conocimiento del inglés. 4 3 2 1

¿Por qué/ Por qué no? Por favor, explica tu respuesta brevemente.
.....

35. ¿Has hablado inglés en el extranjero donde el inglés no es la lengua oficial?

o si o no

→ Sí respondes no, por favor, responde directamente la pregunta 36.

→ Sí si, por favor marca una de las posibilidades:

Si **No**

a) Me he sentido muy seguro/a hablando el inglés. 4 3 2 1

b) He podido mejorar mucho mi conocimiento del inglés. 4 3 2 1

¿Por qué/ Por qué no? Por favor, explica tu respuesta brevemente.
.....

36. A parte del colegio, usas el inglés a veces en tu tiempo libre aquí en Galicia?

o si o no

→ Sí respondes no, por favor, responde directamente la pregunta 37.

→ Sí respondes si, por favor marca una de las posibilidades:

Si **No**

a) Me he sentido muy seguro/a hablando el inglés. 4 3 2 1

b) He podido mejorar mucho mi conocimiento del inglés. 4 3 2 1

¿Por qué/ Por qué no? Por favor, explica tu respuesta brevemente.
.....

Por favor, haga un círculo en una cifra correspondiente.

Si **No**

37. Tengo la sensación de que he aprendido suficiente para poder comunicarme en inglés en una variedad de situaciones cotidianas. 4 3 2 1

38. Si hablo en inglés, la gente normalmente me entiende. 4 3 2 1

39. Si alguien me habla en la calle espontáneamente en inglés, no sé como reaccionar. 4 3 2 1

40. Creo que mis conocimientos del inglés son suficientes para poder comunicarme en inglés si es necesario. 4 3 2 1

41. En mi tiempo libre, leo libros en inglés. 4 3 2 1

42. En mi tiempo libre, veo películas en versión original en inglés. 4 3 2 1

43. En mi tiempo libre, escucho programas de radio en inglés. 4 3 2 1

44. En mi tiempo libre, escucho música anglófona. 4 3 2 1

Por favor, marca una opción.

Soy ☐ hombre ☐ mujer

Anteriormente, estuve en... ☐ un colegio público ☐ un colegio concertado
☐ un colegio privado ☐ otro

Mi país de origen:Otros países en las cuales he vivido
 más de 6 meses.

Mi lengua materna: **¡Muchas gracias por
 tu ayuda!**



10.4. Appendix 4: Questionnaire German

Wie würdest du in den folgenden Situationen reagieren? Bitte kreuze eine Möglichkeit an.

1. Situation 1: Ich beobachte, wie einige Touristen verwirrt auf den Stadtplan schauen. Sie sprechen eine Sprache miteinander, die ich nicht verstehe. Eine Person aus der Gruppe kommt auf mich zu und fragt mich mit gebrochenem Englisch, ob ich weiterhelfen kann.

- ☐ Ich schüttle den Kopf und gehe weiter.
- ☐ Ich zeige den Weg auf dem Stadtplan, spreche aber nicht auf Englisch.
- ☐ Ich versuche, ihm so gut wie möglich auf Englisch weiterzuhelfen.
- ☐ Andere Reaktion

→ Warum? Bitte erkläre deine Antwort kurz.

.....

2. Situation 2: Ich beobachte, wie einige Touristen verwirrt auf den Stadtplan schauen. Sie sprechen Englisch miteinander. Eine Person aus der Gruppe kommt auf mich zu und fragt mich auf Englisch, ob ich weiterhelfen kann.

- ☐ Ich schüttle den Kopf und gehe weiter.
- ☐ Ich zeige den Weg auf dem Stadtplan, spreche aber nicht auf Englisch.
- ☐ Ich versuche, ihm so gut wie möglich auf Englisch weiterzuhelfen.
- ☐ Andere Reaktion

→ Warum? Bitte erkläre deine Antwort kurz.

.....

3. Situation 3: *Ich bin mit meiner Familie in Italien auf Urlaub. Keiner von uns spricht Italienisch und ich bin die einzige Person, die Englisch kann. Wir brauchen eine Zugauskunft.*

- o Wir versuchen, die Zugzeiten vom Fahrplan abzulesen und fragen niemanden.
- o Wir versuchen mit Händen und Füßen zu gestikulieren, damit die Leute verstehen, was wir wollen. Ich spreche nicht auf Englisch.
- o Ich gehe zum Schalter und frage, ob jemand Englisch spricht und mir helfen kann.
- o Andere Reaktion

→ Warum? Bitte erkläre deine Antwort kurz.

.....

.....

4. Situation 4: *Ich bin mit meiner Familie in London auf Urlaub. Ich bin die einzige Person, die Englisch kann. Wir brauchen eine Zugauskunft.*

- o Wir versuchen, die Zugzeiten vom Fahrplan abzulesen und fragen niemanden.
- o Wir versuchen mit Händen und Füßen zu gestikulieren, damit die Leute verstehen, was wir wollen. Ich spreche nicht auf Englisch.
- o Ich gehe zum Schalter und frage auf Englisch nach den Zugzeiten.
- o Andere Reaktion

Bitte kreise <u>jeweils eine</u> zutreffende Ziffer ein.	trifft völlig zu		trifft gar nicht zu	
.....				
5. Es macht mir Freude, mit Menschen Englisch zu reden.	4	3	2	1
6. Ich spreche sehr oft Englisch außerhalb des Unterrichts.	4	3	2	1
7. Ich bin froh, dass wir Englisch als Schulfach haben, denn ich brauche diese Sprache oft.	4	3	2	1
8. Wenn ich merke, dass jemand aus dem Ausland kommt und kein Deutsch spricht, helfe ich gerne auf Englisch weiter.	4	3	2	1
9. Wenn ich weiß, dass jemand kein Deutsch spricht, vermeide ich den Kontakt.	4	3	2	1
10. Englisch ermöglicht mir Aufstiegschancen in der Arbeitswelt.	4	3	2	1
11. Englisch zu können macht mich zu einer qualifizierteren Person.	4	3	2	1
12. Für mich ist es wichtig, gute Englischkenntnisse zu haben, denn darauf wird bei der Bewerbung für einen Job geachtet.	4	3	2	1
13. Englisch zu lernen ist wichtig für mich, denn später werden mich Menschen mehr respektieren, wenn ich eine Fremdsprache kann.	4	3	2	1
14. Englisch zu lernen ist wichtig, weil es mir ermöglicht, mit Menschen aus englischsprachigen Ländern zu sprechen.	4	3	2	1
15. Englisch ist wichtig für mich, denn ich möchte die Kultur englischsprachiger Länder besser verstehen.	4	3	2	1
16. Ich will Englisch können, weil es eine „Weltsprache“ ist und viele Leute es können.	4	3	2	1
17. Englisch ermöglicht mir, mit anderen Kulturen	4	3	2	1

in Kontakt zu kommen.

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 18. Mit Englisch „komme ich“ in fast jedem Land „durch“, deshalb will ich es lernen. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. Mich interessieren englischsprachige Länder, deshalb will ich die Sprache lernen. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. Immer mehr deutsche Wörter werden durch englische ersetzt (z.B. in Zeitungen). Ich mag das nicht. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 21. Ich glaube, dass die englische Sprache „übermächtig“ wird und die deutsche Sprache verdrängt. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 22. Ich glaube, es ist für Europäer wichtig, Englisch zu verstehen und verwenden zu können. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 23. Meine Eltern meinen, dass es wichtig ist, Englisch zu lernen. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 24. Meine Eltern ermutigen mich, Englisch zu lernen. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 25. Es ist mir egal, was meine Eltern über Englisch sagen. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 26. Auch in meiner Freizeit möchte ich sprachlich richtiges Englisch verwenden. Bevor ich Fehler mache, sage ich lieber gar nichts und vermeide Englisch in meiner Freizeit. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
27. **Bitte kreise jeweils eine zutreffende Ziffer ein.** trifft völlig zu trifft gar nicht zu
28. Das Wichtigste ist mir, verstanden zu werden.

→ Warum?/ Warum nicht?

- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 29. Mir hat es schon in einer Situation geholfen, Englisch zu können. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
- Wenn ja, bitte beschreibe kurz diese Situation.

Bitte kreuze an (Mehrfachantworten sind möglich):

30. Wenn ich Englisch in der Freizeit verwende, spreche ich hauptsächlich mit...
- ☐ o Freunden
 - ☐ o meiner Familie (Eltern/ Geschwister/ Verwandte)
 - ☐ o mit meinem/r NachhilfelehrerIn
 - ☐ o Touristen, die mein Land besuchen
 - ☐ o mit Hotelangestellten/ VerkäuferInnen etc. (im Urlaub)
 - ☐ o im Chat im Internet
 - ☐ o anderen:.....
31. Ich verwende Englisch außerhalb der Schule hauptsächlich...
- ☐ o um mich mit Menschen aus englischsprachigen Ländern zu unterhalten
 - ☐ o um mich mit Menschen aus dem Ausland zu unterhalten, die eine andere Sprache sprechen
 - ☐ o um mich mit Internetbekanntschaften im Chat zu unterhalten
 - ☐ o um Touristen zu helfen (Wegauskunft etc.)
 - ☐ o in den Ferien im Ausland
 - ☐ o sonstiges:

32. Warst du schon einmal im englischsprachigen Ausland (Großbritannien, USA, Irland, etc.)?

☐ ja ☐ nein

→ Wenn ja, wo und wie lange? Mit wem warst du unterwegs?

.....

33. Hast du in nächster Zeit einen Aufenthalt in einem englischsprachigen Land geplant?

☐ ja ☐ nein

→ Wenn ja, wo und wie lange? Mit wem wirst du unterwegs sein?

.....

34. Hast du in einem englischsprachigen Land schon auf Englisch kommuniziert?

☐ ja ☐ nein

→ Wenn nein, bitte gehe weiter zur Frage 35.

→ Wenn ja, bitte kreuze jeweils eine Antwortmöglichkeit an:

- | | trifft
völlig zu | | trifft
gar nicht zu | |
|--|---------------------|---|------------------------|---|
| a) Ich habe mich beim Englischreden sehr sicher gefühlt. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| b) Ich habe dabei meine Sprachfähigkeiten sehr verbessert. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Warum/ warum nicht? Bitte erkläre deine Antworten kurz:

.....

.

35. Hast du im nicht- englischsprachigen Ausland schon auf Englisch kommuniziert?

☐ ja ☐ nein

→ Wenn nein, bitte gehe weiter zur Frage 36.

→ Wenn ja, bitte kreuze jeweils eine Antwortmöglichkeit an:

- | | trifft
völlig zu | | trifft
gar nicht zu | |
|--|---------------------|---|------------------------|---|
| a) Ich habe mich beim Englischreden sehr sicher gefühlt. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| b) Ich habe dabei meine Sprachfähigkeiten sehr verbessert. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Warum/ warum nicht? Bitte erkläre deine Antworten kurz:

.....

.

36. Abgesehen von schulischen Dingen, verwendest du Englisch manchmal auch in deiner Freizeit in Österreich?

☐ ja ☐ nein

→ Wenn nein, bitte gehe weiter zur Frage 37.

→ Wenn ja, bitte kreuze jeweils eine Antwortmöglichkeit an:

- | | trifft
völlig zu | | trifft
gar nicht zu | |
|--|---------------------|---|------------------------|---|
| a) Ich fühle mich beim Englischreden sehr sicher. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| b) Ich habe das Gefühl,
dabei meine Sprachfähigkeiten sehr zu verbessern. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Warum/ warum nicht? Bitte erkläre deine Antworten kurz:

Bitte kreise jeweils eine zutreffende Ziffer ein.

	trifft völlig zu		trifft gar nicht zu	
37. Ich habe das Gefühl, dass ich in der Schule genug gelernt habe, um mich in verschiedenen Alltagssituationen auf Englisch zu verständigen.	4	3	2	1
38. Wenn ich auf Englisch rede, werde ich meistens verstanden.	4	3	2	1
39. Wenn mich spontan jemand auf der Straße auf Englisch anspricht, weiß ich nicht, wie ich reagieren soll.	4	3	2	1
40. Ich glaube, mein Englisch ist gut genug, um bei Bedarf auf Englisch zu kommunizieren.	4	3	2	1
41. Ich lese in meiner Freizeit englische Bücher.	4	3	2	1
42. Ich sehe in meiner Freizeit Filme in englischer Originalfassung an.	4	3	2	1
43. Ich höre in meiner Freizeit englischsprachige Radiosendungen.	4	3	2	1
44. Ich höre in meiner Freizeit englischsprachige Musik.	4	3	2	1

Bitte kreuze jeweils eine Antwort an.

Ich bin

☐ männlich

☐ weiblich

In der Unterstufe war ich in.... ☐ einer Hauptschule ☐ einem Gymnasium ☐ einer anderen Schulform

Mein Heimatland:Andere Länder, in denen ich länger als 6 Monate gelebt habe:

**Vielen Dank für deine
Mithilfe!**



10.5. Appendix 5: Lebenslauf (CV)

Lebenslauf

Persönliche Daten

Elisabeth Schauer
geboren am 5. Jänner 1986 in Horn, Österreich
österreich. Staatsbürgerin
ledig
Vater: Herbert Schauer, Dipl.-Päd., HS
Mutter: Regina Schauer, geb. Wingelhofer, Dipl.-Päd., HS, ASO
Geschwister: Maria (1988), Anna (1994)

Ausbildung

1992 – 1996	Volksschule Gars/Kamp
1996 – 2000	Hauptschule Gars/Kamp
Juni 2004	Matura mit Auszeichnung am Gymnasium PORG - „Englische Fräulein“, Krems
seit Oktober 2004	Lehramtsstudium in den Fächern Englisch und Geschichte, Universität Wien
September 2004 - März 2009	Ausbildungsschwerpunkt „Deutsch als Fremd-Zweitsprache“ an der Universität Wien abgeschlossenes Modul DaF/DaZ
September 2005	Hospitation und Praktika, „Rochester High School“, England
September 2006	Hospitation und Praktika, „Dunbar Grammar School“, Schottland
September 2007	Prüfung „Spanisch als Fremdsprache“, Niveau B1. Universität Santiago de Compostela, Spanien
September 2007-Juni 2008	Auslandsaufenthalt im Rahmen von ERASMUS in Santiago de Compostela, Spanien
Jänner 2008	Prüfung „Spanisch als Fremdsprache“, Niveau B2. Universität Santiago de Compostela, Spanien
Februar 2009- Juni 2009	Forschungsaufenthalt in Santiago de Compostela

Wien, 15.5.2009